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DEUTSCHE GESELLSCHAFT FÜR INTERNATIONALE ZUSAMMENARBEIT (GIZ)  
G M B H

**STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF COVID-19  
ON GENDER EQUALITY WITH A FOCUS  
ON INTERSECTIONALITY AND  
ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT**



**Final Report**

Supported and funded by Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH  
on behalf of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)



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# Abbreviations

AC EJR	Action Coalition Economic Justice and Rights
BMZ	Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Entwicklung und Zusammenarbeit
CBO	Community-based organizations
CEFM	Child-, early-, forced marriage
CSO	Civil society organizations
DC	Development cooperation
DFI	Development finance institution
FC	Financial cooperation
FFP	Feminist Foreign Policy
FGM	Female genital mutilation
GBV	Gender-based violence
GBOV	Gender-based online violence
GLI	Gender-lens investing
GIZ	Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GmbH)
IDP	Internally displaced person
IPV	Intimate-partner violence
ILO	International Labour Organization
LAC	Latin America & the Caribbean
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SRHR	Sexual and reproductive health and rights
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
STEM	Science, technology, engineering, mathematics
TC	Technical cooperation
UN	United Nations
WEE	Women's economic empowerment
WHO	World Health Organization
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

# Executive Summary

The COVID-19-pandemic has **exacerbated existing gender inequalities** and discrimination. Women and girls<sup>1</sup>, and in particular persons affected by intersecting forms of discrimination and systems of inequality, have been affected by detrimental social, health and economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. Aiming to strengthen efforts promoting gender equality, GIZ commissioned this research study on the impact of COVID-19 on gender equality with a focus on intersectionality and economic empowerment. An intersectional analysis of the effects of the pandemic enables a comprehensive problem analysis that accounts for the experiences of marginalized populations. Its objective is to create an **intersectional evidence base** for identifying effective approaches for German development cooperation (DC) to advance a **gender-just COVID-19 recovery that leaves no one behind**.

The study consists of a literature review as well as key informant interviews. Five key policy areas have been explored in depth, including Women, Peace and Security (WPS); Women's Economic Empowerment (WEE); Climate and Gender, Gender-Based Violence (GBV); and Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR). The study presents the following conclusions and recommendations for the German DC regarding a gender-transformative COVID-19 recovery:

First, the study identifies that there are key principles for a gender-responsive and/or gender-transformative COVID-19 recovery that are **across all five thematic areas crucial prerequisites** for tackling the effects of the pandemic in an effective and intersectional manner:

- Establishing feminist and intersectional perspectives as a standard in DC programming
- Taking seriously representation and meaningful participation in decision-making
- Collecting and analyzing intersectional, disaggregated data
- Promoting gender-responsive policies and budgets
- Transforming gender and social norms, attitudes and behavior
- Prioritizing integrated and multi-sectoral approaches
- Shifting power and resources to feminist activists and grassroots organizations

Second, the study team found that many of the interventions needed to address the pressing challenges for gender equality posed by the pandemic are not new. Rather, many are preexisting approaches that have **not received necessary attention and funding in the past**. In addition, few of these interventions have been considered from an intersectional perspective. Consequently, it is crucial for DC actors, including German DC, to not focus solely on new and innovative solutions, but to back interventions that have already been evidenced to be effective with sufficient funding and resources and to integrate a stronger intersectional perspective. The study finds the following areas especially crucial in that regard:

- Scaling GBV prevention and response with an intersectional lens
- Prioritizing the provision of SRHR services for all
- Strengthening social and legal protection in economic empowerment programming in the formal and informal sector

Third, the effects of the pandemic intensified challenges that have previously received little attention in DC programming and which will require **new and innovative approaches** to address. German DC and their cooperation partners can therefore contribute to sustainably transforming gender relations in the aftermath of the pandemic through the following fields of action:

- Transforming the care economy for a just distribution of care responsibilities
- Leveraging the potential of digital solutions and inclusion to create economic opportunities, promote social movements and break barriers for meaningful participation of marginalized groups
- Promoting gender-transformative climate justice

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<sup>1</sup> Please see Chapter 1.1.

# 1. Introduction & Context

“Another generation of women will have to wait for gender parity [...] As the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic continues to be felt, closing the global gender gap has increased by a generation from 99.5 years to 135.6 years” (WEF, 2021).

Women and girls<sup>2</sup> have been particularly affected by the social, health and economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has **highlighted and exacerbated existing inequalities** and discrimination in multiple and dramatic ways. Women and girls face a higher risk of infection, poorer access to health services, higher rates of unemployment, more precarious work conditions, more care work, and higher risk of gender-based violence, among others (UN Women, 2020b). A recent projection estimates that due to the damage inflicted by the pandemic globally, 388 million women and girls will be living in extreme poverty in 2022 (compared to 372 million men and boys). But the outlook could be even worse as the “high-damage” scenario projects to 446 million (427 million for men and boys) (UN Women Data Hub, 2022).

## Study Objectives

To create an intersectional evidence base regarding the impact of COVID-19 on gender equality.

To identify fields of action to anchor intersectional and innovative approaches in the work of German DC on gender equality and the COVID-19 recovery.

However, **structural power relations**, such as gender relations, and their effects cannot be considered in isolation. This is emphasized once again by the pandemic. Inequalities based on gender, origin/geography, socio-economic status, age, sexual orientation, and migration experience intersect and interact, influencing how individuals and groups are affected by the COVID-19 pandemic in diverse ways<sup>3</sup>. For instance, women in informal or precarious employment are especially affected by the economic slowdown and lockdowns, as they often lack economic safety nets. Discrimination and systems of inequality based Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity and Expression, and Sex Characteristics (SOGIESC) or disability create significant barriers for queer women or women with disabilities in accessing health services due to mobility limitations and the risk of gender-based violence and discrimination when passing checkpoints during lockdowns. Globally, the unequal distribution of vaccines will result in women in the Global South, especially in rural areas and from marginalized groups, facing the effects of the pandemic over a much longer period. The current aggravation of inequalities will set back international and German development efforts on gender justice and inclusion and requires a systemic transformation of systems of inequality as a response.

In the **2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development**, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is enshrined as a stand-alone goal (Goal 5) with sub-goals such as combating discrimination and violence against women and girls; realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights; combating child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation; and facilitating women’s access to land and assets. An intersectional perspective is indispensable in compliance with the “Leave no one behind” (LNOB) principle of the 2030 Agenda that aims at reducing discrimination and intersecting forms of inequality. These demands are also anchored in the BMZ 2030 reform concept, including in the quality criteria “Human Rights, Gender Equality and Inclusion”. In the context of the Generation Equality Forum, **German DC** has assumed a leading role in the Action Coalition Economic Justice and Rights (AC EJR).

<sup>2</sup> Please see Chapter 1.1 for clarification on definitions, concepts and use of language.

<sup>3</sup> See next chapter for more information.

The upcoming **German G7 presidency in 2022** further creates political momentum to set the subject high on the international agenda. The G7- development policy program emphasizes the importance of prioritizing gender equality in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. After the German Cabinet approved its program for the G7 presidency, BMZ released a statement “As G7 presidency, the German government aims to advance the equality of gender and non-binary persons globally. The impact of the pandemic has undone hard-won gains in recent months. Germany is committed to reversing this trend and will focus on the issues of paid and unpaid care work, equal pay, better education for girls and fair participation of women in leadership positions” (BMZ, 2022). This underlines an important opportunity for German DC to build upon previous efforts and commitments to comprehensively tackle gender-based inequalities, covering a broad range of cross-sectoral development-related gender equality issues and promoting transformative and innovative programs and approaches for the economic empowerment of women internationally. The tension between the transformational aspirations of German DC and the reality of the COVID-19 pandemic underscores the need for intersectional analyses and approaches in order to fully understand the impact of the pandemic on gender relations, to make response and recovery measures inclusive and to enable the transformation of power relations in the long term.

In this context, GIZ commissioned Syspons GmbH to conduct this **research study on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender equality**. However, as recent developments suggest, the pandemic is still ongoing, and its effects will continue to unravel for some time. For those reasons, the study will not only address pandemic recovery in the long term but also responses to the pandemic in the short-term. The following five key areas have been set as the focus of the study in coordination with GIZ and will be explored in the following:



The pandemic has made particularly visible the interconnections of these different fields. In addition, digital solutions are an upcoming trend across all of these areas. Consequently, the interlinkages across these key areas and the cross-cutting theme of digital solutions will be highlighted and indicated visually throughout the study:

- Example of interlinkages between GBV and WEE: 
- Example of a digital approach: 

## 1.1 Definitions & Use of Language

The language we use shapes our perceptions of reality. Understanding the terms and acronyms used in this study is therefore vital to the perspective that this study offers. The following definitions serve to clarify the use of terminologies and concepts in the study. In addition, the chapter highlights how this study approaches the exclusionary aspects of language and its role in reinforcing existing power dynamics.

### Women

We use the term women to refer to persons **self-identifying as women**. The reviewed literature mostly refers to the binary concept of gender. By adopting a non-binary perspective, we understand gender as a spectrum.

### LGBTIQ

We use the term LGBTIQ to refer to lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer persons. In this context, the term aims to capture marginalised groups to whose inclusion this study aims to contribute. While using LGBTIQ as a central term, we recognise both the heterogeneity of marginalised groups both within and beyond the acronym LGBTIQ as well as the contextual nature and variety of identities.

### SOGIESC

We use the term SOGIESC as an additional, more inclusive term to refer to sexual orientation, gender identity and expression and sex characteristics of different persons.

### Gender & Intersectionality

**Gender** is a socially constructed concept which is why distinction should be made between biological sex and social gender identity. Gender roles are socially learned as well as culturally shaped. Thus, gender relations and norms are context-dependent, dynamic and changeable. Gender relations are structural power relations.

The concept of **intersectionality** has its origins in Black Feminism and Critical Race Theory and captures the interconnection or intersection of different marginalizing and inequality-causing structures. The analytical approach of this study follows Kimberlé Crenshaw's understanding of intersectionality and takes variables of social, political, legal and cultural marginalization into account that include gender identity, religion, ethnic or national affiliation, skin color, sexual orientation, disability, as well as age, geographic origin and socio-economic status of a person or group of persons (Crenshaw, 1991). An intersectional approach to gender equality reveals that strong differences in power, status, and experiences of discrimination exist within groups of people. It broadens as well as deepens the focus from gender discrimination alone to capture the various and overlapping roles and responsibilities, positions and living conditions, and needs and interests of people within a gender category, e.g., migrant women or Black women.

### Gender-Transformative Approaches

Gender-transformative change is achieved by approaches that "address the causes of gender-based inequalities and work to transform harmful gender roles, norms, and power relations". In contrast to gender-blind (ignores), gender-aware (acknowledges), and gender-responsive (acknowledges and considers specific gender needs) approaches, gender transformation aims to **tackle the root causes** that perpetuate gender inequality, such as social structures and policies that are legitimized by prevailing social norms (UNFPA et al., 2020).

## Use of Language

In the use of language regarding discrimination based on individual and intersecting forms of social identity, such as gender, there is a risk of essentializing social groups and putting focus on the vulnerability of people rather than on the power structures that cause their experience of discrimination. For example, the predominate use of the term “violence against women and girls” puts the focus on vulnerability of women instead of the primary perpetrators of violence, men. Throughout the study the research team therefore aims to be **mindful** of this fact and emphasize the systems of power that cause the experiences of discrimination and negative impacts of COVID-19 (e.g., “a rise in male violence against women”).

## 1.2 Methodological Approach & Genesis

To meet the study goals, the **methodological approach** included three steps: First, in the **conceptual** phase, the study team conducted a first review of the existing academic as well as grey literature in order to identify the main effects of the pandemic on gender equality and possible interview partners. As a first result, the study team and GIZ agreed on the central thematic areas, sub-themes and key actors. The second phase included **data collection**. Here, interviews and further in-depth desk research were carried out focusing on the following four aspects (1) an intersectional view of the impact of COVID-19 on gender equality, (2) good practices and key experiences of other donors in DC, (3) relevant actors or change agents and (4) potential innovative approaches to strengthening an intersectional perspective in the post-COVID-19 context. Over the course of the study, 16 qualitative interviews with key experts were conducted to complement the obtained information. Here, attention was paid to ensure that the diversity of experts (other donors, partner institutions of German DC, key experts from civil society and activists) as well as diverse geographical regions was represented (see Annex for List of Interviewees). Since the study team followed a multi-stage iterative process, GIZ was engaged in close consultation through Jour Fixes and workshops as well as a mid-term synthesis throughout the data collection. In the **final synthesis** phase, the data from the in-depth literature review and interviews was synthesized and triangulated. In the final phase, the study team placed special emphasis on identifying cross-cutting themes and gender-responsive principles as well as thematic interconnections. Building on the findings, the study team developed recommendations on how German DC actors can increase their contribution to gender equality in an intersectional manner through transformative approaches in the response to the COVID-19 pandemic and in the post-pandemic recovery.

## Structure of the Report

**Chapters 2-6** first present the analysis of the thematic areas that were part of this study and the identified key issues in the respective thematic area. Here, every thematic area will be investigated in the following manner: Each chapter presents an overarching problem analysis, laying out the main impacts of COVID-19, followed by a closer analysis of each key issue. Drawing on the analyses, the chapters present key approaches and solutions from other donors and organizations as well as findings from the literature. Wherever data is available, country specific information and insights are provided.

**Chapter 7** outlines principles for gender-responsive COVID-19 recovery that have been identified as overarching guidelines for responding effectively to the impacts of COVID-19 on gender equality in all thematic areas. Moreover, it comprises the key takeaways and recommendations that can guide German DC in strengthening their intersectional gender-responsive and transformative efforts in responding to and supporting recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic.

## 1.3 Study Limitations

Due to **scope and resource constraints**, this research study faced several **limitations** which should be considered in the interpretation of the findings of the following report. These include, inter alia:

- **The availability and generalizability of and extent to which academic and grey literature could be analyzed.** While a large body of research on the effects of COVID-19 on gender equality was published between 2020 and 2021, an extensive review of literature related to all relevant aspects of the five thematic focus areas was beyond the scope of this study. This affected the extent to which the study could cover all relevant aspects, and a focus on key themes was set in consultation with the GIZ.
- **Challenges in accessing relevant and diverse actors, especially activists and civil society organizations.** Although a broad range of interview partners was reached (see Annex), it was especially challenging for the study team to reach international and country-specific activists and representatives from civil society. Many were not available for an interview, likely due to time constraints and burdens resulting from the pandemic. These challenges affected the selection of interviewees and as such, the study team acknowledges that some perspectives may not be reflected in the study.
- **Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the whole study was conducted remotely**, and interviews were held online using MS Teams. While this approach benefitted the study by facilitating global communication, it also excluded access to people without internet access. Furthermore, this approach limited opportunities for the study team to obtain a more detailed impression of the contexts that the interviewees operate in. As a result, the study team acknowledges that some realities may not be reflected in the study.
- **The short time frame limited the data collection phase.** Data collection took place over the course of just 2 months. Consequently, not all desired interview partners nor all existing research could be accounted for within the short time frame. The shortcomings of this limitation were mitigated by focusing on specific topics in close coordination with GIZ.

# Impact of COVID-19 through an Intersectional Lens

What evidence exists of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender equality, applying an intersectional lens? What are effective and innovative approaches to address adverse effects?

## 2. Women, Peace & Security (WPS)

“Women, Peace and Security” (WPS) refers to the international agenda and framework forged as a result of the adoption of the **United Nations Security Council (UNSC) Resolution 1325** in 2000, which aimed to “apply a gender perspective to international peace operations and security policy that acknowledge women’s and men’s unique needs and experiences of conflict”. It lays out four pillars of action: **prevention**, i.e. prevention of conflict and all forms of violence against women and girls in conflict and post-conflict situations; **participation**, i.e. women’s equal participation and gender equality in peace and security decision-making processes at all levels; **protection**, i.e. women and girls’ protection from all forms of SGBV and the promotion of their rights in conflict situations; and **relief and recovery**, i.e. meeting women’s specific relief needs and strengthening their capacities to act as agents of relief and recovery (Kirby & Shepherd, 2016). Subsequent resolutions have reinforced the need for action in these pillars, but have also highlighted new challenges and additional topics of relevance in the intersection of gender and conflict, including the need to recognize men and boys as victims of SGBV (UNSCR 2106 (2013)), the integration of the WPS agenda with work on Countering Violent Extremism (CVE) and counterterrorism (UNSCR 2242 (2015)) and the elimination and protection from conflict related sexual violence as well as the need for a survivor-centered approach (UNSCR 2467 (2019)).

The **WPS agenda**, developed to implement resolution 1325 and its follow-up resolutions, constitutes a global policy architecture supporting gender equality and is an important reference in the management and resolution of and recovery from violent conflict. Since the adoption of the first resolution, more than 80 governments – as well as organizations such as the EU, AU, ECOWAS, NATO and OSCE – have adopted National Action Plans (NAP) that contain goals and measures for the agenda’s implementation (Women’s International League of Peace and Freedom (WILPF), 2021). From 2021 to 2024, Germany aims to implement its Third National Action Plan (Deutsche Bundesregierung, 2021).

At the core of the agenda lies the recognition that women and marginalized social groups are not only **disproportionately affected** by conflict and in specific ways, such as through sexual and gender-based violence or displacement. They also have traditionally been **underrepresented** in peace processes: Between 1992 and 2019, on average, 13% of negotiators, 4% of signatories and 3% of mediators in major peace processes were women. Peace and security processes, especially formalized processes surrounding securitized high-level brokering, remain deeply masculinized and resistant to debates around women’s right to equal participation (Standfield, 2020). Yet, feminist researchers have long pointed out that conflict resolution and peacebuilding is not limited to formal processes and that women engage in peace activism and conflict resolution in a variety of ways (Tamang, 2020). Women are particularly often engaged in **peacebuilding activities at the grassroots levels**. Furthermore, because of the roles traditionally allocated to them, women tend to have invaluable insights into the impacts of conflict on families and communities as well as knowledge about the steps needed to reconstruct these societal structures.

The COVID-19 pandemic has not only triggered an international health crisis but has **worsened and amplified a number of other crises** that intersect with the health crisis in several complex ways. Termed by some researchers as a “polyandemic”, the COVID-19 pandemic has brought in its wake a **food security crisis, a crisis of inequality, worsening authoritarianism and an increase in violence** both in the domestic and in the public sphere (Eisentraut et al., 2020). As interview partners from humanitarian organizations highlighted, the economic devasta-

tion brought about by the pandemic and rising inflation also worsened the situation of conflict-affected populations, further reducing their resilience.

The destabilizing effects of these intersecting crises have hit countries that had **already been affected by fragility and conflict** hardest, further constraining their limited ability to provide basic services to their citizens. Research commissioned by UN Women showed that “on average, conflict-affected countries enacted half as many social protection measures in 2020 (4 policies on average) as countries that are not classified as conflict-affected (which enacted 8 such policies on average)” thereby exacerbating the adverse effects of the pandemic by failing to provide sufficient social safety nets (UN Women, 2021f). Despite calls by several women-led peacebuilding NGOs, and later the UN Secretary-General, for a global ceasefire to allow for a public health and humanitarian response to the pandemic, little has changed in the behavior of conflict parties. This means that access to hard-to-reach populations and areas marked by conflict, displacement and natural disasters remain difficult or have worsened (J. Brown et al., 2020).

Migrants, refugees, and other people in **contexts of forced displacement** are particularly exposed and vulnerable to these developments. For instance, displaced populations are often served by weak, fragmented and donor-dependent health systems that were unprepared for the challenges of a highly contagious viral pandemic (Zard et al., 2021). Recent data from IOM for the MENA region suggests that the level of disruption induced by COVID-19 on migrants and displaced persons’ access to basic services such as water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH), education, labour markets and basic goods is disproportionate compared to the rest of the population. These disruptions are especially significant in **humanitarian settings** (IOM, 2021). Studies specifically concerning Iran, Afghanistan, and Lebanon, echo these findings and highlight that they apply to both internally displaced persons and refugees (Abbasi-Shavazi, 2021; Hajjar & Abu-Sittah, 2021). In addition to the higher risk of infection and illness, the mobility of IDPs and refugees has also been restricted, further limiting their capacities to adapt to the crisis. For instance, travel restrictions such as border closures, strict border management and flight cancellations, both between and within countries, have put a temporary halt to the resettlement of many refugees and IDPs. Moreover, **restricted mobility and the pandemic-related economic recession** have severely limited refugees’ and IDPs’ access to employment and income-generating opportunities, with women, youth, irregular migrants, recently arrived migrants, migrants who are in transit and returnees to countries of origin being most vulnerable to employment loss (IOM 2021). Evidence suggests that with the loss of income, refugees and IDPs either reduce their consumption – with devastating effects on their food security and nutrition –, sell their assets, or are compelled to accept exploitative work conditions (ibid, [Hajjar & Abu-Sittah, 2021](#)). While the rates of sexual and gender-based violence increased around the globe as a consequence of the pandemic, several studies show that the risk is particularly high in the context of IDP and refugee camps, where displaced populations are forced to “lock down” in overcrowded conditions ([Refugees International, 2020](#), [IOM 2021](#)).

Despite the disproportionate impact of the pandemic on refugees and IDPs, and among them particularly women, the interests and perspectives of those most affected continue to be **excluded from decisions** that directly affect them. Women’s inclusion in humanitarian decision making declined with the onset of the pandemic according to UNHCR data on leadership in refugee and IDP settings (United Nations Security Council, 2021). At the same time, a review of the inclusion of refugee-led organizations in humanitarian responses helmed by international organizations shows that “refugee-led organizations, even those with proven capacity to manage donor funds and mount effective responses, are not being included in the response to COVID-19 in a direct, meaningful, and substantive way” (Alio et al., 2020).

Similarly, representation and inclusion in peace processes were both negatively impacted by the pandemic. As governments directed much of their scarce resources to the pandemic response, **progress on the implementation of peace agreements stalled** and fighting re-erupted in some contexts (Joshi et al., 2020). Simultaneously,

**ongoing peace processes were impeded by pandemic guidelines**, making interpersonal meetings difficult and leading to a transfer of some negotiation formats online. This had mixed effects on their inclusivity, with technology acting as a barrier or an entry point depending on the context (International Alert, 2020).



Yet, the peace and security dimensions of COVID-19 are not just marked by the effects of the pandemic response but also by the nature of the response that many governments chose. Across the globe, numerous governments reacted to the outbreak of the virus with increased **militarization and violent imposition of lockdowns and quarantines**, rather than measures of social protection and a bolstering of health and welfare infrastructure (Enloe, 2020). While the social, health, economic and protection needs of millions of citizens increased rapidly amidst the crises, military spending outweighed pandemic-related health spending around the globe and particularly in fragile and conflict-affected states (Silva et al., 2021). Militaries and security sectors in Iran, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Thailand, India, China, the Philippines and countless other countries responded with draconian measures to the pandemic (Chen, 2012; Golafshar, 2020; Levine & Manderson, 2020; UN Women, 2020). Among these measures were the declaration of martial law, the increase in military presence and the violent imposition of lockdowns and curfews. This further constrained women in conflict zones to their homes, as leaving the house became more dangerous than before. Migrant women without the needed identification and living alone abroad were particularly affected, facing challenges to move freely or to reconnect to their families. At the same time, this increased exposure to violence, in particular sexual and gender-based violence in the domestic sphere, as outlined in the Chapter 5.1 on GBV. Among those affected by enhanced state violence, human rights activists, women human rights defenders and members of ethnic and religious minority groups reported being particularly targeted by state forces as part of the imposition of COVID-measures. Examples include Sri Lanka and Bangladesh, where activist perceived the state forces' imposition of pandemic measures as censorship and surveillance under the pretense of public health (Antelava, 2021).

In the meantime, donor states and organizations' efforts to help alleviate the negative impacts of the pandemic and its accompanying crises in partner countries have failed to reach expectations. As one report highlighted, in 2020, "Germany [was] spending more money on protecting its citizens from the socio-economic shock of the pandemic than the EU initially pledged in coronavirus support for the entirety of its partner countries" (Eisenbraut et al., 2020, p. 17). Since the beginning of 2021, global inequality in access to vaccines has further constrained the possibilities of pandemic recovery in low-income and conflict-affected countries, especially in the context of forced displacement, where vaccination access is particularly low (Zard et al., 2021). As vaccines remain largely unavailable, conflict-affected and forcibly displaced populations remain at higher risk of infection. Furthermore, because of this, people in these settings, especially women, remain subject to the detrimental social and economic effects of the pandemic, including increases in GBV or loss of income, for longer periods of time. (Drexler, 2021; Oehler & Vega, 2021). As interview partners noted, these **patterns of underfunding and inequality in resources** with regard to the pandemic response echo longstanding civil society criticism of a **lack of funding for the WPS agenda** worldwide. Moreover, interviewees observed competing issues when it came to distributing the already limited funds that were available for DC and humanitarian response: Whilst a prioritization of health spending was understandable given the extent of the crisis, it further limited the funding available to activists, peacebuilders and humanitarian first responders to conflict and violence, particularly on a community level.



In light of the **increase of authoritarianism and violent state repression** in the response to the pandemic, a second key issue analyzed in the following brief is the protection of women human rights defenders. Given the importance of increased sexual and gender-based violence among the key effects of the pandemic, a separate issue brief is dedicated exclusively to this topic. For the analysis of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the issues represented in the WPS agenda, the following analysis will focus on three key issues that are especially relevant to a gender-transformative COVID-19 response and recovery:

- Participation of Marginalized Groups in Conflict Prevention, Conflict Resolution & Peace Consolidation
- Protection of Women Peacebuilders & Human Rights Defenders
- Preventing & Countering Violent Extremism

## 2.1 Participation of Marginalized Groups in Conflict Prevention, Conflict Resolution & Peace Consolidation

The analysis of the situation of peacebuilders from marginalized groups amidst the coronavirus pandemic reveals both newly arising challenges and opportunities and underlines how factors such as technology can act as facilitators of inclusion and exclusion at the same time.

### 2.1.1 Problem Analysis

Looking at the general **trends of participation among women and marginalized groups in high-level peace and reconciliation processes**, the years since the outbreak of the pandemic have shown regress or, at best, stagnation. According to the United Nations Secretary-General, among the participants in UN-led or co-led peace processes, only 23% were women (United Nations Security Council, 2021, para. 5). In 2020, women made up between 0 and 20% of participants in peace processes in Afghanistan, Libya and Yemen (Council on Foreign Relations, 2021). While the participation in semi-formal negotiations (otherwise known as track 1.5 or track 2 processes) is more difficult to measure, participation data on public administration hints at low involvement: In fragile and conflict-affected countries, women's representation averaged at 23%, less than half of the global average (United Nations Security Council, 2021, para. 51). Looking at the inclusion of marginalized groups such as **persons with disabilities (PWD) or persons with diverse SOGIESC**, data becomes even more sparse and unreliable: No systematic assessment of their representation in formalized peace processes is available, despite clear indications that they are among the most vulnerable groups in situations of conflict and humanitarian crisis, and that their perspectives can make a critical impact in informing inclusive relief and reconciliation efforts (Conciliation Resources, 2021; Ashe, 2018).

Qualitative data shows that the **particular challenges posed by the pandemic to peace processes** had mixed implications for their inclusivity. In interviews, stakeholders engaged in supporting women's access to peace processes explained that previous patterns of exclusion of women and marginalized groups from high-level negotiations remained unchanged if those talks took place virtually. Yet, whereas before the pandemic, excluded groups had used a wide range of creative methods to provide their input to negotiations despite not being formally invited – from distributing flyers to delegates to lobbying them on their way to the venue of the talks to mass action on the streets or outside the venue (Paffenholz et al., 2016) – the **accessibility of virtual negotiations is greatly reduced** for informal lobbying methods, according to one interviewee.



These challenges notwithstanding, informants in interviews also highlighted that **technology** allowed for creative, new ways to gauge input from otherwise excluded groups on a large scale. Examples included mass consultation tools analyzed by artificial intelligence and low-threshold formats such as large WhatsApp groups in which people were encouraged to provide their input. It remains unclear, however, to what degree the results of these consultations informed formal talks. The literature also shows that **informal peace processes** on sub-national or intercommunity levels benefited in some instances from a shift to online spaces, making them cheaper and better accessible to remotely located participants. Anecdotal evidence from the South Caucasus indicated that the virtual nature of intercommunity talks also made them more participatory as they lacked a formal agenda and facilitation, ultimately making them more successful in the eyes of the organizers (Kassoumeh, 2020). Throughout the discussion of technological approaches to peacebuilding, interviewees noted that a lack of **connectivity and access to technology** remained important barriers. It was further noted that online formats excluded groups that were unwilling to connect virtually, distrustful of technology, or limited in their (digital) literacy. Yet overall, the interviews highlighted a high willingness and ability of peacebuilders, especially women, to learn and

use technological means to support their peacebuilding work, whether on community, semi-formal or formalized levels of a peace process.



Among the barriers to participation in peacebuilding and post-conflict recovery that were amplified by the pandemic was also the **“double” or even “triple” burden of economic and social responsibility** imposed on women and other groups affected by inequality. While social protection and economic and financial stability are generally low in conflict-affected and fragile contexts, this is especially true for women, particularly those with a lack of formal employment. In these contexts, only 44% of women (and 66% of men) are in formal employment, and most of them in agricultural sectors with low wages and a low rate of social and legal protection (Klugman & Quek, 2018). The economic recession caused by the pandemic and, in many cases, the violent crack-down of security forces on public spaces such as markets have heightened economic pressures on people in informal working conditions, in particular women, children, migrant workers, sex workers, street vendors and unhoused people (see chapter 3). For women and girls, these factors are coupled with an increase in care work either directly resulting from coronavirus infections of people in their care or from the closure of schools and childcare facilities. Other factors, such as worsening food security and increasing conflict-related gender-based violence, add to this.

Overall, these compounding and increasing economic, social and conflict-related pressures on women in conflict zones reduce their capacity to respond to the various overlapping crises taking place at the same time. As UN Women notes, “In response to COVID-19, only three fragile countries adopted measures to support unpaid care work. There is a continued expectation that **women’s care work is the all-catching safety net that can absorb the costs of wars, disasters, or pandemics** in detriment of women’s own economic aspirations or participation in public life” (UN Women, 2021f).

