

Country Gender Profile: Islamic Republic of Pakistan

Final Report

March 2015

JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY (JICA)

JAPAN DEVELOPMENT SERVICE CO., LTD (JDS)

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15-107

Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) commissioned Japan Development Service Co., Ltd. to carry out a research for Country Gender Profile in Mozambique from September 2014 to March 2015. This report was prepared based on the desk review and the field research in Mozambique during this period as a reference for JICA for its implementation of development assistance in Mozambique. The views and analysis contained in the publication therefore do not necessarily reflect JICA's views.

MAP OF THE ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF PAKISTAN



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LIST OF ACRONYM

ADB	: Asian Development Bank
AFR	: Adolescent Fertility Rate
AJK	: Azad Jammu and Kashmir
CCI	: Chambers for Commerce and Industry
CEDAW	: Convention for Eliminating All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIDA	: Canadian International Development Agency
CPR	: Contraceptive Performance Report
DV	: Domestic Violence
EFA	: Education for All
EOBI	: Employees Old-age Benefit Institution
EU	: European Union
FATA	: Federally Administered Tribal Areas
FP & PHC	: Family Planning and Primary Health Care
GAD	: Gender and Development
GB	: Gilgit Balochistan
GCC	: Gender Crime Cell
GDI	: Gender Development Index
GDP	: Gross Development Product
GEM	: Gender Empowerment Measure
GGI	: Gender Gap Index
GII	: Gender Inequality Index
GIZ	: <i>Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit</i>
GPI	: Gender Parity Index
GRAP	: Gender Reform Action Plan
GRBI	: Gender Responsive Budgeting Initiative
HBW	: Home Based Worker
HIV/AIDS	: Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ILO	: International Labor Organization
JICA	: Japan International Cooperation Agency
LFR	: Labor Force Participation Rate
LHWs	: Lady Health Workers
M & E	: Monitoring and Evaluation
MCH	: Maternal and Child Health
MDGs	: Millennium Development Goals
MFB	: Microfinance Bank
MFI	: Microfinance Institute
MMR	: Maternal Mortality Ratio

NACP	: National AIDS Control Program
NAVTTTC	: National Vocational and Training Education Committee
NCSW	: National Commission on the Status of Women
NER	: Net Enrollment Ratio
NGO	: Non-governmental Organization
NIPS	: National Institute of Population Studies
NPA	: National Plan of Action for Women
NPDEW	: National Policy on Development and Empowerment
PACP	: Provincial AIDS Control Program
PBS	: Pakistan Bureau of Statistics
PCSW	: Provincial Commission on the Status of Women
PDHS	: Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey
PDM	: Project Design Matrix
PDS	: Pakistan Demographic Survey
PES	: Pakistan Economic Survey
PHMEA	: Pakistan Hosiery Manufacturers and Exporters Association
PKTI	: Pakistan Knitwear Training Institute
PLS	: Pakistan Labor Force Survey
PML	: Pakistan Muslim League
PPP	: Pakistan People Party
PSLM	: Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey
RSP	: Rural Support Program
SMEDA	: Small and Medium Enterprise Development Authority
SWD	: Social Welfare Department
TEVTA	: Technical Education and Vocational Training Authority
TVET	: Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNDP	: United Nations Development Program
USAID	: United States Agency for International Development
VAW	: Violence against Women
WDD	: Women Development Department
WHO	: World Health Organization
WID	: Women in Development

1. Basic Indicators

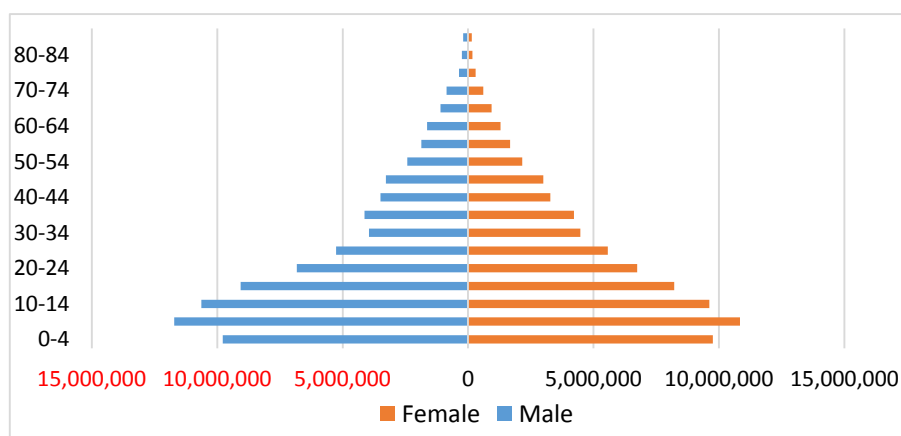
1.1 Population

The population of Pakistan has increased by around 100 million over the last three decades, as shown in Table 1.1.1. It reached 184.5 million in 2012-13, which is ranked the 6th in the world. Since 1981, rural population has declined by 10 percent while urban population has increased by 10 percent. As one of outstanding characteristics, the ratio of youth population to the total population is quite high for both women and men (see Fig. 1.1.1).

Table 1.1.1 Trend of Demographic Index

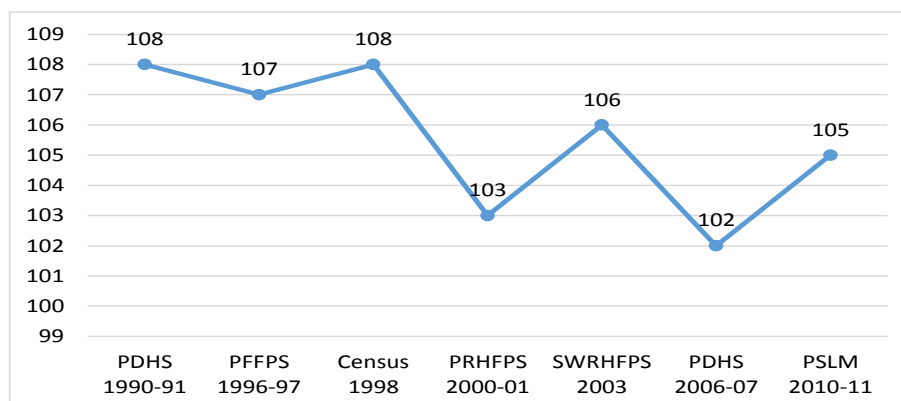
	Census 1981	Census 1998	PES 2012-13
Population	84.2	132.3	184.5
Urban	28.3	32.5	37.9
Rural	71.7	67.5	62.1
Population Growth Rate betw. Censuses	3.1	2.69	2
Average Life Expectancy at Birth			
Male	62.4	62.5	64.6
Female	63.4	63	66.5

Source: NIPS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.



Source: NIPS. 2008. *PDS 2006-07*. Islamabad: NIPS

Figure 1.1.1 Population by Sex and Age

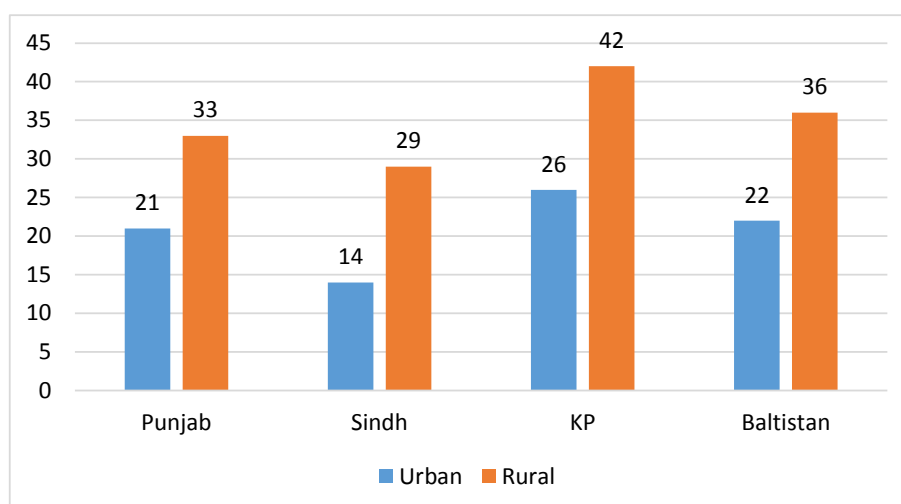


Source: PBS. 2008. *PDS 2006-07*. Islamabad: PBS cited in UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

Figure 1.1.2 Trend of Sex Ratio

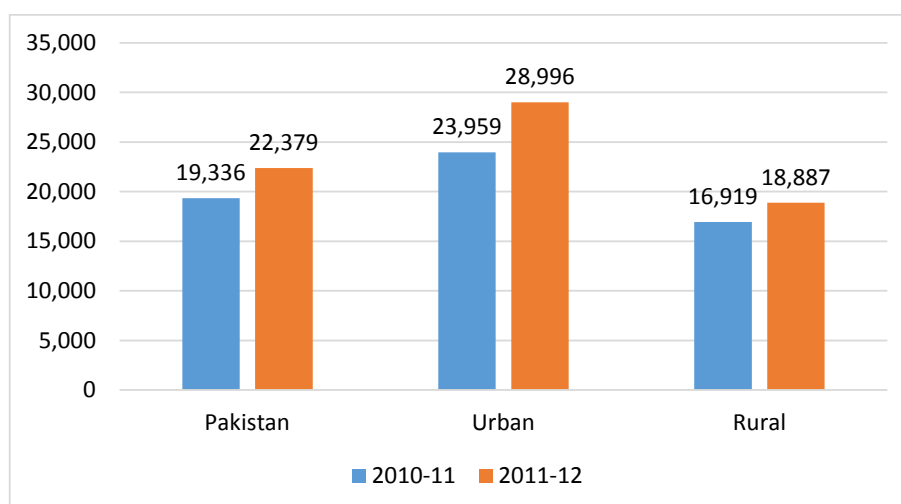
1.2 Poverty

In Pakistan, poverty headcount ratio at USD 1.25 per day is 12.4 percent as of 2012 as it has declined year by year¹. From a perspective of multidimensional poverty; however, about half of the population still suffers poverty². There is a critical disparity in the ratios between areas of residence and provinces (see Fig. 1.2.1 and Fig. 1.2.2). The severity index of poverty is more likely to be high for female-headed households and those in rural areas in particular (see Table 1.2.1).



Source: Anwar Talat. 2006. "Trends in Absolute Poverty and Governance: 1998-99 and 2004-05." *The Pakistan Development Review*, 45:4 Part II (Winter 2006), pp.777-793.

Figure 1.2.1 Poverty Headcount Ratio (by Area of Residence and Province)³



Source: PBS 2013. *HIES 2011-12*. Islamabad: PBS.

Figure 1.2.2 Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure in Rupees (by Area of Residence)

¹ <http://data.worldbank.org/country/pakistan> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

² UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

³ Refer the Definition of Poverty Rate here to "Trends in Absolute Poverty and Governance: 1998-99 and 2004-05," *The Pakistan Development Review*, 45:4 Part II (Winter 2006), pp.777-793.

Table 1.2.1 Poverty Status by Female/Male Headed Households

	Poverty Rate	Poverty Gap	Severity of Poverty
Total	23.3	4.43	1.33
Urban	14.5	2.65	0.74
Rural	27.5	5.28	1.60
Female-headed HHs	17.4	4.53	1.36
Urban	11.8	2.70	0.76
Rural	19.8	5.41	1.65
Male-headed HHs	23.7	2.95	0.80
Urban	14.7	1.85	0.53
Rural	28.0	3.42	0.92

Source: *PIHS 2000-01 & PSLM 2004-05*. Cited in Khalid U and Akhtar. S. 2011⁴.

1.3 Education

The literacy rate for women in Pakistan is only 60 percent as of 2012-13, which is far behind from the targeted Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of 88 percent (see Table 1.3.1). Compared to the rate of 35 percent in 1990-91; however, it has increased by 25 percentage points. Similarly, net enrollment ratio (NER) in primary education for girls has increased from 46 percent in 1990-91 to 57 percent in 2012-13. As a result, the gender disparity in primary and secondary education between girls and boys has gradually closed. However, NERs in early secondary education for girls in rural Sindh and Balochistan remain in the single-digit range while NERs for all groups are quite low (see Table 1.3.2 and 1.3.3).

Table 1.3.1 Trend of Literacy Rate and NER in Primary Education and GPI in Primary and Secondary Education

	1990-91	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	MDG
Female Literacy Rate	35	53	54	55	56	57	58	58	60	88
Girls' NER in Primary Education	46	52	53	56	55	57	56	57	57	100
GPI in Literacy Rate (youth)	0.51	0.68	0.78	0.75	0.78	0.77	0.79	0.81	0.82	1
GPI in Primary Education	0.73	0.85	0.85	0.81	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.90	0.89	1
GPI in Secondary Education	-	0.83	0.78	0.80	0.81	0.80	0.85	0.81	0.89	0.94

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

⁴ Khalid, U. and Akhtar, S. 2011. "Poverty Dynamics of Female-headed Households in Pakistan: Evidence from PIHS 2000-01 and PSLM 2004-05," *PIDE Working Papers*: 2011:80.

Table 1.3.2 Trend of Main Educational Indicators by Sex

	2008-09 PSLM			2010-11 PSLM			2012-13 PSLM		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Literacy Rate (over 15)	69	45	57	69	46	58	71	48	60
NER in Primary Education (Public School) (Grade1 to 5, age of 5 to 9)	61	54	57	60	53	56	61	54	57
NER in Early Secondary Education (Public School) (Grade6 to 8, age of 10 to 12)	21	18	20	22	19	20	23	21	22
NER in Late Secondary Education (Public School) (Grade9 to 10, age of 13 to 14)	12	11	12	12	12	12	13	13	13

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Table 1.3.3 Net Enrollment Ratio in Early Secondary Education by Sex and Province (age 10 to 12)

	Urban Area			Rural Area		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Pakistan	28	33	30	21	16	19
Punjab	29	37	33	23	20	21
Sindh	25	29	27	17	9	14
KP	29	29	29	22	15	19
Baltistan	29	19	25	15	6	11

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

1.4 Health

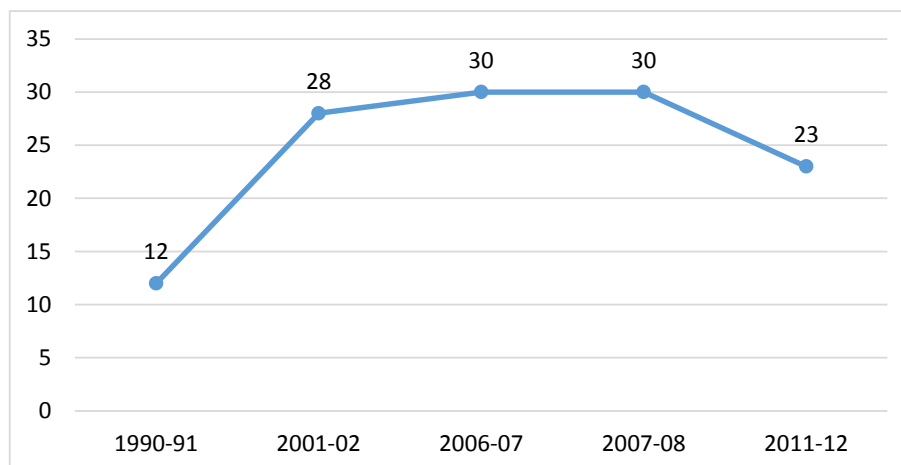
1.4.1 Demography

The total fertility rate of Pakistan remains at the high rate of 3.8 children as of 2012-13 while it has declined gradually since 1990-91 (see Table 1.4.1.1). Rural areas and Balochistan Province, in particular, have a quite high rate of 4.2 children. As shown in Figure 1.4.1.1, contraceptive prevalence rate has increased from 12 percent in 1990-91 to 23 percent in 2011-12 although it dropped temporarily between 2007-08 and 2011-12.

Table 1.4.1.1 Trend of Total Fertility Rate (by Area of Residence and Province)

	1990-91 PDHS	2006-07 PDHS	2012-13 PDHS
	1985-90	2004-06	2010-12
Pakistan	5.4	4.1	3.8
Urban Area	4.9	3.3	3.2
Rural Area	5.6	4.5	4.2
Punjab	5.4	3.9	3.8
Sindh	5.1	4.3	3.9
KP	5.5	4.3	3.9
Baltistan	5.8	4.1	4.2

Source: NIPS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

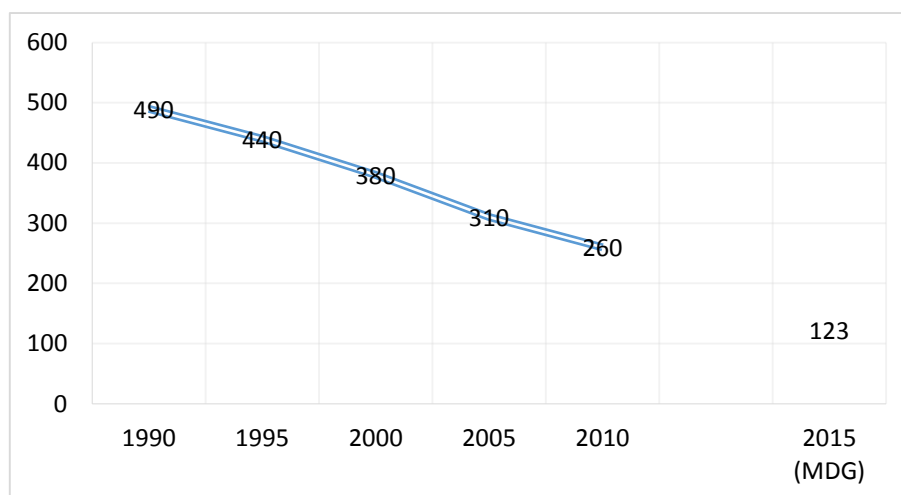


Source: CPR Report, 2011-12, cited in UN Women, 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

Figure 1.4.1.1 Trend of Contraceptive Prevalence Rate

1.4.2 Reproductive Health

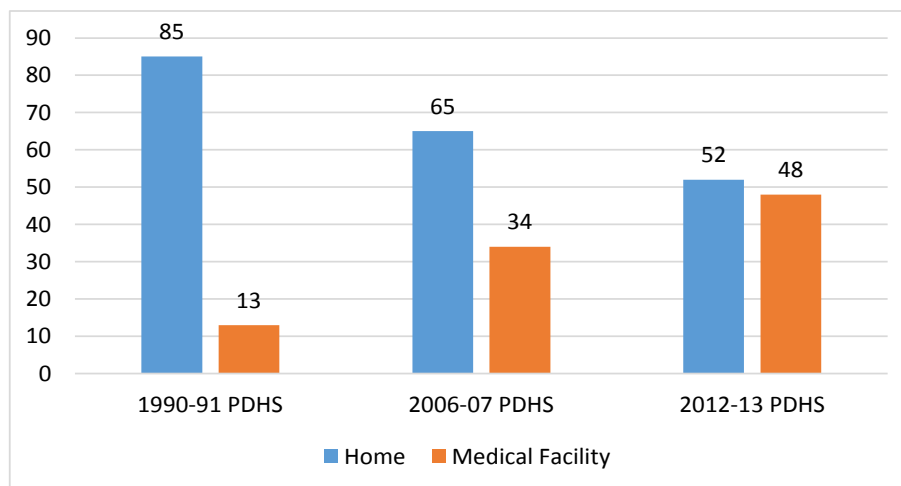
The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) of Pakistan has declined from 490 in 1990 to 260 in 2010 although it is far behind from the targeted MDG of 123 (see Figure 1.4.2.1). The MMR is more likely to be high in rural area than urban area mainly because births tend to be delivered more at home rather than medical facilities and even without any skilled birth attendant in rural areas (see Figure 1.4.2.2 and Table 1.4.2.1).



Source: WHO

http://countdown2015mnch.org/documents/2013Report/Pakistan_Accountability_profile_2013.pdf
http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2012/9789241503631_eng.pdf (last access on January 7, 2015)

Figure 1.4.2.1 Trend of Maternal Mortality Ratio



Source: NIPS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

Figure 1.4.2.2 Trend of Places for Delivery

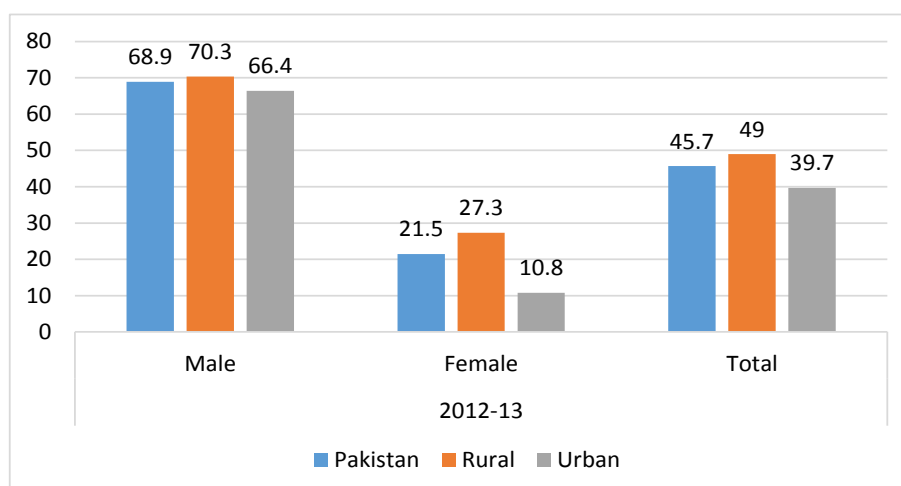
Table 1.4.2.1 Delivery Assisted by Whom (by Area of Residence) (unit: %)

	Doctors	Midwives/ Nurses	TBA	Family/ Relatives	No Attendant	unknown
Pakistan	41.9	10.2	41.2	6.1	0.2	0.4
Urban	64	7	27.2	1.5	0	0.3
Rural	32.8	11.6	46.9	7.9	0.3	0.4

Source: NIPS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

1.5 Employment/ Economic Activities

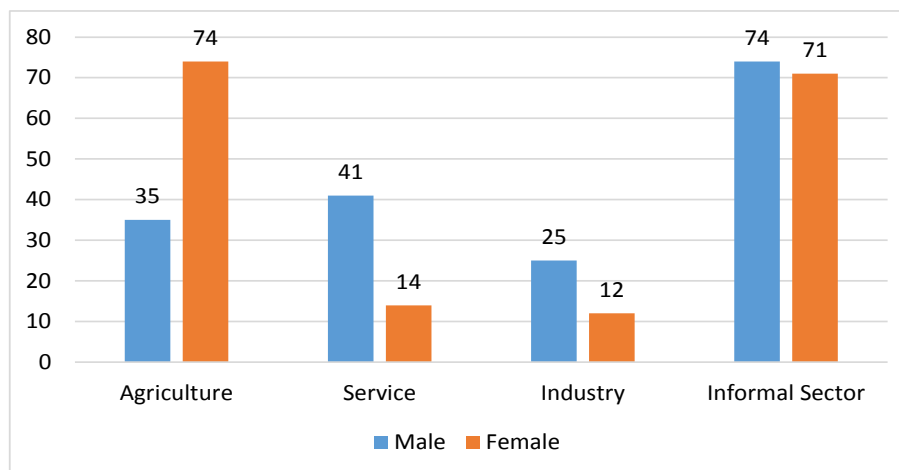
The labor force participation rate (LFR) for women in Pakistan is only 21.5 percent, which is quite low in general and much lower than the rate of 68.9 percent for men (see Figure 1.5.1). In the formal sector, 74 percent of women are engaged in agricultural work while more men work in the service sector than the agriculture sector (see Figure 1.5.2). However, a great majority of both men (74%) and women (71%) are employed in the informal sector (see Figure 1.5.2).



Source: PBS. 2014. *Pakistan Labor Force Survey 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Figure 1.5.1 Labor Force Participation Rate (refined) (by Sex and Area of Residence)⁵

⁵ The Labor Force Participation Rate here covers only formal sector's and Home Based Workers are not included.



Source: PBS. 2012. *Pakistan Employment Trends 2010-11*, cited in UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

Figure 1.5.2 Labor Force Participation Rate in Main Sectors by Sex and Other Information⁶

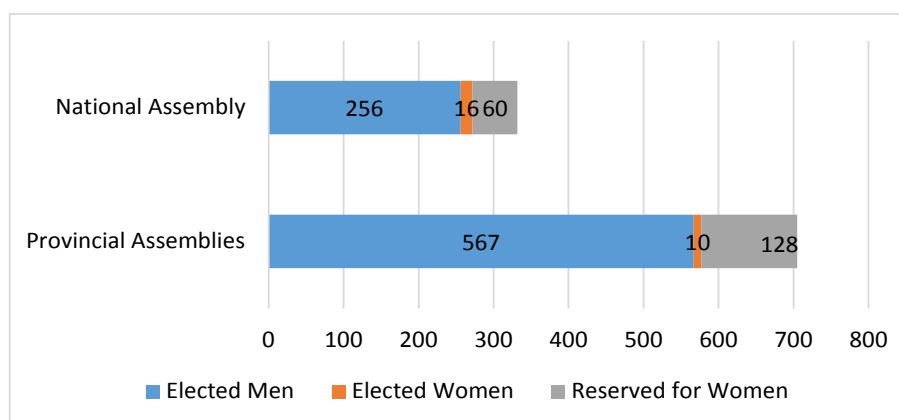
Table 1.5.1 Unemployment Rate

	2010-11			2012-13		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Pakistan	5.1	8.9	6.0	5.4	9.0	6.2
Rural	4.0	6.4	4.7	4.4	6.9	5.1
Urban	7.1	20.7	8.8	7.3	19.2	8.8

Source: PBS. 2014. *Pakistan Labor Force Survey 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

1.6 Participation in Politics

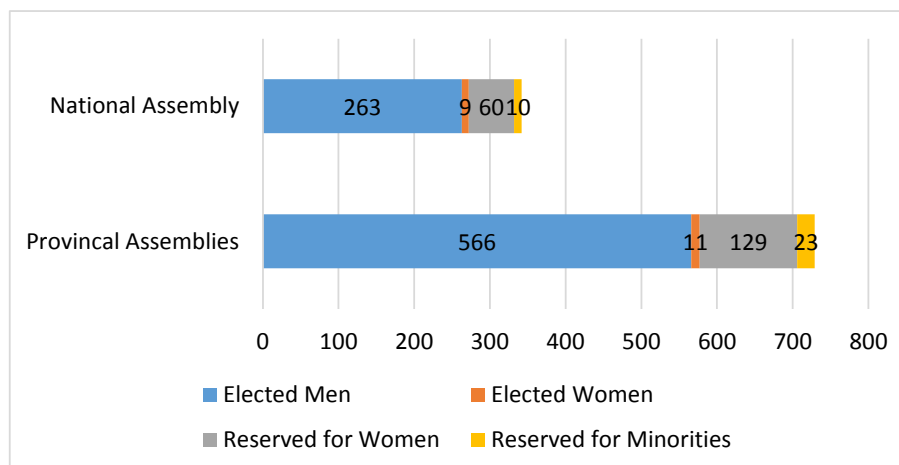
The Government of Pakistan takes an affirmative action to reserve a certain number of seats for women and minority groups in both the National Assembly and Provincial Assemblies. Out of the constant number of 342 for the National Assembly, 60 seats are reserved for women and 10 seats are reserved for minority groups. As a result of the General Election in 2013, the number of women members in the National Assembly declined from 76 (60 + 16 elected women) to 69 (60 + 9 elected women) (see Figure 1.6.1 and Figure 1.6.2).



