# Gender-based violence and environment linkages

## The violence of inequality

Itzá Castañeda Camey, Laura Sabater, Cate Owren and A. Emmett Boyer
Jamie Wen, editor

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# Executive summary

Around the world, it is estimated that one in three women and girls will experience gender-based violence (GBV) during her lifetime (World Bank, 2019). Rooted in discriminatory gender norms and laws and shrouded in impunity, GBV occurs in all societies as a means of control, subjugation and exploitation that further reinforces gender inequality. This publication, *Gender-based violence and environment linkages: The violence of inequality*, establishes that these patterns of gender-based abuse are observed across environmental contexts, affecting the security and well-being of nations, communities and individuals, and jeopardising meeting sustainable development goals (SDGs). While linkages between GBV and environmental issues are complex and multi-layered, these threats to human rights and healthy ecosystems are not insurmountable. Research findings demonstrate that ending GBV, promoting gender equality and protecting the environment can be positively linked in ways that contribute to securing a safe, sustainable and equitable future.

### Purpose and approaches

*Gender-based violence and environment linkages: The violence of inequality* establishes a knowledge base for understanding and accelerating action to address GBV and environmental linkages. Developed by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), in collaboration with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) as part of the Advancing Gender in the Environment (AGENT) partnership, this publication aims to raise awareness and engage actors working in environmental and sustainable

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development, gender equality, and GBV policymaking and programming spheres to inform rights-based, gender-responsive approaches to environmental policy, programmes and projects.

*Gender-based violence and environment linkages: The violence of inequality* consolidates vast knowledge and experiences gathered from across sectors and spheres, serving as a robust reference for policymakers and practitioners at all levels to understand issues and potential interventions to address GBV as it relates to the environment. Over 1,000 sources of information, experiences and interventions from international stakeholders, national governments, civil society, environmental practitioners and policymakers, advocates and activists, and academics relating to GBV across environmental contexts from around the world were reviewed. At various stages of drafting this publication, the research further benefited from key informant interviews, input from experts through a validation workshop and extensive feedback from peer reviewers. Additionally, a survey (referred to as the GBV-ENV survey) and a call for case studies on GBV and environment linkages added to this research, garnering over 300 responses and 80 case submissions documenting evidence, promising practices and capacity needs from a broad array of stakeholders. The GBV-ENV survey responses included a range of accounts in which GBV has been a barrier to conservation and sustainable development. Fifty-nine per cent of the survey respondents noted they had observed GBV (from sexual, physical and psychological violence, to trafficking, sexual harassment, sexual coercion – rape in specific cases – child marriage linked to environmental crises, and more) across issues relating to women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs), environmental migrants and refugees, specifically-listed types of environmental crimes, land tenure and property rights, Indigenous Peoples, protected areas, climate change, energy and infrastructure, extractive industries, water, disaster risk reduction, forestry and biodiversity and the access, use and control over natural resources of some type in the course of their work to implement environmental and sustainable development projects.[1] Meanwhile, survey responses made it clear that knowledge and data

1 Please note that the GBV-ENV survey specifically asked this question; response data thus reflect only the number of people who completed the survey. It would be inaccurate to extrapolate data beyond the survey. The survey provided a definition of GBV in describing the types of violence they reported. Multiple questions and question type were asked to control for accuracy. For instance, open answers were reviewed and validated by authors and research assistants and tick-boxes were provided so respondents could catalogue the type of violence they witness and the gender of the victim/survivor(s). Additional follow-up questions asked respondents to provide details on how GBV impacted the implementation of projects. The analysis of these survey questions, among many others, shaped the development of this paper as well as identifying was forward reviewed in Chapter 8 of this publication.

gaps, tools and capacity building are all needed to tackle GBV-environment linkages. Seventy-one per cent of respondents noted that staff awareness and understanding of GBV-environment linkages was needed to address GBV.

**Key messages**

This analysis reveals the complex and interlinking nature of GBV across three main contexts explored in this paper: access to and control of natural resources; environmental pressure and threats; and environmental action to defend and conserve ecosystems and resources. Gender inequality is pervasive across all these contexts. National and customary laws, societal gender norms and traditional gender roles dictate who can access and control natural resources, often resulting in the marginalisation of women compared to men. Threats and pressures on the environment and its resources amplify gender inequality and power imbalances in communities and households coping with resource scarcity and societal stress. Discriminatory gender norms and stereotypes even shape the differentiated treatment of women and men working to protect and conserve the environment, ultimately affecting the effectiveness and success of outcomes.

Across contexts, expressions of GBV maintain societal and cultural gender inequalities and norms, forming a feedback loop to the detriment of livelihoods, rights, conservation and sustainable development. GBV is a systematic means of control to enforce and protect existing privileges around natural resources, maintaining power imbalances that create tensions within families, between communities and among involved actors. Furthermore, where the enforcement of the rule of law is limited, GBV abuses are used to enable illicit and illegal activities through sexual exploitation and/or to exert control over communities. As Indigenous communities are often on the frontlines of defending their territories, resources and rights from extractive projects and corporate interests, many Indigenous women face intersecting and reinforcing forms of gender-based and other violence (Wijdekop, 2017).

**Access to and control over natural resources: Land, forests, agriculture, water and fisheries**

Gender inequalities rooted in legal and social norms – including unequal access to education, economic opportunities and decision making – and gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities dictate how (and if) women and men access and have control over land and resources related to forests, agriculture, water and fisheries. Evidence and experiences in the context of land and natural resources show that GBV is often employed as a way to maintain these power imbalances, violently reinforcing sociocultural expectations and norms and

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exacerbating gender inequality. For example, when attempting to enter into agricultural markets, women can experience intimate partner violence (IPV) as their partners seek to control finances and maintain economic dependencies (Case Study EN19).[2] Moreover, gender-differentiated roles related to land and resources can also put women in a more vulnerable position to suffer GBV while carrying out daily responsibilities, as seen in firewood and water collection activities (Sommer et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2011). Access to and control over natural resources are also often a source for sexual exploitation, as seen in land tenure when authorities suggest or demand sexual favours for land rights (Matsheza et al., 2012); when male fishers demand sex-for-fish from women fish buyers and processors (Béné & Merten, 2008); or where male supervisors in natural resource industries sexually harass and abuse women, punishing those who do not submit by relegating them to dangerous work or limiting hours if their advances are denied (UN Women, 2018).

**Pressures and threats on land and resources: Environmental crimes, extractive industries and agribusiness, and climate change and weather-related disasters**

Environmental degradation and natural resource scarcity pose significant threats to ecosystems and livelihoods, resulting in or exacerbating biodiversity loss, food insecurity, poverty, displacement, violence, and loss of traditional and cultural knowledge. Ensuing tension and competition over scarce resources in and between communities, households and industries amplifies normative, discriminatory and exploitative gender inequalities, giving way to a rise in GBV as a means of control and reinforcement of power imbalances. For example, across environmental crimes, the weakened rule of law contributes to the sexual exploitation of women and men towards enabling criminal activities – as seen throughout illegal logging, mining and fishing operations as a means to fill labour forces (GI-TOC, 2016; UNHRC, 2011; Urbina, 2015). At other times, GBV has been employed as a method of quelling resistance from local communities during disputes and forceful displacements due to large-scale developments (IUCN, 2018; Rustad et al., 2016; Schrecker et al., 2018). Armed military and security forces involved in large-scale infrastructure developments and extractive work, as well as protected area rangers, have also deployed GBV as means to pressure local communities or exploit them. In the wake of social, financial and infrastructure stresses due to climate change and weather-related disasters, child marriage has been used as a coping strategy (UN Women,

2 Received as a case study, see Section 1.2.2 and Annex 3 on case study submissions for this research, which are listed in parentheses by the language of the submission – English (EN), Spanish (SP) and French (FR) – and the number of the case study (e.g. Case study EN19).

2017; Human Rights Watch, 2015), while IPV rates rise as men use violence as a means to exert control over scarce natural resources (Dankelman, 2016). Exacerbating challenges, gender-blind disaster risk management planning can also contribute to GBV (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018; Nellemann, et al., 2011; UNHCR, 2011; WRC, 2011).

**Environmental action: Women environmental human rights defenders, environmental projects and environmental workplaces**

Gender-based discrimination in social, cultural, legal, economic and institutional frameworks affects the ability of women and girls to equally and safely participate and lead in environment-related activism and organisational work and programming. These barriers reinforce gender inequality in actions to defend, protect, conserve and benefit from the environment. In these contexts, GBV is used to assert power imbalances and, at times, violently discourage or stop women from speaking out for their rights, working toward or benefiting from a safe and healthy environment (GBV-ENV survey respondent SP33; GBV-ENV survey respondent EN53). For example, incidents of GBV against women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs) are on the rise (Barcia, 2017; Facio, 2015; Meffe et al., 2018), with GBV normalised to the point where violence and discrimination are experienced in both private and public spheres (López & Bradley, 2017), making it difficult for defenders to seek justice (Watts, 2018). In environmental workplaces, patterns of gender-based inequality and discrimination are often surrounded by a culture of acceptance that reinforce them and can lead to instances of violence and harassment at work (ILO, 2017; Taylor, 2014). Environmental initiatives can unintentionally exacerbate local conditions that contribute to GBV (Tauli-Corpuz et al., 2018). Ultimately, GBV undermines and can even reverse progress on meeting environmental goals.

**Ways forward**

*Gender-based violence and environment linkages: The violence of inequality* documents GBV-environment linkages across a range of contexts, demonstrating that GBV is applied as a systematic tool of control to determine the rights and prospects of people based on their gender. While the issues are vast, there are also numerous entry points to prevent and respond to GBV within these linkages. Understanding GBV and environment interlinkages is critical for effective policy-making, planning and interventions, as these issues influence one another in various ways that can hinder or negate progress.

Some promising practices do exist and are leading the way for others in this area of work. Environmental programming can address GBV issues and risks by: integrating focused attention in organisational priorities and policies; raising

awareness and capacities; building strategic alliances across sectors and stakeholders to expedite action; and integrating GBV considerations across project cycles. In multiple international policy frameworks; donor, aid and finance mechanism priorities; and sustainable development organisations' strategies and plans, matters pertaining to both GBV (including prevention of and response to violence) and environment (including conservation and sustainable development) tend to be crosscutting but rarely linked, obscuring potential risks for exacerbating violence and/or environmental degradation. Bringing these interlinkages into priority focus offers a chance to see things differently, revealing strategic options for new and renewed efforts toward meeting human rights and international sustainable development commitments.

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Finally, respect and recognition goes to every person who is working to end GBV in environment-related fields and everywhere. Your reporting, documentation and strategies for action have made this paper possible and will make change possible.

# Acronyms

| | |
|---|---|
| **ACHPR** | African Commission on Human and People's Rights |
| **ACLED** | Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project |
| **AGENT** | Advancing Gender in the Environment |
| **ARROW** | Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women |
| **ASM** | Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining |
| **BBC** | British Broadcasting Corporation |
| **BRS** | The Basel, Rotterdam, and Stockholm Conventions |
| **CAR** | Central African Republic |
| **CBD** | UN Convention on Biological Diversity |
| **ccGAPs** | Climate Change Gender Action Plans |
| **CDCS** | USAID Country Development Cooperation Strategies |
| **CEDAW** | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women |
| **CFA** | Central African Franc |
| **CFM** | Community Forestry Management |
| **CI** | Conservation International |
| **CIF** | Climate Investment Funds |
| **CSO** | Civil Society Organisation |
| **DRC** | Democratic Republic of the Congo |
| **EGI** | Environment and Gender Information |
| **EHRDs** | Environmental Human Rights Defenders |
| **ETP** | Ethical Tea Partnership |
| **EWT** | Endangered Wildlife Trust |
| **FAO** | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations |
| **FDLR** | Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda |
| **FFF** | Forest and Farm Facility |
| **FGM** | Female Genital Mutilation |
| **FUNDECOL** | Fundación de Defensa Ecológica |
| **GAPs** | Gender Action Plans |
| **GBM** | Green Belt Movement |
| **GBV** | Gender-Based Violence |
| **GBV-ENV** | Gender-Based Violence and the Environment |
| **GCF** | Green Climate Fund |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product |
| **GEF** | Global Environment Facility |
| **GI-TOC** | Global Initiative Against Transnational Organized Crime |
| **GIZ** | German Development Agency |
| **HRDs** | Human Rights Defenders |

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|---|---|
| **IACHR** | Inter-American Commission on Human Rights |
| **IAPF** | International Anti-Poaching Foundation |
| **IASC** | Inter-Agency Steering Committee |
| **ICMM** | International Council on Mining and Metals |
| **ICRW** | International Center for Research on Women |
| **IDH** | The Sustainable Trade Initiative |
| **ILO** | International Labour Organization |
| **IM-Defensoras** | Mesoamerican Women Human Rights Defenders Initiative |
| **IOM** | International Organization for Migration |
| **IPCC** | Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change |
| **IPOs** | Indigenous Peoples' Organisations |
| **IPV** | Intimate Partner Violence |
| **IUCN** | International Union for Conservation of Nature |
| **IUU** | Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (fishing) |
| **IWT** | Illegal Wildlife Trade |
| **LGBTI** | Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex |
| **LSM** | Large-Scale Mining |
| **MAB** | Movement of Dam-Affected Peoples (Brazil) |
| **MEAs** | Multilateral Environmental Agreements |
| **MSF** | Médecins Sans Frontières |
| **NBSAPs** | National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans |
| **NDC** | Nationally Determined Contributions |
| **NGO** | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| **NTFPs** | Non-Timber Forest Products |
| **ODS** | Ozone-depleting substances |
| **OECD** | Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development |
| **PEMEX** | Petroleras Mexicanas |
| **PROFONANPE** | Fondo de Promoción de las Áreas Naturales Protegidas del Perú |
| **RDCS** | Regional Development Cooperation Strategies |
| **REDD+** | Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation |
| **RFMO** | Regional Fisheries Management Organisation |
| **SAFE** | Safe Access to Fuel and Energy |
| **SDGs** | Sustainable Development Goals |
| **SGBV** | Sexual and Gender-Based Violence |
| **SRCS** | Samoa Red Cross Society |
| **STIs** | Sexually Transmitted Infections |
| **STPF** | Special Tiger Protection Force |
| **TFA 202** | Tropical Forest Alliance 2020 |
| **TNCs** | Transnational Corporations |

| | |
|---|---|
| **UNCCD** | United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Programme |
| **UNEP** | United Nations Environment Programme |
| **UNFCCC** | United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change |
| **UNFPA** | United Nations Population Fund |
| **UNHCR** | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| **UNHRC** | United Nations Human Rights Council |
| **USAID** | United States Agency for International Development |
| **VAW** | Violence Against Women |
| **VAWG** | Violence Against Women and Girls |
| **VGGT** | Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure |
| **WAGP** | West Africa Gas Pipelines |
| **WASH** | Water, Sanitation and Hygiene |
| **WEHRDs** | Women Environmental Human Rights Defenders |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization |
| **WHRDs** | Women Human Rights Defenders |
| **WOCAN** | Women Organizing for Change in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management |
| **WRC** | Women's Refugee Commission |
| **WRI** | World Resources Institute |
| **WRM** | World Rainforest Movement |
| **WWF** | World Wildlife Fund |

# List of boxes, figures and resources

## Boxes

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# 1.

# Introduction

***"Gender-based violence undermines not only the safety, dignity, overall health status, and human rights of the millions of individuals who experience it, but also the public health, economic stability, and security of nations."***

United States Agency for International Development

(USAID, n.d.a)


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# 1.1 Framing the issues

### The heart of the matter

- Rooted in structural gender inequality and power imbalances, gender-based violence is both caused and exacerbated by exploiting societal gender norms and roles.
- Gender-based violence is both a symptom of gender inequality and a tool to reinforce this inequality, including maintaining or restricting control over natural resources, further entrenching gender inequality in a cyclical manner.
- Gender-based violence is a human rights violation with long-term impacts on survivors and whole communities, destabilising social and economic systems, and reducing household resilience.
- Conservation and sustainable development efforts offer widespread opportunities to address gender gaps of all kinds, including ending violence against women and girls, and reducing poverty.
- Preventing gender-based violence and promoting gender equality can meaningfully contribute to sustainable environments that support the fundamental realisation and enjoyment of human rights.

Around the world, gender-based violence (GBV) and environmental degradation and instability are among society's most pressing challenges – each with complex drivers and widespread impact. Pervasive GBV and environmental destruction affect the security and well-being of nations, communities and individuals, jeopardising development goals across sectors and contributing to cycles of loss and vulnerability at all levels. While ending GBV and securing environmental sustainability are each global priorities, rarely are they addressed together.

Given pervasive gender inequalities that almost universally affect women's unequal access to resources and rights, a majority of GBV victims are women. It is widely cited that one in three women will experience GBV at some point in their lives, but these estimates are conservative due to widespread underreporting, and in many countries the proportion of women experiencing violence is much higher (World Bank, 2019). GBV refers to any harm perpetrated against a person's will on the basis of gender (IUCN, 2018). Occurring in all countries, in all communities, at all stages of life and across settings, GBV encompasses many different expressions of violence, including: physical, sexual and emotional abuse sexual harassment; stalking; rape, including "corrective"

> ***GBV is any harm or potential of harm perpetrated against a person's will on the basis of gender.***

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rape and rape as a tactic of conflict; domestic violence and intimate partner violence (IPV); child marriage; human trafficking; and female genital mutilation (FGM) (USAID, 2016; USAID, n.d.b). It is any violent act, including threats, coercion and the potential for violence, perpetrated against someone's will and "based on gender norms and unequal power dynamics" (UNHCR USA, n.d.).