## 2.1.2 Approaches

### Strengthening activists and international facilitators and mediators



One key method of working on participation under pandemic conditions has been the **use of digital technologies**. In this context, the pandemic has accelerated the already growing trend of awarding more attention and use to digital technologies in the context of peacebuilding. For instance, various organizations have released digital toolkits for peacemakers and mediators, describing methods that international facilitators can apply to positively harness technology in their work (see for instance (UN DPPA & HD Center, 2020). While these approaches focus on the international facilitators and not marginalized communities themselves, they aim to make the international efforts more attuned to the needs and perspectives of affected communities, including through analyses of social media narratives to understand the perspectives of broad segments of the population. Some measures, such as the **Digital Inclusion Fund**, have focused more directly on servicing communities and supporting them in using digital means in their peacebuilding work. These approaches should be further strengthened in order to break down barriers for community peacebuilders and especially women peacebuilders to meaningfully participate in mediation and peacebuilding processes.

### Facilitating the inclusion of marginalized groups at the local level

Several interviewees highlighted that as formal international peace processes stalled or moved to exclusive formats, peacebuilding work continued at the local level. In connecting and supporting these efforts under lockdown conditions, digital connections were highlighted as extremely important. At the same time, a common challenge in the participation at the local level, was the lack of connectivity and access to digital technologies. One respondent reported that temporary mobile and satellite connections funded by international facilitators of the peace processes were used to allow participation from groups in crisis regions with unreliable connectivity but noted that such solutions were only temporary and lacked long-term funding. Other interviewees echoed that **support in the**

**form of mobile data bundles and increased connectivity** would have a crucial impact on their work geared towards broadening participation in peace and reconciliation processes but was systematically lacking. For example, a woman peacebuilder from Sri Lanka described an intricate system of WhatsApp chat groups for women leaders within each district in the country and across districts. Groups were used for knowledge and information exchange on what was happening in the respective communities, promoting positive messages to counter hate speech, and sharing warnings about emerging violence, and were regarded as a highly effective tool.

### Building on low-threshold and user-friendly digital solutions

While digitalization efforts for underserved communities are not strictly speaking an intersectional approach, they are a key condition for facilitating the inclusion and empowerment of the grassroots level and of representatives of marginalized communities in peacebuilding efforts. In line with intersectional principles of **shifting agency and power directly to communities** and limiting their dependency on hierarchical, top-down distribution of resources, empowerment measures at the local level are of key importance. As the interviews showed, low-threshold measures such as WhatsApp consultations for civil society, remote communities, and marginalized groups, proved to be highly effective in harnessing perspectives, such as interests and opinions from the local level and from diverse communities, that could inform the process on other levels. Moreover, as the research by Kassoumeh (2020) highlighted, these tools were also used directly by the communities themselves to exchange with other groups, such as in the cross-border chat groups in the South Caucasus. Donors should therefore make use of the **potential of low-threshold digital formats to promote inclusiveness** in peace processes and empower local peacebuilding, while combining such measures with the **provision of digital technologies, connectivity, or data bundles** to marginalized or disenfranchised groups.

#### Digital Inclusion Fund

In 2020, Shift Power for Peace, a collaboration between Peace Direct, Humanity United and Conducive Space for Peace launched this fund to support local communities across the world, with funding to pivot their work online. Digital Inclusion for Peace' offered digital support to peacebuilders by inviting them to apply for small grants through a 'Digital Inclusion Fund' to purchase tech equipment and internet access; to take free online courses in 'digital peacebuilding', and to connect with other peacebuilders on a purpose-built online platform for knowledge-sharing (Conducive Space for Peace et al., 2021).

Examples for innovative approaches in this area include the **Digital Inclusion Fund** described above, as well as apps such as **Youth Acts developed by the Inclusive Violence and Crime Prevention Programme (VCP) project by GIZ in South Africa**. The project, geared towards enabling communities to act on violence prevention, developed the app to connect youth volunteers active and assist their project management, knowledge exchange and reporting. What is notable about this app is its integration with WhatsApp groups that were already being used by the participants (GIZ, 2020, p. 77). As the interviews for this study have shown, easily accessible technologies such as WhatsApp, while controversial in terms of privacy and the spread of misinformation, are an integral part of the work of many local activists and communities and cannot easily be replaced. The emphasis should therefore be on efforts that tie in and **build on technologies already used by the target groups** and focusing on supporting them in the use of these means, rather than aiming to change their manner of communication.

## 2.2 Protection of Women Peacebuilders & Human Rights Defenders

While women tend to face a double or triple burden of economic, social, and conflict-related pressures as described above, interviewees and reports by international organizations and NGOs also note this as an opportunity for trust- and constituency-building, rather than just a challenge. At the same time, women peacebuilders and women human rights defenders – whom the WPS agenda has been accused of not protecting enough (Dwyer,

2020) – face a multitude of growing threats and impediments to their work, some of which have worsened as a consequence of the pandemic.<sup>4</sup>

## 2.2.1 Problem Analysis

Interview partners involved in supporting women peacebuilders note that women peacebuilders have actively taken on the role of **first responders to the pandemic** in many contexts, which has improved their standing in communities and increased the trust placed in them by different actors. Yet this has also presented them with new challenges. One peacebuilder from Yemen described how she and her organization used their presence and networks in several areas of the country to implement awareness-raising measures, train medics, support the equipment of hospitals and the artisanal production of masks and soap by women’s cooperatives, and distribute food supplies. A peace and reconciliation activist from Sri Lanka described how women leaders used smartphones and telecommunication to inform communities about food distribution and mobile banking, provided vulnerable populations with their prescribed medication and led information campaigns about hygiene and vaccinations. While in Yemen, this activism was described as shouldering the responsibility because no one else – most notably not the government nor armed groups controlling the territory – was taking initiative, leaving a vacuum in service provision. In Sri Lanka, the aforementioned efforts by women leaders were described as working in support of what the government was doing and helping specially to inform and service communities that were difficult to reach with messages and services. The described activities took place at various levels of intervention and with varying degrees of formalization, from NGOs operating nation-wide to networks of women community leaders to individual women taking responsibility in their local community.

In describing these activities, activists highlighted that their **pandemic response was intricately connected to their humanitarian, peacebuilding and reconciliation activism**. They emphasized that the supply of food, water and healthcare were critical to holding the fabric of society together and preventing violence. Additionally, they provided several examples of how the same women that were involved in pandemic relief efforts in their communities also used their position to spread messages of de-escalation, prevent hate speech, counter misinformation and advocate for human rights. Regarding the reactions to the pandemic relief efforts led by women, interviews highlighted that this increased the support and trust placed in them by their communities. In one example from Yemen, the support of medical supplies by a women’s organization to a hospital in a rebel-controlled area led to a positive response by the group, which had previously refused to speak to women leaders.

Yet, an organization with insights into different contexts observed that while the communities’ responses were usually positive, a scaling up of efforts to the **national level proved more difficult** as they were confronted with varying self-interests of national actors as well as corruption or predatory behavior by governments or extremist groups. The general understanding emerging from interviews was that efforts could be set in motion on the local

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<sup>4</sup> The question of what constitutes “peacebuilding” as an activity has long been the subject of significant contestation (UN Peacebuilding Support Office, 2010) and, at times, gatekeeping by those in favor of a narrow definition of peace and security. In the context of women’s organizations, some have gone so far as to criticize an inflationary use of the term to describe a wide range of activities because “foreign donors have created a demand for women’s peacebuilding organizations, which encourages women’s grassroots organizations to rebrand their activities as peacebuilding” (Zürcher et al., 2021). Whilst recognizing the analytical advantages that might arise from a narrow definition of peacebuilding, the authors of this study choose to apply a wider definition of peacebuilding to prioritize the lived, gendered, racialised, and undoubtedly conceptually messy experiences of insecurity and peacebuilding at the local level over universalised conceptualizations driven by international actors (see also (Hudson, 2021). Our definition of peacebuilding therefore encompasses any activity that seeks to address the underlying causes of conflict, help people to resolve their differences peacefully and lay the foundations to prevent future violence. As laid out in the following paragraphs, both the authors of the study and the peacebuilders interviewed recognize that peacebuilding is intricately connected to and cannot always be neatly conceptually separated from the provision of humanitarian relief and measures aimed at the recovery of a society from conflict (see also (True & Hewitt, 2019).

level but would stagnate whenever the national level became involved. Furthermore, interviews also highlighted logistical and financial difficulties that had to be overcome in leading relief efforts. The COVID-19 pandemic increased the demand for these relief efforts while budgets did not expand accordingly. The overwhelming response emerging in interviews was that while international organizations seemed paralyzed in their response and women's organizations took the lead, this did not translate into a transfer of funds to those leading efforts. This aspect will be further discussed in the "approaches" section below.



Another downside to the increased visibility of women activists – whether for human rights, peace, or both – is their increased **exposure to violence and threats**, as the women challenge predatory behavior, abuses of power, narratives in favor of war and, by virtue of their existence and activism, put into question patriarchal systems of oppression and silencing. While their actions proved to be highly effective and necessary, they are often not recognized by official entities, leaving women human rights defenders and peacebuilders with little in the way of protection. A study by the International Civil Society Action Network (ICAN) links the analysis of threats to women peacebuilders to feminist dimensions of security, resulting in a mapping of threats at the personal, organizational, and environmental level, and taking on physical, emotional, political, economic and spiritual dimensions (Holmes et al., 2020). The study further notes that the threats are "gendered in nature [...as] defamation and harassment are more likely to take on sexual overtones, such as accusations of promiscuity or threats of rape, and to target children and other family members" (ibid, p. 8). These threats therefore often do not only affect the women themselves, but also target their families, colleagues and communities. As the report also highlights, the threats compound in the cases of women who also belong to other marginalized groups, be they ethnic, religious or sexual minorities.

Although killings of human rights defenders represent only the gravest form of these different threats and are therefore a limited indicator, the trends in the data are worrying. Although reliable data is sparse and underreporting likely, the UN OHCHR reported 35 cases of **killings of women human rights defenders, journalists, and trade unionists** in seven conflict-affected countries in 2020. This surpasses already record-breaking numbers in the preceding years (United Nations Security Council, 2021). While data for 2021 has not yet been released, the horrific killings of women activists in the wake of the **Taliban takeover** in Afghanistan alone will likely surpass the 2020 numbers. Overall, the OHCHR describes the situation of women human rights defenders and peacebuilders as "vastly worse" than in previous years (UN, 2022).

## 2.2.2 Approaches

### Increasing flexible, long-term and core funding to women's organizations

Considering best practices for supporting women peacebuilders in their work, both research and interviews overwhelmingly pointed to **flexible, long-term and core funding to women's organizations**, especially those working at local and community levels. Interviewees from different contexts highlighted that when their responsibilities increased at the onset of the pandemic, their additional burden of fundraising and advocacy also increased. In this situation, receiving quick funding – even with comparatively small grants of 10-100.00 euros – was transformative for their work. Sources of this funding included NGOs operating on an international scale, as well as diaspora actors and select donor states.

Interviewees further highlighted that in crisis contexts, a **flexibility in the use of funds** – within the boundaries of their mandate – was essential, as conflict developments, pushbacks against their activism and other intervening crises can upset previously made budgeting plans and make it difficult to follow detailed reporting requirements. Experts and activists alike highlighted **long-term core funding to local organizations** as one option and **the funding through intermediaries** with low bureaucratic requirements as another option to reconcile donors' reporting requirements with the realities of peacebuilding work in crisis zones. With regard to the latter, research

has highlighted the need for creating standards and accountability for authentic partnership with local organizations based on their needs whenever funding through international bodies or INGOs (Kantowitz, 2021). Introducing flexibility as a core funding principle has also been highlighted as a recognition of the local organization's agency and expertise in determining what the key priorities of their constituents are, which "might be vastly different from the singular priorities that donors might suggest" (Kagal & Latchford, 2020). Fostering such approaches can be a key vehicle for actors of German DC to shift power and resources to activists and grassroots organizations, representing needs and interests of marginalized communities.

The interconnectedness of pandemic relief and peacebuilding work noted by interviewees also echoes insights from research that highlights **participatory funding across thematic areas** that leave decisions on prioritization to the local organization as an important principle in funding local peacebuilders. From the same research also emerges the idea to fund **people instead of projects**. It is argued that this would give recipients leeway to develop a mix between "urgent needs, entrepreneurial and innovative ideas and those that build long term infrastructure for the movement and ecosystem of peacebuilding organizations" (Kantowitz, 2021).

An example of an innovative approach in this area is the **Innovative Peace Fund** of the International Civil Society Action Network, an independent, multi-donor, global grant making mechanism dedicated to providing financial support and technical assistance to women-led peacebuilding organizations in countries affected by violent conflict, extremism and militarism. Through the IPF, ICAN offers a solution to donors who have the resources but lack the capacity to manage small- and medium-sized grants (ICAN, o. J.). The German Federal Foreign Office is among the donors. Another example is the **FRIDA Fund for young**

#### Afghan Solidarity Fund

In December 2021, Peace Direct launched this fund aimed to support local networks in 5 provinces. The fund has been set up by Peace Direct in partnership with Equality for Peace and Democracy (EPD), a Kabul-based non-profit, non-governmental organization. It delivers projects to support and empower women and young people in communities across Afghanistan and to support local civil society organizations in identifying the root causes of the issues and develop locally led peacebuilding efforts (PeaceDirect, 2021). While the outcome of the fund cannot be determined yet, it provides an example for the growing recognition of the need to develop new funding models that can cater directly to local needs.

**feminists**, a fund run by young feminists to support and establish other emerging feminist organizations, collectives and movements. While the fund is not specifically centred on peace and security, many of its grantee partners focus on matters of violence prevention, community-building, peacebuilding, and promoting social justice in conflict-affected settings. At the core of FRIDA's operation is their belief in "the collective power of young feminists to lead and transform their own communities" (FRIDA, 2022).

The intersectional potential of **direct, long-term and flexible funding to women's organizations** lies in these groups' proximity to and expertise on the most vulnerable communities in the contexts that they operate in. Several of these organizations are run directly 'by and for' the communities that they serve, while others have built efficient networks that connect them to representatives of these communities in all their diversity, allowing these organizations to place the needs of marginalized people at the centre of their work. As research has highlighted, the funding of by-and-for-organizations can also unlock a transformative potential: "it is in these (often) small spaces of activism, re-visioning, and resistance that transformative change begins. Such organisations embrace inherently political, long term, messy, and non-linear processes of development, and recognise this as crucial for the achievement of sustainable change in women's lives" (Kagal & Latchford, 2020).

#### Providing non-financial support for women peacebuilders & human rights defenders

When asked about ways to support their work beyond funding, a key aspect mentioned by the interviewed peacebuilders and activists was the inclusion and **participation of local actors in all stages of decision-making**, in particular in conflict zones. While not an innovative approach per se, the frequent and emphatic mention of this

aspect also echoes the opinion voiced in interviews that all the necessary approaches are already known, but that political will on the part of donors to implement them is lacking. Interviewees active in supporting women's peacebuilding activities also noted the beneficial effects of virtual spaces for networking between women from different contexts, which until recently had seldom taken place in online formats and thus had restricted participation. Given the difficulties encountered whenever projects were scaled up to the national level, interviewees suggested that rather than a scaling up, the approach should be a "scaling across" that can connect different local actors across the country in their efforts. Therefore, initiatives aimed at facilitating **connection, solidarity and knowledge-sharing** between women peacebuilders were highlighted as important.



A growing number of civil society-led **networks aim to forge connection and exchange between women peacebuilders** across the globe. Examples include the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security, 2020) and the Women's Alliance for Security Leadership (ICAN, 2021). Several networks of women mediators also aim to establish connection between women peacebuilders in internationalized processes and grassroots organizers, among them the members of the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP, 2020). One of their members, *FemWise-Africa*, receives technical support through the GIZ project "Support to the African Union for the Operationalisation of The African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA)". Similarly, the project "Promoting women's participation in peace processes in the Middle East" implemented by UN Women in cooperation with GIZ includes a component on transnational exchange and experience-sharing, including through digital toolkits. The transformative and intersectional potential of these networks lies not in the capacity-building or financial support that might be provided through them, although these might be welcome and helpful to participants. Rather, the potential of these networks lies in the spaces that they facilitate for peer-to-peer support and solidarity, for the strengthening of coalitions for change, activism, resistance and for facilitating bottom-up and South-to-South approaches to knowledge exchange.

Interviewees further welcomed opportunities that linked them directly to political decision-makers, such as consultations with ministers or ambassadors to the UNSC. Yet, they highlighted those consultations were insufficient if the political will to follow up on their suggestion was lacking. Furthermore, the abovementioned study on threats to women peacebuilders notes that even when decision-makers are willing to consult with them, women peacebuilders are rarely granted compensation, protection or support in accessing these consultation formats: "We would argue that in a world where an estimated \$180 billion is spent on private security annually, [...] a portion of that should be reallocated by governments to provide for the security needs of women peacebuilders to enable them to contribute to peace and security decision-making, both when travelling to give their valuable insights and expertise—almost always without remuneration—as well as when operating locally (Holmes et al, 2020, p. 16).

### Ensuring the protection of women activists and peacebuilders

Regarding the **protection of women activists and peacebuilders** in particular, the abovementioned study highlights four key areas of action, the result of an overview of research and a consultation process with activists and peacebuilders: (1) Building a Legal and Political Safety Net; (2) Prevention, Mitigation and Response to Threats to Women Peacebuilders on the Ground; (3) Security for Women Peacebuilders at the Peace Table and in International Spaces and (4) Emergency Relocation and Assistance for Women Peacebuilders in case of acute threats (Holmes et al., 2020). . In interviews, women activists who had previously been forced into exile because of their activism highlighted the urgency of **including a protection budget line** in any project geared towards promoting women peacebuilders. Noting that this aspect was often forgotten, they described women in urgent situations of threat being left alone as no funding for emergency relocation, visas, or short-term personal emergency funding was available. Research on funding local peacebuilders also suggests that personal risks should be included in the planning and budgeting from the onset (Kantowitz, 2021). The absence of safety and protection provisions for activists is a key impediment to their work, effectively forcing them to negotiate their own physical and mental wellbeing with their transformative and intersectional objectives. Any support for activists and peacebuilders that insufficiently accounts for their safety therefore contradicts its own principles, as the protection and empowerment of the most vulnerable is front and center in an intersectional approach.

The combination of protection-related and non-financial support by international donors lies in **political support** of women activists and peacebuilders vis-à-vis their governments. Aside from direct consultations with donors and their inclusion in negotiations, as outlined above, this can also mean raising issues concerning their protection in government consultations. A coordinated approach whereby a government explicitly expresses political support for activists exposed to an increased threat level has the potential to contribute to both sensitize governments to their protection and prevent abuse by state forces themselves, given an increased international attention. However, it is crucial to note that singling out individual activists in front of their governments can draw unwanted attention to them, and it needs to be ensured that they are not put at risk by **backfiring** political initiatives.



Examples of **innovative approaches in this area** include the following. The Peace Fund *Vivir La Paz* by GIZ Colombia has developed an app for the protection of peace activists. Tailored more broadly to Human Rights Defenders are a number of capacity-building projects aimed at strengthening activists, communities and civil society organizations in recognizing and analyzing the threats they face as well as taking appropriate measures of self-protection. Another noteworthy approach is the facilitation of protection networks between human rights defenders and support organizations and institutions on the local, national or international level. The networks are aimed at allowing the coordination of capacities to respond to specific needs such as technical advice, legal support, advocacy, economic support, among other issues. Examples for organizations working in this area are **Protection International** and **Peace Brigades International**, the latter of which is also part of the Civil Peace Service (ZFD) funded by German DC. These approaches are not included due to their innovation per se, but for the potential that they offer when transferred from working with human rights defenders to projects that work with women peacebuilders.

### App Ojo to protect activists

The Peace Fund *Vivir La Paz* by GIZ Colombia has developed an app for the protection of peace activists. The objective of the app Ojo is to create a network or a 'private community' of peace activists to discuss possible threats, attacks and human rights violations. This enables vulnerable people to be notified of the level of violence in their immediate environment and across the country and to play an active role in mutual protection (GIZ, 2020).

## 2.3 Preventing & Countering Violent Extremism

Violent extremism and terrorism are global and complex, multi-faceted challenges to international security and to WPS in particular. The adoption by the Security Council of resolution 2242 (2015) has called for the integration of the WPS agenda with efforts to counter violent extremism and terrorism. Both violent extremism itself and measures aimed at preventing and countering violent extremism (PVE/CVE) have **gendered implications**. Recent research, however, has noted a persisting misunderstanding of women in PVE/CVE programming, most notably by including them primarily as either potential agents of (peaceful) anti-extremist messaging or as coerced followers of their male relatives who engage in violent extremism and thus as taking on supporting roles within extremist groups. Neither of these stereotypes takes into account women's prominent and significant roles as fighters, perpetrators of violence, and recruiters for extremist groups and their agency in choosing these roles deliberately (Donnelly, 2021).

### 2.3.1 Problem Analysis

A first notable effect of the pandemic on violent extremism arose from the reduction of international presence in conflict zones. When COVID-19 first hit, stabilization activities were stopped or reduced, and **international organizations** in many cases withdrew their international staff from crisis zones. In many conflict-affected countries, peacebuilding and development initiatives contribute significantly to the stabilization and prevention of violent extremism (UNITAR, o. J.). Halted presence due to COVID-19 created a **vacuum that violent groups were able to**

**fill**, e.g., as it was the case with the Taliban in Afghanistan. Temporarily, when COVID-19 began to spread, the Taliban reduced their conflict activities. However, instead of maintaining this trajectory, the group has used the power vacuum created by COVID-19 to build up its support base and reputation among local civilians. Similarly, reports from Libya, Somalia, Iraq, and Lebanon indicate that extremist groups have strategically used the pandemic to garner the support of the population by providing some form of public health response or social services (J. Brown et al., 2020). Overall, there is overwhelming evidence for a worldwide increase in violence by extremist armed groups, as shown for instance by a 43% increase in militant Islamist group violence in Africa in 2020 (Africa Center, 2021). It should be noted in this regard, however, that evidence differs by proximity to conflict zones. In contrast to areas with a significant presence of extremist groups, data by the UNSC Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (UNSC CTED) suggests that in non-conflict zones, pandemic response measures such as travel restrictions and quarantines seem to have limited the opportunities for extremist groups to conduct activities such as attacks (CTED, 2021).

Assistance and the cooperation with **local forces**, which is seen as an important pillar of CVE, were reduced or stopped, including training initiatives and capacity building of local security forces. This may severely affect the capacities of local security forces in the fight against terrorism such as ISIL/Da'esh (UNITAR, o. J.). Women peacebuilders have long been at the forefront of preventing violent extremism and interviewees underline **the crucial role of women peacebuilders** at the local level in warning about rising violent extremism and also mobilizing in civil society organizations to prevent and counter its spread (ICAN & UNDP, 2019a). However, during the pandemic, women peacebuilders were sometimes the only ones left on the ground, carrying even more responsibilities and becoming more exposed to risks and violence, according to an interviewee engaged in peacebuilding. Some studies suggest that **preventive COVID-19 lockdown measures** backfire in regard to CVE. A UNDP report indicates that law enforcement approaches limiting fundamental rights and freedoms, as well as (local) authorities forcefully imposing COVID-19 measures may result in further tension and disfranchisement of individuals and parts of the population in the Lake Chad Basin (UNDP, 2021a).



Counter-terrorism laws and operations continue to **compromise the rights and peacebuilding work of women activists**, whether intentionally or not. Counter-terrorism agendas have been used to justify heavy-handed crackdowns on civil society, including women's rights activists. In particular, human rights abuses are being committed in the name of counterterrorism, exposing women and girls to increased insecurity and violence. For instance, participants in a civil society consultation led by UN WOMEN and UNSC CTED highlighted that "current CT/PVE strategies tend to be "reactive", favouring militarized and criminal justice approaches that often violate human rights, over human-rights based responses that should be at the core of any CT/ PVE strategy" and that "the securitization and militarization of civic spaces is affecting civil liberties, freedom of speech and of movement in many areas [...] [and often] involve normalizing the use of force and violence and idealizing violent masculinities and can lead to violent acts and human rights violations against women" (UN Women, UN CCT, et al., 2021, S. 14). An interviewed woman peacebuilder reported high GBV in Iraq from both sides of conflicted parties (ISIS and the forces counter-ISIS). Moreover, recent research has found that **gender power structures and cultural narratives that normalize gender-based violence also contribute to violent conflict and extremism**, proving that the prevalence of SGBV can actually serve as a predictive indicator for incidents of violent extremism and terrorism (K. Brown et al., 2020).



For example, evidence on the African continent describes how the COVID-19 pandemic was quite rapidly creating an **enabling environment** for targeting individuals to join violent networks. Terrorist groups took advantage of the distrust in the authorities and development actors on an ideological level and were reaching out to individuals and social groups that felt marginalized by the national and international system. Against the backdrop of economic depression due to the COVID-19 pandemic, school closure and high unemployment rates among young Africans have been identified as a pull factor for recruitment by, e.g. the Somalia-based al-Shabaab network (Wilson Center, 2021). In the context of Libya, research suggests that the **higher vulnerability of youth** to radicalization might be exacerbated by the pandemic, as tribal elders, who have counteracted recruitment tactics through traditional leadership, are more threatened by severe illness or death through

coronavirus (Mulroy et al., 2021). In the Sahel, support for groups as Islamic State in the Greater Sahara (ISGS) is often separated from the groups' ideological outlooks, tied rather to factors such as the groups' ability to provide financial or security incentives to membership. COVID-19 has also exposed the states' **lacking infrastructure and response** that violent groups have exploited for their own interests and reinvented themselves into **service providers** and were handing out food, e.g., in Pakistan and Sri Lanka (ICAN, 2020b). An interviewee described that this put especially women into an exceedingly difficult position, both in terms of a higher risk of abuse by the members of these extremist groups and in reducing their capacity to advocate against violent messages, as their dependency on these handouts increased. However, since women are traditionally responsible and no other sources of provisions were available, they were forced to turn to these groups to provide food for their children, elderly and other family members.

 Due to mobility restrictions and **trans-border flows**, border patrols and international travel restrictions have made it more difficult for international terrorist movements to carry on their operational activities including recruitment and conducting attacks (CTED, 2021). However, **information and communication technologies** have also been intensively used by extremist during lockdown to gain exposure through social media and online presence. Extremist groups have especially been active on social media and online for a in spreading propaganda and false information to attract followers and recruit new members. Young people remain particularly at risk due to closed schools, shut down of leisure activities and lost employment opportunities (UNITAR, o. J.). Example in Kenya, social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook have become the new, lucrative recruitment hotspots for violent extremism during the COVID-19 containment periods (Wilson Center, 2021).

 Many extremist groups build on misogyny and the subjugation of women as part of their **specific gendered narratives and recruitment activities** (ICAN, 2020a). Within Nigeria, Boko Haram has exploited the vulnerabilities of those **marginalized by sexual violence** and youth who, without the daily structure of school, lack opportunities to secure their livelihood. At the same time, women may also engage in extremist violence in complex ways, including as recruiters, educators, campaigners, financiers, brides, logistic arrangers, supporters, or a combination of these. While some women are forced to join extremist groups or kidnapped, some women are joining violent groups for the same reasons as men (ICAN & UNDP, 2019a). These reasons are highly context-specific, but can include dissatisfaction with regime or political processes, seeking security amidst instability, experience of abuse or humiliation by state security forces, death or abuse of family members, seeking financial incentives, seeking a sense of belonging, or ideological conviction (OSCE, 2019). (Sjoberg, 2015). It is also worth noting that in some instances, perceived (gender) exclusion and inequality, amongst others, can motivate women to join violent extremist groups. (Sjoberg, 2015). Moreover, women's experiences of patriarchal violence have been instrumentalized for extremist mobilization, both by Islamist groups that highlight public abuse of women wearing hijab or niqab and by right-wing extremist groups that pair these messages with xenophobia, blaming immigrants for sexual violence against European women (OSCE, 2019).

Particular vulnerabilities to radicalization from extremist groups also arise from **contexts of displacement and migration**. Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are particularly detrimentally affected by COVID-19, as they reside in cramped conditions and with limited resources or access to food and basic services. Pandemic-related disruption of food and social services by governments, as well as harsh pandemic-related restrictions placed upon camps, have fueled frustration and eroded trusts in governments, for instance in IDP Camps in the Lake Chad region (UNDP, 2021a). Aside from radicalization, internal displacement also increases vulnerability to violence and abuse, for instance in Northern Mozambique, where over 100,000 IDPs have fled the conflict between government and extremist groups, but are reported to be subject to a denial of humanitarian resources, harassment and violent counterinsurgency measures carried out on civilians by government forces (dos Santos, 2020).

With regard to the **prosecution, rehabilitation, and reintegration of fighters and victims**, COVID-19 has caused delays in judicial proceedings (prosecution) and mobility restrictions have made the rehabilitation and reintegration activities more difficult. Research has also shown that women, as a function of their comparative invisibility as fighters and extremists in many PVE/CVE programs, tend to receive less rehabilitation and reintegration

tion support than men and that such support is often not sufficiently tailored to their gender-specific needs (OSCE, 2019). Long term effects of the pandemic on CVE may be that the integration of both fighters and victims of violence may be postponed (CTED, 2021), which can increase dissatisfaction in the justice system, delay measures to secure alternative means of sustaining livelihoods, and potentially undermine the original efforts to de-radicalize former members of extremist groups.

## 2.3.2 Approaches

### Promoting holistic and multisectoral approaches to CVE

Research indicates that a holistic and multisectoral approach **is essential for CVE and successful disengagement, rehabilitation and reintegration programs** for women and girls associated with violent extremism. To ensure a holistic programming, donors and policymakers should follow the following principles: (1) Design interventions that **target all relevant sectors through an integrated approach as necessary**, thus potentially including measures in the area of policy, legislation, justice, security, media, religion, education, economy, health (medical, psychological, and emotional); (2) Engage on all levels: **individual, family, community, and society**; (3) Collaborate with **diverse stakeholders**: CSO, government agencies, security actors, religious and traditional leaders, businesses, journalists, etc. (ICAN & UNDP, 2019b), including through direct and flexible funding to beneficiary-led organizations, (4) Take into account the **widely varying roles that women and minoritized groups can play vis-à-vis violent extremism**, including as potential fighters and promoters of extremism, and widen the focus of prevention measures beyond young men. In this context, **gender-responsiveness** refers to project measures that are specifically informed by the gendered realities regarding motivations to join extremist groups, experiences of extremist violence, and roles within extremist moments and affected communities. Any measure should be based on an in-depth, intersectional context analysis. **Gender-transformative** approaches, in turn, would entail work on the underlying societal norms, stereotypes, and power structures that affect recruitment, experiences of violence and state and community responses. Crucially, this needs to encompass those actors and institutions that currently hold power – such as elders within a community, or the state judiciary within a criminal justice system – and work directly on transforming their understanding and behavior. While not a specific innovative approach, these principles constitute the minimum guidelines that any projects in the context of PVE/CVE should follow.