Source: UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan. 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women

Figure 1.6.1 Distribution of Members in National Assembly between 2008 and 2013

⁶ ibid.



Source: UN Women, 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women

**Figure 1.6.2 Distribution of Members in National Assembly
as a Result of General Election 2013**

2. Outline of Socio-economic and Gender Equality Situation

2.1 Outline of Socio-economic Situation

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan (hereafter, "Pakistan") is one of the South Asian countries and has an area of 796,000 square kilometers, which is twice as large as Japan's. It is bordered by India to the East, China to the Northeast, Afghanistan to the Northwest, and Iran to the West while its South edge is along the Indian Ocean. The Indus, the largest river in Pakistan with a basin area of 1,165,000 square kilometers, runs through the center of the country. It contributes as a main water-source to agricultural production in the granary of Punjab and Sindh Provinces.

Pakistan is a federal parliamentary republic consisting of four Provinces; Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), and Balochistan, one federal capital territory of Islamabad Capital Territory, two autonomous and disputed territories, and a group of federally administered tribal areas. The Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), located in the border region in the Northwest adjacent to Afghanistan, follow their own rules of the tradition and customs deeply rooted in the tribal society and are free from the control of the federal government.

According to the Pakistan Economic Survey (PES) 2012-13, Pakistan has a population of 184.35 million with the annual population growth rate of 2.03 percent, which is the 6th most populous country in the world. In 2050; however, Pakistan's population is estimated to be the 4th largest after China, India, and the US⁷. The ratio of the population 24 years old and over, in particular, will account for 36 percent of the total population and is expected to be the huge labor force and consumer market⁸. Pakistan is a multiethnic/tribal country consisting of the Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto, Balochi, and so on, 97 percent of which are followers of Islam. Its national languages are Urdu and English.

The key industries of Pakistan are agriculture and the textile industry. Agriculture accounts for 21.1 percent of the total Gross Development Products (GDP)⁹ and makes up 45 percent of the total labor force as of 2012-13¹⁰. Pakistan is the 4th largest wheat producing country and earns 16.7 percent of the total export value from rice and other food items. As for the textile industry, fiber products, including fabrics, yarns, and ready-made clothes, make up 51.5 percent of the total export value¹¹. According to the PES 2013-14, the GDP of Pakistan is USD 238.7 billion with a small increase in the rate of real economic growth from 3.7 percent in 2012-13 to 4.1 percent in 2013-14. In order to raise the rate as high as other South Asian countries', Pakistan needs to restore national security, resolve the electric power shortage with the construction of infrastructure, execute tax system reform for reducing

⁷ http://www.jica.go.jp/pakistan/ku57pq00000468g1-att/business_and_economic.pdf (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁸ *ibid.*

⁹ Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (PBS). 2014. *PSLM 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.(last accessed on January 7, 2015)

¹⁰ http://www.jica.go.jp/pakistan/ku57pq00000468g1-att/business_and_economic.pdf (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

¹¹ http://www.jetro.go.jp/world/asia/pk/stat_03/ (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

the government's budget deficit, and control inflation through macroeconomic policies¹².

The GDP per capita of Pakistan has increased from USD 1,023 in 1995 to 1999 to USD 1,275 in 2010 to 2014.¹³ With the economic growth, the poverty headcount rate at USD 1.25 per day has declined from 34.5 percent in 2000/2001 to 12.4 percent in 2010/2011¹⁴. In terms of the Human Development Index (HDI) 2014 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), however, Pakistan is ranked 146th out of 187 countries while its HDI value has improved from 0.383 in 1990 to 0.537 in 2013. The rank of 146th is lower than that of other South Asian countries, such as India which is 135th and Bangladesh at 142nd.

2.2 Outline of Gender Equality Situation

Pakistan ensures gender equality before the law and prohibits all forms of discrimination against women. Pakistan is a nation ruled by law in one hand, but on the other hand, it occasionally applies Islamic Law and customary law above national law for crimes against girls and women in particular. Due to this, violence against women, including child marriage, tribal exchange marriage, honor killing, and so on, has not fully been recognized or judged as a crime. Based on the patriarchal sense of value and social institutions embedded in real life, women's rights, including inheritance rights and land ownership, are not fully afforded to women. Furthermore, the social concept of "women are to be owned by men" and the social institution of *purdah* often prevent girls and women from moving freely, having access to education and health services, and participating in economic activities. As a result, Pakistan has lagged behind other countries even in South Asia in women's advancement in society. Women have not played a role as actors in the development of the nation as much as men do.

According to UNDP, Pakistan is ranked the 127th in Gender Inequality Index (GII) 2013 with the GII value of 0.563 (see Table 2.2.1). Judging from the fact that the average GII value of South Asian countries is 0.539, the degree of gender inequality in Pakistan is quite high. For example, while India is ranked as 127th (as Pakistan is), Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka are ranked the 115th, 98th, and 75th, respectively. The GII, based on Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), the index consists of three elements: 1) Reproductive Health; 2) Empowerment; and 3) Economic Activities. The element of Reproductive Health includes maternal mortality ratio (MMR) and Adolescent Fertility Rate (AFR). On the other hand, while the element of Empowerment includes the ratio of female members to the total number of National Assembly members and the ratios of women and men who completed secondary education to the total population, the element of Economic Activities includes the ratios of women and men who participated in labor to the total population. Pakistan fares worse in MMR, the ratio of women who completed their secondary education and women's LFR than other South Asian countries, which contribute to its low rank of the 127th in GII.

¹² <http://www.jetro.go.jp/world/gtir/2014.html> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

¹³ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

¹⁴ <http://www.pk.undp.org/content/dam/pakistan/docs/MDGs/MDG2013Report/UNDP-Report13.pdf> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

Table 2.2.1 Gender Inequality Index

	Pakistan	Bangladesh	India	Nepal	Sri Lanka
HDI Ranking (2013)	146	142	135	145	73
GII Value (2013)	0.563	0.529	0.563	0.479	0.383
GII Ranking (2013)	127	115	127	98	75
MMR (2010)	260	240	200	170	35
AFR (2010-2015)	27.3	80.6	32.8	73.7	16.9
Ratio of Female National Assembly Members (2013)	19.7	19.7	10.9	33.2	5.8
Ratio of women (25+) finished secondary education (2005-2012)	19.3	30.8	26.6	17.9	72.7
Ratio of men (25+) finished secondary education (2005-2012)	46.1	39.3	50.4	39.9	75.5
Labor Force Participation Rate for Women 15+ (2012)	24.4	57.3	28.8	54.3	35
Labor Force Participation Rate for Men 15+ (2012)	82.9	84.1	80.9	63.2	76.4

Source: UNDP. 2014. *Human Development Report*. New York: UNDP

Similarly to GII, Pakistan is ranked 142nd out of 142 countries in the Gender Gap Index (GGI) 2014 by World Economic Forum (see Table 2.2.2). While there have been small rises and falls in its GGI values since 2006, its ranking has consistently remained in the worst two to four (see Table 2.2.3). The GGI consists of four elements: 1) Economy; 2) Education; 3) Health; and 4) Politics. Compared to the GII, the GGI covers more indicators in each element category and can show more detailed comparative assessment. As Table 2.2.2 and Table 2.2.3 show, the scores of Economic Participation and Opportunity and Political Empowerment are quite low. In terms of comparison to other countries; however, scores even in Education and Health (Healthy Life Expectancy) are much worse than other countries, which results in its very low ranking.

Table 2.2.2 Gender Gap Index 2013

	Rank	Score	Sample Average	Female	Male	Female to Male Ratio
Economic Participation and Opportunity	141	0.309	0.596			
Labor force participation	137	0.30	0.67	25	86	0.30
Wage equality for similar work (survey)	111	0.55	0.61	-	-	0.55
Estimated earned income (PPP US\$)	136	0.18	0.53	1,342	7,367	0.18
Legislators, senior officials and managers	124	0.03	0.27	3	97	0.03
Professional and technical workers	119	0.28	0.65	22	78	0.28
Educational Attainment	132	0.805	0.935			
Literacy rate	129	0.63	0.87	42	67	0.63
Enrolment in primary education	131	0.87	0.94	67	77	0.87
Enrolment in secondary education	119	0.74	0.62	31	41	0.74
Enrolment in tertiary education	103	0.95	0.88	9	10	0.95
Health and Survival	119	0.967	0.960			
Sex ration at birth (f/m)	1	0.94	0.92	-	-	0.95
Health life expectancy	128	1.02	1.04	57	56	1.02
Political Empowerment	85	0.127	0.214			
Women in parliament	71	0.26	0.25	21	79	0.26
Women in ministerial positions	138	0.00	0.20	0	100	0.00
Years with female head of state (last 50)	23	0.10	0.20	5	45	0.10

Source: World Economic Forum. 2014. *Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. New York: World Economic Forum.

Table 2.2.3 Trend of Gender Gap Index

	Overall		Economic Participation		Educational Attainment		Health & Survival		Political Empowerment	
	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score
2014 (out of 142 countries)	141	0.552	141	0.309	132	0.805	119	0.967	85	0.127
2013 (out of 136)	135	0.546	135	0.311	129	0.768	124	0.956	64	0.149
2012 (out of 135)	134	0.548	134	0.310	129	0.762	123	0.956	52	0.164
2011(out of 135)	133	0.558	134	0.345	127	0.778	123	0.956	54	0.155
2010 (out of 134)	132	0.546	133	0.306	127	0.770	122	0.956	52	0.155
2009 (out of 134)	132	0.546	132	0.340	128	0.747	128	0.950	55	0.146
2008 (out of 130)	127	0.555	128	0.372	123	0.751	123	0.950	50	0.146
2007 (out of 128)	126	0.551	126	0.551	123	0.734	121	0.950	43	0.148
2006 (out of 115)	112	0.543	112	0.543	110	0.706	112	0.951	37	0.148

Source: World Economic Forum. 2014. *Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. New York: World Economic Forum.

3. Gender Equality Situation

3.1 Education

The Constitution of Pakistan ensures free education for all children 5 years old to 16 years old. The National Policy on Education developed in 2009 is the main framework of educational administration systems in Pakistan. Since the 18th revision of the Constitution in 2010, all responsibilities and authority in educational administration were handed over to each of the four Provincial Governments. Based on the Policy, curriculum, syllabus, learning criteria, and other important criteria have been developed by each of the Provincial Governments. In the Policy, universal primary education is prioritized as well as the integration of *Kachi* class (pre-education) into primary education, the improvement of educational quality, and the correction of regional and gender disparities in schooling. Furthermore, the Governments have tried to improve the literacy rate and enrollment ratio in primary education through the implementation of formal education in rural and urban poor areas in particular.

The budget allocated for social development sectors, including the education sector, for 9 months in 2011-2012 accounts for only 1.6 percent of GDP while the portion of public expenditure for the education sector has increased from 24 percent in 2009/2010 to 27 percent in 2011/2012¹⁵. With this limited budget, the Provincial Governments have to manage public schools which are not competitive in educational quality. As a result, wealthier families tend to send their children to private school as 26 percent of children from 6 years old to 16 years old in rural areas and 53 percent of those in urban areas do not go to public school¹⁶. The data by Province shows that 51 percent of those children in Punjab, 60 percent in Sindh, 75 percent in KP, and 44 percent in Balochistan go to private school¹⁷.

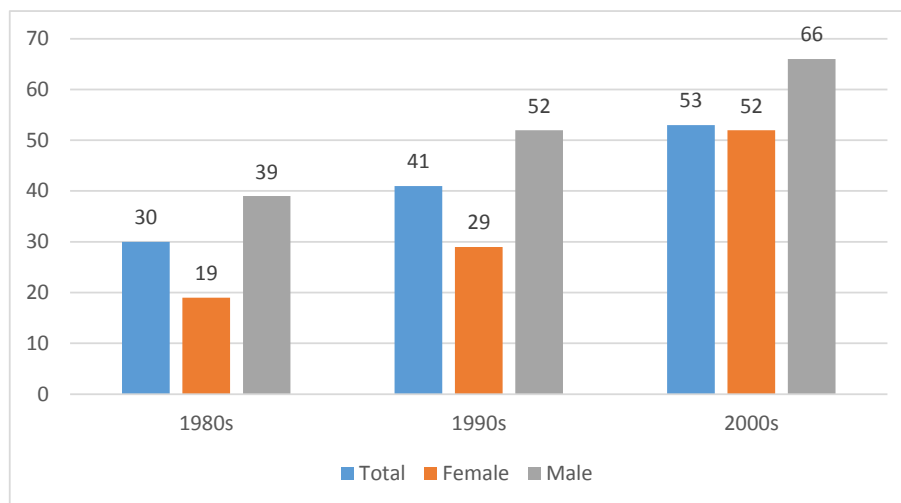
Due to international initiatives, such as Education for All (EAF) and MDGs after 2000, girls and women's education has captured the attention of international organizations and bilateral aid agencies in Pakistan. Those organizations have undertaken relevant interventions, targeting rural girls and women in particular. Looking at the trend of literacy rates for women over 10 years old for the last three decades, it has increased from 19 percent in 1980's to 29 percent in 1990's and 52 percent in 2000s¹⁸ (see Figure 3.1.1). On the other hand, gender disparity in early secondary education, in particular, is still huge while that in primary and higher education has almost been bridged over the last three decades (see Table 3.1.1).

¹⁵ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

¹⁶ This includes 'not only private school, but *Madlassa*' (Islamic Seminary).

¹⁷ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

¹⁸ Ministry of Finance, the Government of Pakistan. *Pakistan Economic Survey 2011*. Islamabad: MoF.



Source: Ministry of Finance. *Pakistan Economic Survey 2011-2012*. Islamabad: MoF.

Figure 3.1.1 Trend of Female and Male (over 10 year old) Literacy Rates

Table 3.1.1 Gender Parity Index in each Educational Level

	Primary	Early Secondary	Late Secondary	University
1980s	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.2
1990s	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.4
2004-05	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.7
2010-11	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.9
2011-12	0.8	0.4	0.7	1.0

Source: Ministry of Finance. *Pakistan Economic Survey 2011-2012*. Islamabad: MoF.

As Table 3.1.2 shows, the overall net enrollment ratios (NER) in Primary Education for both girls and boys (6 to 10 years old) in 2012-2013 was 68 percent, while the individual ratios for each of boys and girls were 72 percent and 64 percent, respectively¹⁹. Interestingly, the NER for girls in Punjab Province is higher than that of boys and there is only one percent gender disparity in Sindh Province. In rural areas however, there are 6 percentage points and 17 percentage point gender disparity in Punjab and Sindh Provinces. On the other hand, there is a huge gender disparity even in urban areas of KP and Balochistan Provinces. In rural areas of Balochistan Province, in particular, there is a 27 percentage point gender disparity.

Table 3.1.2 Net Enrollment Ratio in Primary Education (6 to 10 years old)

	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Pakistan	79	78	79	69	58	64	72	64	68
Punjab	81	82	81	72	66	69	74	70	72
Sindh	76	74	75	61	44	53	67	56	62
KP	83	75	79	74	58	67	76	60	68
Balochistan	80	70	75	61	34	49	65	42	55

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-2013*. Islamabad: PBS.

¹⁹ PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-2013*. Islamabad: PBS.

In general, such disparity in primary education between the sexes and areas of residence is attributed mainly to socio-economic factors, including poverty, ideology, and social institutions embedded in the society. In Pakistan where around 40 percent of the total population live in poverty, poor households with many children, in particular, tend to prioritize boys' schooling above girls' as a kind of future investment²⁰. Girls from poor households in rural areas are 21 times less likely than boys from wealthy households in urban areas to be able to go to school²¹. Due to the high opportunity cost for going to school, both boys and girls in rural areas tend not to go to school at all or to drop out and instead work in the agricultural field, do household chores, and take care of younger siblings if their parents' educational levels are low and their income is low or unstable²². Despite free education in public school in Pakistan, in actuality, parents have to bear the cost of school uniforms, stationary, and transportation fees if school is not located nearby²³. Twenty seven percent of girls 5 through 16 years old who have dropped out cited as a main reason for their dropping out that their parents did not allow them to continue going to school while 11 percent quit schooling because they needed to do household chores²⁴.

Supply side problems in the education sector in Pakistan include a lack of school buildings, female teachers, and facilities, such as lavatories, drinking water, and boundary walls as well as low quality education. The number of schools for girls in Pakistan is much fewer than that for boys²⁵. Thus, girls in rural areas, in particular, are usually constrained from obtaining secondary education (early secondary, late secondary) due to distance to school and strict gender institutions. Most girls from poor households cannot afford transportation fees if school is not located within walking distance, and most of parents do not allow them to go to coed school even within walking distance because they do not want their daughters to be exposed to curious looks from boy students, male teachers, and male passersby on the way to school due to *purdah*²⁶ and other strict gender institutions²⁷.

Interestingly, the NERs in early secondary education for boys and girls (11 to 13 years old) are 40 percent and 35 percent, respectively (see Table 3.1.3). In urban areas, the NER is reversed between girls and boys (girls 51 percent to boys 46 percent) while in rural areas, the NER for boys is higher than that for girls. This reversal in the NER in early secondary education for urban areas might be attributed mainly to incentives (such as scholarships) specifically for girl students²⁸. In Punjab Province where gender institutions, including *purdah*, are not as strict as other Provinces, there is not

²⁰ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women. and National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS). 2013. Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) 2012-13. Islamabad: NIPS.

²¹ *ibid.*

²² *ibid.*

²³ *ibid.*

²⁴ PBS. 2012. *PSLM 2010-2011*. Islamabad: PBS.

²⁵ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

²⁶ The religious and social practice of women's seclusion from (male) society which is prevalent in Muslim countries/communities.

²⁷ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

²⁸ *ibid.*

huge gender disparity. On the other hand, there is an 18 percentage point difference in the NER in early secondary education between boys and girls in rural areas of Sindh Province, 15 percentage point difference in that of KP Province, and 22 percentage point difference in that of Balochistan Province. Although there is the most populous urban city, Karachi, is located in Sindh Province, the rural traditional society of Sindh follows a feudal system and strict gender institutions, which results in the huge gap of 32 percentage points in the NER between girls and boys.

Table 3.1.3 Net Enrollment Ratio in Early Secondary Education (11 to 13 years old)

	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Pakistan	46	51	48	37	28	33	40	35	38
Panjab	45	53	49	36	33	35	39	40	39
Sindh	46	48	47	34	16	26	39	32	36
KP	53	46	49	42	27	36	44	31	38
Balochistan	49	39	45	32	10	22	36	17	28

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-2013*. Islamabad: PBS.

The NER in Late Secondary Education for urban areas is also reversed between girls and boys while at the national level, the NER for boys is higher than that for girls (see Table 3.1.4). Similarly, gender disparity is critical in all Provinces except Punjab, and there is a 13 percentage point difference between boys and girls in Sindh Province, 14 percentage point difference in KP Province, and 10 percentage point difference in Balochistan Province.

Table 3.1.4 Net Enrollment Ratio in Late Secondary Education (14 to 15 years old)

	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Pakistan	36	37	37	24	17	21	28	23	26
Panjab	36	41	38	25	21	23	38	27	28
Sindh	37	35	36	20	7	14	28	21	25
KP	35	29	32	30	16	23	31	18	25
Balochistan	35	21	29	13	3	9	19	7	14

Source: PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-2013*. Islamabad: PBS.

3.2 Health

The total fertility rate of Pakistan as of 2010 to 2012 is 3.8 children, which has declined significantly from 5.4 children in 1986 to 1991²⁹. However, this rate is far from the MDG of 2.1 children and much worse than India's 2.5 children, Bangladesh's 2.2 children, and Nepal's 2.4 children³⁰. Looking at the rates for a higher age group, there is a gap in the rate between areas of residence as it is 4.2 children in rural areas and 3.2 children in urban area³¹. According to PDHS 2012-2013, the

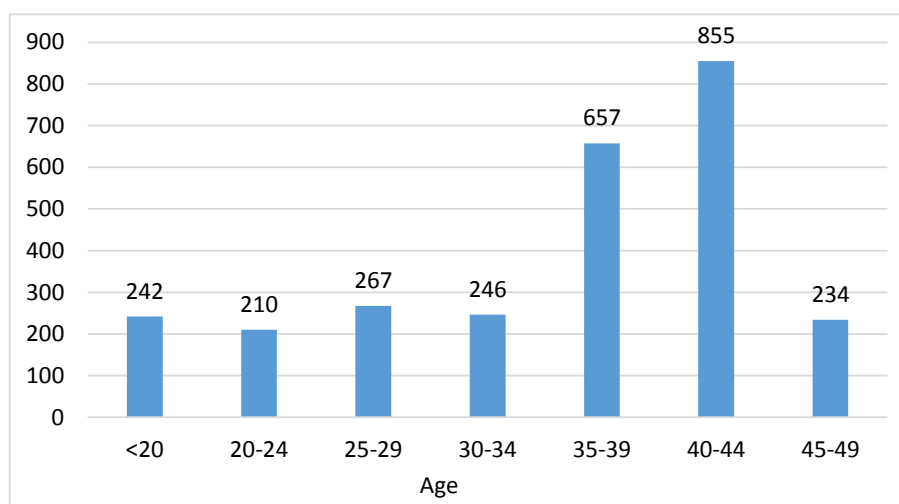
²⁹ National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS). 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

³⁰ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.TFRT.IN> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

³¹ NIPS. 2013. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

adolescent fertility rate (AFR: per 1,000 women of age 15 to 19 years old) has declined from 8 percent from 16 percent in PDS 1990-1991³² despite the prevalence of child marriage in Pakistan. Similarly, the AFR of Pakistan according to the World Bank has declined from 60 in 1997 to 27 in 2012, which is much fewer than India's 33, Bangladesh's 81, and Nepal's 74³³.

The MMR of Pakistan has declined from 490 in 1990 to 260 in 2010 while it is far from the MDG of 123³⁴. Compared to other South Asian countries, the MMRs of Pakistan is much higher than India's 200, Bangladesh's 240, and Nepal's 170³⁵. Looking at the MMR by age groups, that for women 40 to 45 years old is the highest rate at 855, followed by the rate of 657 for those of age 35 to 39 years old (see Figure 3.2.1). Next, the data of the MMR by areas of residence and provinces shows that there is huge gap between rural area's 319 and urban area's 175 and between Balochistan's 785 and Punjab's 227, KP's 275, and Sindh's 314³⁶ (see Figure 3.2.2). Causes for maternal mortality are mainly such post-delivery factors as bleeding after delivery (27 percent), puerperal sepsis (27 percent), and eclampsia (10 percent)³⁷.



Source: NIPS. 2008. *PDHS 2006-07*. Islamabad: NIPS.

Figure 3.2.1 Maternal Mortality Ratio (by Age Groups) 2006-2007

³² *ibid.*

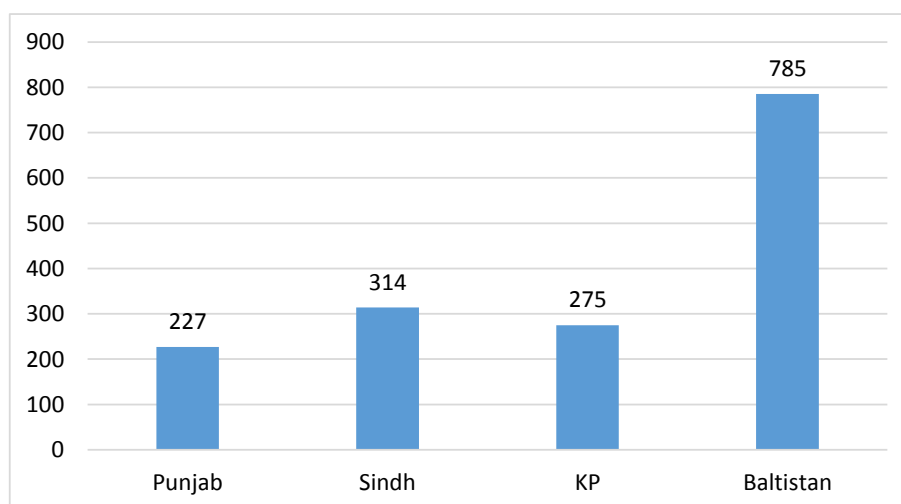
³³ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.ADO.TFRT> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

³⁴ Ministry of Planning, Development, and Reform. 2013. *Pakistan Millennium Development Goals Report 2013*. Islamabad: MoPDR.

³⁵ Refer to GII by UNDP

³⁶ NIPS. 2007. *PDHS 2006-07*. Islamabad: NIPS.

³⁷ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women & Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.



Source: NIPS. 2008. *PDHS 2006-07*. Islamabad: NIPS.

Figure 3.2.2 Maternal Mortality Ratio (by Province) 2006-2007

In the National Health Policy developed in 2009, reproductive health, especially services for safe delivery, is the focal point as one of the prioritized challenges. Based on the policy, after the decentralization in 2010 the Provincial Governments took over the implementation of the national program for mothers, newborn infants, and children which was launched in 2006. Under the Policy, the training of skilled birth attendants (SBA) and the dissemination of relevant information and services have been promoted through home visits by Lady Health Workers (LHWs) as they were done under LHWP³⁸ and FP & PHC³⁹ launched in the 1990's. As a result, in addition to a decrease in the MMR, contraceptive prevalence rate has increased from 11.8 percent in 1990 to 37 percent in 2013 and the portion of deliveries with a SBA to the total number of deliveries has increased 19 percent in 1990-1991 to 43 percent in 2010-2011⁴⁰.