GBV is the result of long-standing, deeply entrenched discriminatory norms that treat gender inequality with permissibility and further embed these inequalities within societal structures and institutions. Profound structural and socio-cultural inequalities that systematically restrict individuals' ability to realise the full spectrum of their rights reinforce vulnerability and can result in violent acts to uphold gendered power dynamics (USAID, 2012). This reality is continuously reinforced through targeted violence, as noted by the United Nations: "patriarchal disparities of power, discriminatory cultural norms and economic inequalities serve to deny women's human rights and perpetuate violence… Violence … is one of the key means through which male control over women's agency and sexuality is maintained" (UN, 2006a, p. ii).

This introductory chapter describes the ways in which inequality provides conditions for and how GBV is used as a form of natural resource control. It establishes that understanding and addressing GBV is an inextricable part of gender-responsive (see Definition Box 1) environmental action, as well as meeting interlinked sustainable development goals (SDGs).

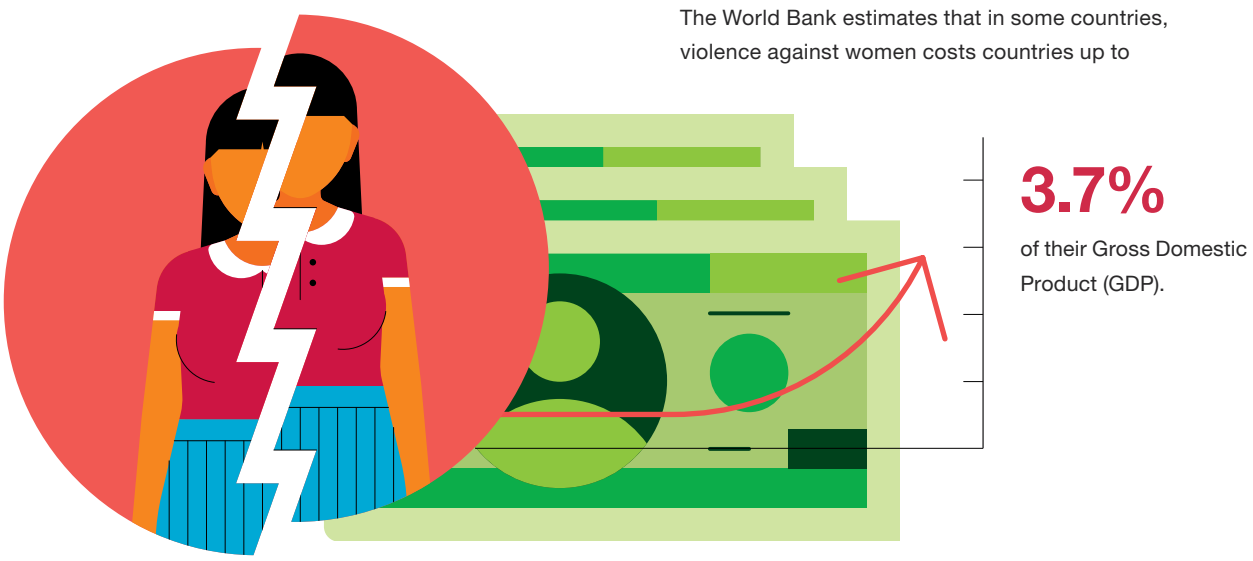
### *1.1.1 Discrimination and inequality drives gender-based violence and vice versa*

One of the "most prevalent and least punished crime[s] in the world" (UN, 2008), GBV is fundamentally rooted in discriminatory norms and practices. GBV is employed as a means to sustain an inequitable status quo, asserting social control and reinforcing the subjugation of victims by depriving them of the ability to exert or access rights and resources (Ward, 2005). GBV is therefore a symptom of gender inequality, and its perpetration entrenches inequalities in a cyclical fashion.

**Definition Box 1.**
**Gender responsive**

A **gender-responsive approach** proactively identifies gender-based gaps, discriminations and biases, and then takes coordinated steps to develop and implement actions to address and overcome them (IUCN, 2018). Gender-responsive strategies and results go beyond "doing no harm" and aim to do better, unlocking gender-based barriers, empowering women and advancing gender equality. This is fundamental to realising human rights, as well as to fully achieving conservation and sustainable development outcomes. Understanding gender-based violence as a symptom and tool of gender inequality is key. This understanding will further help conservation and sustainable development actors to comply with — and continue to improve — standards and safeguards[1] at multiple levels.

1 See for example UNEP-DTU Partnership and Gold Standard Foundation, 2018.




**Data from:** World Bank (2018).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 1. The impact of gender-based violence on national gross domestic product**

GBV impacts individuals across their lifetimes, and has direct and indirect costs to families, communities, economies, global public health and development (USAID, 2016). This violence has significant long-term impacts on affected individuals, such the spread of sexually transmitted infections or HIV/AIDS, physical injury, unintended pregnancy or infertility. Psychological consequences, such as depression, anxiety, alcohol and drug abuse, and post-traumatic stress disorder are also common, as well as emotional consequences, such as hopelessness, loss of control and anger (Manjoo & McRaith, 2011; WHO, 2017). In other cases, GBV results in homicide, which for women is often at the hands of someone familiar (UNODC, 2018). Moreover, GBV affects entire households and communities, contributing to attitudes accepting GBV as a norm, which has intergenerational impacts. One of the risk factors for both persons who are perpetrating and experiencing violence in intimate partner relationships, for example, is having previously witnessed familial violence (WHO, 2017).

A violation of basic rights, GBV has a cyclical impact, preventing victims from exercising their other economic and political rights (EU & UN, 2018). Those who have experienced GBV may be discouraged from engaging in decision making, leadership, educational and income generating opportunities – all of which directly affects economic empowerment and jeopardises progress toward

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poverty reduction (IACHR, 2016; UN Women Fiji, 2014). This in turn destabilises local economic and social systems, leading to lower rates of accumulation of human and social capital (Morrison et al., 2007). The World Bank (2018) estimates that in some countries, violence against women costs countries up to 3.7 per cent of their gross domestic product (GDP) (see Figure 1). In the United Kingdom, for example, studies show that the annual aggregate cost of domestic violence in England and Wales is close to GBP 66 billion, with physical and emotional harm costing GBP 47 billion in 2017 and GBP 14 billion lost output relating to time taken off work and reduced productivity (Oliver et al., 2019). In Latin America, it is estimated that the cost of violence against women can amount to 2 per cent (IADB, 2017), whereas only between 0.01 and 0.1 per cent of the countries' GDP are invested in programmes to prevent and respond to GBV (OEA, 2014).

People who have experienced violence may have difficulty accessing support resources and avenues to hold perpetrators accountable. This is in part due to societal stigma and cultural taboos around GBV that contribute to near-universal underreporting of violence (Palermo et al., 2014), which means that resources are not effectively allocated to support victims. It is also due to the impunity afforded to perpetrators, when GBV is not seen as a crime but, instead, as permissible. "Impunity not only intensifies the subordination and powerlessness of the targets of violence, but also sends a message to society that male violence against women is both acceptable and inevitable … as a result, patterns of violent behaviour are normalised" (UN, 2006b, p. 29). GBV is further enabled when the proper skills and tools are not available to carry out a fair, safe and timely investigation (UN Women, n.d.) (Box 1).

**Box 1. A vicious cycle of vulnerability, inequality and stigma**

Gender-based violence (GBV), especially rape, is a taboo in many countries – a reason why many women may prefer to remain silent in light of the possible retaliations from family, community and local authorities, pushing them into even more precarious situations. Discriminatory attitudes and ostracism towards rape survivors and GBV can foster an environment of impunity and drive further violence.

In some societies, being raped is considered a curse. Women can not only suffer physical violence, injury and unwanted pregnancies, but are also often blamed by their families and communities, risking being immediately ostracised. Médecins Sans Frontières (2005) reported the story of a 16-year-old girl raped by three armed men while collecting firewood in Sudan. When she told her family, they threw her out of their home and her fiancé cancelled their engagement.

*… When I was eight months pregnant from the rape, the police came to my hut and forced me with their guns to go to the police station. They asked me questions, so I told them that I had been raped. They told me that as I was not married, I will deliver this baby illegally. They beat me with a whip and on the chest and back and put me in jail.* (MSF, 2005, p. 6)

After 10 days in jail, during which she was forced to collect water, cook and clean for the policemen without receiving any meals, except for what she could find during her work during the day, she was released. She was then forced to pay a fine equivalent to US$ 65 (Médecins sans Frontières, 2005).

Source: Authors.

### *1.1.2 Gender-based violence is used as a means for control, including over natural resources*

GBV is used as a form of socio-economic control to maintain or promote unequal and gendered power dynamics across all sectors and contexts, including in relation to the ownership, access, use and benefits from natural resources. The potential for violence related to natural resources is particularly augmented in the face of environmental stressors and threats. These conditions create situations in which the control over increasingly scarce or degraded resources is increasingly fraught, resulting in higher tension, increased negative coping strategies and reduced resilience for families and communities – thus affecting lives and livelihoods.

Environmental action – that is, efforts and work to protect and conserve the environment and its resources – can further present, reinforce or exacerbate risk. In numerous contexts, these issues are interlinked and mutually reinforcing, often forming vicious feedback loops of violence and environmental damage. Within such environment-related contexts, GBV impacts the way and frequency with which individuals and communities use the natural resources at their disposal, especially during times of stress and scarcity. It also affects how they

are able to contribute to actions to protect these resources, very likely reducing overall resilience to environmental pressures and shocks, and climate change.

Differentiated access and control of natural resources is marked by historical and structurally unequal power relations and intersectional discrimination based on gender, age, ethnicity and other identities (UN Women, 2018). The inequalities are sustained in cultural and traditional gender norms and dynamics that can perpetrate, reinforce and forgive the use of GBV to maintain the disparity in power relations. Women and girls are often at the receiving end of violence, depriving them of their rights over and ability to access, control, manage and benefit from natural resources (see Chapter 2). Especially in situations where women directly rely on natural resources for their livelihoods and well-being, economic and other forms of GBV can effectively reduce victims to either total dependency or poverty, which can, in turn, result in reinforcing patterns of physical violence and sexual exploitation of women and girls (Fawole, 2008).

Given the types of violent acts included in multiple definitions of GBV, and drawing on the responses generated from the survey and cases studies (see section 1.2.2), this paper will address the following types of violence: sexual, physical, psychological, economic and cyber. In addition, literature and evidence demonstrate the importance of systemic barriers and norms in exacerbating violence, which can include institutional, social and legal dimensions. For example, GBV's legal dimensions are manifested in cases where laws relating to inequitable ownership and control of resources contribute to vulnerabilities, while institutional dimensions reflect the absence of policies and procedures, allowing for abuse of power (House et al., 2014). As GBV happens in many forms and contexts, these types of violence often overlap, making it difficult to characterise the violence as a singular event (see Box 2).

### Box 2. The poverty-resource, scarcity-economic, gender-based violence link

According to the European Institute for Gender Equality, economic violence is "any act or behaviour which causes economic harm to an individual. Economic violence can take the form of, for example, property damage, restricting access to financial resources, education or the labour market, or not complying with economic responsibilities, such as alimony" (EIGE, n.d.). In a study on economic violence faced by women and girls, economic violence is defined as "when the abuser has complete control over the victim's money and other economic resources or activities" (Fawole, 2008, p. 168). As women make up a majority of those living in poverty because of legal and social discriminations that limit their access to economic resources, cyclical poverty is therefore a persistent factor for GBV – and environmental interventions. "Poverty is both a cause and consequence of economic violence" (Fawole, 2008, p. 169). While poverty itself is not a form of GBV, the conditions of living in poverty coupled with limited access to power, resources, information and opportunities leave women and girls at greater risk for GBV.

For example, women and girls living in poverty are at a heightened risk of being trafficked into exploitative and violent situations to earn money, including into the commercial sex trade, as traffickers seek out and exploit those in vulnerable economic situations (Ward, 2005). For those who directly rely upon natural resources, as well as communities who are on the front lines of resource scarcity, the trappings of poverty can complicate addressing GBV.

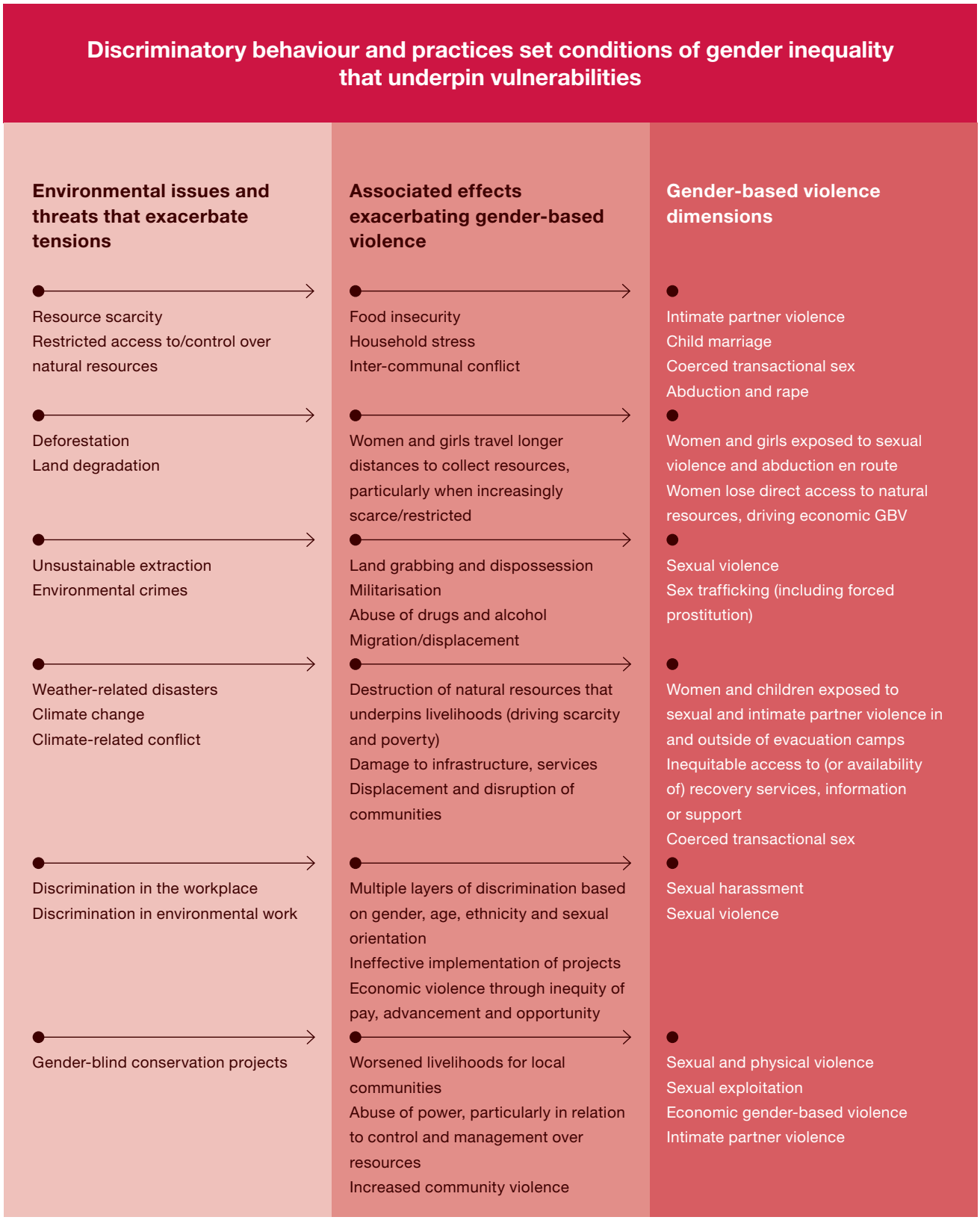
*Poverty puts women in a tight spot as they have minimal or limited options for immediate protection from GBV due to their dependency on the perpetrators. Limited access to resources including food quickly gives way to heightened threats, creating increased possibility [for] conditions for abuse, and when the perpetrators continue to abuse them they feel shy to report him again to the authorities.*

- Spokesperson, Dowa Police, Malawi
(Gender Links, 2018)

The myriad of consequences of such violence also increased IPV; the promotion of sexual exploitation of girls and women, such as trafficking and 'transactional' sex; increased health risks such as HIV/AIDs exposure; and reduced productivity and stalled development of a country (Fawole, 2008). These impacts mean that varying forms of GBV can also often overlap. In another example, the illegal uses of natural resources toward economic gain, including poaching, illegal mining and other illicit activities, increases gender-based sex and labour trafficking, which can be considered forms of both sexual and economic GBV.

Source: Authors.

Figure 2 illustrates how societal, cultural and legal gender-based discrimination can underpin, reinforce and oftentimes forgive the use of violence to maintain gendered power dynamics related to accessing, controlling, managing and benefitting from natural resources, especially in response to environmental stressors and environmental action.




