



USAID
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GENDER BACKGROUND REPORT

VOLUME I: GENDER ANALYSIS FOR USAID/BOLIVIA



May 2012

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GENDER BACKGROUND REPORT

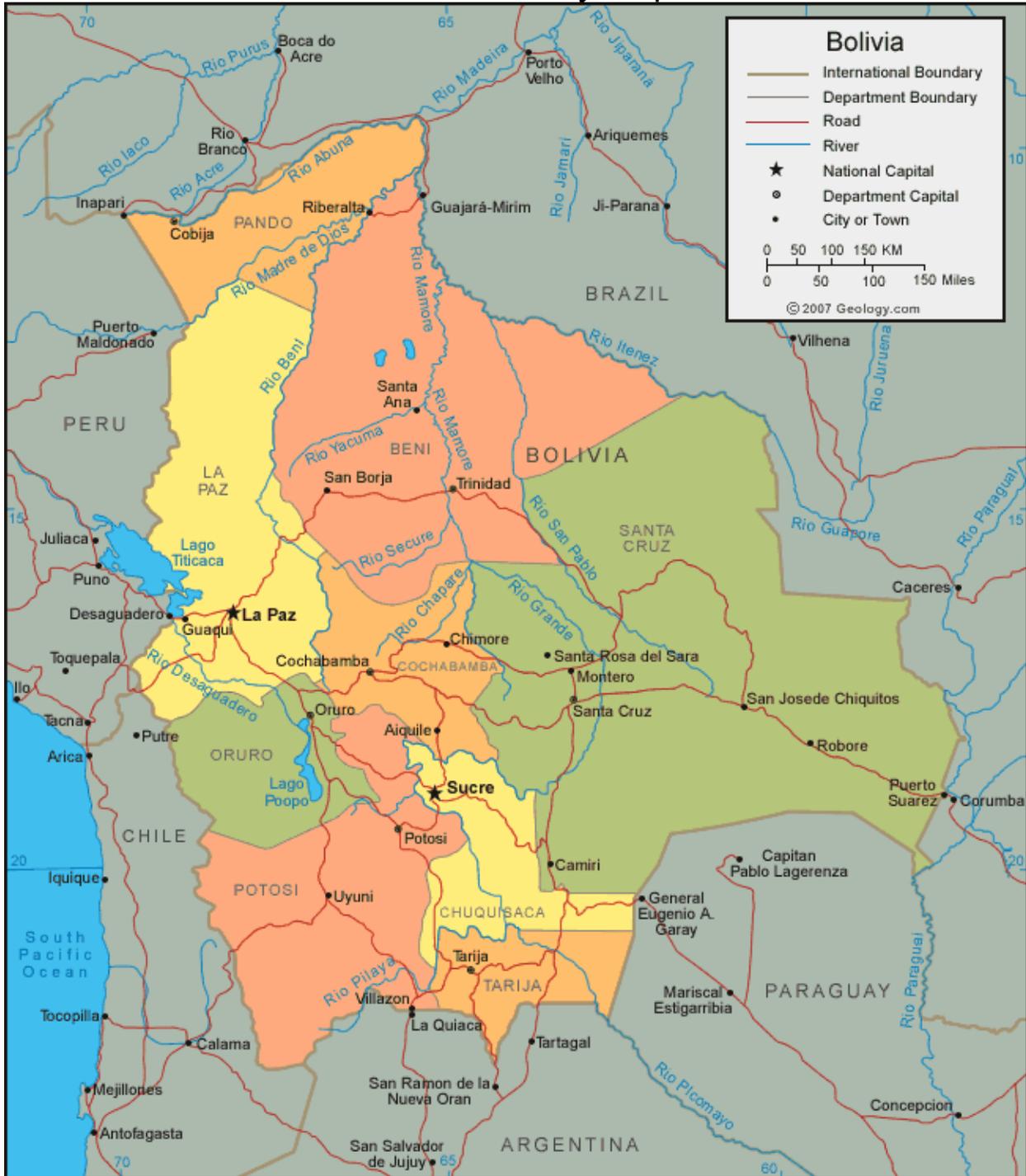
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Bolivia Country Map



Source: <http://geology.com/world/bolivia-satellite-image.shtml>

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments	iii
Acronyms	iv
Executive Summary	1
1. Background	9
2. Introduction: Advances and Ongoing Challenges	10
3. Bolivian Public Policy Framework in Support of Gender Equality	13
<i>3.1 Progress and Continuing Challenges</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>3.2 Current Political Discourse on Gender Equality</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>3.3 Gender Equality Policies and Organizational Structure</i>	<i>16</i>
4. Sustainable Economic Development	17
<i>4.1 Gender-based Inequalities and Gaps</i>	<i>17</i>
<i>4.2 USAID/Bolivia’s Future Work in Sustainable Development: Opportunities</i>	<i>28</i>
5. Sustainable Landscapes	31
<i>5.1 Gender-based Constraints and Gaps</i>	<i>31</i>
<i>5.2 USAID/Bolivia’s Future Work in Sustainable Landscapes: Opportunities</i>	<i>35</i>
6. Global Health Initiative	38
<i>6.1 Gender Gaps and Disparities</i>	<i>39</i>
<i>6.2 USAID/Bolivia’s Current and Future Work in Health: Opportunities</i>	<i>42</i>
7. Democracy and Governance	48
<i>7.1 Gender-based Constraints and Gaps for Democratic Governance</i>	<i>48</i>
<i>7.2 USAID/Bolivia’s Future Work in Democracy and Governance</i>	<i>52</i>
Conclusions	55
Annex 1: Bibliography	56
Annex 2: Basic Concepts	62
Annex 3: Additional Information on Bolivia’s Development Framework	65
Annex 4: Methodology	70
Annex 5: Scope of Work for Gender Analysis at the Strategy Level	78

LIST OF FIGURES, TABLES AND BOXES

Figure 1: Extreme Poverty in Bolivia by Sex (1996-2006)	11
Figure 2: Gender Policy of the Plurinational State of Bolivia	15
Figure 3: Bolivia 2006-2009: Number of Land Titles by Sex.....	20
Figure 4: Bolivia 2007-2010: Number of Hectares New Titled Land Holdings, By Year, By Sex	20
Figure 5: Bolivia 2003: Average Monthly Income by Main Activity, by Sex.....	25
Table 1: Reproductive Health Indicators (DHS, 2003, 2008).....	40
Table 2: Health Strategies	43
Figure 6: USAID Health Strategic Framework 2012-2017	44
Table 3: USAID Proposed Health Programs under the New CDCS	45
Table 4: National Political Participation of Men and Women 1997-2010	49
Figure 7: Number and Percentages of Women Council Members 1993-2010 (ACOBOL, 2011)	49
Figure 8: Comparison of Percentage of Women in the Judiciary Before and After the October 2011 Elections	50

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ACRONYMS

ACOBOL	Association of Bolivian Women Mayors and Council Members(<i>Asociación de Alcaldesas y Concejalas de Bolivia</i>)
ACS	Community Health Agent (<i>Agente Comunitario de Salud</i>)
AECI	Spanish Agency for International Cooperation (Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional)
ALS	Local Health Authority (<i>Autoridad Local de Salud</i>)
APG	Guarani Peoples' Assembly (Asamblea del Pueblo Guarani)
AORs	Agreement Officer's Representatives
APROSAR	<i>Asociación de Promotores de Salud de Área Rural</i>
ARCo	Rural Competitiveness Activity (<i>Actividad Rural Competitiva</i>)
BDP	Productive Development Bank (<i>Banco de Desarrollo Productivo</i>)
BEST	Best Practices at Scale in the Home, Community and Facilities
BOLFOR	Bolivian Forestry Project
BPC	Bolivian Productivity and Competitiveness Project
BS	Bartolina Sisa (see CNMCIOB below)
CABI	Guarani Captaincy of Upper and Lower Izozog (Capitanía de Alto y Bajo Izozog)
CAI	[Health] Information Analysis Committee (Comité de Análisis de Información)
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEPAL	<i>Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe</i> (Economic Commission of Latin America and the Caribbean)
CDCS	Country Development Cooperation Strategy
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIDEM	Center for Information and Women's Development (<i>Centro de Información y Desarrollo de la Mujer</i>)
CIDOB	Confederation of Indigenous Peoples of Bolivia (<i>Confederación de Pueblos Indígenas de Bolivia</i>)
CIES	Center for Investigation, Education, and Services
CISTAC	Social and Appropriate Technology Research and Training Center (<i>Centro de Investigación Social, Tecnología Apropriada, y Capacitación</i>)
CLS	Local Health Committees
CMS	SAFCI Municipal Health Council (<i>Consejo Municipal de Salud</i>)
CNMCIOB	National Confederation of Indigenous Original Peasant Women Bartolina Sisa (<i>Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Campesinas Indígenas Originarias de Bolivia Bartolina Sisa</i>)
CNS	SAFCI National Health Council (<i>Consejo Nacional de Salud</i>)
CONAMAQ	National Council of Ayllus and Indigenous Communities of Qullasuyu (<i>Consejo Nacional de Ayllus y Markas de Qullasuyu</i>)
COP	Conference of the Parties of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

CPE	Political Constitution of the Plurinational State of Bolivia (Constitución Política del Estado) 2009
CORs	Contracting Officer Representatives
CSUTCB	Unified Confederation of Workers and Peasant Unions (<i>Confederación Sindical Única de Trabajadores Campesinos de Bolivia</i>)
DDCP3	Democratic Development and Citizen Participation Project
DHS (ENDSA)	Demographic and Health Survey (<i>Encuesta Nacional de Demografía y Salud</i>)
DILOS	Local Health Directorate (Directorio Local de Salud)
DO	Development Objective
FP	Family Planning
FS	Food Security
FtF	Feed the Future
GA	Gender Analysis
GBV	Gender-based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHI	Global Health Initiative
GPSB	Government of the Plurinational State of Bolivia (<i>Gobierno del Estado Plurinacional de Bolivia</i>)
GIZ	German Agency for International Cooperation
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
IFFI	Feminist Integrated Development Institute (<i>Instituto de Formación Femenina Integral</i>)
IFS (ISA)	Integrated Food Security Project (<i>Proyecto Integral de Seguridad Alimentaria</i>)
INE	National Statistics Institute (<i>Instituto Nacional de Estadística</i>)
INRA	National Institute of the Agrarian Reform (<i>Instituto Nacional de la Reforma Agraria</i>)
IR	Intermediate Result
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean Region
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender community
LSMS (MECOVI)	Living Standards Measurement Study (<i>Medición de las Condiciones de Vida en América Latina y el Caribe</i>)
MARPS	Most at Risk Populations
MCHIP	Maternal & Child Health Integrated Program
MDGs (ODM)	Millennium Development Goals (Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio)
MECOVI	<i>Medición de las Condiciones de Vida en América Latina y el Caribe</i>
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MoH	Ministry of Health and Sports (<i>Ministerio de Salud y Deportes</i>)
MSM	Men who have sex with men
PAHO (OPS)	Pan American Health Organization (Organización Panamericana de Salud)

PDM	Municipal Development Plan (Plan de Desarrollo Municipal)
PEPFAR	President's Program for AIDS Relief
PMI	President's Malaria Initiative
POA	Annual Operational Plan (Plan Operacional Anual)
PROCOSI	Coordinated Integrated Health Program (<i>Programa de Coordinación en Salud Integral</i>)
PROSIN	<i>Proyecto de Salud Integral</i>
SAFCI	Family and Community Intercultural Health (<i>Salud Familiar y Comunitaria Intercultural</i>)
SDE	USAID/Bolivia Office of Sustainable Development and the Environment
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SLIMs	Municipal Integrated Legal Services (<i>Servicios Legales Integrales del Municipio</i>)
SNIS	National Health Information System (<i>Sistema Nacional de Información de Salud</i>)
SpD	Partners for Development/PROSALUD (<i>Socios Para el Desarrollo</i>)
STIs	Sexually-transmitted diseases
TCOs	Original Communal Territories
UDAPE	Social and Economic Policy Analysis Unit (<i>Unidad de Análisis de Políticas Sociales y Económicas</i>)
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Action
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNWOMEN	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (includes former UN units of UNIFEM, OSAGI, DAW, and INSTRAW)
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VIO	Vice Ministry of Equal Opportunities/Ministry of Justice (<i>Vice Ministerio de Igualdad de Oportunidades/Ministerio de Justicia</i>)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 2013 USAID/Bolivia will develop a new Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) in support of Bolivia's National Development Plan. The two prospective development objectives (DOs) in health and environment are likely to focus on reducing the social and economic exclusion of historically disadvantaged Bolivian populations. Activities under the new strategy are likely to concentrate predominantly on Bolivia's peri-urban and rural populations. As part of its background work for the development of its new CDCS, USAID Bolivia requested support from Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment for a two-volume background report that will provide the foundations for a gender assessment.

This report (Volume I) summarizes the gender disparities in key programmatic sectors in which USAID has been working, examines why they exist, and suggests some possible approaches to reduce inequalities. The gender analysis presented in this report is based on a thorough literature review, and discussions and interviews with individuals representing a wide range of governmental, civil society, and foreign assistance groups, as well as USAID's current implementing partners. The primary objective is to identify gender-based inequalities and gaps within and across Bolivia's diverse cultures and ecologies that adversely restrict women's and men's (girls' and boys') opportunities for economic and social development.

Volume II is a draft gender action plan, consisting of more in-depth gender analysis and strategic planning for the health and environment sectors. Volume II is a draft gender action plan, consisting of more in-depth gender analysis and strategic planning for the health and environment sectors. It aligns the findings of this report related to the strategic priorities of the Government of the Plurinational State of Bolivia (GPSB) and USAID to prospective DOs and IRs for health (for which there is a new five-year strategy in place). The strategic gender priorities for the Environment DO and IRs are projections, based on the current strategy and programming, as the new DO and IRs will not be developed until next year. The gender action plan identifies opportunities for making USAID's health and environment program results more equitable and suggests indicators for measuring progress and impact. Recommendations for the health and environment sectors are part of Volume II and also incorporate key cross-cutting findings and recommendations from the sustainable economic development and democracy and governance analysis contained in Volume I.

During the last 20 years, Bolivia has demonstrated a steady political commitment to reducing gender inequalities. Bolivia committed to the objectives of the World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995 and signed the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1989. The initial legislation and policies on gender treated women as a vulnerable and excluded target group rather than as citizens and workers. During the last decade, there has been an important effort to support women's political participation. A number of laws and policies in different sectors aimed to ensure that women and men have equal opportunities to participate fully in all areas of Bolivian society. The new Constitution (CPE), adopted in 2009, integrates language on gender equality and rights throughout the document.

Implementation of the progressive policy framework and advances on gender equality has been uneven. While there has been progress in closing the gaps in education and employment, other key indicators demonstrate continuing or only slight changes. Indigenous women in all three geographic regions are at the greatest disadvantage on key indicators in comparison with men and with non-indigenous women. Sex differences in education, employment, and income generation are wider among the indigenous population than in the non-indigenous population, which indicates that exclusion is a greater factor in producing gender inequalities than discrimination for indigenous women.

Key Gender Inequalities, Gaps, and Promising Practices in Sustainable Economic Development

Inequality in levels of land tenure and other asset ownership persist and limit women's productive and commercial opportunities in rural and urban areas.

Two important gender-based constraints hinder improving women's food security and sovereignty. The first is inequality in property rights and assets held by men and women. The lack of entitlement to land restricts access to credit for critical agricultural inputs. The second constraint is restrictions on women's membership in producer associations. This is due to rules governing community organizations that confer to men the right to represent households in community and producer associations

There are three kinds of gender gaps that impede economic competitiveness and the earning potential of women-owned business: the hidden costs of the care economy, persistent salary gaps, and the division of labor. In Bolivia, women's insertion into the labor market is conditioned (even restricted) by the burden of their responsibilities for the care of children, and other elderly and sick household members, often leaving them less time than men to allocate to remunerated economic activity. Salary differences between men and women are still significant in Bolivia, although lower in sectors where women are the majority of workers. The gaps in public and private sectors for professional employment suggest that earning differences exist independent of levels of education. Wage gaps between indigenous women and men are even greater than wage gaps between non-indigenous women and men.

Women's businesses are less likely to be formalized. There is evidence of productivity gaps among companies based on their size. Women business owners also encounter gender-based constraints that affect profitability, such as access to credit and other assets. Women's business owners also encounter time conflicts between their businesses, child care, and other domestic chores.

Given the current uncertainty of USG funding for LAC countries, it is likely that the new CDCS' focus will need to be reduced to address a narrower set of poverty reduction measures. Within the Sustainable Development and Environment (SDE) portfolio, it is expected that the number of implementing mechanisms will be reduced from eight to three, namely: 1) Integrated Food Security Project (IFS), 2) Bolivian Productivity and Competitiveness Project (BPC), and 3) Integrated Development and Conservation in the Bolivian Amazon Project.

Based on the analysis of the existing portfolio, there are promising practices that can redress gender gaps and disparities. As the Mission will now focus on conservation and climate change activities, below are a few of the lessons learned from sustainable economic activities that are applicable to the Sustainable Landscapes portfolio.

- The promotion of women's full participation in productive associations is necessary to ensure access to economic opportunities. Based on the experience of the Agricultural Rural Competitiveness Project (ARCo), producer associations that altered their membership rules to no longer require a land title as a condition of membership, significantly increased women's participation and full membership.
- Introducing joint shares for married partners will change asset ownership in the tourism sector and other commercial enterprises. Extension of joint shares to married couples in Takana run ecotourism enterprises has increased women's active participation and benefits from the businesses.
- Adjusting the location, scheduling, and length of workshops will increase women's participation and capacity building. By responding to gender-based constraints with altered workshop hours and daycare, women business owners were able to participate in workshops designed to make their businesses more competitive, sponsored by the Productivity and Competitiveness Project.

Key Gender Inequalities, Gaps, and Promising Practices in Sustainable Landscapes

Bolivia is composed of very diverse ecologies, many of which are highly fragile and subject to both natural and human-made disasters. Rural and urban populations in Bolivia are both periodically and permanently adversely affected by climate change and human actions that put biodiverse areas of the country at risk.

Many of the gender-based constraints faced by women in relation to their access to and control over natural resources and their capacity to implement conservation measures, are similar to those faced by women in agriculture. These include lack of secure land tenure, time and mobility constraints, and cultural norms that confer upon male heads of households the authority to speak and vote on behalf of the entire households in community and municipal meetings.

Women and men interact with the natural environment in different ways and their access to and control over resources is conditioned by gender-based norms, which vary across different ethnic groups. The effects of global warming also have differential impacts on men and women, which affect their role as users of natural resources and producers.

Despite a strong policy framework supporting equal rights of men and women, in many Bolivian ethnic groups women do not have equal rights to resources or control over their allocation and disposal. Moreover, men are often in a stronger position to advocate for the primacy of their rights as they occupy the majority of indigenous leadership posts, speak Spanish with greater facility, and have achieved more education than women. As men are often the interlocutors with people from outside the communities, such as government officials and other development agents, in many parts of the country women have little influence over the design and delivery of development programs.

Although, the specific priorities in the GPSB's new strategy for the environment have not yet been established, it is likely that USAID will continue to support activities analogous to current programs that aim to reduce threats to biodiversity in the Bolivian Amazon and around Lake Titicaca in the Andean highlands. USAID's current priorities are to address the erosion of the natural resource base that is undermining biodiversity and rural Bolivians' food security.

There are several promising practices in conservation and climate change developed under previous USAID/Bolivia programs:

- **Community Analysis and Tools for Gender-responsive Monitoring and Evaluation.** The Bolfor Project implemented a gender plan of action, an internal gender policy to address institutional constraints, a monitoring and evaluation process to assess the impact of broadened participation and attention to equity in the distribution of benefits, and adaptation of regional strategies to account for variation in gender relations across different types of settlements and ethnic groups. This led to both increased engagement and decision-making of women in environmental planning and surveillance.
- **Equitable Participation and Women's Active Participation.** Lessons learned from the Bolfor and IFS projects suggest effective ways to promote the equitable participation of women, such as addressing women's time constraints. By making adjustments to the timing and location of meetings, or investing in time saving technologies and strategies, projects can increase women's benefits from sustainable enterprises, as well as enable them to fully participate in and exercise leadership in producer, resource management, and water users associations. One example is the *vicuña* conservation groups supported by the Integrated Food Security Project (IFS), which are composed of both men and women who plan, implement, and decide jointly. Women play leadership roles in the groups and share equally in making decisions about the use of the funds generated from shearing. One factor that has contributed to equitable participation is that several of the veterinarians and agronomists involved in the project are women.

Key Gender Inequalities, Gaps, and Promising Practices in Health

Gender inequalities contribute to poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes. Most rural women lack full agency and decision-making abilities over their sexuality and reproductive health. One of the greatest barriers to gender equality in Bolivia is the lack of equitable access to modern contraceptive methods. The primary barriers to access are social, cultural, and gender-based.

The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) is, arguably, a leading indicator of gender equality in a given country. In Bolivia, although there are varying measurements for MMR, the lowest ratio during the last ten years is 229 per 100,000 live births. MMR is influenced by social and economic determinants. Seventy percent of the women who died had less than six years of education. Indigenous women are the most vulnerable to dying in childbirth, especially those who live in rural areas.

The quality of care, particularly in rural areas, is one of the reasons that so few women decide to give birth in healthcare facilities. It is well documented that women and their families often experience poor and abusive treatment by healthcare providers. Other factors include absence of personnel in the health facilities and challenging distances and lack of transport.

The use of modern FP methods is extremely low in comparison with other countries in the LAC region. Women encounter numerous gender-based barriers in trying to realize their desired family size. In rural areas, women have twice the number of children that they say they desire¹, reflecting interpretations of masculinity, among other things, that associates use of modern FP methods with sexual promiscuity and marital infidelity. Based on inadequate information or misinformation, men also frequently oppose their partners' use of FP for fear of adverse health consequences. Women cite men's opposition to FP and fears of health dangers as the principal reasons they do not seek out FP.

Discrimination against members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) communities and commercial sex workers and gender power imbalances discourage open discussion about HIV/AIDS and safe sex practices. HIV/AIDS in Bolivia, for the most part, affects Most at Risk Populations (MARPs), such as men who have sex with men (MSM) and commercial sex workers. The vast majority of Bolivians perceive HIV as an affliction of others, which makes all women, outside of MARP populations, potentially vulnerable to transmission as well.

Women's lack of power to decide when to have sex, with whom, and with what protection constrains their capacity to negotiate the use of condoms or refuse sexual relations with both short-term and long-term partners whom they may view as putting them at risk of transmission of sexually-transmitted diseases (STIs). Bolivia has one of the highest incidences of STIs in the region.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV) affects Bolivians of all sexes, although women and girls are at greater risk. The DHS estimates that more than 40% of women in unions or ever in unions have experienced physical, sexual, or psychological violence since the age of 15. Accurate data on actual incidence does not exist but indications are that it is likely higher than recorded by the DHS. Despite strong laws against domestic and sexual violence, there is little effective detection through the health and social welfare sectors and even less enforcement on the part of the security and justice sectors. Few health care providers are aware of their legal obligation to report incidents of violence that come to their attention when women seek medical care. Many prefer not to get involved for fear of repercussions from enraged male partners or getting bogged down in the red tape of the justice system.

The USAID Health Strategy 2012-2017 incorporates the equity and rights framework to respond to Bolivia's new paradigm of strengthening women's participation in decision making levels.

¹ According to the 2008 DHS (p.128), rural women on average desire 2.4 children and have 4.9. For the country as a whole, actual fertility is 3.5 children, versus the desired 2.0, i.e. nearly double.

The health portfolio to be implemented under the 2012-2017 strategy offers the opportunity to reassign activities to address gender gaps and to develop, disseminate, and scale-up gender promising practices. For example:

- Establishing an institutional accreditation process for certifying that member health services provide gender equitable quality of care, based on the Coordinated Integrated Health Program's (PROCOSI) experience with an institutional accreditation process for certifying that health services of its members provide gender equitable quality of care.
- Engaging men and women in communities in a gender-equitable process of identifying and solving critical health problems, through the adaptation and application of the WARMI Methodology developed by PROCOSI and its variations developed by CIES, the *Proyecto de Salud Integral* (PROSIN), Manuela Ramos in Peru, and *Partners for Development* (SpD).
- Building community awareness and action to prevent and reduce GBV through adaptation and replication of *Avances de Paz* methodology that was designed and implemented by Cultural Practice, LLC², and subsequently adapted and adopted by PCI, the *Asociación de Promotores de Salud de Área Rural* (APROSAR), and CIES, among others.³
- Improving access and quality of sexual and reproductive health services and education for adolescents; and participation in health and nutrition education, based on successful programs developed by CIES and Save the Children.

In addition, experiences supported by USAID/Global Health (Men as Partners) and by other bilateral and multi-lateral partners, such as the UN Fund for Population Action's (UNFPA) support to the Social and Appropriate Technology Research and Training Center (CISTAC) and the Association of Women Mayors and Council Members of Bolivia (ACOBOL), offer opportunities to work with men on changing the dimensions of masculinities that adversely affect women's, men's, and children's health.

Key Gender Inequalities, Gaps, and Promising Practices in Democracy and Governance

Women's (including indigenous women's) participation in politics relative to men's has increased notably in the last ten years, particularly since 2007. The proportion of women in the Senate has increased from 17% in 2002 to 44% in 2012. Gains in the lower house of Parliament have been more modest, from 17% to 23%. In 2011, President Evo Morales decided to appoint women to half of all Ministerial posts. Between 2004 and 2010 women's election to municipal councils more than doubled from 19% to 43%. Women have been less successful in gaining seats as mayors, governors, and among departmental assemblies.