Care services during and after delivery are not fully provided in both urban and rural Pakistan. While prenatal care services in urban Pakistan, in particular, have been fulfilled, those in rural areas have lagged behind urban areas' in access and quality. The portion of women who had prenatal care has increased from 64 percent in 2010-2011 to 69 percent in 2012-2013⁴¹. Looking at the ratio by cities; there is a huge gap between cities: 96 percent for Islamabad; 91 percent for Lahore in Punjab Province; 94 percent for Karachi in Sindh Province; 82 percent for Haripur in KP Province; and 80 percent for Harnai in Balochistan are the highest ratios of each Province while 58 percent for Jhang in Punjab; 45 percent for Mirpurkhas in Sindh; 12 percent for Tor Garh in KP; and 23 percent for Kohlu in Balochistan are the lowest ratios in each Province. The percentage of deliveries at home is only 29 percent for urban areas while it is 59 percent for rural areas. The percentage of women in Pakistan

³⁸ Lady Health Workers.

³⁹ Family Planning and Primary Health Care.

⁴⁰ M.A. Kayani. 2014. "Issues of maternal health in Pakistan: trends towards millennium development goal 5." *Journal of Pakistan Medical Association*, 2014, 64 (6):690-693.

⁴¹ PBS. 2014. *PSLM 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

who had a care service/s within 6 weeks after delivery was 28 percent as of 2010-2011 and 29 percent as of 2012-2013. Looking at the percentages by areas of residence, there is a gap between 37 percent for urban areas and 25 percent for rural areas as well as between 76 percent for Islamabad and the highest portion of each Province (46 percent for Yar Khan in Punjab; 68 percent for Hyderabad in Sindh; 42 percent for Lower Dir in KP; and 41 percent for Sibbi in Balochistan).

According to the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), the HIV prevalence in Pakistan as of 2009 is 0.1 percent while that of India, Bangladesh, and Nepal is 0.27 percent (2011), 0.1 percent (2009), and 0.12 percent (2013), respectively⁴². The total number of HIV infected women has increased 5,300 to 28,000 between 2004 and 2009 whereas the total number of HIV infected people have increased from 25,000 to 130,000 during the same period⁴³. However, the actual numbers must be much more than those reported numbers because people might not have reported due to social stigma or because they might not have recognized infection due to a lack of awareness.

HIV infection in Pakistan is concentrated more on such specific groups as 1) injecting drug users; 2) female sex workers; 3) male sex workers; and *Hijras*⁴⁴ or transgender sex workers (HTSWs)⁴⁵. As of 2011, 5,256 HIV-positive people (189 children, 1,108 women, and 4,049 men) have registered at any of 17 antiretroviral therapy (ART) centers in Pakistan and 2,491 people (105 children, 646 women, and 1,740 men), out of 5,256 have received ART, half of whom are injecting drug users⁴⁶. Only 9 percent of people living with progressed HIV can have access to ART, and 5,000 people ended up dying of AIDS in 2008⁴⁷.

The National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework in Pakistan for 2007 to 2012 was developed in 2011, based on which each of the four Provincial Governments is supposed to develop its own HIV/AIDS strategic framework for 2012 to 2016. At the national level, National AIDS Control Program (NACP) has been implemented whereas at the provincial level, PAIDS Control Program (PACP), has been implemented, in which the specific groups vulnerable to HIV infection are targeted. Through interventions by international organizations and NGOs, condom prevalence among sex workers and that among injecting drug users have increased 45 percent and 31 percent, respectively⁴⁸.

⁴² <http://www.saarcstat.org/content/saarc-figures> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁴³ UNAIDS cited in UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

⁴⁴ Men in South Asia, who were born hermaphrodite or with both male and female genitals and do not identify themselves as men but women.

⁴⁵ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

⁴⁶ *ibid.*

⁴⁷ *ibid.*

⁴⁸ *ibid.*

3.3 Agriculture

According to the World Bank, the rural population of Pakistan is 62 percent of the total population as of 2014⁴⁹, two third of which rely on agriculture for their livelihood, especially for food, income, and employment⁵⁰. As described previously, agriculture is the key industry which accounts for about 25 percent of GDP and 45 percent of total employments. In Pakistan, 27.5 percent of the total land is arable and the area of arable land per person is 0.12 ha. A whole grain belt with old irrigation infrastructure lies along the Indus running through the North (Punjab Province) of the country to the South (Sindh Province) of the country, where wheat, maize, rice, pulse, vegetables, sugarcane, cotton, and so on are cultivated. Above all, rice, maize, and sugarcane are the main food items exported from Pakistan. In animal husbandry, dairy products are growing as highly value-added products.

Women play an important role in agricultural production and animal husbandry regardless of whether commercial or self-consumption purpose. However, their contribution to the livelihood of their households is often undervalued or ignored and instead they are appreciated for fulfilling their role as wives and mothers based on the gender institutions embedded in Pakistani society⁵¹. Due to their land ownership, men are generally recognized as farmers and household heads based on its patriarchal concept. The undervaluation or ignorance of women's contribution is also partly attributed to their low LFR⁵². In reality; however, 75.7 percent of the entire female labor force is employed in the agricultural sector whereas only 34.5 percent of men are employed in the agriculture sector⁵³. Furthermore, women spend 15 hours per day for almost all types of agricultural, varying from grain and vegetable cultivation to animal husbandry, regardless of whether it is paid or unpaid work⁵⁴.

Women farmers are usually engaged in all work in preparation, production, harvest, and post-harvest except cultivation, machine operation, and application of chemical fertilizer. The main productive work undertaken by women includes sowing seeds, transplanting of seedlings, weeding, harvesting, and grain threshing whereas their post-harvest treatment work includes drying, grinding, and storage. According to the findings of the research conducted by Afzal, A. et al. which targeted 480 women farmers in Okara, Punjab Province, the women tend to engage in the activities of seeding, transplanting of rice seedlings, weeding, harvesting, and grain threshing. As to harvesting, grain thrashing, and bagging work, both women and men are engaged in each aspect of the work. In the cultivation of sugarcane, 90 percent of the respondents engage in the activities of peeling and carrying sugarcane.

⁴⁹ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.RUR.TOTL.ZS> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁵⁰ Begum, R. and Yasmeen, G. 2011. "Contribution of Pakistani Women in Agriculture: Productivity and Constraints," *Sarhad Journal Agriculture*, Vol. 27 (4), 2011.

⁵¹ Afzal, A. et al. 2010. "Women in Agriculture: Results from a Survey of Okara District of Pakistan Punjab." *Pakistan Journal of Agric. Res.*, Vol. 23, No. 1-2, 2010.

⁵² PBS. 2013. *Labor Force Survey 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

⁵³ Zaheer, R. et al. 2014. "Women participation in Agriculture in Pakistan." *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 16, Issue 2: 01-04. and Amin, H. et al. 2009. "Participation Level of Rural Women in Agricultural Activities." *Pakistan Journal of Agricultural Science*, Vol. 46 (4), 2009.

⁵⁴ Fayyaz, S. 2013. "Women and agriculture in Pakistan." *The Frontier Post*.

Table 3.3.1 Rates of Women Participating in Main Agricultural Work

	Frequency (%)			Rank
	Always	Rarely	Never	
Maize				
sowing seeds	90.83	2.50	6.67	1
granule application	85.21	11.46	3.33	2
weeding with a hoe	60.00	19.79	20.21	4
chemical fertilizer	0.00	1.67	98.33	6
harvesting/threshing	21.25	36.67	42.08	5
winnowing/bagging	81.04	17.29	1.67	3
Rice				
transplanting	99.17	0.00	0.83	1
weeding by hand	97.50	0.42	2.08	2
harvest	90.83	0.83	8.33	5
threshing by hand	92.50	0.00	7.50	4
bagging	96.67	0.00	3.33	3
Wheat				
cleansing of seeds	91.67	0.00	8.33	2
weeding by hand	91.25	0.00	8.75	3
harvesting	90.83	0.00	9.17	4
bundling	93.33	-	6.75	1
Sugarcane				
sowing seeds	85.42	8.54	6.04	4
weeding by hand	87.08	2.08	10.83	3
weeding with a hoe	84.58	4.17	11.25	5
peeling	93.33	3.13	3.54	1
carrying sugarcane	89.58	3.33	7.08	2

Source: Afzal, A. et al. 2010. "Women in Agriculture: Results from a Survey of Okara District of Pakistani Punjab." *Pakistan J. Agric. Res.* Vol. 23, No. 1-2, 2010.

In addition to agricultural work, many of women in rural areas take on responsibilities for animal husbandry, including cleaning sheds, collecting manure, milking, collecting fodder, as well as reproductive (domestic) work, including fetching water; collecting firewood (if they do not use a gas stove for cooking) cooking; doing laundry; and taking care of children. Since those activities are time-consuming and unpaid work, women need to depend financially on their husbands or other male family members who have cash income, which makes them more vulnerable to daily or future financial crises and violence by the husbands under unequal gender relationships in particular. On the other hand, those women whose husbands have worked away from home have to take over the work themselves that their husbands used to do, in addition to their original responsibilities, such as agricultural and animal husbandry work and domestic work. They often take on additional burdens by doing agricultural work for a daily wage or participate in income generating activities, which can help them to relieve their economic pressure on the one hand, but on the other hand it can amplify their physical fatigue, time-constraint, and psychological burden.

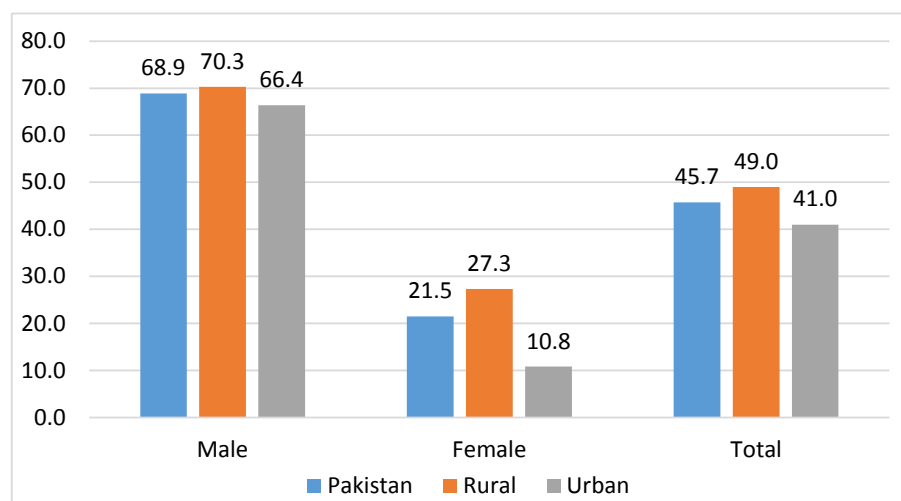
Women engaged in agriculture are often placed in a disadvantaged position. Although they are engaged in agriculture, utilizing productive assets, such as land, and agricultural material, such as seeds and fertilizer, they often end up providing their labor only and do not enjoy the profit of the agricultural

products they cultivate. This is because men often take all decision-making responsibility for farm management, based on which they tend to sell the agricultural products and enjoy the profit by themselves. Thus, men are recognized as farmers and can have more access to information and new technology and more opportunities for training programs than women. This results partly from a lack/shortage of female extension workers and gender specialists in agriculture as well as constraints of women's lower educational level, limited movement, and limited access to public transportation⁵⁵. Furthermore, as women usually have limited access to microfinance and do not have much control over farm management, they usually cannot participate in agriculture as the main actor.

3.4 Employment/ Economic Activities

3.4.1 General Employment Issues

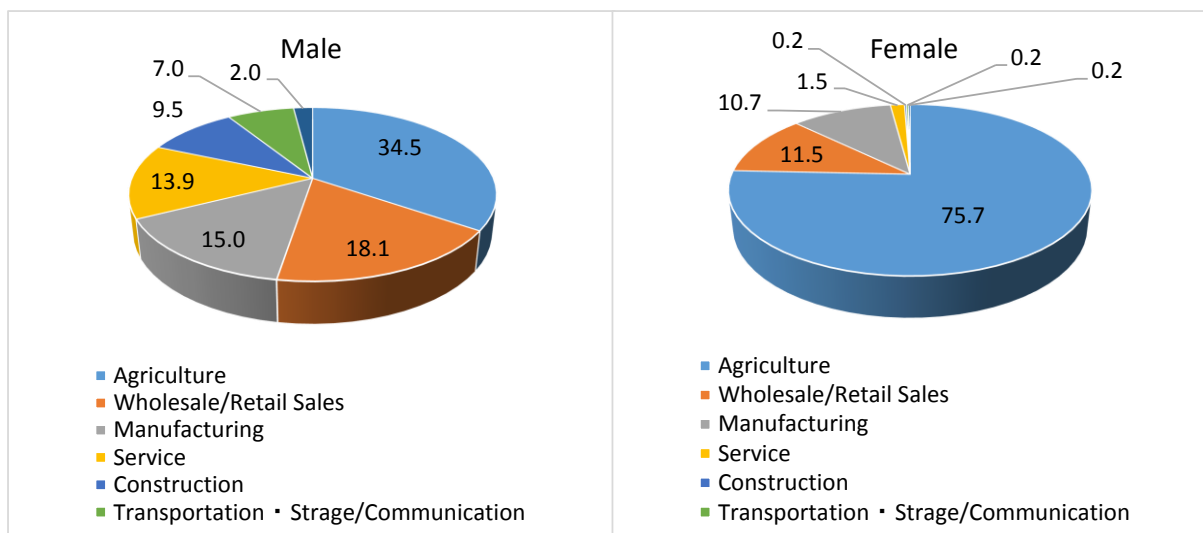
As described above, the women's labor force participation rate (LFR) in Pakistan is one of the lowest in the world and the lowest among South Asian countries. As Figure 3.4.1.1 shows, according to the Pakistan Labor Force Survey (PLS) 2013, women's LFR is 21.5 percent, which is much lower than men's 68.9 percent. Looking at the data by areas of residence, the LFR for men in rural areas is 70.3 percent and that for men in urban areas is 66.4 percent whereas that for women in rural areas is 27.3 percent and that for women in urban areas is 10.8 percent. There is 16.5 percentage point difference in the rate between rural and urban women whereas there is only 3.9 percentage point difference between rural and urban men. This largely results from the concentration of female labor force in the agriculture sector. As shown in Figure 3.4.1.2, more than two thirds of the total female labor force participates in some agricultural work while the male labor force does not necessarily concentrate in the agricultural sector, but it is rather distributed among various industries, such as wholesale/retail sales (18.1 percent), manufacturing (15 percent), and service (13.9 percent).



Source: PBS. 2014. *PLFS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Figure 3.4.1.1 Distribution by Sex and Employment Status (2010-2011 and 2012-2013)

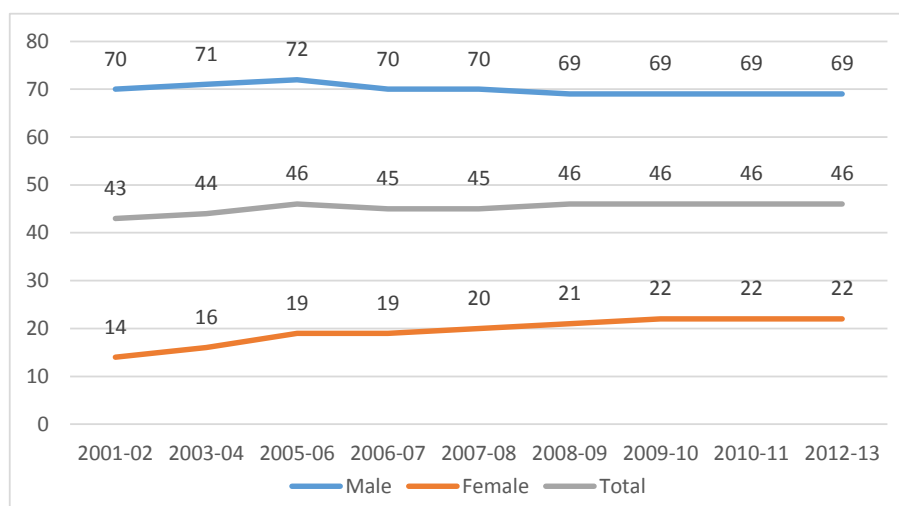
⁵⁵ Butt, T.M. et al. 2010. "Role of Rural Women in Agricultural Development and Their Constraints." *Journal of Agriculture & Social Sciences*, Vol. 6, No. 3, 2010: 53-56.



Source: PBS. 2014. *PLFS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Figure 3.4.1.2 Rates of Women and Men with Vulnerable Employment (2008-2009 to 2012-2013)

Next, looking at the trend of the LFR through the 2001-2002 to 2012-2013 period, women's LFR has increased by 7 percentage points while there has been little change in men's LFR (see Figure 3.4.1.3). Women's employment status is still concentrated as "contributing family workers" (60.5 percent) while the rates of women working as employees has increased from 20.9 percent in 2010-2011 to 24.4 percent in 2012-2013. Judging from men's major employment status as "own account workers" or "employees" in paid work, there seems to be a huge gap in available cash income between men and women⁵⁶.



Source: PBS. 2014. *PLFS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Figure 3.4.1.3 Trend of Female and Male Labor Force Participation Rates

⁵⁶ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

Table 3.4.1.1 Distribution by Sex and Employment Status (2010-2011 and 2012-2013)

Employment Status	2010-11			2012-13		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Employers	1.8	0.1	1.4	1.6	0.1	1.3
Own Account Workers	40.5	15.6	34.9	38.9	15.0	33.6
Contributing Family Workers	17.3	63.4	27.7	16.5	60.5	26.3
Employees	40.4	20.9	36.0	43.0	24.4	38.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: PBS. 2014. *PLFS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Women often work under vulnerable employment or poor working conditions in Pakistan. According to LFS 2012-2013, both men and women participate exclusively in informal sector work as 73.8 percent of men and 71.7 percent of women do. Interestingly, in rural areas, more women (78.2 percent) than men (77.4 percent) work in the informal sector. The majority (56.1 percent) of women working in the informal sector work in manufacturing, among non-agricultural sectors, while only 18.5 percent of men work in the manufacturing sector. On the other hand, 75 percent of women and 54.6 percent of men work under vulnerable conditions, which has not been improved from the rates in 2007-2008 (see Table 3.4.1.2). Looking at the data by sector, 87.7 percent of women and 88.6 percent of men engage in vulnerable work in the agricultural sector as well as 91.3 percent of women and 74.1 percent of men in wholesale/retail sales; and 59.5 percent of women and 28.4 percent of men in manufacturing, which shows women's vulnerable position in employment (see Table 3.4.1.3).

Table 3.4.1.2 Rates of Women and Men with Vulnerable Employment (2008-2009 to 2012-2013)

	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2012-13
Male	58.0	57.7	57.0	54.6
Female	77.3	79.0	78.3	75.0
Total	61.9	62.2	61.6	59.0

Source: PBS. 2014. *Pakistan Employment Trends 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Table 3.4.1.3 Trend of the Ratio of Women and Men Engaged in Vulnerable Work by Sector (2008-2009 to 2012-2013)

	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2012-13
Agriculture				
Male	91.6	91.4	89.5	88.6
Female	93.1	93.2	91.9	87.7
Total	92.1	92.1	90.4	88.3
Wholesale/ Trailsales				
Male	75.5	76.1	74.9	74.1
Female	88.2	86.9	89	91.3
Total	75.4	76.4	75.2	74.5
Manufacturing				
Male	28.8	29.8	30.8	28.4
Female	53.9	58.8	62.3	59.5
Total	33.5	34.9	36.3	33.6
Hotel/Restaurant				
Male	51.5	51.7	56.9	55.5
Female	79.9	53.2	63.7	67.2
Total	51.6	54.2	53.8	55.8

Source: PBS. 2014. *Pakistan Employment Trends 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Unequal employment status and wages may largely result in higher rates of women working in vulnerable employment than men. As shown in Table 3.4.1.4, according to LFS 2012-2013, only 39.7 percent of the total labor force in Pakistan are engaged in paid work (wage or salary). Looking at the data by sex, there is an 11 percentage point difference between 43.8 percent of men and 24.9 percent of women engaged in paid work. While more men (33.5 percent) than women (16.8 percent) work in temporary employment, more women (42.9 percent) than men (14.1 percent) work on piecework.

Table 3.4.1.4 Employment Status of Women and Men (2012-2013)

	Rate of Paid Workers	Employment Status (Wage/Salary)			
		Regular	Temporarily	Piecework	Apprentice
Pakistan	39.7	50.2	31.2	18.0	0.6
Male	43.8	51.8	33.5	14.1	0.6
Female	24.9	39.8	16.8	42.9	0.5
Punjab	39.2	45.7	28.1	25.5	0.7
Male	43.3	48.2	31.3	19.7	0.7
Female	27.7	34.5	14.1	50.9	0.5
Sindh	42.4	58.9	34.9	6.0	0.2
Male	46.4	59.5	34.9	5.4	0.2
Female	29.0	51.6	34.7	13.3	0.3
KP	40.4	51.9	37.3	9.8	1.0
Male	45.8	49.8	39.2	10.0	1.0
Female	15.5	81.7	9.9	7.0	1.4
Balochistan	29.0	55.0	36.9	8.0	0.1
Male	31.1	54.6	37.4	7.9	0.0
Female	9.0	69.0	19.5	11.5	0.0

Source: PBS. 2014. *PLFS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Looking at Table 3.4.1.4 above, the rates of men and women engaged in paid work are higher for Sindh Province and lower for Balochistan Province. Among the rates for men in the four states, the rate in Sindh is the highest at 46.4 percent, while that of Balochistan is 31.1 percent, the lowest, registering a difference of 15.3 percentage points. On the other hand, among the rate for women in those four states, the rate in Sindh is highest at 29 percent, while that in Balochistan is 9 percent, the lowest rate, for a difference of 20 percentage points. Next, 51.6 percent of women engaged in paid work in Sindh, 81.7 percent in KP, and 69 percent in Balochistan work in regular employment whereas only 34.5 percent of those in Punjab work in regular employment as compared to 50.9 percent of those who work on piecework basis. In the case of unskilled labor work, women who work on piecework tend to end up being exploited as cheap labor.

Based on LFS 2010-2011, there is a critical disparity in wages between the sexes and areas of residence⁵⁷. Seventy six percent of women versus 51 percent of men at the national level and 85 percent of women versus 56 percent of men in rural areas earn only less than 8,000 Rupees per month. Similarly, 31 percent of men versus only 11 percent of women at the national level earn 8,000 to

⁵⁷ UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

14,999 Rupees per month. As for women only, a mere 8 percent in rural areas and 17 percent in urban areas earn 8,000 to 14,999 Rupees per month. While 12 percent of men and 8 percent of women earn 15,000 to 24,999 Rupees per month, the rates of those who earn 25,000 to 49,999 Rupees per month are only 5 percent for men and 4 percent for women at the national level.

Gender disparity in the median wage/salary exists in all forms of work⁵⁸. According to LFS 2010-2011, the portion of female employers to the total employers is 37 percent and they earn only 51 percent of the amount which their counterpart earn (gender disparity in wage is 49 percent). Similarly, the percentage of female employers to the total number of employers is 23 percent and they earn only 38 percent of the amount which their counterpart earn (gender disparity in wage is 62 percent). Even in educational sector which is a formal sector, the ratio of female teachers is 35 percent and they earn 80 percent of the amount which their counterpart earn.

3.4.2 Women's Employment in the Textile Industry

Pakistan ranks 3rd in the production of cotton, 2nd in the production of yarns⁵⁹, and 8th in the export of textile products in the world⁶⁰. As mentioned above, as the export value of the textile industry accounts for 51.5 percent of the total export value, the textile industry is an essential export industry for Pakistan. Furthermore, employment in the manufacturing of garment accounts for 12 percent of the total employment in the manufacturing sector. The Government of Pakistan aims to compete globally with other countries by shifting from the export of raw/primary materials to that of value-added products and from domestic sales to exports. In National Textile Policy (2009 to 2014), the Government also aims to improve economic efficiency of the industry by giving women equal opportunity for employment. Similarly in its Vision 2025, vocational training for women is emphasized to promote the increase in the number of women employed in the textile industry.

Globally, the textile industry tries to employ dexterous, docile, young women at low wages. However, due to the constraints of gender institutions in Pakistan, such as *purdah*⁶¹ and women's limited movement, the employment of women is still limited. The ratio of women engaged in the production of ready-made apparel and fabric for home use is 31 percent and the average age of those women is 28 years old⁶². According to the findings of the research conducted by the International Labor Organization (ILO) in Lahore, Faisalabad, Sialkot, and Karachi, targeting 24 textile manufacturers, the percentage of female employees in the surveyed manufacturing companies varies from nil to 47 percent. In general, manufacturers are supposed to provide female workers with transportation service, segregated restrooms and prayer rooms, ensuring women's security at work, but this is generally available only at large scale manufacturers. In actuality, a quarter of surveyed

⁵⁸ *ibid.*

⁵⁹ Based on the handouts given by Ministry of Textile, the Government of Pakistan.

⁶⁰ Based on the handouts given by Ministry of Textile, the Government of Pakistan.

⁶¹ Religious practice of women's seclusion from (men's) society which is prevalent in Islamic countries/communities.

⁶² ILO. 2010. Sector-Wide Study on Gender and Employment in Clothing and Home Textiles. Islamabad: ILO.

companies are small scale manufacturers, some of whom consider the investment in facilities that would promote the employment of women to have negative business results, leading to their rejecting such facility investment⁶³.

As in the case of other South Asian countries, women's employment in the textile industry in Pakistan tends to be confined to sewing, finishing, and packing, and other lesser skilled jobs, whereas work in management is confined to highly educated male employees. In actuality, employment even in sewing, finishing, and packing work, however, is still dominated by men as are the jobs in quality control, sampling, machine operation/maintenance, and production planning⁶⁴. Furthermore, heavy work, such as dyeing, cleaning, and cutting, is considered as 'men's work' and there is no employment opportunity for women⁶⁵. In addition to the concept of gender-based division of labor, large scale export manufacturers, in particular, set up the minimum educational level as a criteria, such as the completion of 8th grade.