**Data from:** Authors.

**Infographic Source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 2. Illustrative examples of linkages between environmental issues and gender-based violence**

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### 1.1.3 Why addressing gender-based violence is fundamental to realising global goals

It has been widely documented that advancing gender equality, which includes addressing GBV, is essential to fully realise the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)[2], as well as related sets of environment-focused targets, goals and frameworks[3] (IUCN, 2018). Addressing GBV in relation to some key environmental issues is likewise included in women's rights frameworks, such as recommendations from the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (see Chapter 8). Yet, research shows that coherence and integration across GBV and environmental agreements, frameworks and goals are largely missing – indicating that more is needed to proactively bridge existing gaps in environmental and sustainable development programming, and vice versa.Despite the numerous and widespread economic and social costs of GBV on individuals, families, communities and nations, this critical area of work is severely underfunded, with less than 1 per cent of global humanitarian funding spent on GBV prevention and response activities (OCHA, 2019). If universal interlinked SDGs are to be met, addressing these gaps demands data, information, innovation, investment and a shared commitment to act. The elimination of "all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation," is a key target of SDG 5 on gender equality (UNSD, 2017, p. 6). However, the seriousness of the scope and impact of GBV, including across environment-related contexts, requires actions to be taken in relation to other SDGs by different actors – including national governments, international organisations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and civil society, the private sector, donors, academia and communities – from both the environment and gender-equality spheres, as well as broader development and, in some critical cases, humanitarian spheres (see Box 3).

Addressing GBV is not easy. As research presented in this paper shows, it is culturally embedded, context-specific and without a one-size-fits-all solution. Attempting to address it may pose its own dangers, but not addressing it poses others, including failing to meet global environment and development goals. Steps forward are possible and already occurring in key spaces that can serve as motivation and inspiration for others. An illustrative example is presented in Box 4; further sample interventions (or 'Sample stories and approaches towards change') conclude each chapter.

2 Each chapter includes SDGs icons related to the themes addressed.

3 These include the Rio Conventions (Biodiversity, Climate Change and Desertification), specific frameworks such as the Aichi Biodiversity Targets, and mechanisms for climate action and funds (see subsequent chapters and recommendations in Chapter 8).

**Box 3. Tackling gender-based violence as a fundamental part of realising environmental and sustainable development results: The case of USAID's Hariyo Ban Program in Nepal**

USAID's Hariyo Ban Program[4] is a biodiversity conservation, climate change adaptation and resilience-building programme in Nepal, implemented by WWF-Nepal with a consortium of partners (WWF-Nepal, n.d.). In the programme region, as elsewhere, gender-based violence is a prevalent problem. Women were identified as particularly vulnerable during conservation work when patrolling forests, participating in meetings, speaking out about local leaders and holding positions that were assumed to be outside of their "qualifications" (Case Study EN34). Further, women were also more vulnerable than others, particularly "during natural disasters; when food was insufficient; and when their spouses were abroad for employment. Vulnerability increased in the evening when returning from forest work" (Case Study EN34). These encounters can pose mortal threats to women: in a broadly publicised encounter, illegal loggers attempted to murder a woman who challenged them (Case Study EN34; Hariyo Ban, 2014; 2017).

Programme managers realised that they needed to address GBV as part of their gender equality and social inclusion approach to enable women to participate, and benefit from the programme while avoiding putting women at increased risk. While the programme implementers advocated changes in gender norms and roles as they sought to increase women's participation in forest management, community decision-making and livelihood activities, they also understood that "it was not possible to bring about transformation in this field without working with men" (Case Study EN34).

Hariyo Ban developed a cadre of men champions among leaders and decision-makers to fight discrimination and GBV. Additionally, they raised awareness on GBV and gender equality and social inclusion issues, and supported its mainstreaming into national policies. According to programme implementers, "women's empowerment and capacity building has resulted in better practices in many community forests" (Case Study EN34), unlocking options for realising better environmental and sustainable development results. "Challenges included: overcoming stigma about GBV; providing a safe environment for women to speak out; raising the topic with government; and bringing about a significant cultural shift." One of the key lessons learned was the importance of having an institutional partner, in this case CARE Nepal, who specialised in addressing GBV (Case Study EN34).

Source: Authors.

4 Submitters for Case Study EN34 provided consent for authors to include identifying information in relation to the submission.

## 1.2 About this research

In a joint effort to enable further action toward meeting shared goals of conservation, sustainable development, women's empowerment and gender equality, IUCN in partnership with USAID conducted research that aims to close the knowledge gap at the nexus of GBV and environment issues. This publication's objectives are two-fold: to present the results of the research, and to identify and strengthen understanding of linkages across diverse contexts.

While GBV and environmental issues have typically been addressed separately, such as through distinct strategies and sources of support, the research results suggest that informed and integrated approaches are urgently needed for better environmental and gender equality programming and outcomes.

Ending GBV is a global imperative that requires concerted multi-stakeholder, cross-sectoral collaboration, including gender, GBV and environment decision-makers and practitioners. This publication is thus a reference for policy makers, programming and project practitioners, UN programmes, researchers, donors and civil society organisations (CSOs) at multiple levels. It is further specifically geared to influence environmental programming, including Advancing Gender in the Environment (AGENT), a 10-year USAID initiative with IUCN (see Box 4). Recommendations grounded in the evidence at hand focus on taking next steps urgently needed for knowledge generation, developing strategies and tools, and building on promising practices by these and other actors.

**Box 4. Advancing Gender in the Environment (AGENT)**

AGENT is a 10-year partnership between IUCN and the USAID Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. The purpose of the programme is to increase the effectiveness of USAID's environment programming through the robust integration of gender considerations, improvement of gender equality and women's empowerment outcomes in a broad range of environmental sectors. Recognising women as agents of change; valuing diverse knowledge, experiences and capacities of women and men alike; and working to bridge gender gaps, AGENT envisions a world that approaches environmental work at all levels with gender-responsive policy and action. A key intervention strategy is identifying and filling critical information gaps, which are barriers to fulfilling AGENT objectives; this research contributes to that objective. Knowledge sharing, including through a GBV-environment knowledge platform that will launch with this paper, and capacity building will follow (IUCN, 2019).

For further information, please see: https://genderandenvironment.org/advancing-gender-in-the-environment-agent/

### 1.2.1 Scope and structure

Although by no means exhaustive, this paper offers insight across key environment-related issues. The paper is organised into three main sections, as follows:

1. Introduction, framing GBV and environmental linkages and presentation of the research.
2. A review of GBV and select environmental linkages:
    - How GBV occurs and used as a means to sustain gender inequality and power imbalance in relation to natural resource access and control (such as related to land, forests, water, and fisheries, among others) (Chapter 2);
    - How pressures and threats to land and resources (e.g. as related to illicit and illegal environmental crimes, extractive industries and climate change) exacerbate normative, discriminatory and exploitative inequality, which allows for, results in and further exacerbates widespread GBV (Chapters 3, 4 and 5); and
    - How GBV in the context of protecting and conserving the environment (including GBV against women environmental human rights defenders, GBV in environmental work and workplaces, and GBV used or as a result of environmental action) further reinforces inequality, ultimately affecting environmental goals (Chapters 6 and 7).
3. A review of recommendations and entry points towards action addressing GBV and environmental linkages.

The magnitude and impact of GBV is daunting, but it is neither inevitable nor insurmountable (Ward, 2005). As part of working towards its elimination, understanding the root causes of GBV and what it entails is essential in making decisions that address the causes as well as the impacts while inspiring shared accountability and action. Since GBV does not occur in a vacuum, response and prevention strategies alike must proactively address the systematised gender norms and behaviours that drive it (Ward, 2005).

As a means to underscore the importance of responding to and addressing GBV as a pathway to achieving these goals, each chapter starts with the relevant SDG icons which best exemplifies the text. To support informed action, chapters address the ways in which discriminatory practices relating to natural resources and environmental contexts can result in GBV as expressions of control, subjugation and exploitation. Each chapter includes a 'Ways forward' section, which aims to indicate some of the key next steps to address issues

uncovered in the chapter. Finally, while the objective of the research was not to specifically identify and verify best practice, illustrative interventions were revealed along the way and they are included in the report, along with information (boxes) about existing tools and resources for further support. The publication concludes with recommendations geared toward adopting next-step gender-responsive approaches to address GBV-environment linkages across policy, programming and project levels.

### *1.2.2 Methodology*

Five overarching learning questions guided the research:

1. What are the main issues and characteristics of GBV in the environmental and sustainable development context?
2. What are the interlinkages with GBV, including prevention and response, and environmental issues?
3. What are the links and drivers between GBV and a range of environmental issues, and how are they being addressed?
4. How can the integration of GBV prevention and response in environmental programming be strengthened?
5. What targeted recommendations can address GBV prevention and response in environmental programming and project design?

To answer these questions, the research methodology began with extensive desk research to build knowledge toward answering these questions. It then expanded by developing and disseminating a call for specific case studies and a survey aimed at environmental, gender equality and GBV programming networks, experts, and practitioners. These were complemented with informant interviews, as well as a consultation process that included a validation workshop with experts and a peer review.[5]

#### Review of literature

In-depth desk research included: a review of international policy agreements; international and regional reports from governments, donors and civil society; case studies from across sectors; surveys and academic publications; grey literature from relevant initiatives and institutions; and evidence found in news articles. Desk research continued during the development of this document, and

5 The call for case studies, surveys and interviews were conducted in compliance with IUCN's Privacy Policy in a way that answers are used only for the purpose of the research and are only identified with a code. Regarding case study submissions, there is not necessarily a link between submissions and submitters.

included more than 1,000 documents and reports, collected in English, French and Spanish. The literature review showed that most of the information on the interlinkages between GBV and the environment is produced by international organisations and CSOs. The review found that there is not only a lack of official data and statistics at the national level, but also of analyses and assessment and, hence, policies addressing the linkages.

### Call for case studies

Researchers developed and disseminated a call for case studies in three languages – English, French and Spanish – that was shared with USAID and IUCN networks, as well as other partners and peers from international organisations, CSOs, government agencies and USAID missions, academics, associations and other institutions. A total of 85 case studies in the three languages were received. The majority came from Latin America, followed by Asia and the Pacific, and sub-Saharan Africa. Case studies submitted spanned various topics, and those most commonly covered were, in this order: access to natural resources; climate change; indigenous peoples' rights and territories; and forest and biodiversity. Many emphasised overlapping, reinforcing concerns in terms of the thematic issues (such as the impacts of extractive industries on natural-resource access) and those related to multiple overlapping types of GBV (such as sexual and institutional violence). Cases are woven throughout the chapters and are indicated in parentheses by the language of the case study – English (EN), Spanish (SP) and French (FR) – and the number of the case study (e.g. Case study EN19) (see Annex 3).

### Survey

Researchers developed and disseminated a survey to gather information specifically on GBV-environment linkages. Tailored questions solicited information on strategies, capacity, knowledge gaps and needs at individual and organisational levels related to identifying, understanding and addressing nexus issues. The survey also asked about the challenges and barriers in addressing GBV in the environmental sector(s), as well as specific questions on work with environmental human rights defenders (EHRDs), environmental crimes, land tenure and property rights, and extractive industries. The trilingual survey, referred to in this paper as the GBV-ENV survey, was disseminated through USAID and IUCN networks to several thousand environmental, gender and GBV experts, advisors, decision-makers and practitioners from international organisations, civil society, academia and governments. A total of 303 responses were registered.[6]

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6 The total does not include responses received with only a recipient's name and contact information.

The greatest number of respondents worked in Latin America, followed by sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America, the Middle East and North Africa, in that order. While the survey results should not be viewed as representative for any individual region, nor should results be extrapolated, responses offered rich examples, revealed critical gaps in information and tools, and yielded requests for further information and support. In addition to quantitative data, survey results also provided valuable qualitative data to document GBV incidences and impact on projects and programming, as related to specific sectors and contexts. Survey responses are integrated throughout this paper (indicated similar to case studies (e.g. GBV-ENV survey respondent EN64), as well as specific analysis of some key results (see Chapter 8).

**Expert consultation process and peer review**

IUCN and USAID organised a Gender-based Violence and Environment Expert Consultation Workshop (28 February–1 March 2019) to discuss, enrich and validate the zero-draft version of this paper. Nineteen diverse experts from across sectors and institutions identified misconceptions, explored overlooked issues and gaps, and shared additional cases, examples and tools. Participants further offered recommendations for closing the GBV-environment knowledge gap, which include identifying key themes around which to develop follow-up knowledge products, developing project technical support and building communities of practice. Institutional support from across IUCN further informed and shaped the analytical structure of this paper.

Once fully revised, the paper was submitted for peer review. This invaluable exchange allowed the consolidation of analytical threads. Ultimately, each review has reaffirmed the importance and urgency of addressing GBV as part of a fully realised, rights-based approach to conservation and sustainable development.

### *1.2.3 Limitations of the study*

While it benefitted from a multi-pronged methodology, it is important to note that there are limitations to this research. Among them are the following:

*Overall lack of information on the intersections.* While gender and environment linkages and GBV issues are well documented, there remains insufficient data on specific GBV-environment linkages per se. This paper attempts to bring together the existing resources and connect new areas of work and knowledge to inform action related to addressing these linkages.

*Inconsistent information available across sectors.* Information and data available for each of the different environmental issues discussed in this paper are not evenly proportioned – some topics and intersections have been documented, analysed and addressed more than others. For example, information related to GBV and access to water and energy sources, especially in humanitarian settings, is far more widely tackled than GBV issues specific to establishing, governing or defending protected areas. At the same time, research on other topics has greatly increased in recent years, likely mirroring various real-time trends. For example, information on GBV in disaster contexts appears following major hydrometeorological events, such as floods, storms and droughts.

*Varied information available across regions.* As clearly shown in the methodology section above, actors in some regions and countries seem to be documenting GBV-environment linkages more than in others. For example, there is a higher production of literature on women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs) in Latin America and on fisheries in South East Asia, while GBV related to extractive industries has been relatively well documented worldwide, including in developed countries.

*Limited review of programming documentation.* The literature review was limited to publicly available resources and documentation submitted directly to researchers via the call for case studies and the GBV-ENV survey. Digging into specific organisations' programme reports, monitoring and evaluation frameworks, environmental and social management systems and safeguards or external evaluations of projects, including those available online, did not comprise a significant portion of this research. The recommendations (see Section IV) point towards this direction as a good next step for stakeholders to consider.

*Limited access to direct accounts or interviews with survivors.* This research did not include fieldwork. Survivor accounts were only included if they were part of existing literature or submitted as part of the GBV-ENV survey. Although fieldwork or application of knowledge was not an objective of this project, it may be in future phases, especially in cases related to the development and application of specific tools for prevention and response.

*Stigma and silence.* Without question, the burden of socio-cultural stigma and taboo surrounding GBV, along with enabling attitudes and norms in many communities and regions of the world, pose challenges for research on the topic. From this perspective, the paper aims to serve as a positive disruption

of those norms which reinforce persistent and prevalent gender inequality to the detriment of us all.

## Suggested resources and tools 1. Gender-based violence

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Sexual Violence Research Initiative (SVRI, n.d.) | The SVRI is a network of researchers, policymakers, activists and donors focused on research support and capacity development on GBV. This platform houses SVRI publications intended to advance knowledge on GBV issues focused on prevalence, health, prevention, response, childhood sexual abuse, conflict and post-conflict GBV, traditional harmful practices and other crosscutting issues. |
| Resource Guide (Global Women's Institute, Inter-American Development Bank and the World Bank (n.d.), Violence against women and girls (VAWG)) (link in Spanish) | This platform offers sectoral briefs on GBV and law, disaster risk management, education, finance, health, social protection and transportation. |
| Sexual and gender-based violence (UNHCR USA, n.d.) | A UNHCR USA online platform that offers resources on training packages and handbooks to address GBV in humanitarian response. |
| Gender-based violence (UNFPA, n.d.) | The UNFPA is one of the UN's leading agencies working to address the physical and emotional consequences of GBV. This platform offers resources on GBV, disaster and conflict. |
| Economic Violence to Women and Girls: Is it receiving the necessary attention? (Fawole, 2008) | This paper provides a literature of how women experience economic GBV, including: limited access to funds and credit; controlled access to healthcare, employment, education and agricultural resources; exclusion from financial decision making; and discriminatory traditional and formal laws on inheritance, property rights and use of communal lands that leads to physical violence, promote sexual exploitation and increases health and mortality risks. |

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Section

I

# GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AND ACCESS, USE AND CONTROL OF NATURAL RESOURCES

# 2.

# The use of gender-based violence as a form of control over land and natural resources

***"Women are many a times the breadwinners of the family. Even the water goes off the taps for days and they have to keep looking for water and it is a point of vulnerability. When the girls go to fetch firewood, they are attacked and violated."***

An elderly man describing the conditions women and girls face in Mombasa, Kenya (ActionAid, 2013, p. 42)


S I.
S II.
S III.
S IV.

## The heart of the matter

- Gender inequalities related to the uses of and rights over land and natural resources are among the conditions that underpin gender-based violence.
- Gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities in water and fuel resource collection put women in highly dangerous situations as they complete these daily tasks, especially in situations of resource scarcity when they must spend more time and walk further distances to access resources.
- Diverse actors, including both women and men, employ gender-based violence as a means for controlling land and natural resources, including as a tool to exert force and to manage socio-cultural status, as well as for negotiations, such as 'sex-for-fish' transactions or sexual exploitation, in exchange for land rights.
- Women's restricted access to natural resource decision-making spheres and information at all levels is a form of exclusion, and women can face violent repercussions if they try to access these spaces – this cyclically limits opportunities for gender-responsive action, including informing conservation and addressing gender-based violence.
- The correlation between gender-based violence and women's land and property rights is highly variable and context- and culture-dependent, yet evidence suggests that secure equitable land and resource rights is a key lever to reduce various forms of gender-based violence.
- Promising practice exists – including from other sectors such as humanitarian interventions – that can inform strategies for environmental policymakers and practitioners, including investment in women's collective empowerment and agency, engaging men and boys as champions and the complex, long-term work of changing socio-cultural norms.