Despite notable changes in the balance of men's and women's political participation and leadership at the highest reaches of government, women still lag behind men in numbers and in effective exercise of power. While the increases in women's participation in all three branches of government represent important advances they also mask continuing institutionalized discrimination as well as the barriers that women face in running for and getting elected to office, and in carrying out their responsibilities of office once elected. The series of recent laws, along with the CPE, have clearly had an impact on women's greater political

² The primary author of this report works for Cultural Practice, LLC.

³ This activity was supported by USAID/GH through the Health Policy IQC, Task Order 1 under a contract to Constella- Futures.

participation by setting quantitative (now set at 50%) and procedural (alternating placement with men on party lists) benchmarks for equitable participation.⁴ The lower house of Parliament lags behind the Senate because the rules for gender equality do not apply to the 68 out of 130 uninominal seats.

There are indications from some studies that women elected to office find it difficult to advocate for and pass legislation that is responsive to women's interests that differ from men's priorities. Most of the women council members view their leadership role as supporting investments that respond to the needs and interests of the groups that supported their candidacy.

Another important challenge is that few women elected to office are successful in getting re-elected. This limits women's effectiveness as legislators and executives, as they have limited opportunity to acquire and use their experience. As a political class, women will remain at a disadvantage as long as the individuals who are elected to office are always the most newly elected.

In Bolivia, political harassment and violence is the most fundamental gender-based constraint impeding women's political participation. Although ACOBOL and other women's organizations have gathered considerable evidence on its occurrence and published documentation of specific cases, there are few programs or actions underway to address this form of gender-based violence. Its continued occurrence is an indication that national and local governments have been unwilling or unable to guarantee female elected officials the necessary personal security and safety to carry out the functions of their elected.

USAID's Program in Democracy and Governance was suspended in 2010 in response to a request from the GPSB. Since that time, discussions have been had about USAID support for municipal infrastructure. The Mission intends to focus on strengthening municipal service delivery as a crosscutting dimension of health and environment. These efforts are likely to build on USAID's previous experiences in the three phases of the Democracy Development and Citizen Participation (DDCP Phases 1, 2, and 3) and the more recent Municipal Infrastructure Development Project. The gender strategy for the DDCP3 Project focused on two strategic objectives:

- Empowerment of women to make decisions that affect the economic, and social, political dimensions of life in the municipality.
- The participatory design and implementation of gender equitable policies at the municipal level.

The strategy emphasized leadership training of council women and the strengthening of ACOBOL to promote empowerment. It focused on the development of gender inclusive planning methodologies, development of communication messages to increase women's participation in municipal decision-making, and mechanisms to ensure women's participation and inclusion of

⁴ In recent elections, as the 50 percent participation applies to both titular and alternate positions, women are still a minority of titular judges and council members while being a majority of alternates.

their demands in municipal plans and budgets. Training and development of procedural manuals were at the heart of the strategy.

The *Instituto de Formación Femenina Integral* (IFFI) implemented the UNDP gender budgeting methodology at the municipal level in the Department of Cochabamba to strengthen the implementation of gender-designated funds. IFFI examined gender integration into municipal budgets from two perspectives: 1) the extent to which they reflected women's interests as well as men's and their proposals (e.g., funding for Municipal Integrated Legal Services (SLIMs), or productive infrastructure that supports the development of business run by women and men), and 2) the extent to which funded activities were aimed at reducing gender inequalities (e.g., removal of gender-based barriers to property ownership or to accessing financial services). This is a tool that may be useful for both the health and environment sectors in order to hold municipal governments accountable for implementing gender equal investments in their respective sectors.

Finally, ACOBOL's strategic objective 2 of its new strategy offers USAID with an opportunity to contribute to the development of gender equitable charters and statutes for autonomous municipalities and indigenous, original, and peasant autonomous units, particularly in TCOS in and around protected areas. ACOBOL strategic objective 3 similarly presents an opportunity for USAID to strengthen administrative and fiscal capacity of indigenous, original, and peasant women leaders to be effective leaders, and to ensure that women's and men's interests are equally and fairly represented in municipal investments.

1. BACKGROUND

In 2013 USAID/Bolivia will develop a new Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) in support of Bolivia's National Development Plan. The two prospective development objectives (DOs) in health and environment are likely to focus on reducing the social and economic exclusion of historically disadvantaged Bolivian populations. Activities under the new strategy are likely to focus predominantly on Bolivia's peri-urban and rural populations. As part of its background work for the development of its new CDCS, USAID Bolivia requested support from Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment for a two-volume background report that will provide the foundations for a gender assessment.

This report (Volume I) summarizes the gender disparities in key programmatic sectors in which USAID has been working, examines why they exist, and suggests some possible approaches to reduce inequalities. Inequality is a result of either discrimination, exclusion, or a combination of the two.⁵ The report examines both causes, as the distinction is at the center of Bolivia's current struggle to build an equitable, plurinational, and intercultural society. It also examines the rights and opportunities available to men and women and analyzes how men's and women's different roles and power relations affect their access to and control over assets and decision-making.

The gender analysis presented in this report is based on a thorough literature review, and discussions and interviews with individuals representing a wide range of governmental, civil society, and foreign assistance groups. The Gender Analysis (GA) team also met with almost all of USAID's current implementing partners and made field visits to at least one program in all of USAID's current three sectors (Sustainable Development, Environment, and Health). The scope of work had the objective of identifying gender differences based on Bolivia's diverse cultures, ecologies, geography, and histories. In the process of conducting its analysis, the team found that the most critical differences were cultural (e.g., Tsimane vs. Guarayo, or Aymara vs. Guarani) and socioeconomic (indigenous vs. non-indigenous, wealth quintile, and rural vs. urban) rather than regional, as there were as many identifiable differences within regions as across them.⁶ Departmental differences are noted when possible and significant. A fuller description of the methodology can be found in Annex 4.

Volume II is a draft gender action plan, consisting of more in-depth gender analysis and strategic planning for the health and environment sectors. It aligns the findings of this report related to the strategic priorities of the Government of the Plurinational State of Bolivia (GPSB) and USAID to prospective DOs and IRs for health (for which there is a new five-year strategy in place). The strategic gender priorities related to the Environment DO and IRs are projections, based on the current strategy and programming, as the new DO and IRs will not be developed until next year. The gender action plan identifies opportunities for making USAID's health and environment program results more equitable and suggests indicators for measuring progress and impact.

⁶ The spelling Tsimane is used in the document, although frequently the group's name is spelled Tsimane.

2. INTRODUCTION: ADVANCES AND ONGOING CHALLENGES

Advances in gender equality in Bolivia have been uneven. While there has been progress in closing the gaps in education and employment, other key indicators demonstrate continuing or only slight changes.

As discussed in greater detail in the relevant sectoral sections of the report, indigenous women are at the greatest disadvantage on all key indicators in comparison with men and with non-indigenous women. According to the regression analysis conducted by Manuel Barron on the 2002 Living Standard Measurement Survey (LSMS), gender plays a stronger role in income inequality than ethnicity, but the joint effects of gender and ethnicity are stronger than either gender or ethnicity alone (Barron 2008:18). Sex differences in education, employment, and income generation are wider among the indigenous population than in the non-indigenous population, which indicates that exclusion is a greater factor in producing gender inequalities than discrimination for indigenous women. Patterns of unequal pay for equal work by men and women appear to be a factor of discrimination, as they do not correlate with any clear differences in education or skill levels.

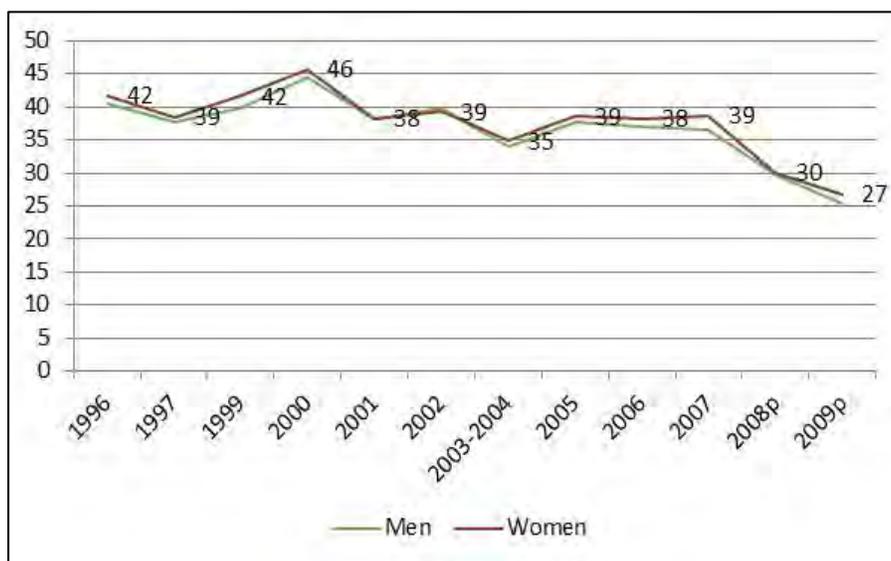
Education: Nationally, Bolivia has achieved sex parity for primary school enrollment (although short of universal enrollment), at 90% of boys and 90.1% of girls, ages 6-13. The percentage of girls completing primary and secondary school exceeds the percentage of boys by 1.8 and 1.4 points, respectively. Nevertheless, not all girls and women have had equal educational opportunities, as certain segments of the population continue to be disadvantaged by gender, ethnicity, and place of residence. In rural areas and indigenous majority communities, girls still lag behind boys in educational attainment, and more women than men are illiterate (Chioda 2011).⁷ In 57.5 % of municipalities with majority indigenous populations, girls complete 8th grade at a lower rate than boys. In contrast, in 59.2% of majority non-indigenous municipalities, girls complete 8th grade at a higher rate than boys (UDAPE 2011).

Despite Bolivia's progress in reducing moderate and extreme poverty and in increasing per capita income from \$883 to \$2,283,⁸ the gap between men and women in extreme poverty has remained fairly constant at one percentage point during the last ten years (see Figure 1).⁹

⁷ According to the UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Literacy (2006), females were 74% of the adult illiterates (15 and over) in 2002-2004 and were projected to be 77% in 2015. Literacy rates were 92.9% male and 80.4% female in 2002-2004. [Accessed 1/16/2012: <http://www.unesco.org/education/GMR/2007/2006-table2a.pdf>].

⁸ "Moderate poverty" is the percentage of population living under the poverty line, defined as the level of income that allows a household to satisfy food and non-food needs. Extreme poverty is the proportion of the population living under the extreme poverty line, which is a level of income that allows a household to satisfy only food needs. Official estimates demonstrate a reduction in moderate poverty from 64% in 1999 to 51% in 2009 with little change between 2001 and 2007. The accelerated reduction of poverty commenced in 2007, when poverty was 60% and fell to 51% in three years (UDAPE 2010, JICA 2006). The rate diminished further from 38% in 2007 to 26% in 2009, which means that Bolivia is likely to achieve the MDG as calculated by UDAPE of 24.1% by 2015. The majority of people living in extreme poverty is rural, indigenous, and engaged in agriculture.

⁹ There are still many methodological challenges to obtaining an accurate picture of women's poverty relative to men's. Current methods used in most household surveys do not collect information on how household assets are distributed among different household members. Therefore, the current statistics reflect the economic status of the households within which

Figure 1: Extreme Poverty in Bolivia by Sex (1996-2006)

Source: UDAPE 2010

spend slightly more hours than women in agricultural work.¹¹ Overall, women's rates of unemployment (9.4%) and underemployment (21%) are higher than men's (6.3% and 14%, respectively), indicating that there are women who would like to work who are not working and women who are working who would like to work longer hours. What is most remarkable is that the rates of participation and the gaps between women's and men's economic participation have not changed significantly over the last nine years for which there is data (1999-2007).

Economic Opportunities: Recent changes in the Agrarian Reform Law have given women greater access to individual and joint land titles. The number of titles issued to women between 2006 and 2009 is more than five times the number issued during the preceding ten years (1995-2005). The number of joint titles almost quadrupled while the number of titles issued to men only increased slightly more than double, during the two time periods.¹²

Notwithstanding the progress women have made recently compared to men in closing gaps in wages and gaining access to secure land titles, women still own less, are employed less, are segregated into less productive sectors of the economy, and earn lower salaries for comparable work, when compared to men.¹³ According to a recent study, the formal banking sector extends

women and men reside, not differences in allocation of resources within households -- which studies of internal household dynamics have shown to be quite unequal (Deere, et al. 2010, Farrah and Sanchez Garcia 2008).

¹⁰ Data from the INE MECOVI Household Survey 2007.

¹¹ The information on women's and men's participation in agriculture comes from the JICA Gender Assessment, which also states that Bolivia has one of the highest rates of women's participation in agriculture in the LAC region (JICA 2006: 34).

¹² Women's titles: 4,348 (1995-2005) to 22,393 (2006-09); joint titles: 22,441 (1995-2005) to 80,047 (2006-09); men's: 15,107 (1995-2005) to 36,030 (2006-09). Source: INRA, cited in Conexión 2011: 46.

¹³ Gender equality in the LAC region is directly related to advances in women's economic autonomy and empowerment through ownership and control over assets, income, and other resources. Agency and physical security are also conditions that are critical to women being able to exercise their political, economic, sexual, and reproductive rights, and to make decisions about all other aspects of their lives (CEPAL 2011:12).

Economic Development and Participation: There is a 17-point gap in Bolivia between the overall rates of women's (55%) and men's (71%) labor force participation.¹⁰ In rural areas the participation rates are higher for both women (73%) and men (89%). Economically active rural women and men are both principally engaged in agriculture (77.4% and 94.2%, respectively) and in similar types of activities, but men tend to

loans to far fewer women than men among the approximately one million formal sector borrowers. In contrast, 79% of micro-credit clientele is female (Aliaga Romero 2010). Women's loans are generally smaller than men's and often have stricter terms and higher interest rates, even though a World Bank study determined that women's businesses are as profitable as men's (World Bank 2009).

Environment: Bolivia is composed of very diverse ecologies, many of which are highly fragile and subject to both natural and human-made disasters. Rural and urban populations in Bolivia are both periodically and permanently adversely affected by climate change and human actions that put biodiverse areas of the country at risk. These effects are not gender-neutral and women's and men's participation in contributing to the human footprint on the environment and their experiences of the effects of climate change are different.

There is very little sex-disaggregated data in Bolivia related to the stewardship of biodiversity and the impact of climate change, and drawing national and regional conclusions about gender gaps and differentiated outcomes is not easy. A recent World Bank study (Ashwill, Blomqvist, Salinas, and Ugaz-Simonsen 2011),¹⁴ however, finds that women in different ecological zones of Bolivia perceive, experience, and react to the effects of climate change differently than men. Pivotaly, women are often disadvantaged in being able to make decisions about how to respond to changes in the environment because they often access resources and decision-making through mechanisms controlled by men (Ashwill, Blomqvist, Salinas, and Ugaz-Simonsen 2011: 23).

Overall, the study finds that in addition to having less control over resources than men, women's participation in decision-making is often limited to standing in for an absent spouse. Climate change also contributes to rural men's increased migration which in turn contributes to rural women's increased workloads. Women and men tend to react and adapt differently to climate change and natural disaster. Men tend to focus on large infrastructure responses (e.g. dams and irrigation), and migration, while women tend to focus on seeking out alternative sources of income closer to home, such as new crop varieties, product transformation through processing or handicraft production, and seeking out alternative sources of fuel and water (Ashwill, Blomqvist, Salinas, and Ugaz-Simonsen 2011: 38).

Health: Most rural women lack full agency and decision-making abilities over their sexuality and reproductive health. One of the greatest barriers to gender equality in Bolivia is the lack of equitable access to modern contraceptive methods. The primary barriers to access are social, cultural, and gender-based. The average number of children per woman decreased slightly between 2003 (4.2) and 2008 (3.8). The differences between urban and rural women are significant: the average number of children among urban women is 2.8 versus 4.9 among rural women. Current use of modern contraceptives by women has remained more or less constant between 2003 and 2008, 23.7% and 24% respectively.

¹⁴ The report estimates that 35% of people in Bolivia live in areas that are extremely vulnerable to the effects of climate change.

The lack of access to modern contraception, particularly by young women and adolescent girls is a major contributor to a trend of increasing adolescent pregnancies in Bolivia. The low use of modern Family Planning (FP) methods also contributes to Bolivia's high rates of maternal mortality and morbidity, abortions, poor nutrition, and poverty, especially among rural indigenous women. In addition, barriers to access to FP methods are a constraint for women's greater labor force participation and more active political participation. During a recent study that comprised interviews with more than 1,000 women in five cities, 48% said they had at least one unintended pregnancy, while 61% said they were not using any method of contraception (modern or traditional), and one in 13 stated they had had an abortion (Aliaga Bruch et al. 2011).

Gender-Based Violence: Gender-Based Violence (GBV) in Bolivia is major constraint to girls' and women's equitable economic and political participation. It also has an impact on women's health and on girls' education. Women's significant gains in political representation have been tempered by widespread gender-based political harassment and violence, to which they are subject in greater proportions than men in similar positions. Aside from instances of GBV, there is little information available on differences in men's and women's access to the justice system.

Rates of Gender-Based Violence and Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) remain high.¹⁵ According to the 2008 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), 24% of Bolivian women in a union, or ever in a union, reported having been subjected to physical or sexual violence and 38% to psychological violence by a partner or ex-partner in the last 12 months. The DHS found that 44% of women in or ever in a union reported experiencing some type of violence from a partner in the last 12 months, as compared 35.5% of men.

Democracy and Governance: Women's (including indigenous women's) participation in politics relative to men's has increased notably in the last ten years, particularly since 2007. The proportion of women in the Senate has increased from 17% in 2002 to 44% in 2012. Gains in the lower house of Parliament have been more modest, from 17% to 23%. In 2011, President Evo Morales decided to appoint women to half of all Ministerial posts. Between 2004 and 2010 women's election to municipal councils more than doubled from 19% to 43%. Women have been less successful in gaining seats as mayors, governors, and among departmental assemblies.¹⁶

3. BOLIVIAN PUBLIC POLICY FRAMEWORK IN SUPPORT OF GENDER EQUALITY

3.1 Progress and Continuing Challenges

During the last 20 years, Bolivia has demonstrated a steady political commitment to reducing gender inequalities. Bolivia committed to the objectives of the World Conference on Women in

¹⁵ Health indicators are measured through the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) Both the 2003 and 2008 surveys included gender-based violence (GBV) and men's survey modules. In 2008, a module on women's status was also included, as well as a module to measure maternal mortality. GBV is discussed in greater detail in the health and democracy sections below.

¹⁶ Women are 17% of assembly members selected by territory and 42% of assembly members selected by population (*Coordinadora de la Mujer Observatorio de Género*).

Beijing in 1995 and signed the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)* in 1989.

The initial legislation and policies on gender treated women as a vulnerable and excluded target group rather than as citizens and workers. During the last decade, there has been an important effort to support women's political participation. A number of laws and policies in different sectors aimed to ensure that women and men have equal opportunities to participate fully in all areas of Bolivian society (see list in Annex 3). These include, among others, the Municipal Law (1999), the Agrarian Reform Law (amended in 2007 to increase women's access to secure land titles), and the domestic and sexual violence laws.

The new Constitution (CPE), adopted in 2009, integrates language on gender equality and rights throughout the document. The CPE underwrites a new social contract that guarantees all individuals and groups an array of human rights and freedoms. It is one of the strongest and most explicit statements in the Latin American region on the equality of women and men across all dimensions of individual rights pertaining to education, asset ownership, employment, reproduction and sexuality, legal rights, and political participation and representation. The CPE provides the foundation for Bolivia's transition from a Republic to a Plurinational State that recognizes diverse forms of governance and judicial systems among Bolivia's many ethnic groups. The CPE has had a profound effect on national political discourse on cultural and gender equality, and an increasing impact on changes in practice.

Since ratification of the CPE, the Government of Bolivia has enacted new laws, such as the Law against Racism and Discrimination, and changed policies in different sectors to reflect the CPE's language on gender equality. A number of important laws are currently before the Parliament, such as the Comprehensive Law on Gender-Based Violence and the Law against Political Harassment and Violence. The Comprehensive Law replaces the multiple laws that currently address different types of GBV, and revises aspects of the criminal code that conflicted with the old laws. In addition, a lengthy list of laws affecting various sectors realigns Bolivia's legal framework with the new Constitution. The CPE significantly changed the legal rights framework of Bolivia. Many pre-existing laws are in conflict with the new framework and therefore require revision.

The GOB is also integrating a renewed focus on gender equality into its sectoral development plans and poverty reduction programs. The overall roadmap for sectoral changes is the Equal Opportunities Plan developed by the Vice Ministry of Equal Opportunities. Specific sections on gender equality and women's participation also are included in:

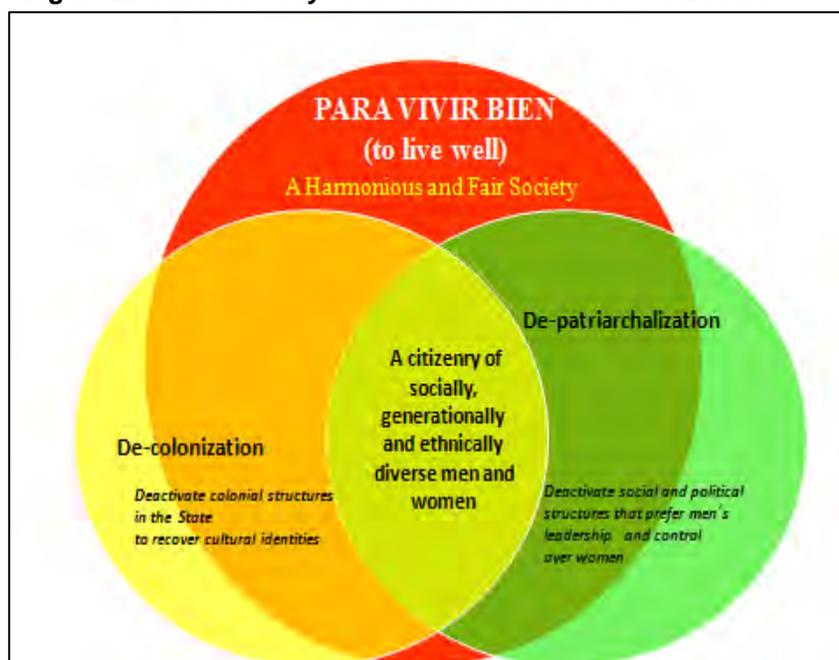
- The Strategic Plan for Health (Ministry of Health and Sports)
- The Sectoral Plan for Agricultural Development titled "Rural, Agrarian, and Forestry Revolution" (Ministry of Rural Development, Agriculture, and Forestry)
- National Development Plan for Irrigation (Ministry of Water)

The Bolivian government also attributes some of the reduction in extreme poverty to conditional cash transfers under the social protection programs such as *Bono Juana Azurduy*, *Bono Juancito Pinto*, and *Renta Dignidad* without which the Social and Economic Policy Analysis Unit (UDAPE 2010:33) argues extreme poverty would have been two percentage points higher in 2009.¹⁷ When gender barriers, such as lack of identification cards, lack of time and mobility to reach distant health services and schools, and lack of decision-making and control of household resources are removed, these programs have the greatest impact on rural poor indigenous women and children, even though all women and children are entitled to receive the benefits of the program regardless of socioeconomic or residence status.¹⁸

3.2 Current Political Discourse on Gender Equality

Bolivia's National Development Plan lays out the social paradigm *Para Vivir Bien* ("To Live Well") as the basis for developing a "new harmonious and just society" that embraces gender and social equality, and ethnic, sexual, and generational diversity (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Gender Policy of the Plurinational State of Bolivia



In its latest iteration, the concept of *Para Vivir Bien* incorporates two fundamental transformative processes: decolonization and undoing patriarchal social, political, and economic structures that allow for men's domination over women, referred to as "*despatriarcalización*" in Spanish.

There is a continuing political concern within the women's movement that decolonization has replaced its earlier focus on colonial structural

antecedents of gender oppression with one of inclusion.¹⁹ The argument criticizes the inclusion discourse as supporting liberal reforms focused on "gender equality," "equal opportunities," or

¹⁷ Bono Juana Azurduy is a conditional cash transfer as an incentive to increase the utilization of health services by pregnant women and children under 2 with growth check-ups, with a total value of USD 265. The Bono Juancito Pinto provides 200 Bolivianos (about \$30.00) per year per child who finishes the school year. The *Renta Dignidad* is an unconditional cash transfer to protect the elderly with an annual value of USD 450.

¹⁸ The Bono Juancito Pinto has presented fewer implementation challenges than the Bono Juana Azurduy. At the beginning rural women reported difficulties in registering and getting paid because they had to travel to municipal centers to do both. Some women also reported difficulties in meeting the terms of the CCT, especially getting to health services to deliver their babies.

¹⁹ The relationship between decolonization and *despatriarcalización* is contested, even as both are front and center in Bolivian political discourse. While some Bolivian feminists argue that decolonization is not possible without challenging other forms of

power redistribution, especially for indigenous women in established spaces of the neoliberal democracy. The problem with the decolonization approach to women's inclusion, according to advocates for a depatriarchalizing process is that the decolonization advocates only argue for women's increased participation without transforming the patriarchal structures that have been the basis of discrimination and oppression (before and after colonialism). Women's groups point to assaults on and assassinations of women political leaders as evidence of the inadequacy of merely increasing women's political participation.²⁰ They argue that although women have been and are participating in public spaces, they are also "instrumental" to political parties that too often have left women out of their political platforms. A "depatriarchalizing" perspective emphasizes the importance of women's participation as a means of effecting structural changes while also recovering respect for women's identity and subjectivity.