In their research mentioned above, ILO also focuses on the sections preferred by women, and the areas for which employers favor women, and reasons for those. Most of the female workers who participated in the survey replied that they are reluctant to work in the processes of knitting, cutting, cleaning, sampling, research and development, quality check, or heavy work because they considered those activities not to be suitable for women. Instead, they prefer any non-heavy work available during the day time so that they can fulfill their responsibility for domestic work the rest of the time. Twenty five percent of the employers who participated in the survey reply that the reasons why women are limited to the areas of sewing, finishing, and packing is due to the limit of their movement and available working hours. On the other hand, 38.5 percent of the employers of large scale manufacturers and 50 percent of the employers of small and medium scale manufacturers that participated in the survey take a positive stance toward assigning women to the sections of merchandise management, taking advantage of women's knowledge.

In the textile industry of Pakistan, gender equality compliance is a legal requirement, and export manufacturers tend to apply the requirements in employment opportunity, wage/salary, and promotion. According to findings of the ILO research (in which 138 male employees and 62 female employees working in 24 manufacturers in Lahore, Faisalabad, Sialkot, Karachi, etc. participated), over 90 percent of the female employees working for large scale manufacturers replied that women are given equal employment and promotion opportunities by their employers. On the other hand, most of the female employees working in small scale manufacturers replied that women are not given equal employment opportunity. As to equal promotion opportunity, only a quarter of those working in medium scale manufacturers replied that there is a system for equal promotion whereas three quarters

⁶³ *ibid.*

⁶⁴ *ibid.*

⁶⁵ *ibid.*

replied that it is difficult for women to be promoted to the positions or areas dominated by male employees. In addition, the employees working for manufacturers in Lahore, Sialkot, and Karachi tend to more enjoy gender equality than those in other places.

The findings from the ILO research show that there is critical disparity in wage/salary between the sexes and locations of manufacturers. Eighty eight percent of the female employees who participated in the research survey receive only 69 percent of the average wage of the male employees who participated in the research. The report points out the wage gap even in similar work between the sexes. In their focus groups discussion, some of the employers who participated in the research mentioned that they do set female employees' wage/salary lower than that of male employees. The initial salary paid by small scale manufacturers is only 2,667 Rupees whereas those paid by large scale and medium manufacturers are 5,302 Rupees and 4,765 Rupees, respectively.

There is gender disparity in employment conditions. According to the findings from the ILO research, 64 percent of female employees who participated in the survey are employed on contract basis while only 43 percent of their counterparts are employed under contract. Those female employees who are regular employees account for only 36 percent. The employers who participated in the research surveys justified women's lower wages by citing extra investment for the facilities and incentives, including segregated lavatories, segregated prayer rooms, commuting bus services, health insurance, etc., specific to female employees. On the other hand, female employees who are engaged in finishing jobs tend to work on piecework basis and are not employed directly by manufacturers, but through a temporary manpower company. Thus, they cannot enjoy the social benefits of the employment system or security ensured by manufacturers.

3.4.3 Home Based Workers

As described above, more than 70 percent of those who are engaged in non-agricultural work are employed in the informal sector, a half of whom are women. According to the Government of Pakistan, there are 8.52 million Home Based Workers (HBWs) contributing to the Pakistani economy⁶⁶. As mentioned, many HBWs are women. About 60 percent of female workers are HBWs⁶⁷. Sixty five percent of women HBWs work on piecework basis and tend to be exploited for their cheap labor by middle men or contractors whereas only 4 percent of their counterpart work on piecework basis. In Pakistan, there are 42.5 million men and 12.5 million women who have registered as workers⁶⁸. As of November 2014, the relevant policy of the National Policy on Home Based Workers, aimed at the protection of HBWs, has not passed. As a result, HBWs have not been recognized or secured as workers in Pakistan.

⁶⁶ Government of Pakistan. *National Policy on Home-based Workers (draft)*. Islamabad: MoG.
http://www.homenetpakistan.org/draft_np_for_web.pdf (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁶⁷ *ibid.*

⁶⁸ Aslam, Q. 2013. *Social Protection and the Informal Sector in Pakistan*. Karachi: HomeNet Pakistan.

According to the Government of Pakistan, women HBWs vary in age, but most of them are married, uneducated or poorly educated, and from poor households with lower or lower-middle class income⁶⁹. In urban areas, many HBWs live in slums. While HBWs work on various items, including embroidery, garments, accessories, processed food, and so on, their working environment is usually poor and some HBWs are exposed to health risk which can be caused by chemical raw materials. Although many women HBWs work for 12 to 16 hours per day even with their little daughters' help, they cannot earn an income commensurate with their hard work due to the very low piece rate⁷⁰.

The National Policy developed by each Provincial Government aims at the elimination of discrimination against women HBWs, in particular, exploitation of their cheap labor, and the protection of HBWs. The Policy emphasizes several basic points that HBWs be recognized as workers, they be entitled to equal rights and wages as other workers, and women HBWs' needs be fulfilled. In the Policy, Provincial Governments and other relevant institutes are supposed to provide HBWs with training programs aimed at the technical improvement of HBWs. It also advises them to plan those programs considering the constraints of limited time and movement faced by women HBWs. In the Policy, the improvement of women HBWs' access to low-interest micro finance and to the market supported by public and private sectors is also considered as a priority need.

Findings from the research conducted in 2010 in Charsada and Mardan, KP Province with the support of the European Union⁷¹ shows the working conditions under which women HBWs work although the number of samples collected in the research is only 60. Those women HBWs who participated in the research survey earn money by shelling peanuts (16 women), making ornaments (21 women), and making paper flowers (23 women). Thirty eight women out of 60 are regularly engaged in their work while the remaining 22 were temporarily engaged in their work at the moment of the survey. Twenty one percent of the participants range from 31 to 35 years old in age, and 83 percent of them are married while 17 percent of them are single. Fifty eight women out of 60 are uneducated and the remaining 2 have just completed primary education but without no specific skill. As is the case with other areas of KP Province, those women have responsibility not only for domestic work, but also for earning a living within the strict gender institutions of the traditional tribal society, including limited movement.

Fifty one women out of 60 replied that they work because their husbands and other male family members are unemployed and family members suffer from poverty. The women who participated in the research involved even their little children and usually work for 6 to 8 hours (39 women) but sometimes 12 hours. Despite their hard work, however, 59 women out of 60 replied that their livelihood has not been improved. All the participants revealed that their incomes end up being spent on living cost only and there is no extra money left for saving. Twenty eight women out of 60 earn

⁶⁹ *ibid.*

⁷⁰ *ibid.*

⁷¹ http://www.solidar.org/IMG/pdf/d7_pakistan_research_on_home_based_women_workers.pdf (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

500 to 1,000 Rupees per month while the remaining 32 earn 1,000 to 2,000. Fifty five women out of 60 are not satisfied with their incomes. However, 15 women are afraid of losing their jobs and have never negotiated on piecework rates with their contractors while 45 women have tried, but their requests were rejected by their contractors. As shown in Table 3.4.3.1, those 60 women work on piecework for which the piece rate is quite low despite being time-consuming work. Twenty four women replied that they need an increase in the piece rate for their better wellbeing, and 8 women contend that they need to take collective action for the increase in the piece rate. On the other hand, the other 8 women conceded that it might be hard to change the situation.

Table 3.4.3.1 Contract Status and Productivity of HBWs Who Participated in the Survey

Contents of Work	Piecework Rate	Unit	Time
shelling peanuts	Rs. 5-20	per 1kg	2-10kg/day
making ornament	Rs. 25-30	per 1 piece	1piece/day
making paper flower	Rs. 25-50	per 1 dozen	2 dozens/day

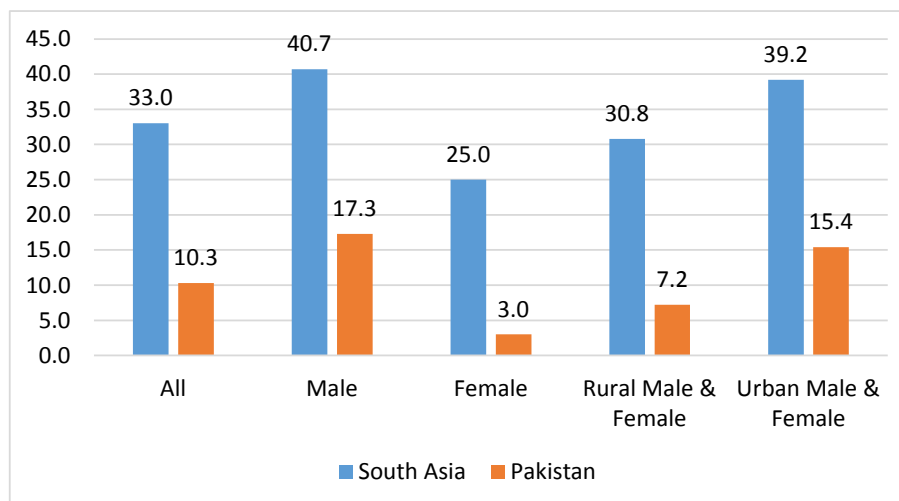
Source: http://www.solidar.org/IMG/pdf/d7_pakistan_research_on_home_based_women_workers.pdf
(last accessed on January 7, 2015)

Likewise to the National Policy, the report of this research also points out several recommendations, including the registration of HBWs, the provision of social security to HBWs, the setting of minimum wages/piece rates, and networking of HBWs with unions in the formal sector. In order for HBWs to receive the social security benefits of the Government, however, both HBWs and the Government will need to bear the expense of 410 Rupees at minimum per month. Judging from HBWs' low income, it might be difficult for them to do so. In order to improve their income, it is important for women HBWs to deal with any value-added products of which market prices are high. For this purpose, they need to be trained for specific skills, linked to the market, make improvements to their limited movement, and be supported by men.

3.4.4 Women's Access to Micro Finance

Women's area of movement in Pakistan is restricted to their own neighborhood, otherwise women need to be accompanied by their husbands or male family members. Since women in Pakistan usually need men's permission for making any decision, their access to financial institutions, including micro finance institutions (MFIs) is limited. Compared to women in South Asian and Sub-Saharan countries, the ratio of women who have their own bank accounts is much lower. Only three percent of women in Pakistan have their own bank accounts whereas 25 percent of South Asian women have their own bank accounts⁷². As there are gaps between the sexes and areas of residence, 17.3 percent of men versus 3 percent of women and 15.4 percent of people in urban area versus 7.2 percent of people in rural areas have their own bank accounts (see Figure 3.4.4.1). Those rates are the lowest in all of South Asia.

⁷² UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.



Source: World Bank 2012. The Little Data Book on Financial Inclusion.

Cited in UN Women. 2013.

Status of Women and Men in Pakistan 2012. Islamabad: UN Women.

Figure 3.4.4.1 Ratios of Women and Men over 15 years old having Bank Accounts (by Province)

There are 8 MFIs in Pakistan, 16 microfinance banks (MFBs), 6 rural support programs (RSPs), and 11 other microfinance programs (MFPs) which provide microfinance. Above all, there are 8 MFIs/MFBs which target poor people and women⁷³. However, those public financial institutions are not necessarily accessible by women. In Pakistan, banks usually require women to have two male guarantees (one of whom should be non-relative) as a loan condition, and do not provide any loans to unmarried women⁷⁴. Such discrimination against women can be one of the reasons why women are reluctant to visit banks/financial institutions⁷⁵. According to the World Bank, only 25 percent of women entrepreneurs have ever utilized microfinance and the remaining 75 percent utilize their own savings or money borrowed from their family members⁷⁶.

The effect of microfinance for women entrepreneurs can be limited to the minimum if those women are constrained from moving freely or making decisions by themselves. According to MicroWatch Issue 33 (July to September 2014)⁷⁷, 54 percent of those who borrow from microfinance institutions are women. Although this rate is higher than men's 46 percent, those women do not necessarily borrow money for their own motives nor do they use the money borrowed for themselves. The World Bank reports that a common reason is that women are forced to borrow money by their male relatives who have failed in repaying their debts, and that fifty to seventy percent of the money

⁷³ Khushali Bank, Kashf Bank, NRSP, The First Micro Finance bank Ltd., Rozgar MFB, Tameer MFB, Pak Oman MFB, Network MFB. <http://www.microfinanceconnect.info/assets/articles/6d494c2eb13799b321cdb12e2ff7a474.pdf> (last accessed on January 7, 2015).

⁷⁴ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2012/10/17/less-than-25percent-of-pakistani-women-entrepreneurs-use-microfinance-loans-finds-the-world-bank> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁷⁵ *ibid.*

⁷⁶ *ibid.*

⁷⁷ <http://www.microfinanceconnect.info/assets/articles/6d494c2eb13799b321cdb12e2ff7a474.pdf> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

borrowed by women is used by men⁷⁸. Seventy one percent of loans are borrowed by a group, but group activities for microfinance does not necessarily have many merits, but rather, is problematic in terms of time-consuming activities, the limited ceiling of available loans, and difficulty forming a group of members with common interests⁷⁹.

For their successful entrepreneurship, women need access to microfinance, information, and skill/technology relevant to their business. In Pakistan, there is a governmental organization known as the Small and Medium Enterprise Development Authority (SMEDA), aimed at the creation of employment, reduction of poverty, and economic growth through support for small and medium enterprises. The SMEDA has its headquarters in Lahore as well as 4 regional offices in each Province and 12 regional business centers (RBCs) throughout the country. Under the Women Entrepreneurship Initiative, SMEDA supports women in terms of making a business plan, renting office space in the RBC, and so on. However, the target of SMEDA is not HBWs, but rather young women who have recently graduated from university and who are well educated, and have sufficient funds and time to do business.

3.4.5 Decision-making on How to Use Income

Women's economic empowerment can be the entry point of women's decision-making power over how to use their income, which can be expanded to other family and community issues. Based on this idea, in the Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 2012-2013⁸⁰, 12,937 married women and 3,071 married men whose age range from 15 to 49 years old are asked about whether or not they had been employed during the past 12 months, types of remuneration (cash, in-kind, or none), who made the decisions on the wife's income (wife, both wife and husband, or other family members), and so on.

According to the DHS 2012-2013 findings, only 29 percent of the women versus 98 percent of the men had been employed during the past 12 months. The women's labor force participation rate has increased by 4 percentage points from the DHS rate in 2006-2007. Looking at the data by age groups, the rates of younger women (age group 15 to 19 years old and 20 to 24 years old) are lower (24.5 percent and 22.8 percent, respectively) than the rates of age group 35 to 40 years old and 40 to 44 years old (34.1 percent and 30.3 percent). Regarding the types of remuneration, 71 percent of the women receive cash and only 6 percent of the women receive both cash and in-kind, whereas 87 percent of the men receive only cash and 12 percent receive both cash and in-kind. Furthermore, 15 percent of the women receive no compensation whereas only 1 percent of the men receive no compensation.

⁷⁸ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2012/10/17/less-than-25percent-of-pakistani-women-entrepreneurs-use-microfinance-loans-finds-the-world-bank> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁷⁹ *ibid.*

⁸⁰ The number of valid response: women: 12,937 and men: 3,071.

Findings on who decides on the wife's income by age groups, areas of residence, sexes, educational level, and economic level is shown in Table 3.4.5.1. With hardly any difference in age groups, more than 50 percent of married women decide on how to use their incomes by themselves. As age increases, the rate of the women who decide by themselves tends to increase. Similarly, around 30 percent of married women replied that they decide together with their husbands. On the other hand, the rates of cases in which husbands or other family members make the decisions are more than just a few, which typifies the patriarchal society of Pakistan. The rate of cases in which husbands decide is the highest for women in age group 20 to 24 years old (14 percent) while the rates for other age groups is around 10 percent. The rate of cases in which other family members besides the husband decide is the highest for women in age group 15 to 19 years old (20.1 percent), which is outstandingly higher than other age groups.

Table 3.4.5.1 Decision-making by Women who are currently or formerly Married on How to Use their Income (by Age, Area of Residence, Province, Educational Level, and Economic Quantile)

	Decision Makers					Total
	Mainly Wife	Wife & Husband	Mainly Husband	Others	Missing Data	
Age						
15-19	49.3	24.7	4.5	20.1	1.4	100.0
20-24	44.9	31.5	14.0	9.4	0.1	100.0
25-29	50.5	35.4	10.6	3.2	0.3	100.0
30-34	51.5	37.2	9.8	1.6	0.0	100.0
35-39	51.5	38.5	8.8	0.8	0.4	100.0
40-44	58.5	33.5	7.6	0.0	0.5	100.0
45-49	55.6	33.6	9.0	1.1	0.7	100.0
Area of Residence						
Rural	63.8	29.0	4.9	1.9	0.5	100.0
Urban	47.2	37.3	11.6	3.6	0.3	100.0
Province						
Punjab	52.5	37.9	5.8	3.4	0.3	100.0
Sindh	52.2	31.7	13.9	2.2	0.1	100.0
KP	57.8	23.1	12.8	4.1	2.3	100.0
Baltistan	17.7	24.0	51.6	5.9	0.8	100.0
Educational Level						
not at all	47.5	37.2	11.8	3.1	0.4	100.0
Primary	61.8	27.2	7.0	3.5	0.5	100.0
Early Secondary	54.0	37.8	7.5	0.3	0.5	100.0
Late Secondary	66.5	27.6	2.0	3.8	0.0	100.0
Higher	57.5	33.9	4.6	3.8	0.1	100.0
Economic Quantile						
1 (lowest)	40.3	38.6	17.6	3.2	0.2	100.0
2	51.6	38.3	7.3	2.4	0.4	100.0
3	56.2	36.2	6.1	1.2	0.3	100.0
4	59.4	27.2	5.8	6.8	0.9	100.0
5 (highest)	66.4	27.4	3.6	2.5	0.0	100.0

Source: NIPS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

Looking at the data by areas of residence, urban married women tend to decide on how to use their income by themselves than rural married women. On the other hand, the rates of “Wife & Husband”, “Husband”, and “Others” are higher for rural married women than for urban married women. As to differences among provinces, there is a 40.1 percentage point difference in the rate of “Wife” between 57.8 percent for married women in KP Province and 17.7 percent for those in Balochistan. To the contrary, the rate of “Husband” for those in Punjab is only 5.8 percent, which is 45.8 percentage point lower than 51.6 percent for those in Balochistan. Looking at the data by educational level, as education level increases, the rate of those who decide by themselves tends to rather increase. However, the rate for uneducated women is even 47.5 percent and that for women with primary education is 61.8 percent which is higher than those women who have had higher education. On the other hand, as economic level increases, the rate of those who decide it by themselves tend to increase, which can also result from the higher educational level of their husbands and family members.

3.5 Violence against Women

United Nations defines violence against women (VAW) as physical, sexual or mental harm or causing suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life⁸¹. Various VAW occurs in Pakistan, which includes not only domestic violence, but also gender-based violence embedded in the traditional patriarchal and tribal society. Specifically, there are honor killing in which women are killed in the name of honor by their male family members, acid attacks, dowry death in which women are killed by their in-laws due to in-laws’ dissatisfaction with dowry, rape, including gang rape, sexual harassment at workplace, sexual coercion by husbands, incest, child marriage, female feticide, exchange marriage between tribes, abduction, marriage with the Quran, etc.⁸²

VAW is sometimes excused by reason of culture and religion in Pakistan which closely link to strict gender institutions, although the Government of Pakistan has regarded VAW as criminal act violating women’s liberty and human rights, and developed or revised relevant laws. For example, honor killing (*karo-kari*) is a criminal act in which women are killed by their male family members for the purpose of restoring the family’s honor when women were accused of dishonoring the family due to their adultery or such⁸³. Due to the long history throughout which honor killings used to be culturally accepted until 2004 when the Criminal Law Amendment Act passed, honor killings keep occurring even at present. Furthermore, there are many criminal acts, such as abduction and acid throwing attacks in which women are abducted and forced to get married or attacked with acid for the reason that women have declined a marriage proposal or so on. Through the Protection of Women (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2006 and the Prevention of Anti-women Practice (Criminal Law Amendment)

⁸¹ NIPS. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS.

⁸² US AID & Aurat Foundation. 2011. *Gender-based Violence in Pakistan*. Islamabad: US AID.

⁸³ Aurat Foundation. 2011. *A Pilot Study on Honor Killings in Pakistan and Compliance of Law*. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation.

Act 2011, tougher sentences are to be given for those who commit abduction and forced child marriage. Similarly, based on the Acid Control and Acid Crimes Prevention Act in 2011, serious punishment (minimum penalty fine of 1 million Rupees and over 14 years-sentence) are handed out. However, there is no end to men committing acid attacks⁸⁴.

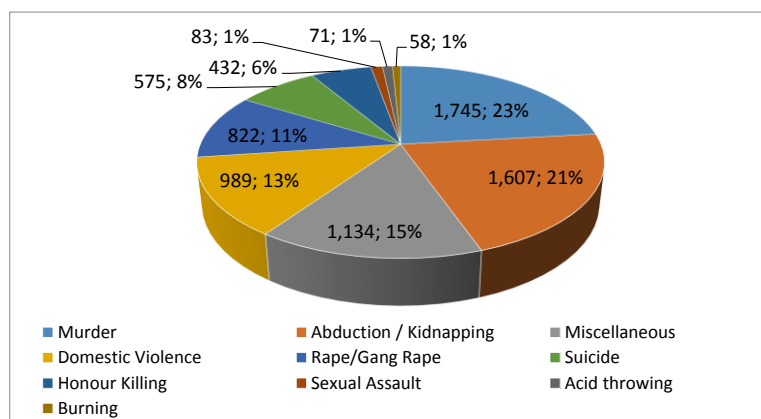
According to Aurat Foundation, there were 7,516 VAW cases reported in the four Provinces (Punjab, Sindh, KP, and Balochistan), FATA, and Capital Islamabad Territory (CIT) in 2012 as shown in Table 3.5.1⁸⁵. Four thousand seven hundred sixty six (4,766) cases out of 7,516 (63 percent) occurred in Punjab while 1,628 cases (22 percent) occurred in Sindh. Six hundred seventy four (674) cases were reported from KP and FATA and 167 cases from Balochistan. On the other hand, 281 cases were reported from CIT which is a much smaller area than the other four Provinces⁸⁶.

Table 3.5.1 the Number of VAW Reported in 2012

	# of Cases Reported	Percentage
Punjab	4,766	63
Sindh	1,628	22
KP + FATA	674	9
Baltistan	167	2
Islamabad	281	4

Source: Aurat Foundation. 2013. "Beyond Denial: Violence against Women, a Qualitative Review of Reported Incidents."⁸⁷

As Figure 3.5.1 shows below, the total number of VAW cases reported in 2012 can be broken down into 1,745 of murders; 1,607 of abduction/kidnapping; 822 of sexual assault/gang rape; 432 of honor killing; and so on.



Source: Aurat Foundation. 2013. "Beyond Denial: Violence against Women, a Qualitative Review of Reported Incidents."⁸⁸

Figure 3.5.1 The Breakdown of VAW Reported in 2012

⁸⁴ Acid Survivors Foundation Pakistan's Situation Analysis Report. cited in UN Women. 2013. *Status of Women and Men 2012*. Islamabad: UN Women.

⁸⁵ http://www.sachet.org.pk/web/user_files/File/VAW%20ANNUAL%20REPORT%20Jan-Dec%202012.pdf (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁸⁶ *ibid.*

⁸⁷ *ibid.*

⁸⁸ *ibid.*

Looking at the data breakdown by Province, abduction/kidnapping cases are most reported in Punjab, followed by murders, sexual assault/rape, and DV cases. Similarly, a greater number of murders, DV, sexual assault/gang rape cases are reported in Sindh. A remarkable number of cases are reported from KP and FATA, notably murder cases followed by DV cases. On the other hand, there are a greater number of abduction/kidnapping, murder, and DV cases reported in Punjab.

Table 3.5.2 the Breakdown of VAW Reported in 2012

	Punjab	Sindh	KP & FATA	Baltistan	Islamabad	Total
Murder	835	381	395	84	50	1,745
Abduction/Kidnapping	1,222	207	33	18	127	1,607
DV	573	230	114	34	38	989
Sexual Assault/Gang Rape	676	103	14	11	18	822
Suicide	394	120	44	8	9	575
Honor Killing	227	158	42	3	2	432
Acid Attack/Throwing	45	28	8	0	2	83
Burning	48	11	4	2	6	71
Sexual Harassment at Work	12	46	0	0	0	58
Other Violence	734	344	20	7	29	1,134
Total	4,766	1,628	674	167	281	7,516

Source: Aurat Foundation. 2013. "Beyond Denial: Violence against Women, a Qualitative Review of Reported Incidents."⁸⁹

According to the 2012-2013 DHS, 32.2 percent of the total number of 3,687 currently or formerly married women age 15 to 49 have experienced some physical violence since age 15 (See Table 3.5.3). The percentage of those women who have been physically violated during the most recent 12 months preceding the survey is 19.2 percent, combining 5.1 percent of "Often" and 14.1 percent of "Sometimes.". Experience of physical violence tends to decrease with age as the percentage of experience of physical violence against women age 15 to 19 is the highest among all age groups of women. Looking at the data by areas of residence, experience of physical violence is shared more among rural women than urban women. On the other hand, physical violence is experienced more by women employed for cash than those employed for no cash and not employed. Women with higher education tend to be physically violated less than those with lower education while the percentage for women with early secondary education is 36.4 percent which is the highest. Similarly, experience of physical violence increases from 34.3 percent against women from the lowest wealth quantile to 40.7 percent against women from the second quintile, but it then decreases to 19.3 percent against women in the highest wealth quantile.

⁸⁹ ibid.