### Supporting community-led, youth-led, and women-led counterterrorism initiatives

As international presence in affected areas decreases, **support to local initiatives that takes their ownership seriously** becomes even more relevant. Local actors are often best suited to address, deconstruct and disrupt extremist messages and narratives. Moreover, aligning programming priorities with local solutions and beliefs allows a closer fit to the highly context-dependent configuration of gender roles, gender-specific motivations for joining extremist movements, and gender-specific vulnerabilities to extremist violence that are laid out above (K. Brown et al., 2020, 9). In addressing the local level, a focus should lie on building and supporting local training facilities and trainers, especially women peacebuilders, and the role of youth should be emphasized to engage and empower youth, thus making them less likely to fall prey to violent extremist recruiters (UNITAR, o. J.).

Yet at the same time, recent research has criticized the disproportionate burden that falls to women when it comes to community resilience, leading to the recommendation that programming targeting the community level should **aim directly at transforming**

**Boko Haram to Boko Halal: Challenging Narratives**  
The Allamin Foundation, through their project teaches women in settlement camps self-care techniques and reaches others through radio programs to share knowledge on the pandemic and the situation throughout their state. The initiative is led by a prominent woman peacebuilder in the region and uses communication channels such as live radio programs and peace clubs in Islamic schools to counter extremist narratives in the communities. It is funded by ICAN’s Women’s Alliance for Security Leadership (WASL) funding (Allamin Foundation For Peace And Development, 2021).

**gender relations and norms**, “to both reconstruct harmful community power structures and advance gender equality as well as prevent the burden of community resilience from being placed solely on women” (Brown et al., 2020, 9).

While German DC has funded local initiatives in the past, as part of larger projects (see the Cameroon example), such funding mechanism should be scaled up and become the norm, rather than an exception. Notably, these funding mechanisms should leave room for local initiatives to determine their approach themselves, making use of their contextual knowledge and networks.

#### **Strengthening the justice system’s understanding of gender dimensions of CVE**

As the problem analysis highlighted, heavy-handed CVE approaches by law enforcement and criminal prosecution run in danger of alienating the communities they target by perpetuating inequalities, curtailing civil liberties and committing violence against citizens. Measures aimed at **strengthening the criminal justice system in the area of CVE** – such as community policing, security sector reform, rule of law and good governance projects or other capacity-building measures – should therefore **not only contain training on human rights, but also explicitly incorporate gender components**. Notably, this should include strengthening justice systems’ capacity to analyze the local gender norms, gender-specific vulnerabilities and gender-specific motivations for joining extremist groups with an aim to reduce gender-based victimization or violence by law enforcement and prosecution, strengthen protection measures, promote the law enforcement’s understanding of inclusive CVE approaches, and allow for prevention and reintegration measures that are specifically adapted to the relevant target groups (UNODC, 2020).

In Cameroon, an NGO led by a prominent woman peace-builder in a project called addressed youth at risk of radicalization (particularly unemployed youth) by promoting their understanding of the need for peacebuilding and peaceful activism whilst at the same time building their entrepreneurial skill. The project brought together 40 youths belonging to various religious background from the Buea municipality. It was developed in a short time as a direct reaction to the crisis in the English Speaking Regions of Cameroon and the Boko Haram terrorist group of the Far North region and was realized over the span of half a year, culminating in several entrepreneurial initiatives and a youth-led platform and blog for activism and peacebuilding (Reach Out Cameroon, 2021). It was funded by GIZ through their project “Improving the living conditions of disadvantaged Youth in Northern Cameroon”.

#### **Nigeria Training Module on Gender Dimensions of Criminal Justice Responses to Terrorism**

UNODC has developed a Nigeria Training Module on Gender Dimensions of Criminal Justice Responses to Terrorism. It is aimed at Nigerian justice sector practitioners, including public prosecutors, judges, investigators and other law enforcement officials, legal advisors of law enforcement agencies, defence lawyers and women’s rights advocates. The module provides practical guidance on mainstreaming gender in criminal justice responses to terrorism specific to the Nigerian legal framework, as well as international and African regional law and good practice (UNODC, 2019).

While police reform is not the focus of German Development Cooperation but is rather in the activity area of Foreign Policy, this area is closely connected to measures aimed at strengthening good governance, the rule of law and access to justice. It can therefore be implemented both by strengthening inter-departmental cooperation and close coordination between development and foreign policy, as well as through the support to organizations leading paradigm shifts in this regard – such as through a continuation of the support to the UNODC.

### 3. Women's Economic Empowerment (WEE)

Economic empowerment is a process that enables marginalized populations to improve their economic situation and act with self-empowerment and self-determination (Perezniето & Taylor, 2014). Based on the dimensions of empowerment developed in feminist theory (Kabeer, 1999), this process requires change at four levels (Bird, 2018; BMZ, o.D.; Cornwall, 2014; UNHLP, 2016):

1. **the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and self-confidence** to change one's life, for example, to pursue a profession ("power within");
2. **individual power to influence economic decisions** within a household, community, and at the institutional level ("power to");
3. **access to, but especially control over, financial, physical, knowledge-based and digital resources** ("assets"), e.g., through gainful employment and income generation ("power over");
4. **the ability to collectively advocate for economic activities and rights** ("power with").

This broader understanding of economic empowerment or empowerment illustrates that no "one-size-fits-all" approaches can be used to achieve the necessary goals. Rather, interventions that can address the complexity of WEE are needed (Cornwall, 2014; Gender & Development Network, 2017). The social and political empowerment of marginalized populations influences successes as much as available resources and the legal and political environment (Perezniето & Taylor, 2014). From an intersectional perspective, WEE addresses the fact that women are not only economically – but also socially – disadvantaged. WEE has therefore been a priority for many actors in DC, including German DC, in achieving gender equality.

Women and girls have been particularly affected by the social, health, and economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has highlighted and exacerbated existing inequalities and discrimination in multiple and dramatic ways. As a recent policy brief from the Donor Committee for Enterprise Development (DCED) shows, the reduced availability of care and the responsibilities that women and girls often bear in their families and communities have led to **job loss and lower incomes for women and school dropouts among girls**, among other things (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021; UNESCO, 2020). The pandemic and associated lockdowns also particularly affect sectors in which a majority of women work, such as retail and hospitality, but also in the informal sector (ILO, 2020b). In addition to **worsening mental health and increased risk of domestic and sexual gender-based violence**, analyses show that these trends have immense consequences for women's and girls' short- and long-term economic opportunities (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021; UN Women, 2021i). At the same time, the debate on **care work has gained further momentum internationally** (ibid.). Structural deficits in this area have been further exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic with an increased need for unpaid care work and the higher workload in the health sector. At the same time the pandemic has led to greater willingness in many places to make working hours and locations more flexible, as highlighted, for example, by interviewees from an international development bank. However, the pandemic has shown once again that creating more economic opportunities for women is not enough. Such measures often do not meet the needs of women facing discrimination based on ethnicity, disability or SOGIESC or do not reach women in rural areas, in conflict-affected areas or with migration status. These groups have been particularly hit by the economic, social and political impacts of the pandemic. It consequently takes a dismantling of intersecting systems of discrimination and inequality to make economic development work for everyone in the long-term.

Against this backdrop, the economic empowerment of women in international DC takes on an even greater role in post-pandemic times. On the one hand, it is important to address challenges that already existed before the pandemic and, in doing so, also to compensate for the setbacks caused by the pandemic (PwC, 2021). On the other hand, new challenges and opportunities have emerged, which must be addressed by approaches for an inclusive economic recovery that leaves no one behind.

For the analysis of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the issues related to women's economic empowerment, the following analysis will focus on three key issues that are especially relevant to a gender-transformative COVID-19 response and recovery. These are also linked to priority areas of the Action Coalition Economic Justice and Rights of the GEF:

- Care Economy (unpaid and paid)
- Decent Work
- Fiscal Reforms & Gender-Budgeting

## 3.1 Care Economy (Paid & Unpaid Care Work)

The paid care economy describes the sum of private and professional practice of care work as well as the regulations thereof on the free market and by the state. Unpaid care work refers to all care responsibilities taking place outside of the paid care economy, including childcare, care for elderly and other dependents as well as work in the household and voluntary care work outside the household (Ferrant et al., 2014). In public debates as well as in DC projects, care work is mostly associated with the care of children. However, a holistic understanding of the care economy as a whole, namely paid and unpaid care work is necessary for public policy to address WEE.

### 3.1.1. Problem Analysis

Women globally perform **most of the unpaid care work** – some sources estimate this to be more than three times as much as **men**, due to **social norms** that associate the female gender with the responsibility for childcare, care and nursing of persons with disability and the elderly and domestic work in the broader sense. Women and girls spend three times as much time as their male counterparts in **unpaid care work** such as childcare or the care of elderly in the household, which is consequently restricting their capacities to engage in paid work as well as their access to social and political participation (UN Women, 2020b; World Economic Forum, 2021) Alongside unpaid care work, women are also overrepresented in **paid care work** (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021; UN Women, 2021i). In the health sector, for instance, the WHO estimates that 70% of workers are women, and in OECD countries, women hold over 90% of long-term care (LTC) sector jobs (AC EJR Internal Blueprint Document, not published). Likewise, women hold most of the paid childcare jobs. Despite their importance for society at large, jobs in the care sector remain widely unrecognized and undervalued (AC EJR Internal Blueprint Document, not published), as revealed by low salaries and occupation conditions: Salaries in this sector are more than a third (35%) lower than the hospital sector for workers in the same occupation; twice as many people work part-time than in the overall labor force and more than 60% of workers are exposed to physical risk factors. Both current systems and distributions of unpaid and paid care work are consequently crucially linked to the considerations regarding the **economic empowerment of women**.

The **COVID-19 pandemic** as well as the measures taken against the further spread of the virus have **accentuated existing issues for both unpaid and paid care work**. Regarding **unpaid care work**, lockdowns and the need to take care of children in the home during school closures as well as of sick family members have led to a limitation in women's economic opportunities due to the timely inability to engage in paid work. It has also led to **mental and physical burden** on women, who may have to carry out this work in addition to their job. The increase of women's care burden at home and in their communities is also associated with an added **economic cost**. Many women have left the workforce or reduced their working hours, and girls in developing countries have had to drop out of school. Both effects are associated with entrenched gender norms (Promundo, 2020).

Not all women are affected equally by the disadvantages and risks of care work accentuated by the COVID-19 pandemic. An intersectional lens highlights that additional unpaid care work for children or younger siblings is

especially demanding for women in **rural areas and with low-income** due to lack of resources to basic public services, infrastructure, and lower savings (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021). For instance, “poverty and gaps in basic services and infrastructure add to women’s unpaid workload. Globally, around 4 billion people lack access to safely managed sanitation facilities, and roughly 3 billion lack clean water and soap at home. In these situations, women and girls are the ones tasked with water collection and other tasks necessary for day-to-day survival” (UN Women, 2020b).

With regards to paid care work, the **COVID-19 pandemic** exacerbated the structural disadvantages that women employed in the care sector have been facing and has brought upon additional risks. As many women work in the **health sector**, they are particularly exposed to high risks to their own health during the pandemic. At the same time, depending on the context, infection with COVID-19 and related quarantine carries the risk of short-term income losses or even longer-term economic effects due to job loss. In the **childcare sector**, the closing of schools and care facilities has led to income and job loss, which affected women heavily (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021). In this context, **the “passing on” of care work** to poorer individuals and households, given that this work is often informal and/or underpaid and unprotected, further reinforces unfair gender dynamics and the underpayment and low valuation of this work (ibid.). For instance, **domestic workers** are often informal or undocumented migrants with limited or no social security and limited opportunities to make their rights and voices heard. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, these intersectional aspects and inequalities also take hold, so that migrant and poorer women in particular are affected by the effects already mentioned, such as job losses and precarious employment (Sachetti et al., 2020).

Thereby, the pandemic has had both an immediate effect as well as longer-term effects with lasting consequences on economic inequalities along the lines of gender, socioeconomic status and migration status. While causing primarily negative effects on the situation of women’s economic empowerment, the COVID-19 pandemic also **fueled the international debate on the conditions of care work** around the globe, making it a more prominent topic for international policy debates and donors. The AC EJR, for instance, advocates for the recognition and visibility of care work, its just distribution and for the establishment of good jobs in the sector, pointing to the relevance for DC and specific DC projects to increasingly address this issue internationally and within the framework of COVID-19 recovery. Consequently, existing approaches in this context gain momentum and new, innovative approaches emerge.

### 3.1.2 Approaches

As an intersectional analysis of the effects of the pandemic on the care economy highlights, effective responses need to take intersecting forms of discrimination into account in order to ensure that the **challenges of unpaid and paid care work are addressed comprehensively**. Intersectional approaches ensure that the unpaid care burden is reduced for all women who have care responsibilities – not just for women in well-paid, formal jobs – and that the economic effects, health risks and structural discriminations in the paid care economy are effectively addressed. In this context, innovative approaches to these challenges often combine efforts to reduce and redistribute unpaid care work with efforts to improve the provision of decent paid care work (e.g., World Bank, IFC).

To that end, promising solutions to unpaid care work strive for an **extension of public and private support mechanisms** that also allow a larger fraction of women from the **informal economy** to benefit from childcare provision, as well as tackling **gender norms** that limit women in all their diversity from taking on jobs outside of their home or community. **Measures** taken to improve women’s economic empowerment in the context of unpaid work must therefore focus on two main objectives, namely (1) the **reduction of care responsibilities** for women and girls by (a.) an **extension of the public and private infrastructure** of care offers, (b.) **labor-facilitating**

**measures** and (c.) **financial support**, as well as (2) the **redistribution of care responsibilities**, especially (a.) through the concrete involvement of fathers and (b.) changing fundamental, cultural gender norms.

In addition, crucial measures to address economic inequalities in relation to paid care work should relate to **cop-ing mechanisms with pandemic-related response measures and closing of care institutions**, tackling **structural low-income in the sector as well improving the societal reputation and recognition of care work**, job security and working conditions. Whereas a number of countries have implemented short-term measures to tackle the immediate effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the care economy (e.g., **cash transfers**), there are additional long-term approaches for the stabilization of the care economy. For instance, care work is increasingly supported through **impact investments**. Furthermore, the increasing attention and debate over care work during the COVID-19 pandemic has exposed the lack of data regarding unpaid care work. The **establishment of more comprehensive databases** has thus been brought upon in joint initiatives and projects by inter alia UN Women or Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO).

With regard to the approaches and potential for WEE in the health sector, care and domestic work, there are **regional differences for DC to consider**. Paid care and care work in the health sector is not the same in all partner countries. For example, the issue is more relevant in middle-income countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, selected countries in the Middle East, Central/Southeast Asia, and South Africa and Namibia than in low-income countries, where care is often provided unpaid by family members. Also, in some countries, it is not culturally common or infrastructurally and financially feasible to place children in paid care, as interviews and the GIZ workshop for this study emphasized. These factors need to be considered in German DC when developing approaches to support women's economic empowerment through appropriate interventions.

#### **Extending childcare opportunities as well as establishment of family-friendly policies (e.g., remote work, flexible working hours)**

Larger INGOs and donors prioritize the investment in **public care infrastructure** due to its wide reach. According to a leading INGO representative, the investment in childcare infrastructure is in fact "profitable" for governments as it consequently drives the productive engagement of women in the labor market and provides for better health and education of children (IFC). According to the "IDA20 Commitments" brought upon by the International Development Association (IDA), between 2022 and 2025 a minimum of 15 states should be supported in expanding and improving access to childcare, especially for parents with low income (IDA20, 2021).

Other approaches focus on improving the **infrastructure of private childcare**. Several donors and INGOs work with international companies and engage in lobby work in order to transform the legal framework that provides care opportunities particularly in companies (UNDP, 2021b). While this approach benefits women who are already working in safe and formal jobs, and who do not belong to the most vulnerable groups, smaller-scale and community-based approaches are needed to reduce the childcare burdens of migrant women and informal workers. Cash transfers and an expansion of social services to these groups can provide additional financial support that allows them to carry out work while their children are being cared for. The provision of both free or subsidized childcare and cash transfers to those in need – especially mothers – already took place during the COVID-19 pandemic, as part of various government-funded short-term responses. In the pan-

#### **Improving Care Infrastructure Management**

In Mexico, the 2007 program "Programa de Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras (PEI)" and in **Ruanda**, the 2020 program "Vision 2020 Umurenge" are directed towards a significant expansion of childcare in order to support mothers and create jobs.

The IFC's „Global Tackling Childcare Advisory Program" provided Peer-Learning-Cooperation for businesses, including consulting, analyses and materials, in order to tackle obstacles in the demand and supply of care opportunities (IFC, 2017, 2020), e.g., „Rakorako" Project in Fiji (2019-2020), with a general focus on countries where the employers must provide for childcare opportunities (IFC, 2019).

demographic and future crises such short-term responses could be scaled up by DC actors to advance a gender-responsive response.

In a number of countries (including Chile, Cuba), “**Cash for Care**” programs provide cash to parents to reduce financial and general workload, in part through **eVouchers** for mobile childcare services (Malaysia) and bank cards (Mexico). Furthermore, regulations exist to make working hours more flexible and expand telecommuting (including Jordan, Bolivia, Cape Verde Islands) (COVID-19 Global Gender Response Tracker, 2021).

### Changing social norms of caregivers and including non-traditional family members

To reduce the burden on women as caregivers, approaches should strengthen the active **role of men** as equal, non-violent fathers through knowledge transfer on fatherhood. In order to account for diverse lived realities of women and their families, such approaches should be extended by DC actors to also **include non-traditional family members** (“families of choice”, aunts, uncles, cousins, close family members, and friends), with the goal of including individuals with diverse SOGIESC, single parents, and historically disadvantaged groups in approaches to care.

#### Gender Justice MenCare campaign

A global campaign established in 2011 and implemented in over 50 countries by Promundo-US, Sonke. Example **Rwanda**: implementation by Rwandan Men’s Resource Centre since 2013 through the “Bandeberaho” program (Beardon, 2020), in collaboration with fathers, community health workers and the Ministry of Health.

### Improving employment promotion and working conditions in the mid- and long-term

Medium- and long-term approaches to the economic empowerment of women in the context of paid care work in DC are mostly based on **employment promotion and entrepreneurship**. One of the recommendations of the World Bank, as well as one of the best practices according to the DCED WEE Working Group, is the approach “**Supporting women entrepreneurs to provide childcare services**”. Frequently, this approach is linked to the unpaid care work of women and the restriction of their economic opportunities. The approach targets unemployed and/or economically marginalized women, among others, to be trained in childcare in order to set up their own centers (SmartStart, Kigongo, among others) or to get jobs in the sector (Junior Caregiver Program, among others). Such approaches could be extended to men to encourage more men to join the care sector. The “**social franchising**” model, which has already been established as an instrument in FC, is also applied increasingly (Rudner, 2010). In this context, impact investors and foundations are playing a growing role, as they are seeking to strengthen systems of care through investments (e.g., Soros Economic Development Fund, Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation). In response to COVID-19, several government programs also implemented **emergency measures**. These included cash payments and other support services for the mostly female staff in paid care (as “front line workers”), as well as payments to childcare providers (UNDP, 2021). While no concrete measures could be found targeting marginalized groups, such as migrant and poor women, these kinds of approaches can be flexibly adapted to target specific needs. Such adaptations bear the opportunity to set up more inclusive programs for DC actors to contribute to a transformation of the care economy in the short- and long-term.

Some solutions also address the **improvement of working conditions** (see also Chapter 3.2 on decent work). These are closely interwoven with the issues of gender diversity, leadership and harassment/GBV in the workplace and are not always innovative but are nevertheless still needed to strengthen women and marginalized groups economically. In addition, the representation of domestic workers has been a more common approach for some time (by UN Women or WIEGO). A recent approach in this context, partly in cooperation with the private sector, is to support their financial inclusion and protection.

## 3.2 Decent Work

Decent work describes employment that protects workers' fundamental human rights in terms of working conditions, safety and remuneration, and the insurance of the physical and mental integrity of workers in performing their duties (ILO, 2003). Decent work is a key element of fair globalization and poverty reduction, making it an integral part of the **2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development**. Measures that are associated with the concept of decent work are manifold and include, for instance, fair pay, workplace security as well as social security for families, the freedom of people to express their views and to organize with others as well as equal opportunities for women and men. However, **women and marginalized social groups are often paid less** for the same jobs, tend to have **fewer employee rights and social protections**, and are more likely to **face discrimination and gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation, abuse, and harassment** in their work environments. This makes considerations in the field of decent work a key issue to be addressed by development actors for WEE. Key fields of action in the context of decent work especially affected by the COVID-19 pandemic include **informal work**, developments in the **future of work**, gender-based violence in the workplace and the **gender pay gap**.

### 3.2.1 Problem Analysis

#### Informal Work

Efforts to establish decent work conditions for all have been compounded by the COVID-19 pandemic. Especially from a gender and intersectional perspectives the effects on **informal work** have played an important role in that regard. Informal work describes occupational conditions that are **not covered by legal or social security**. Whereas informal work exists in all countries around the globe, it is far more prominent in developing countries compared to developed countries (The Global Deal, 2020). Women are overrepresented in the informal sector, especially in low-income countries. Taking an **intersectional perspective**, it is particularly women with lower education, lower social status, from rural areas and migrant women that are employed in informal work. For instance, in Vietnam, women make up for 40-50% of migrant workers in the two biggest cities Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, where they often work to support their families and dependents in rural areas and are particularly vulnerable to exploitation and abuse (UN Women, 2021). In addition, social and economic discrimination based on SOGIESC push queer women and transgender people out of formal employment, especially in countries where legal protection and social acceptance of queer people is not provided (Edge Effects, 2021). In many countries, people with visibly non-conforming gender identities are therefore more likely to engage in informal work and entrepreneurship, e.g., an interview partner highlighted that queer people in southern Africa often do creative informal work. Overall, it is the **interplay of discrimination based on factors such as class, gender, sexual orientation and gender identity, geographical location as well as migration status** that makes an engagement in informal work more likely.



In informal work, **legal and social protection as well as protection from exploitation and abuse** is rarely provided and people in informal work face challenges to access basic public services (Steiler, 2021). In fact, 92% of women in the informal sector of developing countries are employed in informal work and do not receive any social protection or protection through labor law. Women with disability, queer people or migrant women are especially affected when also facing societal discrimination, as they are also lacking the social safety net others might still be able to rely on (Edge Effects, 2021). On top of that, not being visible in the legal framework, it is particularly difficult to provide social protection to women and other groups in the informal sector who are at risk (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021). Especially, discrimination based on SOGIESC is very rarely considered in development and humanitarian responses to crisis situations due to a lack of awareness and the political sensitivity in many country contexts (Edge Effects, 2021).

In line with these findings, the economic and labor market crisis following the **COVID-19 pandemic has pushed many informal workers into unemployment and loss of livelihoods** due to lockdowns and limited mobility. It is estimated that “almost 1.6 billion informal economy workers or 76% of informal employment worldwide are significantly impacted” (ILO, 2020a), as they work in the hardest-hit sectors or in small businesses that are more vulnerable to economic crises. The associated losses of income and rising poverty levels affect especially lower-middle and low-income countries, as well as rural areas and informal workers in agricultural. Families and individuals affected are in turn more vulnerable to safety and health-related risks due to negative coping mechanisms, which may include child labor, taking on hard physical labor despite health conditions or exposing themselves to working conditions where they are more likely to contract COVID-19. As per the above analysis, women, youth, indigenous people or undocumented migrant workers are disproportionately affected by these dynamics (FAO, 2020). In order to not reproduce previous shortcomings in developmental and crises responses, an inclusive COVID-19 response needs to find ways for social, economic and legal protection of these groups.

## GBV in the Workplace



A key issue related to the lack of protection of informal workers before and especially during the pandemic is the experience of **gender-based violence (GBV) in the workplace** (see Chapter 5 for detailed information on the general effects of the pandemic on GBV). **Gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment in the workplace have been a systematic and global issue before the pandemic and have had strong negative effects on the economic status of women and women with SOGIESC.** They are often the result of intersecting circumstances and risk factors that are closely linked to gender inequalities and grounded in gendered forms of power and control. Research shows that gender-based violence can take many forms in **all sectors, workplaces, and occupations** (UN Women & ILO, 2019). The COVID-19 pandemic led to an increase in women experiencing violence at home and in their workplaces. Informal workers, domestic workers, sex workers and health workers were particularly affected by the increase in gender-based violence due to systemic discrimination in these fields of work. Since the pandemic, domestic violence in particular has increased during lockdowns. Exacerbating factors include safety, health, and economic constraints; crowded housing; isolation with perpetrators; movement restrictions; and abandoned public spaces (UN Women, 2021). COVID-19 has also led to higher rates of workplace gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment among domestic workers (IDWF, 2020). Many domestic workers were locked in with their employers, resulting in longer work hours without a day off or additional pay. Some have been exposed to violence due to the increased stress brought on by the pandemic (WIEGO, 2020). Domestic workers on their commute to work have also experienced **violence from authorities** due to the imposed curfews. Informal workers who are classified as essential workers and therefore can work during curfews, such as food vendors, garbage collectors, and domestic workers caring for the sick, are stigmatized and harassed because of suspicions that they may be infected (WIEGO, 2020). Although **health** workers already reported very high levels of violence and harassment compared to other industries before the pandemic, their vulnerability was increased by COVID-19 (ILO, 2020b). For example, staffing and resource shortages and increasing social tensions are leading to increased levels of violence against healthcare workers and even attacks on healthcare facilities (WHO, 2020b). **Sex workers** especially faced the challenge, according to one interview partner, that due to lockdowns more sex workers had to work from their homes, where they were more vulnerable to gender-based violence by their clients. In addition, due to economic constraints, more people, especially women, adolescent girls and transgender people started engaging in sex work (UNFPA ESARO, 2021).



In terms of other formal employment relationships, much of the day-to-day wage work took place **online**. While this telecommuting may have reduced the risk of sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment in the workplace, **new forms of gender-based online violence (GBOV)**, such as “**zoom bombing**,” in which sexually explicit or racially charged material is shown to unexpected participants, have become more frequent (ILO, 2020b). GBV, including sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment in the workplace have long-term effects on both mental and physical health of victims, such as physical injuries, post-traumatic disorders or suicidal attempt among victims of GBV (UNDP, 2018). The consequences not only inhibit the realization of decent work for all but also have direct economic effects on women’s full participation in the labor market. Analysis shows that

women who experience domestic violence are more likely to work informal and part-time jobs, and their earnings are up to 60% lower than women who have not experienced violence (UN Women, 2016; Vyas, 2013). Consequently, it exists a vicious cycle between informal employment, lack of economic opportunities and GBV whose effects on people facing intersecting forms of discrimination, especially based on gender, socioeconomic status or migration status, have been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic.

## Future of Work

Closely linked to the effects that COVID-19 had on informal workers and their protection are gendered effects on the **“Future of Work”, “Industry 4.0” and platform economy**. The term “Future of Work” is used to discuss changes in the world of work due to new technologies. Closely related to this discussion, “Industry 4.0” describes a comprehensive digitization of industrial production (Van Cleave, 2021). The platform economy is also linked to the future of work. It can be understood as changes in processes triggered by digitalization, which make it their task to bring providers and interested parties together holistically on a digital platform (ILO, 2018). The changing world of work has entailed specific challenges for women in the past, which makes the discussion around the Future of Work relevant for WEE. Women often work as low-skilled or medium-skilled workers whose jobs can presumably be automated in the coming years as digitization advances (Wesely & Midgley, 2019). Women working in the informal sector, where they are overrepresented as highlighted above, will be particularly affected by this development (Florito et al., 2018). Due to the digital divide, especially women in developing countries, in rural areas and with lower levels of education have less access to information and communication technologies. This complicates their access to the growing digital sector. Moreover, the digital divide as well as the absence of women in STEM professions and the prevailing social norms mean that women cannot help shaping the digital transformation and that already existing inequalities tend to be reproduced.



Against this backdrop, **economic sectors that heavily relied on the platform economy and ICT flourished** in the COVID-19 pandemic. Sectors that strongly relied on in-person service provision, sectors with a lot of informal sectors were more affected by job losses (see analysis above). These are the sectors where especially women, people in rural areas, with lower education levels or migration status are represented. The pandemic therefore contributed to an increase of the **economic divide** based on gender, geographical location, migration status and education levels and made some economic spaces less accessible for people without access to digital technologies and platforms. In contrast to this development, an inclusive response to the pandemic could use the acceleration of future of work approaches and the platform economy as an opportunity for making these fields more inclusive and tackling persistent digital divides.

## Gender Pay Gap

All of the outlined developments within decent work - the informal sector, future of work and platform economy and GBV in the workplace - are closely intertwined and are producing **gender pay gaps**. **Globally, the gender pay gap, defined as the difference between the average hourly wage of female and male workers, is estimated at about 16%** (ILO, 2018). The gender pay gap is a direct result of most issues raised in connection to women’s economic empowerment, including gendered sectoral segregation of jobs based on gender norms, care responsibilities, barriers to women’s leadership, overrepresentation in informal and precarious work, lack of access to financial resources etc. Current evidence suggests that pay gaps increase when factors such as origin, ethnicity, and other demographics are considered (O’Donnell et al., 2020). Additionally, in the perspective of WEE, the **so-called “motherhood penalty” is closely related to unpaid care work and is seen to explain a considerable part of the gender pay gap**. Many women take time off for motherhood and face worse conditions in the labor market as their careers are interrupted. When they want to re-enter the workforce, they have a hard time finding a job again due to the lack of work experience (Kleven et al., 2019).