Gender-based inequalities are pervasive across the world, acting as barriers to equitable and sustainable access, use, control and benefits related to land and natural resources. Women, for example, represent the majority of the world's poor (Oxfam, 2017), landless (FAO, 2011), illiterate (UN, 2015) and informal as well as unpaid workforces (UN Women, 2016). Even while bearing numerous and key responsibilities for managing natural resources (Jensen & Halle, 2013), women are under-represented in decision-making (UN Women, 2019), especially environmental decision-making (IUCN, 2015), with further inequitable legal rights and significantly restricted access to resources (OECD, 2019).

In a cyclical fashion, many women, particularly in rural areas, continue to be discriminated against, and marginalised socially and economically, *because* of their lack of or limited access to land and natural resources, economic opportunities, education, healthcare, infrastructure, technology and financial

and extension services (UN Women, 2018a). The reality of their position of inequality is an obstacle to securing human rights and realising interlinked environment and development goals, such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It also represents a range of missed opportunities, as evidence shows across sectors that gender equality delivers significant environmental and sustainable development benefits (Aguilar et al., 2015). However, as gender gaps persist, they create a powerful stage upon which gender-based violence (GBV) flourishes.

Gender inequalities related to land use and tenure, and to the access to, use of, control over and benefits derived from other productive natural resources, are closely connected to women's poverty and exclusion. Expressions of GBV in relation to land tenure and productive resources are often employed to maintain the status quo and used as a means of control. Gender-differentiated roles related to land and resources can also put women in a more vulnerable position to suffer GBV. In many countries, women and girls are primarily responsible for the collection of productive resources, including water, firewood and forest products, and can be exposed to harassment and attacks during these activities, particularly in areas and regions where water and energy have to be collected far from their homes (Sommer et al., 2015; GACC, 2016).

Improving access to basic resources and services can alleviate women's work burden, providing them with more time for income-generating or other activities, as well as limiting their exposure to violence (House et al., 2014; Wheldon et al., 2015). GBV, whether or not associated with the access, use and governance of land and natural resources, has a negative impact not only on women, but also on the livelihoods of entire households and communities. As explained in a case study submission, analysis of the cost of the gender gap in agricultural productivity in Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda found that the short- and long-term physical and psychological consequences of GBV reduce women's productivity and can prevent them from carrying out their daily tasks. These include the collection of productive resources and participation in income-generating jobs, which increases food insecurity and poverty at the household level (Case Study EN25).

In this chapter, specific themes and sectors will be addressed, describing the ways in which existing norms governing the access, use, control and management of natural resources underpins systemic conditions of inequalities. Building on these contexts, observed links between GBV and natural resources will be discussed and documented evidence from across regions presented, which point to GBV as an expression of discriminatory gendered norms and

a means for exerting control over the access, use, control and benefits from land, forests, agriculture, water and fisheries. It includes the differing context-specific dynamics between GBV and land and forest tenure, as well as the unique danger facing women as a consequence of gendered division of labour in situations such as, for example, collecting water, food and fuel. With an emphasis on intersecting and mutually reinforcing forms of discrimination and violence, the chapter also discusses GBV faced by indigenous women. The chapter concludes with ideas for next key steps needed to address gender inequities which underpin GBV in relation to natural resources. Some illustrative approaches which were analysed in the research process and have shown to have contributed to positive change are also presented.

## 2.1 Land and its resources

### *2.1.1 Setting the context: Land as security*

Land is essential to life, livelihoods and resilience. Secure access to, control over and use of land provides a source of food, shelter, income and social identity, and reduces vulnerability to food insecurity, hunger and poverty, particularly in rural areas (IFAD, 2015). Secure tenure also encourages investment to improve land management and outputs (USAID, 2016).

Land security is also critical for the estimated 2.5 billion people who depend on indigenous and community lands to sustain their livelihoods. Their lands and territories (see Definition Box 3), which include forests, farmland, mountains and shores, are broadly estimated to cover 50 per cent of the world's land area (Oxfam et al., 2016). However, indigenous peoples and local communities hold legal rights of ownership or control to only about one-fifth of this area (RRI, 2015), exposing great swaths of indigenous communities to land grabbing and its effects. The lack of formal, legal recognition of indigenous peoples' and local communities' land rights makes them more vulnerable to land grabbing and to the loss of their identities, livelihoods and cultures, hindering international efforts to achieve sustainable development, end poverty and fight climate change (RRI, 2015). Indigenous women in particular experience a "broad, multifaceted and complex spectrum of mutually reinforcing human rights abuses (…) influenced by multiple and intersecting forms of vulnerability" (Tauli-Corpuz, 2015, p. 1).

**Definition Box 2. Land tenure, landholding and land ownership**

**Land tenure** is "the relationship that individuals and groups hold with respect to land and land-based resources, such as trees, minerals, pastures, and water" (USAID, n.d.a). This relationship is determined by a 'bundle of rights in land' that can include the rights to "occupy, enjoy and use; to cultivate and use productively; to sell, gift or bequeath; to mortgage or rent; or to transfer" (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013, p. 24). Land tenure systems vary across societies, from formal to informal, and determine who can use the land and its productive resources, for what length of time and under what conditions (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013; USAID, n.d.a).

Differentiating between **landholding** and **land ownership** is essential to understand the different rights that women and men have over land. According to the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (2015), "the agricultural holder is the civil or juridical person who makes the major decisions regarding resource use and exercises management control over the agricultural holding". This implies having "technical and economic responsibility for the holding" (FAO, n.d.a). However, only landowners are the legal owners of the land, which generally includes the rights to sell, bequeath and use land as collateral (FAO, n.d.a; Doss et al., 2015).

### 2.1.2 An overview of inequitable tenure rights and customary norms

For a better understanding of the links between unequal land rights and GBV, it is important to first review the profound gender inequalities in land tenure that create conditions for varying forms of GBV to take place. Gendered power imbalances are perpetuated by unequal land tenure as it affects women's ability to access, use, control and benefit from land. These impacts limit women's economic empowerment and perpetuate poverty (USAID, 2016). For Indigenous communities, discrimination can be even more pronounced, because in addition to the discrimination based on their ethnicity, indigenous women are also discriminated against because of their gender, which means that they have even fewer rights and less access to land than their male counterparts. While numerous international treaties, declarations and conventions reaffirm the right to own property and land, which is included as a fundamental element to achieving sustainable development, persistent barriers pervade globally.

In many countries, laws prevent women from owning, managing and inheriting property and land (Deere & León, 2003; Tripp, 2004; Tauli-Corpuz, 2015). According to a study of 189 countries by the World Bank (2018), 40 per cent of these countries have at least one legal constraint limiting women's rights to property. Of the 189 countries, 36 do not grant widows the same inheritance rights as widowers and 39 countries prevent daughters from inheriting the same proportion of assets as sons (World Bank, 2018). This inequity is an obstacle at multiple levels, as confirmed by GBV-ENV survey[1] respondents, half of whom reported that women do not have the same rights as men in the countries in which they work. Twenty per cent reported that women cannot own property in the countries where they work, and 45 per cent mentioned that while women and men enjoy equal legal land and property rights, customary laws and norms are unequal.

In countries where there are legal mechanisms in place for equitable land ownership, gaps persist as "customary practices, the lack of legal knowledge and social norms hinder the realisation of those rights" (Slavchevska et al., 2016, p. 7). In some cases, women may not be aware of their formal rights or they may lack the proper documentation to take advantage of their rights. In Colombia, for example, the Victims and Land Restitution Law is meant to benefit both women and men affected by conflict and displacement, but land claims require detailed registration information and titles that women may not

**Definition Box 3.**
**Land and territories**

**Land** includes different types of geographical spaces such as farmland, wetlands, pasture, rangeland, forest and harvesting and hunting territories, as well as the natural resources in them, including surface and near-surface freshwater (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013; FAO, n.d.b).

**Territory**, which has a collective component, better reflects the reality of Indigenous Peoples. The International Land Coalition considers that the term territories "recognises the cultural, social, and spiritual dimensions of land, rather than merely its productive or economic value, and includes other resources on which a local community may depend" (Cotula et al., 2018, p. 7). This term, particularly used in Latin America, is closely linked to the notion of identity and self-determination of Indigenous Peoples, and it is intrinsically connected to women's and men's bodies, families and communities (Cotula et al., 2018; Silva, 2017).

[1] For further information, please see Section 1.2.2 on the methodology used.

have access to if their husbands are deceased or missing (Jensen & Halle, 2013). In many other cases, but not all, customary laws favour the rights of men over women (Landesa, 2012). National laws may "reference customary law or codify specific customary law provisions that are discriminatory. Or formal law might be silent on particular matters, leaving the gap to be filled by customary law that disadvantages women" (Landesa, 2012, p. 3). In many countries, it is expected that the husband or his family will financially sustain the wife, so it is assumed that women themselves do not need to own property (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013). The laws reinforce the norm of women's dependence on male partners and relatives to access extension and financial services, or benefit from land programmes and agricultural schemes, among other things. When national and customary legal systems clash, gender-based inequity is reinforced.

Women's insecure land rights also puts them in a more vulnerable situation to suffer land and property grabbings (see Definition Box 4). Property grabbing, also known as disinheritance, is a common practice in some countries and consists of preventing women from inheriting assets, including land. Women's agency and ability to generate income and food autonomous of a male relative is undermined, resulting in the maintenance of discriminatory power dynamics and subordination of women to men (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013).

Despite efforts from some countries to offer specific protection against property grabbing, for example, by subjecting it to criminal prosecution, these harmful practices are on the rise as land pressures around the world grow (UN Women & OHCHR, 2013) (see Section II). Furthermore, the loss of land as well as marginalisation and exclusion from decision making makes women more vulnerable to various forms of GBV (Tauli-Corpuz, 2015), including as women face increased risks for exploitation in sex trafficking (see Chapters 3 and 4 on sex trafficking related to environmental crimes and extractive industries).

**Definition Box 4.**
**Land and property grabbing**

**Land grabbing** is "the control (whether through ownership, lease, concession, contracts, quotas or general power) of larger than locally-typical amounts of land by any persons or entities (public or private, foreign or domestic) via means ('legal' or 'illegal') for purposes of speculation, extraction, resource control or commodification at the expense of agroecology, land stewardship, food sovereignty and human rights" (Baker-Smith & Miklos-Attila, 2016, p. 2). Other terms used by academia to define this practice include reference to large-scale land transactions or land acquisitions (FLARE, 2017).

**Property grabbing** consists of forcibly evicting an individual from their home and land by other family members, traditional leaders or neighbours, often being prevented from taking their possessions with them. Evidence shows that women are disproportionately affected by this practice after the death of their husbands, which is often accompanied by other forms of violence (Izumi, 2007).

### *2.1.3 Gender-based violence as an enforcement mechanism for land and property grabbing*

Discriminatory norms are often coupled with women's limited knowledge of their rights to land, which results in the reinforcement of power imbalances and women's subordination to male partners, particularly in countries where customary norms sanction these practices. Even when women have legal rights over land, norms around decision-making in the community and household can leave them susceptible to property and land grabbing, which are often accompanied by GBV. In such cases, women can suffer physical, psychological

and sexual violence by family members who evict and/or disinherit them through property grabbing. In the case of property grabbing, there are reports of both women and men employing GBV as a form of intimidation, though it is generally male family members who ultimately confiscate the land (Izumi, 2007). In land grabbing, the private sector, the government or other actors, including family members responding to private sector or governments seeking to buy land, have been seen to use GBV as a coercive tactic.

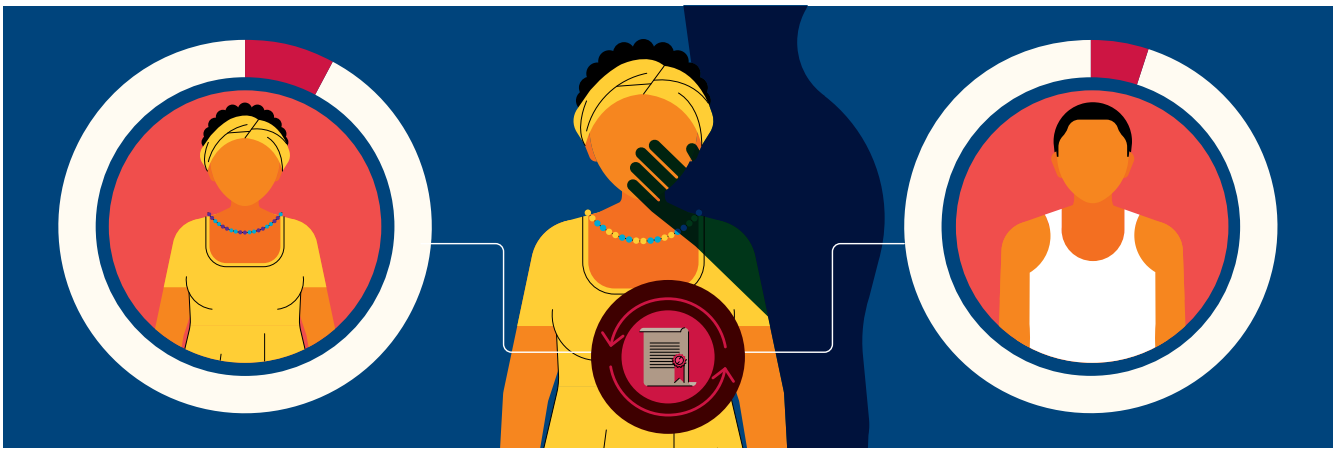
Examples demonstrate that "control over land and land disputes affecting women are correlated with intra-family GBV" (Kaiser Hughes & Richardson, 2015, p. 4). In Rwanda, a woman was physically and psychologically abused when she was perceived to be siding with an adversary in a land dispute, while in another case, a mother was threatened with physical violence by her son when he was displeased with the share of land she had given him (Kaiser Hughes & Richardson, 2015). In some cases, women experience violent property grabbing as a means of punishment by relatives. Widows whose husbands died of AIDS-related illnesses and wives with HIV-positive husbands are blamed by their husbands' families for witchcraft and prostitution, and are subjected to domestic violence and eviction as retribution, regardless of the typical belief that men infect the women (Izumi, 2007; World Bank, 2009; Hilliard et al., 2016). Addressing intra-familial GBV linked to land disputes is often difficult, as victims stay silent to protect the family, avoid ostracism or are pressured into working with religious or community leaders rather than prosecutorial routes as it is 'a private matter' (Global Namati, 2019).

Where land grabbing is instigated by the private sector or the government, women can experience gendered violence on multiple fronts, including as a way to displace them from land, and as a result of shifting household dynamics. For instance, research on land grabbing for large dam development in India found an increase in alcoholism and domestic abuse in households after dispossession, with women more vulnerable to male violence after communities were displaced and support systems fractured (Levien, 2014). An example of violence used as a land grabbing tactic comes from West Papua, a militarised territory in Indonesia plagued by a long-standing land conflict between Indonesian authorities and indigenous Papuans. According to several accounts, Indonesian security forces employed by mining companies used GBV, including rape and genital mutilation, against indigenous women and men to intimidate and force them into fleeing their homes (Csevár & Tremblay, 2019; Reckinger, 2011; Taylor, 2011; Cultural Survival, 2001). This has left the land open for Indonesian authorities to control, allowing them to grant concessions for natural resource extraction to foreign investors (Csevár &

Tremblay, 2019). Another example of GBV against indigenous women during violent evictions by mining companies is highlighted in Chapter 4.

A similar case comes from a report on the impact of Uganda's land rush on women's rights, which collected testimonies from women who faced GBV during violent land grabbing. One woman reported, "[d]uring the eviction, women were violated. They were raped in isolated places and couldn't run" (Womankind, 2018, p. 17). As in the West Papuan example, these violations took place within contexts of multiplied gender-based land loss and familial conflicts. Another woman explained, "[the land] was mine; my ex-husband decided it was his and sold my land without my consent to the oil company. I never got any of the compensation from the company" (Womankind, 2018, p. 13). Testimonies in the report explain how women, particularly in rural areas, are not aware of their rights and the laws governing land ownership, which expose them to unfair sales, land dispossession and forced evictions, hence pushing them to migrate and become squatters.

**In Sierra Leone, a study found that 8 per cent of women and 5 per cent of men surveyed**
reported experience or knowledge about sexual extortion from women in exchange for land rights



Data from: Transparency International (2018).