**Table 3.5.3 Experience of Physical Violence among currently
or previously married Women age 15 to 49**

	Experience of Physical Violence since Age 15	Percentage of Who Experienced Physical Violence for the Last 12 Months			
		Often	Sometimes	Often or Sometimes	
Age					
15-19	30.0	7.4	16.8	24.3	
20-24	38.0	4.1	13.4	17.6	
25-29	31.5	7.1	15.8	22.9	
30-39	34.3	4.7	15.0	19.7	
40-49	32.9	4.5	12.0	16.5	
Areas of Residence					
Rural	28.4	4.1	11.9	16.0	
Urban	34.0	5.6	15.3	20.8	
Province					
Punjab	28.6	5.3	11.3	16.6	
Rural	28.1	5.1	11.1	16.2	
Urban	29.6	5.5	11.8	17.3	
Sindh	25.0	1.2	14.6	15.8	
Rural	28.2	1.5	18.6	20.1	
Urban	21.3	0.9	9.9	10.8	
KP	56.6	9.4	23.2	32.6	
Rural	58.5	10.1	24.3	34.4	
Urban	46.3	6.0	17.5	23.5	
Baltistan	42.8	9.7	21.8	31.4	
Rural	43.0	10.0	21.2	32.3	
Urban	42.0	8.5	23.8	31.2	
Employment					
Employed for cash	37.3	5.8	16.5	22.4	
Employed for no cash	32.1	4.7	13.1	17.8	
Not employed	30.3	4.9	13.4	18.3	
Education					
No education	36.8	5.7	16	21.7	
Primary	31.8	5.2	15.3	20.5	
Early secondary	36.4	5.8	17.2	23	
Late secondary	21.8	4.4	8.1	12.5	
Higher	12.5	1.4	5.3	6.7	
Wealth Quantile					
Lowest	34.3	3.2	21.6	24.8	
Second	40.7	9	14.2	23.2	
Middle	37.5	7.8	15.8	23.6	
Fourth	29.7	3	11.9	14.8	
Highest	19.3	2.8	8	10.8	
Total	32.2	5.1	14.1	19.2	

Source: PBS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

DV is often aggravated by low awareness in society, including women, against the criminal act of DV, in that even women also justify DV. This is largely based on unequal power relationship between a wife and husband, under which a husband tries to control his wife's attitude/behavior by violence and a wife takes his complaints or violence for granted because she believes that she is at fault for misbehavior toward him and provoking him. In the PDHS 2012-2013, currently or previously

married women age 15 to 49 are asked with what reason they justify violence by their husbands. Reasons asked in the survey include: 1) burning food; 2) arguing with husband; 3) going out without the husband's permission; 4) neglecting children; 5) refusing sex; 6) neglecting in-laws; 7) any of the above. As shown in Table 3.5.4 below, the percentage of women who select any of the above is 42.5 percent, and almost half of the women justify their husbands' violence. The highest rate of the reason justified is 33.7 percent for "Arguing with Husband", followed by 31.1 percent for "Neglecting Children" and "Refusing Sex." Thus, women are not in the position that they can argue with their husbands, but they are supposed to obey whatever their husbands decide or order.

Table 3.5.4 Reasons that currently or formerly married women age 15 to 49 can justify their husbands' violence

	Reasons that Women can Justify Husbands' Violence (%)						
	Burning food	Arguing with husband	Going out without husband's permission	Neglecting children	Refusing sex	Neglecting in-laws	Any of those reasons
Areas of residence							
Rural	23.1	41.2	36.2	38.2	37.6	34.4	50.1
Urban	8.9	18.8	16.6	16.9	16.6	14	27.5
Employment							
Employed for cash	21.3	34.1	29.4	30.2	31.5	27.3	42.9
Employed for no cash	23.9	40.7	34.1	37.8	36.1	33.1	50.5
Not employed	16.9	31.1	27.4	27.8	28.3	26	41.7
Education							
No education	25.1	44	38.6	40	40.2	36.4	52.4
Primary	14.7	27.6	25.9	27.5	26.4	23.9	40.8
Early secondary	10.5	24.5	22.2	23	19.4	18.6	32.5
Late secondary	6	15.2	11.2	13.4	12.5	10.5	22.8
High	3.4	9	7.1	8.6	7.8	6	14.7
Wealth Quantile							
Lowest	28.2	45.5	41.1	42.5	43.2	38.2	53.6
Second	26.5	48.2	41.6	45.2	44.7	40.6	57
Middle	20.9	38.3	34.4	34.6	33.9	32.8	48.3
Fourth	13.3	25.9	22.6	24.3	22.9	20.2	36
Highest	4.2	12.3	10	10.6	9.8	7.8	19.2
Total	18.4	33.7	29.6	31.1	30.6	27.6	42.5

Source: PBS. 2014. *PDHS 2012-13*. Islamabad: PBS.

Table 3.5.4 also shows that the degree of awareness of women in regard to their husbands' violence vary according to their socio-economic background. First, 50.1 percent of rural women justify DV for any reason whereas only 27.5 percent of urban women do. The percentage of those justifying violence for any reason is higher among women employed for no cash. Women employed for cash justify violence for any reason more than women not employed, which implies that women's contribution to their household livelihood does not necessarily lead to their empowerment. Looking at the data by educational level, the percentage of justification of violence for any reason tends to drastically decrease as educational level increases. There is a 37.7 percentage point difference

between 52.4 percent of women with no education and only 14.7 percent of women with higher education. Similarly, women from the highest wealth quantile tend to justify violence for any reason the least among all wealth quantile groups of women.

As mentioned previously, the Government of Pakistan has developed and amended relevant laws as well as provided women victims with various services. Since the decentralization in 2010, Provincial Governments have taken the leadership and undertaken relevant interventions: construction and operation of shelters (36 in Punjab, 4 in Sindh, 3 in KP, 3 in Balochistan); assignment of psychologists and legal experts; setting-up Women Complaint Cell in Ombudsman offices; and so on⁹⁰. Even though women can take literacy and skill development classes in a shelter, most of them end up going back to their husbands due to economic reasons. In addition to the economic independent or social rehabilitation of women, there are various challenges faced by the Government, including financial support for women initiating lawsuits and awareness raising of the police and judges.

Table 3.5.5 Main Legislations on VAW

Passed in	Name	Main Target
2004	Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2004 (Honor Killings Act)	Honor killing
2006	the Protection of Women (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2006	Abduction/kidnapping
2010	Sexual Harassment at the Workplace Act 2010	Sexual harassment at work
2011	Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention Act 2011	Acid attacks/throwing
2011	the Prevention of Anti-Women Practice (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2011	Forced child marriage
2012	Domestic Violence (Prevention & Protection) Act 2012	DV

Source: Aurat Foundation. 2012. "Beyond Denial: Violence against Women in Pakistan. & A Pilot Study on Honor Killings in Pakistan and Compliance of Law."⁹¹

⁹⁰ Only Punjab and Sindh.

⁹¹ http://www.sachet.org.pk/web/user_files/File/VAW%20ANNUAL%20REPORT%20Jan-Dec%202012.pdf
(last accessed on January 7, 2015)

4. The Government's Interventions in Gender Mainstreaming

4.1 CEDAW

The Convention for Eliminating All Forms of Discrimination against Women), was adopted at the 34th United Nations General Assembly held in 1979 and issued in 1981, which is aimed at eliminating all forms of discrimination against women and contributing to full gender equality⁹². In the convention, discrimination against women is defined, and signatory states are required to undertake necessary interventions to eliminate discrimination against women in political, administrative, and socioeconomic activities⁹³. As of April 2014, the total number of signatory states is 188. The Government of Japan signed it in July 1980 and ratified it in June 1985. Upon ratification, the signatory states are required to amend their existing domestic laws to coordinate them with the CEDAW, which prevents some countries, including the US, from ratifying the convention. Furthermore, the signatory states are supposed to submit a periodic report on the progress of status of women and gender equality every four years. The reports are reviewed by the CEDAW Committee.

The Government of Pakistan signed the CEDAW in March 1996 and ratified it in April 1996. After ratification, the Government of Pakistan submitted the combined periodic report, in 2005, which combines the 1st, 2nd and 3rd periodic reports covering from 1997 to 2004 and the 4th periodic report in 2011. Key points, including positive aspects and challenges, in the review of the 4th report done by the CEDAW Committee are as follows:

The 4 th Periodic Report for CEDAW	
Positive Aspects	1) The enactment and revision of numerous laws and legal provisions aimed at eliminating discrimination against women. In particular, it welcomes the adoption of: ✓ The Criminal Law Act (Second Amendment, 2011), referred to as the Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention; ✓ The Criminal Law Act (Third Amendment, 2011), referred to as Prevention of Anti-Women Practices, and ✓ The Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act, 2010 2) The establishment of the Land to the Landless model by the Government of Sindh Province in 2009 which grants land titles to women 3) The ratification of the following international human rights treaties: ✓ The International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, in 2011; ✓ The UN Convention against transnational Organized Crime, in 2010; ✓ The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, in 2010; and ✓ The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, in 2008.

⁹² <http://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/gaiko/josi/> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁹³ *ibid.*

Factors & difficulties preventing the effective implementation of the Convention		1) natural disasters; 2) the devolution of powers to the Provinces under the 18 th Constitutional amendment; and 3) the increase of violent attacks and threats by non-State actors.
Principle areas of Concern	Devolution of power	✓ the lack of the capacity to put in place an efficient mechanism to ensure that the Provincial Governments establish legal and other measures to fully implement the Convention in a coherent and consistent manner
	Women and girls affected by internal conflict	✓ the escalation of violent threats and attacks by non-State actors and military counter-operations, including in the FATA, KP Province, and Balochistan Province; ✓ the increasing number of targeted killings and attacks on women human rights defenders; and ✓ the failure of the Government to comply with its due diligence obligation.
	National machinery for the advancement of women	✓ the lack of the capacity of the Government to develop an efficient mechanism to adopt legal and other measures to fully implement the Convention at the Provincial level as well as the lack of the capacity and resources of Women Development Departments (WDD)
	Stereotype, harmful practices and Violence against Women	✓ the persistence of child and forced marriage, Kao-Kari (honor killing), stove burning, and acid throwing, marriage to the Quran, and polygamy; ✓ In spite of the provisions in Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2004, which criminalize offenses in the name of so-called honor, the Qisas and Diyat Ordinances continue to be applied in these cases hence resulting in perpetrators being given legal concessions and/or being pardoned and not being prosecuted and punished for it; and ✓ the paucity of information about the implementation of the Standard Operational Procedures on the treatment of women victims of violence and the inconsistencies in the collection of data on violence against women.
	Trafficking and exploitation of prostitution	✓ Girls who are internally trafficked are subject to bonded labor, domestic servitude and child marriage; and ✓ the lack of statistical data and information about the extent of women and girls' exploitation for the purpose of prostitution.
	Participation in political and public life	✓ The low level of participation of women in political and public life, especially indecision-making positions and the local administration, and in the diplomatic service; ✓ Only 17 percent of reserved seats in the National Assembly, Provincial Assemblies and the Senate; and ✓ The Low participation of women in the judiciary in the Superior Courts and the total absence of women judges in the Supreme Court.
	Education	✓ The pervasive gender inequality in education, characterized by the high illiteracy rate among women, the low enrollment of girls, especially at the secondary level, and their high drop-out rate, especially in rural area (main causes for those are the prioritization of boy's education over girl's , the lack of qualified female teachers and school infrastructure, and the long distance to school) ; and ✓ On-going violent attacks and public threats on female students, teachers and professors by various non-state actors as well as the escalating number of attacks on educational institutions, especially girls' only schools.
	Employment	✓ The low participation of women in the formal sector, the job segregation and concentration of women in low-paid and low-skilled jobs; ✓ The widening pay gap and lack of legal provisions guaranteeing the principle of equal pay for work of equal value; and ✓ Women working in the informal sector are not recognized in the existing labor legislation as workers are unprotected and do not have access to social security and benefits.

	Health	✓ High MMR, women's lack of adequate access to family planning services, including contraceptives, restrictive abortion laws and the large number of women resorting to unsafe abortion; and ✓ The wide privatization of the health system and inadequate budget allocated to the health sector, especially with regard to sexual and reproductive health care services in rural area in particular.
	Rural Women	✓ Traditional practices which limit the degree of involvement of rural women in development programs and prevent women from inheriting or acquiring land and other property; ✓ Rural women farmers are not recognized as such because a farmer is the person who owns land in Pakistan; and ✓ Difficulties faced by rural women in accessing health and social services and to participate in decision-making processes at the community level.
	Refugee and internally displaced women and girls	✓ The lack of national legal framework on refugees and a gender-sensitive approach to address the specific needs and risks of internally displaced and refugees although the State has one of the world's largest refugee populations for over 30 years due to natural disaster or terrorist activities.
	Marriage and family relations	✓ Multiple legal systems with regard to marriage and family relations and its discriminatory impact on women ✓ In addition to the current status of Hindu and Christian law on marriage and divorce, Under Muslim law women have unequal rights to inheritance, dissolution of marriage and its economic consequences as well as unequal rights in respect to guardianship of children. ✓ The persistence of child and forced marriages and the abduction of women and girls belonging to religious minorities ✓ Polygamy

4.2 Gender Policies

After the ratification of the CEDAW, the Government of Pakistan developed a National Plan of Action for Women with regard to 12 critical issues of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Actions adopted in the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. In 2002, it developed a National Policy on Development and Empowerment of Women (NPDEW) aimed at the empowerment of women. After the decentralization associated with the 18th amendment to the Constitution, the Government of Punjab Province developed and implemented the Women's Empowerment Package in 2012 while the Policy on the Empowerment of Women was developed in 2014 by the government of Sindh Province.

In 2007 prior to the decentralization, the Government commenced the Program for Gender Reform Action Plans (GRAP) which was aimed to improve the capacity of the Ministry of Women Development at the national level and Women Development Departments at the provincial level, National Machinery for gender equality. Even after the decentralization, under this program, the WDDs have addressed the reform of the structure and process for mainstreaming gender into policies, administrative system, and budgeting. The reforms aimed under the GRAP include political, administrative, and public financial reforms.

4.3 National Machinery for Gender Equality

4.3.1 Decentralization and Transition of National Machinery

Based on the decentralization associated with the 18th amendment to the Constitution in Pakistan, the Ministry of Women Development was abolished in July 2011, and its mandate and authority were handed over to the WDDs under the provincial Governments⁹⁴. In the aftermath of two major political parties (PLM and PPP)'s signing on to the Charter of Democracy which commits the autonomy of Governments of the Provinces, the 18th amendment to the Constitution and devolution of power to the Governments of Provinces were brought⁹⁵.

In Pakistan, women's Division was initially developed in the middle 1980's and upgraded to the Ministry of Women Development later on. On the other hand, the WDDs were restructured from the existing relevant department/s at the provincial level, aimed at following-up the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action⁹⁶. Due to the integration of the WDD with Social Welfare Departments which focus mainly on social welfare, youth, sports, and special education, the WDDs were marginalized within the Departments and undertook only projects through social welfare approach to women. In 2003, the WDD in Sindh Province was separated from the Department of Social Welfare as well as the WDDs in Punjab and Balochistan Provinces were shifted to separate WDDs⁹⁷. While the separate WDD in Baluchistan commenced in 2007⁹⁸, and one in Punjab State in 2012 and 2009⁹⁹, the WDD in KP Province is still within the Department of Social Welfare.

4.3.2 Structure of the National Machinery

In the First World Conference on Women held in Mexico in 1975, the development of national machinery, consisting of governmental organizations working specifically toward the advancement of women, was first recommended. Even before the Conference, the UN Commission on Status of Women (CSW) recommended its member States to develop National Commissions on the Status of Women (NCSW) for advancement of women. In this light, prior to the decentralization, the Ministry of Women Development, WDDs at the provincial levels, and National Commission on the Status of Women worked together as the national machinery. After the decentralization, the WDDs at the provincial level, NCSW, and Provincial Commission on the Status of Women (PCSW)¹⁰⁰ are supposed to hand over the mandate of the national machinery.

⁹⁴ Nation Committee of Status of Women (NCSW). *Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments*. Islamabad: NCSW.

⁹⁵ *ibid.*

⁹⁶ *ibid.*

⁹⁷ *ibid.*

⁹⁸ *ibid.*

⁹⁹ Based on the interview with Secretary of the WDD in Punjab Province on November 17, 2014.

¹⁰⁰ As of November 2014, PCSWs have been developed in KP and Punjab Provinces only.

4.3.3 Mandate and Function of NCSW¹⁰¹

In 2000, NCSW was established through a Presidential Ordinance after four temporary Commissions were operated by women activists over many years. In 2013, the new NCSW Act, 2012 with financial and administrative autonomy was enacted. The role of the NCSW is to promote social, economic, political, and legal rights of women as provided in the Constitution of Pakistan and in accordance with international declarations, conventions, treaties, covenants and agreements relating to women. The NCSW is also expected to function as a role model for PCSWs already established in KP and Punjab Provinces and those to be established in the near future in Sindh and Balochistan Provinces.

Based on its role, the NCSW has undertaken six functions. First, it examines policy, programs, and other measures undertaken by the Government for women's empowerment and gender equality, and makes suitable recommendations. Secondly, it reviews all law, regulations, and rules affecting the status and rights of women; and suggest amendment or new legislation. Thirdly, it sponsors, steers, and encourages research to generate an information database and analysis on women's empowerment and other critical issues. Fourthly, it recommends the Government to sign and ratify international instruments designed to protect human rights. Fifthly, it develops and maintains interaction and dialogue with the civil society. Finally, it monitors the implementation of international instruments that Pakistan has signed. In order to accomplish those functions, the NCSW applies strategies, such as lobbying with lawmakers, parliamentarians and other decision makers and advocacy for promoting women's right in coordination with the civil society.

The NCSW is composed of 17 members, including a Chairperson, 2 members each from four Provinces, one each from Islamabad Capital Territory, FATA, Gilgit-Baltistan, and Azad Jammu Kashmir, a representative of the religious minorities and five ex-officio members from Ministries of Law, Finance, Foreign Affairs, Interior, and Chairperson or a designated member of each PCWA. The Members are replaced every 3 years as well as the prioritized issues are also changed by a newly appointed Chairperson. The prioritized area of the current NCSW are: 1) reflection of women's voice in legislation and public administration; 2) VAW; 3) the economic empowerment of women; and 4) institutional capacity development¹⁰². In the NCSW, sub-committees associated with the prioritized issues have been formed and hold periodic meetings every three months to review relevant laws and policies¹⁰³.

4.3.4 Role of PSCW – case of Punjab Province

In March 2014, the Government of Punjab announced the establishment of the permanent PCSW in Punjab Province after the establishment of the PCSW in KP Province in 2007. Similarly to the NCSW, the PCSW in Punjab Province is mandated to review all laws, regulations, and rules affecting the status and rights of women and make recommendations to secure and promote women's rights and

¹⁰¹ Based on the NCSW's brochure.

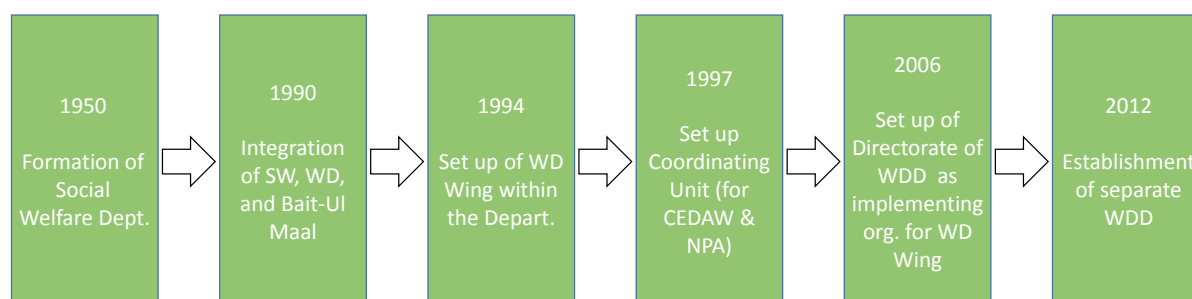
¹⁰² Based on the interview with a chairperson of the NCSW on November 10, 2014.

¹⁰³ *ibid*.

opportunities to participate in social, economic, and political activities. The PCSW is composed of 16 members: a Chairperson, one representative each from 9 Divisions in the Province; one representative each from 5 Departments; the Government of Punjab Province (WDD, Department of Law, Department of Finance, Department of Planning and Development, and Department of Home Affairs); and a representative from Women Chambers of Commerce and Industry (WCCI). In the interview with the writer of this report on November 17, 2014, the chairperson of the PCSW in Punjab pointed out VAW and imprisoned women as a main research topic in the near future.

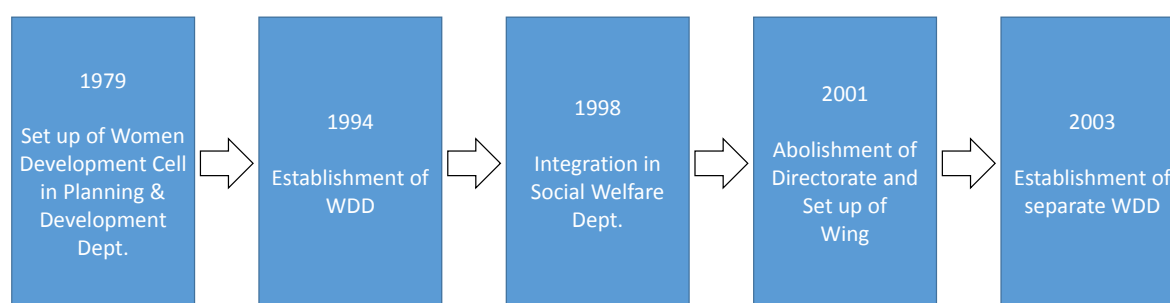
4.3.5 Past and Current Structure of the WDD at the Provincial Level

As described above, the WDDs in four Provinces (Punjab, Sindh, KP, and Balochistan Province) were developed in different ways and shifted to the current structure through the integration into the Department of Social Welfare.



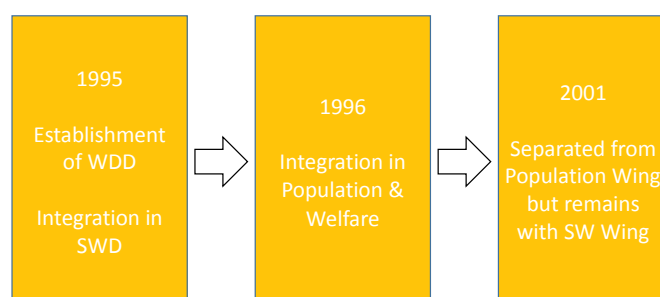
Source: NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

Figure 4.3.5.1 Restructuring of WDD, the Government of Punjab Province



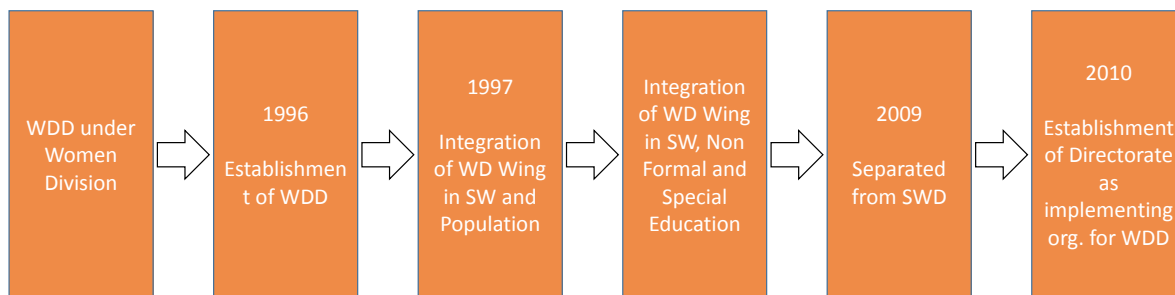
Source: NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

Figure 4.3.5.2 Restructuring of WDD, the Government of Sindh Province



Source: NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

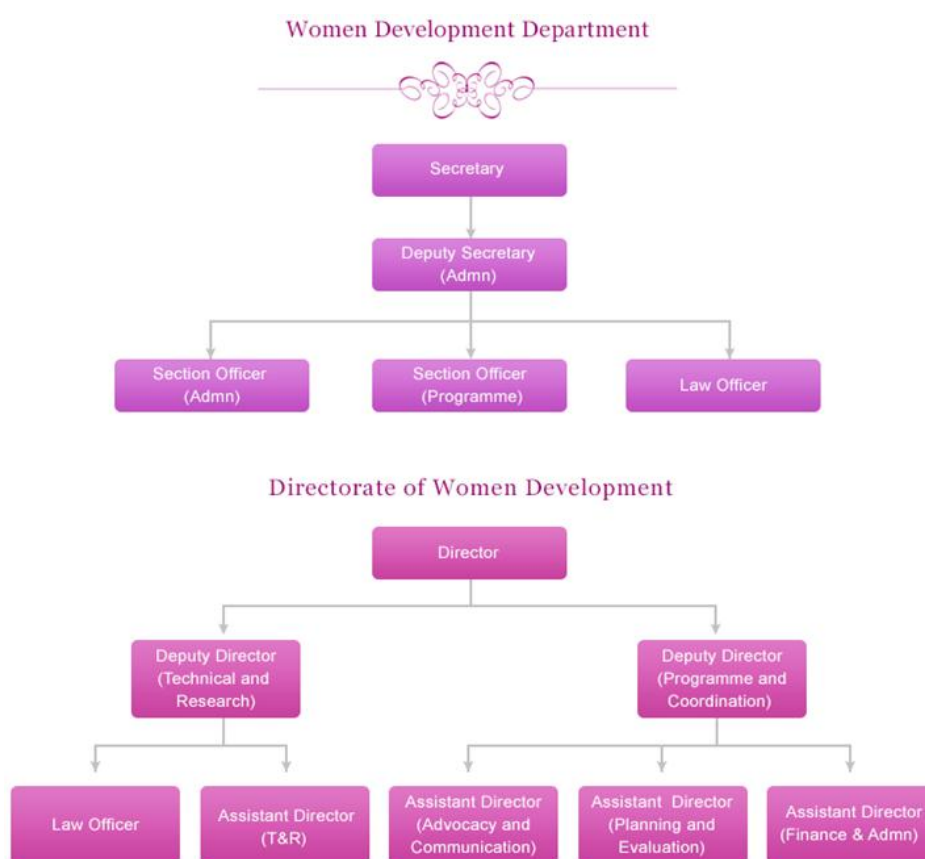
Figure 4.3.5.3 Restructuring of WDD, the Government of KP Province