The Andean concept of *chacha warmi* sits at the center of the debate about the relationship between decolonization and *despatriarcalización*. The Aymara and Quechua principle of *chacha warmi* (*qari warmi* in Quechua) expresses the complementarity between men's and women's roles that sustains harmony and synergy between man and women. Decolonizers, for the most part, view this concept as a representation of complementary and equitable roles. "Depatriarchalizers" view the concept as a representation of complementary but profoundly unequal roles which justify women's subordination.

Despatriarcalización is defined as: "change in social and political relationships that privilege men's authority and leadership over women."

Decolonization refers to the dismantling of a number of institutions that support the domination of one culture over another, and that have a legacy of unequal relationships between a colonizing and colonized state. To decolonize means to effect changes in the colonial legacy structures so as to reinstate co-equal expression and power of Bolivia's diverse cultural identities and their institutions.

When designing the new USAID strategy, it is important to recognize the inter-relationship between decolonization and *despatriarcalización* and to acknowledge that incorporating parity into public spaces *per se* will not change gender-based power imbalances.

3.3 Gender Equality Policies and Organizational Structure

Over the last 20 years the structures of government responsible for the design and implementation of gender equality policies have changed in response to changes in the national political context. In 1994, a state gender institution was created through the Sub-Secretary for Gender Affairs as part of the National Secretariat for Ethnic, Gender and Generational Affairs of

social exclusion such as gender, others argue that decolonization and despatriarcalización are two separate processes with different objectives, target audiences and partners. Decolonization advocates within the government argue that primary emphasis should be given to the "decolonization" process because unequal gender relationships were introduced by the colonial state. Consequently, the first iteration of the governmental organization for implementing the two processes located despatriarcalización under the decolonization unit. Recently, the two were accorded parallel status within the organizational chart of the Ministry of Cultures. At the same time, the unit for equal opportunities continues to be located in the Ministry of Justice. The gender office is under the administrative authority of the Equal Opportunities Unit.

²⁰ A very vivid case is the assassination of Ancoraima Councilwoman Juana Quispe Apaza who was killed on March 13 of this year, supposedly by her political rivals in revenge for judicial procedures she had initiated against them. She was a prominent member of the indigenous women's organization, Bartolina Sisa, and of ACOBOL. She was also a strong advocate for the law against political assault and violence that is languishing in the Parliament despite strong support from ACOBOL.

the Ministry for Human Development. In 1997, it was converted into the Vice Ministry for Women's Affairs within the Ministry for Sustainable Development and Planning. In 2006 and during this administration, it became part of the Ministry of Justice as the Vice Ministry for Equal Opportunities. Gender and generational issues are the responsibility of the Directorate of Gender and Generational Affairs and its Gender Issues Unit. The Unit has diminished authority to influence other ministries compared to previous administrative structures when gender was the responsibility of a Vice Minister in the Ministry of Planning. Different ministries, such as MoH, also have Gender Units that are supposed to implement the gender policies of the government. These units lack sufficient human and economic resources from their respective ministries and receive even less from the Chief of Gender Issues of the Ministry of Justice.

Recently, the Ministry of Cultures established a Unit on Depatriarchalization that is parallel in structure and at the same level of organization within the Ministry as the Unit of Decolonization. It is still unclear how the Unit of Equal Opportunities in the Ministry of Justice and the new Depatriarchalization Unit in the Ministry of Cultures will allocate responsibilities for ensuring the implementation and enforcement of a highly supportive gender equality policy framework.

The most comprehensive framework to date is the National Equal Opportunities Plan issued in 2008 by the Vice Ministry for Equal Opportunities (VIO) in the Ministry of Justice. The Plan establishes a coordinating role for VIO with other ministries to ensure gender equality and respect for cultural diversity. The Plan also references Bolivia's previous international and national legal commitments to gender equality, including Millennium Development Goal (MDG) Number 3.

4. SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Gender-based Inequalities and Gaps

The discussion in this section examines differences in gender and ethnicity with regard to equal economic opportunities. Sustainable economic development is likely to be a crosscutting theme of USAID Bolivia's new strategy rather than a separate development objective. Sustainable economic development is also a crosscutting theme of Bolivia's Second Development Plan in support of Living Well (see Annex 3). The information provided in this section focuses on the gender-based constraints and gaps that affect women's and men's economic opportunities, participation, decision-making, and *to live well* (Para Vivir Bien).

The increase in the number of female heads of households is changing the dynamics of sustainable development. The estimated percentage of households headed by women in Bolivia is 25%. The real proportion is likely higher as many households are de facto headed by women whose partners are absent for either part or all of the year. Headship is a problematic concept. It may be used one way for the purpose of a census while having a different meaning for the purpose of decision-making and conferring rights to resources within the household and the community. In a multicultural country like Bolivia, the concept of headship also varies across different ethnic groups. A recent study argues that female-headed households in Bolivia face a different set of vulnerabilities than those headed by men, although it contends they do not appear

to be worse off than other households (Aritomi T. et al. 2010).²¹ Information from the 2007 MECOVI (*Medición de las Condiciones de Vida en América Latina y el Caribe*) household survey indicates that female-headed households are disadvantaged when income is compared among female and male-headed households having the same number of members in both rural and urban areas. A slightly higher percentage of urban female-headed households (47%) than male-headed households (43%) are poor. In the rural areas more male-headed household are poor (74%) than female-headed (57%).

Differences in relative disadvantage may also reflect how different studies calculate poverty (e.g., based on income, housing, assets, or access to services). Manuel Barron's (2008:11) research indicates that inter-ethnic inequalities in the quality of housing and poverty persist (indigenous households are worse off than non-indigenous); however, within each ethnic group female-headed households are better off (in terms of housing quality) than male-headed households because they tend to have higher shares of access to services (i.e. a social safety net). The number of households headed by women is increasing most rapidly among educated women, which may indicate their greater access to employment opportunities (World Bank 2011). According to Barron, this group has reported the lowest level of extreme poverty. These data suggest that the increases do not necessarily mean greater poverty provided there are adequate services. There is also some evidence that women who are household heads in rural areas have more opportunities to participate and vote in community meetings, as well as participate in activities sponsored by development projects than married women. As recognized heads of their households they enjoy both social legitimacy as their household representative to community governance groups and have greater autonomy of decision-making in their own households.²²

Gender-Based constraints impede efforts to improve food security. Labor force participation rates (the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labor market) are higher where poverty is greater.²³ In rural areas 72.7% of women and 88.5% of men participate in the labor force (compared to 48% and 67% for urban areas, respectively).²⁴ The rate of women's economic participation in rural areas is comparatively higher than in most countries in the region. Both women and men play central roles in agricultural production in all three regions of the country. Women also are predominantly responsible for the marketing of agricultural produce, particularly food products in the highlands and valleys. In the Amazonian region, men assume greater responsibility for marketing agricultural products than women (Ashwill, Blomqvist, Salinas, and Ugaz-Simonsen 2011; Cronkleton 2005).

Two important gender-based constraints hinder improving women's food security and sovereignty. The first is inequality in property rights and assets held by men and women. The

²¹ This conclusion is based on a review of World Bank Poverty Assessment Reports. For self-identified heads of household, Bolivian women-headed households were not any poorer than other households (Aritomi et al 2010:14).

²² This may not hold true for all ethnic groups in Bolivia, but is generally the case in Aymara and Quechua communities in the highlands and valleys.

²³ See: <http://kilm.ilo.org/manuscript/kilm01.asp>.

²⁴ These are 2007 statistics reported by UDAPE http://www.udape.gob.bo/portales_html/dossierweb2011/htms/doss0702.htm. The 2009 statistics are 67.1 and 82.8 for rural areas (women and men).

lack of entitlement to land restricts access to credit for critical agricultural inputs. Although the Productive Development Bank (BDP)²⁵ has introduced gender equity as a criteria for issuing loans for productive investments (50% for women in micro and small enterprises and productive associations with women's participation), a set of requirements based on prior experience and productive potential (which most women do not have) restrict women's access to credit even when they can demonstrate land ownership (Farah and Sanchez 2008).

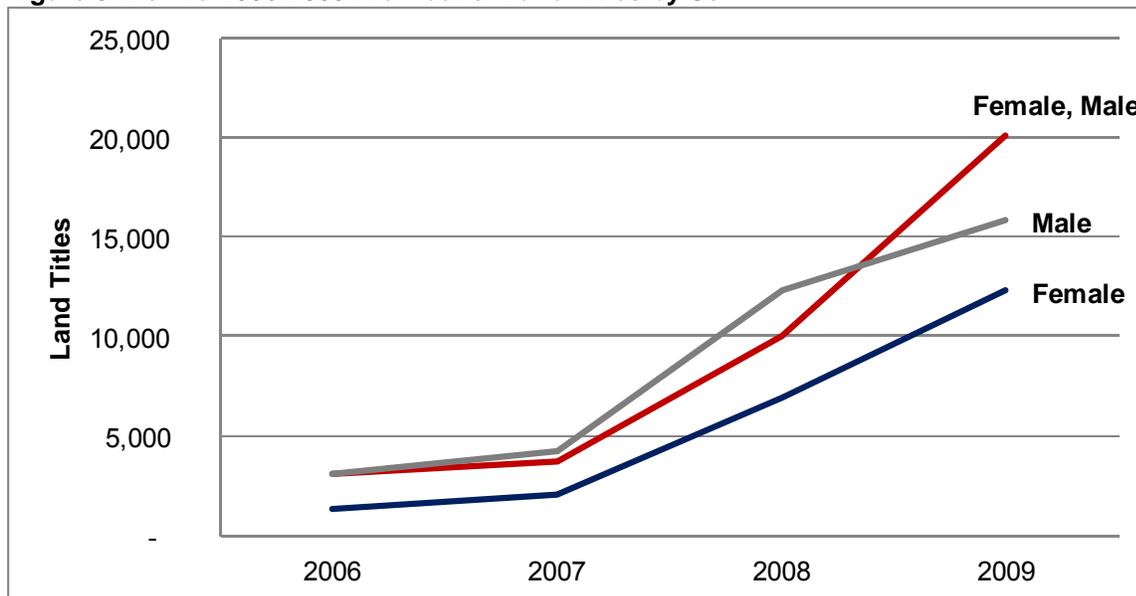
The second constraint is restrictions on women's membership in producer associations. This is due to rules governing community organizations that confer to men the right to represent households in community and producer associations. While women may participate occasionally in meetings and, more frequently, in productive activities, they are not accorded the status of decision makers. It is not unusual to find that women who perform most of the work in production, processing, and marketing make few of the critical decisions about how the associations are run. Women also have limited opportunities to participate in trainings, study tours and other opportunities to improve their technical skills and knowledge (Torrico 2011). Field visits by the Gender Analysis team revealed that men who participate in training courses do not adequately transfer the new knowledge and know-how to their partners, who are often principally responsible for the agricultural tasks related to the skills taught in the training.

Inequality in levels of land tenure and other asset ownership persist and limit women's productive and commercial opportunities. Since 1953 Bolivian Agrarian Reform laws have not explicitly discriminated against women's rights to land, but they did not facilitate women's land ownership or usufruct rights in practice. In 1996, Bolivia enacted a major change in legislation on land tenure that for the first time explicitly addressed gender equality regarding land holding in line with Bolivia's commitment to CEDAW. Bolivia is one of relatively few countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) that has made property rights legally independent of conjugal relations (CEPAL 2011:56), which constitutes an important advancement in the rights of women.

The National Agrarian Reform Institute (*Instituto Nacional de la Reforma Agraria* -INRA) law upheld a principle of equity in the distribution of land and stated that women should be treated equally without regard to their marital status (Lustria-Cornhiel 2011: 30). The INRA law, however, did not establish guidelines or benchmarks for ensuring women's access to land titles. A further modification in the Community Renewal of the Agrarian Reform Law in 2006 (Law 3545 *Reconducción Comunitaria de la Reforma Agraria*) stipulated that new titles to married couples must list the woman's name first, and that women have the right to request individual titles in their names in the process of agrarian land redistribution regardless of their marital status.

²⁵ A joint Bolivian-Venezuelan initiative.

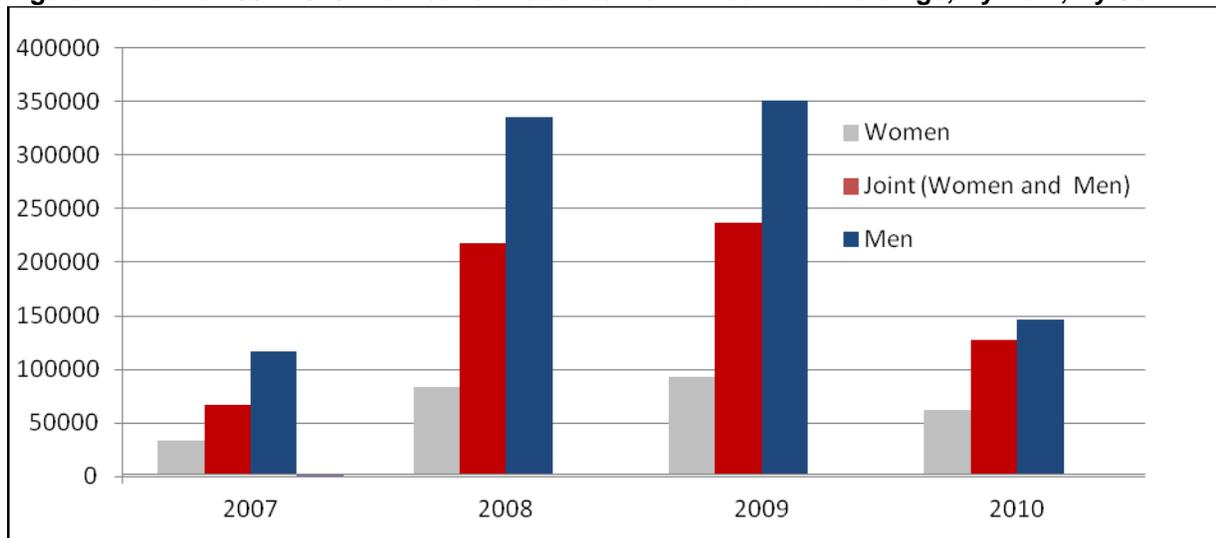
Figure 3: Bolivia 2006-2009: Number of Land Titles by Sex



Source: Data from Ramírez, M., 2010

However, an examination of the number of hectares distributed through the titling process tells a very different story about equity in the quantity of land distributed through the titling process to women and men (see Figure 4). Severe inequalities are evident in the concentration of land in men’s hands in terms of surface area (number of hectares). With the exception of 2010, the combined total for joint and female titles is less than the total land titled to men. This remains a statistic to track, to verify if 2010 heralds a new trend.

Figure 4: Bolivia 2007-2010: Number of Hectares New Titled Land Holdings, By Year, By Sex



Source: Data from Ramírez, M. (2010)

The CPE reinforces equality of rights with regard to land titling and ownership. However, neither the CPE nor Law 3545 clarifies women’s rights under communal tenure systems, leaving matters up to the individual ethnic groups. Changes in the law appear to have contributed to notable

increases in joint and individual titles in the names of women. From 2006 to 2009 individual titles to women (24%) and joint titles (39%) represented 63% of the total number of titles issued (see Figure 3). The most important effect is that the number of land joint property titles is higher than the number of individual titles issued to men.

Little information is available from INRA on women's usufruct and inheritance rights to land in communities with collective titles, where land is allocated to families instead of individuals (Ramirez Carpio 2010).²⁶ These rights vary across different ethnic groups. There is a gap in information about the relative positions of women and men with regard to land tenure and rights within different Original Communal Territories (TCOs). Women's and men's security of tenure is likely to vary considerably across different groups, and at different stages of the life cycle.

In both Andean and Amazonian communities women and men can acquire usufruct rights to land. In the highlands, it is more usual for women to move to their partner's parents' household after a period of several months to several years, alternating between both in-laws' households until they establish their own. Under certain circumstances the couple may decide to settle on lands inherited from the wife's family, such as when she has no brothers, or the husband's family has little or no land to transmit to him. In other instances, both men and women receive lands from their respective natal households, in which case they work both sets of lands. Women who bring lands into the marriage generally have greater decision-making power within the household and the community relative to their spouses than do other women who go to live on lands inherited by their husbands.²⁷

One critical issue is the link between land ownership or usufruct rights and community leadership. In most indigenous communities, only married men who own land or are recognized on communal lists of original residents (*originarios*) or newcomers (*foresteros*) can represent their households in community governance organizations. Occasionally, married or widowed women who have inherited land can also participate as full voting members. Indigenous women cite this as one of the critical inequalities they face when trying to assume more active leadership in governance of their communities (Nuñez 2009).²⁸

Animals are an important source of capital accumulation, savings, and investment for both men and women (Deere, Contreras, and Twyman 2010). There is strong evidence that animals serve

²⁶ The Vice Ministry of Lands in conjunction with UNIFEM (UNWOMEN) published two articles on the gender dimensions of land tenure, one in the altiplano and the other in the lowlands (Ministerio de Desarrollo Rural y Tierras 2010 a, 2010b; see also Nuñez 2009).

²⁷ See for instance the discussion in Perales Miranda 2008 about uxorial households in communities in Loayaza Province in the Department of La Paz.

²⁸ These restrictions are currently being questioned and revised in many indigenous communities, especially those undergoing the process of applying for autonomous status. A study of differences in women's leadership across different Bolivian regions reveals that men community and municipal authorities perceive women as incapable of withstanding the sacrifices required of political leaders, such as walking long distances, going without food and rest, and waiting for hours on end to be seen by higher level politicians. While marriage is viewed as a prerequisite for assuming leadership in Quechua and Aymara communities, it is seen as a support for men and as a burden for women politicians. In the Afro Aymara communities of the Yungas, being single is not a constraint for either men or woman who are interested in serving in office. In the lowlands, it is considered easier for a single woman than a married one to serve in office (Arteaga and Arteaga 2007:6).

as a form of savings in rural areas of Bolivia from the eastern lowlands across to the highest reaches of the altiplano where alpacas and llamas are the principal source of livelihood. For instance in the Guarayos Province of the Department of Santa Cruz, both cows and sheep are considered a form of a savings account (Nostas Ardaya and Sanabria 2010: 84). Both men and women care for the animals, although men tend to spend more time on the care and milking of cows while women tend principally to the sheep. In the Andean highlands and valleys, ownership of animals, unlike ownership of land, is frequently individual. Among Quechua groups in Cochabamba, women are also responsible for the daily care of sheep and goats. Sheep and cattle are considered both a form of savings and inheritance in the Quechua valley communities. Husband and wife confer about the decision to sell larger animals, while women generally make the decision to sell smaller stock, such as chickens, pigs, and guinea pigs (*Coordinadora de la Mujer* 2009a). In the altiplano, Aymara women do the majority of the daily pasturing and milking of animals, with help from children after school. Animals are sold occasionally to pay for special expenses, such as fiestas, an illness, or some other emergency (*Coordinadora de la Mujer* 2009b). In alpaca and llama herding communities, women and men inherit animals individually from each of their parents and those animals reproduce to form the herd that both boys and girls take into marriage, as part of their inheritance (Arnold and Yapita 1997; Caro 1985, 1994; Harris 2000).

The challenge for development projects that attempt to limit the number of animals, either to protect the environment or to improve meat and wool production, is that many groups view those actions as cutting into their savings and defense against unexpected family crises or natural disasters. Animals, unlike land, are also an asset over which women have considerable control and decision-making authority.

Internal migration and emigration increase women's vulnerability. Historically, migration has been both a consequence and contributor to social exclusion. Bolivia's patterns of internal migration mean that there is as much cultural variation within different regions as there is between regions, especially in cities and rural areas that attract large numbers of migrants, such as mining centers and colonization areas in the eastern lowlands. In large measure emigration and internal migration are driven by poverty and lack of economic opportunities, especially in rural areas and for younger workers in urban areas. Other factors such as climate change and degradation of natural resources, as well as greater opportunities for education and other services also drive migration in Bolivia. A recent study of the effects of climate change on three rural areas of Bolivia found that men's season migration is more common than women's resulting in de facto women's household headship in about a third of households (Ashwill, Blomqvist, Salinas, and Ugaz-Simonsen 2011). Young women's migration to urban areas to urban centers, within and outside of Bolivia, tends to be less seasonal and more permanent.

Emigration from Bolivia to other countries in Latin America, the United States, and Europe implies new modalities of women's exclusion and inequality. In countries of origin, the lack of access to basic rights such as adequate employment, education and health pushes household members to search for new opportunities in other countries. Most migrants go abroad independently of their spouses and children. The labor conditions in destination countries place migrant women in the lowest ranks of the labor market, with considerable gaps in earnings when

compared to native workers and migrant men engaged in the same activities. As a consequence, developing countries end up subsidizing developed countries with women's low-paid work, while permitting women in developed countries to participate in more lucrative remunerated work. Similar unequal relations also play out within Bolivia. Rural indigenous women migrate to urban centers where they work as domestic workers in middle class and upper-class households where they have little economic bargaining power, and few opportunities to continue their education or advance to higher paying work.

The high demand in the United States, Europe, and wealthier neighboring countries (e.g., Argentina and Chile) for domestic workers to care for young children or the elderly contributes to the increased migration of young single and married Bolivian women. Although reliable data are not available on the quantity of migrant women and their ethnic composition, some studies indicate there is a growing "feminization" of migration flows, mainly to Europe and the United States, while emigration to Argentina is fairly equally divided between men and women. Since 2001, 67% of the total migrants from Cochabamba to Europe have been women (Rothe, MB, 2007). In Argentina, the apparel industry has been a major source of employment for Bolivian women migrants. Both employers and employees perceive these jobs as extensions of women's domestic roles. The apparel industry is characterized by low salaries and potentially exploitive labor practices. Emigration to Spain involves household work and care for children, the elderly and people with disabilities. During the current economic crisis, many Bolivian women have been forced to become commercial sex workers, another work niche rife with abusive conditions and where migrants have begun to replace native women (Rothe 2007).

The majority of people who migrate to other countries come from urban centers, especially from Santa Cruz, Cochabamba and El Alto. The remittances they send annually represent 6.6% of gross domestic product (GDP), and are about \$60 per capita. Approximately 57% of Bolivians, who receive remittances from relatives overseas, receive between 100 to 250 USD per month.

Men from rural areas in Bolivia also migrate to other rural and urban areas in Bolivia, especially those living in the valleys and highlands. Some migrate to do agricultural work in the coca producing zones or to engage in agricultural work on their own fields in the eastern lowlands or on large commercial agricultural enterprises. Others migrate to the cities to work as laborers or to mining centers. Men's migration has a major impact on increasing women's labor burden in rural areas, which makes it difficult for women to find time for participating in community and development activities.

Trafficking in Persons affects men, women, and children. Bolivia is a Tier 2 country. The 2011 State Department Trafficking in Persons Report states that Bolivia is principally a source country for men, women, and children who are trafficked for sexual exploitation and forced labor. Men, women, and children are trafficked to neighboring countries of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, and Peru for labor and sex work. They are also taken to Spain and the United States to work as unpaid laborers in sweatshops, agriculture, and factories. Young rural Bolivian women are forcibly recruited to work as sex workers in urban and mining centers. The Bolivian government is most active in pursuing traffickers who exploit children. Victims who find

themselves confronted by forced labor both at home and abroad have little recourse (U.S. State Department 2011).

Gender gap in employment, salaries, and access to capital impede competitiveness. There are three kinds of gender gaps that impede competitiveness: the hidden costs of the care economy, persistent salary gaps, and the division of labor and earning potential of women-owned business.

Generally, statistics confirm that the proportion of Bolivian women and girls (10 years and older) who are economically active (55%) is slightly higher than the average for women in the LAC region (52%).²⁹ The percentage of economically active Bolivian men (71%) is slightly lower than the regional average (78%). The 6th MDGs Progress Report indicates an Employment/Population ratio³⁰ gap of 15 points on average between men and women. In 2009, more than two thirds of working-age men were employed (71%) compared to 55% of working-age women. Despite formal recognition in the CPE (Article 338) of the economic value of housework (including mandating it be included in GDP), gender segregation and women's position in the labor market is impeded by the hidden costs of the economy of care which are disproportionately borne by women.

Employment figures hide the cost of the economy of care. In Bolivia, women's insertion into the labor market is conditioned (even restricted) by the burden of their responsibilities for the care of children, and other elderly and sick household members, often leaving them less time than men to allocate to remunerated economic activity. Although Article 64 of the CPE states that the conjugal pair has equal responsibility and should exert equal effort regarding the care of children and maintenance of the household, in reality, women are still the predominant caretakers, spending on average an additional two hours a day on household work. This translates into an hour less per day of paid labor for women in the workforce (CEPAL 2011: 35).³¹

Gender salary gaps persist and constrain the competitiveness of the Bolivian economy. Based on the estimates of the 2003 Bolivian LSMS [MECOVI Survey], analyzed in a 2007 UNFPA report, the salary differences between men and women were relatively high.³² On average, men were earning 60% more than women. Based on a calculation of the differences in average monthly income between the sexes as a percentage of female monthly income (see Figure 5), there were significant differences in sectors in which the poor and extremely poor are

²⁹ The global figure comes from CEPAL (2011:33), however the global average for the region is based on a measure of girls and women age 15 and older rather than 10 and older.