In light of the economic and social impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic emphasized throughout this study, the **gender pay gap will likely widen**. Especially findings on motherhood penalty emphasize the effect that can be

attributed to economic losses due to unpaid care responsibilities. Given that these have increased for women and especially marginalized women, the impact of the pandemic on a gender pay gap will likely be immediate (ILO, 2020b). Efforts to close the gender pay gap should therefore focus on **comprehensively tackling challenges** in relation to care work and decent work.

### 3.2.2 Approaches

Given that achieving decent work and addressing the challenges posed to this goal by the pandemic, a variety of different actions is required related to informal work, future of work and gender-based violence in the workplace. These approaches will be presented separately in the following.

#### Informal Work

The effects of the COVID-19 pandemic have exacerbated existing inequalities in regard to informal work and thereby negatively affect women's economic opportunities. Approaches to addressing these challenges mostly build upon existing efforts to address challenges caused by informal employment. Two central approaches can be identified for the economic strengthening of informal workers, including (1) **formalization of informal employment relationships and enterprises** through social security measures, the minimization of barriers to the introduction of these and cash transfers, and (2) **strengthening of informal employees through education programs**. Both approaches are so far rarely addressed with a gender-transformative or intersectional lens. Therefore, this study finds that there is **innovative potential** in approaches that build upon an acceptance of informality as well as in approaches that address intersections with other issues, such as gender-based violence, paid care work, and the platform economy. In the following, selected approaches with high innovative potential are listed. Some of these have already been implemented, others are still in preparation.

#### Strengthening organizations to represent women informal workers

To address informal work, international and German DC focus on the formalization of informal **employment relationships and enterprises**. However, focusing merely on formalization measures is seen critically by informal worker organizations, such as WIEGO and research representatives, as evidence from several countries suggests that the informal economy is here to stay (UKaid & WOW, 2019). However, the organization for women in informal employment carries out projects with international donors, such as the ILO, and thus is a viable cooperation partner to **strengthen such organizations** in the context of international DC.

#### Scaling gender-sensitive and intersectional social support through cash transfer



Moving beyond formalization, supporting informal workers could be realized in international DC through social security measures, the minimization of barriers to the introduction of these and cash transfers.

Particularly in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, **women-specific grants and cash payments** were frequently used by large international organizations, such as the UN, as part of international DC. However, because they functioned as crisis interventions, they often had short timeframes and limited long-term impacts. With the exception of these grants and cash payments, pandemic response measures by DC actors are rarely designed with a focus on gender differences. At most, these are considered secondary priorities. Cash transfers that take gender-specific risks for girls and women into account are crucial as they are adapted to their needs. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, it should be a priority to make cash transfers easily accessible for

#### Cash Plus Interventions

Since 2014, The World Bank implemented this approach as part of the Sahel Adaptive Social Protection Program, which aimed to strengthen national systems by providing regular cash transfers in conjunction with economic inclusion and human capital development interventions to reduce vulnerability to climate change impacts (World Bank, 2014).

women in the informal sector. Also, interventions combining cash transfers with one or multiple types of additional support, e.g., linking cash transfer program recipients to externally delivered services or providing multiple interventions within one cash transfer program (or a combination of both) are seen as effective (McLean et al., 2020). Cash plus interventions offer the benefit that they can be adapted to target groups by German DC to be more intersectional.

### Building on digital solutions to target informal workers' needs



Digital services that provide benefits to self-employed people can be a tool for DC to improve their social protection and productivity. The example by IDB Group has identified four priority stakeholders for advancing the WorkerTech agenda: startups, governments, multilateral organizations, and (informal) worker associations. As part of the WorkerTech initiative, various case studies are being implemented in cooperation with stakeholders including the public and private sector (IDB Group, 2021). Although these approaches might not be necessarily gender-responsive, they bear the potential to impact gender equality, as they can be targeted to meet the needs of informal workers, where women are overrepresented. In addition, it is possible to target populations especially affected by intersecting discrimination.

#### Machine Learning for Emergency Cash Transfer

In Togo the “Novissi Program” uses machine learning techniques to provide emergency contactless cash transfers to the poorest households, with the highest payments reserved for women (International Development Association, 2021). The government-led program is implemented in partnership with donors (Agence Française de Développement), higher education institutions (University of California, Berkeley, and Northwestern University) and an international nonprofit organization (GiveDirectly) (International Development Association, 2021).

### Investing in business skills training in the pre-formalization context

Another approach for DC is the **strengthening of informal employees through education programs**. The organization MUVA Mozambique funded by Ukaid, for example, works with local partners to develop innovative projects to equip young women with the skills they need for gainful employment. As part of this work, different approaches to skills development for girls and young women will be designed, implemented and evaluated (MUVA, 2017).

## Future of Work

With regard to the work of DC actors in the field of “Future of Work”, four types of approaches can be identified: (1) Research on the **implications** of the future of work and the impact of the expanding platform economy, (2) **educational opportunities** for girls and promotion of girls and young women in STEM professions, (3) the promotion of **women in leadership positions** and the (4) strengthening of women’s and girls’ **access to information and communication technologies**, particularly in cooperation with local organizations and companies. Regarding the advancement of the “platformization” of work, social protection measures are often implemented, mostly in connection with informal employment.

**So far German DC focuses on the area of skills building.** One such example is the working group on skills development of the EQUALS initiative that the German Federal Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs is part of. The EQUALS Initiative is a coalition of business leaders, governments, companies, nonprofit organizations, academic institutions, nongovernmental organizations, and community groups around the world that promotes gender balance in the technology sector by advocating for equal access, skills development, and career opportunities for women and men. GIZ also advocates for skills building for girls on behalf of BMZ, as for instance in the **#skills4girls initiative**.

In the area of Future of Work and the platform economy, the innovative potential for new approaches lies in the way that approaches are implemented (“How?”). However, innovative approaches lie particularly at the intersection with measures to address challenges of informal employment, gender-based violence, and unpaid care work. This is due to challenges that women and marginalized groups face in the context of the Future of Work and platform economies being grounded in and exacerbated by problems in these three areas. In addition, a focus on new target groups can make existing approaches and responses more inclusive.

### Ensuring access to internet, technology and digital (re)training



In many contexts, the gender gap in cell phone ownership limits women’s access to digital financial services. Ensuring access to the internet and technology for marginalized communities is crucial. For example, to date, girls and young women mostly constitute the target group for skills building interventions to advance their access to STEM jobs. However, skills building, understood as a retraining measure, is also valuable for strengthening the employability of adult and older women. In the course of advancing digital solutions and “platformization,” they can no longer perform their gainful employment and have too few digital skills to be absorbed by new fields of activity in the digital economy. In the context of “Tech for Inclusivity”, Spark and Google provide digital skills training for underprivileged youth and directly link it to digital employment opportunities (Google.org & Spark, 2021). By scaling such initiatives DC actors can provide the groundwork for marginalized groups to gain access to economic opportunities and social networks online.

**Smart Villages for Rural Growth and Digital Inclusion Project (Niger, 2021-2026):** In Niger, a project by the World Bank increases the mobile broadband access for women and the use of mobile money. Activities include creating public access centers, specific pricing for women by private mobile operators, employment of women in digital centers, development of digital financial products for women, and increasing access to financial services through mobile money and e-KYC (Know Your Customer) registers (World Bank, 2021b).

### Promoting mentoring and (information) exchange for economic opportunities

**E-Commerce & Fempreneurs:** Spark trains women in customer care and online presence to prepare them for selling goods through online platforms, such as Alibaba or Instagram. In addition, Spark works with the providers of these platforms and connects the trained “fempreneurs” with them. Spark also provides women with technology and internet access to ensure they have access to the platforms (SPARK, 2022).

Mentoring programs provide women with the opportunity to expand their network and to train their communication and interpersonal skills. On behalf of BMZ, GIZ implemented the “ANA HUNNA Female Mentoring in Jordan” in the framework of “EconoWin” (Jordan, 2017 -2018) in collaboration with the Center for Women’s Studies at the University of Jordan. The aim was to provide women with the opportunity to expand their **network and to train their communication and interpersonal skills** (EconoWin, 2017). Additionally, programs should include strengthening specific capacities that are needed to take advantage of opportunities in the platform economy, while organizing together to build a social support network with other entrepreneurs.

## GBV in the Workplace



Current innovative and effective approaches to prevent gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment in the workplace are very similar to the approaches highlighted in Chapter 5 on GBV. To tackle GBV specifically in the workplace as part of a gender-transformative response to the pandemic only differs in terms of the context, actors involved and thematic focus of the approach.

### Linking WEE and GBV in response and recovery

Overall, the analysis shows that WEE and GBV are closely interlinked and therefore programs that take an **integrated approach to address WEE and GBV** remain especially relevant in a response to the pandemic. As the

analysis highlighted, the pandemic has especially put women in specific sectors of the economy, such as the health sector, informal work or sex workers at risk. Looking at current approaches to address GBV in the workplace, these groups and systems of inequality are rarely put in the center of attention.

#### Creating gender-responsive work environments (incl. work related events)

Stronger **linkages between economic empowerment and GBV programs** can support implementation of the strategies for GBV prevention and response. Linking WEE and GBV can be achieved by working with the private sector on anti-discrimination and transformation of power structures in the workplace, including sensitivity trainings with staff and management on GBV in the workplace. Policies and specific toolkits can provide background information and practical guidance for staff on how to address GBV throughout the project cycle in DC projects targeting the business sector and economic growth in partner countries. One example is the “Gender-responsive Assembly Toolkit” that offers guidelines for conducting gender-sensitive conferences and meetings. It sheds light on aspects that need to be included before, during, and after a conference to ensure that it is free from harassment, among other things (International Gender Champions, 2018).

#### Implementing intersectional workplace policies to prevent harassment and violence

Gender-transformative potential also lies in addressing GBV from an **intersectional and comprehensive perspective** by addressing not only gender-based harassment and violence but looking at its intersection with violence and discrimination based on SOGIESC, ethnicity, disability or age in the workplace and critically examining workplaces in terms of their inclusion and diversity. Here, comprehensive action of DC can foster information and awareness raising campaigns through channels of social media and seeking alliances with innovative unions. In Nicaragua, for example, a project fosters cooperation with the union of transgender domestic workers to capture intersecting forms of discrimination at the workplace (LGBTI Workers, 2021).

#### Preventing violence across all work-related spaces (incl. public transport)

Current innovative approaches to addressing GBV in the workplace **look beyond the immediate work environment** and also apply prevention and response measures to work-related mobility (e.g., gender-responsive transport and cities) and work-related events (e.g., conference spaces). UN Women is implementing projects in partner cities worldwide with the aim to “creating safe and empowering public spaces with women and girls”. With the help of UN agencies, women’s organizations, local and national governments develop and implement comprehensive approaches to preventing and combating sexual harassment of women and girls in public spaces. Some of these projects address public transport and women’s workplaces in public spaces (UN Women, 2021c).

##### Safe Public Transport

In Mexico City, “Viajemos Seguras” was designed to make it safer for women to use public transport. To this end, offices for reporting violence were set up, training was provided for security service providers in public spaces, and the predominantly male drivers of buses and cabs were trained to intervene in situations of assaultive behavior and violence against women. In addition, various campaigns were held to raise awareness of inappropriate male behavior (Metrobús, 2011).

#### Supporting protection from GBV in informal settings

**Targeting certain fields of work** would be one innovative angle from which GBV in the workplace could be approached. Many prevention and response programs in place focus on formal work settings and fail to account for informal settings where incidents of GBV are high. International DC thus should also address in particular women’s experiences of violence **in informal workplaces, such as markets and trading**.

### Safe Markets for Vendors

A project by UN Women and AECID in Papua New Guinea launched initiatives to strengthen the role of police in markets, construction of lighting and sanitation facilities in a city-wide awareness program. In addition, advocacy groups of and for women traders were established and political leaders as well as law enforcement officials and police were trained (UN Women, 2011).

One exemplary project demonstrated how groups of women can be appropriately addressed that are otherwise likely to be left behind. By working closely with the informal workers association WIEGO and other local organizations, the “Gender & Waste Project” was implemented in Brazil. The aim of the project is to provide women waste pickers with a better understanding of the practical tools they need to challenge deeply rooted gender hierarchies in their homes, at work and in public spaces. Through participatory processes at the start of the project, needs were identified and ideas for design were collected, through which the project was able to specifically address the problems of women waste pickers (WIEGO, 2020).

## 3.3 Fiscal Reforms & Gender Budgeting

The concept of an inclusive economy refers to economic and political measures and regulations that create equal opportunities for material and financial prosperity for all people. In this way, groups that are considered marginalized or disadvantaged should also achieve prosperity, making the field especially relevant for women’s economic empowerment. Fiscal reforms and Gender Budgeting are macro-economic approaches to the achieve an inclusive economy.

### 3.3.1 Problem Analysis

Fiscal policy comprises various measures for managing public revenues and expenditures that aim to steer economic development (BpB, 2016). In addition to (1) **tax reforms**, the (2) adjustment of the **welfare system** and the (3) **awarding of public contracts**, these instruments also include (4) **labor market reforms**. Fiscal policy can also be implemented via stimulus packages, which are designed to support the stability of the economy and, in particular, labor markets by combining several fiscal policy measures. The following analysis focuses on the first three measures. Furthermore, gender budgeting is an important lever for WEE and will be considered as relevant throughout the study (see also Chapter 7 for more information). According to the definition used by UN Women, gender budgeting refers to fiscal policy measures that explicitly take gender equality into account in the management of public funds and is therefore considered here as an overarching fiscal policy approach (UN Women, 2021h).

An overarching challenge in the context of the economic empowerment of women is that **fiscal policy rarely takes gendered and intersectional dimensions into account**. Consequently, it impacts social groups differently and does not actively address challenges posed by intersecting forms of discrimination. For example, tax regulations often implicitly or explicitly disadvantage married women: joint taxation systems for spouses have been shown to be detrimental to women’s labor market inclusion (The Hamilton Project, 2017). Women also receive disproportionately fewer **social benefits**, especially since they are more likely to work in the informal sector or are not in paid employment due to their household or community responsibilities (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021; UN Women, 2020a).

Women are structurally disadvantaged in their access to economic resources such as cash transfers, debt reliefs and access to low interest credit guarantees (The Hamilton Project, 2017). As a result, they often do not have (their own) financial security in the event of work absences and in old age and are exposed to a higher risk of indebtedness (also referred to as feminization of poverty) (IRC, 2021b). Women are disproportionately employed in the

**informal and low-wage sectors** and often run **small businesses** with little or no reserves. This makes women and their businesses particularly vulnerable to financial crises and can lead to **negative coping mechanisms**, such as reducing assets and consumption. From a macroeconomic perspective, these in turn reduce productivity and consumption in the long term (IRC, 2021b).

Another challenge to women's economic empowerment is **public procurement**. Public contracts are still rarely awarded to women and non-binary entrepreneurs and -led businesses (International Trade Centre UNCTAD/WTO, 2020). This creates an economic ecosystem in which they cannot be fully empowered as entrepreneurs as well as workers. These gendered dynamics are exacerbated when they intersect with other forms of discrimination, as for instance businesses run by black women face even greater challenges to be integrated in supply chains. Also, a restricted access to bank accounts or loans for migrant women inhibits their access to financial resources and ability to build financial resilience.

Previous analyses, including in the context of the GEF Global Acceleration Plan, show that women were due to the described circumstance **disproportionately affected by the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic** (UN Women, 2021i). The pandemic exacerbated the aforementioned structural challenges – working in the informal and low-wage sectors with few financial reserves. Also, many women have lost their partners due to the pandemic and the number of widows has continued to increase (Bhatt, 2021; Mevada, 2021). Thus, women not only have to pay for their own **loss of income** but also in some cases compensate their partners (Grantham & Rouhani, 2021). This has increased the financial pressure and indebtedness of women, especially in countries without comprehensive **social security systems**, as one interviewee from an international research institute confirmed.

In addition, **the COVID-19 pandemic has placed severe strains on national budgets** of many countries. Recent data on labor markets and poverty show that low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) in particular continue to struggle with the aftermath of the pandemic (see, e.g., Economic Outlook\_(OECD, 2021). Governments around the world have implemented numerous immediate measures as a response. Similarly, longer-term reforms to improve the situation of women through fiscal policy instruments, such as loan guarantees, debt reliefs and cash transfers for big and small businesses can be mentioned in that area. However, data from the UNDP Global Gender Response Tracker indicates that cyclical incentives and reforms have only been gender-responsive to a limited extent (UNDP, 2021b). At the global level, only 23% of interventions were gender-sensitive and, in the area of **social protection** and **employment**, interventions were not oriented toward women's needs in many cases (UN Women, 2021d). Also, measures taken to improve social protection in LMICs have mostly been implemented in an ad hoc manner and due to austerity policies neither sufficient nor sustainable (SPIAC-B, 2021).

### 3.3.2 Approaches

**Fiscal policy instruments are seen as important levers for WEE by many donors.** According to policy commitments in the International Development Association's (IDA) "IDA20 Special Theme: Gender and Development-Report," from 2022 and 2025, at least 10 IDA countries plan to make their **fiscal policies** and **budget systems** more inclusive and gender equitable, e.g., through budget reforms, removing discriminatory provisions in tax legislation, and/or monitoring the effectiveness of public spending for gender equality policy (IDA20, 2021, p. 21). Moreover, a joint program by UN Women and ILO envisions gender-responsive fiscal incentives as a key policy tool. Fiscal incentives bear the potential to mitigate the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and enable gender-responsive recovery by creating job opportunities (ILO, 2020a; UN, 2020). In the following, approaches that can contribute to the economic strengthening of women and marginalized groups are first described in the three subtopics of fiscal policy highlighted in the analysis (tax policy, social systems, public procurement). Special attention is given to gender budgeting, an innovative approach that can be applied to different fiscal policies. Subsequently, a selection of concrete project and program examples is listed and clustered thematically.



Against this backdrop, the G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council recommends that G7 finance ministers closely work together with international financial institutions to allow for necessary investments in social infrastructure in partner countries (GEAC, 2021). Financial instruments such as **debt suspension servicing initia-**

tives or **Debt for Climate Swaps** (Singh & Widge, 2021) can also be used in this context. As part of its COVID-19 response measures, German financial cooperation (FC) has invested in the social infrastructure and services sectors and in the financial sector. According to a representative, many projects target gender equality. In addition, more programs with gender equality objectives and gender-transformative financing initiatives are to be implemented.

Before listing specific examples of innovative and catalytic approaches on how a more gender-responsive fiscal policy is being promoted in DC or could become so in the future, it is important to highlight **two fundamental prerequisites** for any measures for fiscal measures: **disaggregated data and ensuring adequate financing and budgets** (see Chapter 7).

### Supporting the expansion of social benefits to women

As the pandemic has highlighted the need for **universal social protection** (SPIAC-B, 2021), almost all countries have taken measures to **expand their social systems**, partly with the support of international (financial) actors. Addressing informal workers and better reflecting the unpaid care work of women will have positive effects from an **intersectional perspective**. While **cash transfers often are temporally, it is crucial to** provide and expand universal child benefits to families and single parents.

**Pension Payments for Childcare**  
A World Bank program (since 08/2021) in Argentina credits mothers per child for their pension (1 year/child, 2 years/child with disability, 3 years if mothers meet universal child benefit criteria). They are also credited for parental leave (Social Security Administration, 2021).



**Digital solutions** are increasingly used to support

registrations and payments of social benefits and cash transfers. However, in particular systems at the national level need to consider intersectional and inclusive perspectives to ensure that they also reach (digitally) illiterate people, people without bank accounts, and people without internet access. This currently still constitutes a gap. Only countries with good digital infrastructure made cash transfers quickly available, according to an interviewee.

### Designing gender-transformative or responsive tax reforms to reduce disadvantages

Regressive taxation disadvantages women and poorer women in particular. Joint taxation of married couples has also proved to be detrimental to women, especially impeding their inclusion in the labor market and discriminating individuals in non-married relationships (The Hamilton Project, 2017).

**Tax Incentives for Gender-responsive Employers**  
Tax incentives may not only target employees but also their employers. The Malaysian government provides tax relief to employers if they train women after a maternity leave – women also receive individual tax exemptions. In Vietnam, companies that employ and provide benefits to female employees receive tax incentives (ICR, 2021).

**Individual taxation** can increase women’s labor force participation by creating incentives to work full-time or increase working hours. Research models showed that this can effectively reduce the gender wage gap by 15.3% (Fruttero et al., 2020; ICR, 2021). The World Bank also proposed various **tax cuts**, e.g., reductions in value-added tax, consumption tax, and income tax for businesses and individuals. These measures have been particularly beneficial to women, when favoring certain medical services or food supply.

## Establishing gender-responsive procurement processes

By enabling gender-responsive procurement, governments can create **incentives for the private sector to advance gender equality in companies**. The procurement platform “United Nations Global Marketplace” integrates gender indicators demonstrating the extent to which contractors are implementing gender

equality measures in their companies (ILO & UN Women, 2021). In this way, international DC could set standards and give **priority to contractors fulfilling gender-responsive requirements**. Moving beyond, innovative incentives could be set for **additional social groups marginalized by traditional procurement processes**.

### Setting Standards for the Private Sector

World Bank Corporate Procurement (e.g., in Albania as well as Kenya, Tanzania, South Africa) implements gender-responsive and inclusive procurement processes, e.g., via a minimum percentage (30% in the aforementioned countries) set for the number of public contracts awarded to women-owned firms (ILO & UN Women, 2021). In Tanzania, a minimum percentage in procurement processes is not only set for firms owned by women, but also **persons with disabilities, young people and senior citizens**. This has been enshrined in law since 2016 and shows what an intersectional implementation of such an approach can look like (ibid.).

## Promoting gender-responsive policies and gender budgeting

**One innovative field of work** receiving attention through the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic is **gender budgeting**. Gender-responsive policies and budgets (GRB) are crucial to address widening gender gaps resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic. Yet, GRBs are rarely implemented in a comprehensive manner. In DC for example, GRBs could be implemented through cooperation with (inter)national financial actors. The aim of gender budgeting is to achieve a more equitable distribution of available public funds, tailored to the different needs of women and men. In this vein, gender-sensitive budgets also aim to ensure that public resources bridge systemic and gender inequalities enable a **gender-equitable recovery** (IMF et al., 2021).

### Instruments of Gender Budgeting

1. Gender needs assessment tools,
2. Ex ante surveys of gendered effects,
3. Gender budgeting commitments,
4. Gender-sensitive monitoring tools,
5. Gender-sensitive evaluation tools.

While (1), (2), (3) *make a fiscal policy measure gender-sensitive*, (4) and (5) *monitor and evaluate its effects in a gender-differentiated manner* (GIZ, 2017).

## Working with international financial actors to make fiscal plans and investments gender-transformative

To implement gender-responsive planning and budgeting, German DC should seek collaboration with ministries, local government organizations and civil society. It is important to ensure gender mainstreaming at all stages of international, national and local policy-making and budgeting (UN Women, 2021m).

### Supporting Women-Owned SMEs

In cooperation with FON-SIS in Senegal (the country's state investment fund), a WE! Fund was set up to support gender-equitable enterprises and women-owned SMEs (UNCDF, 2021). A loan guarantee fund has also been established in collaboration with Bangladesh Bank to provide rapid support to women-owned enterprises in their economic recovery process. This complements the general SME credit program to address gender-specific credit risks (UNCDF, 2021).

The tool **Equity Budgeting Tool (EBT)** by GIZ has been found as innovative in also capturing impacts on disadvantaged individuals and groups. To date the tool has been applied to the health sector in Cameroon), to the education sector in Burkina Faso and in Guatemala favoring Indigenous people (GIZ, 2021).

## 4. Climate & Gender

There are **striking comparisons** between the climate crisis and the COVID-19 crisis. Both crises have global reach. Both crises have current drastic impacts, e.g., deaths due to COVID-19 infections or rising temperatures, and will cause immeasurable human suffering in the future, if not adequately addressed. In addition, an **intersectional analysis** of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic underlines once again what the climate activists across the globe have been raising over past decades: That these crises expose and reinforce structural inequalities, systemic marginalization and vulnerabilities and that at the same time, there is immense **untapped potential in addressing** and recovering from these crises when it comes to the inclusion of social groups most affected (Sultana, 2021). In this, the analysis of the effects of the **COVID-19 pandemic creates momentum for a rethinking of priorities** and approaches regarding the recovery from global crises.

Very similar to what has been shown in this study regarding the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, intersections between power dynamics based on gender, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and gender identity, geographical location and ethnicity result in climate impacts being experienced very differently by social groups and populations globally. In the case of the climate crisis, the crisis is inherently a matter of **intergenerational and gender inequality**. Children and youth will experience the detrimental consequences of human interference in the environment caused by older generations for decades to come. Even today, research shows that women and children are **particularly exposed to climate-related risks**. They are 14 times more likely to die in a climate disaster, more likely to be displaced by climate change, or die from exposure to pollution caused by fossil fuels (UNDP, 2013) (UNDP, 2016). Similarly, the accelerating environmental crisis takes a disproportionate toll on the **populations living in poverty, populations of Small Island Developing States (SIDS), on coasts, in mountains, in deserts, at the poles and in other delicate ecosystems**, where environmental disasters are more likely and changes in temperature more devastating. Geographical regions and ecosystems that are most vulnerable to climate change are often populated by **Indigenous** communities. While these communities and regions, just as children and youth, tend to have contributed the least to the problem, they are hit the hardest by its effects. As one interviewed climate activist put it, “climate change developed in an unjust world.” In addition, **people with disabilities** are often among those most adversely affected in an emergency, and are among those least able to access emergency support (OHCHR, 2021b). **Elderly** people, in particular older persons with disabilities and older women, are especially affected by climate-related harms such as the increasing spread of vector-borne diseases, heat stress, and disasters (OHCHR, 2021a). In addition, marginalized social groups, including people with disabilities and elderly people, are at a higher risk of poverty and face **unequal access** to natural resources, environmental goods and public services and infrastructure (including energy, transport, water, and sanitation). This limits their opportunities to adapt to climate-induced changes (food insecurity, migration) and also contributes to health risks. For instance, among the adverse effects of unsafe sanitation facilities are health problems affecting women’s SRHR and menstrual health (WaterAid, 2021).

However, those groups most affected by the climate crises are not only the least responsible for its drivers but at the same time often also the ones excluded from political decision-making. This applies to the response to the climate crisis as much as to the COVID-19 pandemic, **failing to recognize their capacities and rights in representing their own interest, needs and solutions and potential to drive transformational recovery and response action**. Today, climate plans, policies, and investments still do not adequately account for the distinct impacts of the climate crisis on women, girls, and other populations and the key role they play in addressing them (FEMNET, 2021). According to an interviewed climate justice activist, many climate initiatives thus look at women, local communities, and Indigenous people as homogeneous, passive and powerless groups, lacking to acknowledge the **unique expertise and knowledge various social groups** contribute. For instance, Indigenous communities protect 80% of the planet’s remaining biodiversity. Indigenous protection of Indigenous lands and territories are therefore critical climate mitigation strategies (Indigenous Climate Action, 2021). Also, the role of feminist and youth organizations in designing transformative policy responses and making financing decision remains too often overlooked. Often the lack of political participation results in less political or economic influ-

ence and fewer resources to adapt to changing environmental conditions. A just recovery from COVID-19 and transition to climate-resilient and sustainable development can only be achieved if all social groups are actively involved in developing and implementing all aspects of climate change mitigation and adaptation (UN Women, 2021a). As outlined in the opening of the 66<sup>th</sup> session on the Commission of the Status of Women (CSW66): “Crises multiply threats, women are the solution multipliers” (CSW66, 2022).



A central challenge for gender equality at the intersection of COVID-19 and the climate crises, is women’s economic empowerment. As outlined in the previous chapter, the consequences of COVID-19 greatly affect women’s and marginalized groups’ economic opportunities, roles and responsibilities, e.g. due to their overrepresentation in precarious employment or higher care burden (see Chapter 3). The following analysis shows that similar dynamics can be observed in the climate crises, as many marginalized groups have **unequal access** to natural resources, environmental goods and public services and infrastructure (including energy, transport, water, and sanitation). The Parties of the Paris Agreement already agreed on a Gender Action Plan (GAP) in 2019 to **emphasize women’s economic empowerment in climate policy** and action (UNFCCC, 2019, p2). The intersection of both of these crises now shows that there is a lot of unharnessed potential to rethink economic recovery from COVID-19 in a gender-transformative and climate resilient manner. This includes **learning from the expertise of and centering responses, mitigation and adaptation around women and social groups most affected by these crises**.



In this vein, the climate crisis, much like the coronavirus pandemic, is a “**threat multiplier**” that can contribute to heightened fragility and exacerbates pre-existing risks. In 2020/2021, humanity therefore faced **multiple intersecting once-in-a-generation** crises. In conflict-affected contexts around the globe, the **triple threat** of conflict, COVID-19 and the climate crisis are dramatically worsening already dire situations. However, women are not solely victims of threats and conflicts. Rather, rural and Indigenous women are often uniquely positioned to contribute to creating more climate and conflict-resilient communities, enhanced peace and stability. The exclusion of women from climate crisis-related conflict resolution is a missed opportunity for policymakers to develop effective climate crisis mitigation, adaptation and conflict reduction strategies (Smith et al., 2021).