Source: NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

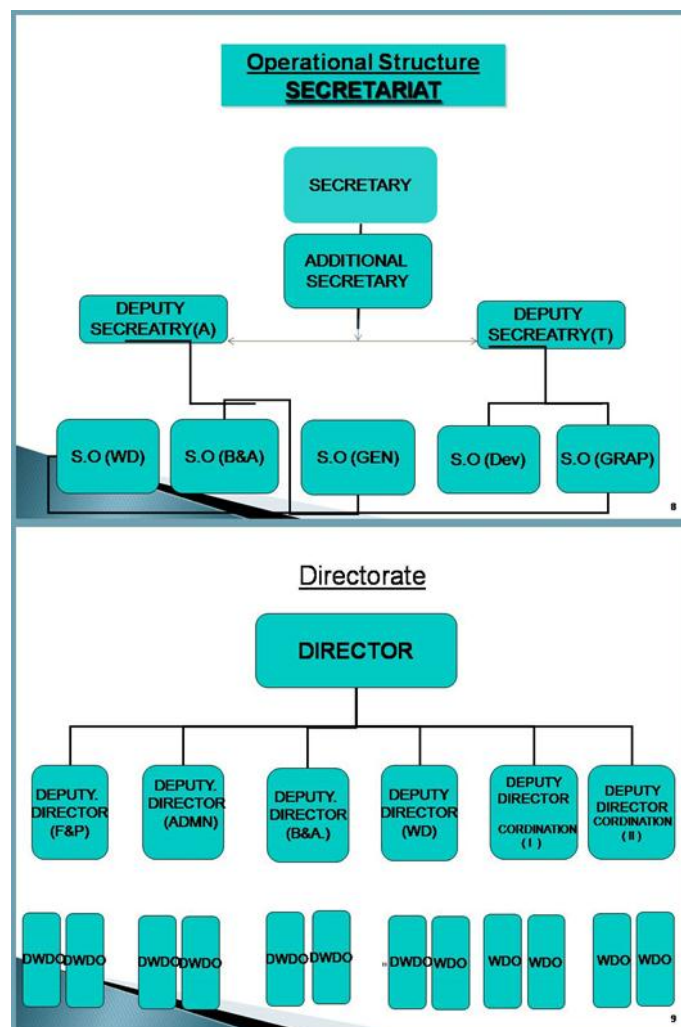
Figure 4.3.5.4 Restructuring of WDD, the Government of Balochistan Province

The WDDs in Punjab, Sindh, and Balochistan Provinces (KP Province's is not available from its website) are organized as shown below:



Source: Website of the WDD, the Government of Punjab Province

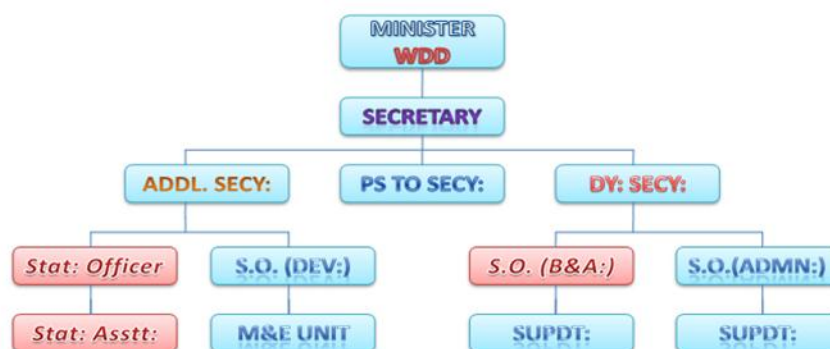
Figure 4.3.5.5 Organization Chart of the WDD, the Government of Punjab Province



Source: Website of the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province

Figure 4.3.5.6 Organization Chart of the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province

ORGANIZATIONAL TREE OF WOMEN DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT



[Note:- Posts in italics and red colour are under approval through SNE 2011-12]

Source: Website of the WDD, the Government of Balochistan Province

Figure 4.3.5.7 Organization Chart of the WDD, the Government of Balochistan Province

4.3.6 Role of the WDDs under the Provincial Governments

The role of the WDDs under the Provincial Governments varies according to the difference of the background and restructuring over a few decades among four Provinces¹⁰⁴. According to the NCSW's report on the assessment of the capacities of the WDDs at the provincial level, the WDDs under the Governments of Punjab, Sindh, and Balochistan Provinces, separated from the Departments of Social Welfare, focusing on the gender-mainstreaming approach whereas the WDD under the Government of KP Province, still placed inside the Department of Social Welfare, tends to function as service delivery for socially disadvantaged groups of people, including widows, through a social welfare approach¹⁰⁵.

Table 4.3.6.1 below shows the organizational structure type and role of each WDD¹⁰⁶. Based on the interview conducted on November 14, 2014 with its Secretary, the WDD, the Government of Punjab Province puts more emphasis on its role in the review and amendment of all law and regulations affecting the rights of women as well as the operation of day care centers for children. On the other hand, its deputy director of the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province described in her interview on November 17, 2014 that the WDD attempts to fulfill the role of catalyst in reviewing prospective general policies from a gender perspective and making necessary comments as well as to implement any programs which are not covered by other line departments, including women's economic empowerment and VAW.

Table 4.3.6.1 Type of Structure and Role of the WDDs under the Provincial Governments

	WDD, Punjab	WDD, Sindh	WDD, KP	WDD, Balochistan
Type of Structure	Separated	Separated	Integrated in Social Welfare Dept.	Separated
Role	To take all measures to protect women's rights within the framework of the Constitution and other legislation; and To improve women's opportunities to participate in social, economic, and political activities	To urge line departments to integrate gender needs into their policies and address women's empowerment; To support women's organizations; and To conduct research and training programs on gender issues	No description of its role and purpose with regard to gender equality and gender mainstreaming on the website, but seems to attempt to address the welfare of poor women	To plan and implement policies and programs aimed at the protection of women's rights in social, economic, and political aspects; and To undertake gender sensitization activities to improve social awareness

Source: the writer of this report developed, based on the website of each WDD and interviews with the secretary of Punjab WDD and the deputy director of Sindh WDD.

¹⁰⁴ NCSW. 2012. *Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments*. Islamabad: NCSW.

¹⁰⁵ *ibid*.

¹⁰⁶ Punjab: <http://wdd.punjab.gov.pk/policy> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

Sindh: <http://www.sindh.gov.pk/dpt/WDD/index.html> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

KP: <http://khyberpakhtunkhwa.gov.pk/khyberpk/page.php?pageID=430&deptID=41> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

Balochistan: http://www.balochistan.gov.pk/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1146&Itemid=1175 (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

4.3.7 Main Achievements and Activities of the WDDs under the Provincial Governments

In the aftermath of the decentralization, the WDDs under the Provincial Governments had to restructure their departments and distribute personnel for the departments at the initial stage, and gradually move to the review of relevant laws and policies affecting women's rights and the amend problematic laws and regulations. The WDDs are also supposed to play a leading role in advocating the advancement of women and women's economic empowerment. In addition, the WDDs operate shelters for women victims of violence, including the provision of counseling services and legal support, hostels for working women, and day care centers for working women. Main achievements and activities by each of the WDDs are as shown in Table 4.3.7.1 below:

Table 4.3.7.1 Main Achievements and On-going Activities by the WDDS under the Provincial Government

		WDD, Punjab	WDD, Sindh	WDD, KP	WDD, Balochistan
Main Achievement	Development of policies/ committees	Women's Empowerment Package 2012 Provincial CEDAW Committee in 2012 PCSW in 2014	Policy for Women's Empowerment in 2014	PCSW as well as District Commissions on the Status of Women	no information
	Enactment of laws	the amendment of 67 laws and regulations, including Acts relevant to acid attacks and women's inheritance (as of November 2014)	Acts relevant to DV, child marriage, and sexual harassment at workplace	Deserving Widows and Special Persons Welfare Foundation Act, 2014 no information for others	no information
Main on-going programs		the set up and operation of 60 day care centers for working women the set up and operation of 36 shelters (in all districts) the set up and operation of Women Complaint Cell in the ombudsman the implementation of help line services on women's rights (up to March 2015)	the set up and operation of Women Complaint Cells in the Ombudsman in 28 Districts the set up of Media Center the set up and operation of Display & Sales Center for women's empowerment the implementation of GRA the operation of shelters, day care centers, and hostels was handed over to Social Welfare Dept.	the set up and operation of 4 shelters no information for others	the set up and operation of 4 shelters the set up and operation of hostels for working women and internally displaced women the operation of social welfare home for poor women and children the operation of 39 Industrial Training Centers which provides women with 2-year vocational training program the operation of Women Business Center in cooperation with SMEDA

Source: NCSW. 2012. *Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments*. Islamabad: NCSW., websites of the WDDs, and interviews with the secretary of Punjab WDD on Nov. 14, 2014 and interview with the deputy director of Sindh WDD on Nov. 17, 2015.

4.3.8 Challenges faced by the WDDs under the Provincial Governments

Each of the WDDs has not fully completed the distribution of personnel mainly because it has been only a few years after the devolution¹⁰⁷. There are some vacancies even for the positions of permanent officials, otherwise those are filled concurrently by the officials who holds another position. For example, despite 30 posts in total, the WDD under the Government of Punjab Province has assigned only 15, including only 10 officials and 5 drivers and assistant staff members, as of November 2014¹⁰⁸. Similarly, the total number of the posts available for Sindh WDD and its Directorate is around 150, of which only 90 posts have been fulfilled, and the additional secretary also works as director of the Directorate¹⁰⁹.

The NCSW report points out that the problem of the distribution of personnel faced by the WDDs is more serious in terms of the qualification of human resources rather than the quantity of the resources. It also postulates that due the background that three of the WDDs were originally integrated in Social Welfare Departments (SWD) and one is still integrated in the (SWD), many of officials in the WDD have been transferred from the SWD while they do not have any expertise or experience in gender mainstreaming¹¹⁰. Even posts for gender analysts and gender specialists can be taken by those officials who had experiences or knowledge only on social welfare. In the case of Sindh and Balochistan's WDDs where the PCSWs have not been established, it might be difficult for them to play the role of the provincial machinery by themselves.

The NCSW's report points out that although the WDDs applies open recruitment for the posts of gender analysts and gender specialists, the process of selection is not necessarily transparent. According to the report, there are more cases whereby men are employed, regardless of the degree of ability, expertise, and experiences. One of the main causes for the shortage of human resources may be the shortage of budget. The chairperson of the PCSW in Punjab Province advised the WDD to recruit qualified human resources even paying high remuneration and improving the institutional capacity rather than relying on the highly qualified secretary of the WDD¹¹¹. For this purpose, she also emphasized the importance of securing the budget.

Gender responsive budgeting in Pakistan has been introduced and promoted by UN Women and under its Gender Responsive Budgeting Initiative as well as the GRAP. However, the progress of gender responsive budgeting is limited. According to the NCSW's report, the Government has allocated more for reconstruction and rehabilitation from natural disasters and anti-terrorism measures and cut the budgets of the Provincial Governments. As a result, the WDDs suffer from budget shortage on the one hand. On the other hand, the WDDs have not utilized the budget allocated. The budget left

¹⁰⁷ NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

¹⁰⁸ Based on the interview with the secretary of Punjab WDD on Nov. 14, 2014.

¹⁰⁹ Based on the interview with the deputy director of Sindh WDD on Nov. 17, 2014.

¹¹⁰ NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

¹¹¹ Based on the interview with chairperson of the PCSW in Punjab on Nov. 14, 2014.

unutilized is to be redistributed to others by the Department of Planning and Development. The NCSW report points out that the low awareness of the WDDS on budget issues is also problematic.

Table 4.3.8.1 Gender Budget Allocated for the WDDs under the Provincial Governments

Province	Budget Type	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12
WDD, Punjab	Non-development Budget allocated for WDD	Rs. 10,238M	Rs. 10,238M	Rs. 10,138M	Rs. 10,23M	-
	Development Budget allocated for WDD	Rs. 0	Rs. 0	Rs. 0	Rs. 0	-
WDD, Sindh	Non-development Budget allocated for WDD	no data available				
	Development Budget allocated for WDD	Rs.80,000M	Rs.172,950M	Rs.220,00M (proposed)	Rs. 330,000M	-
WDD, KP	Budget allocated for Women Development	Rs.11.381M	Rs. 15.78M	Rs. 31.247M	Rs.92.065M	Rs.118.523M
	WD Budget Share to Sub budget allocated for the Dept.	16%	17%	25%	45%	27%
WDD, Balochistan	Non-development Budget allocated for WDD	Rs. 1Bil.	Rs.1.2Bil.	Rs.1.35Bil.	-	-
	Development Budget allocated for WDD	Rs.0	Rs.0	Rs.0	-	-

Source: NCSW. 2012. Assessment of the Capacities of Women Development Departments. Islamabad: NCSW.

5. Interventions by Main International and Bilateral Aid Organizations and NGOs

UN Women plays a leading role in technical support in Pakistan in terms of gender mainstreaming at the policy level to the Government and network with the civil society. In education, health, and other social development sectors as well as economic activities, international aid organizations, such as the World Bank and ILO, and bilateral aid agencies, such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and GTZ (*Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit*) have implemented the programs which directly target women and girls. In addition, Asian Development Bank (ADB) used to undertake the technical assistance for the GRAP. Among the civil society, Shirkat Gah, Aurat Foundation, and other women's organizations are active in advocating for the protection of women's rights. Activities undertaken by the main organizations are as follows:

5.1 International Bilateral Aid Organizations

Organization	Priority Areas	Programs/Activities
UN Women	✓ Implementation of CEDAW ✓ Women and girls in conflict areas ✓ VAW ✓ Women HBWs' economic activities	✓ Advocacy for CEDAW, implementation of CEDAW, coordination among the Government and civil society in terms of monitoring and evaluation (M & E), and technical support for the WDDs and NGOs ✓ Support in the implementation of the pilot projects focused on the protection of women's rights in conflict areas ✓ Advocacy for the elimination of VAW in cooperation with the Government and women's organization, formation of collective units/groups to combat against VAW, technical support for taking legislative measures with regard to DV ✓ Support in developing policies for the protection of HBWs' rights in cooperation with Ministry of Labor and the civil society in Punjab, Sindh, and Balochistan Provinces
World Bank	Education, health, poverty alleviation, etc.	✓ Loan project aimed at the improvement of girls' access to school and quality of education in Punjab Province (March 2012 – Dec. 2018), Sindh Province (March 2013 – June 2017), and Balochistan Province (Aug. 2012 – June 2015) ✓ Other projects with regard to the improvement of women /girls' nutritional intake (Aug. 2014 – Dec.2018), social safety net for poverty reduction (March 2012), income generation through the production of crafts (Feb. 2014 – May 2018) ✓ the 3rd Poverty Alleviation Fund Project (the provision of microfinance, vocational training, etc.)¹¹²
ADB	Mainstreaming gender into all loan projects	✓ Technical support in terms of the institutional development of the national machinery at the national and provincial levels in the implementation of the GRAP through CIDA, an implementing agency (up to Feb. 2011) ✓ Integrating a gender perspective in all loan projects in the planning process in particular (classification of all projects into 4 categories in accordance with the level of relevance to gender: the category of highest relevance to gender is GEN (Gender Equity Theme)) ✓ Current GEN project is social welfare project aimed at the establishment of social safety net at the national level, (Oct. 2013 – June 2019)

¹¹² <http://www.worldbank.org/projects/P105075/third-pakistan-poverty-alleviation-fund-project?lang=en>
(last accessed on January 7, 2015)

Organization	Priority Areas	Programs/Activities
ILO	✓ Migrated laborers ✓ Protection of rights and income generating for rural HBWs ✓ Improvement of working conditions/environment in the textile industry	✓ The program aimed at enhancing the governance of migrated workers in South Asia (June 2013 – May 2016) ✓ The program to support in the protection of HBWs' rights and improvement of their skills (Feb. 2013 – Jan. 2016) ✓ The program aimed at the improvement of working environment at garment factories and full enforcement of compliance (July 2014 – Sept. 2015) ✓ The program aimed at the promotion of employment based on gender equity (GE4DE) (April 2010 – March 2015)
USAID	✓ Economic activities ✓ Reproductive health ✓ Education ✓ VAW ✓ Promotion of women's participation	✓ The Entrepreneur Project, the Dairy Project, the Power Distribution Program, aimed at the promotion of women's opportunities for income generating, skill development, and doing business, attempts to link women with the market ✓ MCH (Maternal and Child Health) Program to provide high quality services for expected mothers and infants/children ✓ Gender Equity Program to support women victims of violence in terms of rehabilitation in cooperation with the civil society ✓ Support for women's registration for identification card
GIZ	✓ Education & vocational training ✓ Health ✓ VAW	✓ Support for the national machinery within the framework of the GRAP ✓ As anti-VAW measures, making guidelines on services in shelters, including health care, and capacity development of the police and other relevant capacity development for human resources both in the public and private sectors¹¹³ ✓ Through the implementation of Gender Responsive Policing (July 2009 – Dec. 2014), improving the attitude of the police toward women victims of violence, implementation of pilot project with Complaint Unit

5.2 NGOs

Organization	Priority Areas	Programs/ Activities
Shirkat Gah	✓ Women's rights over their bodies (resistance against all forms of discrimination) ✓ Enabling environment for women's empowerment ✓ VAW	✓ Women Empowerment and Social Justice Program (WESJP) ✓ The Project for Achieving MDG5 ✓ The Project for Addressing Unsafe Abortion in Pakistan ✓ Women Health Rights and Advocacy Partnership (WHRAP) Project
Aurat Foundation	✓ Network with the civil society ✓ Participation of women in decision-making (advocacy for amendment of legislation) ✓ VAW	✓ Collecting information on issues relevant to the participation of women in decision-making ✓ Capacity development of human resources of women organizations engaged in the promotion of women's participation in decision-making ✓ Advocacy for women's empowerment

¹¹³ <http://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/18040.html> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

6. Gender Mainstreaming by JICA

6.1 International Trends in Gender Mainstreaming¹¹⁴

International discourses and initiatives on gender equality started from the feminist movement in the 1960's in the US and were followed by the declaration of "UN Decade for Women (1976 – 1985)" in the First World Conference on Women in 1975 and the adoption of CEDAW in the 34th session of the UN General Assembly. Through such trends, women were re-acknowledged as actors who play an important role in economic development rather than as passive beneficiaries from social welfare programs¹¹⁵. Based on this re-recognition, the advancement of women was called for more than ever throughout the world.

Through the 1970's to early 1990's, the concept of Women in Development (WID) which puts more weight on the correction of gender disparity by granting women equal opportunities and the advancement of women (equality approach) became widely adopted by international aid agencies and the civil society. Based on this concept and approach, numerous projects targeting women were implemented. However, the oversight of women's role and capability and limited opportunities and benefits for women have nothing to do with women themselves, and rather those largely result from the unequal power relationship with men. Due to this, gender specialists became more aware that without transforming the unequal social structure of a root cause, gender equality and the advancement of women would not be fully achieved. In the 1990's, based on post-structuralism and post-modernism, they focused more on such unequal power relations and addressed the transformation of the relations and social structure for the empowerment of the socially disadvantaged, especially women. This was the shift of WID to Gender and Development (GAD) in approach to gender equality.

Upon the shift from WID to GAD, the target of interventions also shifted from women only to both women and men. Similarly, the purpose of the interventions shifted from meeting "Gender Practice Needs" to "Strategic Gender Needs." While the former focuses on women's basic human needs for their survival, including education, vocational training, health care, drinking water/sanitation, etc., the latter is the need to empower them to collectively transform gender institutions, including the gender-based division of labor and structural power relations, perpetuated over generations.

After the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, the gender mainstreaming approach through which a gender perspective is integrated into all the processes of planning, implementation, and M&E for projects/programs, became widely adopted as a strategy for promoting the concept of GAD. The MDGs which were adopted in the UN Millennium Summit in 2000 include 8 development goals to be globally achieved by 2015. Goal 3 of the MDGs is to promote gender equality and empower women,

¹¹⁴ Based on JICA's "Trends and Approaches on Gender and Development (2007)."

¹¹⁵ Voserup, Ester. 1970. *Women's Role in Economic Development* in Jain, Devaki, *Indian women*, New Delhi: Publications Division, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India.

and most of the other goals are also closely related to gender equality. Thus, gender mainstreaming has been considered as essential for achieving the MDGs as well.

6.2 Efforts by the Government of Japan and JICA¹¹⁶

In association with those international trends, the Government of Japan refers to ensuring equity, one of the main principles, in the new Official Development Assistance (ODA) Framework developed in 2003. In the framework, based on the gender equality point of view, the Government commits to the promotion of advancement of women in developing countries, their active participation, and equal distribution of benefits between both sexes. Japan's Mid-term Policy on ODA, developed from a standpoint of human security, also takes into account ensuring equity for the socially-disadvantaged, including women. Accordingly, the Government revised the WID Initiative to the GAD Initiative which focuses on the approaches of GAD and gender mainstreaming, and announced it at the Beijing + 10 held in March 2005.

In line with the ODA Framework and Mid-term Policy on ODA, JICA also sets a similar goal that it makes further efforts to promote the advancement of women by ensuring the active participation of women and women's being benefited from development. To address the goal, JICA first attempts to improve the level of understanding of its officials and relevant personnel about the importance of gender equality in the context of development. Secondly, it attempts to integrate a gender perspective in the all processes of relevant projects. Associated with the revision of the WID Initiative to the GAD Initiative, JICA also revised its Guidelines for WID to Guidelines for GAD which is aimed at mainstreaming gender into all JICA projects.

However, JICA has not institutionally developed a concrete system to mainstream gender into JICA projects. The extent to which women actively participate in activities of JICA projects or are benefited from JICA projects tend to largely depend on the level of understanding and awareness of its planners and implementers. As a result, gender impact of JICA projects often tends to vary by projects. Even if positive impact of women's empowerment and more equal gender relations came out of any project, it might not be necessarily due to strategic interventions, but rather an incidental outcome. In order for JICA to apply a more effective and efficient approach to gender mainstreaming, JICA first needs to collect information on and analyze the approach and interventions effective for women's active participation and empowerment in each of the main development sectors. Based on the effective approach and interventions identified, JICA needs to develop the institutionally unified system for gender mainstreaming.

As the first step, in the following 6.4, five JICA Pakistan's projects are reviewed from a gender perspective, and identify effective approach to and interventions for women's active participation and empowerment. Based on this analysis, key recommendations, are made, which should be taken into

¹¹⁶ *ibid.*

account in planning a new project in similar sector/context in the future.

6.3 Definition and Conceptualized Framework of Women's Empowerment

Gender mainstreaming is a tool to address women's empowerment and gender equality. To mainstream gender into future JICA projects means that each of those projects is aimed at the empowerment of women through its activities. Before reviewing the selected JICA projects in Pakistan from a gender perspective, first it is important to understand exactly what 'empowerment' means. Based on the definition of 'empowerment', what kinds of interventions at each of the planning, implementation, and M & E processes can effectively lead to the empowerment of women can be identified as key points to review the selected JICA projects. Finally, through those steps, the conceptual framework of empowerment and gender mainstreaming is developed, based on which the selected JICA projects in Pakistan are reviewed.

In general, while 'empowerment' is regarded as autonomy, self-determinant, and self-confident, 'process', 'choice', and 'agency' are often emphasized as its important concepts. This idea is fully covered by N. Kabeer in her definition of 'empowerment' in 1999¹¹⁷. She defines 'empowerment' as the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices where this ability was previously denied them." Thus, 'empowerment' means the process in which people's ability (to have choices) changes. N. Kabeer points out three factors that determine the change of choices: 1) resources; 2) agency; and 3) achievement. She also considers 'resources' as preconditions, 'agency' as the process through which an individual person is empowered, and 'achievement' as outcome.

Those three factors are also conceptualized in Capability Approach by A. Sen. In this Approach, A. Sen considers individuals' capability with which they are able to achieve their subjective future goals of "beings and doings" (Functional Achievements) by choosing and taking advantage of available resources on their own account, and evaluate the degree of the achievements in their sense of value¹¹⁸. Above all, what he focuses on is neither quantity nor quality of resources, but 'agency' with which individuals can decide what resources to choose and utilize in order to address 'beings' and 'doings' by themselves. Based on this, A. Sen defines an agent as "a person who acts and brings about change."

In the light of those concepts, in order to empower women through activities of development projects, it is necessary to as preconditions, provide women with resources which usually are not available to them, to develop their agency by encouraging them to decide and act on their own account through the activities of projects, and to give them opportunities to evaluate their changes and achievements from their sense of value. More specifically, resources are not necessarily cash and in-kind, but human

¹¹⁷ Kabeer, N. 1999. "Resources, Agency, and Achievement: Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment." *Development and Change*, Vol. 30, Issue No. 3, pp. 435-464.

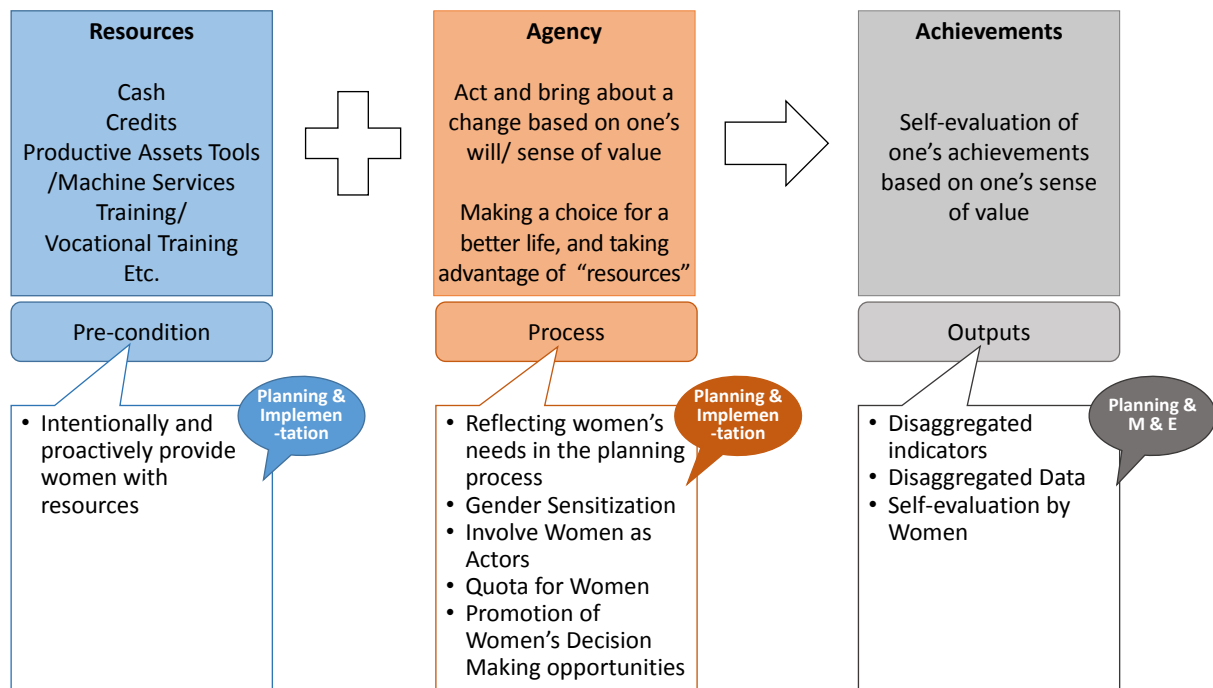
¹¹⁸ Sen, A. 1985. *Commodities and Capabilities*. Oxford: Oxford Publications.

resources, information, services, and training programs. Those resources are usually distributed and controlled exclusively by authority at the community level and the household head, namely men, at the household level. Thus, in the projects into which gender is mainstreamed, proactive interventions should be undertaken in order to change such inequitable systems for the distribution of resources and opportunities and provide women with information, service, and other resources.