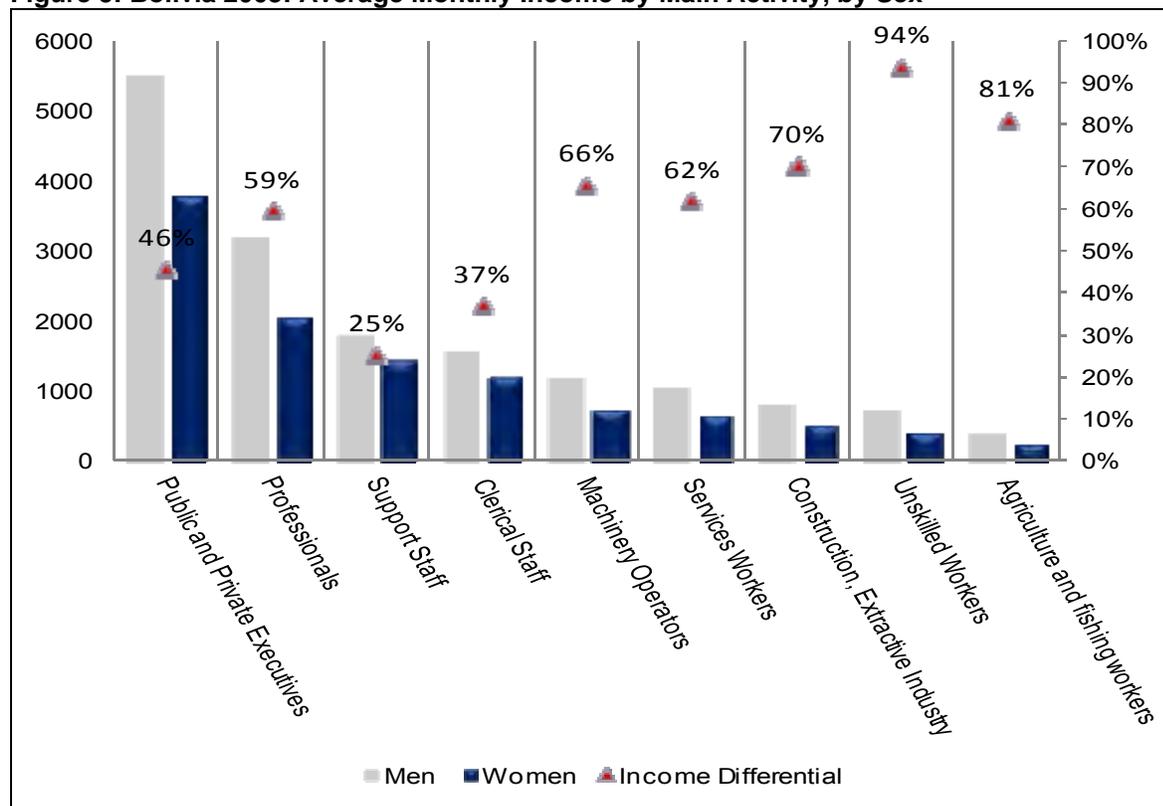
³⁰ This ratio is the proportion of the employed population with respect to the working-age population (in Bolivia it is 10 years and above).

³¹ Artículo 64 of the Constitution states, "Los cónyuges o convivientes tienen el deber de atender, en igualdad de condiciones y mediante el esfuerzo común, el mantenimiento y responsabilidad del hogar, la educación y formación integral de las hijas e hijos mientras sean menores o tengan alguna discapacidad. II. El Estado protegerá y asistirá a quienes sean responsables de las familias en el ejercicio de sus obligaciones" (CPE 2009). The data on household labor cited in the CEPAL study comes from a 2001 time use study in Bolivia.

³² Updated information on LSMS is not available yet. Although the database was approved recently for public use it is not available yet.

engaged: unskilled work (94%) and agriculture and fishing (81%).³³ These are sectors in which women's economic activity is generally not captured in surveys.

Figure 5: Bolivia 2003: Average Monthly Income by Main Activity, by Sex



Source: UNFPA (2007: 139)

The gaps are lowest in areas where women constitute the majority of workers, such as in support staff and clerk positions. What is most surprising is the gap in the sectors that demand higher educational levels, even though more women than men achieve higher levels of education in urban areas of Bolivia. The gaps in public and private sectors for professional employment suggest that earning differences in 2003 existed independent of levels of education, including among women. Where that situation is not altered when more girls than boys attain higher levels of education, the likelihood is that the gap is attributable to other gender barriers, such as discrimination, domestic obligations that limit women's working hours, or other factors that relegate them to less demanding, lower-level positions.

Gaps exist in the salaried informal and formal sectors. Wage gaps are even greater for indigenous women because of their lower levels of education and the greater informality of their employment. There is a significant difference between indigenous and non-indigenous women's earnings in the informal sector as a proportion of men's wages. While self-employed non-

³³ Utilizing the OECD calculation for the wage gap (male income less female income divided by male income) the gaps were: .484 for unskilled workers and .448 for agricultural work. This is compared to .37 and .31 for professionals and executives, respectively.

indigenous women earn 95% of men's wages in the informal sector, self-employed indigenous women earn only 67% of men's wages in that sector. Indigenous women fare better when they are employed in the public sector, where they outperform non-indigenous women relative to men (World Bank 2008: 9).

Although women's wages are lower than men's, they contribute on average 47% of the household income (Salazar Carrasco 2009). Women's nearly equal contribution to household income is not always matched by equal decision-making and economic autonomy over how household resources are spent. This has significant consequences for women's access to assets, including food, education, and healthcare (Tierra 2011:14).

Occupational segregation is a constraint on competitiveness. In Bolivia, women's livelihoods and incomes continue to be adversely affected by the conditions of their labor force participation, such as unequal access to social benefits and undervalued remunerations for equivalent jobs.³⁴ Occupational segregation by sex can be a critical constraint to competitiveness and the ability to realize economic opportunity. Many factors, particularly their predominant responsibility for the care of children and their inferior access to assets, determine women's incipient labor insertion, mainly in small agricultural production units in rural areas and in micro enterprises in urban areas. Most of these productive initiatives are characterized by low productivity and competitiveness, due to constraints in access to productive training and credit, restricted assets ownership, low participation in productive associations and exclusion in the commercialization phase.

Women's businesses are less likely to be formalized. There is evidence of productivity gaps among companies based on their size. Big companies, on average, have productivity rates 24 times higher than small and micro enterprises due to higher capital investments, increased capacity to adopt productive technologies, and greater opportunities to access external markets.³⁵ A high percentage of small companies are owned by women, deepening the disparities in competitiveness and economic opportunities among men and women.

A 2008 World Bank study compared the competitiveness of women-owned and men-owned businesses in Bolivia. It found significant differences in the levels of formality and profitability of men's and women's businesses. On average, women's businesses are less likely to be registered with the municipality (47% vs. 61% for men) or to have a tax identification (ID) number (21% vs. 33% for men). However, larger women-owned businesses (those with 11 or more employees) are more likely than men-owned businesses of the same size to be registered (100% vs. 72%) and to have a tax ID (100% vs. 79%) (World Bank 2008:12-13). The study argues that the greater informality of women's businesses is linked to women's lower educational levels and to the sectors in which the businesses are concentrated. After controlling for these differences, the study found that women and men business owners respond to the same

³⁴ Wanderley, F. (2010). "Género, Etnicidad y Trabajo en Bolivia". CIDES/UMSA. La Paz, Bolivia.

³⁵ Farrah I. & Sanchez C. (2008). "Perfil de Género en Bolivia". Vice ministerio de Género y Asuntos Generacionales - CIDES/UMSA. La Paz, Bolivia.

incentives to formalize their businesses, namely to obey the law, increase their client base, and to avoid fines (World Bank 2008:13).

On the whole, women's businesses are less profitable than men's, regardless of whether they are formal or informal businesses. Male business owners work four hours more per week than women but even after accounting for the difference in time worked, men's businesses generated 30% more profits than women's businesses in the same sectors. These differences appear to be explained by differences in scale of operation, levels of education, and experience of business owners (World Bank 2008).

Women business owners also encounter gender-based constraints that affect profitability. They may lack property titles for collateral to secure bank loans. Also they may not find financial instruments that offer terms to meet the needs of the size or type of businesses they run. Limited access to credit constrains women's access to the assets and equipment necessary to make their businesses more profitable. Women's business owners also encounter time conflicts between their businesses, child care, and other domestic chores. Women also face problems in market access due to low profit margins, extortion from corrupt officials, and gender-based violence (World Bank 2008).

The division of labor varies by region. There are regional variations in the division of labor that are closely linked to indigenous populations. In Aymara and Quechua rural communities, the ideal conceptualization of *chacha warmi* (Aymara) or *qari warmi* (Quechua), meaning man-woman, defines women's and men's roles as complementary. This is a highly contested concept in current Bolivian gender discourse. Middle-class feminists argue that this is an idealized notion that obscures hierarchical gender relations that relegate women to subordinate positions in economic decision-making and leadership. Many Aymara and Quechua public intellectuals state that *chacha warmi* is an ideal that was distorted by colonial structures that imposed gender inequality. Indigenous women (particularly those affiliated with women's groups within indigenous social movement organizations) argue that the division of labor in rural communities is complementary but not equal.

Women assume responsibility for virtually all household tasks related to care of children, food processing and cooking, gathering of fuel and water, laundry, and cleaning. Men and women undertake joint tasks (plowing and sowing) tasks and similar tasks (weeding and harvesting) in agriculture. Women generally shoulder a greater responsibility for the daily care of animals, although men are very involved in breeding and shearing. Both men and women play important roles in the commercialization of agricultural products. Women tend to play a greater role in direct sales of food products, such as potatoes and vegetables, while men are more involved in the sale of income-generating farm production, such as wool, milk, quinoa, barley, and coffee. These are not, however, hard and fast divisions of responsibility. In most households in the highlands and valleys, women play a dominant role in administering monetary resources, although decisions about how those resources are to be spent are rarely made independently by women. When asked, most men and women will state that those decisions are made jointly.

In Guarayos³⁶ in the Amazonian lowlands, women and men are involved in agriculture but perform different types of activities. Men clear land, hunt, and go to market. Women are responsible for gathering firewood, water and performing most household care, i.e., cooking, childcare, laundering. When forest management activities are added into the set of economic activities, they have a direct impact on the division of labor and responsibilities in the household, especially when these entail extended absences of men from their communities. Men's absence affects their obligation to ensure there is adequate food for their families while they are away. Providing sufficient food during absences of a week or more is problematic (Cronkleton 2005: 261). Women are also adversely affected by men's absence as they have to assume tasks normally performed by men in addition to their own. Some activities, such as maintenance of agricultural fields may lapse. In the long run, such postponed tasks may threaten agricultural production (Cronkleton 2005).

During site visits to projects located in the highlands, valleys, and lowlands, the GA team observed that although women participate actively in productive processes, they do not participate in trainings supported by USAID projects to improve production, processing, and marketing. Their husbands or partners, on the other hand, do have access to this kind of training. Men and women, as well as project implementers, stated that women are too busy to attend the trainings. In one case, the stated reason was the women had to take care of the animals, even though the training was about ways to improve milk production. Women also participate less than men in producer associations, and are rarely full voting members. Men, however, are prioritized by productive associations or promote their participation in trainings as a more effective way to improve productivity. As full members of associations, men are often more directly involved in commercialization and frequently receive payment for products that are jointly produced by domestic partners. Women frequently complain that these transactions are not transparent and result in their loss of control over products they sold and jointly made decisions about regarding the use of resulting income. Additionally, without full membership and active participation in associations and community meetings, women are limited in their access to price and other information required if equal responsibility is to be shared for production and marketing decisions.

4.2 USAID/Bolivia's Future Work in Sustainable Development: Opportunities

The USAID SDE programs have focused on providing productive opportunities for the poor, vulnerable, indigenous, and other disadvantaged groups in Bolivia through promotion of sustainable agriculture and natural resources-based value chain integration and market linkages in both rural and urban areas. There are cross-linkages among sectors as they relate to poverty reduction. It is likely that sustainable landscapes and climate adaptation (Section 5) will be additional areas where the economic needs of poor rural and peri-urban populations will be addressed. The health program (Section 6) will also continue to be a key piece of the Mission's

³⁶ There are many Amazonian ethnic groups, all with different practices. The research team focused on the Guarayo as they are the group with which USAID/Bolivia programs are working in Madidi, and the Tsimanes, Mosevenes and Takana (Amazonas Project in Rurrenabaque).

contribution to poverty reduction in Bolivia, particularly in the Departments of La Paz, Chuquisaca, and Potosi.

Given the current uncertainty of USG funding for LAC countries, it is likely that the new CDCS' focus will need to be reduced to address a narrower set of poverty reduction measures. Within the SDE portfolio, it is expected that the number of implementing mechanisms will be reduced from eight to three, namely: 1) Integrated Food Security Project (IFS), 2) Bolivian Productivity and Competitiveness Project (BPC), and 3) Integrated Development and Conservation in the Bolivian Amazon Project (which is reviewed in Section 4). Two current SDE programs, integrated food security and economic competitiveness, will continue until 2014, and are included as part of the analysis of USAID's strategic priorities.

Food Security (including nutrition)

Based on lessons learned and promising practices, there are opportunities for future USAID programming to promote gender equitable access to productive assets ownership in communities, influencing the organizational regulations of productive associations to guarantee either equal or joint ownership by women and men of productive assets. Support to agricultural value chains should also open up new opportunities for both women and men at all levels of the value chain, by engaging producers, processors, transporters, and traders to identify and respond to gender-based constraints to women's active participation as decision makers and full beneficiaries. This may entail some affirmative action measures, as well as the provision of specific types of support, such as daycare (by their male partners or others), transport, financial incentives, and other accommodations to enable women to attend training courses and meetings.

Another opportunity to tackle gender gaps in food security and sovereignty is to address the barriers that affect women's effective participation in sustainable agricultural production, commercialization and market linkages. Traditional gender roles impede women's ability to be more active in the agriculture production cycle. Food Security programming contains a broad range of training that should ensure women's participation, not only in order to comply with gender balance, but because women's participation enhances potential improvements in the productive cycle that might be absent if these initiatives are just "male-driven."

Although women shoulder a greater burden in childcare and food preparation in both the highlands and lowlands among many ethnic groups, men assume responsibility for these tasks when their partners are away from their households. Despite gender stereotypes held by Bolivians who do not live in rural communities, men have knowledge and skills in both of these domestic arenas. In the highlands, men also support their partners during childbirth and during the post-partum month. They care about the health of their partners and children, but lack knowledge about healthcare because most programs target women since they are an easier audience to capture. Natural resource management and food security programs have potential to integrate information on nutrition into sustainable forestry activities, as well as agricultural technical assistance and extension. There are also opportunities to schedule nutrition and health education as part of community-wide meetings, with the added benefit that women are more

likely to attend the community meetings and men are more likely to attend the nutrition and health sessions.

USAID has the opportunity to support women's groups, through ACOBOL, CONAMAQ (National Council of Ayllus and Indigenous Communities of Qullasuyu), Bartolina Sisa, etc., in developing charters and statutes at the municipal level to ensure women's equitable access to land under indigenous autonomous governance structures in line with the mandates established in the CPE. As noted above, there is a potential synergy between measures that guarantee women equal access to land under collective tenancy regimes and their political participation in indigenous communities and autonomous indigenous, original, and peasant governance units. This is also a strategic objective of ACOBOL (see section on Democracy and Governance below).

Competitiveness and Economic Development

USAID/Bolivia has extensive experience through the Bolivian Productivity and Competitiveness Project (BPC) and other previous projects in supporting value chains such as textiles and apparel, wood industries and handmade products, which are part of the "I Buy Bolivian" initiative (*Compro Boliviano*). BPC represents an opportunity to address gender disparities in economic opportunities and competitiveness.³⁷

BPC (and future programming) could also provide technical assistance and training to women-owned businesses that are successful in winning contracts for domestic production, to help increase and improve their capacity for export production. The development of entrepreneur capacities that provide equal opportunities for men and women is an important method to narrow gender gaps and improve the competitiveness of small and medium-sized enterprises. The project should use the sex-disaggregated data it is currently collecting to assess whether it is appropriately matching training to the different needs and constraints of women- versus men-owned businesses.

USAID has the opportunity, through the competitiveness programming, to enhance opportunities for networking among women business owners through both formal (e.g., business associations) and informal (e.g., trade shows) mechanisms. USAID might also explore working with unions of market sellers to improve the business skills of individual entrepreneurs, and to build the capacity of unions to strengthen the business skills of their members. Moreover, projects can collect and analyze the sex-disaggregated data to assess whether businesses owned by women have equal opportunities to access information, credit, technology, export markets, qualified workers, training, and inputs necessary for production, in comparison to businesses owned by

³⁷ The PDES focus on internal markets would be a first channel to increase employment and improve competitiveness in some industries. USAID might provide technical assistance to women-owned businesses to bid on contracts through the Fostering Bolivian Purchases Program (*Compro Boliviano*). This program will focus on textiles (military uniforms, work clothing, blankets, and other); leather (footwear and leather goods); wood (furniture, floors, doors, windows and other); metal mechanics (freight storage and structures); food (school lunch and breakfast) and services (civil construction, solid waste and road maintenance). USAID/Bolivia also could consider supporting advocacy with government entities at all levels to put in place evaluation criteria supportive of contracting with women-owned businesses through "Asociación de Alcaldesas y Concejalas de Bolivia (ACOBOL).

men. The project has already made adjustments in scheduling and provision of daycare to allow women to attend skills development courses. The analysis may reveal the need for other adjustments to make women's businesses competitive with men's. These may include, for example: remedial literacy and numeracy, executive and management coaching, and financial incentives or venture capital for women's businesses in nontraditional sectors, beyond textiles, food processing, and handicrafts.

Based on the analysis of the existing portfolio, there are promising practices that can redress gender gaps and disparities. As the Mission will now focus on conservation and climate change activities, below are a few of the lessons learned from sustainable economic activities that are applicable to the Sustainable Landscapes portfolio.

The promotion of women's full participation in productive associations is necessary to ensure access to economic opportunities. In Yapacani, the productive associations supported by Rural Competitiveness Activity (ARCo) drafted their operative regulations, including that the membership should occur jointly. In this sense, women's participation with a vote and voice in meetings is improving the results of the productive process. (NB: It is important to note that this was not an identified result of the project, but rather the result of an association's initiative.)

Introducing joint shares for married partners will change asset ownership in the tourism sector and other commercial enterprises. New Mission-funded activities in conservation and climate change have the opportunity to work with local communities to develop and apply different models and methods for improving women's assets ownership. For instance, the Takana groups involved in ecotourism have developed statutes supporting joint shares for married partners in the community tourism company. In Yapacani and the Yungas some of the producer associations supported by ARCo drafted new operational regulations supporting full membership for both men and women from each participating household.

Adjusting the location, scheduling, and length of workshops will increase women's participation and capacity building. The attendance by couples in workshops, technical tours and other training opportunities have a greater impact in improving the agriculture productive process, thus increasing food security and sovereignty. The Economic Competitiveness Project adjusted the timing of classes from eight hours a day for five consecutive days to three hours at night over three weeks to enable women's participation. In addition, the Project provided daycare services for children whose parents attended the training.

5. SUSTAINABLE LANDSCAPES

5.1 Gender-based Constraints and Gaps

Many of the gender-based constraints faced by women in relation to their access to and control over natural resources and their capacity to implement conservation measures are similar to those faced by women in agriculture. Women and men interact with the natural environment in different ways and their access to and control over resources is conditioned by gender-based norms, which vary across different ethnic groups. The effects of global warming

also have differential impacts on men and women, which affect their role as users of natural resources and producers. For instance, women, who are mostly responsible for gathering fuel and water, often have to walk farther when closer water sources dry up or cause changes to vegetation used for fuel. Effects on agricultural production may also contribute to men's or women's migration, depending on whose sources of livelihood is more adversely affected.

As noted, the CPE simultaneously recognizes equal individual rights of men and women and the group rights of ethnic groups to determine the rights of their members. This can result in gender-based disparities, because in many Bolivian ethnic groups women do not have equal rights to resources or control over their allocation and disposal. Moreover, men are often in a stronger position to advocate for the primacy of their rights as they occupy the majority of indigenous leadership posts, speak Spanish with greater facility, and have achieved more education than women. As men are often the interlocutors with people from outside the communities, such as government officials and other development agents, in many parts of the country women have little influence over the design and delivery of development programs.

In addition, in many places, women engage in activities that have a lighter impact on the environment, such as collecting plants, collection of fuel wood from the ground, and growing fruit trees and vegetables around their homesteads (Boyd 2002). Where women's activities do pose a threat to the environment, they tend to be less lucrative than men's activities. Experience suggests that it is easier and cheaper to identify alternative activities in those instances with attractive economic incentives. Women are largely invisible in the statistics on forestry and other extractive industries. They are also often overlooked in the planning of economic and monitoring activities that are designed to provide alternative sources of income for more damaging pursuits such as the lumbering, hunting, and mining undertaken mostly by men.

Little regional level data exists on gender and conservation of biodiversity. Without conducting a much more comprehensive literature review than was feasible, it is difficult to draw generalizations about gender differences within and across regions as there is very little national or regional-level sex disaggregated information related to the use, management, and conservation of natural resources. Impact-level indicators measure environmental outcomes rather than differential outcomes of climate change, loss of biodiversity on women and men, or the efficacy and equity of different adaptation strategies. However, there is an emerging body of localized studies in Bolivia that examines gender differences in the management and use of natural resources in different ethnic groups and under a variety of diverse ecological conditions in Bolivia (e.g., Boyd 2002, Bolaños and Schmink 2005, Cronkleton 2005, Perales Miranda 2008, Sarmiento Sanchez 2008, Poats et al 2007). While conditions and practices vary across cultures and ecologies, these studies identify some of the major gender-based constraints that limit equitable participation of men and women in conservation and natural resource management programs. Many of these constraints are matters of perception on the part of implementers, who make erroneous assumptions about men's and women's different roles and responsibilities with regard to agriculture and natural resource use and management.

In the Amazonian basin areas of the country, women's productive roles in agriculture and forestry are often disregarded by environmentalists and government development agents. Therefore little consideration is given to the important ways that women interact with and contribute to the management of natural resources. For instance, USAID programs in the northern part of the Department of La Paz have focused more attention on men's forestry (e.g., hunting and logging) activities than on women's non-timber extractive activities, such as collection of plants for food, handicrafts, and medicinal purposes.

Women's perspectives on the importance of certain resources often are also overlooked. For example, a survey of Guarayo men and women at the outset of developing a forest management plan revealed that women were more interested in participating in the plan through activities related to hunting, provision of food, conducting inventories and census, and marketing than men (Bolaños and Schmink 2005). These expectations changed after a year of implementing the plan, as gender-related power dynamics within households and the community constrained women's participation in many of these activities. Women confronted time constraints due to their domestic duties, which conflicted with being able to go to meetings and training sessions. Some men also opposed their partners' participation in income earning activities as they feared an independent source of income might motivate them to abandon their families. In the end, women were segregated into income generating activities that mirrored their domestic chores, such as cooking for forest workers (Bolaños and Schmink 2005).

According to Bolaños and Schmink, women's exclusion from hunting and participating in meetings were critical to excluding them from effective participation in decision making in the development and implementation of the forestry management plan under the Bolfor Project, despite efforts to involve women. Their conclusion relates to another common constraint: programs that strengthen local organizations as a part of conservation activities tend to reinforce existing power structures in many cases leaving women outside the decision-making process and potentially excluding them from more-secure resource rights. If traditionally-structured local organizations become the vehicle for the distribution of land titles or use rights, or revenues from sales of forestry products, women may not have equal opportunities to secure titles and benefit from revenues. Furthermore, in Bolfor women advocated for husbands to be paid in front of their spouses so that women would have more of an opportunity to influence how the income would be spent (Cronkleton 2005).

In Rurrenabaque, differences among women's participation and organization in two different ethnic groups, the Tsimane and Takana, demonstrate how attention to women's organizational needs can have significant impacts on their capacity to participate effectively and benefit more equitably from programs. While Tsimane women were invited to community meetings, they found it hard to do so because of conflicting demands on their time. As a result they have had little participation or say in the development of natural resource management plans. In contrast, Takana women take part in a women's organization that participates in a variety of political arenas, including in leadership positions in regional indigenous organizations. They are well

regarded and supported by men in their communities and have considerable influence over decisions in their communities and regions.³⁸

Women's time constraints may exclude them from being able to participate regularly in meetings, and local practices may limit their capacity to voice their opinions publicly. Many program implementers assume that men will transmit the information to their partners and consult with them about decisions. While both of these assumptions have some basis, there are several consequences of this approach that disadvantage women and may put program objectives at risk. First, men's capacity to transmit the information is based on their ability to understand it or to have familiarity with the dimensions of production or commercialization that the new training covers. In many instances, the training relates to activities that women are in charge of, as is the case with the PROLAGO project activities (a USAID-funded activity) in the Cohana watershed in the Department of La Paz. Women are predominantly responsible for the care and decisions about livestock. They are the ones who collect and use manure for fuel. The project aims to convert manure into methane fuel and humus. Women are involved in the use of the fuel as well as the tending of the worms and manure to make humus, yet men attend the training sessions. Program implementers, and men and women from the communities all concur that women are too busy to attend the sessions and that their limited capacity in Spanish makes it difficult to understand. Timing, venue, and language are all gender-based constraints that limit women's access to new knowledge. Project extension agents have to make follow-up visits to homesteads to replicate information training in the offsite courses, so that women can implement the new techniques. This is a common pattern in the both the highland and lowland areas of the county.