Infographic Source: Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 3. Sexual extortion for land rights in Sierra Leone**

### 2.1.4 Sexual extortion for access to land rights

At times, women are subjected to sexual extortion to gain access to agricultural land and land titles from authority figures. Women and girls are vulnerable to such demands as they are often unable to pay cash bribes (Matsheza et al., 2012) (see Box 5). Such corruption is characterised by the abuse of power, withholding benefits towards a transactional demand and psychological coercion based on the imbalance of power (Transparency International, 2018). In Madagascar, although women and men both experience land corruption, women are disproportionately at risk of sexual extortion, whereas men are asked to 'leave something', women are asked to 'offer something' (Transparency International, 2018). In Sierra Leone, 8 per cent of surveyed women and 5 per cent of surveyed men reported that they had been asked for sex to resolve a land issue by local chiefs or land officials, or knew someone who had (Transparency International, 2018). The pervasiveness of the problem can run deeply: in one community, a respected male figure recounted that, "women are not considered as people to get rights," and that "when [women] want access to land, [they] have to create a sexual relationship with those people who can give you access" (Daley et al., 2018, p. 62). In addition, marital status can exacerbate vulnerability, as seen in Zimbabwe, where exposure to sexual extortion is highest among single women and widows (Transparency International, 2016). Survivors can experience serious physical and mental health impacts, in part due to social exclusion and exposure to sexually transmitted diseases and infections, including HIV and AIDS risks (Transparency International, 2018; Casabonne et al., 2019).

**Box 5. The double blow of land loss and sexual abuse**

An account from Zimbabwe emphasises the double-edged impact of land grabbing and sexual extortion. With the arrival of a biofuel plant in the area, promises of community development and employment quickly devolved into patterns of land encroachment, violent evictions and crop razing, where women were particularly impacted as many men had left to seek work elsewhere, leaving the women to negotiate land-based transactions and agreements with the company. Within this context, a woman recounted:

> *"When Green Fuel came, everyone was supposed to go and remove tree stumps… but my grandmother was too old to stump trees. They told her to leave if she wouldn't do it, so we went to a nearby village. When it was time to give out plots, the headman said we were too new to receive land and if I wanted land, I must have sex with him. I had to agree, because we are poor and landless. I only did it because I wanted land, but he wanted to have sex with me indefinitely. When I refused, he threw me out of his village. Many women traded sex for land, but they can't talk about it, because some of them are married or widowed. If they talk, they'll be kicked out too"* (Transparency International, 2018, p. 56).

Source: Authors.

### 2.1.5 *Evidence-based linkages between gender-based violence and land rights*

The linkages between gender-based violence and land rights have been observed globally, showing that "unequal power relations between men and women are among the strongest predictors of domestic violence" (Kaiser Hughes & Richardson, 2015, p. 2). Some studies show that communities who are deeply influenced by traditional norms have observed increases in GBV when women gain land rights, indicating that violence is used as a means to control gendered divisions of rights and roles (Richardson & Hannay, 2014). Similar research indicates that shifting social and power dynamics, such as women's increased ownership and control over productive resources, can be perceived by men and boys as a threat to their power and status. In response, they actively prevent women's empowerment, including through the use of violence (USAID, 2018a). Studies in Bangladesh, Ecuador, Ghana and Uganda, for example, found no correlation or a negative correlation between secure property and land rights and reduced GBV, meaning that an increase in property and land rights does not contribute to reduced GBV, and may even increase it (Richardson & Hannay, 2014).

In other studies, women's land ownership is linked to increased power within families, resulting in a reduction of GBV (Grabe, 2010), a reminder that GBV takes many forms as an expression of uneven power dynamics with culturally and context-specific dimensions affecting impacts (Kaiser Hughes & Richardson, 2015). Research conducted in two different states in India showed that, while factors such as education, socio-economic status, employment and observing violence or being abused as a child can have an impact on the incidence of IPV, women who own property experienced overall less IPV than those who do not own property and were more capable of leaving abusive relationships (Agarwal & Panda, 2007). Another study in India showed that insufficient household income and food as well as a husband's control over a woman's mobility were the major causes of GBV for landless women. The majority of women felt that this situation would change, though, if they had land, as they would have more bargaining and decision-making power within the household and GBV would be reduced (Kelkar, 2015). Furthermore, women who owned land collectively with other women (called *sangrams*) in India reported a decline in social ills, such as male drunkenness and domestic violence, and an increase in their self-confidence (Agarwal, 2003).

In Nicaragua, researchers found a similar situation: land ownership appeared to reduce discriminatory gender norms and set the stage for fundamentally

altering gender relations; the same was detected in Tanzania (Grabe et al., 2015). As women's status within the household and the community improves, they feel more empowered and men's behaviours can positively change (Hilliard et al., 2016; Grabe et al., 2015; Boudreaux, 2018). Finally, women with secure property and land rights may have more economic independence, increasing their access to resources to be able to leave abusive situations (Richardson & Hannay, 2014).

## 2.2 Forests and forest resources

### *2.2.1 Setting the context: Forests underpin life and livelihoods*

Forests provide a habitat for diverse species, plants and microorganisms that are essential for the survival of humans, including nutrition and income for more than 1.6 billion people living in poverty in the global South (UN-REDD Programme, 2011; USAID, n.d.b) and for about 60 million indigenous peoples (Agarwal, 2018). Similar to land and resource trends noted in the previous section, women and men have different roles, experiences and knowledge in relation to managing forests and forest resources. A foundational understanding of these differentiated experiences, including deep gender inequalities, sheds light on GBV linkages discussed subsequently.

### *2.2.2 A review of gendered roles and relationships in forest management*

Women in forest-dependent communities are traditionally responsible for gathering forest products for subsistence purposes, including plants, medicinal herbs, mushrooms and other non-timber forest products (NTFPs), which often have lower monetary value compared to resources that men prioritise, such as timber (Cruz-Garcia et al., 2019). Women's traditional roles also make them custodians of relevant traditional and ecological knowledge for forest management and conservation (Wan et al., 2011; Colfer et al., 2016). Evidence exists that when women participate in the natural resource management groups, conservation and management outcomes improve (Leisher et al., 2016). A study of 290 forest groups in Bolivia, Kenya, Mexico and Uganda further found that women-dominated forest groups, which were more likely to have property rights to harvest trees, collected more fuel and less timber, and were less likely to exclude people from using the forest (Sun et al. 2012).

However, despite women's roles and traditional knowledge on natural resources, women are still underrepresented or excluded in forest management. This is largely due to discriminatory gender-based traditional norms (Sunderland et al., 2014; UNDP, 2016), which present a missed opportunity to capitalise on that knowledge for economic and environmental benefits (Agarwal, 2018; Colfer, Basnett & Elias, 2016). One study on women participating in community forestry management (CFM) arrangements in Uganda found that they rarely held leadership roles and often had worse employment opportunities than men (Banana et al., 2012). Similarly, a study on women's participation in 18 reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+)[2] sites showed that women's involvement in decision-making was limited and that they were often less informed than men (UNEP, 2016).

Similar to land tenure, forest tenure includes a bundle of rights that determine "who is allowed to use which resources, in what way, for how long and under what conditions, as well as who is entitled to transfer rights to others and how" (Larson, 2012, p. 8). It must be noted, however, that rights to the land and to the trees that grow upon it differ in some tenure systems (FAO, 1989). This means that in those cases, women and men are tenants who may be able to profit from the benefits of their trees even when they are not the owners of the land. Even so, it also means that changes to forest land ownership (such as sale to a private company) can strip tenants of their ability to benefit from the trees, restricting their livelihoods. In addition to environmental impacts when, for example, tenants may be less inclined to grow trees that they cannot benefit from, this reinforces vulnerability women face in light of restricted access to information and decision-making (Bruce, 1998). These patterns of discrimination and marginalisation underpin conditions for and expressions of varied GBV.

### *2.2.3 Gender-based violence and forest use and tenure*

As in other natural resource contexts, women face violence while they use and manage forest resources, especially in the context of forest threats, with a ripple of impacts (see also Section II). For example, various reports exist of women being beaten, verbally and sexually harassed, raped and killed by forest guards or owners when collecting forest products from protected areas

2 REDD+ is a mechanism developed by Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to support developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon sustainable development – giving the carbon stored in forest a financial value. Many UN agencies and other multilateral organisations provide technical and financial support and capacity building to countries to implement their strategies (UN-REDD Programme, 2019).

or private forests (Wan et al., 2011) (see Chapter 7 for more discussion on protected areas). Women may experience economic violence, too, connected with their use, collection and sale of NTFPs, upholding discriminatory structures and gender norms. As a survey respondent from Mexico described, a group of women ran a small fruit and firewood plantation on a plot they leased from the communal agrarian authority, but the plot was burned down by men, to signal disapproval of the initiative. These men succeeded in their dissent, as the plantation was completely lost. The establishment of another women's collective plantation was never discussed again, and there was no ability to establish another source of firewood near the residential area (GBV-ENV survey respondent SP71). See Box 6 for more on GBV and firewood collection.


**Figure 4. The danger of gender-based violence in firewood collection in Chad**

### Box 6. Dangerous work: Gender-based violence related to access to energy resources, including firewood collection

Affordable, reliable and sustainable access to electricity enhances the quality and accessibility of communication technology, healthcare, education and other services, and clean cooking technology all have an immense impact on the health and well-being of communities, particularly women and girls (Rojas & Siles, 2014; WoMin, 2016). Access to electricity and clean cooking fuels, however, varies greatly across and within countries. Over 2.8 billion people still rely on solid biomass, coal and kerosene for cooking, particularly in rural areas in developing countries, where 75 per cent of households use these polluting and inefficient fuels (ENERGIA et al., 2018; IEA, 2017). Securing sustainable and clean sources of electricity and cooking fuel is part of achieving international commitments to energy access, in particular SDG 7 which aims to "ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all" (UNSD, 2017, p. 8).

Understanding the roles of women and girls is integral to meeting sustainable energy goals, as they bear disproportionate responsibility for collecting firewood and other solid fuels, spending an average of 1.4 hours a day walking to and collecting these resources (ENERGIA et al., 2018; IEA, 2017). This time commitment limits women's ability to invest in other areas of livelihood, including education, income activities and leisure time (Wheldon et al., 2015), and completing these tasks comes with risks of being harassed, sexually assaulted or even raped and killed (WRC, 2014). As with other natural resources, the collection of firewood can create tensions within communities, particularly when it takes place on private land or when resources are scarce. Results from GBV-ENV survey included a story from Mexico, where women without land rights were threatened with rape if found collecting firewood from private lands (GBV-ENV survey respondent SP71).

Most of the current information and data on the intersections between GBV and access to firewood and other energy resources come from humanitarian settings, and not from conservation or other environment-focused contexts (Rewald, 2017). Due to stressed social structures and community tension, internally displaced peoples and refugees, who have lost their homes and livelihoods due to conflict or weather-related disasters, face heightened violence while accessing natural resources. While water, food and shelters are sometimes provided for displaced populations, access to firewood and energy resources is usually inadequate, if provided at all. In many cases, women have no choice but to travel outside of temporary shelters to collect firewood, exposing themselves to being beaten, assaulted, raped or even killed (WRC, 2014). A 2014 study by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) found that in Chad, 42 per cent of the 673 refugee households surveyed reported incidents of GBV during firewood collection over a six-month span (GACC, 2016) (see Figure 4).

Enhancing women's participation in energy access projects not only contributes to the improvement of their livelihoods, health and well-being, but it is also essential for the success of projects, as women are themselves the end-users in many cases (Wheldon et al., 2015; GACC, n.d.). However, prevailing discriminatory social norms and practices, including unequal access to education, information, training and labour markets, can hinder women's participation in the energy sector and the success of these projects (ENERGIA et al., 2018).

Source: Authors.

In the Solomon Islands, the government opened customary-owned lands to industries during the 1980s, theorising that local communities would directly negotiate earnings and power with companies after 50 years of logging via colonial state-owned concessions. Consequently, corruption broke out among national and local political elites, with rural communities losing benefits and lands alike, and deeply impacting forests, food, water and social systems imperative to the roles and livelihoods of women. The scale of unsustainable logging in the Solomon Islands will continue to impact women, as they are "among the most afflicted by this malpractice … in ways ranging from food and water insecurity to domestic violence and sexual abuse" (Lipton, 2018). At times, these abuses represent both sexual and economic GBV: although existing logging infrastructure should be free, women are often forced to make payments to company personnel, which include sex as payment (Lipton, 2018). It is also worth noting again that indigenous peoples experience multiple, intersecting risks and GBV (see Box 7).

### Box 7. Gender-based violence related to indigenous peoples' forest use and tenure

There is growing evidence suggesting that when indigenous peoples have secure tenure over their territories, they are often the most capable custodians of the forests, with their community-run forests suffering less deforestation and storing more carbon than other forests (Oxfam et al., 2016; World Bank, 2019). As an example, a study by the World Resources Institute (WRI) found that "[t]he annual deforestation rates in the tenure-secure Indigenous forestlands are significantly lower than on other lands in […] Bolivia, Brazil and Colombia, suggesting that securing Indigenous forestland tenure contributed to reducing deforestation in these areas" (Ding et al., 2016, p. 1). Many countries are pursuing tenure reforms to recognise or transfer some tenure rights to communities living in and near forests. However, nearly two-thirds of forestland worldwide is still state-owned, large areas of which are claimed by indigenous peoples and local communities (RRI, 2018).

When indigenous women are denied access to their territories and natural resources – for example, when governments lease forests and water sources to foreign investors, as a result of land disputes or deforestation – they are also denied access to their primary and traditional sources of food, water and medicine (FIMI, 2006). This has an adverse impact on the social fabric of indigenous communities, eroding traditional knowledge and women's roles in maintaining and transmitting that knowledge, stressing community livelihoods, and weakening resilience to environmental changes, which can increase exposure to and instances of GBV (Luithui & Tugendhat, 2013). In the regions of Kalimantan and Sulawesi, Indonesia, deforestation and elimination of agricultural land related to the expansion of oil palm plantations cut off access to traditional crops, water and other resources for indigenous communities (Luithui & Tugendhat, 2013). This had a particular impact on indigenous women, whose income and livelihoods were tied to the lost traditional crops. Many were forced to find alternative sources of income to sustain their families, such as travelling for migrant labour to the plantations, where they are paid lower wages than their male counterparts and are especially vulnerable to threats of sexual violence (Luithui & Tugendhat, 2013). Increased poverty driven by the loss of land and resources also resulted in increased IPV (Luithui & Tugendhat, 2013) and the child-marriage of girls (NIWF et al., 2012).

As manifold tenure issues affect indigenous peoples, many organisations are stepping up in the defence of indigenous peoples' rights and ensuring their participation and representation in the international spheres with regard to conservation, environmental protection and human rights. In 2016, Oxfam, the International Land Coalition, and the Rights and Resources Initiative launched the Land Rights Now campaign to secure indigenous and community land rights, which has been endorsed by more than 800 organisations, including IUCN. In this vein, IUCN Indigenous Peoples' Organisations (IPOs) members have developed and are implementing a self-determined strategy to advance their rights and issues in conservation (IUCN, n.d.). Likewise, USAID is developing a policy on indigenous peoples' issues to "improve the impact and sustainability of USAID programmes by ensuring that USAID staff and implementing partners respect indigenous peoples' rights and engage indigenous peoples as authentic partners in development processes," (USAID, 2018b, p. 10). Ensuring gender analyses underpin these interventions, including paying explicit attention to GBV considerations, may strengthen coalition building and implementation.

Source: Authors.

# 2.3 Agriculture

## 2.3.1 Setting the context: Underpinning food security and nutrition

More than 820 million people around the world suffered from hunger in 2018, a trend that has slowly increased in the last three years after decades of steady decline (FAO, 2019). Population growth and changes in food consumption are boosting agricultural demand across the globe (FAO, 2017). The agricultural sector is a core component of global efforts to address food insecurity and malnutrition, as well as poverty. In low-income countries, it accounts for a significant portion of employment and national GDP (FAO, 2019).

## 2.3.2 Gender-differentiated work: A review of barriers

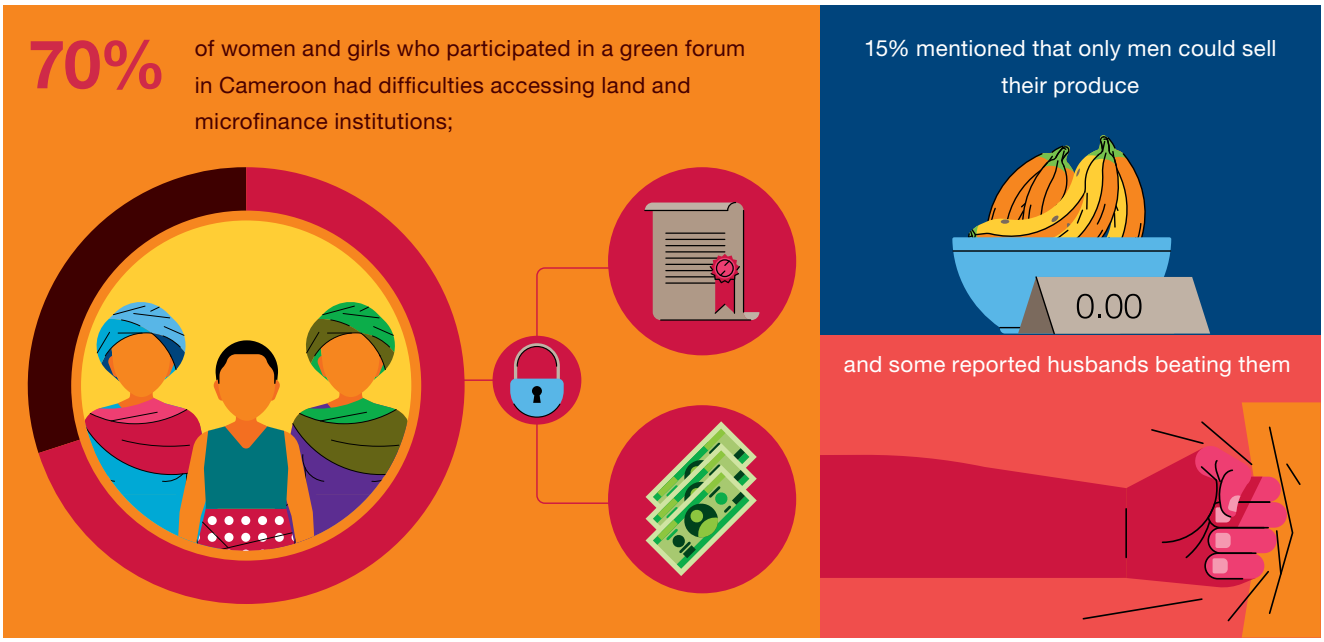
Women, particularly in low-income countries, make essential contributions to the agriculture sector, yet they have less access to and control over productive resources, resulting in fewer opportunities than men. The gender gap negatively impacts food security, nutrition and well-being at the household and community and national levels, hindering the global goal of Zero Hunger by 2030 (FAO, 2019). A review of these gaps and reinforcing barriers demonstrates the normalised conditions of insecurity that exacerbate unequal norms and dependencies on male family members, which can contribute to GBV, as described in the subsequent sub-section.