Next, for women's agency, it is important to raise the gender awareness of both men and women and provide women with opportunities to make decisions and act on their own initiatives. In the patriarchal society of developing countries, in particular, men play usually dominating role in making decisions at the community and household levels, and women are not given such opportunities. Therefore, in gender-mainstreamed projects, women should not be treated as passive beneficiaries or assistants to men, but as main actors who play an important role, and should be encouraged to actively participate in the projects. It is also important to provide women with the learning process of developing their decision-making and bargaining power through their own experiences that women, as active members and leaders, make important decisions and take responsibilities for their group activities. Thus, it is necessary to conduct gender sensitization¹¹⁹ workshop targeting both men and women in the community at the initial stage of the projects, and attempt to change their gender-biased attitudes toward women and gender institutions, including gender-based division of labor and men's domination over decision-making power. In order to ensure women's opportunities to participate in decision-making processes, a quota system is also an effective intervention.

Finally, under gender-mainstreamed projects, their M&E process should focus on the measurement of the degree of achievement of women's empowerment. With quantitative and qualitative indicators, the extent to which women received and took advantage of resources and opportunities and how often and how actively they participated in decision-making processes should be measured. In the Project Design Matrix (PDM) for each project, if women's empowerment or women-related matters are set as project purposes, outputs, and activities, indicators are automatically disaggregated by gender, which makes it possible to measure the degree of achievement of women's empowerment. Since empowerment includes the concept of evaluating individuals' achievements on their sense of value, it is also important to integrate an activity in which women can do self-evaluation on their changes and achievements at the planning stage of the projects.

¹¹⁹ To change the gender-biased attitudes and behaviors of men and women and raise their awareness of gender equality.



Note: developed by the writer of this report, based on the concept of empowerment by N. Kabeer and the concept of Capability Approach by A. Sen

Figure 6.3.1 Conceptualized Framework of Empowerment

Based on the above framework, the following ten points are identified as key points to review the selected JICA projects in Pakistan from a gender perspective and evaluate them on the extent to which they are gender-mainstreamed:

- ① Whether or not women are involved as beneficiaries. If so, whether or not women are regarded as actors in the project;
- ② Whether or not project purpose, outputs, and activities are set for women's empowerment;
- ③ Whether or not gender-disaggregated indicators are developed and gender-disaggregated data are collected in the project;
- ④ Whether or not gender analysis, including women's and men's needs, their access to/control over resources, women's constraints in terms of time, areas of movement, etc., and so on, was conducted prior to or at the initial stage of the project and findings from the analysis was reflected in the planning and implementation processes of the project;
- ⑤ Whether or not any interventions were undertaken to promote women's active participation (e.g. recruitment of local female motivators/mobilizers and the introduction of a quota system for the membership of any decision-making bodies/committees and participants in training programs);
- ⑥ Whether or not any interventions, including gender sensitization workshop, were undertaken to change the existing gender role and unequal gender relations in the target areas of the project;

- ⑦ Whether or not training programs as well as workshops and meetings were set up at the time and place convenient for women having contents which are interesting and understandable even for illiterate women. Also whether or not JICA experts, counterparts, or local motivators attempted to convince women's husbands or other family members to encourage women to attend training programs even which did not take place nearby and lasted for several days and take household chores and child care for women while women are away;
- ⑧ Whether or not information on resources, key persons, and the market were provided to women in the project;
- ⑨ Whether or not any training programs or learning opportunities through which women can develop planning skills, leadership, and bargaining power were provided to women in the project; and
- ⑩ How women's role as actors and their contribution to their livelihood changed, and hence, how gender relations changed (women's self-evaluation and evaluation of women by men's and community people).

6.4 Review of the Selected JICA Projects in Pakistan from a Gender Perspective and Recommendations for the Formation of Gender-mainstreamed Projects

The JICA Pakistan's projects selected for the review are five in total, including one completed project, two on-going projects, and two prospective projects as listed below. Reasons for the selection of those five are mainly due to the higher possibility that similar projects will be planned in the future and the priority areas of JICA Pakistan Office. From the ten points described in 6.3 above, those five projects are analyzed, and based on the analysis, key recommendations are also made.

- 1) The Project for Development of Center of Excellence (CoE) for Technical Education (technical cooperation) December 2008 to December 2013
- 2) Advisor on the Promotion of Social Participation of Persons with Disabilities (Individual Expert) December 2012 to December 2015
- 3) Non-Formal Education Promotion Project (Technical Cooperation) April 2011 to March 2015
- 4) Project for Skills Development and Market Diversification of Textile Industry of Pakistan (Technical Cooperation) Prospective Project
- 5) Project for Promoting Economic Empowerment of Women in Selected districts of Sindh (Technical Cooperation) Prospective Project

1) The Project for Development of Center of Excellence (CoE) for Technical Education

Project Title	The Project for Development of Center of Excellence (CoE) for Technical Education Dec. 2008 to Dec. 2013
Sector	Human resources – Human resource – Vocational training
Target Areas	Lahore, Punjab Province
Implementing Organizations	NAVTTTC, Prime Minister Secretariat and TEVTA, Gov. of Punjab as well as GCTRR
Background	The industrialization of Pakistan was promoted under the national development plan of Vision 2025. Manufacturing and construction sectors, in particular, were growing as the source of employment. In Lahore, the second largest city in Pakistan, demands for human resources in various engineering, machinery, and architecture sectors were high. Above all, middle-level technicians were highly demanded. Based on this trend, it was urgent to reform the system of TVET (Technical and Vocational Education and Training), consisting NAVTTTC at the federal level and TEVTAs at the provincial level and other technical institutes. GCTRR, in particular, had the problem that the curriculum and courses based on the industrial needs were not developed. Teachers' skills for teaching were not sufficient, and many graduates could not secure employment opportunities. Thus, the Government of Pakistan requested JICA for support in technical cooperation aimed at the strengthening of GCTRR as a model school.
Outline of the project	Project purpose: Mechanical and Architecture courses of GCT R.R. provide quality in technical education based on industrial needs as CoE. Outputs: 1) Management system of GCT R.R. is strengthened as a CoE which can offer technical education relevant to industrial needs., 2) Training Management Cycle (TMC) of Mechanical and Architecture courses is strengthened. 3) Placement support of GCT is strengthened. 4) Knowledge and experience of GCT R.R. is shared with other courses in GCT R.R. and other TVET institutes. Activities: 1) to form working groups, undertake industrial promotional activities, hold events of skill competition among students, hold exhibitions, etc. 2) to revise the syllabus and curriculum, place machine, conduct training programs for teachers 3) to promote the employment of students (follow-up survey on graduates, data base on job vacancies, career counseling, etc.)
Remarks	Apart from the PDM developed in the planning process, the Architectural course became coeducational based on the results of the fact finding study conducted in 2007 by JICA. The study recommended architecture as the most viable field for women, hence, JICA and TEVTA agreed to start the architecture course at GCTRR. It also confirmed that there is good demand for female architectural assistants, hence the architecture course was started. In accordance with this, the GCTR employed female teachers and arranged for facilities such as segregated lavatories, prayer rooms, and school bus services. More importantly, TEVTA suggested to introduce the quota system for female students for the course (40 percent of the total number of students attending the course should be females) to this project. The JICA experts and female teachers visited late secondary schools nearby to promote applications by female students. They also developed a network with relevant companies and requested them to accept female students for their internship and employment.
Analysis from a gender perspective	① Although girls/women were considered as the beneficiaries of this project, they were not involved as so in the PDM of this project. In reality, after the project was launched, the architecture course at the GCTRR was changed to a coed course based on a critical finding from the JICA fact finding study that architecture is usually regarded as a female subject in Pakistan and women's employment in this area both in the public and private sectors had advanced. Based on this change, girls/women also became main beneficiaries of the project and were recognized as such by the JICA expert and counterparts of the projects.

- ② Women's empowerment nor even gender recognition was not integrated in the project purpose or outputs in the original PDM of this project.
- ③ In the planning process of this project, the GCTRR was still a boy's institution; therefore, gender-disaggregated indicators were not set in the PDM. In accordance with the change of the GCTR to a coed institution after the project commenced, gender disaggregated data were collected and organized (the number of applicants, the results of the entrance exam, the number of students admitted, the results of the term exams, etc. by gender). The total number of students (courses of Architecture, Machine, and Refrigeration) in the GCTRR was as follows:

Year of entrance	Number of Students at time of entrance to the GCTRR			Number of Students as of Sep. 2013			Remarks
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	
9. 2010 (first group)	98	28	126	77	21	98	Five girls dropped out & two repeated the same grade
9. 2011 (second group)	62	35	97	49	32	81	Three girls dropped out
9. 2012 (third group)	108	21	129	96	18	114	Three girls dropped out
9. 2013 (fourth group)	118	15	133	118	15	133	-
Total	288	71	359	263	65	328	

- ④ Gender analysis was not conducted in the planning process of this project. After the Architecture course became a coed institution, needs of female students for school facilities, curriculum, and employment/going on to higher education after graduation were examined among a JICA expert and female teachers. The results of the examination were reflected in the implementation of the project to some extent.
- ⑤ I In order to promote the admission of female students, a quota system was introduced in the project (40 percent of the constant number of 90), under which all of the 28 female applicants were admitted. Some of those students scored below the standard level of the Department in the entrance exam, and a few dropped out. However, in the term exams, the exam pass rate for girl students was 71.4 percent which was much higher than the 50.6 percent for boy students. Thus, there were no adverse effects of the quota system.
- ⑥ No gender sensitization workshop targeting the teachers and students in the GCTRR was conducted in the project. Since the GCTRR had long been known as a boys' school, the JICA expert and female teachers visited secondary schools nearby for the purpose of publicizing the coed status and recruitment in the beginning of its changeover to coeducation. The JICA expert and teachers had difficulty convincing the parents/family members of girls in the beginning in particular. Due to the refurbishing of facilities specifically for female students, however, they eventually succeeded in convincing the parents/family members and 28 female students were admitted to the GCTRR. Furthermore, through counseling with female students twice or three times a year, the JICA expert and female teachers attempted to raise their awareness and encourage them to work outside home after their graduation. While most of lectures in the Department of Architecture were based on computer (CCAD/CAM), there were some field work courses, including conducting surveys and operating large scale machines and women also did those activities as men did.
- ⑦ As mentioned above, in addition to the active and intentional recruitment activities, school bus services and some facilities, including segregated lavatories, segregated prayer rooms, etc. specifically for female students, were newly introduced into the GCTRR. Furthermore, an elevator facility was also installed for students with disabilities. Such strategic interventions were undertaken in order to promote female students and students with disabilities.
- ⑧ In the project, the JICA expert and teachers attempted to develop a network with the relevant industry and companies so that female students could secure opportunities for internship and employment from the companies. An Employment Bureau was established inside the GCTRR and held a "Career Day" event once a year in which

	they invited the persons-in-charge of the companies and provided them with opportunities to interact with female students. ⑨ The female teachers who were newly employed due to the coeducation of the Department were highly committed to the employment of female students after their graduation. As mentors and role models as well, they actively consulted with female students and encouraged them to work or move on to higher education after their graduation. With support by the JICA expert and major counterparts, they actively took a leading role in launching the coeducation of the Department and doing relevant activities. ⑩ Many female students in the Department of Architecture were from poor households and expected to be employed as instructors in the public sector, in particular, after their graduation although one student dropped out due to her marriage (a couple of other students dropped out due to economic and academic reasons). This was mainly because of the advancement of women in the architecture sector. The employment rate of female graduates was only 50 percent in the one year after their graduation because many of those first worked as interns or moved on to higher education. Thus, in two years after graduation, the rate increased to 70 percent. One of two female teachers who were initially employed described how she became more and more self-confident through her own experiences working on the promotional activities with the JICA expert. She also self-evaluated herself that her skills and ability were improved by fulfilling her mandate through the project.
Recommendations	For the formation of future JICA projects focusing on vocational training in the future: <u>Identification of subjects/departments which are socially acceptable for girls/women</u> ✓ Women tend to prefer any type of office work that does not involve heavy work and field work. Such work is usually accepted as women's work, and more women are employed in relevant sectors. Thus, in vocational training projects, it is very important to identify the sectors in which women can more easily be employed, including the hotels, tourism, and service sectors. <u>Integration of gender into the project purpose and outcoputs in the PDM</u> ✓ If the vocational schools/institutions targeted by a new project have the programs/courses which are/can be a female subject, gender should be integrated into the project purpose or project outputs in that project's PDM. By doing this, planners should ensure that girls/women will benefit from the project. <u>M & E on the gender impact of the projects with gender-disaggregated indicators</u> ✓ In all projects, the process of women's empowerment should be monitored and the gender impact of the projects on women and men in the community should be evaluated. For those purposes, relevant indicators should be developed and gender-disaggregated data should be collected. <u>Gender analysis</u> ✓ Planners and implementers should not focus on the admission of female students only, but their employment after their graduation. Thus, in the planning process of new projects, gender needs and girls' constraints of schooling and employment, in particular, should be identified and such findings should be reflected in the project design and implementation. <u>Promotion of the admission of female students</u> ✓ Promotional recruitment activities for female applicants in late secondary schools nearby should be conducted ✓ Any quota system should be introduced in order to encourage female students to apply to the target vocational schools/institutions. Even if the results of female applicants in their entrance exams are below the standard level, they should be admitted based on the quota and instead follow their studies after they enter the schools. ✓ Preconditions for the schooling of female students and students with disabilities should be examined and fulfilled in the very beginning of the projects. The preconditions include the employment of female teachers, the arrangement of facilities to ensure female students' security and accessibility for students with disabilities, such as school bus services, segregated lavatories, segregated prayer rooms, and an elevator.

	<u>Gender sensitization</u> ✓ Any activities, including gender sensitization workshops, aimed at raising awareness of gender equality and women's participation in employment should be conducted on special days, at school, such as the entrance ceremony day of the target schools and National Women's Day. Those should be targeted not only at female students and female teachers, but rather male students, male teachers, and the parents of female students as well as personnel of relevant companies. ✓ Consultation with female students and their parents on their future career development should be regularly conducted, in which teachers should attempt to raise the awareness of the students and their parents and encourage the students to become employed or move on to higher education after the graduation. ✓ JICA experts and counterparts should develop a network with relevant companies and request them to accept female students for their internship and employment. <u>Promotion of female students' career-orientated motivation</u> ✓ Female teachers should be employed and take advantage of their high commitment as mentors and role models to promote female students' career-orientated motivation. In addition, the projects can invite female graduates or female workers actively involved in the architecture industry and let them talk about their experiences and recommendations for female students. <u>Securement of Employment Opportunities</u> ✓ In any future vocational training projects, education should not end up being only the purpose of the projects, but a tool for employment. For this, JICA experts and counterparts need to collect information on female students' employment opportunities in the relevant sectors and possible companies which can provide female students with opportunities for internship and employment. Based on the information collected, they also need to develop networks with more useful companies and request them to accept female students for their internship and employment.
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2) Advisor on the Promotion of Social Participation of Persons with Disabilities

Program Title	Advisor on the Promotion of Social Participation of Persons with Disabilities (Individual Expert) December 2012 to December 2015
Sector	Social Welfare Services-Social Welfare Services-Social Welfare Services
Target Area	Haripur, KP Province
Implementing Organization	Department of Social Welfare, District Government of Haripur, KP Province
Background	Two point five percent of the total population of Pakistan consists of people with disabilities (although in reality it is said to reach as high as 15 percent). Since they tend not to be visible, the situation of people with disabilities is not well understood by society. In rural areas, in particular, those people who have difficulty with mobility have limited access to education and health services. There is a shortage of human resources in the government engaged in care for people with disabilities. Due to this situation, the government developed the national policy for people with disabilities in 2002 and national plan of action in 2006. However, those were not well implemented due to a lack of budget and monitoring systems. Based on the request of the Government of Pakistan, JICA first supported the technical cooperation project aimed at the promotion of people with disabilities in social activities in Abbottabad District, KP Province. In order to expand the model developed in the project, the government requested JICA for further support to strengthen the institutional capacity of other districts in KP Province.
Outline of the project	Project Purpose: Capacity of the District Government of Haripur in the participation of people with disabilities in social activities is strengthened; and The dissemination model to promote the participation of people with disabilities in social activities is established.
	Outputs: 1) Capacity of the Government of KP Province in social welfare for people with disabilities is strengthened

	2) Capacity of the District Government of Haripur in social welfare for people with disabilities is strengthened 3) Network between the public and private sectors is established by district officials who were trained by master trainers of provincial officials 4) Self-help groups, consisting of gender balanced members of people with disabilities and their family members, are formed and strengthened by district officials and PST 5) Awareness of people with disabilities is improved by the district officials trained, PST, and self-help groups Activities: 1) to prepare and conduct training programs to train master trainers 2) to prepare, conduct, and monitor the training programs for district officials in Haripur by master trainers 3) to select the members for network between the public and private sectors (representatives of the public and private sectors, gender specialists, PST) and hold regular meetings 4) to conduct training programs for people with disabilities and their family members(leaders), and support for the self-help groups
Analysis from a gender perspective	① The target groups of this project are provincial and district officials who receive training in this project and members of self-help groups, consisting of people with disabilities and their family members. Both groups include women. More importantly, people with disabilities are not treated as passive beneficiaries, but actors in this project. ② There is no mention about gender of the officials targeted for the project outputs in the PDM, but there is a clear description of self-help groups that the groups should consist of not only men but women in keeping with gender balance. ③ Based on the gender-integrated project outputs and activities, gender-disaggregated data are collected. ④ Before the assignment of this JICA expert, a similar technical cooperation project was implemented in Abbottabad District, KP Province by JICA. In that project, a baseline survey was conducted, in which people with disabilities also participated as interviewers. The situation and needs of people with disabilities were identified from the survey. More importantly, the survey found out that their situation and needs were differentiated by their sex, the type of disability, and the area of residence. According to the results of the survey, women with disabilities tended not to go out because their family members were reluctant to let them to do so and hence tended not to have access to information. Important needs for women with disabilities were reported to become visible through their going out for school, receiving counseling from a woman with disability, and having more access to/sharing information among other women with disabilities as well as training for leaders among women with disabilities. Those findings from the survey have been reflected/ integrated in this project as well. This project focuses on the importance of women with disabilities having more access to information, the formation of self-help groups, and the development of a network between the public and private sectors and those self-help groups. ⑤ In the PDM of this project, to maintain gender balance, to some extent, for master trainers, participants in training done by the master trainers, and the members of self-help groups are clearly mentioned. As of November 2014, the sex ratio of master trainers is 3 women to 5 men. If the master trainers had been selected only from administrators, all of the trainers might have been men only. Thus, based on the consideration of this JICA expert, female teachers for special education were also involved among candidates, and consequently 3 female master trainers were selected as well. Among the members of the network between the public and private sectors, gender specialists are also included. ⑥ In the training of trainers (TOT) (13 days in total) which were already conducted by Nov. 2014, one gender session was integrated. The session included a role-playing game in which four participants of master trainers played any of four roles: 1) a man without disability; 2) a man with disability; 3) a woman without disability; and 4) a woman with disability. By playing out these roles, each of the participant and

	others were supposed to realize differences in the situation, problems, and needs between sexes and with/without disability. ⑦ The target group of the TOT in the project are the master trainers who are the officials of the provincial government in Haripur, KP Province. Thus, the TOT were just designed and conducted during their working hours in Haripur for all 13 days. In the technical cooperation project implemented previously, whenever training for people with disabilities were conducted, transportation services were provided for them. ⑧ This project aims to develop a network between people with disabilities and key persons in the public and private sectors, through which people with disabilities, especially women with disabilities, are supposed to improve their access to information on resource persons. ⑨ In the previous technical cooperation project, some training programs were conducted in order to identify a number of candidates for leaders for other people with disabilities. Under their leadership, twelve self-help groups were formed after the training program, out of which one self-help group consisting of women only was included. According to the JICA expert involved in the previous project as well, most of female leaders of self-help groups were able to listen to and consult with other women with disabilities, but they couldn't take the leadership as well as men with disabilities could. In this project, training for leaders for self-help groups are designed to be conducted and women with disabilities are regarded as main participants in the training as well. ⑩ Those people with disabilities who participated in the survey conducted in the previous technical cooperation project described in their interviews for the final evaluation of the project that by listening to and consulting with other people with disabilities about their suffering, they felt that they could share the suffering and obtain some relief by listening to them and became more and more self-confident. Analysis by the JICA expert concludes that their receiving a salary from the project also contributed to their self-confidence.
Recommendation	For the formation of future JICA projects focusing on support for people with disabilities: <u>Clarification of the purposes of self-help groups consisting of people with disabilities and their family members</u> ✓ In the case of the previous technical cooperation project, self-help groups were formed mainly to share information and personal problems among members as well as to call for the rights of people with disabilities. By clarifying the purposes of the groups, the project purpose, outputs, and activities can be easily developed if future projects directly target people with disabilities. ✓ If there is no difficulty in terms of accessibility, to support people with disabilities for generating income could be one of the project purposes since it can give them a purpose in life and lead them to contribute even if only partly to their own livelihood. Paper Miracles, a Japanese NGO, supports women with disabilities who were affected by a natural disaster and abandoned by their family members. With support from the organization, those women are engaged in the production of paper accessories and earn some money by themselves. Through this, the women re-discovered a purpose in life and became more and more self-confident. <u>Making women with disabilities as actors</u> ✓ In order to draw attention to women with disabilities who are not often allowed to go out by their family members and have limited access to information, women with disabilities should be actors in future projects. ✓ Projects should be designed in which women with disabilities are involved not as passive beneficiaries, but actors, who participate in all processes of planning, implementation, and M&E if possible. ✓ For the project purpose and project outputs, women with disabilities should be clearly written down in the PDM. <u>Collection of the data disaggregate by gender and other factors</u> ✓ In M&E for future projects, gender-disaggregated data will be collected if gender is integrated into the project purpose, outputs, and activities. In addition, the data to be collected should be disaggregated by types of disabilities, areas of residence, and age as well.

	<u>Gender analysis</u> ✓ Women with disabilities should be involved in gender analysis if possible. Women with disabilities should be involved in gender analysis if possible. Findings from the gender analysis need to be reflected in the processes of planning, implementation, and M&E of future projects. The projects should be designed so that women with disabilities are involved in the decision-making processes of every activity. <u>Promotion of the participation of women with disabilities</u> ✓ Through hiring some women with disabilities as local motivators by future projects dealing with women with disabilities and their families, any barriers that women with disabilities and their family members might perceive between themselves and the projects can be cleared. The local mobilizers can serve as role models for other women with disabilities. ✓ Since the most critical barrier for people with disabilities, especially those in rural areas, is limited accessibility, the projects should provide full transportation services. <u>Gender sensitization</u> ✓ In order to eliminate gender biases and discrimination against women and people with disabilities and raise the awareness of gender equality, various interventions, including gender sensitization workshop and advocacy activities, should be conducted, targeting community people as well as people with disabilities and their family members. <u>Network</u> ✓ Through future projects, JICA experts and counterparts need to develop a network between the self-help group, consisting of people with disabilities and their family members, and key persons in the public and private sectors so that the members of the self-help groups can have more access to necessary information. ✓ The development of a network among people with disabilities also needs to be promoted <u>Training for the leadership of women with disabilities</u> ✓ In future projects, training programs aimed at strengthening the leadership of leaders among the self-help groups should be conducted
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3) Non-Formal Education Promotion Project

Project Title	Non-Formal Education Promotion Project (Technical Cooperation) (April 2011 to March 2015)
Sector	Human resources – Human resources - Education
Target Areas	Punjab Province, especially 9 pilot districts within the province
Implementing Organization	Literacy and Non-Formal Basic Education Department (LNFBED), Government of Punjab
Background	The literacy rate in Pakistan was only around 50 percent, which was the lowest in South Asia. In Punjab Province which is most populous in Pakistan, LNFBED was established to improve the literacy rate through Non Formal Education for children without access to school and Adult Literacy for adult men and women. JICA supported the LNFBED in conducting a technical cooperation project focused on the development of a literacy management information system. Through the project (Phase I & II) JICA contributed to the processes of planning, implementation, and M&E for Non Formal Education and Adult Literacy. However, educational contents, educational environment, learning standards and so on were left as challenges. Thus, the LNFBED requested JICA for support for another technical cooperation project aimed at the improvement of access to and quality of education for Non Formal Education and Adult Literacy.
Project Outline	Project Purpose: The System for Quality Non Formal Education delivery in Punjab is strengthened. Outputs: 1) Standards, curricula and assessment methods/tools for Non Formal Basic Education (NFBE) are developed. 2) Standards, curricula and assessment methods/tools for Adult Literacy are developed. 3) Provincial officers, District officers (Executive District Officers, District Literacy Officers, Literacy Mobilizers, etc.) in Punjab Province and teachers are trained in pilot projects.