Many argue that women do have a role in decision making about community matters because, at least in communities in the Altiplano and valleys, husbands consult with their wives before voting on communal decisions. By not participating, however, women are denied the right to collective bargaining—i.e., the right to confer with other women and men, and to form coalitions and advocate for their interests. Peter Cronkleton (2005:270) demonstrates the importance of women participating as a group in community decisions rather than merely having individual influence over their partners' decisions under Bolfor. When women and men participated in a series of meetings to envision future investments in their communities, women advocated for greater investment in their homes. They were able to persuade men to include house improvements in their investment plans. Women were also able to provide much more detail on the specific upgrading needed. By including women in the discussion, the program implementers also learned about new issues that were of importance to the communities, which the men alone would not have articulated.

Finally, alternative economic activities for women are rarely prioritized by programs, and when they are, they are not subjected to the same criteria of marketability and profitability as men's activities. When programs offer opportunities for households to try new practices, single female-

³⁸ This information is based on focus groups in Rurrenabaque conducted by the Gender Analysis Team.

headed households may not be able to participate because they tend to have greater labor constraints than households of married couples.

Since 1999, the provision and administration of water and sanitation has fallen under the jurisdiction of municipal governments (per the Municipalities Law). Consideration of the differential interests of and impacts on men and women is evident in only a few municipal plans, even though the law explicitly stipulates that gender equitable participation and benefits should be addressed in developing municipal plans (Articles 5 and 8 Ley de Municipalidades 1999). The National Plan for the Development of Irrigation also includes gender, generational, and social equity as a fundamental principle of the Plan. The Plan states: “this principle is manifested in the expression ‘water for all’ without distinction.” It goes on to emphasize that it may be necessary to understand and respond to the different demands of specific groups, such as female heads of households in rural areas and other groups that are in the process of undertaking irrigated agriculture (Gutierrez Perez 2009: 62).

Translating the laws and plans into practice presents a challenge. A recent study of gender and irrigation in Bolivia (Gutierrez Perez 2009) found that in practice few water officials address gender differences in access to irrigation because they:

- Believe that other issues are more pressing
- Do not understand what is meant by gender equity
- Do not regard it as a ‘felt need’ in the communities they work in, but rather an exigency of donor agencies
- Do not have knowledge or access to appropriate practical methodologies, which is complicated by the need to adapt methods and approaches to the cultural and ecological diversity of Bolivian communities

Another significant challenge relates to equitable management of irrigation and potable water systems that involves the active inclusion of both men and women. The challenges of involving women in water user management groups are similar to many of those stated earlier, such as time constraints, lack of literacy and language facility in Spanish, and cultural and social norms that do not perceive women as capable leaders.

5.2 USAID/Bolivia’s Future Work in Sustainable Landscapes: Opportunities

Although, the specific priorities in the GPSB’s new strategy for the environment have not yet been established, it is likely that USAID will continue to support activities analogous to current programs that aim to reduce threats to biodiversity in the Bolivian Amazon and around Lake Titicaca in the Andean highlands. USAID’s current priorities are to address the erosion of the natural resource base that is undermining rural Bolivian’s food security and address issues related to climate change mitigation and adaptation.

Bolivia is the center of origin for many cultivated species, and wild crop relatives are an important target for conservation measures, not only for the intrinsic value of endemic species and varieties conservation but also for their cultural, scientific, and economic value, real or

potential. Protecting Bolivia's agricultural heritage through conservation and sustainable management is important on a global level, while locally it can create jobs, expand exports, alleviate poverty and reduce food insecurity.

In response to the threats of conversion and degradation of forests, pampas, and other natural habitats in the Bolivian Amazon, USAID currently operates three programs that support its environmental objectives, namely: the Amazon Project, El Alto-Lake Titicaca Pollution Management Project (PROLAGO), and Integrated Food Security (IFS) and Biodiversity Program.

In 2009 USAID/Bolivia initiated a lowlands conservation program to improve local and municipal governance of forests and biodiversity, generate financing for conservation, and increase resilience to global climate change by helping communities develop non-timber sources of income. The main purpose of the Amazon Project is to provide direct support to promote protection, conservation and sustainable use of the region's biodiversity, goods and services; increase incomes and promote economic growth through sustainable use of biodiversity; strengthen participatory local governance to improve environmental and territorial management; and, strengthen the capacity of national and sub-national government institutions to develop policies and technical tools that promote biodiversity conservation, mitigate the impacts of climate change and support sustainable economic development. The project works in and around the Madidi Protected Area in the Department of Santa Cruz, and in Rurrenabaque in the Department of Beni.

In the Highlands, in 2001, USAID/ Bolivia also started the PROLAGO El Alto-Lake Titicaca Pollution Management Program to promote the conservation and sustainable use of the Lake Titicaca ecosystem. The objective of PROLAGO is to contribute to the improvement of environmental quality in the El Alto-Bahía Cohana watershed, reducing risks to environmental health and biodiversity in the project area while simultaneously improving the lives and well-being of the Bolivians who live there. The Project supports local organizations to implement pollution abatement activities and best management practices in the Katari River basin and its tributaries, which have been identified as the principal sources of water contamination in Cohana Bay, located in the minor lake of Lake Titicaca.³⁹

PROLAGO actively works in the municipalities of Pucarani, Puerto Pérez, Viacha, and El Alto. The project promotes and supports activities that reduce surface water contamination emanating from urban areas and sustainable use of natural resources in the communities neighboring Lake Titicaca. In rural areas PROLAGO's efforts to reduce lake pollution focus on activities that utilize manure aimed at the economic benefit of farm families through the production of fertilizers (humus and boil) and energy (biogas). In the urban areas, the focus is on closing dump sites, establishing new sanitary landfills, upgrading sewage and solid waste systems, and establishing pilot clean production activities in industries such as tanneries and slaughterhouses.

³⁹ Taken from a description of the Initiative for Conservation of Andean Amazon (ICAA) in USAID Biodiversity Conservation and Forestry Programs Annual Report (USAID 2010: October).

The IFS Program is building the resilience of food vulnerable populations in biologically significant areas, including adaptation measures to minimize climate change impacts. The overall goal of the program is to increase food security and reduce chronic malnutrition, which supports the GPSB's Extreme Poverty Alleviation Program by increasing food security and decreasing chronic malnutrition in rural areas of Bolivia. The program's objectives focus on achieving significant impacts consistent with the four pillars of food security – access, availability, utilization, and vulnerability – while also incorporating critical elements of USAID's Feed the Future Initiative through an integrated approach that links these pillars to health/nutrition, infrastructure, biodiversity, climate change and adaptation issues, taking into account the local conditions of the project communities.

There are several promising practices in conservation and climate change developed under previous USAID/Bolivia programs.

Community Analysis and Tools for Gender-responsive Monitoring and Evaluation. The Bolfor Project appears to have been successful in implementing a gender plan of action. The project developed an internal gender policy to address institutional constraints, a monitoring and evaluation process to assess the impact of broadened participation and attention to equity in the distribution of benefits, and adaptation of regional strategies to account for variation in gender relations across different types of settlements and ethnic groups (Cronkleton *forthcoming*). On an institutional level, extension agents made small changes such as scheduling meetings later in the day so that women could participate after completing early morning chores and actively soliciting input from all participants through the use of translators, breaking into smaller groups, and slowing the pace of the meeting. This led to both increased attendance and active participation by women who had previously not been present or vocal at meetings.

A community information system for monitoring *who* was paid for *what* types of labor provided community members with a transparent system for tracking the distribution of benefits to different individuals and households. The most significant outcomes of the community analysis of the monitoring information were that in recognition that some individuals and households were profiting considerably more than others, they developed a more equitable rotation among households of time spent on forestry activities. An illustration of accommodation is when payment was made to couples (in response to a request by women), rather than to an individual man, in order to give women a greater say over decisions about the allocation of labor time and the use of household income.

Finally, broader participation and active solicitation of concerns and expectations of women and adolescents in the management process brought to light issues and objectives that had not been articulated in male-only meetings. The involvement of a more diverse set of actors had the additional advantage of providing a greater number of people with the management skills that are essential for making the community forestry management plans sustainable.

Equitable Participation and Women's Active Participation. Lessons learned from Bolfor (Cronkleton 2005, Bolaños and Schmink 2005, Paulson 2002) and IFS suggest effective ways to

promote the equitable participation of women. The opportunities are similar to those identified for agriculture and food security above. They include addressing women's time constraints so they can participate more fully in the development of resource management planning and monitoring; participate in and benefit from sustainable enterprises; and participate fully in and occupy leadership positions in producer associations and resource management and user committees. There are also opportunities to think creatively about how to support men's and women's assumptions about non-traditional gender roles, especially when new activities are introduced that do not relate directly to existing roles, such as natural resource monitoring and management.

The Bolfor Project sought to decrease predatory logging, which strips all trees from the forest regardless of whether they are sold or used and thereby contributes to rapid deforestation and climate change. In project areas where women placed a higher value on the importance of hunting and medicinal plants, there was greater potential to engage them in conservation activities. Bolfor's approach can serve as a model, both as a process and as a guide for setting reasonable expectations about the rate of change. The process that the project followed began with identifying structural and perceptual constraints to full participation by men and women (young and old) in project-sponsored activities. These included ideas about appropriate labor and leadership roles for men and women; different types of time, language, and literacy constraints; and project-level institutional practices and attitudes that had a potentially negative impact on program outcomes. Furthermore, by making gender relations and roles a central part of working with TCOs and ASLs, the Project significantly broadens participation in community forestry management.

The IFS Program has supported GPSB vicuña conservation efforts through organization and technical strengthening of communal shearing of vicuña fiber. The groups the Project supports are composed of both men and women who appear to plan, implement, and decide jointly. Women play leadership roles in the groups and share equally in making decisions about the use of the funds generated from shearing. One factor that has contributed to equitable participation is that several of the veterinarians and agronomists involved in the project are women. This contrasts with some other IFS agricultural activities that appear to segregate women and men into gender roles more in line with women's domestic activities and men's productive roles. The vicuña activity recognizes and builds on women's central role in animal production in the Altiplano.

6. GLOBAL HEALTH INITIATIVE

The new Constitution of the Plurinational State of Bolivia (CPE) establishes that men and women are equal with respect to justice, reciprocity and solidarity principles, thereby guaranteeing both women and men access to quality services in support of both their sexual and reproductive health. The CPE also recognizes the full rights of all men and women to express their sexuality, sexual orientation, and reproductive choices.

The Bolivian health policy framework does not yet incorporate explicit attention to key gender issues that may affect health outcomes or contribute to greater gender equality. For example, the Family and Community Intercultural Health (SAFCI) Policy provides little guidance on how to address gender inequalities within the context of family and community intercultural healthcare. Although women and men are prominently featured in the photographs of the official MoH publication on SAFCI, the document does not address how to ensure equal opportunities for men and women to participate in decision making, and oversight of SAFCI at different administrative levels (community, municipal, departmental and national).

6.1 Gender Gaps and Disparities

Gender inequalities contribute to Poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes. The maternal mortality ratio is frequently regarded as a leading indicator of gender equality in a country. In Bolivia, on average, 623 women die during pregnancy, labor, or immediately post partum period every year. The maternal mortality ratio from the last census is 229 per 100,000 thousand live births due to: hemorrhage 33%, infections 17%, abortion 9%, hypertension 5%, obstructed labor 2% and other causes 34% (including other morbidities, accidents, homicides and suicides). It is very difficult to arrive at an accurate measure of the maternal mortality ratio in Bolivia. The 1998 and 2008 DHS measured MMR, as did the 2001 census. The DHS and the Census used different non-comparable methodologies. The DHS showed a change over 10 years from 390/100,000 live births in 1998 and 310/100,000 live births in 2008. The MMR in 2003 was 229/100,000 live births but the interval between 2003 and 2008 is too small to compare the two figures with any accuracy. The Bolivian government has opted to use the 2001 Census figure of 235 until they have a new measurement following the new census, which is to be conducted in 2012.

MMR is influenced by social and economic determinants. Seventy percent of the women who died had less than six years of education. Indigenous women are the most vulnerable to dying in childbirth, especially those who live in rural areas. They have four times greater probability of pregnancy and birth-related deaths than women who live in urban areas (64.3% vs. 15.3%). Although 53% of maternal deaths happen at home, 37% occur in hospitals that should be providing skilled delivery and postpartum care. Seventy percent of hospital deaths occur during labor or in the immediate postpartum period (DHS, 2008).

Prenatal care coverage is high, with 80% of women making antenatal visits. In rural areas this percentage is lower, at 69%. A much lower percentage of women return to give birth in health facilities. Nationally, 67% of women give birth in a health facility or are assisted by a skilled provider. In rural areas, only 43% of women give birth with a skilled provider. The quality of care, particularly in rural areas, is one of the reasons that so few women decide to give birth in healthcare facilities. It is well documented that women and their families often experience poor and abusive treatment by healthcare providers (see Bradby and Murphy-Lawless 2002, Dibbits 1994). Other factors include absence of personnel in the health facilities and challenging distances and lack of transport. Postpartum care within the first 24 hours is low in rural (51%)

and still inadequate in urban (76%) areas (DHS 2008).⁴⁰ Nearly half of women who gave birth outside of a health facility did not have a postpartum visit, while about 15% of women who gave birth in a health facility had no postpartum visit. More than 50% of women with no education or only primary education also had no postpartum consultation. Of those women who gave birth in a health facility and had a postpartum visit, almost half had their first exam within 4 hours of giving birth. As the DHS only asks about when the first visit occurred, it is not possible to discern if women are getting adequate postpartum care, as women and their newborns should be seen again after 24 hours, then 7 days, and then one month after giving birth. It is not uncommon for women to leave the hospital 4-6 hours after delivery. Half of the women who did not give birth in a health facility did not have their first postpartum visit until 3-41 days postpartum, a potentially fatal interval for women who develop postpartum hemorrhage or infections (DHS 2008).

As noted above, use of modern FP methods is extremely low (see Table 1) in comparison with other countries in the LAC region (average is 65-70%). The use of modern contraceptives in rural areas is only 25%, which is 10% lower than the national average. According to the DHS (2008), 33% of women of reproductive age have anemia and this percentage is higher in pregnant women. Almost a quarter of pregnant women develop emergency obstetric complications that pose health risks for mother and child (DHS 2008).

Table 1: Reproductive Health Indicators (DHS, 2003, 2008)

	Bolivia			La Paz			Chuquisaca			Potosi		
	2003	2008	+/-	2003	2008	+/-	2003	2008	+/-	2003	2008	+/-
Contraceptive Prevalence (women in union) ⁴¹	34.9	34.6	-0.3		23.2			38.1			25.2	
Skilled Delivery Care	60.8	71.1	+	10.3	61.6			76.3			54.9	
Adolescent Pregnancies	15.7	17.9	+	2.2	12			16.6			18.5	

Women encounter numerous barriers in trying to realize their desired family size. In rural areas, women have twice the number of children that they say they desire. Among adolescent girls, who have little access to reproductive health services, unintended pregnancies are particularly high and have been rising (from 14% in 1998 to 18% in 2008). A recent study of abortion in Bolivia (Aliaga Bruch et al 2011), for which more than 1,000 women were interviewed in five cities, found that 48% said they had at least one unintended pregnancy, and 61% were not using any method of contraception. Only 2.3% said they did not use modern contraceptives because of lack of access.⁴² Among the same group, 13% stated they had an abortion (Aliaga Bruch et al

⁴⁰ The GA team found a scope of work for an assessment of the Bono Juana Azurduy on UDAPE's website but was unable to find the evaluation.

⁴¹ The national Contraceptive Prevalence Rate for all women of reproductive age is 24%.

⁴² The highest percentage of women interviewed (46.2%) stated that they did not use modern FP because of their personal situation. The second highest percentage (44.1%) said that they did not use modern FP methods because of health reasons, and

2011). Increasingly, discussions with men in Bolivia reveal that they also suffer from a lack of reliable information about modern FP methods. Based on inadequate information or misinformation, they frequently oppose their partners' use of FP for fear of adverse health consequences or the belief that using modern methods promotes promiscuity. Women cite men's opposition to FP and fears of health dangers as the principal reasons they do not seek out FP.

A recent article (McNamee 2009) examined why, apart from poverty, women in areas with large indigenous populations have a high unmet need for contraception. One major factor seems to be men's lack of access to information about sexual and reproductive health (SRH). Another is women's perceptions, whether true or false, of their husband's negative opinions of the use of family planning. This was confirmed by a smaller qualitative study (Pinto et al. 2008) in which men and women focus group participants stated that because reproductive health education programs disseminate information only to women's groups, men are isolated from critical information they need, thus contributing to concerns about side effects and the reliability of different types of methods. This argues for greater men's involvement in SRH activities and the redesign of activities so they are more welcoming of men's participation.

Discrimination against LGBT and commercial sex workers and gender power imbalances discourage open discussion about HIV/AIDS and safe sex practices. HIV/AIDS in Bolivia, for the most part, affects Most at Risk Populations (MARPs), such as men who have sex with men (MSM) and commercial sex workers. As a result, according to the 2008 DHS, the vast majority of Bolivians perceive HIV as an affliction of others. Since 1984, when the first case of AIDS was announced, until March of 2011, Bolivia has had 6,474 cases, of which 40% are women. In 2008, 63% of the reported cases correspond to people who identify as heterosexual and 37% to people who identify as homosexuals (INE 2008).

The DHS further states that transmission of HIV in Bolivia is a result of unequal power in social and sexual relations between men and women. Women's lack of power to decide when to have sex, with whom, and with what protection constrains their capacity to negotiate the use of condoms or refuse sexual relations with both short-term and long-term partners whom they may view as putting them at risk of transmission of STIs or HIV. Women have less knowledge than men about HIV transmission and how to protect themselves from HIV infection. On average there is a 12% gap between the number of Bolivian women and men with knowledge of the ways to protect oneself. Almost 90% of the population knows about HIV/AIDS, but again, only 40% of the women in the poorest quintiles have the information, compared to 70% of men of the same quintile. When adolescents were asked about the use of male condoms in their first sexual intercourse only 15% of the girls stated they had used condoms compared to 27% of the boys.

The use of condoms among women is low, with only 4% of women stating they use them (DHS 2008). These percentages vary according to poverty quintiles; 8.9% of women of the wealthiest

the rest (7.4%) said didn't use contraception because they lacked information (Aliaga et al 2011:p 15). All the women participating in the study were from five cities in Bolivia: La Paz, Cochabamba, El Alto, Santa Cruz, and Sucre. Access may be a bigger problem for rural women and women living in smaller urban centers.

quintiles used it, compared to 0.4% of the poorest quintile (DHS, 2008). The gap between knowledge and practice is important and has a direct relationship to women's lack of autonomy and decision making about their bodies and sexuality. According to pervasive social norms in the country, women who use condoms are regarded as sexually promiscuous. Condom use by adolescents is regarded as socially unacceptable.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV) affects Bolivians of all sexes, although women and girls are at greater risk. From January to October 2011, the Special Victims Unit of the Police registered 791 cases of gender-based violence, of which 404 were deemed legal violations, 97% were perpetrated against girls and women, with 180 cases against girls aged 10-14 and 126 against aged 15-18; the great majority were perpetrated by close family members.⁴³ Of the 404 cases, only 25 were processed through the justice system and were heard in front of a judge. During this same period, 145 female homicides occurred, 89 of which were determined to be femicide.⁴⁴ This number grew: from January to June 2011 there were 77 cases of which 49% are femicide.⁴⁵

It has been more than a decade since the passage of the *Law against Family or Domestic Violence (1995)*. Following passage of that first law, the Municipal Law of 1998 stipulated that all municipal governments should establish integrated legal services (SLIMS) to provide legal assistance to survivors of gender-based violence. The national police also established Family Protection Brigades with specially trained police for survivors of violence. In 2008, the *Equal Opportunities Plan of the Ministry of Justice* and the *Strategic Health Plan* of the Ministry of Health incorporated prevention of GBV and care for those who experienced domestic violence into their priority programs. The legal norms specify that the Health Centers have the obligation to identify risk factors and to counsel and refer survivors to other professionals, institutions or networks that will offer them the required legal, psychological, and social service supports. In 2005, as part of the implementation of the National Plan, awareness-raising activities were carried out with national authorities and the Guide for Assistance to Victims of Intra Family and Sexual Violence was approved. Notwithstanding this achievement, the incidence of violence continues to be alarming and most health personnel do not know how to orient and/or refer survivors for the appropriate support. Many also ignore or refuse assistance as they fear reprisals from survivors' partners and community.

6.2 USAID/Bolivia's Current and Future Work in Health: Opportunities

The USAID Health Team developed a strategy for 2012-2017. It reflects the strategic health priorities of the GPSB and contributes directly to the strategic objective of the Ministry of Health's (MoH) Sectoral Strategic Plan. The objective of the MoH's Sectoral Plan is to eliminate social exclusion in health, and the goal of the USAID Health Strategy is to reduce social exclusion in health. USAID worked collaboratively with the MoH on the development of its

⁴³ The information comes from the registration system of the Special Victims Unit in Bolivia, 2011.

⁴⁴ Femicide is defined in this report as the murder of women and girls that results from the use of gender-based violence as a means of controlling them and their sexuality. There is currently a proposed Bolivian law that specifies femicide as a specific type of crime different from murder. It is analogous to a "hate crime" in the U.S. legal system.

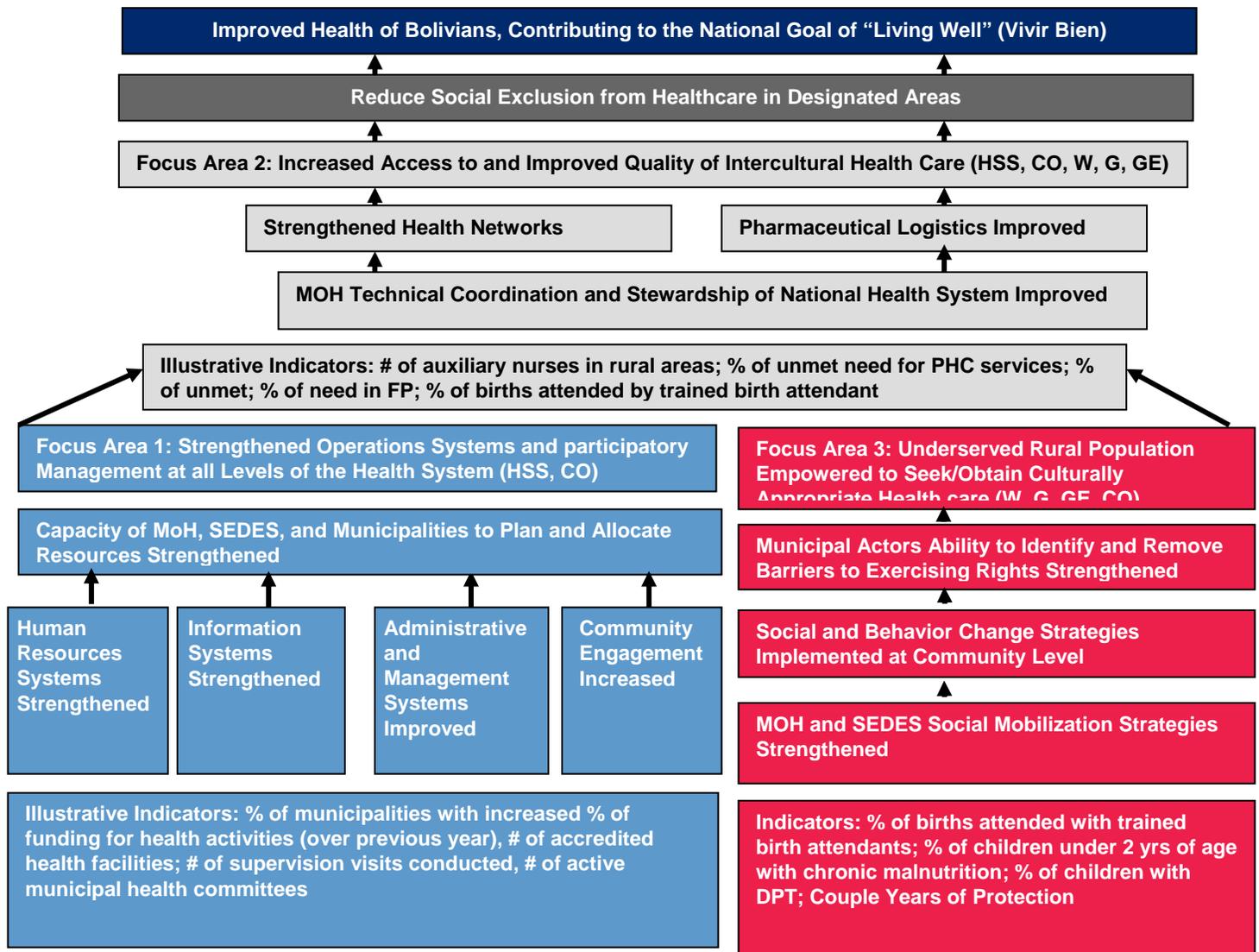
⁴⁵ Information cited was obtained from "Manuela Observatory" of CIDEM 2011.

strategy in order to ensure that the USAID Strategy is closely aligned with MoH policies. USAID/Bolivia has an approved Health Strategy (see Figure 6) for the period 2012-2017 that has a strategic objective (utilizing the previous framework) that supports gender equality and rights. The USAID Health Strategy incorporates the equity and rights framework to respond to Bolivia's new paradigm, strengthening women's participation in decision-making levels. Table 2 presents the alignment of the national institutional framework and USAID's strategy.