The following analysis will focus on three key issues that are especially relevant to a gender-transformative COVID-19 response and recovery:

- Climate & Women’s Economic Empowerment (incl. Green Jobs and Assets)
- Climate-Gender-Conflict Nexus
- Climate-Resilient Recovery

## 4.1 Climate & Women’s Economic Empowerment

The Gender Action Plan (GAP) adopted during the COP25 in 2019 highlights the importance of economic empowerment for climate policy and action. Since WEE is a rather broad field and is assessed in more detail in Chapter 3, the following analysis and approaches will focus on issues of decent work (e.g., green jobs<sup>5</sup>) and assets in relation to the intersection of COVID-19 and the climate crisis

### 4.1.1 Problem Analysis



Transitioning away from fossil fuel economies will likely result in a loss of six million jobs in related sectors (UN Women, 2021a). Yet, research has highlighted that this economic transformation also has the

<sup>5</sup> According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), green jobs are decent jobs in any economic sector (for example, agriculture, industry, services and administration) that contribute to preserving, restoring and enhancing environmental quality (ILO, 2021).

potential to create more than 30 million new green jobs by 2030 (UN Women, 2021a). Both impacts from COVID-19 and climate change demonstrate that it is crucial for women and socially disadvantaged groups to enter future-oriented and secure jobs, according to an interviewee in financial cooperation. Green transformation and recovery from COVID-19 will require **high-skilled workers** in specific industries. Yet, traditionally, occupations in green and STEM sectors are largely **male dominated**. For example, in the renewable energy sector, the number of jobs could increase from 10.3 million to nearly 29 million in 2050, but women currently only represent 32% of employees (IRENA, 2019). Existing **barriers to WEE** are likely to persist in a green economy, and without active policy intervention, **marginalized social groups** will not benefit from job creation alone. Instead, in order for persons of various ages, settings and abilities to benefit from opportunities in the green economy, it is crucial to create and adapt social norms, labor standards, health and safety regulations as well as opportunities to collectively organize (UK aid & WOW, 2021, S. 22). For instance, for the green transformation to be inclusive, significant upskilling for currently disadvantaged groups in low-paid, low-skilled jobs will be required. **Education and training** need to address skills shortages, therefore, explicit investment in STEM skills of women of all ages is needed. Especially women with low socioeconomic backgrounds or migration status face barriers, making the case for showcasing **diverse role models and leadership to youth and marginalized groups** (UK aid & WOW, 2021). Overrepresented in the low-paid and informal sector jobs, e.g., in agriculture, many marginalized people work in sectors that offer little resilience to climate disaster, due to a lack of social protection (ADB, 2016). Besides creating future-oriented jobs, emphasis should therefore also be put on providing **decent and secure work arrangements**. As also outlined in chapter 3, formalizing work arrangements and providing social security options in the informal sector is thereby important.



Moreover, the global **“gender-asset gap”** outlines the fact that women and marginalized social groups on average own fewer assets than men. Although women tend to have the primary responsibility for harvesting and food processing, there are gendered differences within agriculture when it comes to access, control, and use of assets (such as **land, livestock, crops and machinery**). For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, women comprise 48.7% of agricultural labor, but only 15% of agricultural land holders (LandLinks, 2021). Women benefit from only 10% of credit to small farmers and less than 1% of total credit to agriculture (AfDB, 2021). Due to their socially marginalized position in society and households, women are more at risk of losing these assets, e.g., through divorce. In times of shock, whether due to the climate crisis or COVID-19, economic assets are crucial to ensure household income, whilst poorer households reduce their assets and consumption: These negative coping strategies decrease long-term production and consumption, according to an interviewed representative of a humanitarian organization. Marginalized groups, such as women from rural populations also have less access to **digital and agricultural technologies** which means that COVID-19 and the climate crisis can worsen disparities in crop production or increase their dependency. The lack of access to finance and technology constrains their ability to adapt to climate variability (UNDESA, 2020). This evidence suggests, similar to the evidence presented above regarding the key role of Indigenous communities in protecting biodiversity, that women and marginalized social groups are central to effectively mitigating and adapting to the climate crises but that they often lack the assets and decision-making power to do so at a larger scale. When it comes to economic empowerment addressing issues of decent work (e.g., green jobs) and access to and equal distribution of assets will be crucial to harness this potential for green transformation and increase the resilience of populations against shocks, be it COVID-19 crisis- or climate crisis-related impacts.

## 4.1.2 Approaches

### Ensuring decent work opportunities and social protection in green sectors



COVID-19 and climate change show that it is crucial to create **secure and future-oriented jobs**. **Social protection** not only addresses barriers to economic participation and ensures decent work, but also improves the resilience of women and other social groups to climate-related shocks, by reducing vulnerability and reliance on negative coping strategies in the event of shocks. They thus provide a stepping stone towards climate-resilient livelihoods (UK aid & WOW, 2021). The **use of digital technologies** is seen as an innovative and cross-cutting issue in promoting future-oriented economic empowerment. International DC should thus verify to promote and prioritize future-oriented jobs.

### Combining WEE, climate resilience, and challenging social norms for an intersectional empowerment

In order to implement effective interventions, it is essential to assess women's participation in the workplace as well as the challenges they face there (World Bank & ESMAP, 2020). The effects of the pandemic have highlighted once again how closely linked economic hardships are to other forms of inequalities, such as increases in violence.

**Transformative solutions** to WEE therefore need to seek synergies, inter alia scholarships for women, addressing domestic violence, and investing in women's leadership. In an integrated transition, patriarchal **social norms** that perpetuate gendered job segregation must also be challenged. All women with or without SOGIESC should be protected from GBV, exploitation, and harassment as they take on new roles in male-dominated sectors. Innovative examples like show how efforts of gender equality can also be institutionalized by German DC actors by combining **WEE, climate resilience and challenging social norms in DC projects**.

#### WEE, Climate Resilience & Challenging Social Norms

Example Ethiopian Electric Utility (EEU): The project from Africa Gender and Energy Program, supported by the World Bank Group's Energy Sector Management Assistance Program (ESMAP) engaged networks and platforms for exchange, and built capacity in the area of recruitment, retention, and promotion of female talent. These efforts were accompanied by creating a safer and family-friendly workplace, e.g. through provision of childcare services, institutional response to sexual harassment in the workplace and bargaining an agreement between management and labor union on maternity-related provisions (World Bank & ESMAP, 2020).

### Investing in STEM skills

#### Bridging the Skills Gap in the Water Sector

A project by ADB with the Ministry of Public Works and Transport (MPWT) set up a Women's Scholarship Pilot in Lao PDR. Aside from the scholarship and access to internships that would later facilitate labor market entry, the School-to-Work program also covered counseling and leveraging female role models (World Bank & ESMAP, 2020).

Skills will prepare women for future-oriented jobs while **strengthening female and intersectional networks and mentoring**. Investing in skills and thus creating a talent pipeline e.g., for women engineers, is key in this regard. Mentoring networks are especially important to attract and increase the participation of women in male-dominated sectors such as STEM, and to support women including those from disadvantaged backgrounds. Securing buy-in from regional and national leaders is key to the success of women's STEM career initiatives. Promoting WEE through scholarships and mentoring, to attract a more diverse talent pool, is an approach that can easily be upscaled by international DC and applied to the green sector.

### Supporting women innovators and entrepreneurs

Systematically supporting female entrepreneurs in the green economy could yield further **innovative approaches** to inspire DC programming. The IFC's Women Entrepreneurs Finance Initiative (WeFi, 2020), for example, helped female entrepreneur to raise \$8 million to launch Thailand's first private solar energy company through the IFC Clean Technology Fund. The company built 36 solar farms, creating 20,000 jobs during construction and 1,000 permanent jobs, reducing 200,000 tons of CO2 emissions.

### Promoting public-private partnerships (PPP) for green transformation

PPPs will be crucial to fulfill the **potential of the green transformation**. Working with the private sector and setting benchmarks on gender responsive/transformational business practices can be introduced through the employment promotion portfolio of DC. Rather than merely mainstreaming gender, gender-transformational approaches could be instrumental in reaching the targets in the green economy. Another key area of action is setting **indicators for green and gender-responsive jobs**. Already in 2015, UNDP suggested setting green jobs indicators to identify green jobs. Indicators include a set of criteria and indicators with reference to the industry, the production method, the value-chain position, the occupational profile, and the quality of green workload. This works on the local level and data can feed into policy development for assessing the creation, substitution, suppression and transformation of jobs (UNDP, 2015). Building on these efforts, it could be innovative for international DC to not only set indicators for green and future-oriented jobs but also for secure and gender-responsive jobs following a Safeguards and Gender approach. Gender-responsive jobs are also seen as providing decent work environment from an intersectional perspective.

### Ensuring access to and control over economic assets

Access to financial, digital, and technological assets can help social groups to **manage climate risks, respond to climate variability, and access support and information during climate shocks**. Secure land tenure and equal participation in land governance decision-making is thus not only crucial for gender equality but also to increase climate resilience (UK aid & WOW, 2021). Regarding natural and communal assets, the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) helped women in Oshwe, in the DRC, to secure land titles which meant they could secure their livelihood and contribute to reducing deforestation (WWF, 2021).

Building **resilience to climate shocks** can also be achieved through **cash transfers to disadvantaged social groups**, such as elderly, children, persons with disabilities (see Hunger Safety Net Programme). While cash transfers are a tool often used in humanitarian contexts, supporting the expansion of cash transfer systems and structures in the DC context in order to respond quickly to future climate change related disaster can mitigate detrimental effects on gender equality.

### Climate-Smart Agriculture

Farm Radio International develops interactive radio programming for climate services that respond to farmers' ongoing climate information in Tanzania and Malawi (FAO, 2015).

Plantwise, an initiative led by CABI, uses tablets to reach women with plant health advice. The initiative works in 34 countries around the world to give smallholder farmers access to high-quality advice on plant health issues. The use of tablets also allows for real-time collection of gender-disaggregated data, facilitating easy and quick improvement to the project activities (FAO, 2015).

### The Hunger Safety Net Program

An unconditional Government of Kenya Cash Transfer Program, with financial support by FCDO, provides more than 200,000 shock responsive safety nets in four poor and dry regions in Northern Kenya. The money is provided through bank accounts and cards cushion beneficiaries against damage caused by drought or floods. HSNP is one of the four cash transfer programs under the National Safety Net Program (NSNP) of the Government of Kenya. The other three programs are: (1) Older Persons Cash Transfer (OPCT); (2) Cash Transfers for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (CT-OVC); and (3) Persons with Severe Disability Cash Transfer (PWSD-CT) (HSNP, 2019).

## 4.2 Climate-Gender-Conflict Nexus



Recent research from the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security (GIWPS) shows that climate-conflict risks exacerbate pre-existing vulnerabilities and patterns of discrimination against women and girls (Smith et al., 2021). Gender and intersectionality are a cross-cutting analytical lens that bridge both the climate crisis and conflict. The impacts of the COVID-19-pandemic have intensified this nexus even further and will be analyzed in the following.

### 4.2.1 Problem Analysis



The climate crisis, the COVID-19 pandemic and conflicts pose a **“triple threat”** to many communities around the world. According to the IRC, these three simultaneous threats have dramatically worsened already dire situations of people in conflict-affected countries around the globe since the outbreak of COVID-19 in 2020 (IRC, 2021a). A University of Notre Dame index recently ranked the top 10 countries most vulnerable to a warming climate; all ten countries are experiencing armed conflict. Seven of these countries were also included in the IRC’s 2021 Emergency Watchlist of countries most likely to face humanitarian crises in 2021 due to COVID-19. The coronavirus pandemic has therefore added yet more instability to contexts where multiple crises were already happening at the same time. According to the IRC, “what we’re seeing is that multiple once-in-a-generation crises are happening in the same location and in the same year” (IRC, 2021a). Most prominent examples from 2020/21 include **Ethiopia** being hit by the outbreak of COVID-19 and locusts, both reinforcing severe food insecurity and conflict in the Tigray region. In **Afghanistan**, a decades-long vicious cycle of drought and conflict is intersecting with COVID-19, the Taliban’s violent takeover, famine, and political instability, with devastating effects for marginalized ethnic groups and especially women and girls (IRC, 2021a). Other examples, where the potential for triple-crises is high, include **Somalia**. Between 2007 and 2016, Somalia experienced six severe droughts. At the same time, diminishing land and pasture resources due to desertification and drought exacerbate herder-farmer-conflicts in the country. Similarly, in the **Sahel** region, temperatures are rising 1.5 times faster than the global average. At the same time, rainfall is erratic, wet seasons are shrinking and flooding is frequent. Extreme weather events, such as destructive storms and cyclones have also hit **Mozambique**, which is suffering back-to-back weather shocks. Conflict increases when a drought causes food shortage. Globally, the **triple threat** fueled food insecurity and created a **hunger crisis**. Four contexts in particular are at highest risk of famine or were already experiencing famine-like conditions in 2021: Yemen, South Sudan, Burkina Faso, and Northeast Nigeria. In **Yemen** over half the population of Yemen are expected to face crisis or worse levels of food insecurity (IRC, 2021b).

All these contexts demonstrate how the climate crisis **intensifies both intra- and inter-state conflict**. The impacts of climate change inflame underlying political, social, and economic conditions closely connected to issues of gender equality and intersecting forms of discrimination. The impacts of climate change are also increasing **forced displacement** globally with gendered and intersecting implications. Eight of the ten worst food-crisis countries are also hosting **IDP**, refugees and asylum seekers fleeing conflict (IRC, 2021b). The already large-scale human migration due to resource scarcity, increased frequency of extreme weather events, particularly in the developing countries in the earth’s low latitudinal band, will likely increase. The 2021 World Bank’s Groundswell report estimates that climate change could force more than **200 million people into internal displacement by 2050**. across six regions globally<sup>6</sup>. Hotspots of internal climate migration could emerge as early as 2030 and continue to spread and intensify until loss of livability in highly exposed locations by 2050. While alarming, the report however also finds that “immediate and concerted action to reduce global emissions, and support green,

<sup>6</sup> North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, East Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and Eastern Europe and Central Asia

inclusive, and resilient development, could reduce the scale of climate migration by as much as 80%” (World Bank, 2021a). The fact that around 80% of people displaced by climate change are women and their dependent children again points out the **gendered implications** (UNDP, 2016). Not only are women and girls at high risk to displacement, but they are also at risk *in* displacement, e.g., becoming infected by COVID-19, but also increased risk of sexual and gender-based violence, higher levels of stress, and trauma. The same applies to women with SOGIESC, those who are unaccompanied, pregnant, heads of households, disabled, or elderly (ReliefWeb, 2021).

Conflict, in turn, enhances the **vulnerability of communities** to climate change by diminishing their adaptive capacity. In fragile states, both climate and pandemic shocks are overwhelming governments’ already limited capacities (USAID, 2018). Indigeneity and urban versus rural habitat are seen as important geographical dimensions of vulnerability in the conflict-climate nexus. Yet, women, IDPs or refugees are **not solely victims** of conflict or climate change threats. To the contrary, rural and Indigenous women are often uniquely positioned to contribute to creating more climate and conflict-resilient communities, enhanced peace and stability. The knowledge and capacities that come with women’s current positions in their communities should also be taken into account. As laid out in chapter 2, the recognition that women and marginalized social groups are not only **disproportionately affected** by conflict and in specific ways, however at the same time been traditionally **marginalized** in peace processes lies at the core of the WPS agenda. **Social norms** and barriers overwhelmingly inhibit women’s meaningful participation in male-dominated natural resource management and conflict mediation platforms, groups, and spaces (Smith et al., 2021, S. 24). Additionally, for marginalized groups the capacity to absorb and recover from climate shocks or conflicts is further constrained by the broad range of discriminatory gender norms. It is important to note that this positioning is not due to any tangible difference in women’s and men’s aptitude or predisposition for peaceful and community-oriented behavior. Rather, the social norms that exclude women or other social groups like IDPs from political processes and high-level decision making serve to constrain them to the community-level and to roles focused on caring for their families. Consequently, work on these norms is a crucial imperative. The **exclusion of women** from climate change-related conflict resolution is not only a violation of their right to equal participation, but also a missed opportunity for policymakers to develop effective climate change mitigation, adaptation and conflict reduction strategies (Smith et al., 2021).

Climate change may also affect the peacekeeping efforts of **international organizations** in their work. There is a general lack of awareness, especially in the donor community, of how environmental problems are not only directly affecting the populations but also peacekeeping efforts. Some lessons learned in the context of the peacebuilding mission UNSOM in Somalia are climate-related change further increasing forced displacement and at the same time heightening poverty contribute to grievances and fragility that was proven to hamper implementation of the UNSOM mandate (SIPRI, 2019). While humanitarian needs are currently higher than ever before, the triple threat has also resulted in a **competition for funds and resources** when it comes to both humanitarian assistance and climate-finance. In 2020, overall, contributions from public donors flatlined, reflecting shifting and competing domestic priorities (Development Initiatives, 2021) At the same time, 33 of 40 countries with the largest populations in need of humanitarian assistance were affected by disasters associated with natural hazards (e.g., Ethiopia, Somalia or South Sudan). According to the 2021 Global Humanitarian Assistance Report, the need for humanitarian assistance spiked by around 30%, increasing the strain on an overburdened humanitarian system (Development Initiatives, 2021).

## 4.2.2 Approaches

One of the **overarching approaches** to the nexus of climate-gender-conflict in recovery have been to address gendered security risks associated with climate change in international DC programming in an integrated way. For successful outcomes, climate-gender-conflict programming should consider distinct and complementary exper-

tise, economic needs of the population, promoting intersectional representation and strategies to counter GBV in crisis contexts within international mandates (UNEP, 2018).



**Short-term responses** must first address immediate economic needs and hunger due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This is not only a key condition for development, but also to build trust and laying the basis for buy-in and “softer” interventions such as training, sharing best practices, and strengthening peacebuilder networks (Smith et al., 2021).



In **long-term measures** of prevention and resilience, promoting the role of the population at the grass-root level, e.g., Indigenous people is crucial in tackling climate change, conflicts, and the adverse effects of the pandemic. Women on the ground should not just be seen as victims of conflict or climate threats, but their agency, their localized knowledge and perspectives should be taken seriously (UNEP, 2018).

**Leveraging women’s contributions in peacebuilding and conflict mediation can help to mitigate climate-conflict risks more effectively**

**Natural resource management** can be a **strong entry point** for women’s empowerment, specifically of rural and Indigenous communities. Women are often dealing with localized climate-conflict risks and natural resource-related conflicts in their daily lives and communities. Building the adaptive capacity of local communities and including the valuable expertise in climate resilience is critical.

(1) Natural resource governance – including **decision-making** over access to land, water sources and other resources, resource-sharing and sustainable livelihood options – provides women with opportunities to develop and demonstrate leadership skills.

(2) There are opportunities for **economic empowerment**. Supporting women in organizing economically, e.g., through establishing farming cooperatives will not only yield income gains for them, but also contribute to their economic independence. Women’s increased economic role will lead to noticeable shifts in power balances within their households and legitimizing their roles as representatives and spokespersons within their broader communities (UNEP, 2018).

**Mercy Corps Project**

Builds Afro-Colombian women’s knowledge and strengthens their participation in the creation of ethno-territorial plans, municipal development plans, and decisions regarding land use. Women are trained on Alternative Dispute Resolution methods, combined with capacity-building in GIS/ GPS technologies and land titling procedures, enabled them to facilitate mediation and prevent conflict escalation. The initiative also focuses specifically on empowering women and youth, small business and economic empowerment and more sustainable farming practices. They are provided with technical assistance, training, and loans needed to enhance the quality and commercialization of their crops and boost their income (Mercy Corps, 2020).

**Promoting Gender-Responsive Approaches to Natural Resource Management for Peace**

In Sudan, the first pilot project was established by the global Joint Program on Women, Natural Resources and Peace. The project increased women’s leadership in resource governance and natural resource conflict resolution. Through offering educational, technical, and financial support for women in land preparation and crop production, training for women in natural resource conflict resolution skills and the establishment of community forums and committees. Moreover, gender sensitization sessions and discussion forums with youth, men, and traditional elders sought to change the norms around women’s role in conflict mediation processes, especially concerning natural resources (UNEP, 2018).

(3) Natural resource management can act as a platform for **cooperation** for women from opposing groups, strengthening social cohesion overall. Women, because of the community- and family-oriented roles ascribed to them, thus represent important change agents for dialogue and cooperation between communities. In this regard, a pilot project by UNEP in Sudan brought women from two ethnic groups sedentary and pastoralist communities together in cooperative farming schemes (UNEP, 2018). Although initially envisioned as a dialogue between women, the program also built trust between both communities as a whole, e.g., including youth, men, and traditional elders. Although it was only one component of the whole project, this trust- and confidence-building measure spilled over to the other project components and decision-making structures (Smith et al., 2021).

## 4.3 Climate-Resilient Recovery

**“Build back better”**, a concept with origins in disaster risk reduction (DRR), has been adopted in the discourse on COVID-19 to link the pandemic recovery to broader environmental and societal challenges, including a strengthened resilience to the climate crisis and higher food and job security. The concurring recovery processes for the pandemic and the climate crisis offer opportunities to simultaneously harness the potential of climate and crisis resilience plans and uphold gender equality and justice commitments. “As stated by the UN Secretary-General António Guterres, the pandemic recovery is ‘a profound opportunity’ to steer the world on ‘a path that tackles climate change, protects the environment, reverses biodiversity loss and ensures the long-term health and security of humankind” (UNICEF, 2021b). However, feminist organizations have cautioned that *“building back”* implies returning to a previously existing system, which they see as bearing structural injustice. Instead, feminist activists demand that key lessons learned from the COVID-19 pandemic, namely the persistence of structural inequalities that exacerbate the effects of crises on marginalized communities, are recognized and addressed in the design of a climate-resilient recovery. As the recovery also is a matter of **intergenerational inequality**, the detrimental consequences of a non-climate resilient recovery will be felt by future generations. The recovery should from this perspective be seen as an **opportunity to overhaul and fundamentally transform** existing systems of global injustice, by systematically interlinking climate and social justice. The following part will assess and uncover the challenges for a climate-resilient recovery and what a green and just recovery from COVID-19 could entail.

### 4.3.1 Problem Analysis

The effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on climate change have shown two key challenges that underline the urgency of a climate-resilient and just recovery:

First, they have emphasized once again how **human interference affects carbon emissions immediately** and by extension the climate crisis. In the early weeks of the pandemic, many were optimistic that the temporary slowdown of production in many parts of the global economy and the disruption of global value chains in reaction to the pandemic would reduce new greenhouse gas emission. The slowdown was temporary and failed to put a break on climate change drivers. Currently, carbon dioxide emissions are rising again and greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere reach record levels (United in Science, 2021). Yet, it highlighted, according to an interviewed climate activist, the potential that a change of global human economic actions has to reduce emissions on the environment.

Second, the drastic political and economic reactions in response to the pandemic uncovered the **immense untapped potential of addressing climate change over the last years and decades**, due to a lack of political will and resources. The recognition of COVID-19 as a global crisis enabled emergency plans, support programs and funds that have been unthinkable in regard to climate change. Rather, climate and disaster resilience and re-

sponse funding has not been adequate to meet the goals of the Paris Agreement and the Sendai Framework<sup>7</sup> and have halted progress in that regard. The COVID-19 response has not only emphasized this imbalance in crisis response but has also further widened the funding gap for addressing climate change. While, perhaps justifiably, immediate action after the outbreak of the pandemic has focused on needs arising from the threatening coronavirus, **climate-related issues have faded into the background since** (OCHA, 2020). Due to risks of economic crises, in many cases, the pandemic response created **trade-offs between environmental protection and short-term economic growth**, mostly to the disadvantage of green policies (UK aid & WOW, 2021). Only 2.5% of COVID-19 response and recovery expenditure was green (UN Women, 2021a).

As highlighted throughout this study, and in particular in this chapter 4, the lack of funding and political will for addressing climate change and enabling a climate-resilient recovery are **inherently feminist, gendered and intersectional issues**. The missing attention and resources for climate change prior to and in response to the pandemic mirrors the shortcomings to adequately address gender equality prior to and in response to the pandemic. The negative repercussions of both of these shortcomings result in **unpreparedness for crises, fragility, lack of resilience and social protection**, leading to extensive economic costs, increased government spending and borrowing to stimulate economies (ODI, 2020). The social and economic effects are especially felt by marginalized communities (ILO, 2020). As shown throughout this study, if discriminatory power structures had been more comprehensively addressed with appropriate funding and attention prior to the COVID-19 crisis, much of the detrimental effects on women and girls, especially girls and adolescents, migrant women, women with disabilities, women sex and domestic workers, the LGBTIQ community, could have been mitigated. Similarly, the oversights in regard to the climate crisis will be felt most direly by today's youth, as future generations stand to have both a longer exposure to ever-increasing climate hazards, and they would have been in the best position to reap the benefits of long-term resilient and sustainable policies. As a result intergenerational and gender-based inequalities widen (OECD, 2020a). The gaps in funding and policy priorities when it comes to climate and gender justice expose current **power structures in decision-making and agenda-setting** that do not prioritize long-term social and economic resilience, protection and sustainability adequately. Among others, youth and feminist actors remain unrepresented in decision-making and consultation processes, resulting in a lack of representation of their interests and needs in recovery plans (Tostado, 2021).

Consequently, a key lesson from the COVID-19 crisis and climate emergencies in recent years is the **need to think recovery differently**, favoring social, economic and climate resilience as well as equal distribution of resources over short-term economic gains. Activists and NGOs warn that post-pandemic recovery by governments currently do not sufficiently account for climate-resilient, nor do they constitute gender-responsive or gender-just responses, as highlighted above. A key challenge to a climate-resilient recovery is consequently to increase public and private financing for socially transformative and climate-resilient programming and shift power and resources to actors and organizations run by and working for communities most affected by the climate change.

### 4.3.2 Approaches

As the world looks to recover and rebuild after COVID-19, there is an opportunity to **advance 'gender-just' transitions**, a transformative approach that can achieve greater gender equality and set economies on more equitable and environmentally sustainable paths (UN Women, 2021a). While much needs to be done in the short term, governments should withstand the temptation of unsustainable quick solutions in response to the present crisis. Addressing the gender and climate gaps in an integrated and gender-transformative way will harness a just and sustainable recovery (UNEP et al., 2020). Looking at the diverse activities pursued by DC actors to address the climate crisis in the aftermath of the pandemic, two central levers to be considered for a climate-resilient and

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<sup>7</sup> Approach to post-disaster recovery that reduces vulnerability to future disasters and builds community resilience to address physical, social, environmental, and economic vulnerabilities and shocks (UNDRR).

inclusive recovery from the pandemic by German DC are: (1) **Financing and stepping up** climate action measures e.g., through governments, DFIs and the private sector. The first two outlined approaches correspond to this lever. (2) **Designing and informing** green and inclusive recovery **policies** through the involvement of diverse social groups in the decision-making for recovery. This lever will be outlined in the third approach:

### Supporting gender-smart sustainable finance and private sector engagement

Multilateral and bilateral development finance institutions (DFIs) have been identified as crucial for financing green recovery as they have the potential to **set ambitious standards and create incentives for the private sector**. As they crowd-in private sector financing by de-risking investments, they are supporting the private sector in the context of the global recession (ODI, 2020). Their role is crucial in both mitigating the effects of the global recession, e.g., to protect jobs and support micro-, small-, and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) that are crucial for protecting employment for vulnerable populations.

#### Gender-Smart Climate Finance Initiatives

Toolkit “Gender-Smart Climate Finance Guide” to support the finance community to make climate finance investments which close gender gaps across different sectors. Introduced by 2X Gender and Climate Finance Taskforce, CDC, EBRD and EIB (2X Collaborative, 2021).

SUNREF (AFD’s Green Finance Label) is an integrated and innovative partnership for green finance as it covers a combination of financial and technical cooperation. Projects were launched in South Africa, Turkey, Jordan and Thailand. In Mauritius the program is also promoting professional gender equality (AFD, 2019).

Moreover, DFI’s can also issue and invest in green bonds. Green finance funds and impact bonds if designed in a **gender-sensitive** way have high transformative potential, according to a representative of German FC. Social, Gender, Sustainability, and Sustainability-linked Bonds and Loans provide avenues for directing capital towards reducing inequalities. For example a gender-responsive green bond can be used to support **inclusive green infrastructure and cities**, e.g. financing efforts of women’s groups to increase inclusion across different levels of local governance and helping communities become safer and more prepared to cope with disasters (GIWPS, 2022). IFC, UN Women and the International Capital Market Association have recently launched a practical guide to **using sustainable bond issuances to advance gender equality**. Through illustrative projects and KPIs and sustainability targets the report offers guidance for both the public and private sector to direct financing towards gender equality (UN Women, IFC, et al., 2021). Similarly, ADB undertook an analysis of how its nine CIF-funded projects have integrated gender and consequently published a guide for “Building Gender into Climate Finance” (ADB, 2016). The Macro Economic Reforms and Green Growth Program (2019-2022) run by GIZ on behalf of BMZ in Vietnam is exploring gender dimensions of its green finance interventions (GIZ, 2019). These examples provide a good practice for future DC interventions in linking gender and sustainability aspects. Especially green infrastructure projects will be crucial to makes cities more resilient and inclusive.

### Stepping up gender-responsive climate action

To promote gender equality alongside environmental sustainability, it is important that **resources** are spent in ways that benefit all genders equally and account for gender-specific risks and climate-related vulnerabilities. One of the key areas of progress during the COP25 2019 was the adoption of the renewed Lima Work Programme and its 5-year Gender Action Plan (GAP). However, many parties have **not yet delivered on commitments** that were made at the COP25 before the COVID-19 pandemic hit. At the COP26 in November 2021, it was widely acknowledged that the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has worsened the concerns due to “the uneven nature of the global response to the pandemic” (UNFCCC, 2021). However, an interviewed climate justice activist who attended the COP26, criticized that this has not resulted sufficient action, as the currently agreed government commitments are not adequate to tackle the magnitude of the climate crisis and a not sufficiently gender-responsive. NGOs therefore continue to call on governments that more **inclusive, comprehensive and transformative commitments** beyond exemplary measures are necessary (FEMNET, 2021). This was also reiterated at the recent 66<sup>th</sup> Commission on the Status of Women (CSW66): “Now is the time to implement what has already been agreed and

**create gender action plans** where there are gaps” (CSW66, 2022). Similarly, children and youth movements disapprove of government policies for being short-sighted, thereby failing to acknowledge the **intergenerational implications**, given that the detrimental climate effects of current political hesitance will affect the youth disproportionately.

As part of governments efforts to step up gender-responsive climate action, **the data and evidence gaps** of the gender-environment nexus need to be addressed for a green and inclusive recovery. Disaggregated data on climate change are needed to build the basis for gender-responsive or gender-transformative climate policy making (for more information on data see principles in chapter 7.1). In addition, adequate capacities and budgetary resources allocated for intersectional analyses and thus the responsiveness of M&E systems is necessary (UNEP et al., 2020). UN Women and UNEP recommended a set of 35 **indicators** building on the SDG indicator framework to capture the gender-environment nexus on six priority areas: land and biodiversity; natural resources including food, energy and water; climate change and disasters; sustainable consumption, production and wealth; health, well-being and sanitation; and environmental decision-making<sup>8</sup> (UN Women, 2021a). In this vein, gender analyses focusing on gender relations need to account for intersectional social categories as well. DC actors aspiring to contribute to gender-transformative climate action, such as German DC actors, should therefore systematically **mainstream intersectionality in their gender analyses and indicators** as a basis for transformative climate action and programming.