Many women, especially in rural areas, produce most of the food for family consumption, as they are primarily responsible for household food and nutrition security (FAO, 2012a). They contribute significantly to the well-being of entire communities and national economies (UN Women, 2018a). Although women often also work on family farms as unpaid workers or on other farmers' land, they remain an important part of the waged agricultural workforce (UN Women, 2018a). It is estimated that 20–30 per cent of waged agricultural workers globally are women (FIAN International, 2014). In total, FAO estimates that almost half of the agricultural labour force[3] in developing countries (43 per cent) are female, yet the percentage varies across regions. For instance, in Latin America, women account for 20 per cent, while in parts of Asia and Africa, they account for almost 50 per cent (FAO, 2011).

3 The agricultural labour force "includes people who are working or looking for work in formal and informal jobs and in paid or unpaid employment in agriculture. That includes self-employed women as well as women working on family farms" (FAO, 2011, p. 7).

Underscoring the importance of women in agriculture, many countries are experiencing a feminisation of the agriculture sector due to male migration to urban areas, in part as a result of the expansion of agribusinesses (see Chapter 4). Yet, despite their fundamental role, women are still facing discrimination related to land (FIAN International, 2014): they tend to have less access to, use of, control over and ownership of agricultural land and productive resources, and their rights are often insecure and go unrecognised (USAID, n.d.c). According to the USAID Land Links programme, for example, worldwide, women hold 32 per cent of farms, while men hold 68 per cent (USAID, n.d.c). This is an issue relevant to rights and sustainability across the globe; for example, in the United States, the American Farmland Trust asserts that women farmers surveyed cite gender barriers (e.g. exclusion from meetings) as their biggest obstacle, which ultimately restrict their productivity, as well as the potential for the adoption of conservation practices in agriculture and overall climate resilience (AFT, 2019).

While women and men have gender-differentiated roles in agricultural activities, women are more often discriminated against in the form of lower wages, unequal access to employment opportunities and work safety, as well as limited participation in decision-making (FIAN International, 2014). In countries where gender discrimination is so deeply rooted in patriarchal systems and in many traditional customs, GBV becomes a normalised way to control and extend the status quo, as discussed below.




**Data from:** Case study EN1 submitted to Authors.

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 5. Gender-based violence and the lack of access to resources and benefits in Cameroon**

### *2.3.3 Varied expressions of gender-based violence as a form of control in agriculture*

Lack of or limited access to land ownership has a negative impact on women's productivity in the agricultural sector, as the access to water resources, agricultural services and market usually depend on land ownership (FAO, n.d.b). These barriers have a multiplied effect and can result in GBV. For instance, a study from Cameroon showed barriers to resources are correlated with domestic violence, suggesting that the combination of harmful legal norms and economic obstacles can reinforce perceptions of control men have over women. In the report, 70 per cent of women and girls who participated in a green forum in Cameroon had difficulties accessing land and microfinance institutions, in part because they were not allowed to inherit land from their families, as men are the beneficiaries. Without independent access to resources, 15 per cent of women in the study mentioned that they were not able to sell their produce from the farm, as that is considered to be men's responsibility, with some explaining that their husbands beat them if they tried to question why they sold the produce without informing them (Case Study EN19) (see Figure 5).

Women working in agriculture can also suffer harassment and sexual violence due to unequal power relations that leave women subordinated to men in agricultural workforces. Documented cases in tea plantations in India and Kenya show that male supervisors abuse their positions of power by coercing women into satisfying their sexual needs and punishing those who deny to do it by hindering their work or assigning them excessive or more dangerous work (UN Women, 2018b) (see Chapter 4 for more on GBV and agribusiness). See Box 8 for more information on how control over resources and assets defines power in some settings.

**Box 8. The importance of power, defined as control over resources and assets**

Studies conducted by ActionAid (2016) show that in the Nyanza district of Rwanda, women stakeholders of a food and women's rights programme found that women themselves defined the most important concepts of power as "confidence, working collectively, and control over resources" – with women identifying new opportunities through projects to gain control over resources through cooperatives, banks, cattle farms and local government spaces as specifically empowering (ActionAid, 2016, p. 5). In contrast, men did not identify 'access and control over resources' as an "important factor of power for women". This gave programme assessors an indication that "control over resources is still considered to be a male domain". Furthermore, when studying GBV dimensions, emphasis on power and control factor deeply into gender relations:

> *"...women would opt for ways to cope with a situation of violence at home rather than challenging it through formal channels, as this could mean retaliation, conflict and ultimately loss of resources. In this situation, women would relatively opt to give up power or control over their own bodies in favour of other factors of power (control over assets)"* (p. 10).

Further emphasising the importance of power as control over assets, women also identified it as a means to cope with violence, with some surviving GBV and leaving abusive households by achieving self-sufficiency through village savings and lending groups.

In Cambodia, women involved in agricultural programmes defined power as "gaining knowledge, capacity and skills; generating and controlling their own income; and gaining confidence and self-esteem" (p. 20). In these communities, women noted that the increasing participation of women in agriculture was – in part – thanks to the absence of men due to labour migration. With increased income through agricultural participation, women grow in "power within the family". In these specific contexts, the change in gender dynamics that have taken place slowly over time have resulted in women reporting that they have achieved respect and partnership from husbands in household decision-making. In conjunction, women identified that GBV was decreasing as "peace at home" increased. Mediation support to address incidences of GBV through project meetings have fostered informal solidarity groups – as many community leaders in these spaces are GBV survivors themselves and act as champions for young women (ActionAid, 2016, p. 10).

Source: Authors.

# 2.4 Water

## 2.4.1 Setting the context: Clean water and sanitation underpins rights

Clean water and sanitation are essential to the realisation of all human rights, as water is needed to drink, cook and clean; to grow food and feed livestock; and to produce all goods consumed by the population (UN, 2014). In 2010, through Resolution 64/292, the UN General Assembly explicitly recognised the human right to water and sanitation, and called upon States and international organisations to "provide financial resources, capacity-building and technology transfer (…) to provide safe, clean, accessible and affordable drinking water and sanitation for all" (UNGA, 2010, p. 3). As part of the SDGs, countries have committed to achieve SDG 6 to "ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all" (UNSD, 2017, p. 7).

## 2.4.2 An overview of gendered access to water

The lack of adequate water and sanitation services has a greater impact on women and children, including as a driver of GBV risks. A review of how water access is a gendered issue therefore supports an improved understanding of linkages as described here. Water resources are unevenly distributed across and within countries and communities and inequitably governed, including with rampant gender-based disparities (Fauconnier et al., 2018). Nearly three-quarters of the global population have access to piped water supplies on premises. However, in 2015, 663 million people still used unimproved sources or surface water, and 159 million still relied on surface water. Water collection is still a major burden in many countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, where water available on premises is very limited, particularly in rural areas (WHO, 2017).

Due to the gender-differentiated roles and cultural norms in many countries, the burden of water collection disproportionately falls on women and girls, who are responsible for fetching water in eight out of 10 households in areas where water is not available on the premises (see Figure 6). Data shows that there is only one country – Mongolia – where men are mainly responsible for water collection (WHO, 2017). As predominant water managers, women are responsible for daily water use – that is, planning how much water they need for the household and for irrigation, determining where to store it, negotiating access to water with their neighbours and evaluating water source quality in order to make an informed choice on which water collection points to use (Travers et al., 2011). The amount

of time and distance travelled varies for women to fulfil these responsibilities. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, one round-trip takes an average of 33 minutes in rural areas and 25 minutes in urban areas. Women and girls typically need to make several trips a day to water points, reducing the time they can spend on other activities, such as attending school, carrying out income-generating activities or enjoying leisure time, which perpetuates the gendered cycle of poverty (UNICEF, 2016).

Evidence shows that access to water can increase school attendance and income-generation, in turn reducing gender inequalities and poverty. For example, a rural water supply and sanitation project in Pakistan contributed to an 80 per cent increase in school enrolment and an increase in income-generating activities that contributed to a 24 per cent average increase in household income (SEI & UNDP, 2006). Similarly, a study in Tanzania showed a 12 per cent increase in school attendance when water was available within 15 minutes, in comparison to more than half an hour away (UNICEF, n.d).


**Figure 6. The danger of gender-based violence in water collection activities**

S I.
S II.
S III.
S IV.

### 2.4.3 Gender-based violence and water collection

Across these many contexts, the lack of water on the premises can increase the vulnerability to violence experienced by women and girls when seeking to meet their family needs (Sommer et al., 2015). The incidence of violence experienced while collecting water are similar to those related to collecting other natural resources, such as firewood and other forest products. While nation-wide statistical data on the violence suffered by women in relation to water collection does not exist, data available at the local level indicates that women and girls disproportionately suffer violence when collecting water. For example, a study in rural Ethiopia identified several ways in which women experienced violence: from tensions and domestic violence over the amount of water brought home or the time spent collecting it, to harassment, sexual assault and rape on their way to fetch water and in water disputes while queuing (Sommer et al., 2015). The *Violence, Gender and WASH: A practitioners' toolkit* (House et al., 2014) compiled many cases across a range of contexts, revealing that these patterns and forms of violence are common across countries where GBV is used as a tool to maintain gender discrimination and inequality, and gendered norms.

The harassment of women and girls on their way to collect water or at the water points can take different forms and be based on age, ethnicity or sexual orientation; GBV can also be employed by numerous actors to sustain power dynamics. Dalit women in India, for example, who are considered to be the most underprivileged group, suffer violence in the form of verbal abuse, threats, sexual harassment and physical violence perpetrated by women from other castes as well as men (House et al., 2014). A woman from a slum in Pune, India explained how, in addition to having to walk far to collect water, of poor quality and irregular availability, men washed their clothes and bathed near the water taps, intentionally shaking their heads to throw the soap into women's water containers and verbally assaulting them and humiliating them (Bapat & Agarwal, 2003).

While improved water supplies and services in urban areas is higher than in rural areas, service can still be inadequate to meet daily water and sanitation needs, especially in slums, peri-urban areas and informal settlements where piped water is limited or non-existent, which pose a risk for women and girls who, in some cases, must still walk to water sources (Tacoli, 2012; McIlwaine, 2013). A study in resettlement areas in India showed that women and girls' safety were threatened when fetching water from distribution tankers. The risk of being harassed while waiting in line for water was so common, particularly when fights broke out and men took advantage to touch, push and harass women and girls, that some families decided to send their male members to collect

water instead, as they considered it too risky for women (Travers et al., 2011). Household water stress and the associated costs of securing water can also increase domestic violence. Research in Karachi, Pakistan found that 'water mafias' exploit gaps in water service in low-income neighbourhoods by diverting and selling government water supply at much higher prices, causing men to lash out at their wives for what they deem wasteful water practices (IDRC, 2017). The research showed that "80 per cent of survey respondents who had poor or no access to water had experienced violence, compared with only 10 per cent who had excellent water supply" (IDRC, 2017). Similar experiences have been informally documented in Mexico, indicating that these forms of violence are not exclusive to a specific society or region (Water and gender expert from Mexico, interview, 30 November 2018).

Violence against women is still considered a taboo and a private issue within the family in the majority of countries, thus many women do not report these assaults because they are ashamed or fear retaliation by attackers, especially when they are known members of the community or the family, and due to police reluctance to intervene in many countries (Amnesty, 2011). Further, traditional gender norms and stereotypes not only reinforce GBV, but also perpetuate it. In many countries, the involvement of men in water-fetching is seen as shameful and demeaning, as it is considered a woman's job. Women can likewise hold this belief: in a study in Uganda, women in a focus group stated that married men who collected water on a daily basis were ridiculed by other men and were considered by both men and women as mentally unstable or 'bewitched' (House et al. 2014). In another study in the Pacific Islands, a man admitted to beating his wife after arguing over her requests for his help in collecting water (House et al., 2014). In these cases, gender inequalities are so rooted in society that any attempt to alter gender roles by either men or women can be seen as an attack on the status quo of patriarchal systems, prompting more GBV. (See Box 9 for a testimony.)

### Box 9. The terrors of poverty and water collection: A story from the Solomon Islands

*"I dropped out of school five years ago because we couldn't afford to pay the fees, uniform and my bus fare to school every day. Since then, I have stayed at home and helped my mother and father with the house chores. We are very poor and my father sells betel nut at the market up the road. Every day I walk to the broken water pipe in Kobiloko to collect water. I walk in the morning for the water to be used in the day and then walk in the afternoon for our evening drinking and cooking water.*

*About a year ago, while walking to collect water in the afternoon, I was gang-raped by six boys from the nearby settlement. They always drink* kwaso *[local home-brewed alcohol] by the roadside and when I walked past them, they started calling me to go and say hello to them. I didn't say anything and kept on walking. I was also worried that it was going to get dark soon and I still had a long way to walk to the pipe. On my way back with the water, I met the same boys up the hill. It had gotten dark and they began to harass me. One of them said that they could carry the water for me. When I said no, he got angry and said that I had insulted him. He demanded that the only way to compensate for that was to have sex with him. I refused and he punched me in the stomach. The others then grabbed me and carried me to the bush where I was raped. They each raped me and then left me there after threatening to kill me and my family. I had a black eye and was sore. I was so ashamed for being raped. I vowed not to tell my family because it would bring shame to them.*

*I took the water home and didn't tell my family anything. I couldn't trust the police because they will not help me. I have to live with this shame for the rest of my life. I still walk to the pipe to collect water but this time I have a friend or relative that walks with me. I see those boys sometimes, but they don't talk to me and look down when I walk past them."*

An 18-year old woman from the
Kobito 4 settlement in Honiara, Solomon Islands

Source: Amnesty International, 2011, pp. 11-12.

Given the numerous cases of domestic violence and sexual and physical violence related to fetching water, improving access to safely managed drinking water services can reduce women's workload and improve their health and well-being. In a focus group discussion in Kenya, organised as part of a research study, one of the male participants mentioned that there had been a decrease in child marriage when water was available; as families had enough water and food, they did not need to resort to marrying off their daughters to alleviate economic strains (Case Study EN05). However, it is important to note that a lack of water access is not a direct cause of GBV, but rather an amplifier of existing patterns. Having access to improved water facilities can reduce the risk of facing GBV during water collection, but not prevent other types of violence in other situations, let alone eradicate GBV.

# 2.5 Fisheries

## 2.5.1 *Setting the context: A pathway towards food security*

Fisheries play a key role in the food security of rural populations. An estimated billion people depend on seafood as their primary source of protein, especially in coastal communities where it can represent up to 70 per cent of protein intake (Siles et al., 2019; Agarwal, 2018; FISH, 2015). Around the world, more than 40 million people work as fishers, with 90 per cent operating at the small scale (FAO, 2018; World Bank, 2013). Worth US$ 130 billion today, the fisheries trade is larger than tea, rice, cocoa and coffee exports combined (FAO, n.d.c).

## 2.5.2 *A review of women's 'invisibility' defined by inequality*

Gender-differentiated roles and impacts illustrate the pervasiveness of gender inequality throughout fisheries value chains. The considerations summarised below provide foundational understanding on the role disempowerment and invisibility have in facilitating GBV abuse and exploitation reviewed in subsequent sub-sections.

Globally, women represent 46 per cent of workers in small-scale fisheries and 54 per cent in inland fisheries (Agarwal, 2018). In some countries, the fisheries sector is predominantly female: women account for 72 per cent of the workforce in India and 73 per cent in Nigeria (Siles et al., 2019). However, as in the agricultural and forest sectors, the role of women in fisheries is often invisible because their contributions in mainly pre- and post-harvest activities often go unrecognised. According to FAO, women account for 50 per cent of the overall fisheries workforce: filling 15 per cent of harvesting roles and 90 per cent of processing positions (FAO, 2016a). They also market up to 60 per cent of seafood in Asia and Western Africa (FAO, 2016b). Women play prominent roles in processing, marketing and selling seafood. In various aquaculture ventures, women work in feeding, harvesting and processing fish and shellfish. Some of them are even becoming managers and entrepreneurs of fishing ponds near their households (FAO, 2016a).

Women's work in coastal areas includes near-shore harvesting activities, such as the collection of molluscs, which are considered less profitable species, and complementary activities throughout the supply chain, including repairing fishing

equipment, processing catches, and marketing and trading of seafood products (FISH, 2015; PFPI & ARROW, 2015; Ratner et al., 2014; USAID Oceans, 2018).