Table 2: Health Strategies

Bolivia's Political Constitution	National Development Plan	Sectoral Development Plan	USAID Health Strategy
Objective: All persons have the right to life, health and social security without any type of discrimination	Objective: Build a harmonious and just society without social exclusion Programmatic Area: "Patria Segura; Patria para todos and Patria Libre: Símbolo Mundial	Objective: "Towards Universal Health" to eliminate social exclusion in health	Objective: Reduce social exclusion in health care in designated areas
State guarantees the inclusion and access to quality of health for all	Contribute to mutual understanding, development in equality, promotion of interculturality with respect to the sovereignty of the country	Recuperate sovereignty and leadership role for the MSD	Strengthen Operative Systems and participatory management
State guarantees sexual and reproductive rights for men and women	Guarantee public health services and regulate the quality of private health services without any type of discrimination	Universal Access to a Universal Health System	Increase Access and Quality of intercultural and family health care
All persons have the right not to suffer any type of violence in the family or society	Right to live in a secure environment	Eliminate barriers to social exclusion	Empowerment of rural population to receive cultural appropriate healthcare

Figure 6: USAID Health Strategic Framework 2012-2017



The new health portfolio includes several programs that offer opportunities to reassign activities that could address gender gaps (see Table 3). These projects are reviewed and analyzed in the companion Volume II Gender-Focused Recommendations and Action Plan for USAID/Bolivia.

USAID/Bolivia is in an advantageous position to address gender disparities related to health, as both Bolivian MoH and USG gender and health policies align closely. Nevertheless there is a gap on both sides between policy and discourse, and practice, which provides an opportunity to work together along with other stakeholders to translate policy into action. There are a number of important conditions that will help to facilitate this process.

USAID and the MoH are implementing their joint program through UNICEF and PAHO. Both organizations have institutional gender policies, standards and accreditation systems, as well as designated gender point persons. The gender experts on the staff of each organization are charged with conducting and implementing the findings of gender analyses, monitoring the extent to which gender-based constraints are reduced by program actions, and evaluating the equity of program outcomes.

Table 3: USAID Proposed Health Programs under the New CDCS

Program	Project	Start Date	End Date	Implementer	Presence in new USAID Health Strategy
Health Strategic	Plan	01-Oct-2011	30-09-2014	CIES	Yes
Health Socia	I Marketing	01-Oct-2011	30-09-2014	PROSALUD	Yes
Health	FORTALESSA	TBD	TBD	MoH	Yes
FOR	TALESSA	01-Oct-2011	30-Sep-2016	OPS/OMS	Yes
FOR	TALESSA	01-Oct-2011	30-Sep-2016	UNICEF	Yes
Health Healt	hy Communities	12/20/2011	9/24/2014	PROSALUD-	Yes

Source: Interviews with Health Unit, USAID, 2011

The new health portfolio, which currently includes FORTALESSA (implemented by UNICEF and PAHO) and the Healthy Communities Program (implemented by PROSALUD), and CIES Sexual and Reproductive Health Services (Opciones) and PROSALUD's Social Marketing Project (PROMESO), provides opportunities to develop, disseminate and scale up gender promising practices. National policies support having gender as a crosscutting issue to respond to social exclusion. USAID and its partners should work on this opportunity to operationalize gender analysis in SAFCI structure/SNIS at the national and especially at departmental and municipal levels.

The different partners and implementers have developed methodologies that should be socialized and scaled up. There are also other experiences outside USAID that can be shared. It is important to create a community of knowledge that will strengthen the skills and capacities of the partners

and implementers (UNICEF, PAHO, CIES, and PROSALUD), and will also advocate with the MoH to introduce these promising practices.⁴⁶

Below are some of the promising experiences that employ a gender-focused approach. These include approaches that:

- Established an institutional accreditation process for certifying that member health services provide gender equitable quality of care;
- Engaged men and women in communities in a gender-equitable process of identifying and solving critical health problems;
- Built community awareness and activity in the prevention and reduction of GBV;
- Improved access and quality of sexual and reproductive health services and education for adolescents; and
- Promoted men's active participation in health and nutrition education.

PROCOSI developed an institutional accreditation process for certifying that health services of its members provide gender equitable quality of care. From 2001 to 2003 PROCOSI developed a program to certify member NGOs' health services as gender equitable if they instituted a number of reforms in their service delivery, personnel policies, and in their clinical protocols and standards of care. Each organization undertook a baseline study, developed an action plan, and conducted a final evaluation. In addition, all participating organizations implemented a common monitoring system that tracked ten standard indicators of quality of care from a gender perspective.

The WARMI Methodology has been adapted and is being used by Health Communities, CIES, and other PROCOSI affiliates as a means of engaging men and women in communities in a gender equitable process of identifying and solving critical health problems.⁴⁷ Save the Children, a member of the PROCOSI Network, developed the WARMI methodology in the early 1990s as a health education strategy for rural women. The approach has been adapted, applied, and re-adapted by different organizations in Bolivia and Peru. It was chosen as the first PAHO Best Practice in Gender, Ethnicity, and Health in 2008 (Silva 2008). The methodology now involves women, men, and local health workers, as well as community and municipal authorities. The objective of the WARMI approach is to identify and solve problems at the community level. The solutions identified, are usually different topic-focused health education conducted by community volunteers.⁴⁸

⁴⁶ A promising practice is a practice that appears to have resulted in positive outcomes but has not been subject to a rigorous evaluation.

⁴⁷ The Warmi methodology was originally developed by SAVE the Children in Inquisivi, Bolivia in the 1980's. It was widely adopted by many other /PROCOSI members to use in rural communities. In the 1990's, the Peruvian Feminist Organization, Manuala Ramos, adapted and improved on the methodology by giving more control over the process to community educators and by adding in advocacy and men's engagement components. Between 2002 and 2005 the methodology was readapted to the Bolivian context by the MOH's USAID funded PROSIN Project and by PROCOSI. CIES adapted it for use in urban contexts, originally for a focus on post-abortion care and subsequently for sexual and reproductive health more broadly.

⁴⁸ In its application in Morochata and Calamarca, the process resulted in significant improvements in health outcomes. Maternal deaths fell by approximately 75% and infant deaths by 50%. Other outcomes include:

- 95% increase in knowledge, attitudes and practices among the men and women with regard to their health, bodies, and reproductive cycle, based on pre- and post- tests

The *Avances de Paz* methodology, designed and implemented by Cultural Practice, LLC, has been adapted and adopted by PCI, APROSAR, CIES, and others to address GBV in rural and peri-urban areas.⁴⁹ All of these programs were based on the pilot *Avances de Paz* (Advancing Peace) program under the Health Policy Initiative IQC, which was originally implemented by PROCOSI members (APROSAR, CIES, PCI, Pro Mujer, Cemse, CIEP, PROSALUD) in communities of the municipalities of Quillacas, Machareti, Oruro, and El Alto. The project resulted in significantly increased community awareness and activity in the prevention and reduction of GBV. All four municipalities involved in the project designed and funded local government plans to organize or strengthen networks against GBV, improve health and legal services available to people affected by GBV, and conduct additional awareness-raising activities about other forms of gender-related discrimination and oppression.⁵⁰ CIES has voiced interest in applying the methodology throughout its network and PROSALUD included the methodology in its Healthy Communities proposal.

Previous Mission-funded adolescent sexual and reproductive Health Approaches have offered adolescents much needed specialized youth-friendly SRH services and education for poor youth in Bolivia. *Tomando Decisiones* (Making Decisions) implemented by Save the Children focused on improving access to and quality of adolescent friendly sexual and reproductive health services and education for adolescents by working with public health services in rural and urban areas of Bolivia. The project, which operated in 15 medium and large cities, emphasized citizen rights, gender equity, and cultural identity with the objective of improving adolescents' capacity to make responsible decisions in their sexual and reproductive lives. Its activities include adolescent training, teacher and parent training; youth-friendly services, including pharmacies; and peer education and advocacy. *Tu Decides* (You Decide) and *Viviendo Nuestra Sexualidad* (Living our Sexuality) are two consecutive iterations of CIES' adolescent sexual and reproductive health and leadership program. It fosters sexual health education in schools through use of peer educators. CIES establishes adolescent centers in their health clinics as safe spaces for adolescents to meet, participate in leadership training, and to prepare outreach activities for schools and health fairs.

There are fewer examples of strong men's involvement programs as earlier efforts such as Men as Partners ended before it was able to be fully implemented. The Integrated Food Security Project's promotion of men's active participation in health and nutrition education is an effort that merits further assessment, as do efforts by other donors, such as UNFPA's (with CISTAC and ACOBOL) municipal masculinities project to prevent political assault and

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- Positive changes in family relations, especially between couples, including decreased GBV and increased decision making by women and jointly with their partners (changes in power relations)
 - Men worked with women to help organize meetings, prepare snacks and look after young children while the women attended the training and planning sessions.
 - Men recognized that it was important for the women to learn and be asked to be included in the training sessions.

⁴⁹ The two-year project was funded by USAID/GH through the Constella-Futures Global Health Policy IQC.

⁵⁰ All four action plans have been funded either by the municipal governments (in Quillacas and Machareti) or by other sources (in Oruro and El Alto). Approximately 1,000 people participated in the process across the four municipalities, and 40 percent of the participants were youth APROSAR, CIES, PCI, and CARE have developed and applied GBV protocols in rural ethnic and urban communities. The approach has been adapted by CARE for use with adolescent boys and girls in schools. PCI has used it in the rural areas of Cochabamba, and CIES has institutionalized the process for use in all nine of its regional centers. APROSAR has continued to apply the methodology in Oruro and Beni.

violence.⁵¹ The IFS project discovered that in communities where health promoters are men, male members of the household are more likely to be present for home healthcare visits, as husbands are concerned about their wives inviting men into the home when they are not there. It turned out that men's jealousy provided an unanticipated opportunity to engage them more fully in health and nutrition education and information exchange.

The opportunity to engage men as fathers coincides with a new global initiative called *Men Care, a Global Fatherhood Campaign*. The campaign promotes men's involvement as equitable, responsive, and non-violent fathers and care givers.⁵² EngenderHealth also developed plans for implementing their Men as Partners methodology in Bolivia, but the project concluded before they began activities in the field. It is worth recuperating the plans for use in future health programs.⁵³

7. DEMOCRACY AND GOVERNANCE

7.1 Gender-based Constraints and Gaps for Democratic Governance

Despite notable changes in the balance of men's and women's political participation and leadership at the highest reaches of government, women still lag behind men in numbers and in effective exercise of power. The Bolivian National Development Plan prioritizes social equity and respect for cultural diversity and autonomy of action within the laws of the nation as key principles of national development. The plan also emphasizes the effectiveness and transparency of government. Specifically, the Plan and the CPE support broadened participation of all Bolivians regardless of gender, ethnicity, or class in the local process of decision making through structures that are compatible with their customary governance practices, as long as they are equitable and nondiscriminatory (according to Bolivian law and international human rights agreements).

Changes in electoral policies since 1997 have yielded dramatic changes in the composition of Bolivia's leadership (see Table 4). At both the national and municipal levels, Bolivia's elected officials have become an increasingly diverse group of representatives. Two major laws have contributed to greater participation of women and indigenous people in government. The Electoral Quotas Law (1997) mandated that women constitute a minimum of 30% of all parties' candidates. The Citizen Groups and Indigenous Peoples law of 2004 opened up the opportunity for social movement (e.g., unions, interest groups) and indigenous organizations to support candidates outside of the traditional political party system. The 2004 law also stipulated that 50% of candidates from these new groups have to be women. The impact of both of these laws, as well as the Law of Municipalities in 1999, which also has a gender equality clause, have contributed to achieving greater participation of indigenous men and both indigenous and non-indigenous women in government than at any other time in Bolivia's history.

⁵¹ "Interpelación a Las Relaciones de Poder que Generan Violencia Política en los Gobiernos Municipales: Un Trabajo en Masculinidades"

⁵² See www.Men-Care.org.

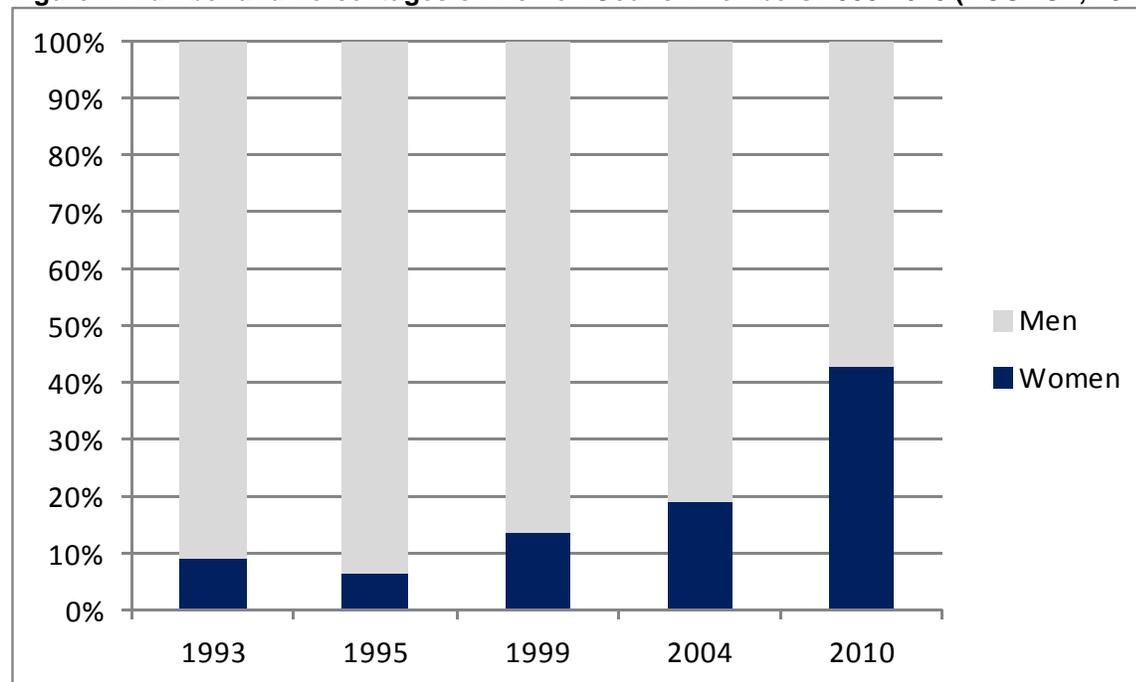
⁵³ Marisol Mamani, personal communication.

Table 4: National Political Participation of Men and Women 1997-2010

Year	Representatives (Diputados)			Senators			Cabinet Member (appointees)		
	Men	Women	% Women	Men	Women	% Women	Men	Women	% Women
1997	115	15	12%	26	1	4%	15	1	6.3%
2002	106	24	18%	23	4		16	2	11.1%
2003						15%	14	1	6.7%
2003-2005							12	4	25.0%
2005	108	22	17%	26	1	4%	12	3	18.8%
2006-2009							16	4	20.0%
2009	100	30	23%	20	16	44%			
2010							10	10	50.0%

Source: Coordinadora de la Mujer 2011

Similar gains were made by women elected as council persons in municipal government, especially in 2010 when the new Transitional Electoral Law (2009) was implemented (see Figure 7). It included a stipulation that men and women had to alternate on the list of candidates, from top to bottom in a pattern that put a woman as the first candidate and the man as the supplemental candidate and vice versa. Women have not been as successful in getting elected to mayoral offices in Bolivia.

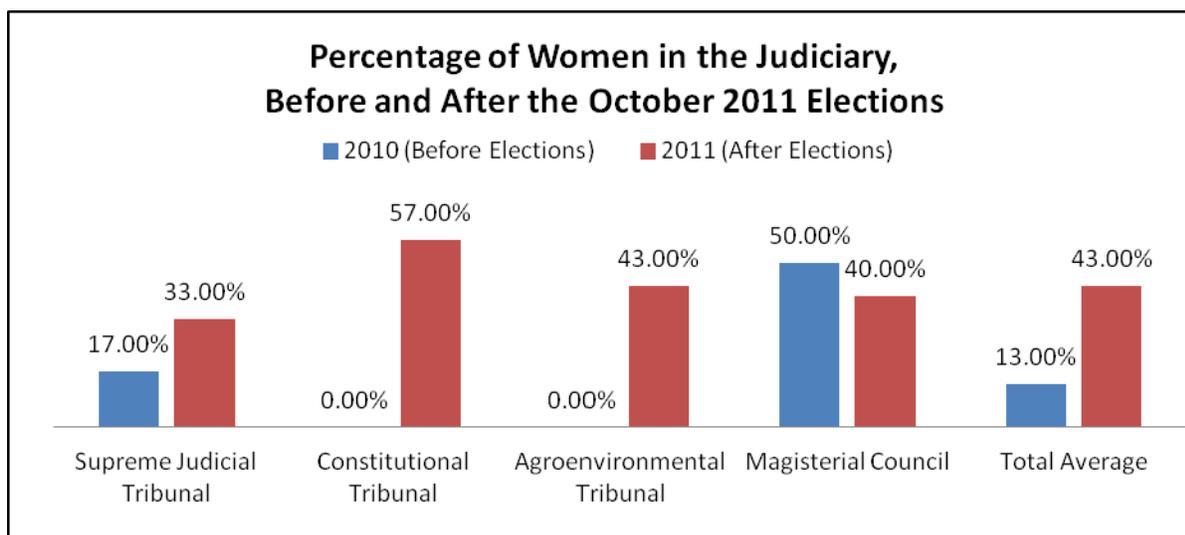
Figure 7: Number and Percentages of Women Council Members 1993-2010 (ACOBOL, 2011)

In October 2011 there were elections for judges for the first time in Bolivia's history. Previously all judges were appointed and closely tied to the ruling party. In the October 2011 elections the

candidates were officially unaffiliated with any political parties or citizens groupings. A comparison of judicial positions held by men and women before and after the recent elections indicates significant gains by women (see Figure 8). Interestingly, the average percentage of positions held by women (43%) is similar to the percentages of women in the Senate (44%) and in municipal council positions (43%).

Eleven indigenous municipalities have been legally recognized as autonomous original peasant (*campesino*) territorial organizations (TCOs). These 11 autonomous jurisdictions have elected a total of 55 council women (43%) even though they are not subject to the municipal and electoral laws. In two of the TCOs, Charazani (Department of La Paz) and Mojocoya (Department of Chuquisaca), women represent a majority (60%) of the council members. According to ACOBOL, women's representation in the autonomous TCOs governing structures is equal to or greater than average among all municipalities.

Figure 8: Comparison of Percentage of Women in the Judiciary Before and After the October 2011 Elections



Source: Coordinadora de la Mujer Observatorio de Género⁵⁴

While the increases in women's participation in all three branches of government represent important advances they also mask continuing institutionalized discrimination as well as the barriers that women face in running for and getting elected to office, and in carrying out their responsibilities of office once elected. The series of recent laws, along with the CPE, have clearly had an impact on women's greater political participation by setting quantitative (now set at 50%) and procedural (alternating placement with men on party lists) benchmarks for equitable participation.⁵⁵ The lower house of Parliament lags behind the Senate because the rules for gender equality do not apply to the uninominal positions, which represent 68 out of 130 seats.

⁵⁴ <http://www.coordinadoradelamujer.org.bo/observatorio/index.php/destacado/mostrar/id/204/tem/2/boton/2/sub/1>

⁵⁵ In recent elections, as the 50 percent participation applies to both titular and alternate positions, women are still a minority of titular judges and council members while being a majority of alternates.

A recent publication profiles all council women serving in the Department of Cochabamba (Coronel and Sanchez Andrade 2007). In Cochabamba, women comprise 39% (107) of all council members (271). The study included a sample of more than half of the women currently in office. A majority of the women interviewed began their leadership career in unions, indigenous organizations, neighborhood committees, or in community government, working their way up from the lowest level office to leadership of their groups. Council women from the southern, southwestern and high valley areas of the Department had also received leadership training from NGOs. Women from the Chapare region, an area that draws migrants from all over Bolivia, received their preparation in peasant unions.

The study demonstrates that women elected to office find it difficult to advocate for and pass legislation that is responsive to women's interests that differ from men's priorities. Most of the women council members view their leadership role as one of supporting investments that respond to the needs and interests of the groups that supported their leadership formation (e.g., political parties, unions, neighborhood associations). They regard their groups of origin and affiliation as their constituency. Their political survival depends on their ability to generate activities that favor their groups' interests. As such, they do not see their role as representing other women's interests or of women's groups per se. Nor do they see their political objectives in terms of reducing gender inequalities (Suarez Coronel and Sanchez Andrade 2007:56-57).⁵⁶

In Bolivia, political harassment and violence is the most fundamental gender-based constraint impeding women's political participation (Rojas Valverde 2009).⁵⁷ Although ACOBOL and other women's organizations have gathered considerable evidence on its occurrence and published documentation of specific cases, there are few programs or actions underway to address this form of gender-based violence. Its continued occurrence is an indication that national and local governments have been unwilling or unable to guarantee female elected officials the necessary personal security and safety to carry out the functions of their elected offices (Rojas Valverde 2009).

An in-depth study of 16 out of 200 cases of political harassment and violence reported to ACOBOL between 2000 and 2005 found that the primary types of aggression against women office holders are: pressure to renounce their posts (30%), verbal and psychological violence (12%), physical violence (5%), and sexual violence (3%). Of the 40% of the cases that were

⁵⁶ It is interesting that at an ACOBOL meeting on the proposed law on political harassment and violence, two council women from Cochabamba said that they would not propose activities supportive of women's interests unless three out of five council members were women. They stated that when they had a majority on the council, they felt empowered to consider women's interests more directly.

⁵⁷ Political harassment is defined in the current proposed law against political harassment and violence as: "all acts or group of acts of pressure, persuasion, molestation, or threats, that are committed by a person or group of persons directly or via third persons against women candidates, elected officials, or exercising a political/public function, or against her family, with the intention of interfering with or inducing an action or omission against her will in carrying out her functions, rights, and responsibilities." Political violence is defined as: "the actions, conducts, and or aggressions committed by a person or a group of persons, either directly or via third persons that cause physical, psychological, or sexual harm, to women candidates, elected officials, or those serving as political representatives/public officials and or to their families, in order to impede or restrict the carrying out of her office or to induce her to make decision against her will, her principles, and the law."

referred to public officials, 32% were ignored, and nearly 8% were dismissed (Rojas Valverde 2009). Between 2000 and 2009, the Department of La Paz has registered the highest percentage of all complaints (62%). The majority of the complaints concerned pressures applied to the women to sign documents or support legislation against their will or face removal from office (41%), restrictions on their effectively carrying out their duties or using designated resources for their position (30%), or discrimination against them based on gender, culture, language, religion, race, or level of education (16%). All three types of complaints have decreased over the nine years, although there was a slight uptick in discrimination between 2008 and 2009 (ACOBOL 2011).

Another important challenge is that few women elected to office are successful in getting re-elected (ACOBOL 2011a). This limits women's effectiveness as legislators and executives, as they have limited opportunity to acquire and use their experience. As a political class, women will remain at a disadvantage as long as the individuals who are elected to office are always the most newly elected. Other barriers that constrain women's election and effective carrying out of their functions as leaders and representatives include:

- Low educational attainment and language barriers, especially in peri-urban and rural areas.
- Lack of social support for and recognition of women's roles as leaders and political decision makers in some parts of the country and among some ethnic groups.⁵⁸
- Community and family expectations/pressures for women to continue in their domestic roles conflict with the time and attention needed to carry out their roles as political actors.
- Limited access to and control over the level of resources needed to run for office and to realize their obligations as elected officials.
- Insufficient capacity building opportunities to develop leadership skills (e.g. in speaking, negotiation, and administration).

7.2 USAID/Bolivia's Future Work in Democracy and Governance

USAID's Program in Democracy and Governance was suspended in 2010 in response to a request from the GPSB. Since that time, discussions have been had about USAID support for municipal infrastructure. The Mission intends to focus on strengthening municipal service delivery as a crosscutting dimension of health and environment. These efforts are likely to build on USAID's previous experiences in the three phases of the Democracy Development and Citizen Participation (DDCP 1, 2, and 3) and the more recent Municipal Infrastructure Development Project.

The gender strategy for the DDCP3 Project focused on two strategic objectives:

⁵⁸ There is considerable regional variation in which part of the country women are elected to national, departmental, and municipal legislators. Women do better at the Departmental posts in the Assemblies that are population-based, where they hold an average of almost 40% of the seats. In contrast, for positions in the Assemblies that are tied to specific territories, as opposed to elected Department-wide, women hold on average only 25% of the seats. In three Departments, Chuquisaca, Cochabamba, and Oruro, no women hold territorial-based seats. The municipal councils in the capitals of the nine Departments are the most gender equitable. All 9 have five council women and six council men. Women mayors represent only 7% (22) of the total of 337. The Pando has the highest percentage of women mayors (13%) but they are only 3 in number. La Paz has the greatest number (5) but one of the lower percentages (6%).

- Empowerment of women to make decisions that affect the economic, and social, political dimensions of life in the municipality.
- The participatory design and implementation of gender equitable policies at the municipal level.

The strategy emphasized leadership training of council women and the strengthening of ACOBOL to promote empowerment. It focused on the development of gender inclusive planning methodologies, development of communication messages to increase women's participation in municipal decision making, and mechanisms to ensure women's participation and inclusion of their demands in municipal plans and budgets. Training and development of procedural manuals were at the heart of the strategy. The project contributed to strengthening ACOBOL, which has become a very important source of institutional support for women council members and an active lobbyist for policies that increase women's representation at the municipal level and protect the rights of women elected officials. While the strategy addressed some dimensions of municipal leadership and planning, it did not put great emphasis on increasing council women's capacity in managing municipal activities and programs and monitoring of progress and results. There is a need to build on the participatory planning process developed under DDCP3 to improve service delivery by engaging women and men in the design of the criteria for achieving quality and effectiveness, and for monitoring service delivery.