#### Stepping up gender-responsive climate action

- ✓ Transforming commitments into climate action through adequate financing
- ✓ Consulting youth and feminist activists / organizations throughout all processes
- ✓ Closing data and evidence gaps to inform decisions
- ✓ Promoting intersectional gender-analysis and include indicators on gender-environment nexus in DC programming

#### Joining forces with feminist and youth activist in climate and environmental policy

Feminist and youth responses to both COVID-19 and the global climate crisis call for fundamental systemic changes to enable a just and equitable recovery (Sultana, 2021). As global youth-led climate movements have shown, young activists are uniquely affected by the **intergenerational implications and threats** of the climate crisis and will bear the consequences or reap the benefits of today’s political decisions for decades to come. Supporting their participation and taking seriously their demands and suggestions for a just recovery is critical to ensure that the decision-making caters to the needs of the most affected populations. The **involvement of women, youth and marginalized groups**, strengthening their political leverage, and accountability of systems and actors is therefore crucial for German DC to create more gender-transformative responses for COVID-19 and climate change. A good practice in this regard is the partnership of the the feminist organization WEDO with IUCN and UNDP. Together they implement the ‘Global Gender Responsive Climate Change Programme’ as part of the Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA). The partnership between gender experts, UN agencies and CSOs’ aims to ensure a gender-responsive climate agreement that works for both diverse social groups and for policy-makers. The partnership is funded by Finland, Iceland and the Netherlands (WEDO, 2022).

<sup>8</sup> One exemplary indicator for environmental decision-making is: “Proportions of positions in national and local public institutions, including (a) the legislatures; (b) the public service; and (c) the judiciary, compared to national distributions, by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups (use together with indicator 19 in the UN Environment and IUCN gender-environment indicator list but with a specific focus on environmental institutions (similar to SDG indicator 16.7.1)”

Moreover, governments should aim to **advance a behavioral and cultural shift**. It is argued that many aspects of the COVID-19 response are similar to the types of changes needed as part of a comprehensive response to the climate crisis. Many necessary shifts require a change in behavior, culture and thinking, along with the use of existing technology. In that regard, working with **multiple stakeholders** (including women, girls, men, boys, families, decision makers and community influencers) is important. To advance gender equality in climate action programs, changes in attitude and practice and promote formal and informal communication approaches to modify discriminatory social norms (UNEP et al., 2020). Important channels are **education programs**, as also the feminist youth-led initiative “Transform Education” by EmpoderaClima, Rise Up Movement, Malala Fund and Plan International calls for. The Knowledge Hub hosted by United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative is providing learning and resources on gender in education (UNGEI, 2021). Addressing gender-transformation can build both on activism and advocacy of climate justice movements (e.g., not specifically gender-focused, inter alia youth, elderly, Indigenous movements) or specific feminist organizations. Gender-just transitions can only be achieved with the support of women’s organizations to ensure they can participate meaningfully. For German DC to prioritize **shifting funding and decision-making power** to such organizations in climate programming is therefore an important lever to support gender-transformative climate action.

The Women Delegates funded six **female negotiators** representing less-developed countries to participate and attend COP26

**Climate Youth movements:** Climate Movement Rise up Africa, Re-Earth Initiative, Youth Advocates for Climate Action Philippines, Polluters Out, Fridays for Future etc.

**Feminist & intersectional organizations:** FEMNET, Feminist Green New Deal in the USA, Feminist Fossil Free Future in the Asia-Pacific, Intersectional Environmentalists, Mujeres Amazonicas, FRIDA, Young Feminist for Climate Justice Network etc.

## 5. Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

Gender-based violence, especially against women and girls, has been **a globally systemic issue even before the COVID-19 pandemic**. Nearly one in three women has experienced physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence (WHO, 2012). Reports indicate that during the pandemic, all forms of GBV intensified, forming into a “Shadow Pandemic” amidst the COVID-19 (UN Women, 2021). Approximately 7 in 100 women aged 15+ have been victims of sexual abuse by non-partners at least once in their lifetime. **Experiences of violence are often cyclical** in this regard and experiencing one form of violence increases the risk for women and girls to be affected by violence again in the future. Experiences of violence have potentially serious consequences for the physical and mental health of survivors and are a fundamental violation of their human rights.

Violence is understood to be gender-based when it is perpetrated on the basis of a person’s gender, or disproportionately affects persons of one gender. Violence against women and girls is a form of gender-based violence. The Istanbul Convention defines “violence against women,” as “a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women [...] and means any act of gender-based violence that results in or is likely to result in physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.” Accordingly, violence against women and girls can occur at every age and in any sphere of life, in different forms and both on- and offline. **Lack of equality, unequal power relations, and social norms that perpetuate patriarchal gender roles** are core causes of gender-based violence. They are causal to the fact that women are disproportionately affected by violence compared to men and that sexual as well as gender minorities are also often victims of similar and severe forms of violence. Experiences of violence by men and boys are also a global problem, although the context, causes, and risks for violence are different from violence against women. The risk of experiencing gender-based violence increases in intersection with other power relations such as racism, disabilities or displacement. For instance, in South Africa, murder and “corrective” rape of black lesbian women remains common. Also, women in informal employment, female sex or domestic workers are for instance at an increased risk to experience violence from men due to a lack of social and legal protection. Similarly, women in conflict-affected areas or in displacement lack protection and are at high risk of sexual violence and abuse.

Crises exacerbate inequalities and place women, girls, and marginalized persons and groups — such as individuals with diverse SOGIESC — **at increased risk of gender-based violence (GBV)**. Since the pandemic, especially domestic violence has increased during lockdowns. Exacerbating factors include insecurity, health and economic pressures, cramped living conditions, isolation with abusers, movement restrictions and deserted public spaces (UN Women, 2021). School closure and the impediment of prevention programs have contributed to an increase in **harmful practices**. At the same time, the rise in the use of virtual technology has highlighted the importance of addressing GBOV. COVID-19 had immense effects on workplace conditions and the economy at large and thereby changed dynamics of gender-based violence. Next to the increase in remote work, especially informal workers, domestic workers, and health service professionals experience higher risk for gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment. They often lack social and legal protection (especially informal and domestic workers) and are affected by GBV fueled by rising frustration and stress (domestic workers in families and health workers in hospitals and other health facilities). Women are overrepresented across these groups, as already discussed in more depth in regard to effects of the pandemic on women’s economic empowerment (see Chapter 3.2). Overall, women who are displaced, migrants or refugees, and those living in **conflict-affected areas**, older women and women with disabilities are particularly at risk of gender-based violence during COVID-19, as prevention and response measures are inhibited by the pandemic and increasing economic pressures (WHO, 2020a). The United Nations reported 2,500 verified cases of conflict-related sexual violence committed across 18 countries in 2020, mostly against women and girls (United Nations Security Council, 2021). At the same time, the militarization of the COVID-19 response in many countries increased the risk for gender-based violence by the police or law enforcement, especially for groups who are socially discriminated against. As one interview partner reported, LGBTIQ persons seeking shelter during lockdown were put in prison for violating COVID restrictions,

where they were more exposed to health risks and violence (see Chapter 2 on WPS). Women's and human rights activists have demanded governments to consider the specific needs of groups affected by violence in their COVID-19 responses and vaccine roll out. Yet, the safety of women remains particularly under threat during the pandemic and emphasizes once again how much more work is needed to transform gender relations.

The following analysis will focus on three key issues of gender-based violence that are especially relevant to a gender-transformative COVID-19 response and recovery:

- Domestic Violence and Intimate-Partner Violence
- Harmful Practices
- GBOV

Since approaches and solutions to gender-based violence are very similar across different forms of violence, they will be presented together, following the analysis of the key issues.

## 5.1 Domestic Violence & Intimate-Partner Violence (IPV)

According to the World Health Organization, intimate-partner violence (IPV) "refers to any behavior within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship [...]. Although women can be violent in relationships with men, often in self-defense, and violence sometimes occurs in same-sex partnerships, the most common perpetrators of violence against women are male intimate partners or ex-partners" (WHO, 2012).



In the Corona crisis, the combination of economic damage and social isolation exacerbates the risk of domestic violence. A literature overview showed several recurrent themes among the causal narratives: isolation, stress, economic anxiety and joblessness, alcohol consumption, and a lack of social service resources to address all the above (Stanley, 2020). COVID-19 has affected each of these stressors, with a predictable upsurge in cases of IPV and domestic violence, termed the "**shadow pandemic**" by UN Women (UN Women, 2021b). During times of financial and emotional pressure, lockdowns can confine women with their potential abusers. Economic hardships have also made it more difficult for some women to escape from dangerous environments. With schools and day-cares closed, it becomes harder to access health, social and justice services. Because many primary caregivers, predominantly women, were forced to leave the workforce due to lack of childcare, isolation and economic dependence on potential abusers were magnified. In addition, with women being overrepresented in the informal sector, a lot of opportunities to generate income were lost due to lockdowns. This also contributed to their economic dependence on potentially violent partners. Equally, there is an increased risk of domestic violence when homes become the workplace.

Reports from several countries, including Australia, China, Brazil, Germany and the UK, show **increased rates of sexual violence and abuse against children, adolescents and women** (Hankivsky & Kapilashrami, 2020). While numbers vary, reports from service providers and domestic violence hotlines around the world show an increase in reporting of incidents of IPV following the first wave of COVID-19 lockdowns. In France, for example, cases of domestic violence have increased by 30% since the lockdown was first imposed. Helplines in Cyprus and Singapore have registered an increase in calls by 30% and 33%, respectively. In Argentina, emergency calls for domestic violence cases have increased by 25% since the lockdown started. In Canada, Germany, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States, government authorities, women's rights activists and civil society partners have indicated increasing reports of domestic violence during the crisis, and/or increased demand for emergency shelter (UN Women, 2021b). These numbers are likely to reflect only the worst cases, as IPV incidents are generally underreported to authorities for several reasons, including fear of retaliation, lack of information, access or confidence in justice systems and shame. Before the pandemic, less than 40% of women experiencing violence sought help of any kind and less than 10% of those women contacted the police (Mlambo-Ngcuka, 2020). Data beyond a disaggregation by gender, e.g., disaggregated by SOGIESC, is rarely available.

Some countries have registered a decline in reports of domestic violence, suggesting that some women face **barriers to reporting violence and seeking help**. Given the existing gender digital divide, women and girls in many countries, especially those who face multiple forms of discrimination, may not have a mobile phone, computer, or internet to access services or be able to safely use these at home being closely monitored by the perpetrator and other family members. While the risk of domestic violence and IPV increased during the pandemic, GBV **response and prevention services are weakened** as already limited resources are diverted to fund infection control and treatment. This also applies to the psychological and medical services for survivors of sexual gender-based violence. In Southern Africa, for instance, COVID-19 has resulted in courts closing or reducing times for hearing, thus limiting women's access to justice (Gender Links, 2021).

The risk of GBV as well as access to response services is **exacerbated for people facing intersecting forms of discrimination**. Survivors of violence with an unclear immigration status, sex workers, queer people, women with disabilities<sup>9</sup> (UN Women, 2021g) and young and elderly women are especially at risk of violence by men and people in their household (CARE, 2020). During the lockdown, queer people with diverse SOGIESC being confined in non-accepting households were put at risk of verbal and physical abuse (IASC, 2021). A report from Kenya highlights that queer people were "outed" and pushed away from community members during lockdowns (ODI, 2021). Organizations working with sex workers report that lockdowns have resulted in them having to disclose their addresses to clients, putting them at higher risk of abuse in their homes. At the same time, these communities face more challenges to access services. People with diverse SOGIESC and sex workers are in many contexts at high risk to face discrimination from health workers and law enforcement, as civil society organizations widely report, e.g., in Southern Africa. Due to a lack of identification, survivors with unclear immigration status, and/or homeless and street-entrenched populations have a harder time accessing the health and justice system.

## 5.2 Gender-Based Online Violence (GBOV)



GBOV is a **growing problem worldwide** with potentially far-reaching **economic and social consequences**.

Along with the increasing global use of the Internet and social media, the prevalence of GBOV is rising. GBOV represents a continuation of gender-based violent behavior and dynamics online. It can take many forms, such as cyber-stalking, dissemination of a person's content and recordings without their consent, surveillance, hacking, and luring people into violent and precarious situations through advertising and the like. What is special about GBOV is that the acts of violence can be committed anonymously, from a distance and in an automated manner. Perpetrators can easily gain access to social media and other platforms and material once disseminated on the network usually persists (UNESCO, 2021b).

The **risk of GBOV increases** as COVID-19 has revolutionized the use of virtual technologies, internet and teleworking. Prior to the pandemic, women were exposed to violence online much more frequently than men, and young women were particularly affected by bullying and violence from men (EIGE, 2017). Likewise, women and girls in the public eye, such as female politicians, journalists or human rights defenders (see Chapter 1 on WPS) experience GBOV particularly frequently. People discriminated based on SOGIESC are also strongly affected by GBOV (Fraser, 2020). As most of the world's population was under lockdown for large parts of 2020 and 2021, internet usage increased by 50% to 70%. Work, education and social life has taken place online. This is also true for children's lives which are increasingly taking place online, partly due to online learning but also due to social media. With the digital space not being a child safe space, the youngest age group is often uninformed and thus even more vulnerable to rising online violence (End Violence, 2022). By extension, women and girls are online more frequently during the pandemic. At the same time, they are often disadvantaged when it comes to digital skills due to the digital gender gap and are therefore at higher risk of cyberviolence. This again reinforces the

<sup>9</sup> Women with disabilities generally face an increased risk as they are two times more likely to experience violence from partners and family members than women without disabilities and up to ten times more likely to suffer from sexual violence. Women and girls with disabilities may also find it harder to report violence and abuse and access help due to the nature of disability as well as isolation and dependence on (or fear of) caregivers.

digital divide with women limiting their usage of technologies as a result of GBOV (UN Women, 2021j). At the same time, this also results in less participation by women when it comes to cultural, political or job-related events and processes, or even services that have been moved to the virtual space during the pandemic. While teleworking may have reduced the risk of in-person workplace sexual harassment, new forms of violence have become more common, such as “zoom bombing” or showing sexually explicit or racially charged material to unsuspecting participants (ILO, 2020b). In addition, pornographic traffic has drastically increased worldwide, thus escalating risks of sextortion (UN Women, 2021j).

As forms of gender-based violence have become more complex during the COVID-19 pandemic, **prevention and response services remain largely unprepared across the globe**. Even the prevention of and response to forms of violence that are better understood, such as domestic violence, remain unfit to meet the systematic nature of such violence. By extension, the justice system, law enforcement, but also social media companies are lagging a comprehensive response and accountability mechanisms when it comes to technology-enabled violence. While the COVID-19 pandemic has emphasized that a **more systematic prevention of and response to GBOV is required**, a strong focus of donors on GBOV risks excluding the most marginalized communities. Interview partners pointed out that women do not have internet access in many countries, especially older women, women with certain disabilities or migrant women without a permanent home. To these groups the migration of social life from in-person contact to virtual spaces contributes to their isolation. Similarly, queer people strongly relied on internet access in order to access social media support networks. The problem of GBOV consequently inherits a power structure in itself. This needs to be considered when setting policy priorities in development-related gender equality issues.

### 5.3 Harmful Practices

Harmful practices include among others **child, early and forced marriage (CEFM), female genital mutilation (FGM), femicide, and bride-price related violence**. Over the last decades initial progress could be observed in combating some of these practices. For instance, rates of child marriage declined in some countries in South Asia (UN Women, 2021b). The prevalence of FGM has also declined globally. According to UNICEF data “In the 30 countries with nationally representative prevalence data, around 1 in 3 girls aged 15 to 19 today have undergone the practice versus 1 in 2 in the late-1980s”(UNICEF, 2021.) However, crises that drastically affect economic and social life, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, exacerbate these forms of violence (Fraser, 2020). The following analysis shows some of the drastic effects the COVID-19 pandemic had on selected harmful practices, focusing on FGM and CEFM due to a broader evidence base.



Loss of earnings during the pandemic has **created financial hardship for many families**, exacerbating women’s dependency and, in extreme cases, leading to trafficking, forced prostitution, or forced marriages. Girls between the ages of 10 and 19 are most at risk of these harmful practices. An estimated four million girls are at risk of child marriage over the next two years due to the pandemic (UN Women, 2020b). Similar dynamics have been observed in previous health crises. The Ebola crisis in West Africa has led to a noticeable increase in sexual violence, forced marriage, human trafficking and other forms of gender-based violence (UN Women, 2021b). Next to economic pressures, school closures and lockdowns contribute to an increase in drop-outs that disproportionately affect adolescent girls, as they are more exposed to harmful practices. Reports from Malawi reveal that adolescent girls are often married off after finishing their primary examination. Due to school closures, this takes place even earlier now. Similarly, a striking increase in teenage pregnancies is observed (Gender Links, 2021).



At the same time, **the fight against FGM has been interrupted or limited** due to the pandemic. In countries where FGM is practiced, there is an increased risk of girls undergoing FGM during lockdowns, as wounds can heal without schools or other members of the community or society noticing. Restrictions on

movement during the pandemic are hindering awareness of the dangers of FGM in communities. Due to disruptions in prevention programs, two million FGM cases are estimated to occur over the next decade that would otherwise have been averted (UNFPA, 2020). Somalia's COVID-19 lockdown has led to a huge increase in FGM with circumcisers going door to door offering to perform the practice on girls stuck at home during the pandemic, according to Plan International. Reports refer to group gatherings where up to 20 girls were subjected to FGM in places such as Abdaal and Dhalocad in the Sahel region. With 98% of women having been affected by FGM, Somalia has one of the highest FGM rates globally. It is important to note that FGM is often a condition for marriage (Plan International, 2021).

## 5.4 Approaches

Since approaches and solutions to gender-based violence are very similar across different forms of violence, they will be presented together in the following. **Due to its high prevalence, combating gender-based violence is a continuous focus of many bilateral and multilateral donors.** The focus is often on combating domestic violence, intimate partner violence (IPV), sexual violence by non-partners and the prevention of harmful practices such as female genital mutilation (FGM) or child-, early-, forced marriage (CEFM).

However, in light of the pandemic, current prevention and response efforts are **not sufficiently funded to tackle the systematic nature of the issue**, despite the extensive knowledge, data and policy focus on GBV that **already exists**. Interview partners working in the field emphasize across the board that rather than finding new approaches and innovations, existing and effective approaches to primary, secondary and tertiary prevention (as listed above) require appropriate funding and attention. Consequently, the following insights into good practices regarding effective approaches to address GBV in a post-pandemic time still hold true. However, they often lack the consideration and response to intersecting forms of discrimination that lead to GBV and differently affect the experiences and needs of people based on SOGIESC, migration status, disability, geographical location etc. Existing approaches therefore need to be generally adapted to systematically consider an intersectional perspective. This gap closely relates to a missing consideration of intersectionality in political discourses and policies. Only very few national action plans and policies consider the intersectional nature of GBV and the importance. An exception in this regard constitutes the South African National Strategic Plan on Gender-Based Violence and Femicide as it explicitly acknowledges the intersectional nature of violence against women across age, sexual orientation, sexual and gender identities (SAMRC, 2020).

In the fight against gender-based violence, approaches are differentiated depending on their level of intervention. **Building short-, medium-, and long-term protection and support through secondary and tertiary prevention interventions for survivors** is a consistent focus. These include providing quality health and correctional services, building women's shelters, psychosocial support, economic empowerment interventions for survivors, and strengthening referral processes. Integrated approaches are particularly common, for example, through the use of "one-stop" centers for survivors of violence, where health services, legal assistance, and police services are provided to survivors in one location. Frequently recurring themes include ensuring adequate funding for services, and training health, legal, and police personnel to address survivors' needs and to prevent re-traumatization and revictimization. Based on the intersectional analysis conducted in this study, it is crucial that these interventions are extended to specifically consider the needs of different social groups, e.g., by raising awareness and train health, legal and police personnel on experiences of violence and stigma of persons with disabilities or LGBTIQ communities. This requires a stronger focus on breaking down stereotypes and transforming discriminating social norms to enable an intersectional, transformative response.



**In addition, primary prevention interventions have gained importance**, especially since the 57<sup>th</sup> Session of the Commission on the Status of Women in 2013. The goal of these interventions is to counteract the emergence of gender-based violence, for example, by changing social norms and promoting gender equality and empowerment of women at the community, individual, or group level. Through initiatives such as the UK's WhatWorks to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls program or the Sexual Violence Research Initiative or the UN Trust Fund to End Violence Against Women's "Learning from Practice-Prevention Series", the evidence on the effectiveness of interventions is increasing. **Evidence-based action and collaborative learning and innovation** is thus a priority area for prevention. Among approaches for prevention, gender-transformative approaches are particularly prominent. Evidence suggests that the effectiveness of information campaigns and stand-alone activities is limited. The effectiveness of approaches such as the community based SASA! Method for HIV/AIDS and violence prevention have been proven. In regard to the prevention of harmful practices, the use of community-based programs and programs in schools with the involvement of religious and traditional authorities and health workers have proven to be particularly effective. In addition, legislative change is a lever used for prevention, although the effectiveness of laws on prevention is controversial (Matanda et al., 2020). Interventions using these approaches include the UNICEF / UNFPA "Joint Programme on Female Genital Mutilation" and the "Global Programme to End Child Marriage." In addition to multilateral and bilateral actors, a global alliance of civil society organizations is fighting child marriage through the Girls not Brides Campaign. The campaign highlights the importance of collective action and cooperation to combat harmful practices (Girls Not Brides, 2021). From an intersectional perspective, so far these interventions often **remain limited to focusing on gender relations**. Yet, they provide opportunities to address intersecting forms of discrimination, e.g., experiences of violence based on SOGIESC or disability, when working on norms change with communities and community leaders. A good practice example in this context is the GIZ Partnerships for Prevention of Violence against Women and Girls in Southern Africa. In a pilot initiative, the project worked with LGBTIQ organizations to provide awareness training on discrimination and violence experienced by LGBTIQ persons in schools. The program worked closely with pupils, teachers and parents.

Some innovative approaches and additional lessons learned have emerged in response to the effects of the pandemic on GBV. These concern in **particular short-term prevention and response measures** to fill service gaps in crisis situations; the importance of **close cooperation with local and grassroots organizations** who are working with the specific communities affected by the intersecting nature of GBV (e.g. people with diverse SOGIESC, persons with disabilities, informal workers); **integrated and multi-sectoral approaches to address GBV** in conjunction with related stressors, such as economic hardship; and **prevention and response approaches to GBOV**, as a field that gained particular importance during the pandemic. **Finally**, the importance of an effective vaccine roll out to address impacts of the pandemic on GBV will be highlighted. The potential of digital technology in combating GBV will be highlighted throughout the approaches. However, digital technologies are twofold for marginalized groups. While marginalized groups gain agency through digital communication, access to devices and internet can constitute barriers to GBV-related information and services especially for marginalized communities.

#### **Short-term prevention and response: Filling service gaps in crisis situations**

In response to the anticipated rise of GBV during lockdowns, **feminist and women's rights activists and civil society organizations mobilized and advocated for direct responses early on** and ensured that most governments could not overlook the importance of policy responses. According to the UNDP UN Women COVID-19 Global Gender Response Tracker (UNDP, 2021b), which monitors policy measures enacted by national governments worldwide to tackle the COVID-19 crisis, 832 measures were implemented in 149 countries (out of 219) to tackle violence against women and girls. Of all measures, 65% aim to strengthen services for survivors.

Most of these measures focus on **helplines and other reporting mechanisms**, police and judicial responses to address impunity, the continued functioning and expansion of shelters and ensuring that services remain coordi-

#### Repurposing Free Space for Shelters

Several governments, including France, subsidized nights of accommodations in hotels for IPV survivors and their families as shelters exceeded capacity. In other cases, such as in the efforts of the Ministry of Women, Family Children and Seniors in Tunisia, new shelters were opened in free building spaces in order to allow for a possibility of self-quarantining for survivors before being integrated in traditional shelters (OECD, 2020b).

nated and accessible throughout the pandemic (UNDP, 2021b). The need for a speedy response led to new and innovative approaches that can provide guidance both for a better emergency planning in post-pandemic times as well for the rest of the pandemic. Few information is available to what extent these response measures were **responsive to the needs of especially marginalized women** e.g., in rural areas without access to helplines. In these cases, grassroots organizations often played a key role to fill gaps in crisis situations. Close cooperation with civil society organizations is therefore a crucial addition when strengthening services for survivors (see approaches to support CSOs below).

The UN Trust Fund to End Violence against Women, is a key grant-making mechanism in this context. It has awarded USD 198 million to 609 initiatives. Taking such initiatives forward it especially crucial that they shift power and resources with minimal bureaucratic and donor requirements also to grassroots organization and feminist initiatives working with marginalized groups. Through their work they have an in-depth understanding of the complex interactions of discrimination at play and are often the first actors to respond and support communities affected by intersectional discrimination (see approaches to support CSOs below).

#### Setting up additional and online courts to ensure access to justice



Providing access to justice for GBV survivors is not only crucial for an effective response to GBV but also carries signaling power in that it emphasizes that impunity will not be accepted. In other countries **videoconferencing tools** were used for court hearings or online testimonies to ensure continued access to justice for survivors (e.g., in Lebanon, Singapore, and Trinidad and Tobago). This can, however, only be considered an additional matter next to traditional courts in order to avoid reinforcing inequalities due to limited internet access. In order to account for the intersectional nature of experiences of violence, it is crucial to ensure that **access to justice is especially provided to marginalized communities**. As an example, the Department of Justice in South Africa set up a Rapid Response Team to fast track pending and reported LGBTI related cases in the Criminal Justice System (LGBTI National Task Team, 2021).

#### GBV Courts

Botswana set up specialized and dedicated GBV courts during the COVID-19 lockdown (Gender Links, 2021), creating visibility of the issue and enforcing accountability of the perpetrators.

#### Facilitating technology-based reporting

As many countries have seen a sharp increase in the number of calls to helplines, governments and civil service providers have become more innovative and rely more **on technology-based solutions**, starting new hotlines or augmenting existing services to respond to increased demand and remote options. In addition to traditional telephone hotlines, confidential mobile applications and other forms of technology are also being used to support GBV and IPV survivors during the pandemic.



The National Union of Moroccan Women (UNFM) launched the digital platform “Kolonamaak” (We are all with you) which provides 24/7 support and guidance for women survivors of violence nationwide. The platform is connected to institutional services such as the Ministry of Solidarity, Social Development, Equality and Family, the Office of the Public Prosecutor, police authorities, the Ministry of Health and other relevant stakeholders. It also provides a **free mobile application** that locates the victims’ phones, provides them with the necessary

help and directs them to the helpline. Additionally, UN Women Morocco mobilized an **artificial intelligence** expert to support the platform in centralizing their data and information, monitor the complete support system provided to survivors of violence, and optimize collaboration between the national platform and its regional counselling centers (UN Women, 2020d). This is an especially comprehensive example of how technology facilitated an improvement of the GBV response. In other cases, such as Tunisia, the Ministry of Women, Family and the Elderly launched a knowledge website on equality and violence against women "Contre violence femmes tunisie" (French/Arabic) in cooperation with the Council of Europe. The website aims to raise awareness in the field of promoting gender equality and combating gender-based violence, to develop and simplify knowledge in this regard, to spread awareness of the dangers of violence and to eradicate hate speech (UN Women, 2020d).

### Scaling and strategically linking GBV awareness to pandemic awareness



Awareness raising measures about the increased risks of GBV during the pandemic and how to seek help amount to 17% of all measures according to the UNDP UN-Women COVID-19 Global Gender Response Tracker. Public awareness campaigns included social media campaigns, mass SMS messaging to mobile phone users, but also traditional media channels such as TV, radio, posters and flyers to reach out to those with limited access to electronic resources.

#### Raising awareness through diverse channels

(1) In Brazil community journalist groups in Rio de Janeiro have circulated and posted written information on domestic violence in favela neighborhoods. Besides banners and posters, they incorporated artistic measures, such as street art, graffiti, videos, and photo cards. **To facilitate communication with those who cannot read**, the groups, with the guidance of health workers, broadcasted audio messages from cars throughout the favelas. These messages were initially intended to educate about a variety of COVID-19-related topics but have expanded to include domestic violence (K. Andrews et al., 2021).

(2) In Hawassa City, Ethiopia, safe city messages on prevention and response to domestic violence and sexual violence have been shared with **religious authorities** for community outreach (UN Women, 2021c).

(3) In Senegal preventive programs and messages on GBV and FGM were broadcasted **through TV and radios** in the context of COVID-19 by the Ministry of Women and NGOs. Awareness-raising materials on HIV/AIDS, GBV and female genital mutilation were printed, with information on safe spaces and multi-purpose centers.

### Supporting CSOs working with marginalized communities and intersectional approaches

Effects of the pandemic on the most marginalized communities are often not systematically considered in government responses due to a lack of awareness, knowledge of decision-makers and representation of these groups in decision making. **Local, grassroots civil society organizations tend to be the key change agents to address the needs** of the most marginalized. Through their work they have an in-depth understanding of the complex interactions of discrimination at play in their contexts and are often the first actors to respond and support communities affected by intersectional discrimination. Governments recognizing this gap have set examples by providing increased funding for these organizations. Australia, France and the UK allocated additional funding to support women experiencing violence and to organizations providing respective services. In Morocco, the Ministry in charge of women granted additional financial support to NGOs and counselling centers for women.<sup>10</sup> Overall, there still is a significant gap with CSOs too rarely recognized as change agents for addressing intersectional discrimination. Large-scale initiatives such as the UN Trust Fund to End Violence against Women, have been key grant-making mechanisms for feminist and women's organizations in this context (the fund has awarded USD 198 million to 609 initiatives).

<sup>10</sup> Direction de la Coordination et de la Promotion des Droits de l'Homme: Suivi de la mise en œuvre de la résolution de l'Assemblée Générale n°73/148 portant sur "l'intensification de l'action menée pour prévenir et éliminer toutes les formes de violence à l'égard des femmes et des filles: harcèlement sexuel" (2020)

Taking such initiatives forward with an intersectional perspective it is crucial to recognize the need for **flexible funding with little funder requirements** in order for organizations to respond quickly and effectively to crises. In addition, extensive donor requirements often keep local grassroots and community-based organizations, with the most detailed understanding regarding the needs of especially marginalized groups, from access to funding. A good practice to **strengthen grassroots feminist initiatives with an intersectional lens** constitutes “FRIDA, the Young Feminist Fund”, that provides resources to young feminist initiatives, while enabling flexibility and networking opportunities for them.