	Activities: 1) to review and make needs assessment for the existing learning standards and curriculum for Non Formal Education, revise them, and try them in the pilot project and feedback to their finalization 2) same as for Adult Literacy 3) to conduct base line survey for non formal education and adult literacy, review the modules for training and materials, revise them, and conduct and monitor training for teachers
Analysis from a gender perspective	① Girls and women are regarded as the main target groups for the non-formal education and literacy classes implemented within this project. ② There is no mention about gender in the project purpose, outputs, and activities of this project's PDM. This is because the project is aimed at the improvement of quality of education by making necessary regulations and standards for non-formal education and literacy classes. ③ Similarly, based on the project purpose, outputs, and activities, indicators do not include gender-disaggregated ones. However, since most of participants in the non-formal education and literacy classes implemented within the project's pilot projects are girls and women, gender disaggregated data are collected. ④ Gender analysis was not conducted for this project in the planning process. However, the JICA expert assigned to this project has conducted analysis and found out the key constraints of girls and women in the target areas of the project from attending non-formal education or literacy classes (distance to a class, a shortage of female teachers, poverty, lower priority for girls/women's education, opportunity cost, parents not taking good care of children, etc.). She also analyzes women's needs (literacy classes should take place nearby their home, the contents of the classes, in particular, should be useful in their daily lives, skill development classes should be provided together with literacy classes for the improvement of their livelihoods). Based on those findings, literacy classes are aimed at not only women's education, but also for drawing attention to them by their going out for the classes, having interaction with other women to obtain more information, and developing their life skills, such as knowledge on sanitation and health care, skills for keeping household books, and skills for their income generating activities. ⑤ Local mobilizers are employed by the Department of Literacy, the Government of Punjab Province. The mobilizers are supposed to monitor the non-formal and literacy classes implemented in the areas of their responsibility as well as to collect information on the communities where needs for non-formal and literacy classes exist and teachers are available and report it to the department. Women are usually employed as teachers for non-formal classes and literacy and skill classes. However, for mobilizers, due to the criteria of education (Bachelor Degree or above) and experience (2 to 3 years), female mobilizers can be limited. ⑥ No interventions, including gender sensitization, were conducted at the community level. Activities at the community level is confined to advocacy for girls' and women's education toward community leaders and authority. However, textbooks used for non-formal education and literacy classes are gender-friendly. Instead of the images and description of stereotypical gender roles (men play a main role and women play an assistant role), the textbooks include the description and images of women as leaders and women's active participation as well. The textbooks for literacy classes also include the sections of how to cultivate vegetables in kitchen gardens, how to save money, etc. Through this, many women participating in the classes have started keeping household books by themselves and had more opportunities to make decisions on household matters. ⑦ In the pilot project sites the writer of this report visited, women took a 2 hour class for literacy in the morning and another 2 hour class for skill development in the afternoon. The participants in both classes said that their husbands agreed and encouraged them to attend the classes. However, their husbands did not necessarily do any agricultural work or household chores for them. One of them said that her husband agreed for her to attend the classes only on the condition that she did not fail in her responsibilities. Thus, she woke up at 4 am and finished all her agricultural

	and domestic work before attending the literacy class. As to the skill development class, it was designed for illiterate women to easily understand as it was mainly based on practices rather than lectures. ⑧ The skill class the writer observed was limited to women's learning how to sew, how to make dresses, how to put on paintings on women's hands or other parts through practices. The project is currently considering the possibility that through skill classes in Punjab Province, information necessary for women's entrepreneurship, including MFIs and available supports by SMEDA and CCI, can be also provided as well as a link with the market. ⑨ Similarly, business skills, such as making business plans, bargaining, marketing, etc., and leadership were not taught in the skill classes. Furthermore, how to improve life skills which are mainly based on existing women's roles was integrated into the literacy classes, but matters relevant to women's new role, such as management and decision-making, were not necessarily integrated. ⑩ Most of the women participants interviewed by the writer responded that they could improve their knowledge on sanitation through the literacy class's life skill section. Some women participants mentioned that they were proud of themselves that they could read and write Urdu, the public language of Pakistan, through the literacy class. Others pointed out as a big change in themselves that they could watch their children doing their homework after they became literate to some extent through the class. One woman described that she could go to the market by herself since she could read and calculate now, and she did not need to rely on others. Many women also mentioned that they took the responsibility to manage the household expenditures and savings through learning how to keep household books in the class. Through the improvement of their knowledge and skills and their taking new roles, many women began to be respected by their family members, which made them self-confident. On the other hand, a female teacher for the non-formal class whom the writer visited said that with the salary provided to her for teaching the non-formal class, she financially supported both her younger sister's college education and her own education for her BA. By contributing to the community through her teaching work and supporting her sister's education, she said that she became more and more self-confident
Recommendations	For the formation of future JICA projects for non-formal education and literacy classes: <u>Clarifying girls and women as main beneficiaries</u> ✓ As the target groups of future non-formal education and literacy projects are mainly girls and women, the projects should be clearly designed to benefit girls, women, and women with disabilities. ✓ Even if the main purpose of a project is the improvement or establishment of educational regulations or systems, girls and women should be written down as indirect beneficiaries in the PDM of the project. <u>Development of indicators for girls and women</u> ✓ By including girls and women as the target groups/beneficiaries of a project or integrating gender in the project purpose, outputs, or activities, gender-disaggregated indicators will be automatically developed in the PDM and the impact of the project on girls and women will also be evaluated in the process of M&E of the project. <u>Gender analysis</u> ✓ Non-formal education and literacy projects should not be designed for girls' and women's attainment of education as a main purpose, but as a tool for engaging in income-generating activities and improving of their livelihoods. For this, not only constraints of girls and women from attending the classes and needs for their education, but gender relations, gender-based division of labor, and the constraints of women from doing business and needs for their doing business should be analyzed in the planning process of the project. The analysis should be designed to be useful for women's future activities after they finish their literacy and skill classes. The results of the gender analysis should be integrated into the planning and implementation processes in particular. ✓ Literacy classes should be conducted together with skill classes based on the needs of women.

	<u>Promotion of women with disabilities</u> ✓ In line with the results of gender analysis, literacy classes, in particular, should be set up at the time convenient for women ✓ Every women with disabilities in the target areas should be encouraged to participate in literacy and skill classes. A local mobilizer and a teacher should approach both the women and their family members and convince them. If this does not work out, a community leader can be useful to change their minds. <u>Gender sensitization</u> ✓ Before literacy classes are launched, gender sensitization workshops should be held at the community level, targeting not only women, but men as well. The workshops should not aim only at the understanding of the importance of education. Rather, it should be designed to let both women and men change their stereotypical biases against women and raise their awareness of women's empowerment and gender equality. Through the workshops, men should be convinced that they need to help their wives doing household chores so that the wives can easily attend the classes. ✓ The projects should advocate both the importance of women's education and of women's participation in social and economic activities ✓ Similarly, the projects should attempt to eliminate the discrimination/biases against people with disabilities and promote their participation in non-formal and literacy classes. It should also advocate the importance of the participation of people with disabilities, especially women with disabilities, in social activities. <u>Support for women's entrepreneurship/ economic activities</u> ✓ For non-formal education and literacy classes, not only stereotypical gender roles in child care, sanitation, etc., but also women's roles in decision-making and leadership need to be introduced in the textbooks. ✓ As to skill classes, in addition to skill development, sessions through which women can raise their awareness on business need to be included in the classes. More specifically, sessions for making simple business plans, providing information on MFIs and SMEDA & CCI which support women's entrepreneurship, and exchanging opinions with women entrepreneurs at the local level. ✓ Similarly, women should be trained in leadership and bargaining power in the skill classes.
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4) Project for Skills Development and Market Diversification of Textile Industry of Pakistan (Technical Cooperation) Prospective Project

Project Title	Project for Skills Development and Market Diversification of Textile Industry of Pakistan (Technical Cooperation) Prospective Project
Target Areas	Lahore, Punjab Province
Implementing Organizations	Ministry of Textile Industry as well as Pakistan Knitwear Training Institute (PKTI) and Female Exclusive textile training Institute (FETTI)
Background	The textile industry is one of key industries in Pakistan which employs 3.1 million people. As demands for the export of garments and other value-added products grow, an additional 100 thousand workers with special skills are needed to sustain the current production capacity. Therefore, the training of personnel is an urgent need for the textile industry of Pakistan. On the other hand, manufacturers face the critical problem of having a high ration of out-of-quality products in the production process which causes inefficiency in management. Technical innovation is a challenge for them. There are only 23 universities and 17 vocational institutes where personnel are being trained relevant to the industry. In those institutes, the curriculum is not developed in line with the industrial needs, and the knowledge and skill level of teachers is low. There is a huge gap between demands and supply in human resources. The Ministry of Textile and Industry requested JICA to support a technical cooperation project in which the implementing organizations of the Ministry, PKTI, and FETTI aim at: 1) the development of human resources in the textile industry and technical improvement; and 2) the development of a network between the public and private sectors and research institutes/universities as well as strengthening of marketing.

Project Outline	Project purpose: To strengthen the vocation institutes (PKTI and FETTI) in order to make them sustainable and efficient, and hence they can contribute to the textile industry in terms of human resource development Outputs: 1) A model for other vocational institutes is developed. 2) The curriculum and materials based on the industrial needs are developed, and institutional capacity of PKTI and FETTI is improved. 3) Tstudents (male 40 percent; female 60 percent) are trained. 4) A network between the public and private sectors and research institutes/universities is developed. Activities: 1) to replace machines 2) to develop curriculum, materials, and courses based on the industrial needs, to receive advice from relevant companies (for gender mainstreaming and marketing), to request the companies to accept students for internship and employment, to improve management capacity, and to train master trainers 3) to implement vocational courses 4) to hold workshops targeting all stakeholders
Analysis from a gender perspective	① Girls and women are targeted as prospective students of PKTI and FETTI under this prospective project. However, they seem not to be regarded as main actors who might contribute to the future of the textile industry. Rather they seem to be in demand by the industry due to their dexterity, docility, and cheap labor. ② Training for women through training programs is mentioned as one of the project outputs in the PDM of this project. As described above, if girls and women are restricted to the sewing course in PKTI and FETTI and can get only contract jobs after graduation with no opportunity for transfer or promotion, the project will not necessarily contribute to their empowerment. ③ The proposal for this project from the Ministry of Textile and Industry does not include any indicators, but it mentions the target ratio of women and men to be trained in the project. Based on this, gender-disaggregated indicators will be developed in the planning process and gender-disaggregated data will be collected in the monitoring process of the project. Furthermore, follow-up survey/data collection should be regularly conducted in order to understand what female and male graduates do after their graduation. ④ In order to promote the employment of the girls and women trained in PKTI and FETTI, gender analysis on the constraints and needs of girls and women should be conducted in the planning process. In their interviews with the writer of this report, officials of the Ministry and PKTI did not seem to clearly understand the necessity. Some of the large scale companies in the textile industry that try to employ girls in a very positive manner have established their own training schools in which they aim to train newly-employed girls who have never been trained in sewing skills. The girls are paid while undergoing training. Furthermore, many large scale companies have made efforts to recruit girls and women by arranging commuting buses, segregated lavatories, and segregated prayer rooms for girls and women and also providing incentives for girls and women, such as health insurance and other social security benefits. On the other hand, some of middle and small scale companies that have never employed girls/women are negative about making such investments, and pessimistic about convincing the parents of girls/women and employing them due to the difficulty of changing gender institutions deeply embedded in society. First, PKTI and FETTI should identify which companies are positive about employing girls/women and what kinds of work in what sections of those companies are available for girls/women. Those institutions should revise or develop their courses based on such needs. The general criteria for the work in export manufacturers in Lahore seem to be the completion of 8th grade at minimum. Due to gender institutions in Pakistan, girls/women are not usually allowed to live by themselves for their work. Due to those two reasons, the target groups of students for PKTI under this prospective project will be those girls who live in Lahore and can

	commute to PKTI as well as the manufacturers in Lahore. As of November, 2014, although there is the sewing course in PKTI, no girls are taking it. Instead they are taking the design course and most of them want to do business by themselves after graduation. If the project is aimed at the training of girls who work for companies after graduation, PKTI should strategically target more girls from poor households who tend to prioritize cash income rather than gender institutions and are very motivated to work for companies due to economic reasons. ⑤ As of November 2014, PKTI does not apply a quota system for girl students in any of their courses. All students in the design course are girls whereas all students in the quality control course are men which require the completion of 10th grade as the minimum educational level for students. In addition, the sewing course and the supervision course are also totally dominated by boys and men. Although many companies demand girls/women exclusively for their sewing sections, it is important for JICA experts and counterparts of the project to increase the number of companies with which they cooperate and negotiate to accept girls/women for the quality control and supervising sections as well in order to empower girls/women and advance the status of women. ⑥ There remains gender-based division of labor in the textile industry. It might take some time to transform from what is currently men's work to becoming women's work. However, PKTI should conduct gender sensitization workshops and advocacy activities, in the beginning of the project and on a regular basis as well, to change the stereotyped ideas of companies, girls, and girls' family members and raise awareness. ⑦ Based on findings from gender analysis, the JICA experts and counterparts should negotiate with their partner companies and urge them to improve the constraints of girls/women with regard to working for the companies, such as working environment, hours, maternal leave, benefit package, etc. On the other hand, PKTI should provide counseling for girl students and their parents regularly and encourage them to work for companies due to workplace security and social security and other benefits provided by the companies. ⑧ PKTI has close relationships with PHMA and export manufacturers in Lahore. Most of those manufacturers provide opportunities for internship and employment for the students/graduates of PKTI. In reality, a female student in the design course with whom the writer conducted interviews said that she had done her internship for 1 month nearby her house in the company introduced by PKTI. From the beginning of the project, the JICA experts and counterparts will need to list up the export manufacturers in the textile industry in Lahore that are positive about employing girls/women and develop the data based on it. For this purpose, PKTI has already had such a base network on which they can make the list and data base. ⑨ As mentioned previously, the main stakeholders of this prospective project, such as the Ministry, the export manufacturers, and the training institutes do not necessarily regard girls/women as main actors or leaders. Thus, they might not consider the promotion of girls'/women's employment in the management sections or in any decision-making positions for which women are never or seldom employed. Girls'/women's employment in not only the sewing section, but also in management or special sections should be promoted in the project. ⑩ It is more profitable for girls/women to work for export manufactures in terms of cash income and social security benefits they can receive as long as their security is ensured by the manufacturers rather than doing piecework at home. By working outside, women can be much more noticed. More importantly, they can earn higher cash income than other family members, which can contribute to the livelihoods of their households and lead to having more decision-making power within the household. For this, various interventions, such as gender sensitization workshops, should be conducted regularly to raise awareness of women's empowerment. * Due to time limitations, interviews with key informants were conducted only in Islamabad and Lahore, and therefore, the contents of the analysis from a gender perspective described above is based only on findings from interviews with the Ministry, PKTI, PHMA, and two export manufacturers in Lahore.
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Recommendations	For the formation of the prospective JICA project focused on vocational training in the textile industry: <u>Women not as unskilled workers, but main actors</u> ✓ This project should be designed in a way that girls/women are not regarded as workers confined to unskilled or semi-skilled work in the textile industry. Rather, they should be integrated as actors who play an important role as technical (pattern-making, quality control, etc.) or management specialists as well. The project should be designed based on this concept. ✓ Therefore, the courses girl students can take in PKTI and FETTI should not be limited to the sewing course or others based on gender or stereotypical ideas in the PDM. <u>Development of gender –disaggregated indicators and collection of gender-disaggregated data</u> ✓ Indicators should be developed in order to monitor the degree to which girls/women take advantage of opportunities for learning in PKTI and FETTI. In particular, the data on how many boys and girls took what training courses in the institutions should be collected and evaluated. ✓ In addition, in order to examine the effectiveness of the training courses in terms of the employment of girls, in particular, follow-up surveys (what graduates do after graduation) should be integrated into the PDM. <u>Investigation and analysis of needs of export manufacturers and girls/women</u> ✓ Needs of export manufacturers for girls/women employees should be identified in detail. Based on findings of the needs survey, the courses and curricula of PKTI and FETTI should be revised or developed. ✓ In the needs survey, the sections which women will be able to work in the near future should also be identified. Instead of following only the needs of the manufacturers, the courses of the institutions should be designed to address the expansion of the sections and work available for women in the textile industry. However, the feasibility of doing so should be confirmed with main manufacturers beforehand. ✓ Referring to the experiences of women workers in manufacturers and the perception/anxiety of women who have never worked for any manufacturers, the JICA experts and counterparts of the project should suggest their partner manufactures to improve both working environment and regulations and systems of salary, benefits, and promotion. <u>The quota system for female teachers and female students</u> ✓ In accordance with the identification of the sections available to women, the PKTI and FETTI should strategically increase the number of female applicants to relevant courses. For this purpose, they need to hire more female teachers and apply a quota system for female students. ✓ Both PKTI and FETTI need to proactively target girls from poor households who can be more motivated to work for manufacturers after graduation. For promoting those girls' applications, they should appeal to them and their parents about the incentives of transportation fees supported by the Government of Punjab Province. <u>Gender sensitization</u> ✓ Taking advantage of the opportunities of the first day of the courses and International Women's Day, gender sensitization workshops should be held at the institutions for girl and boy students, their parents, instructors, etc. In the workshops, the importance of women's participation in economic activities for their empowerment should be advocated. ✓ In the counseling with female students and their parents, teachers should emphasize the security of workplace at manufacturers and merits/benefits from working for manufactures, and encourage them to work there. <u>Provision of legal information on employment for girl students</u> ✓ The export manufacturers in the textile industry usually comply with legal requirements. However, girl students who intend to work for any manufacturers need to know their obligations and rights in employment beforehand. Thus, the institutions should provide students with extra sessions in which the girls/women should be provided with legal information. This can be a basic standard by which female students can select the manufacturers for their employment.
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	<u>Linking female students with export manufacturers</u> ✓ The list and data base of export manufacturers which can accept girl students for internship and employment should be developed ✓ A ‘career day’ event held at the institutions two to three times a year can provide good opportunities to link girl students with the personnel managers of export manufacturers in the textile industry in Lahore and Faisalabad. Through those opportunities, the students and their parents can interact with the personnel and collect information and exchange opinions. <u>Raising the business minds of female students</u> ✓ Female students in the design course usually aim at doing business at home after their graduation. However, most of them tend not to be ready for it in terms of psychological and financial preparation. ✓ Therefore, the institutions should not focus only on technical issues, but business skills, including making a business plans as well.
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5) Project for Economic Empowerment of Women in Selected Districts of Sindh (Technical Cooperation) **Prospective Project**

Project Title	Project for Economic Empowerment of Women in Selected Districts of Sindh
Target Area	Karachi, Sindh Province
Implementing Organization	WDD, the Government of Sindh Province
Background	In Sindh Province where the feudal system remains and patriarchal traditional gender institutions are relatively strict, girls and women have limited to access to various services and resources, especially education and health care. Women’s labor force participation in the formal sector is very limited. Most women work as HBWs in the informal sector as their educational level is low. Women HBWs usually have limited freedom of movement and limited opportunities for skill training. Many of them do piecework under vulnerable working status without social security and rely on their meager income for their livelihoods. To improve skills and livelihoods of women HBWs, the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province has set up and operated Display & Sales Center. The WDD has requested JICA to support a technical cooperation project aimed at the expansion of the Center to other districts/cities and economic empowerment of women HBWs.
Project Outline	Purpose of the Project: To improve the livelihoods of women HBWs through technical innovation and networking with industry Expected outcomes: 1) Women’s Centers for information, training, and business in Hyderabad, Larkana, Sukkur, and Mirpur Khas are established. 2) Women’s community-based industrial partnership at the district level are developed and strengthened. 3) The system to promote innovation in quality and design of women’s crafts/products is well managed by women leaders. Activities: 1) to establish Centers, develop a database, and conduct training programs for women on skill development, marketing, etc., and hold events, such as fairs and exhibitions 2) to implement and monitor pilot projects (identification of male partners and resource persons, development of partnerships with potential partners, training on design, marketing, quality control, etc.) 3) to identify women leaders and train them
Analysis from a gender perspective	① In the proposal of this prospective project, women HBWs are exclusively targeted and seem to cover all of beneficiaries of the project. Women HBWs are also regarded as actors in the project. ② Gender is fully emphasized in both the project purpose and outputs in the PDM of this project ③ The proposal of this project from the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province does not include indicators. However, in line with the project purpose, outputs, and

	activities in the PDM, indicators specific to women will be developed and gender-disaggregated data will be collected in the M&E process of the project. ④ Gender analysis is not included in the project activities of the PDM or the proposal of the WDD. The central concern of the WDD seems to be the employment/contract conditions under which women HBWs are exploited for cheap labor by middlemen or contractors. There are additional fundamental problems faced by women, such as the limited areas of women's movement, a lack of women's business mentality, a lack of women's connection with the market, and a huge gap between women's skills and skill required in the market. Without addressing those problems, there might be no opportunities for women HBWs to find a new source of income. They will just end up relying on their current work with inequitable working status for earning a living. In the planning process of the project, detailed information on the characteristics of women HBWs (types of skills and their level of skills) should be collected. Market research, on relevant designers/shops/companies, the designs and quality level required by the market, and average pay will be all needed. It is essential to examine what the WDD can do and must do in order to increase women HBWs' income despite their limited areas of movement, low skill levels, and lack of business mentality. ⑤ As long as the project targets women HBWs, women HBWs should be encouraged to go out. By going out, they should interact with other women and exchange information with those women. In order to encourage and motivate women HBWs to join the project, the project should hire female local mobilizers or motivators at the project sites if available. ⑥ In the very early stage of the project, the JICA experts and counterparts as well as local mobilizers to be assigned to this project are supposed to conduct gender sensitization workshops at the project sites. In the workshops, they will need to raise awareness of both men and women on the importance of women's active participation in social and economic activities. They will also need to convince men to support women's participation in exhibitions, fairs, and training programs which take place outside the community and help women share their responsibilities. ⑦ Due to their relatively low educational level, women HBWs might not be able to develop designs based on market needs by themselves. Therefore, what is more realistic for women HBWs might be to form their own groups and develop a system of made-to-order. In this case, women HBWs' groups can consist of members, leaders who take a main role in receiving orders from designers/shops/companies, and negotiate with them, and any of their male family members who can accompany the leaders when they move around to see designers/shop keepers, officials of companies. The necessary training matching the demand/needs of the market for the groups should be provided by the project. ⑧ As of November 2014, the WDD, the Government of Sindh Province, in cooperation with a local NGO, Home Net Pakistan, has operated the Display & Sales Center. Although Home Net Pakistan networks with local organizations for women HBWs, it does not have any connection with the market or relevant industry. It is very important for the WDD to proactively develop a network with Chambers of Commerce and Industry (CCI) in Sindh Province and collect information on MFIs and the shops/companies which place orders with women HBWs. The information collected should be saved in the data base, based on which the WDD should link women HBWs with those shops/companies in the private sector. At the same time, the WDD should introduce women HBWs to the NGOs, including AHAN, which actively links women HBWs with the market. ⑨ Training programs for women HBWs should include not only skill development sessions, but also sessions aimed at their bargaining power and leadership to fulfill their strategic gender needs. ⑩ If women HBWs can obtain high level skills matching the needs of the market and their clients and manage their businesses by themselves, they can become self-confident. Furthermore, they can earn income and contribute to the livelihoods of their households, which might lead to gaining power over decision-making at the household level. In order to obtain understanding and support from their husbands, it is very important to hold gender sensitization workshops and similar interventions from the beginning of the project.
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Recommendations	For the formation of this prospective project aimed at the improvement of livelihoods for women HBWs: <u>Identification of women HBWs</u> ✓ In the planning process, the traditional or high-valued skills women HBWs have should be identified. The skills should be highly demanded and valued in the market. ✓ Based on the identification of the skills, the women HBWs who have such skills and experience and those who intend to acquire the skills will be the target groups of the project. <u>Capacity development of the WDD for the project purpose and outputs</u> ✓ The central purpose of the project is to put in the institutional capacity of the WDD as a policy maker and coordinator among relevant departments. Under the pilot projects of this prospective project, activities to support women HBWs can be integrated. ✓ Specifically, the WDD will develop an action of plan for supporting women HBWs. In the plan: 1) conducting analysis on the characteristics and needs of women HBWs and the market/industry 2) collection of information on the shops/companies and NGOs that might place orders with women HBWs by types of products/skills 3) development of data base on HBWs, shops/companies, and NGOs 4) formation of female HBWs' groups and identification of active leaders 5) establishment of a hub for women entrepreneurs as well as groups 6) planning, implementation, and M&E for the training programs for women HBWs matching the needs of the market/industry, including marketing, bargaining, leadership, etc. 7) in cooperation with CCI, link HBWs with shops/companies <u>Cooperation with relevant organizations</u> ✓ Since linking women with the market is a top priority of this project, the JICA experts and counterparts of this project should make efforts to develop networks with CCI and other relevant organizations. ✓ Also develop networks with MFIs ✓ While Home Net Pakistan does not have connections with the market/industry, it has strong networks with women's organizations. The database on the organization can be developed with their support. <u>Gender Analysis</u> ✓ The proposal for this project was made by WDD, which is a women focused Department of Government of Punjab. The project proposal is in the initial stages of the formulation. The initial proposal's viability was confirmed by JICA Pakistan office through preliminary Gender analysis. More comprehensive Gender analysis on the proposal is planned to be undertaken in the subsequent preparatory survey. ✓ Gender analysis in the planning process should include the situation of women HBWs who have the skills targeted by the project, their skill level, problems, constraints, and needs. Similarly, the needs in terms of designs and quality of the market/industry should also be analyzed ✓ Training programs should be designed and implemented in a way that a huge gap between women HBWs's skill level and that required by the market/ companies will be reduced <u>Gender sensitization</u> ✓ Through gender sensitization workshops in the community, the JICA experts and counterparts as well as mobilizers at the local level are supposed to advocate the reduction of child labor and raise the awareness of women and men for women's active participation and sharing responsibilities between men and women. ✓ When women need to participate in the events of fairs and exhibitions and training programs, men need to be encouraged to take all women's responsibilities while women are away from home. <u>Link between women HBWs and shops/companies</u> ✓ As mentioned previously, data on the shops/companies which place orders with women HBWs should be collected and incorporated into the data base, based on the introduction to relevant shops/companies to women HBWs ✓ The WDD is supposed to store information on MFIs, SMEDA, and CCI, and provide it to women HBWs according to their needs <u>Improvement of women's business mentality and bargaining power</u> ✓ As mentioned previously, the business mentality, bargaining power, and leadership of leaders and members of women HBWs' groups should be improved through training
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