Since USAID's programming in this area has been suspended, this section includes an analysis of promising practices in municipal governance from the previous work of one the GA team members. This may identify possible future directions for equitable political participation and leadership as a crosscutting focus of the Mission's Health and Sustainable Landscapes development objectives.⁵⁹

AECI (Spanish bilateral foreign assistance agency) and USAID (DDCP 3 Project) provided funding to ACOBOL for training and leveraging of funds to support council women's (92) and mayors' (8) management of municipal services and public works that they proposed. Of the 104 council women and mayors, 80 completed projects that included municipal economic promotion (35%), administrative and anticorruption activities (29%) and education and training (32%). Some of the more innovative programs were a school feeding program aimed at keeping girls in school through high school completion (Mizque); a pest control project to protect the broad bean crop (Achacachi); an anti-corruption campaign (Vinto); creation of a bilingual university (Corque); the construction of an artisan workshop (Turco), a tourism center (Llica), a laundry (Yacuiba); and development of a computing center (Cobija).⁶⁰ The following lessons learned were summarized by ACOBOL:

- Despite serious limitations and difficulties that women in municipal office face, they are effective and efficient contributors to the development of their municipalities.
- Women in municipal office confront innumerable risks and criticisms of their proposals, particularly from their male colleagues who deprecate or ignore their proposals.

⁵⁹ Drawn from Caro 2007.

⁶⁰ The information comes from a 2004 ACOBOL publication on the experiences.

- Many women face adversity and challenges from their families, associations, communities, unions, political parties, and other social groups.
- Women who exercise power at the local level require strong organizational and moral support to see their initiatives through from conceptualization to implementation.
- Established gender roles imply that women who serve in public office must forgo many responsibilities that are not easily transferred to others (e.g., childcare, employment, and productive and household tasks) when they assume office. Often these fall on their eldest daughters, thus limiting their education, and create conflicts with their male partners and extended families (ACOBOL 2004:21).

Another important finding is that training on management of municipal resources should be extended beyond the municipal government to the general public, and particularly to historically marginalized groups. They need the training in order to be able to rise to leadership positions in the future and to exercise effective oversight. One good example is the training provided by the Title II Food for Work program in El Alto, where women participants learn how to manage the tools and materials for their work as well as the food. They also become involved in some dimensions of the planning of the infrastructure they work on by participating in their neighborhood councils. By interacting on a daily basis with municipal staff they also gain confidence in how to approach the municipality with their demands for better services (Sarzuri 2006).

Gender Budgeting. The *Instituto de Formación Femenina Integral* (IFFI) worked with council women to strengthen the implementation of gender-designated co-participation funds in the Department of Cochabamba. IFFI examined gender integration into municipal budgets from two perspectives: 1) the extent to which they reflected women's interests as well as men's and their proposals (e.g., funding for SLIMs, or productive infrastructure that supports the development of business run by women and men), and 2) the extent to which funded activities were aimed at reducing gender inequalities (e.g., removal of gender-based barriers to property ownership or to accessing financial services).

Promoting Gender Equitable Charters and Statutes. ACOBOL has developed a Strategic Plan for the period 2010 to 2015, providing several opportunities to support the implementation of this plan.⁶¹

The plan contains three objectives:

1. Improving representation and advocacy in defense of women's political rights and municipal interests in national and sub-national (particularly at the Departmental level) levels of government.
2. Promoting gender-equal public policies, projects, programs, statutes and charters, and activities (particularly those related to the framework for autonomous indigenous, original, and peasant autonomic units).⁶²

⁶¹ *Plan Estratégico de ACOBOL: Desarrollo Municipal en Equidad de Género* (junio 2010-junio 2015).

3. Institution strengthening of the association (ACOBOL and its local affiliates) and its capacity to provide services within the national framework of autonomy.

There is an opportunity for USAID to contribute to helping ACOBOL develop gender equitable charters and statutes for autonomous municipalities and indigenous, original, and peasant autonomous units in the same magnitude as its earlier contribution to municipal development and decentralization in Bolivia through support to objective number 2. Similarly, there is an opportunity to strengthen administrative and fiscal capacity of indigenous, original, and peasant women leaders to be effective leaders and to ensure that women's and men's interests are equally and fairly represented in municipal investments by supporting objective number 3.

CONCLUSIONS

This Volume I report provides critical sex disaggregated information on key areas of the Bolivian economy to assist those developing the CDCS to articulate the DOs and IRs that will be part of the new strategy. The information is presented by major areas of focus: Sustainable Development, Conservation and Sustainable Landscapes and Health, with Democracy and Governance as a cross-cutting focus.

A key finding from this report is that in order to achieve the anticipated DOs, gender gaps faced by indigenous women in economic and political spheres need to be addressed in ways that are supportive of local cultural values. As the DOs and IRs are articulated, it is important to prioritize interventions that remove structural barriers that exclude women's equitable participation in setting local and regional development objectives and planning.

⁶² These are units constituted by indigenous, original, or peasant groups in lieu of municipalities to exert self governance according to their own cultural/ethnic practices. They are recognized by Bolivian law once they present and receive approval for an autonomous governance plan.

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ANNEX 2: BASIC CONCEPTS

Sex and Gender

The terms "sex" and "gender" are often used interchangeably; however, in fact, they have different but related meanings.

- Sex is a biological construct that defines males and females according to physical characteristics and reproductive capabilities. USAID policy calls for the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data (male vs. female) for individual-level indicators and targets. Gender and sex are not synonyms.
- Gender is a social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles. It encompasses the economic, political, and socio-cultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. As a social construct, gender varies across cultures, is dynamic and open to change over time. Because of the variation in gender across cultures and over time, gender roles should not be assumed but investigated. Note that "gender" is not interchangeable with "women" or "sex."

The definition for "sex" is, therefore, universal, while "gender" is a socially defined category that can change. This distinction is important since it means that gender differences and dynamics between men and women (and boys and girls) must be identified and analyzed since the way in which "masculinity" and "femininity" are expressed and understood differ among settings.

Gender Equality and Gender Equity

Gender equality and gender equity have different meanings but are related terms. Gender equality is a development goal; gender equity interventions are the means to achieve that goal. Gender equality is a broad concept and a development goal. It is achieved when men and women have equal rights, freedoms, conditions, and opportunities for realizing their full potential and for contributing to and benefiting from economic, social, cultural, and political development. Equality does not mean that women and men become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities, and opportunities do not depend on whether they are born male or female. It means society values men and women equally for their similarities and differences and the diverse roles they play. Gender equality is not a "women's issue" but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. It signifies the results of gender equity strategies and processes. Gender equity is the process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on an equitable basis, or a "level playing field." Equity leads to equality.

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis is the systematic gathering and analysis of information to identify and understand the roles, divisions of labor, resources, constraints, needs, opportunities/capacities, and interests of men and women (and girls and boys) in a given context. Gender analysis is required by the ADS in the design of country strategic plans, activities/projects, and must be reflected in associated activity approval documents, SOWs and RFAs/RFPs.

Country Gender Analysis for the CDCS (Gender Assessment)

A forward-looking document that combines socio-economic and demographic analysis of the country from a gender perspective with the scope and aims of the anticipated Development Objectives (DOs) that the Mission plans to include in its strategy, which will guide its work during the next five years.

Gender Assessment

A gender assessment involves carrying out a review, from a gender perspective, of an organization's programs and its ability to monitor and respond to gender issues in both technical programming and institutional policies and practices. USAID Missions often carry out a gender assessment of their portfolio to determine whether gender issues are being effectively addressed in Mission-supported programs and projects. A gender assessment is a very flexible tool, based on the needs of the Mission, and may also include a gender analysis at the country level. If a gender analysis is included in a gender assessment, this meets the ADS requirements. If a gender assessment reviews the internal policies and practices of the operating unit (e.g., USAID Mission), this is very similar to a gender audit.

Gender Audit

A gender audit addresses not only gender in programming issues but also in the practices and policies of the Mission as a whole, such as human resource issues, budgeting, and management, to provide a comprehensive picture of gender relations at several levels within the organization. Findings from a gender assessment have been used, for example, to inform a country strategic plan or a Development Objective and/or develop a Mission Gender Plan of Action or a Mission Order on gender.

Gender Gaps

A gender gap represents the disproportionate difference between the sexes in attitudes and practices. A gender gap can exist in access to a particular productive resource (for example land), in the use of a resource (for example credit), or levels of participation (such as in government).

Gender Bias

Gender bias refers to unequal and/or unfair treatment based on attitudes and expectations of what is appropriate for a man or a women; this includes prejudice in actions (such as, sex discrimination in employment, promotions, pay, benefits, technical assistance, and trainings) and the allocation of resources (such as income, food, nutrition, health care, land ownership, and education).

Gender-Based Constraints

Gender-based constraints are factors that inhibit either men's or women's access to resources or opportunities of any type. They can be formal laws, attitudes, perceptions, values, or practices (cultural, institutional, political, or economic). Some examples include:

- Customary laws dictating that only men can own land is a constraint on agricultural production since it can prevent women from producing or marketing or obtaining credit.

- A law that prevents pregnant teenagers from attending school is a gender-based constraint since it disadvantages girls relative to boys in obtaining an education.
- An HIV/AIDS program that is located in an ante-natal clinic is a gender-based constraint if men are reluctant to get tested in this setting.

Gender Integration

Gender integration involves identifying and then addressing gender differences and inequalities during program and project planning, design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. Since the roles and relations of power between men and women affect how an activity is implemented, it is essential that project and activity planners address these issues on an ongoing basis. USAID uses the term gender integration in planning and programming. Conducting a gender analysis and/or gender assessment is the first step for ensuring successful gender integration into programs and policies.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

At the operational plan level to attribute USAID funding, GBV includes activities or programs aimed at preventing and responding to GBV, which results in physical, sexual, and/or psychological harm to either women or men. GBV is considered to be mutually exclusive from the Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment—Primary and Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment Secondary key issues. Trafficking in Persons, which can be a form of gender-based violence, is reported under the Trafficking in Persons Key Issue, **not** Gender-Based Violence.

Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment-Primary

At the operational plan level to attribute USAID funding, Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment-Primary includes activities in which gender equality or women's empowerment is an explicit goal of the Implementing Mechanism (IM) and fundamental in the IM's design, targeted results, and impact.

Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment-Secondary

At the operational plan level to attribute USAID funding, Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment-Secondary encompasses activities within an IM in which gender equality or women's empowerment purposes, although important, are not among the principal reasons for undertaking the IM. To be considered in this sub-key issue, the Gender Equality/Women's Empowerment component must be integrated into key parts of the IM, explicitly associated with an Intermediate Result or sub-Intermediate Result in the program's Results Framework or where it is clear that females will be substantially engaged in program design, represented as participants in and benefit from the IM.

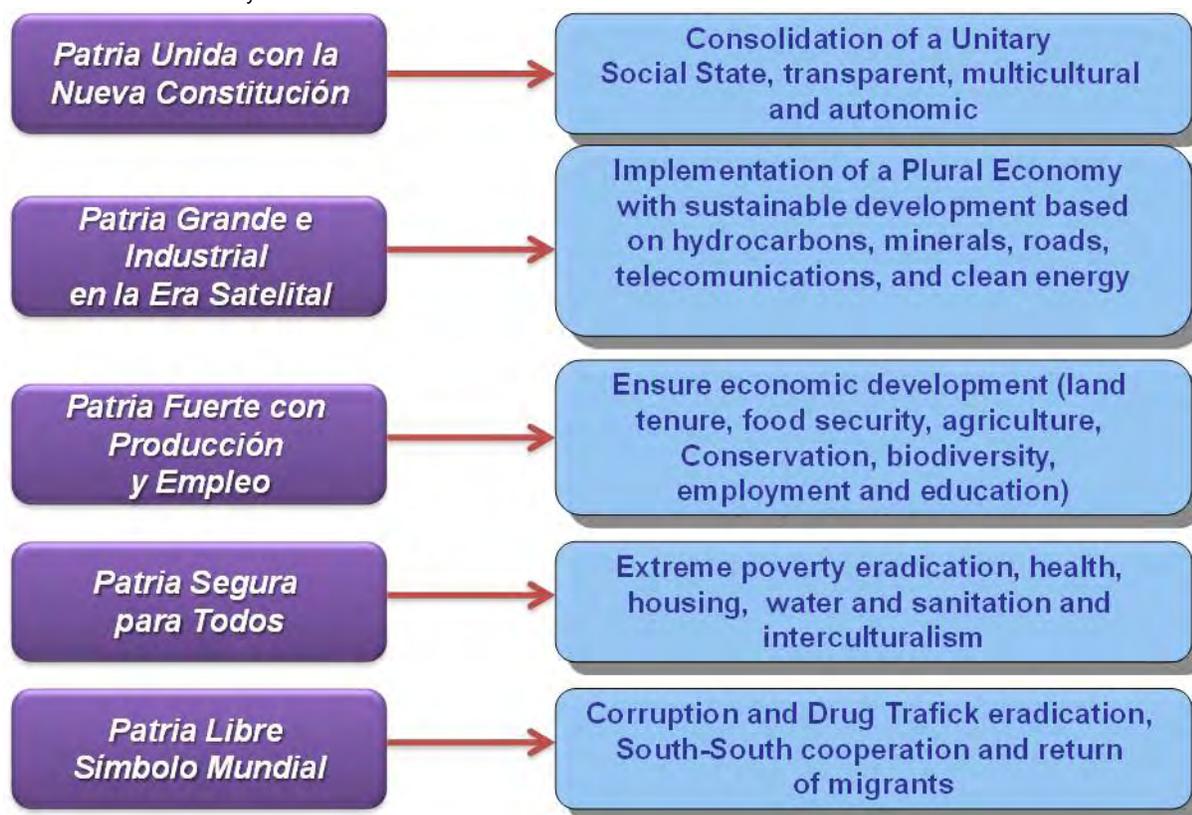
ANNEX 3: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION ON BOLIVIA'S DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

GPSB Strategic Priorities for Sustainable Development and Environment (SDE)

The GPSB is designing the new Economic and Social Development Plan (PDES) covering the period 2012-2015.⁶³ Although the PDES has not yet been approved by the Ministry of Development Planning, the programmatic structure for 2012 is published online.⁶⁴ It articulates five inter-related visions of the country (*Patrias*), as illustrated in the figure below:

Figure 8: The PDES' Five Patrias and their Programmatic Areas 2012 - 2015

Source: Authors' Summary of PDES



The PDES, which describes Bolivia's development priorities, provides USAID/Bolivia with the parameters for aligning its program objectives as it proceeds with the development of the new CDCS for 2013-2017. The *Patria Fuerte con Producción y Empleo* and *Patria Segura para Todos* include key sectors and areas in which USAID/Bolivia has been working in the past. These include food security, agriculture, conservation (and biodiversity), poverty reduction,

⁶³ *Plan de Desarrollo Económico y Social*

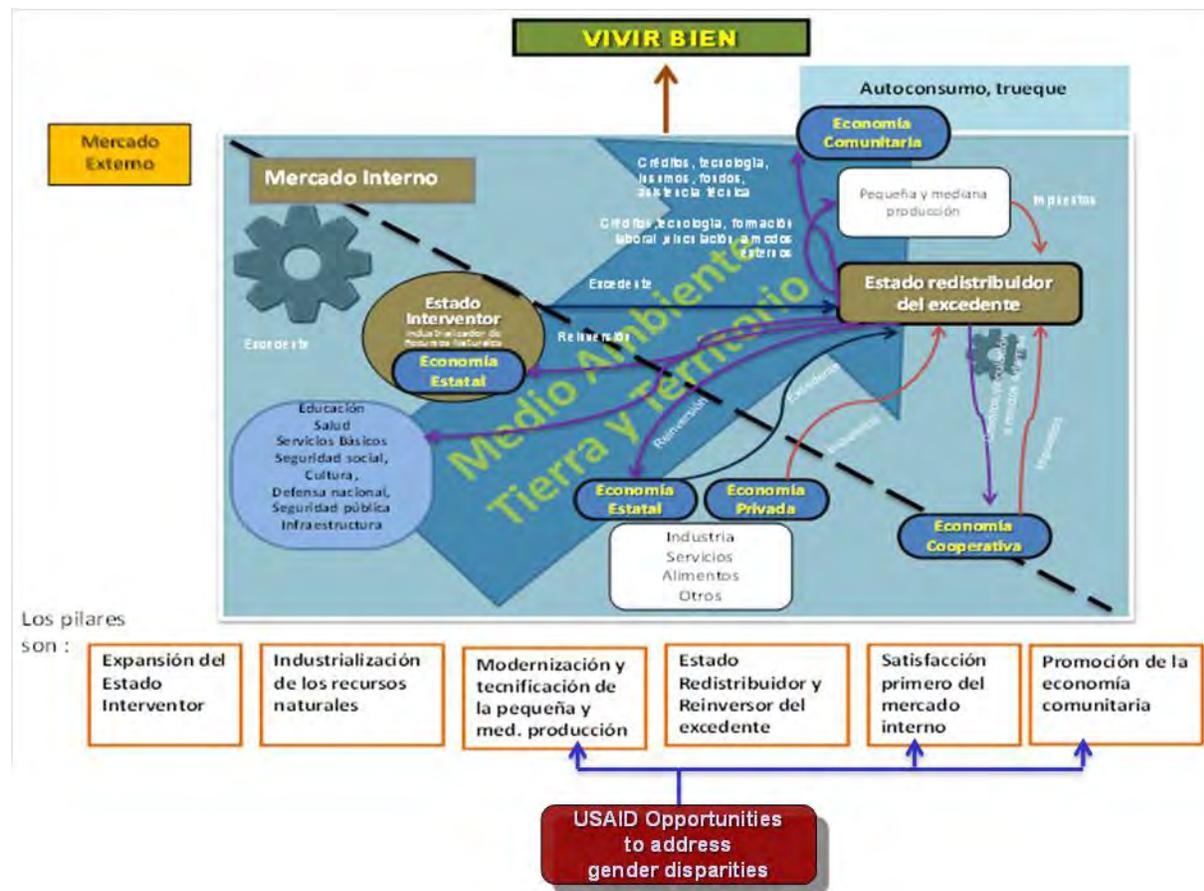
⁶⁴ http://www.planificacion.gob.bo/padpoa/matriz_programatica28-08-11.pdf

health, and water and sanitation. Each of these will be discussed in their corresponding sections of this report.

In the new model of a plural economy (see Figure 2), the state plays a role as both investor and redistributor. GPSB policies prioritize satisfaction of consumer demand in the internal market, with a secondary focus on exportation of surplus production. The focus on food security and business productivity and competitiveness, both of which have been or are priority areas of USAID/Bolivia assistance, has the potential of aligning well with the GPSB framework.⁶⁵

Figure 9: Conceptual Framework of the New Model of Plural Economy

SouSource: Draft version of the Second National Development Plan.



⁶⁵ This is the central focus of USAID/Bolivia’s current projects, such as ARCo and the Bolivian Productivity and Competitiveness Project, as well as one of several objectives of the Integrated Food Security Project and the Integrated Development and Conservation in the Bolivian Amazon Project (Amazonas). In addition, it is an unanticipated outcome of the Lake Titicaca Pollution Management Project, in which sale of humus has been a major incentive for agricultural producers to improve the management of animal excrement so it does not make its way into rivers and the lake, causing an imbalance in the biome. As the Mission has not yet decided on its DOs, this section is written to identify opportunities rather than as an analysis of the Mission’s future strategy.

Figure 10: Potential PDES Programs to Support in Addressing Gender Disparities: Economic Opportunities

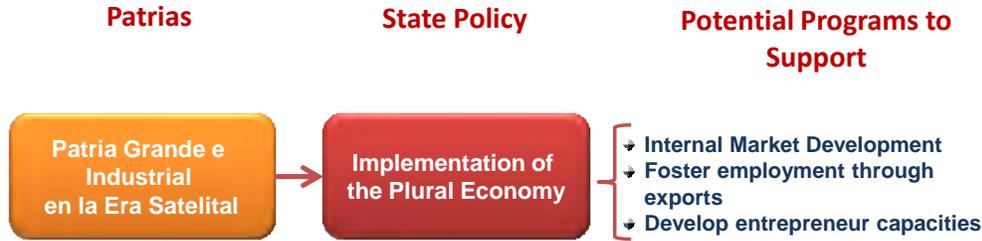


Figure 11: Potential PDES Programs to be Supported to Address Gender Disparities: Food Security



Box 1: Laws and Regulations Related to Gender Equality

- Law 975 (1988) Protection of pregnant women to maintain their employment during pregnancy and childbirth
- Law 1551(1 1674 (1994) Equal participation of men and women in municipal government
- Law 1674 (1995) Against intra-family violence
- Law 1715 (1996) INRA-agrarian reform: establishes criteria for gender equitable distribution, administration and ownership of land
- Civil Code Reform Law (1997) which facilitates support for women's rights in common law marriages
- Penal Code Reform Law (1997) Removes the phrase "honest woman" from crimes against sexual freedom
- Law 1894 (1997) Regime Reform Law that establishes 30% mandatory participation of women on political parties' candidates rosters
- Law 2028 (1999) Municipality Law establishes institutions charged with ensuring gender equality in municipal governments and establishes Municipal Integrated Legal Services (SLIMS) for women and children who are survivors of violence
- Law 3160 (1999) Inserts protections for victims of crimes against sexual freedom into the criminal code
- Law 2026 (1999) Boy, Girl, and Adolescent Law which establishes protections and rights for children
- Domestic Workers Law
- Law 2771 Indigenous Communities and Civil Associations Law
- Law 2403 (1996) National Maternal and Child Health Insurance Law establishes prenatal, delivery, and post-partum care for mothers and for children under age 5 paid for by municipal funds—includes coverage of hemorrhage in the first six months of pregnancy (i.e. post abortion care).
- Law 2096 (2002) Universal Child and Mother Health Insurance
- Law 3250 (2005) SUMI updates 2002 law to include coverage for family planning, adolescent health and cervical cancer
- Political Constitution of the State (2009)—grants equal gender and cultural rights Bolivia's men, women, indigenous groups and sexually diverse individuals and communities.
- Law 3729 (2007) HIV/AIDS Prevention and Protection for People Living with HIV
- Law 070 (2010) Avelino Siñani Law, promotes decolonization and Depatriarchalization as a crosscutting principle of Bolivian laws
- Sexual and Reproductive Rights Law- presented and approved by the parliament but vetoed by the President in 2005. It has been reintroduced and is being discussed currently in the parliament

GPSB Strategic Priorities in the Environment

Although the majority of Bolivians live in urban centers, nearly 40% still reside in rural areas where they are directly dependent on natural resources for their livelihoods. In addition, a large percentage of urban dwellers, particularly recent migrants, continue to maintain social ties and economic interests in their communities of origin. At the same time, urban residents face challenges to their health and well-being from water and air pollution.

The Bolivian government has focused considerable attention on the environment, as evidenced by the Bolivian Environmental Law of 1992 and Rights of Mother Earth Law of 2010. The 1992 law created the architecture for the establishment of protected areas, national parks, and reserves. However, the law (which refers to “persons” and “citizens” with regard to use and protection of resources) does not address gender equity. In contrast, the 2010 Mother Earth Law specifies the rights of women and men by using the masculine and feminine form of Bolivians in Spanish, making it clear that men and women have rights to and responsibilities for the conservation of natural resources (Article 6 Ley de Derechos de Madre Tierra 2010). Nevertheless, the law prioritizes the rights of communities over these individual rights; as with the CPE, this introduces some ambiguity about dispute resolution when individual and communal rights and claims come into conflict.⁶⁶

Bolivia has also ratified international conventions to protect biodiversity, prevent desertification, and mitigate climate change. The country is a signatory to the 1999 Kyoto Accords. It hosted an alternative grassroots climate summit in Cochabamba in April 2010, and participated in the Conference of the Parties of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (COP) 16 at the Cancun summit in December 2010. At the Cochabamba meeting, the participants supported the proposed charter for the rights of mother earth, which is a principle supported by the Ecuadorian Constitution of 2007. However, the government’s public affirmations of respect for the earth have not been accompanied by consistent policies on extractive industries, especially mining and logging. The government lacks public sector capacity to adequately monitor and enforce conservation measures, even in protected areas and national parks.

⁶⁶The CPE is explicit about many individual rights, such as the rights to own land, make decisions, employment, political participation, and to share responsibilities for the care and management of the household. It also upholds the autonomy and self-determination of different cultural groups to determine how these rights are allocated within indigenous territories. While the CPE states that groups can not violate individual rights, it does not address how differences between group self-determination and individual rights as granted in the CPE might be resolved when they conflict.

ANNEX 4: METHODOLOGY

1. Objectives

The gender analysis will address the following objectives to be presented in a Two Volume Report

Volume I:

- a) To identify those gender issues and opportunities that have the greatest potential impacts both positively and negatively on Bolivia's economic development.
- b) To assess key Government of Bolivia gender-related policies and programs, and identify opportunities for collaboration and mutual strengthening of gendered approaches between USAID and Government of Bolivia, considering the Gender Strategies and National Gender Policies included in the National Development Plan ("*Para vivir bien*").
- c) Provide statements of and synthesize the key gender based-constraints. Statements should incorporate critical issues such as trafficking, gender-based violence, disabilities and economic development (existing guidance on women and disabilities should be utilized). http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/disability/index.html
- d) To identify strategies and approaches that have worked to enhance the accessibility and equitability of its programs to both men and women;
To identify how the different roles and status of women and men within the community, political sphere, workplace, and household (for example, roles in decision making and

Volume II:

- a) To develop an action plan for addressing these gender constraints and opportunities in the design of Mission activities linked to the strategy.
To conduct an in depth gender analysis for the health and environmental sectors, identify how the anticipated results of the work will affect women and men differently, given the gender analysis, and present recommendations for strategic planning in these two sectors
- b) Different access to and control over resources and services) will affect the work to be undertaken.