**Prioritizing integrated and multi-sectoral approaches**

The pandemic further accelerated a trend to address GBV in a more integrated manner, revealing the direct **relationships between economic hardship and experiences of gender-based violence**. Decreasing economic stressors and reducing women’s dependence on violent partners can contribute to lower levels of violence. In addition, dedicating particular attention to women in precarious employment or informal employment situations where they are often subject to abuse or harassment due to a lack of social and legal protection, can limit the risk of experiencing violence or at least allow for access to response services.

**Integrated Service Delivery**  
For instance, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, support is being allocated to accelerate community-level service delivery for survivors of GBV with dedicated focus on women in the informal economy as well as young girls and women affected by HIV and AIDS (UN Women, 2021b).



The pandemic showed that especially the working conditions of **health workers** need to be improved globally, including an effective prevention of and response to their exposure to violence. So far there is little evidence regarding effective initiatives in the development field to prevent and reduce risks, violence and harassment and to promote workers’ mental health and well-being.

**Integrated Programs for Refugee Women’s Needs**  
KADAV is an organization by Turkish women for Syrian refugee women. Driven by women’s needs, the organization engages in integrated services and thus reflects the felt needs of refugee women. The KADAV center started with GBV, however the portfolio extended to workshops on SRHR, body mapping, accessing state institutions and legal advice (for example-how to get an ID card). KADAV also started organizing gatherings in women’s homes (UN Women et al., 2019).

Additionally, in providing integrated and multi-sectoral approaches, DC should ensure that minoritized women’s felt needs determine program priorities. Programs and projects are more effective and have more ownership if they are designed by marginalized groups themselves.

## Addressing GBOV



As highlighted in the problem analysis, GBOV has caught increased attention during the pandemic after already gaining in importance over the last years.

### Information of and for Survivors of GBOV

GenderIT.org is a feminist blog that offers articles, news, podcasts, videos, comics and blogs on internet policy and cultures from a feminist and intersectional perspective, privileging voices and expressions from Africa, Asia, Latin America, Arabic-speaking countries and Eastern Europe (GenderIT, 2021).

Tactical Tech offers a wiki and training curricula (holistic and feminist perspective to privacy and digital security trainings) (TacticalTech, 2021).

At the core, addressing the root causes of such violence is similar to other GBV approaches: **Changing social norms and information.** Here, the importance of education and information should be underlined as people often lack knowledge on what constitutes GBOV in the first place. Especially cooperation is crucial with adolescents who grow up with early access to technologies. This is also closely connected to informing and **educating** on measures in place to address GBOV, especially if it involves different forms of discrimination which are very common in GBOV. Here, adapting information and awareness programs to the needs of different target groups is crucial for programming in DC, e.g., when wanting to reach children, elderly, or deaf people (End Violence, 2022).

Several (intersectional) NGOs have developed resources, putting forwards a feminist reflection on internet policies. Also, online community support dedicated to helping those experiencing online harassment is a frequent support mechanism. **Platforms** can be a safe space for persons receiving support and for those to support others by helping to report, documenting and sharing solidarity comments (HeartMob, 2021). **Toolkits** specifically for survivors of GBOV were also adjusted for the COVID-19 pandemic, covering aspects such as vaccine registration, online communication, courts, working remotely, online dating, etc. (Technology Safety, 2020). Protection measures may include standards developed together with the private sector, e.g., social media platforms to develop technical solutions to identify and hold perpetrators accountable since many people globally are connected to social media. To **sanction abuse and GBOV**, a comprehensive legal and political framework to address such violence is needed (Fraser, 2020). Such solutions are not new and have been debated for a couple of years but gained new and pressing importance through the pandemic. The subject shows further innovative potential for addressing violence against specific target groups, including women human rights activists, journalists, politicians and persons with diverse SOGIESC that are especially affected by GBOV.

## 6. Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR)

Previous public health emergencies such as Ebola have shown that **epidemics cause serious and long-lasting impacts on sexual and reproductive health and rights** (SRHR) access and outcomes (USAID, 2021). Sexual and reproductive health (SRH) can be defined as “a state of physical, emotional, mental and social well-being in relation to all aspects of sexuality and reproduction, not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity” (Starrs and Others, 2018). According to a comprehensive definition, achieving SRH requires the realization of sexual and reproductive rights, which are part of human rights (ibid).

While access to sexual and reproductive health services was already precarious under normal circumstances in numerous countries, among the **direct impacts of the COVID-19 crisis** are increased mortality and morbidity as well as an enormous strain on health systems. As the health sector responds to the urgent pandemic threat, service disruptions including SRHR services can arise from **supply-side factors**, including redeployment of health workers to the frontline response, supply chain issues, absenteeism of health workers due to fear of infection or illness, and suspension of services deemed “non-essential”. There are also **demand-side factors** that can cause a decline in service-seeking behavior of patients. Some of these factors are directly tied to **government response measures to COVID-19**, such as restrictions on mobility and transportation services, business operations, and school shutdowns where services were provided in school clinics. Other factors relate to the combined effects of reduced household income, lack of social protection, increases in violence and care burden, lack of education and information as well as restrictions of women’s and girls’ decision-making power when they are in lockdown with their families (Center for Global Development, 2021). For more detailed information about women’s economic empowerment and gender-based violence, see Chapters 3 and 5.

In parallel to the pandemic, recent years have seen a rise in authoritarianism in different parts of the world, often combined with an **ideological backlash against women’s rights and LGBTIQ+ rights** (Center for Feminist Foreign Policy & Washington, 2020). While this trend began several years prior to the pandemic, the pandemic response has posed an excuse for many governments to apply increasingly drastic measures of control and constraint against their populations, in particular women’s rights advocates (see also Chapter 2 on Women, Peace, and Security). Moreover, for authoritarian and conservative governments, the pandemic has served as an excuse to **de-prioritize SRHR spending**, or even openly prohibit the provision of key SRHR services such as contraceptives and abortion (Center for Feminist Foreign Policy & Washington, 2020). In some cases, a political backlash against reproductive justice has also **affected development funding**, as with the “Global Gag Rule” implemented by several U.S. presidential administrations, including the Trump administration from 2017-2021. This rule blocks U.S. federal funding for non-governmental organizations worldwide that provide abortion counseling or advocate to decriminalize abortion, making it exceedingly difficult for many SRHR providers finance their activities (Ahmed, 2020).

As a result of these developments, the COVID-19 pandemic has severely constrained already limited **access** to SRHR services, such as clean and safe deliveries, contraceptives, pregnancy termination, and pre- and post-natal health services globally. These direct impacts of the health crisis are likely to result in additional **indirect and downstream impacts** on SRHR that last much longer than the pandemic itself (USAID, 2021). For example, adolescent pregnancies, early marriages or women and girls potentially being confronted with Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) are SRHR-related effects of the pandemic that can gravely shape a person’s, community’s and society’s future long-term. **Systems of discrimination based on gender, but also sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, migration status or disability** limit the access to and information on these services for women, girls and marginalized groups in particular. For instance, the SRHR needs of women with disabilities, including family planning and antenatal care, is neglected amidst perceptions that they are not capable of reproduction or caring for children in general (Lokot & Avakyan, 2020). Additionally, **elderly** women are often not considered as an important target group for SRHR services, which is aggravated by the fact that they are a particular at-risk-group for contracting COVID-19 (CARE, 2020). In addition, refugees often living in countries with already weak

health systems and limited mobility faced grave challenges in accessing SRHR services (WRC, 2020). Similarly, **persons with diverse SOGIESC**, many of which are high-risk populations for HIV, or who might need access to antiretroviral medication or hormonal treatment, are especially affected by limited access to contraceptives and medication (Outright Action International, 2021). As highlighted throughout this study, these systems of inequality were exacerbated through COVID-19 and by response measures that did not take these inequalities comprehensively into account. An intersectional analysis of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on SRHR reveals that persons facing multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination disproportionately affected. The following analysis uncovers which gaps need to be addressed by an inclusive and transformative response.

In line with the direct and long-term effects of the pandemic that need to be urgently addressed by DC, the analysis will focus in particular on the following:

- Access to contraceptives, testing and medication
- Maternal health, pregnancies & abortion

Since approaches and solutions to SRHR are very similar across these two different aspects of SRHR and maternal health, and because pregnancies and abortion can be seen as a consequence of the restricted access, the approaches and solutions will be presented together, following the analysis of the key issues.

## 6.1 Access to Contraceptives, Testing & Medication

Feminist initiatives warned that **overloaded health systems, reallocation of funding and resources, shortages of medical supplies, disruptions to global supply chains and travel restrictions** will adversely affect women, girls and marginalized groups as they may face barriers in accessing contraceptives, safe abortion services, antiretroviral medication, and other reproductive health services (including both curative and non-curative services) (SheDecides, 2020) (UNFPA, 2020). The following analysis explores the difficulties of accessing essential services, including contraceptives as well as testing and treatment of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and HIV prevention and treatment, during the pandemic, from an intersectional perspective.

UNFPA (2021) estimated that the pandemic **disrupted contraceptive use for about 12 million** women with a consequence of nearly **1.4 million unintended pregnancies** during 2020 across 115 low- and middle-income countries (UNFPA, 2020). These disruptions in contraceptive and other SRHR service delivery can **be traced back to governmental measures** such as movement restrictions, lockdowns, and curfews, reallocation within the health sector in emergency response to COVID-19 as well as disrupted supply chains (WRC, 2020). In addition, **disruptions in accessing STI and HIV testing and treatment** during the COVID-19 pandemic predict possible setbacks of hard-fought gains in the HIV response. According to models by WHO and UNAIDS, a 50 % disruption in HIV treatment for 6 months could lead to 300.000 extra AIDS-related deaths in Sub-Saharan Africa over a one-year period. This would set the region back to 2011 levels of AIDS-related mortality (UNAIDS, 2020). In addition, the COVID-19 pandemic caused **significant delays in HIV diagnosis and antenatal care visits** that can prevent mother-to-child transmission (Center for Global Development, 2021). Another calculation by WHO and UNAIDS shows that a six-month service disruption in programs to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV could cause new HIV infections among children to increase by 40 – 80 % in high-burden countries (UNAIDS, 2020). People living with HIV and Aids are more likely to be in conditions including older age, chronic disease and immune suppression and thus more vulnerable to COVID-19 (WFP Gender Office, 2020). Consequently, prioritizing the provision of contraceptives and ensuring a continuation of fast HIV treatment are crucial measures to break such negative health-risk cycles and to prevent unwanted pregnancies.

However, as **sensitization campaigns and comprehensive sexual education curricula** have been disrupted by lockdowns, overloaded health facilities, and school closures, facilities that provide free contraceptives, testing, and treatment have been inaccessible. While adolescents cannot go to school and sexual violence increases in many

households, the use of contraceptives decreases. Together these factors contribute to higher risks of unwanted pregnancies but also a further spread of STIs and HIV.



These effects of the pandemic are exacerbated when interacting with discrimination based on gender and SOGIESC as well as racial discrimination and economic inequalities. For instance, the **socio-economic status** is crucial when it comes to the access of services, including contraceptives and treatment. Many marginalized groups living in poverty and/or those already facing other barriers to SRHR health services rely on free or **subsidized care**. In countries or sectors where employees do not have health benefits, paid sick leave, or support for child and/or family care, COVID-19 limited the personal and household income, as well as the ability to travel to and/or pay for health services, including SRHR. This is true for most persons living in **rural** areas. However, also women and girls living in **urban poverty** are confronted with barriers to accessing essential SRHR services (CARE, 2020). According to interviewees, these challenges were exacerbated by COVID-19, exposing lacking infrastructure and provision of basic services, e.g., **access to water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) facilities**. Unsafe sanitation facilities can lead to a range of health problems affecting, for instance, women's SRHR, such as menstruation and STIs (WaterAid, 2021).

A group at particularly **high risk of contracting HIV are women and girls** with new exposure to (sexual) GBV and increased economic pressure to engage in transactional sex during the pandemic. In addition, in many countries, existing gender roles mean men still have most of the decision-making power on family planning. In a lockdown, accessing contraceptives was therefore often not possible for women (Gender Links, 2021). Furthermore, **LGBTIQ people** are especially affected by these issues. For instance, gay men are at higher risks to contract HIV but also more likely to lack health coverage or the monetary resources to visit a doctor, due to widespread economic and social discrimination based on SOGIESC. LGBTIQ adults of color are even less likely to have health coverage, which relates to systemic racial discrimination. The multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination lead to the avoidance of medical care even when medically necessary (WFP Gender Office, 2020), (Coalition of African Lesbians, 2021a). **Due to COVID-19 lockdowns, many transgender persons** were also not able to access essential health supplements, such as hormone treatments. Additionally, transgender people were confronted with limitations to their mobility, as it was not possible to cross through certain zones without IDs. Many transgender persons face difficulties getting their IDs changed to match their gender and therefore faced harassment, restrictions or even arrest when trying to move in public spaces (Coalition of African Lesbians, 2021b). One interview partner pointed out that during the pandemic, more LGBTIQ people were arrested, and subsequently faced a high risk to contract COVID-19 in prison. The limited access to appropriate medication and additional harassment when trying to access health services in turn led to mental and general health problems (Outright Action International, 2021).

Similarly, challenges in accessing essential SRHR services also affect other groups that face social discrimination, such as **sex workers** of all genders. Online surveys by UNFPA covering East and Southern Africa revealed that 12 % of respondents faced difficulties in accessing government social protection schemes. Among the results of health service restrictions that were reported were challenges to HIV protection and treatment services as well as barriers in accessing sexual and reproductive services. These are compounded, as mentioned above, by discrimination faced based on SOGIESC, migration status or homelessness (UNFPA ESARO, 2021). This highlights once again that it takes an intersectional perspective to effectively address these issues without leaving marginalized groups behind.



Finally, in many **humanitarian settings and crises**, the health system and the availability of SRHR and other important hygienic services are limited. Meanwhile, international efforts in these cases focus on addressing security and stabilization. This comes at the expense of humanitarian needs, with SRHR needs of the population often overlooked, and has potentially life-threatening consequences (CARE, 2020). **Displaced communities**, both internally displaced people (IDPs) and refugees, often do not have the means to pay for SRH or other health services and often cannot travel to health facilities. Health, water and sanitation systems often are in bad conditions in camps and informal settlements and overcrowded before COVID-19 (CARE, 2020). The lapse in SRHR services during the pandemic will inevitably lead to a cascade of additional health problems, including increases in

the number of unintended pregnancies, maternal deaths, and sexually transmitted diseases, especially in these communities (Refugees International, 2021).

## 6.2 Maternal Health, Pregnancies & Abortion

Closely connected to the challenges identified in the first part of the analysis (6.1), the consequences of the impeded access to essential services, such as contraceptives, HIV prevention and treatment, may go way beyond the duration of the COVID-19 pandemic. Pandemic-induced disruptions in these services, especially in countries with weaker health systems, can threaten global progress toward reducing maternal and child morbidity and mortality (Lokot & Avakyan, 2020).



The combination of limited access to contraceptives and school closures increases the risk for adolescent pregnancies. With schools closed, many learners lost access to comprehensive sexual education and access to SRHR services, which increases their vulnerability to early and unintended pregnancy, and STIs. On top of that, lockdowns and school closures often lead to increased sexual activity amongst teenagers that can lead to **adolescent pregnancies**. These dynamics are exacerbated for communities with low socioeconomic status: **Economic pressures** may result in more **girls being pulled or kept out of school** to contribute to household work, getting married or being expected to reproduce at a young age (see Chapter 3 on WEE). Data on these effects is difficult to evaluate, given that they are multi-causal effects. Nonetheless, some evidence from Malawi and Kenya demonstrates that school closures combined with reduced household resources led to an 11-13% increase of adolescent pregnancies. During the Ebola epidemic in Sierra Leone, early pregnancy rose up to 65% in highly affected areas. Early and unintended pregnancies are often an end to girls' education, with long-term effects for their economic and social opportunities (UNESCO, 2021a). Overall, the pandemic's effects on SRHR services strongly interact with economic effect, government response measures and systems of inequality, increasing the risk that **child, early and forced marriages as well as unwanted pregnancies, especially among adolescents** increase in many communities in developing countries (UNESCO, 2021a).



In many cases, a rise of SRHR needs, such as safe abortions, STI treatment and treatment during pregnancies are linked to increased experiences of GBV, **including female genital mutilation, forced marriage, and rape**. In that regard, COVID-19 intensified the interplay of SRHR and GBV (see Chapter 5 on GBV). This concerns especially women who are at higher risk of facing GBV or dealing with SRHR issues, such as women with disabilities, young girls, migrants, refugees, sex workers, informal workers etc. For instance, this interplay was observable in Sierra Leone, where during the Ebola pandemic hundreds of young girls were raped and teenage pregnancy increased by 65% (Refugees International, 2021).

With a rising number of unwanted pregnancies, the **need to safe and free abortions increases as well**. Even prior to the pandemic, six out of 10 (61%) of all unintended pregnancies, and 3 out of 10 (29%) of all pregnancies, end in **induced abortion**. Yet only very few women can access them free and in a safe manner. Due to legal restrictions, social stigma, cultural norms, and economic challenges, many women and girls are forced to pursue unsafe abortions. As a result, they risk legal punishment and associated health risks. In Africa, 93 % of women of reproductive age (15-44) live in countries with restrictive termination laws, some countries prohibit abortions completely (e.g., Angola, Egypt and Senegal). Global estimates reveal that nearly half of all abortions are unsafe and each year, 4.7–13.2% of maternal deaths can be attributed to unsafe abortion. While Asia, Latin America, and Africa have some of the most legally restrictive abortion laws, these regions account for 97% of the global unsafe abortions. Next to social and cultural stigma and economic challenges (paying for the treatment, transport etc.), women in some cultural and religious contexts cannot seek any health services without the permission and accompaniment of a male relative (WHO, 2021a). In the pandemic, in overburdened health systems, where many in-person services that were not considered essential were stopped, lockdowns increased relatives' oversight over women and girls, and economic pressures rose, overcoming these challenges became ever more difficult for women and girls. Lack of access to safe, affordable, timely and respectful abortion care as well as the stigma asso-

ciated with abortions, **pose risks to women's physical and mental well-being**. Due to the pandemic, not only the necessary physical but also mental post-abortion care was largely restricted with consequences for women's future life-course (WHO, 2021b).

These effects are likely to especially affect **unmarried pregnant adolescent girls**, who face stigma from their social circles or health workers when they to seek SRH services. Also, women who are especially affected by a limited access to contraceptives and more affected by **sexual gender-based violence and conflict-related sexual violence, such as women and girls in conflict-affected areas, refugee camps or with disabilities**, are more likely to become involuntarily pregnant. In addition, barriers, such as lack of mobility and access to high-quality services are compounded for them (Lokot & Avakyan, 2020).

Next to unsafe abortions, COVID-19 and pandemic response measures further compounded the risk for preventable maternal and child deaths. Around 2.8 million pregnant women and new-borns die every year. Most of these deaths occur during **pregnancy, due to complications during childbirth or in the immediate postpartum period**. The majority of these deaths have preventable causes and are due to low quality of health services that especially affects people with lower socioeconomic status and in rural areas in countries with weak health systems. Almost all maternal and new-born deaths occur in low-resource settings. 80% of all maternal deaths are being counted in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (UNICEF, 2020). 61% of maternal deaths worldwide occur in fragile states, many of them affected by conflict and recurring natural disasters (CARE, 2020).

The combination of health system focusing on battling COVID-19 and mobility restrictions significantly exacerbated health services for mothers and children. It limited the **supply** of public and private health services not only for women seeking abortions but also **health services during antenatal and postnatal care as well as during birth** (Ipas et al., 2020). At the same time, many countries continue to record **substantial reductions in the demand of health services by pregnant women**, including antenatal care, as well as skilled birth attendance and postnatal care. Pregnant women and newborns experience physical and developmental changes that often make them vulnerable to viral respiratory infections such as COVID-19 (Temesgen et al., 2021). A survey among women in Central Ethiopia provides evidence that it is this interplay supply and demand-side factors that limit women in taking advantage of SRHR services during and after their pregnancies. The survey found in particular that increased transportation costs, fear of contracting COVID-19, perceived poor quality of maternal care from pandemic response resource diversions, needing to request the husband to visit a health facility as well as practicing COVID-19 prevention measures were reasons for pregnant women to not access services. Next to the associated health risks, the fear of contracting COVID-19 in their private life, isolation, and the fact that during the pandemic, many mothers had to go through labor alone, added another layer of **mental stress** for pregnant women and mothers (USAID, 2021). Women with **disabilities and preexisting health conditions** are at an even higher risk to be unable to access appropriate health services during their pregnancies, as their condition may put them at a higher risk to contract COVID-19.

Overall, the analysis of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on SRHR services shows that the pandemic and government response measures, have gravely aggravated the access of women and girls to SRH. An intersectional lens reveals clearly that currently access to high-quality SRHR depends on individual social and economic privileges. Systemic discrimination based on SOGIESC, ethnicity and gender—as well as inequalities between rural and urban communities in their access to education and well-resourced health systems—make SRH services in the pandemic for many marginalized groups evermore inaccessible. This ultimately violates their basic human rights. These fundamental gaps require comprehensive responses that are grounded in an intersectional and gender-transformative perspectives.

### 6.3. Approaches

Since approaches and solutions to SRHR are very similar across different issues of SRHR, they will be presented together in the following. Key approaches currently considered most effective to address the challenges COVID-19 posed to the protection and full realization of SRHR can be differentiated by their timeframe of intervention: **Short-term** support in SRHR mostly builds on ensuring the access to essential SRHR services and information in a crisis/pandemic situation. **Long-term support** aims mostly at prevention, raising awareness and supporting the SRHR in the future to increase the resilience of the SRHR systems to crisis situations. These can provide guidance for donors, including German DC, on how to respond to the COVID-19 pandemic in an intersectional and gender-transformative manner.

In addition to concrete short- and long-term measures to address SRHR comprehensively, the research team identified **overarching pre-requisites** necessary to ensure that any response measures are informed by appropriate expertise and assigned the needed priority status. Due to the topic's high interdependence with other issues, including economic empowerment or education, addressing SRHR in an intersectional manner should be a continuous priority area of bilateral and multilateral donors. However, SRHR issues, especially from an intersectional viewpoint, remain a taboo in many societies or are considered non-essential. These attitudes result in blind spots in the broader COVID-19-response and recovery. A key first step is therefore the recognition and promotion of sexual and reproductive health services that protect a person's right to decide as **essential services** (SheDecides, 2020).

A key element to put this ambition into practice is the integration of **SRHR experts in COVID-19-response and recovery**. Addressing SRHR gaps and blind spots in coordination and planning for COVID-related program and clinical guidelines is essential, as learned from the Ebola response (CARE, 2020). In addition, **people affected by intersecting oppressions and inequalities need to be engaged in meaningful decision-making** within COVID-19 preparedness and response at the community and national level and it needs to be ensured that their voices and lived experiences inform planning processes on SRHR access. It is further essential to ensure **adequate resource allocation** for SRHR (including decisions on how to adapt SRHR service delivery), seeking to address the increased barriers faced by those who experience intersecting oppressions and inequalities (Lokot & Avakyan, 2020). The budget prioritization and advocacy for SRHR as essential services and necessary areas of political action, including in **dialogues with the governments of partner countries**, could be an important starting point for German DC.

It is also essential for an effective responses and recovery to evaluate the **role of actors and organization on different levels** and their potential contributions to an effective response. As local structures and organizations have proven to quickly adapt their services, bilateral and multilateral donors should focus on supporting these structures. An interviewee working for a multilateral institution emphasized this as a need for donors to work with local communities and CSOs run by and for marginalized groups. Engaging with local responders, community organizations or CSOs is especially relevant for international DC regarding intersectional programming, since they are often best informed about the needs of people most affected by limited SRHR access.

## Short-term Approaches

### Ensuring access to contraceptives and medication

The most important aspect during a crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic is to ensure that essential services are **available and accessible** for the population in need without increasing risks of coronavirus infections. To this end, effective approaches in the realm of SRHR include free and/or more long-term distribution of contraceptives, prevention and treatment medication as well as diversifying distributors:

One strategy followed by 56 % of 49 countries that UNAIDS offices represent, is a shift to **multi-month dispensing and increasing the provided number of contraceptives or HIV medicine**. This reduces the necessary frequency of visits to facilities and thereby the risks of coronavirus infections and transportation costs. Where medical stock levels are low, effective collaboration and solidarity on international level is necessary **to manage continued access to medicine** (UNAIDS, 2020). In addition, **shifting and diversifying distribution** can increase accessibility and lessen the burden for hospitals and doctors: For example, community health workers can be authorized to provide contraceptives and the provision of certain contraceptives could be shifted from hospitals and doctors to pharmacies or dispensaries.

Finally, some countries have introduced **free contraceptives** for all women only under a specific age (25 years in the case for countries like France, Finland, and Belgium) (Women's Policy Group NI, 2020). While this is a needed initiative to offset the economic effects of COVID-19 on the use of contraceptives, such initiatives need to be scaled up to be independent from age or citizenship status to make them inclusive (see example from Botswana in regard to antiretroviral therapy). Other initiatives focus on cash and voucher assistance to provide access of marginalized communities to quality products and services they need (CARE, 2020). These can also be used to **offset additional travel and out of pocket expenditures** that women face during the pandemic (Ipas et al., 2020).

#### Free Antiretroviral Therapy

According to a recent decision, the government of Botswana will now provide antiretroviral therapy to all residents for free and regardless of their citizenship status. This is an important step for a comprehensive HIV response that takes inequalities based on socioeconomic status and citizenship into account.

### Using the potential of the digital space



The **use of technology and telemedicine** can support the maintenance of operations and some elements of service delivery, such as contraceptive services across the humanitarian-development nexus (WRC, 2020). This may include **establishing a helpline or call centers for SRHR services** where clients can describe their symptoms and tell their location to be advised if visiting a facility is needed and if home **delivery via community-based delivery system** is an appropriate option. Interviewees also reflect that these adaptations are an opportunity and should be **maintained even after the pandemic**. It is important to note for DC programming that technological outreach is highly dependent on recipients having access to cell phones, which is an issue connected to the digital divide.

### Digital Comprehensive Sexual Education

As a response to school closures and loss of opportunity to educate about sexual and reproductive health, the Malian Association for the Protection and Promotion of the Family (AMPPF) adapted an existing comprehensive sexuality education program to a digital format in early 2020 and trained 70 teachers and 229 learners in using and disseminating its lessons via online trainings. AMPPF estimated that it reached more than 160 000 viewers with comprehensive sexual education context in 2020 through weekly interactive sessions via Facebook, WhatsApp and videos presented on YouTube and its own TV channel (UNESCO, 2021).

### 24-hour Free Hotline for Reliable Contraception and Abortion Information

In Sudan, IPPF's Member Association in Sudan (SFPA) established a 24-hour free call center to increase access to health services including post abortion care and contraceptive counselling. IPPF is working towards institutionalizing this model for continuation beyond the pandemic (WHO, 2021).

### Tele-detailing to Educate Providers and pharmacists on safe abortion

The NGO Population Services International (PSI) used WhatsApp to host interactive group detailing sessions on topics such as legal abortion, post-abortion care, as well as medical abortion and contraceptive product information to reinforce correct use to providers and pharmacists (WHO, 2021).

### Virtual Personalized Follow-up Care

To prevent COVID-19 transmission, Pathfinder providers at facilities in Mozambique opted for virtual phone follow-up to confirm abortion process success for clients that utilized misoprostol and monitor danger signs (WHO, 2021).

## Promoting integrated COVID-19 and SRHR service delivery and information

Integrated approaches such as **integrated service delivery** are particularly effective through, for example, the use of "one-stop" centers, where services like the provision of coronavirus vaccines or testing can be combined with distribution of contraceptives and information on SRHR. Another possibility could be to go beyond contraceptive or medication delivery and also provide legal and mental health support in such locations. Hereby, it needs to be ensured that people accessing services are not put at a higher risk to contract COVID-19. In many countries, such as Morocco, the existing HIV testing, and treatment infrastructure is now also used for the COVID-19 response. The personnel and infrastructure provided by programs such as PEPFAR have been instrumental for a fast COVID-19 testing in many countries. The goal of providing an effective integrated response demands, however, that the facilities used for SRHR services, including the HIV infrastructure, continue to function and are not completely replaced by COVID-19 health services (UNAIDS, 2020). For donors, including the German DC, this means a **critical reflection on how current SRHR, and HIV programs can go hand in hand** with a quick and flexible COVID-19 response.

## Supporting community-led and based solutions

A lesson learned for DC programming from facilitators of an effective response to sex workers' needs during COVID-19 is that programs and organizations that are **community-based and community-led** are able to respond creatively and rapidly. Furthermore, UNFPA East and Southern Africa recommends **decentralizing and de-medicalizing services** and **scaling up community-based services and education of peer educators**. This way services can be provided continuously on-site and quality control can be implemented (UNFPA ESARO, 2021). In line with these findings, a national NGO reported that they were able to recruit **50 community outreach midwives** and procure contraceptive commodities to reach clients in their homes during the pandemic. Via this **door-to-door sensitization activities, more marginalized communities were reached** that had not been reached in previous outreach methods. Especially during the pandemic, further **building of support among parents and teachers for adolescents' access to SRHR information and services** should be pursued. This should also address socioeconomic and social well-being in the aftermath of COVID-19 (WRC, 2020).

### Monitoring of essential services

Strict and continuous **community-based monitoring and evaluation of HIV services** encourages innovation and quality improvement of HIV programs. Rapid identification of service-breakdowns or bottlenecks are possible via monitoring outcomes at each essential stage of service delivery such as diagnosis, linkage to care, treatment initiation, retention in care and viral suppression. For example, rigorous **monitoring in Uganda and Kenya in 30 health facilities led to innovative practices** that improved service quality and outcomes, including designated out-of-facility testing, special clinic days for specific groups of underserved people, specified pathways for people with special needs and challenges as well as multi-month dispensing and community distribution channels (UNAIDS, 2020). For donors, including German DC, this example showcases the potential that **systematic involvement of target communities in monitoring projects** can have for the quality-of-service delivery, especially when it comes to meeting the needs and interests of marginalized groups.