Because fishing "is an inherently social activity, where different fishing practices and their division of labour are embedded within wider social relations", it shapes opportunities and access to work in the small-scale fishing sector (Smith, n.d.a,). In some communities, women are entirely excluded from fishing or banned from fishing commercial species as a source of cash income (Geheb et al., 2008). Elsewhere, across the globe, these divisions mean that men focus on higher-value catch that earns the highest dollars for export while women are left to focus on subsistence fishing, processing and marketing of what is "coded as poor people's food and women's work" (Krushelnytska, 2015; Smith, n.d.a). "Yet, these identities and hierarchies (of both fish and fish worker) are not fixed, but malleable, contested and negotiated" (Smith, n.d.a). Experiences in Tanzania reaffirm that gender plays a role in controlling high-value products. There, women have organised themselves, improved fish processing techniques and thereby elevated the status of the traditionally cheaply regarded *dagaa*, a local pelagic fish. This resulted in shifts in gender dynamics. As *dagaa* processing and trading became more profitable, men have started entering the business. As men have access to greater capital than women, they can buy more volume of fish, and corner women out of the market (Smith, n.d.b).

The skewed view of women's contributions in fisheries, coupled with customary norms around gender roles that exclude women from specific activities or unequal regulations, can lead to an underrepresentation of women in fisheries' management and decision-making (WorldFish Centre, 2010). In some countries where women do not have the same rights as men, such as Pakistan, women in coastal areas are not allowed to own boats and are excluded from participating in all the activities of the fisheries sector (MFF Pakistan, 2019). Having the same rights as men to access and own assets is key for women to participate in decision-making in the fisheries sector.

In addition to limited knowledge of their rights, some women also face discrimination in the access to management bodies, limiting their opportunity to secure their interests and livelihoods. In Mexico, where fishers are organised in cooperatives, the membership is generally inherited by the sons instead of the wives or daughters of the deceased. In order to become a new member, candidates need to work for several years in the fisheries sector; however, the work of women in pre-and-post productive activities is not considered to be a part of the sector, preventing them from being members of the cooperatives and

participating in decision-making bodies (Gender and fisheries expert, interview, November 2018).

Gender inequality can threaten the effectiveness of sustainable development and conservation efforts, particularly as related to SDG 14 to "conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development" (UNSD, 2017, p. 14). The strict gendered division of labour within the fishing sector which renders women invisible can contribute to GBV, as shown in the following sections, as a form of control over roles and resources, and sexual exploitation.

### 2.5.3 *Gender-based violence and fishery resources as a means of controlling power and human bodies*

Several studies highlight the structural inequalities and social norms surrounding fishing-related livelihoods that make women and girls particularly vulnerable to GBV and discrimination (Bennett, 2005; Weeratunge et al., 2010). Domestic and sexual violence can often be used as a socially accepted means of exerting dominance and enforcing subordination, evidence of which was described by Busby (1999) in a fishing community in Southern India. Furthermore, due to the long periods they spend away during fishing trips, men often feel the need to assert their dominance and subordination of women, reinforcing a culture of toxic masculinity that results in widespread IPV in fishing communities (Siles et al., 2019). In fishing villages in Africa, for example, researchers found that domestic and sexual violence are considered legitimate ways of preserving power imbalances and keeping women away from the most valuable fisheries (Ratner et al., 2014). Similarly, physical violence is also used to prevent women from participating in decision-making and exerting their rights as related to the fisheries sector, as one survey respondent related (GBV-ENV survey respondent EN131).

Control over access to fisheries resources can also result in GBV, as exemplified by a report (Lentisco & Lee, 2015) about how fishing communities in Cameroon were harassed by authorities responsible for the control of security, particularly those monitoring boat licences and residential permits. Some women sellers and processors were offered or coerced into providing sex to stop the harassment by the authorities or to avoid the fine (Lentisco & Lee, 2015). At a global scale and in specific countries' fisheries sectors, women and children are trafficked for the purpose of organised sexual exploitation by fishers and seafarers (IOM et al., 2016). At times, government officials, including those at high level, play complicit roles (Seafish, 2016).

Fishing expeditions have also been identified as vehicles for sex trafficking. Traffickers target impoverished women and girls, offering the promise of work, food and visiting relatives as a way to get women on boats. Once on boats, victims are deprived of documentation and forced on long, dangerous journeys across water (Tory, 2019). In many of these cases, local and national authorities, including police and national guards, play complicit roles, accepting money to turn a blind eye. In Venezuela, numerous such fishing boats carrying victims seeking to escape poverty have capsized, leading to the arrest of two National Guard soldiers for their role in the criminal sex trafficking smuggling group. One of the victims who died was a single mother looking for a new start after she lost her job earlier in the year and her three-month old baby died of malnutrition when national food shortages began (Casey, 2019). These examples show that the fishery value chain can likewise be linked to GBV abuses in situations of stress and poverty. Inversely, it is also worth noting that fishing communities can be a source of positive action too: in the same Venezuelan case, fishermen collected gasoline to mount search and rescue missions for victims when the fishing boats attempting human sex trafficking voyages sank (Casey, 2019).


**Data from:** Béné & Merten (2018).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 7. 'Sex-for-fish': A form of exploitation over the control of fishery resources**

S I.
S II.
S III.
S IV.

### 2.5.4 'Sex-for-fish': Sexual exploitation in the fisheries sector

The coerced use of transactional sex[4] to obtain fish, also known as 'sex-for-fish', is another expression of GBV in small-scale fishing (see Figure 7). The term refers to the sex arrangement made between fishermen and women who need fish for food or processing to support their families (Béné & Merten, 2008). According to a study by Béné and Merten (2008), 97 per cent of cases of 'sex-for-fish' documented happened in Africa, especially in Eastern and Southern Africa, and usually took place in inland fisheries, particularly in lakes. In some countries in sub-Saharan Africa, poor, unmarried or widowed women fish processors and traders are sometimes forced to offer sex in order to have access to and/or sell fish products to support their families (Béné & Merten, 2008). For instance, in the Kafue River in Zambia, where both women and men work as fish traders, fishermen may refuse to sell fish to women if they do not engage in sex. Within this context, women know that having a 'boyfriend' in fishing camps can help them secure fish on a regular basis at cheaper prices. This leads many women to get involved in transactional sex, in which fishermen abuse their position of power over women traders (Béné & Merten, 2008). A survey respondent claimed that, in several sub-regions of the continent, accepting sexual violence and harassment is the only way in which women can access sea products (GBV-ENV survey respondent EN48).

In western Kenya, the practice of exchanging fish catches for sex is so common that it has a name, the *jaboya* system (Camlin et al., 2014). Some studies have found that male fishers prefer to sell fish to women with the hope of enticing sexual relationships, making women more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS (FISH, 2015; Béné & Merten, 2008). Evidence shows that HIV and AIDS are four to 14 times higher in fishing communities in developing countries than the national average. This can be explained, in part, by the high mobility of fisherfolks, which makes them more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS (Béné & Merten, 2008). On Lake Malawi, World Connect notes that the practice is, "longstanding and quite engrained as a social norm" (Silver, 2019). In this area, poverty is cited as the prevalent cause for engaging in 'sex-for-fish', with local advocates noting "if you are poor, you are stuck" to the practice (Silver, 2019).

4 Transactional sex is "the exchange of money, employment, goods or services for sex, including sexual favours other forms of humiliating, degrading or exploitative behaviour. This includes any exchange of assistance that is due to beneficiaries of assistance" (UN, 2017, p. 7).

These drivers may not represent other regional contexts. Globally, more research is needed on this practice, in order to better understand if it is caused by fish scarcity, the increase of global market demand, or if it is a longstanding socio-economic-cultural arrangement (WorldFish Center, 2010). What is clear is that power asymmetries based on gender inequalities and patriarchal systems limit women's ability to fully participate in the economic opportunities and decision-making in the fisheries sector, exposing many of them to various forms of GBV.

## 2.6 Ways forward

Commonly gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities are well known across natural resource contexts and across communities who depend directly and indirectly on land and resources for lives and livelihoods. Over recent decades, a surge of effort across sectors and stakeholders has shed light on the importance of gender and environment links, and on the powerful benefits of gender-responsive action for improved sustainable development. This is reflected, for example, across the interlinked SDGs and in the gender-focused decisions and plans of action under each of the major multilateral environmental agreements (see Chapter 8), among others. The review of GBV incidence across natural resources contexts shows, however, that further work is urgently needed to address gender barriers to effect equitable, effective, efficient and sustainable results. This includes enhanced research and data collection, strengthened policy frameworks and enabling conditions for implementation that help realise rights, and accountability mechanisms that are empowered and supported by sufficient resources. It requires integrating a specific focus on GBV in existing gender policies, strategies, tools and resources, as well as those from across sectors. Some promising lessons and strategies for addressing GBV in other contexts, such as in humanitarian settings, can be grasped towards identifying, adapting and applying tools for better natural resource-context interventions.

The following section presents some examples of entry points and sample interventions on GBV that were reviewed as part of this research. While not exhaustive, these provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward in addressing GBV in natural resource access, use and control (complemented by recommendations to address gaps in Chapter 8).

### 2.6.1 *Explore policies and strategies to improve livelihoods, and reduce gender-based violence through access and tenure rights to land and natural resources*

Tenure, ownership and other holding systems which recognise the same rights for women and men are essential for securing human rights and fostering effective development. Evidence shows a link between secure land and resource rights for women and widespread development and well-being gains. For example, if women had the same access as men to land and productive resources, such as quality seeds, technologies and financial and extension services, they would be able to increase yields on their farms by 20–30 per cent, benefiting their families, rural economies and national growth, and reducing poverty in the country (FAO, 2011). These benefits from secure tenure rights may also be fundamental to GBV eradication.

In order to secure women's land rights, many countries have implemented a range of laws and policies, for example, on joint titling, that are worth further investigation. Spain adopted a law on shared ownership over land in 2011 to ensure that unpaid family workers on farms – the majority of whom were women – could access social welfare benefits (BOE, 2011). In Ethiopia, studies on the joint land titling scheme show that, despite uneven and slow implementation across regions, joint titling has on the overall increased women's perception of their tenure security, moderately improved agricultural productivity and positively impacted women's participation in the land rental market, particularly women from female-headed households (Girma & Giovarelli, 2013). As suggested in an expert interview, the provision of shared ownership of land for women can also help to formally identify them as water users and increase their participation in decision-making spheres, including in irrigation programmes (Water and gender expert from Mexico, interview, 30 November 2018). At the same time, laws on joint titling can face resistance in some countries, where cultural and gender norms are averse to women's ownership or even prohibit women from owning land, can slow or even restrain implementation (Oduro, 2017). In India, joint titling has further implications as some women express less decision-making power and difficulties in gaining control over the produce or bequeathing or selling the land (Agarwal, 2003).

To complement national and subnational efforts, well-known international frameworks and guidelines can also be leveraged to support women's equitable tenure as a step to resolve recurrent GBV. For example, FAO has developed a set of guidelines in recognition that female tenants, informal female agricultural

workers and female squatters are in a more vulnerable position to resist land dispossession as they are not the legal owners of the land. The *Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security*, known as VGGT, encourages states to ensure women's tenure rights are protected and enforced (FAO, 2012b). The guidelines establish safeguards to protect women's subsidiary tenure rights and recommend that States protect in particular the rights of indigenous peoples, especially indigenous women. Further research on the application and implementation of the guidelines, follow-on technical support products, and other tools related to the VGGT could proactively focus on GBV considerations for even more potential impact.

### 2.6.2 Increase knowledge and capacities to address gender-based violence and natural resource links through data and tools

Further research, methodologies and tools are needed to better understand and address GBV related to land and natural resources. Quantitative local and national data on GBV linkages, including related to fishery and forest products, and water, food and energy resources, are limited for a wide-range of countries and contexts, making the causes and consequences of GBV invisible to society and policy-making spheres. Additionally, given women's differentiated experiences and knowledge of the land and its natural resources, governance and management bodies are also missing the opportunity to adopt better-informed policies to reduce GBV and capitalise on women's unique knowledge as users and managers by not including them in decision-making. Including women in decision-making not only contributes to improved natural resource management, but also to a change in perceived gender roles that discriminate against women and are the base for GBV.

As noted earlier in this chapter, one area for additional research is the relationship between land ownership and reduced GBV, particularly IPV, to determine if and where direct links exist between an increase in women's land ownership and a decrease in various forms of GBV. Likewise, the practice of sex-for-fish requires further attention to better understand if cases observed in current literature from Africa also apply globally across fishery value chains. These conditions or trends should also be monitored over time, as situations of resource scarcity or abundance or other socio-economic dynamics may reveal myriad results (see Annex 1, Research Questions). Gender-responsive research, such as participatory action research with communities and stakeholders, must also uncover the deeply held customs, expectations and values that create the

social relationships that underpin the lived reality of land and resource rights (Dwyer, 2019; IUCN, 2017;). Some organisations have taken important steps to improve programming through dedicated research to better understand these dynamics; some are featured in the sample interventions below.

Gender analyses that specifically include GBV considerations are another fundamental tool, not only to inform design and implementation of programming, but also to contribute to the collective knowledge base. Conducting gender analyses across the environmental sphere can identify conditions of GBV and make recommendations to address them as part of a holistic approach to advancing gender equality. The information gathered in these studies, plus documenting their application and impact, can further fill knowledge gaps and inspire, among other things, greater data collection.

Sector-specific tools are also critical. Some exist that may be readily adaptable to other contexts (see also Chapter 8). For example, *Violence, Gender and WASH: A practitioner's toolkit* (House et al., 2014) compiles case studies on GBV related to WASH and good practices, and it also provides technical support to better understand the intersections and methodologies to integrate gender and GBV considerations in programming (see Box 10 for more examples towards change). Importantly, these tools can support advisors and practitioners who are already taking meaningful steps to develop and prove results of gender-responsive environment and sustainable development programming.

## Box 10. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Empowering women's collective action and agency toward changing gender norms and improving fisheries livelihoods

The undervaluing of and discrimination against women in natural resource contexts, particularly in relation to land and resource rights and the rights to ecosystem services, makes them acutely vulnerable in the context of pressures and threats to the environment (discussed throughout Section II), for example from large-scale industries. In Ecuador, the shrimp industry posed a threat to women's livelihood and safety at multiple levels. It caused mangrove losses and disproportionately affected women, who collected shellfish and crabs in the mangroves. Women were often harassed by armed guards when trying to access estuaries where shellfish were collected. The Foundation of Ecological Defense (Fundación de Defensa Ecológica – FUNDECOL) established activities to engage the women, defending their access to mangroves for coastal populations and the conservation of their ecosystems (Veuthey & Gerber, 2012).

Initially, women's engagement and activism was met with violence within their households. Many women were mistreated and beaten by their husbands, and were prevented from attending user groups' meetings. However, the situation slowly resolved as women participating in FUNDECOL activities were empowered and gained more credibility and confidence, asserting themselves (and being supported) as activists, organisers and leaders. The success in the conservation and protection of the mangroves from the shrimp industry led to a change in power relations within the communities. Women's knowledge and roles as mangrove managers and environmental defenders were more visible, and some adopted new roles within their own communities, including leadership positions (Veuthey & Gerber, 2012). Supporting women's agency to represent, advocate for and defend their traditional income-generating activities and their livelihoods was proven essential, triggering positive change in attitudes surrounding GBV and gender equality.

### Engaging men together with women as champions for gender equality and ending GBV

Engaging and empowering men and boys as gender equality champions and change agents toward positively transforming gender roles is well evidenced as an important gender-responsive strategy, including the reduction of gender-based violence, as illustrated by the United Nations HeforShe initiative (UN Women, n.d.). In order to reduce GBV associated with the fisheries sector, for example, working directly with fishermen has proven useful to address harmful social norms and violence and change behaviours. An initiative in a coastal district in Vietnam is working with fishermen to stop violence against their wives and has established a 'Responsible Men Club', where they receive mentoring, peer support and knowledge so they can develop positive ideas about masculinity and their role in their communities (Tu-Anh et al., 2013). Engaging men to champion for gender equality in relation to the access, use, management and control of land and natural resources is essential in order to change behaviours and prevent violent responses to changes in traditional norms and the status quo. As examples through this chapter have mentioned, women also play roles

in perpetuating gender-based discrimination and GBV, which reinforces the need for context- and culturally specific strategies that can holistically build momentum toward new, violence-free norms.

**Using gender analyses to inform policy directions and future investments in fisheries sectors**

In the Solomon Islands, the World Bank conducted an analysis to identify gaps in available data on socio-economic opportunities and constraints for women in two fisheries supply chains, tuna and coastal fisheries. Though women fill a large proportion of roles in these value chains, there is scant data measuring their engagement, resulting in many initiatives, trainings, awareness programmes and policies being produced without gender considerations. These approaches thereby missed important opportunities to look after the differentiated needs of women engaged formally and informally in the sector, a loss as findings show that women have "high potential to improve the sustainable management of coastal fisheries" (Krushelnytska, 2015, p. 2). As a part of the analysis on women's roles in the formal fisheries sector, GBV was raised as an important gender equality and business case issue. In the Solomon Islands, where an estimated 64 per cent of women aged 15 to 49 have experienced IPV, SolTuna managers identified IPV (among other gender-related issues, such as lack of childcare, family responsibilities and limited transportation) as contributing to increased absenteeism and low productivity. Turnover at SolTuna in 2014 was 2 per cent a month – meaning a quarter of the workforce turning over every year, resulting in SolTuna absorbing higher operational costs and maintaining a roster of 300 workers (20 per cent per shift) to ensure availability of workers, a practice that inflates remuneration and overhead costs. A unit was created within the company's security department to address violence with counselling support. SolTuna also supported SafeNet, a multi-stakeholder initiative that aims to reduce IPV in the city of Noro by providing training on how to combat domestic violence. Besides facilitating 20 staff to participate on paid staff time, the company also supported a plan to establish a women's refuge in Noro (Krushelnytska, 2015).