2. Gender Analysis Team and Methodology

The team consisted of Deborah Caro (Team Leader), Yara Carafa (Gender and Environment Expert), Rory Narvaez (Gender and Economics Expert), and Bertha Pooley (Gender and Health Expert). The team spent almost a month together in Bolivia.

Prior, during, and after conducting field visits, the team reviewed documents assembled by the Mission's Gender Focal Person, DevTech and team members. The documents included Agency and Mission policy and planning documents, project reports, published literature on gender in Bolivia, and reports produced by other donors and local implementing organizations.

The team also analyzed demographic, political, economic, and health data from available databases, including the DHS, UDAPE, INE (2001 Census and 2007 MECOVI Survey), INRA (on land tenure), and project level indicator data where relevant. These were the basis for the quantitative data presented and analyzed in the report.

During the 4 weeks the team worked together in Bolivia, they conducted a series of individual and group interviews with: USAID project implementing organizations, project participants, In carrying out the data collection phase, the team shall hold consultative meetings rather than directive interviews with the following people /organizations and collect related information:

- USAID/Bolivia Technical & Support Offices. During the fieldwork, the team coordinated closely with the Gender Focal Point, the Front Office, and others in the Program Office.
- A sample of USAID Contractors and NGOs, across the sectors of health, sustainable economic development, and the environment, including PROSALUD, CIES, PROCOSI, JSI, CARE, JHPIEGO, Chemonics (ARCo, Amazonas Project, and the Productivity and Competitiveness Project), ACDI/VOCA (Integrated Community Development Fund), IRG (Pro Lago Project), and Abt Associates (Integrated Food Security Project).
- Major development partners, including UNWomen, GIZ (German Agency for International Cooperation), PAHO, and UNICEF, the World Bank, the Inter American Development Bank, and the Ministry of Health. At the time the team conducted the fieldwork for the assessment, their political events that precluded the team from meeting with several other branches of government, such as the Vice Ministry of Equal Opportunities in the Ministry of Justice (there were judicial elections going on), the Ministry of Rural Development, Agriculture, and the Environment (there was a march to protest a road through the Isiburo-Secure Park), etc. In addition, the two governments were -in the midst of sensitive negotiations about the re-initiation of diplomatic relations.
- Feminist and gender-focused organizations, including, ACOBOL, the Coordinadora de la Mujer, Conexión, and CIDEM). For some of the same political reasons stated in the previous point, the team was not able to meet with some of the principal indigenous women's organizations such as Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Campesinas Indígenas Originarias de Bolivia "Bartolina Sisa (CNMCIOB*BS); Organización de Mujeres Aymaras del Kollasuyo (OMAK), *Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Indígenas de Bolivia (CNAMIB)* y la Secretaria de Género de la CIDOB, Secretaria de Género de APG, and Mujeres de CONAMAQ, among others.
- The team visited a sample of projects in the Mission's portfolio, including ARCo (sustainable alternative economic development), Proyecto Amazonas (sustainable landscapes). Proyecto Pro Lago (sustainable landscapes), MCHIP (health), CIES (health), and the IFS (sustainable economic development/food security), which the team leader had visited on a previous visit.

The team developed interview guides to use with different stakeholders. They shared the notes they organized according to the guides and shared them with each other. The interviews, document reviews, field visits, and data analysis provided the foundation for the Gender Assessment. The Team Leader synthesized the sectoral sections written by the rest of the team into the final two documents.

3. List of Key Interviewees

First Name	Last Name	Position	Organizational/Project Affiliation
Wayne Nilse	Stu en	Mission Director	USAID
Lawrence	Odle	Program Office Director	USAID
Lourdes Ximena	Rodriguez	Program Office Monitoring and Evaluation/Gender Specialist	USAID
Virginia	Moscoso	Program Office Finance Specialist	USAID
Denise	Castrillo de Fernandez	SDE Program Manager/COTR Proyecto de Productividad y Competitividad	USAID
Jorge	Calvo	SDE Program Manager/COTR Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria	USAID
Andrew	McCown	SDE Agricultural Officer	USAID
German Hua	nca	SDE Program Manager/COTR Fondo Comunitario de Desarrollo Integral (FDCI)	USAID
Alvaro Luna		SDE Program Manager/COTR Proyectos PROLAGO and Amazonas	
Eduardo	Galindo	SDE Program Manager/COTR Proyectos de Desarrollo Integral	USAID
Connie	Johnson	Acting Health Office Director	USAID
Rocio	aro	Health Program Manager/COTR CIES and FORTALESSA	USAID
Marina Carden	as	Health Program Manager COTR Proyecto Salud Comunitaria	USAID
Stanley	Blanco	Health Program Manager/COTR HIV/AIDS and PROSALUD	USAID
Sandra	Mendizabal	Health Program Manager	USAID
Diana	Urioste	Director	Conexion
Mary Mar	ka	Director	CIDEM
Ruth Llano	s	Social Development and Civil Society Specialist	The World Bank
Catalina Minotek		Senior Specialist in Gender and Diversity	The Inter-American Development Bank
Ivette	Sandino	Director of Health and Nutrition	UNICEF
Natasha	Loayza	National Program Officer	UNWOMEN
Patricia Arana		Program Manager	MCHIP
Maria Elena	Manani	Consultant in Sucre	MCHIP

First Name	Last Name	Position	Organizational/Project Affiliation
Jacqueline	Reyes	Maternal Health Specialist	MCHIP
Marjotie	Vizcarra	Family Planning Specialist	MCHIP
Beymar	Coca	Hospital Director	Hospital Poconas- Sucre
Francisca	Mendoza	Director of Nursing	Hospital Poconas- Sucre
Maribel	Quiroz	Doctor in charge of the Clinic	Zurima, Chuquisaca
Liliana	Medinacelli	Director	Healthy Communities
Carmen	Monasterios	Health Program Manager	Socios para el Desarrollo
Jose Luis	Alfaro	Narional Technical Manager	CIES
Javier	Lopez	Deputy Director	JSI Gestion y Calidad
Fernando	Gonzales	Research Director	JSI Gestion y Calidad
German	Crespo	Director of Planning	Ministry of Health and Sports
Victor	Conde	Maternal Health Advisor	Ministry of Health and Sports
Lourdes	Murillo	Director of the Health Systems Unit	Ministry of Health and Sports
Monica	Novilo	Director	Coordinadora de la Mujer
Maria Eugenia	Rojas Dire	ctor	ACOBOL
Alexia	Escobar	National Coordinator	Family Care International (FCI)/Bolivia
Andres	Abasto	Deputy Director	Abt Associates/Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria (ISA)
Segio Clau	re	Director	Abt Associates/Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria (ISA)
Moises Mercad	o	Municipal Specialist	Abt Associates/Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria (ISA)
Anthy	Giakoumelos	Communications Specialist	Abt Associates/Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria (ISA)
Marisol	Mamani	Nutrition and Health Specialist	Abt Associates/Proyecto Integrado de Seguridad Alimentaria (ISA)
Haydee	Padilla	Family and Community Health Advisor	Pan American Health Organization (PAHO)
Dora Cab	allero	Disease Prevention and Control Officer/Gender Advisor	Pan American Health Organization (PAHO)
Mauricio	Villarroel Castro	Deputy Director	Chemonics/Actividad Rural Competetiva (ARCO)

First Name	Last Name	Position	Organizational/Project Affiliation
Sonia Aranib	ar	Communications Specialist	Chemonics/Actividad Rural Competetiva (ARCO)
Efraim	Laureano	Director	Chemonics/Actividad Rural Competetiva (ARCO)
Milenka Torrico		Consultant	Chemonics/Actividad Rural Competetiva (ARCO)
Treena Bishop		Director	ACDI/VOCA Fondo Comunitario de Desarrollo Integral (FDCl)
Sergio	Urioste	Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist	ACDI/VOCA Fondo Comunitario de Desarrollo Integral (FDCl)
Cristobal	Aguilar Aponte	Deputy Director	ACDI/VOCA Fondo Comunitario de Desarrollo Integral (FDCl)
Walter	Nuñez	Director	Chemonics/Proyecto de Productividad y Competividad
Luis	Pardo	Technical Value Chain Manager	Chemonics/Proyecto de Productividad y Competividad
Jose Montañó		Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist	Chemonics/Proyecto de Productividad y Competividad
Carlos Riv	as	Director	IRG/Pollution Management in the El Alto-Lake Titicaca Watershed(PROLAGO)
Alvaro Azurduy		Integrated Natural Resources Management Leader	IRG/Pollution Management in the El Alto-Lake Titicaca Watershed(PROLAGO)
Alejandro Paniagu	a	Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist	IRG/Pollution Management in the El Alto-Lake Titicaca Watershed(PROLAGO)
Boris	Urquizo	Communications and Citizen Participation Leader	IRG/Pollution Management in the El Alto-Lake Titicaca Watershed(PROLAGO)
Jorge	Arias	Citizen Participation Coordinator	IRG/Pollution Management in the El Alto-Lake Titicaca Watershed(PROLAGO)
Abraham Guillen		Director	The Integrated Development and Conservation in the Bolivian Amazon Project (Amazonas)
Jhonny	Lopez	Director	CIES
Luis	Fernandez	Director	PROSALUD

4. List of Key Individual Gender Experts

First Name	Last Name	Sectoral Expertise
Sandra	Aliaga	SRH, Advocacy, GBV
Yesid	Aliaga	GBV, Masculinities
Denise Arnold		Interculturality, MH
Teresa Arteaga		DG
Ana	Arteaga	DG
Yara	Carafa	AG, ENV
Maria Dolores	Castro	SRH, Adolescents, Interculturality
Maria Eugenia	Choque	Interculturality, DG
Cintia	Dávalos	SRH, GBV, Adolescents
Ineke	Dibbits	SRH (esp. MH), Interculturality
Ivonne Fara	h	Economic Participation
Franklin Garcia		Demography
Gretzel Jov	e	SRH
Zulema Lehm		Interculturality, ENV
Rosario	Leon,	AG, ENV, Food Security
Ximena	Machicao	SRH, GBV, DG
Beatriz	Murillo	SRH
Rory	Narvaez	Nutrition, Economics, Food Security
Rene Pereirra		Demography, SRH
Bertha	Pooley	SRH, MH/CH, Adolescents
Susana	Rance	SRH, GBV, Masculinities
Silvia	Salinas	AG, ENV, SRH, Adolescents
Jimmy	Telleria	SRH, Masculinities, GBV
Milenka	Torrico,	AG, DG, Interculturality

5. List of Gender Organizations

Asociacion de Alcadesas y Consejalas de Bolivia (ACOBOL)

<http://www.acobol.org.bo>

Casa de la Mujer

Av. Hernando Sanabria (Ex. Av. Centenario) Esq. 3er anillo,
Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Santa Cruz, Bolivia

Telephone: 3-352-1803

<http://www.casadelamujer.org.bo>

Centro de Capacitación Integral de la Mujer Campesina

Calle Junin No. 616 entre Soria Galvarro y la Plata, Oruro
25274112.

Centro de Información y Desarrollo de la Mujer (CIDEM)

C. Boquerón No. 598-A esquina Almirante Graú, Edificio El Carmen 2 Mezanine,
Zona San Pedro, La Paz

Téléphone: (591-2) 2490319 - 2490358

www.cidem.org.bo

Centro de Promoción de la Mujer Gregoria Apaza

Calle Euler 215, zona 16 de Julio, El Alto

Telephone: 2840351

<http://www.gregorias.org.bo/>

Centro Juana Azurduy

Calle Loa 41 - Zona Surapata, Sucre

Telephone /Fax (591) 4-6440904 - (591) 4-6434713 - (591) 4-6434714

www.juanas.org

CISTAC

Telephone: 2-2112839

La Paz

<http://www.cistac.org>

CONAMAQ

Conexión

Calle 12, No. 10, Piso 4, Calacoto, La Paz

Telephone: 2-214473

<http://www.conexion.org.bo/>

Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Campesinas Indígenas Originarias de Bolivia
"Bartolina Sisa (CNMCIQB*BS)

Confederación Nacional de Mujeres Indígenas de Bolivia (CNAMIB)**Consejo Indígena de las Mujeres Tacacana (CIMTA)**

Barrio San Juan, Calle 2, Santa Cruz

Coordinadora de la Mujer

Avenida Arce 2132 Edificio Illampu, Piso 1, Oficina A

Telephone: 2-2444923

<http://www.coordinadoradelamujer.org.bo>

Fundación La Paz

Av. Tito Yupanqui # 1205 Villa Copacabana, La Paz

Telephone: 2-2232276

www.fundacionlapaz.org

Instituto de Lengua y Cultura Aymara (ILCA)

Casilla 2681

Telephone: 2- 2 419650

<http://www.ilcanet.org/>

Instituto de Formación Femenina Integral (IFFI)

Calle Daniel Albornoz N° 1687 esquina Lucas Mendoza (Zona Cala Cala)

Cochabamba

Telephone: (591 – 4) 4409601 – 4409603 - 4118139

<http://www.iffi.org.bo/>

Organización de Mujeres Aymaras de Kollasuyu (OMAK)

Avenida Romero 2045, Zona Amor de Dios, 1ro de Mayo camino a Viacha

<http://www.coordinadoradelamujer.org.bo>

Secretaria de Género de Confederación Indígena del Oriente Boliviano (CIDOB)

Barrio San Juan, Calle 2, Santa Cruz

Telf. 591-3-3498494 o 591-3-3622707

<http://www.cidob-bo.org/>

Secretaria de Género de Asamblea del Pueblo Guaraní (APG)

www.cidob-bo.org/regionales/apg.htm

Taller de Historia y Participación de la Mujer (TAHIPAMU)

Calle Jaimes Freyre # 2957 Esquina Muñoz Cornejo, Sopocachi, La Paz

Telephone: 2-2419232

ANNEX 5: SCOPE OF WORK FOR GENDER ANALYSIS AT THE STRATEGY LEVEL

1. Background

USAID/Bolivia is developing a new Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS) for 2014-2019. The focus of this new strategy has not yet been identified. However, it will probably include funding from at least three Office of the Director of U.S. Foreign Assistance (F) objectives spread across two mission development objectives.

Gender analysis is the technical analysis that the Mission is required to conduct during this strategic planning process. Recognizing that the dynamics of gender relations is both a socially and culturally variable, USAID has provided guidance via the guidance provided in its Automated Directives System (ADS):

“Gender issues are central to the achievement of strategic plans and Development Objectives (DOs) and USAID strives to promote gender equality...Accordingly, USAID planning in the development of strategic plans and DOs must take into account gender roles and relationships. Gender analysis can help guide long term planning and ensure desired results are achieved. However, gender is not a separate topic to be analyzed and reported on in isolation. USAID’s gender integration approach requires that gender analysis be applied to the range of technical issues that are considered in the development of strategic plans, DOs, and projects/activities (ADS 201.3.9.3).”

USAID uses gender analysis to identify, understand and describe gender differences and the impact of gender inequalities on a sector or program at the country or project level. Gender Analysis is a required element of strategic planning, project design and long term planning and is the basic foundation on which gender integration is built. Gender analysis examines the different but independent roles of men and women and the relations between sexes. It also involves an examination of the rights and opportunities of men and women, power relations, and access to and control over resources. Gender analysis identifies disparities, investigates why such disparity exists, determines whether they are detrimental and if so, looks at how they can be remedied⁶⁷.

2. Objectives

The gender analysis will address the following objectives to be presented in a two volume report as follows:

Volume I:

- a) To identify those gender issues and opportunities that have the greatest potential impacts both positively and negatively on Bolivia’s economic development.
- b) To assess key Government of Bolivia gender-related policies and programs, and identify opportunities for collaboration and mutual strengthening of gendered approaches between

⁶⁷ Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, USAID, 03/31/2010, pg. 5.

USAID and Government of Bolivia, considering the Gender Strategies and National Gender Policies included in the National Development Plan (“*Para vivir bien*”).

- c) Provide statements of and synthesize the key gender based-constraints. Statements should incorporate critical issues such as trafficking, gender-based violence, disabilities and economic development (existing guidance on women and disabilities should be utilized). http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/disability/index.html
- d) To identify strategies and approaches that have worked to enhance the accessibility and equitability of its programs to both men and women;
- e) To identify how the different roles and status of women and men within the community, political sphere, workplace, and household (for example, roles in decision making and different access to and control over resources and services) will affect the work to be undertaken.

Volume II:

- f) To develop an action plan for addressing these gender constraints and opportunities in the design of Mission activities linked to the strategy.
- g) To conduct an in depth gender analysis for the health, environmental sectors and the cross cutting themes of democracy and good governance, identify how the anticipated results of the work will affect women and men differently, given the gender analysis, and present recommendations for strategic planning in these two sectors⁶⁸.

According to ADS 201.3.9.3, the purpose of Objective e above is to ensure that: 1) the differences in roles and status of women and men are examined and 2) any inequalities or differences that will impede achieving development program goals are addressed in the planned work design. The different roles, responsibilities, and status of men and women within the community, political sphere, workplace and household must be addressed.

ObjectiveG calls for another level of analysis in which the anticipated programming results are: 1) fully examined to discern the possible different effects on women and men and 2) the design is adjusted as necessary to ensure equitable and sustainable development program and project impact (see ADS 203.6.1). For example, programming for women’s income generation may have the unintended consequence of domestic violence as power shifts from men to women, this potential negative effect could be mitigated by working with men to anticipate change and be more supportive with their partners. USAID’s programs and activities must take into account not only the different roles of men and women, but also the relationship between and among men and women as well as the broader institutional and social structures that support them⁶⁹.

3. Approach

The various approaches that will be utilized in the gender analysis are detailed below.

1. Comprehensive literature review of pertinent documents including: studies and assessments conducted by donors, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), Government of Bolivia and the academic community; USAID documents, including but not limited to,

⁶⁸ Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, USAID. Ibid. Pg. 5.

⁶⁹ Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, USAID. Ibid. Pg. 6.

the existing USAID/Bolivia Gender Analysis and Action Plan for current program documents, reports, situation analyses, and others;

2. Discussions and interviews with, Donors and NGOs active in gender-related areas, Government of Bolivia officials and Bolivian Gender Experts. The consultants will be expected to develop a list of key contacts and provide the list to USAID/Bolivia;
3. Meetings with USAID implementing partners and beneficiaries (contractors, grantees, private voluntary organizations (PVOs), NGOs) as well as all USAID/Bolivia technical offices which currently manage development programs and implement projects and activities. The technical offices will assist with identifying the most important partner contacts. Two meetings are proposed:
 - One Mission-wide meeting with the Gender Assessment Consultant Team with relevant Mission Staff in order for Consultants to identify and share the purpose of the gender assessment and to provide specific examples of the importance of gender as it touches across all sectors/areas.
 - One Mission-wide meeting after the Consultants complete the field work to engage and inform staff on the Team's findings.
4. Site visits to the geographic regions identified below and project activities, when appropriate.

4. Geographical Scope of Work:

The Gender Analysis should analyze the gender relations, constraints and opportunities at the national level, considering that Bolivia has different geographical areas within the country which influence the character and lifestyle of Bolivian groups. The gender analysis will include relevant geographical differences, given climate variations, cultural values, gender roles and behaviors for the following focus areas:

- High Plateau (Mountains) La Paz, Oruro and Potosi.
- Valleys: Cochabamba, Sucre and Tarija.
- Low Lands: Santa Cruz, Pando and Beni.

5. Components of Gender Analysis

The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) synthesizes the steps of gender analysis in this way:

- 1) Sex-disaggregated Data + 2) Analysis + 3) Gender Perspective = Gender Analysis.

In general, all gender analysis approaches should examine representation of men and women in a particular sector or F objective, how resources are distributed, and why these differences exist. It may also be useful to examine the historical and contemporary social context relevant to the specific sector to understand gender differences⁷⁰.

⁷⁰ Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, USAID. Ibid. Pg. 7.

The following components must be considered in the Gender Analysis:

1. Analysis of sex-disaggregated data and information.

It is important that consultants review any disaggregated data relevant to the specific F objective potential programming. This data can be from second source information; found in published resources from international agencies, data from the *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (INE), gender experts, stakeholder consultations and USAID documents including the Bolivia Gender and Indigenous Issues Report and Gender Analysis or firsthand sources of information. The information will be collected directly by the consultants by surveys and focus groups if the information required is not available from second source information.

2. Assessment of roles and responsibilities/division of labor.

This analysis should consider and present:

- Men`s and women`s roles and responsibilities in relation to formal and informal employment, community participation, local/community policies, family, household roles and labor roles.
- Where is the greatest participation of women and men? What are the reasons for this?
- What are the barriers to an adequate division of labor and to equal opportunities?
- Where do opportunities or entry points exist to encourage an equitable division of labor and to equal opportunities?
- What different roles do boys and girls play within the household and community? How might this affect their access to education, health care, etc.?

3. Consideration of access to and control over resources.

Analyze who has access to and control of resources, services and assets within the households. This is important, since access and control over income resources are different, and most of the time the one in the household who has control over the financial income resources, is the one that makes the decision on what to purchase and when and this affects the life quality of children and women. It is important to identify who has access to services and to assets.

4. Examination of patterns of decision making.

Analysis and determine in what decision-making practices do men and women participate? Analysis can include the national and household level.

5. Examination of the data using a gender perspective (i.e. in the context of women and men`s gender roles and relationships.)

The use of a gender perspective is not limited to present sex-disaggregated data but interpreting the data by considering the differences between men`s and women`s needs, priorities, responsibilities, status, perspectives, strengths, activities, opportunities, and constraints, among many other factors over both the long and the short term. Using the information collected from steps 1 to 4 becomes possible to extract a comprehensive picture of gender roles, responsibilities, and relations in a particular country, community or project.

The above list is not exhaustive; Additional issues can be added as appropriate by the potential Contractors.

7. Deliverables

1. **Work plan/schedule:** Based on the proposed Contractor's original proposed work plan, a final work plan/schedule will be **delivered** for USAID approval within three working days after the start date of the consultancy.
2. **Draft Gender Analysis:** The draft gender analysis will be completed within 35 working days from the conclusion of fieldwork and data collection, in both hard and electronic versions. An oral debriefing will also be scheduled, prior to the delivery of the written draft. The Draft Gender Analysis must be approved by USAID prior to producing a final document which will include all USAID requested adjustments to the draft.
3. **Final Gender Analysis:** A final gender analysis will be completed within 10 working days after the Mission submits its comments. The final gender analysis will also include a comprehensive annotated bibliography. The outline the two volumes will follow is suggested here:

VOL I: GENDER ANALYSIS FOR USAID/BOLIVIA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ACRONYMS

1. BACKGROUND

1.1 Purpose of the Assignment

1.2 Structure of the Reports

2. INTRODUCTION:

2.1 Overview of Gender Dynamics and Trends in Bolivia

3. BOLIVIAN PUBLIC POLICY FRAMEWORK IN SUPPORT OF GENDER EQUALITY

3.1 Progress and Continuing Challenges

3.2 Current Political Discourse on Gender Equality

3.3 Gender Equality Policies and Organizational Structure

4. SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Gender-based Inequalities and Gaps

4.2 USAID/Bolivia's Future Work in Sustainable Development: Opportunities

5. SUSTAINABLE LANDSCAPES

5.1 Gender-based Inequalities and Gaps

5.2 USAID/Bolivia's Future Work in Sustainable Landscapes: Opportunities

5.3 Promising Practices in Conservation and Climate Change

6. GLOBAL HEALTH INITIATIVE

6.1 Gender Gaps and Disparities

6.2 USAID/Bolivia's Current and Future Work in Health: Opportunities

7. DEMOCRACY AND GOVERNANCE

7.1 Gender-based Inequalities and Gaps

7.2 USAID/Bolivia's Future Work in Democracy and Governance: Opportunities

ANNEXES

1. Bibliography
2. Basic concepts
3. Additional Information on Bolivian Gender Policies
4. Scope of Work
5. Methodology
 - a. Objectives
 - b. Gender assessment team and methodology
 - c. List of key informants
6. Gender Experts and Organizations in Bolivia

VOL II: GENDER-FOCUSED RECOMMENDATIONS AND ACTION PLAN FOR USAID/BOLIVIA

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY OF VOLUME I

1. HEALTH

- 1.1 Summary of Strengths and Weakness of Current USAID/Bolivia Health Projects to Address Gender-based Gaps, Constraints, and Inequalities
- 1.2 Recommendations for Health
- 1.3 Recommendations for Cross-cutting Democracy and Governance for Health
- 1.4 Gender Strategic Action Plan for Health

2. SUSTAINABLE LANDSCAPES

- 1.5 Summary of Strengths and Weakness of Current USAID/Bolivia Health Projects to Address Gender-based Gaps, Constraints, and Inequalities
- 1.6 Recommendations for Sustainable Landscapes
- 1.7 Recommendations for Cross-cutting Democracy and Governance for Sustainable Landscapes
- 1.8 Gender Strategic Action Plan for Sustainable Landscapes



USAID
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE



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1300 Pennsylvania Ave., NW
Washington, D.C. 20523

[http://www.usaid.gov/what-we-do/gender equality and womens empowerment](http://www.usaid.gov/what-we-do/gender-equality-and-womens-empowerment)

DevTech Systems, Inc.
1700 North Moore St.
Suite 1720
Arlington, Virginia 22209

<http://www.devtechsys.com/practices/gender/>