### Prioritizing mental health and psychosocial support (MHPSS)



The ongoing pandemic has resulted in a **high demand for psychological** support and issues of mental health have gained increasing importance through COVID-19 (Coalition of African Lesbians, 2020). While the pandemic resulted in mental load in the context of job losses and economic stress, further mental health stressors included rising rates of GBV, and isolation and quarantines with homophobic family members. This even resulted in feelings of suicidal ideation for transgender and people with diverse SOGIESC. Beyond that, there are also **additional mental issues specifically connected with SRHR** that need to be adequately considered and addressed, e.g., survivors of sexual GBV or trauma from unsafe abortions, pregnancies and insufficient HIV or hormone treatment (Gender Links, 2021).

According to expert interviews, some donors and organizations generally prefer to allocate resources to “classical SRHR issues” and less on mental well-being, assuming that it is a less important factor. However, NGOs, especially those working in the LGBTIQ community, such as the Coalition of African Lesbians based in South Africa, have recently started **prioritizing mental health** and well-being themes as an important part in their programs (Coalition of African Lesbians, 2021a). Frequent recurring themes include ensuring adequate funding for SRHR mental services, and training health, legal, and psychological personnel to address SRHR needs and prevent re-traumatization and revictimization. For actors in DC, issues such as mental health for LGBTI communities show the importance of **addressing SRHR as an integrated issue** that cannot be understood in a silo or separated from urgent needs of the target communities. While naturally not every issue can be integrated into an existing project, the example from South Africa points to **the integration of mental health and psychosocial support as a topic in existing SRHR projects** as a potentially impactful approach. This applies especially to projects that include traumatized or victimized persons among their target group,

## Long-term Approaches

### Scaling investments in the SRHR sector

Most prominently, COVID-19 has exposed the **weakness of the health sector in crises**. Inadequate public investments over several decades have weakened the ability of governments to address key public health concerns, including SRHR. On a systemic level, in order to address this deficiency as well as the increased health services costs in countries with sound health systems, **fiscal spending on health must increase**. It is important to **monitor the spending on reproductive care** during the pandemic to ensure that finances planned for SRHR should not be decreased, suspended, or even cancelled. This is especially pertinent in light of growing backlash against women’s rights and reproductive rights on the part of conservative and authoritarian political actors (CARE, 2020).

It is also crucial to ensure that **medical personnel involved in SRHR** does not get moved and absorbed to sectors that are seen as “more essential”, such as COVID-19 treatment. This is again closely connected to the recognition of SRHR as an essential service (UNICEF, 2020). The long-term goal in this regard for international DC agendas should be to **leverage health reforms** to enhance women’s and girls’ agency, choice and equitable access, whilst promoting family planning as part of a universal health coverage agenda (Center for Global Development, 2021).

### Supporting Local Governments for Urban Reproductive Health

This initiative specifically addresses urban poor and their reproductive needs and operates in East Africa (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda), Francophone West Africa, Nigeria and India. Led globally by the Bill & Melinda Gates Institute for Population and Reproductive Health (based at Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health) for the past five years, TCI supports local governments in urban areas to scale up high-impact family planning interventions that have been proven successful. The initiative has also developed an app that contains practical how-to guidance and tools on implementing proven interventions along with access to an online community of practice, which supports knowledge exchange and sharing among country and regional practitioners (The Challenge Initiative, 2022).

### Investing in SRHR care workers to reduce newborn and maternal mortality



Several sources argue that the most effective way to **address (preventable) newborn and maternal mortality is to focus on health workers**. Ensuring adequate numbers of doctors, nurses, midwives and other health workers in the communities where they are needed with the competencies and skills required should be an urgent priority for every donor and government. As indicated, many deaths can be prevented by quality health services and will save maternal and newborn lives. Already before the pandemic, “investing in an educated and well-trained midwifery workforce had the potential to yield a 1,600 per cent (16-fold) return on investment” resulting from improved maternal and newborn health (UNICEF, 2020). Indeed, investing in the **education of midwives is a “best buy** in primary health care” and will be critical to any country’s response to COVID-19, and safeguarding the lives of newborns, women and children (UNICEF, 2020).

Since many care workers are women, **gender-sensitive support to frontline health workers** at facility and community-level should be provided. This is not only referring to protective equipment but should follow a holistic view in that also psychosocial, menstrual hygiene, and family care needs of health workers should be considered. In that regard, additional financial, human, or logistical support to female health workers to offset the additional burden of the COVID-19 pandemic could be provided (CARE, 2020).

### Targeting the youth through behavioral interventions for SRHR awareness and prevention

There is growing recognition of the need to make existing health services youth-friendly instead of having stand-alone contraceptive delivery services to adolescents and youth. Ensuring **Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (ASRHR)** should counter barriers faced by youth in accessing high-quality sexual and reproductive health services, an important target group (Gender Links, 2021). Programs aim at eliminating structural, sociocultural and individual barriers mainly by (1) Promoting adolescents’ health literacy, including comprehensive sexual education coupled with (2) community support (UNFPA & Save the Children, 2009).

### Community-based Curricula to reach Marginalized Communities

A school in the Philippines work closely with local partner organizations to train students from marginalized communities as health workers, including midwives, nurses and doctors. The participants were afterwards more likely to work in under-served communities, increasing accessibility to SRHR services there (UNICEF, 2020)



Behavioral interventions have proven to be effective tools to **increase knowledge** of the participants while at the same time **incentivizing positive changes in their attitudes and behavior** rather than condemning behavior. These can target diverse topics such as mental development, STI, family planning and pregnancy prevention and care. By using an **effective “edutaining” and interactive methodology and incorporating games, role-plays and problem-solving skills**, it makes the discussion of topics often considered as taboo easier and develops new skills of self-protection. Providing a good entry point for **young people** in different settings to be familiarize with HIV-awareness and prevention, health-seeking behaviors, and non-violent gender relations. These toolkits can also be adapted by DC actors to crises like the COVID-19 pandemic or **humanitarian settings, or to virtual spaces** and promoted by donors (IAWG, 2020). One example of this approach is the **Join-**

**In Circuit (JIC) on “Aids, Love and Sexuality”**

aimed at increasing knowledge and behavior in SRHR among youth, developed by GIZ and implemented by Zambia Federation of Disability Organizations (ZAFOD) and Planned Parenthood Association Zambia (PPAZ). Intervention tools like these can be used in a **variety of settings** and the stations can be modified depending on **cultural and context specifics** and implemented with diverse organizations such as **cultural actors and through diverse channels**. The project is also noteworthy since it addresses the so-called “triple threat” of HIV, teenage pregnancies, and GBV that disproportionately affects young women and girls (GIZ, 2020a), and integrated an educational module on safety during the coronavirus pandemic.

**Life Planning Ambassadors**

This unique approach targets young people between the ages of 15 and 29 in Nigeria. The Life Planning Ambassadors are a diverse group of young people of all genders, married and unmarried, in- and out-of-school and engaged in improving young people’s access to contraceptive services. Due to the vicinity in community structures, the ambassador is thereby addressing intersections and breaking negative socio-cultural and institutional barriers to their health and development (The Challenge Initiative, 2021).

**An App on ASRHR by Youth for Youth**

A unique mobile application developed by a Togolese association in (ATBEF) aims at helping youth access credible sexual and reproductive health information during COVID-19. The App “InfoAdoJeunes” has eight different features: Comprehensive Sexual Education (CSE), the menstrual cycle, teleconsultation, web TV, games and quizzes, a chat forum, contraception, and a question section which are then responded to by an expert. The features were developed by young people that the association works with to ensure it is fit for ASRHR, including attractive colors, accessible language (IPPF, 2020).

## 7. Conclusion & Recommendations

The analysis of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the above five areas of gender equality, leads to conclusions and recommendations on **different levels**:

1. The study team concludes that there are key principles for a gender-responsive and/or gender-transformative COVID-19 recovery. These are **relevant across all five thematic areas** in order to address the intersectional effects of the pandemic (see Chapter 7.1). By moving beyond the sole focus on differences between men and women, but instead comprehensively integrating a feminist and intersectional perspective through, e.g., actively considering and addressing the needs of the most marginalized populations, DC actors can contribute to a more effective and just recovery.
2. The study team found that much of the interventions needed to address the pressing and intersecting challenges posed by the pandemic for gender equality are not new. Moreover, they build on existing approaches and solutions that have in the **past did not receive the necessary funding, attention and implementation**. In addition, they were often not considered from an intersectional perspective, which left the needs of especially marginalized groups, e.g., queer women, migrant women, unaddressed by common gender equality programs in DC. Consequently, it is crucial for DC actors, including German DC, not to focus solely on searching new and innovative solutions but to back interventions that have been proven effective in the past with sufficient funding and resources. Integrating a stronger intersectional perspective in these projects and programs will be crucial to address intersecting discrimination more comprehensively (see Chapter 7.2 (A)). This includes, for instance, scaling of funding to the prevention of GBV and provision of SRHR services that address the discrimination experienced based on SOGIESC, migration status or disability.
3. The intersectional analysis revealed that next to strengthening engagement with already existing gender equality approaches, the pandemic uncovered and intensified additional challenges that have previously not received the required attention in DC programming. These challenges will require **innovative and new approaches**. These provide insights into concrete measures and new priorities that German DC and their partners should pursue in both the COVID-19 short-term response and long-term recovery to sustainably transform gender relations. Central recommendations emerging from these are highlighted in Chapter 7.3 (B).

### 7.1 Principles for a Gender-transformative COVID-19 Recovery

In unraveling the factors that enable interventions to unfold transformative effects in the COVID-19 recovery, the synthesis of literature and interviews points to the following **key principles** that need to be applied in an intersectional gender-responsive COVID-19 response and recovery:

#### Feminist and intersectional perspectives as a standard

Kimberlé Crenshaw said, "If we can't see a problem, we can't fix the problem." The findings of the study underline this once again: The effects of the pandemic on gender inequality radically differ when various forms of discrimination intersect. These issues cannot be addressed, and consequently gender equality and a just recovery from COVID-19 in general cannot be reached, when DC actors do not systematically mainstream an intersectional perspective in decision-making, strategies, and programming. A feminist intersectional approach in DC focuses on the needs of marginalized communities. However, in critically reflecting unequal power structures, intersectionality is different to the notion of "vulnerability". Intersectional critiques of current development and humanitarian practices highlight that the notion of "vulnerability" or "reaching the most vulnerable" dominates the narrative. The intersectional alternative, then, would be to "place power at the centre, analysing not what makes people vulnerable but taking a broader approach to conceptualising how power hierarchies and systemic inequalities shape their life experiences" (Lokot & Avakyan, 2020). This requires appropriate awareness, capacities, analysis, meaningful

participation of marginalized groups in decision-making and funding. Establishing such an approach in German DC creates the basis for a transformative change for gender equality that leaves no one behind.

This is also brought forward by the concept of Feminist Foreign Policy (FFP). Sweden as a forerunner has announced its FFP in 2014 and countries like Canada, UK, France, Luxembourg, Mexico have joined the club since. FFP builds on the idea that strengthened gender equality contributes to reduced poverty, sustainable development, security and peace. In that, it aims at institutional culture shift which has, for example, enabled action across Sweden's foreign policy portfolio, including security, trade, and official development assistance (ODA) (CFFP, 2021). While the German Government was posited to seek a FFP in its German coalition agreement, this ambition should equally span across interdepartmental action with German DC introducing a "Feminist Development Policy". In this light, institutional and systemic change may be considered as not only beneficial to intersectional gender-transformative approaches, but to society as a whole. The following principles provide further insights into concrete steps necessary to establish a feminist and intersectional perspectives as a standard.

**Recommendation:** Establishing a feminist and intersectional perspective as a standard in German DC through the realization of the following principles.

### Taking representation and meaningful participation in decision-making seriously

As highlighted across all analyzed thematic areas, women and marginalized social groups remain underrepresented in public life, which means that public policies do not take their needs and priorities adequately into account (UN Women, 2021e). According to the Global Gender Response Tracker by UNDP and UN Women, the proportion of women on COVID-19 task forces ranged from 14% in Asia, to 20% in Africa and 32% in Europe, with a global average of only 24% (UNDP, 2021b). Only few countries have achieved gender parity in their task forces. This is in stark contrast to many countries with all-men COVID-19 task forces, as for example in Botswana. Data on the participation of other social groups within gender is not available, however, given the low female participation points to rather limited diversity. A good practice is the Hawai'i Feminist COVID-19 Response Team that was convened by the Hawaii State Commission on the Status of Women and already issued a "Feminist Economic Recovery Plan for COVID-19" as early as April 2020 (Solomon et al., 2020). Without proper representation in decision-making on recovery plans, the "important voices of the people who have been worst hit by the pandemic are excluded" (Coalition of African Lesbians, 2021b). Interviewees underlined those essential services for women were not considered. Also, the assumption that policies, such as lockdowns or food packages are "neutral" and have the same protective or preventative effect on everyone does not hold true. For example, measures like financial compensation were only paid for workers in the formal sector, not reaching many women and displaced people in the informal sector and even increasing gender pay gaps. Similarly, when care facilities closed, the additional care burden was often not split equally but rather increased the gender care gap. Even though women remain under-represented in decision-making forums, female heads of government have been found to lead effective responses, e.g., in Denmark, Ethiopia, Finland, Germany, Iceland, New Zealand (UN Women, 2021e).

**Recommendation:** Meaningful participation of women and diverse social groups on all levels of decision-making with regard to the COVID-19 recovery is crucial. This holds true not only for more effective policy responses but also for more inclusive responses, accounting for realities of diverse groups. This should be implemented in decision-making processes regarding the use of COVID-19 recovery funds and how to address developmental challenges caused by the pandemic and other crises, such as climate crisis.

## Intersectional Disaggregation of data

The way data is currently collected and used often leads to those at greatest risk of marginalization being hidden, excluded, or discriminated against. As one interviewee summarized it, inequality hides in the aggregate. However, having data disaggregated by sex does not guarantee that concepts, definitions and methods used in data production are conceived to reflect gender roles, relations and inequalities in society. For example, when research focuses on women and does not disaggregate data findings by race, ethnicity, and gender, it can bias the results and hide underlying patterns, where intersectional discrimination is of relevance (WISER, 2021). Disaggregated data that considers not only sex, but other sociodemographic characteristics can address this gap and better inform intersectional policymaking. However, the challenge in regard to data is two-fold: On the one side, there seems to be a lack of data to some extent, especially in large-scale data collection and databases. However, at the same time, it appears that policymakers disregard existing data for policymaking impeding the ability to measure, preempt, and respond. While research on the intersectional perspective of data and lessons learned exist, this is too little applied in policy making (see also the next section). Collecting and *using* disaggregating data is thus crucial to inform any policy and practice and also form a prerequisite for gender-responsive policies and budgets (see next principle). A good practice example in this regard is the government of Canada that is currently implementing the Disaggregated Data Action Plan (DDAP) with a focus on COVID-19 and published disaggregated data for diverse population groups under the project "Better data for better decision-making". The plan aims at three goals (1) Understand: Measure the health, social, economic and environmental experiences and outcomes of the population, (2) Act: Enable more equitable delivery of programs and services, (3) Monitor: Track progress toward a more fair and inclusive society (Statistics Canada, 2021). Informed by disaggregated data, the Canadian Government has recognized that COVID-19 disproportionately affects equity-seeking communities and issued a variety of funding options, e.g., mental health support to Indigenous and Black LGBTIQ communities (Solomon et al., 2020). It is important to stress that intersectional-disaggregated data and analysis is integral to understand realities and consequently act and monitor any policy, be it effective COVID-19 responses or effective DC policy (UN Women, 2021k).

**Recommendation:** Establish the collection and analysis of data beyond disaggregation by sex, e.g., age, disability, SOGIESC, as a standard in German DC (under consideration of data protection guidelines, and sensitivity for personal information).

## Promoting gender-responsive policies and budgets

Gender-responsive policies and budgets (GRB)<sup>11</sup> are crucial to address widening gender gaps resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic. GRB can help promote gender equality by applying a gender perspective to fiscal policies and the budget process and can involve many different actions by government, CSOs or international NGOs. GRBs are not solely addressed towards women, but rather ensure that public resources bridge systemic and gender-specific inequalities (IMF et al., 2021). According to an IMF survey in 91 countries worldwide, the issue of GRB is also closely connected to the point above on the disaggregation of data, as less than 30% of the respondents of the survey have sex-disaggregated data in all or most sectors, and even in countries where they are collected, less than 40% use them to inform budget preparation on a regular basis (IMF et al., 2021). In the context of the pandemic, promoting gender-responsive budgets also refers to the reallocation and flexibility of existing budgets according to ongoing needs assessments. For example, enabling flexible and direct funding for local and grassroots organizations who were already working and reaching the most marginalized groups was found to be effective, especially to address intersecting forms of discrimination. Other exemplary measures include prioritizing GBV-prevention or enabling direct cash transfers to women in the informal sector. Although fiscal policies and budgets processes are known to be useful and effective levers, they are too rarely used to drive change. Gender-responsive

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<sup>11</sup> Definition: „Gender-responsive budgeting is grounded in gender analysis, which assesses how well a budget addresses gender gaps and reviews the actual distribution of resources between women and men, and girls and boys, in all their diversity. Importantly, gender-responsive budgeting is about restructuring the budget to ensure that the government is using public resources in a way that can increase gender equality and thereby increase the efficiency and effectiveness of budgets and policies. This in turn helps accelerate inclusive and sustainable growth“

budgeting is a strategic approach to operationalize and monitor gender-responsive COVID-19 policies and to tackle the lack of financing that was revealed in many essential sectors (IMF et al., 2021).

**Recommendations:** Actively promote and implement a gender-responsive policy process and budgeting based on intersectional needs assessments – not only in response to COVID-19 effects, but also for other developmental challenges, including climate crisis.

## Transforming norms

Attitudes, norms, and behaviors fundamentally shape gender relations. In a holistic perspective, it is important to understand how norms evolve and how they manifest in society. Gender-specific impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic across all thematic areas analyzed can be traced back to persisting gender norms in society. For instance, the increase in the care burden for women during the pandemic is closely linked to societal expectations and economic systems that assume women as caregivers (UNFPA, 2021). The pandemic has consequently emphasized that traditional gender norms persist around the world. “It is time to stop trying to change women, and to start changing the systems that prevent them from achieving their potential” said the UN Secretary-General (Guterres, 2021). Issues of gender equality are systemic and fundamental questions of power. Discrimination and deep-rooted patriarchy have established gender power gaps in economies, political systems and society. It is thus crucial to identify and consider the systemic mechanisms that need to be tackled. In addressing these gender norms, an intersectional gender-transformative approach is necessary to see beyond the gender binary and address these norms and stereotypes. Already existing transformative and intersectional approaches include the involvement of men and boys, traditional and religious leaders, working with communities and communal spaces (e.g., schools). Further, behavioral change tools and also media as communication channels are crucial and deserve further emphasis. One example of such an approach is the Brazilian based NGO Promundo that is engaging men and boys by also addressing questions of masculinity for achieving norms change (Promundo, 2020).

**Recommendations:** Scaling programs and interventions that transform gender norms in an intersectional manner, not only focusing on gendered relations but also stereotypes and norms in regard to for instance to SOGIESC.

## Prioritizing integrated and multi-sectoral approaches

Challenges for gender equality in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic have been identified in a range of different policy areas, inter alia Gender-Based Violence, Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights, Women, Peace and Security, Women’s Economic Empowerment and Climate. However, as identified in this study, these different policy areas are closely interlinked, and should not be seen in isolation, as for example the economic depression during the COVID-19 pandemic found to be closely related to the spike of GBV. Working to ensure a gender-responsive COVID-19 recovery, the approaches should go hand-in-hand and build on positive synergies across all the key areas. For example, a recent simulation analysis by the UN Women Data Hub demonstrates “that an integrated policy approach including more spending on social protection, investments in the green economy, better infrastructure and education could lift close to 150 million women and girls out of poverty by 2030” (UN Women Data Hub, 2022).

In practice of international DC, integrated approaches could for example be reflected in programs that specifically address target groups and unite different thematic areas rather than addressing thematic silos.

**Recommendations:** For an effective COVID-19 recovery, German DC responses should prioritize the conceptualization of responses that actively address interacting systems of inequality and address them in an integrated manner.

## Shifting power and resources to feminist activists and grassroots organizations

The empowerment of marginalized groups capitalizes on relationships and collectivization. Linking interventions to gender advocacy and movements has proven to make them more successful, e.g., by cooperating with women's rights organization and feminist organizations (Cornwall, 2016). Civil society organizations (CSO) and community-based organizations (CBO) present on the ground and anchored in local communities have proven to adapt and deliver quickly in crisis situations, but also on the frontline in prior epidemics. CBOs and women's organizations not only have a crucial role in raising awareness about specific concerns but also reaching marginalized populations, such as women living with disabilities, women living with HIV, displaced, migrant and refugee women. "CBOs and women's organizations are drawing on their technical expertise and access to local communities and disenfranchised groups to fill gaps in essential services" (Cornwall, 2016).

Additionally, this research found that many CSO and CBOs working with marginalized groups are key change agents when it comes to inclusive and just responses to the effects of the pandemic. These organizations are often founded based on experiences of intersectional discrimination or shortcomings in services for marginalized groups. They consequently have a strong understanding of the complex interactions of discrimination in their specific context and work "by default" in an intersectional manner. In response to the COVID-19 crisis feminist organizations and community groups shouldered much of the response activities, but they are often excluded from decision-making and budgets or cannot meet extensive donor requirements. Recognizing that an intersectional approach and inclusive response to the pandemic requires the detailed understanding that local and grassroots organizations working with marginalized groups possess, development donors need to shift resources and power towards them. Good practices to mention in that regard are the "Power of Voices Partnerships Grant Instrument" by the Dutch Government or the "Canada Fund for Local Initiatives" that aims to strengthen local CSOs so that they are capable of their lobby and advocacy for a more inclusive and sustainable society. Noteworthy here is that Dutch or INGOs of the Global North are only eligible if teaming up with a local NGO. Furthermore, a focus of their partnership is on strengthening the capacity of their Global South partners to allow them to grow their influence and role over the course of the partnership. Both programs also acknowledge the perception that unequal power relations result from one organization being the knowledge provider and the other its recipient, but the success in increasing capacity of these organization. More funding, control and ownership for local CSOs is a major step in promoting the role of civil society and towards establishing relationships on an equal footing in DC. It increases their legitimacy and thus their ability to play a more independent role in their specific context, but also ensures that programs in partner countries of international DC can be embedded more effectively and more sustainably in the local context (Government of Canada, 2019; Government of the Netherlands, 2019).

**Recommendation:** Consequently, feminist CSOs, especially in the global south should be recognized as key change agents beyond an intersectional response to the pandemic and become more integrated in consultation and decision-making, as well as be strengthened by more, long-term and flexible funding options by German DC in the future.

## 7.2 Thematic Priorities for German DC

The effects of the COVID-19 pandemic have exacerbated gender inequalities across all thematic areas and the analysis found that responses that address intersectional discrimination comprehensively in these fields are lacking. Consequently, **all thematic areas constitute important fields of actions for German DC**, in which the above principles should be applied. However, the analysis also allowed to identify on the one hand **(A) thematic areas that constitute existing gender policy priorities which require scaling and intersectional adaptation** and on the other hand **(B) new fields of action in which innovative approaches with transformative potential** should be pursued:

## (A) Existing Priorities to be scaled

### Intersectional GBV prevention and response

As highlighted throughout this study, male violence against women, especially by intimate partners, intensified during the pandemic. At the same time, harmful practices increased. Women experiencing economic dependence, women with disabilities, an unclear migration status and communities facing discrimination based on SOGIESC were especially affected. While GBV prevention has been an international gender policy priority, the study finds that resources and interventions require further scaling as well as a systematic consideration of intersectionality (see principles above). Vulnerability of men and boys in conflict-contexts, as well as the vulnerability of LGBTIQ communities should for instance be recognized next to a considerable strengthening of GBV programming targeting women survivors.

**Recommendation:** Scale existing and effective GBV prevention programs and interventions to have a broader reach and strengthen the involvement of especially marginalized communities in these programs. Further ensure the provision of effective response mechanisms that are adapted to the needs of the respective target group as well as primary prevention initiatives (e.g., norms change) in the long-term.

### Provision of SRHR services for all

The analysis showed that funding and resources for SRHR diminished during the pandemic, as resources for a health response to COVID-19 were prioritized. Especially lockdowns further inhibited the access to contraceptives, STI-testing and medication as well as maternal health services. Women with low socioeconomic status, LGBTIQ communities and women in humanitarian contexts were especially affected by these limitations and are confronted with long-term consequences like teen pregnancies and STI infections. This highlighted once again that a unilateral commitment of DC actors to the provision of free and high-quality SRHR is crucial for women's empowerment and gender equality.

**Recommendation:** Strengthen current SRHR program and adapt services to increase access for marginalized communities in the long-term through approaches such as diversifying distribution of contraceptives, strengthening comprehensive sexual education. In the short-term, integrate SRHR services in the COVID-19 response without diverting resources.

### Making economic empowerment and the future economy work for all

The analysis shows that the economic crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic has hit women the hardest, especially migrant women as well as women working in informal and precarious employment. They were the first to lose their sources of income, with results such as increased economic dependence on potentially violent partners, lack of access to health services due to a lack of financial resources, loss of social protection etc. It highlighted, that current efforts for **women's economic empowerment do not suffice and do not work for all**. Especially the needs of the most marginalized communities are not yet considered in DC interventions, e.g., migrant workers, informal workers, or people in humanitarian crises. Next to providing economic opportunities through skill building and access to technologies, legal and social protection as well as support to the organization/unions of workers (even in the informal sector), should be priorities to increase resilience to crises.

**Recommendation:** Increase efforts to provide economic empowerment for marginalized target groups and in precarious contexts, such as humanitarian contexts. Strengthen their networks and ability to organize themselves as well as legal and social protection, next to providing access to technologies and digital skills.

## (B) Newly emerging priorities and innovations to be anchored

### Transforming the care economy

Through the COVID-19 pandemic the need for a transformation of the care economy clearly emerged. As schools and care facilities closed, the unequal distribution of care responsibilities led many women to lose jobs or limit their economic activities and deal with the mental load of caring for dependents. Transforming gendered norms of care responsibilities and the distribution of such responsibilities while expanding access to care facilities should consequently become a key priority in policy making on gender equality.

**Recommendations:** Support and build upon existing interventions to work with men, boys, families and communities on transforming gendered norms of care responsibilities. Invest in improving affordable access to care facilities and working conditions for care workers.

### Leveraging the potential of digital solutions and inclusion

Across all thematic areas, digital solutions and inclusion provide innovative potential to address the challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic. At the same time, the pandemic has increased the importance of access to technologies and digital skills. This holds true not only for leveraging economic opportunities but also for accessing social support networks or participating in societal processes and political decision-making. For instance, in the field of WPS, digital solutions bear the opportunity to increase participation of women peacebuilders and representatives of marginalized groups in peace processes. However, such opportunities are still too rarely leveraged and barriers to provide equal access to technologies and digital spaces, including harassment and violence persist for marginalized groups.

**Recommendations:** Increase digital inclusion by increasing access to electricity, internet and technologies as well as supporting digital literacy for marginalized communities and across age groups. Recognize and leverage the potential of digital solutions to provide social support and networks for marginalized communities, as well as opportunities to participate in decision-making processes.

### Advancing gender-transformative climate justice

In all of the thematic areas, COVID-19 has revealed systemic, more long-standing and gendered crises impeding a gender-just and sustainable future. One of the biggest lessons to learn from the COVID-19 pandemic is thus that both the response and recovery provide an important momentum and starting point for defining the building blocks for a sustainable and just economy. Moving beyond COVID-19, there is an imperative for transformative change, placing sustainability, gender equality and social justice at the heart of activities. Both climate and gender equality movements and CSOs share a vision of social justice. Many of the driving actors behind these movements inherently motivated by a concern for the effects of climate change on marginalized groups, including youth, Indigenous people or populations of SIDS populations. Shifting power and resources towards their work and holding the drivers of the climate crisis, including private sector corporations, accountable to climate goals should be a key priority of DC.

**Recommendations:** Policymakers in international DC should combine gender-just and environmental-just transformation. To this end, an important approach is to strategically join forces and build coalitions between civil movements, activist and CSOs working on climate justice and gender equality and provide them with decision-making power and resources. In addition, climate- and gender-transformative financing, with ambitious requirements that create strong incentives for private and public actors to transform their way of working for a climate-resilient and gender-just recovery, should be a key priority Of DC in the future.

## List of Interviewees

	Name	Title/Department	Organization
01	Monica Tabengwa	LGBTI Inclusion	UNDP South Africa
02	Rachel George	Global Resilience Program	ODI
03	April Pham	Senior Gender Advisor and Head of Gender Unit	UN OCHA
04	Julie Bodin	Thematic Expert Protection and Gender, Great Lakes & Southern Africa, DRC	ECHO
05	Anneleen Voss Claire Clingain	Senior Policy Officer, Economic Programmes	IRC
06	Mabetha Manteboheleng	Local Action for Gender Justice Lesotho Manager	Gender Links
07	Fanny Arendt	Access to Justice	UN Women Asia Pacific
08	Rhonda Sharpe	President	Women's Institute for Science, Equity and Race (WISER)
09	Julie Brethfeld	Sector Economist, Policy Division for Social Development, Governance and Peace	KfW
10	Mwanahamisi Singano	Head of Programmes	FEMNET
11	Sylvia Thompson	Senior Advisor	CMI – Martti Ahtisaari Peace Foundation
12	Sanam Anderlini	Founder & CEO	ICAN
13	A Peacebuilder from Sri Lanka*	Chairperson & Activist	Sri Lankan Women's Peacebuilding Organization
14	A Peacebuilder from Yemen*	Co-Founder & Activist	Yemeni Women's Peacebuilding Organization
15	Clara Alemann Kate Doyle	Director of Programs Fellow	Promundo
16	Nora Pistor Julia Meier zu Selhausen	Gender Planning and Safeguards Officer, Division Governance and Conflict	GIZ

\*Anonymous to ensure the security of the interviewees

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