In Kenya, the 'No Sex for Fish' project was designed to stop the *jaboya* system. The project was developed and piloted based on the realisation that high rates of HIV among women fish buyers was linked to the transaction sex system that thrived on unequal power dynamics (as men fishers could demand sex from vulnerable women who depend on their catch for their livelihoods) (Nathenson et al, 2017). As a project beneficiary noted, "I saw I would have died, giving up my body for fish – and I could not continue" (Lowen, 2014). Focused on the economic disparity, the project established a women's cooperative so they could improve business skills and create financial support through a village savings and loan association. The cooperative structure was designed to support women members towards boat ownership, and included components towards engaging men as boat operators and fishers so gender dynamics could change when men become the employees of women boat owners. Through the project, women also focused on developing improved refrigeration systems to preserve catch and improve their influence among other boat owners and crews who wish to access it at a cost whole also increasing women's bargaining power in markets. Over the course of six months, three boats were built and women were able to run successful businesses "based on collaboration and mutual benefits [between women and men] rather than the

provision of sexual favours". Though it did not end the wider *jaboya* system, it helped address underpinning issues and has contributed to cultural shifts as men have been seen spreading anti-*jaboya* messages from beach to beach (Nathenson et al., 2017).

**Increasing attention to, understanding of and interventions for addressing GBV through dedicated research**

In humanitarian settings, sustainable cooking projects have been implemented to provide cooking fuel and improved cooking facilities in refugee camps to secure livelihoods, reduce women's need to venture outside and, in turn, increase safety by reducing the risk of GBV while collecting firewood (GACC, 2016; WRC, 2011). To better understand the issues and prepare interventions, the Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves conducted research on the inclusion of GBV considerations in efficient cookstoves and fuels projects. The research found one project from UNHCR and the German Development Agency (GIZ) that measured incidence of GBV at the baseline and endline of the project related to firewood distribution in a refugee camp in Kenya. Results showed that there was a 45 per cent decrease in rapes associated to firewood collection when households had full firewood coverage, even if women and girls continued collecting firewood to earn income. However, despite this positive impact, there was an increase of rapes in other situations not related to firewood collection, bringing the net decrease of reported rapes down to 10 per cent (GACC, 2016). This finding reinforces the very need for research to help tailor interventions holistically and in context-specific situations that may have myriad drivers, impacts and perpetrators.

In another example, ActionAid reviewed its work in Rwanda and Cambodia to help the organisation and its stakeholders better understand whether programming approaches have contributed to improved gender equality, including decreased GBV, as well as assessing best practice strategies. In Rwanda, ActionAid's Local Rights Programmes focused on the intersection of women's rights, food rights and education. To combat the prevalence of GBV in project areas, legislative advocacy was paired with trainings for women to increase their awareness of laws as well as providing help accessing institutional channels to claim rights. Yet, additional work on providing safe spaces in cooperatives was needed as "women would opt for ways to cope with a situation of violence at home rather than challenging it through formal channels, as this could mean retaliation, conflict and ultimately loss of resources" (ActionAid, 2016, p. 10). During the course of the project, testimonies suggested an increased perception that IPV rates were reducing due to "more peace at home" instead of rights to safety (ActionAid, 2016, p. 10). Women noted the change came from changes in men's behaviours towards women's engagement in cooperatives due in part to male sensitisation trainings and engagement approaches (such as male champions). In Cambodia, programmes on sustainable agriculture and climate resilience likewise found that perceptions in reduced GBV rates were linked to improved sensitisation, communication and peace at home. Despite promising experiences, ActionAid recognises that "it seems adventurous to conclude that occasional trainings are producing meaningful results in such a complex issue that would require a sustained and long process of *conscientisation*" (ActionAid, 2016, p. 11). The report offers insight on building a common analysis on power to address gender equality and combat IPV (ActionAid, 2016)

**Conducting a women's safety audit to facilitate improved access to water resources and sanitation facilities, reducing exposure to sexual harassment and physical violence**

In low-income resettlement areas in New Delhi, India, women and girls living in poverty experience nearly daily harassment and abuse while collecting water and using sanitation facilities that are often dirty and unsafe (Haggart & McGuire, 2013). In 2009, the Montreal-based Women in Cities International partnered with Jagori, a women's group in New Delhi, to conduct a women's safety audit for the water and sanitation sector to address GBV faced by women in these resettlement areas (Travers et al., 2011). The audit began with a rapid assessment of the water and sanitation infrastructure available in two resettlement areas, along with interviews and focus groups with service providers and women's groups. Then, women from the communities, service providers, local government officials and researchers participated in women's safety audit walks, where they walked through neighbourhoods to water and sanitation facilities and noted hazardous conditions and forms of harassment faced by women and girls (Travers et al., 2011). This helped reveal to local governments and service providers the previously overlooked issues that affected safety and accessibility to these facilities (Haggart & McGuire, 2013).

The researchers also reviewed Delhi's municipal budget for 2009-2010 and found that the city government "spent just 66 cents per person annually on water and US$1.78 per person on sanitation, but the related lost income for a woman [wages they were unable to earn because of time spent collecting water and accessing sanitation] in a low-income community was US$50 a year" (Haggart & McGuire, 2013). Direct community engagement and capacity building trainings also helped women in the communities demand better service from the municipal government. Women's groups used available mechanisms under India's Right to Information Act to gain information on the companies responsible for maintaining the water and sanitation facilities, and petitioned local government agencies to address infrastructure gaps (Travers et al., 2011). Women in one of the communities even proposed a new design for community sanitation facilities with enhanced safety features to help women feel secure, as well as sections for children that had options for both women and men to take their children in – an important feature to accommodate men as caretakers of children to ease the social burden usually placed on women (Travers et al., 2011).

The women's safety audit process resulted in overall safer conditions for women and girls. There was better understanding among community members of the behaviours that made women and girls feel uncomfortable, and in one community, in response to safety concerns from women and girls, police increased presence around community water and sanitation facilities after school hours and in the evenings (Travers et al., 2011). Women and girls in the communities now feel more empowered to voice concerns about unsafe and unsanitary conditions to ensure accountability from municipal governments and service providers (Travers et al., 2011). In 2012, the Delhi municipal government created an 'audit cell', which included Jagori as part of the team, to help monitor the safety and quality of infrastructure projects in the city (Bhasin, 2012; Haggart & McGuire, 2013).

Source: Authors.

## Suggested resources and tools 2. Gender-based violence and natural resources

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Intimate Partner Violence and Land Toolkit (USAID, 2018a) | Supports the objectives of the United States Strategy to Prevent and Respond to Gender based Violence Globally and USAID's Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy. It is designed for activities and projects of USAID focused on strengthening secure land tenure, property rights, and land governance in rural, peri-urban and urban areas. |
| Violence, Gender & WASH: a practitioner's toolkit – Making water, sanitation and hygiene safer through improved programming and services (House et al., 2014) | Developed for use by WASH practitioners, but is also relevant to development, humanitarian and transitional contexts. This toolkit brings together methodologies, a range of case studies of gender discrimination and GBV and examples of promising good practices, and other tools that can be useful for different users. |
| Voluntary guidelines on the responsible governance of tenure of land, fisheries and forest in the context of national food security (FAO, 2012b) | Aims to improve the governance of tenure of land, fisheries and forests with the overarching goal of achieving food security for all. It aims to contribute to the global and national efforts towards the eradication of hunger and poverty and the sustainable use of the environment. |
| Towards gender-equitable small-scale fisheries governance and development – A handbook (Biswas, 2017) | Provides guidance for policymakers and other actors on gender mainstreaming in small-scale fisheries, in alignment with the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication. |
| Gender and Sustainable Forest Management: Entry Points for Design and Implementation (Beaujon Marin & Kuriakose, 2017) | The document focuses on women's livelihoods and employment in the forest sector and highlights key issues of access to and ownership of forest resources and land and entry points for women's socio-economic empowerment. It includes practical guidelines, checklists and indicators to mainstream gender in the sustainable forest management project cycle, including a GBV indicator: "Percentage change of gender-based violence among households in project areas". |
| Advancing Gender in the Environment: Gender in Fisheries – A Sea of Opportunities (Siles et al., 2019) | This guide provides an overview of women's role in the fisheries industry and entry points and opportunities towards advancing gender equality in the sector. The publication also highlights the impact GBV in the fisheries sector. |
| Evaluation of Action Aid Work on Women's Rights (ActionAid, 2016) | Explores how ActionAid has mainstreamed women's rights into their work related to the right to land and livelihoods, and access to control over productive resources during the period 2012-2016. It aims to help ActionAid and other stakeholders to understand the extent to which they have contributed to transform gender relations to benefit women and to inform future strategies. Some of the good practices regarding GBV have been presented in the sample interventions. |

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Ending sexual violence in Darfur: An advocacy agenda (Refugees International, 2007) | Addresses the links between GBV and firewood collection in the specific context of Darfur. This document is an advocacy agenda targeted at the international community and key actors in ending violence in Darfur and calls on them to support and protect women experiencing violence in this context. |
| Gender-responsive restoration guidelines. A closer look at gender in the Restoration Opportunities Assessment Methodology (IUCN, 2017) | Provides guidance on the integration of a gender-responsive approach in the Restoration Opportunities Assessment Methodology (ROAM), developed by IUCN and the World Resources Institute (WRI) to assist countries in forest landscape restoration. |

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Section

II

# GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN THE CONTEXT OF ENVIRONMENTAL PRESSURES AND THREATS

# 3.

# Illicit natural resource exploitation – Links between gender-based violence and environmental crimes

***"At the bar, I was taught to wear make-up, high heels and dress accordingly… At first it was just drinking and dancing with the miners but then it was sex. I was ashamed of myself."***

15-year-old sex trafficking victim rescued from a brothel in Madre de Dios, the heart of Peru's illegal gold mining region (Corpi, 2018)


S I.
S II.
S III.
S IV.

## The heart of the matter

- Environmental crimes thrive in contexts where limited governance over territories and resources create lucrative opportunities that are difficult to avoid; the illicit nature of these activities fosters and relies upon the use of gender-based violence – such as human trafficking, coerced transactional sex, sexual abuse, forced and/or child labour and other expressions – as a means to enable environmental crimes.
- Violence, including gender-based violence, can be used not only by those engaging in criminal activity, but also by those attempting to combat environmental crimes, for example through militarised anti-poaching forces as a means to intimidate poachers and coerce communities.
- More research is needed to tackle a rapidly escalating phenomenon, as there are relatively few studies that have begun to address the connections between gender inequality, gender-based violence and environmental crimes. To date, gender-based violence related to illegal fisheries and illegal mining is more documented than other contexts.
- While some case studies offer persuasive information on environmental impacts of these crimes, more work is also needed to understand the problem from an intersectional, rights-based lens, especially toward identifying strategies for addressing gender-based violence and improving gender-responsive conservation outcomes.
- Gender analyses and value chain analyses that specifically include gender-based violence considerations may aid governments, corporations and other actors to tackle environmental crimes, including through better understanding of complex, interlinked socio-ecological root problems that impede implementation of potential sustainable solutions.

**Definition Box 5.**
**Environmental crimes**

The definition of **environmental crimes** varies, is context-dependent and not universally agreed. This paper draws on the description employed by UNEP-INTERPOL: "[A] collective term to describe illegal activities harming the environment and aimed at benefiting individuals or groups or companies from the exploitation of, damage to, trade or theft of natural resources, including serious crimes and transnational organised crime." (Nellemann et al., 2016, p. 7)

Environmental crimes encompass a broad range of illegal activities and pose serious risks not only for the environment, but for human rights, public health and well-being of communities who depend directly and indirectly on natural resources for their lives and livelihoods (see Definition Box 5). Over recent years, the prevalence of environmental crimes has risen, including activities related to illegal wildlife and logging trades, illegal fishing and illegal mining, as well as the smuggling of ozone-depleting substances (ODS) and the illicit hazardous waste trade (EIA, 2008). Environmental crimes represent the fourth largest form of transnational organised crime – just after drug trafficking, counterfeiting and human trafficking – with an estimated annual value of US$ 90–258 billion and a growth rate two to three times faster than the global economy (Nellemann et al., 2016).

The many drivers of environmental crimes differ depending on the social, economic, environmental and political context, many of which are rooted in poverty and abuse of power. Due to the lure of high profits, countries with weak institutions and regulatory measures are particularly vulnerable to the influx of illicit industries, and corruption often further cripples these weak institutions, resulting in impunity for environmental crimes (Nellemann et al., 2016). At community and individual levels, people living in poverty struggle to meet basic needs and may have very few employment and educational opportunities. They may participate in illicit activities as a means to survive. These actors can further be victimised by the context, however, as they mostly participate as low-level perpetrators, smugglers or couriers and are sometimes forced into labour (Nellemann et al., 2016).[1]

The nature of environmental crimes is intrinsically linked to a culture of violence and intimidation (Carvajal, 2016; Jenkins, 2014). Illicit resource extraction has fuelled numerous conflicts, causing international humanitarian law and human rights violations, including the use of child soldiers in violent conflict, forced labour, human trafficking and sexual and gender-based violence (GBV) (Nellemann et al., 2016; Stimson Center, 2016;). In response to environmental crimes, law enforcement and communities themselves have sometimes asserted their authority with violence or through the militarisation of their actions, which can perpetuate a cycle of violence and lead to worsening human rights abuses, rather than improving the situation (Lunstrum, 2014). With counterproductive impacts on conservation, these approaches can exacerbate disenfranchisement, resentment and anger within communities. They also undercut attempts for collaborative approaches to combatting environmental crimes, such as increased community participation and solidarity (Cooney et al., 2018). Reinforcing the violent loop, criminal networks can further exploit and exacerbate existing gender inequality, patterns of corruption and abuse of power, as well as deprive communities of their resources and revenue (UNEP, 2018a). Illicit industries thwart legal markets and destroy natural resources, threatening ecosystems and people's livelihoods at varying scales across the globe (ARPEC, 2017; UNEP, 2018a).

The research on linkages between GBV and environmental crimes is nascent, with scarce sex-disaggregated data and information available for many crimes.

1 In some cases, members of local communities involved in small-scale or artisanal exploitation of resources can be wrongly criminalised as illegal wildlife traders, loggers, fisherfolk or miners. Criminalisation of these actions can conflict with the communities' customary rights to a territory, reinforcing various forms of violence in particular for local communities who have traditionally depended on those resources for food and livelihood.

The academic articles and cases that do exist demonstrate that the violent culture of environmental crimes have differentiated implications for women and girls, and men and boys, including by exacerbating conditions of GBV to control resources and exert power (Hübschle & Shering, 2018; Kiarie-Komondo, 2018; Stoakes & Kelly, 2015). The linkage between gendered power dynamics and the high economic value of illicit activities is particularly pronounced across environmental crimes. GBV expressions in these areas often include the human trafficking of women and girls, sexual exploitation, coerced transactional sex and forced labour (see Definition Box 6).

Understanding the connection between GBV and environmental crimes is crucial to addressing and preventing GBV, as environmental crimes can bring new, worsening patterns of violence against women, minorities and marginalised communities and degrade ecosystems. Furthermore, addressing GBV and environmental crimes are both core parts of the global sustainable development agenda, including meeting the SDGs. Identifying ways to take a synergistic approach in interventions targeting these issue areas will contribute to these goals and the overall wellbeing of communities and ecosystems. This chapter explores these intersections, drawing on examples from illegal wildlife trade, logging, fishing and mining, and suggests much more work is needed at national and international levels to build a more robust research base and formulate effective strategies to protect people and biodiversity.

**Definition Box 6. Key terms: Human trafficking, sexual exploitation, transactional sex and forced labour**

The following key terms represent forms of GBV often associated with environmental crimes.

**Human trafficking** is "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation."

**Sexual exploitation** is "any actual or attempted abuse of position of vulnerability, differential power or trust, for sexual purposes, including, but not limited to, profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another."

**Transactional sex** is "the exchange of money, employment, goods or services for sex, including sexual favours other forms of humiliating, degrading or exploitative behavior. This includes any exchange of assistance that is due to beneficiaries of assistance."

**Forced labour** can be understood as "work that is performed involuntarily and under the menace of any penalty. It refers to situations in which persons are coerced to work through the use of violence or intimidation, or by more subtle means such as manipulated debt, retention of identity papers or threats of denunciation to immigration authorities" (ILO, n.d.)

Sources: UN, 2017 and ILO, n.d.


**Data from:** Authors. **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 8. Militarisation linked to the illegal wildlife trade can increase gender-based violence**

# 3.1 Illegal wildlife trade

## *3.1.1 Setting the context: A growing market for wildlife exploitation*

The illegal wildlife trade (IWT) is an urgent global conservation and human rights challenge that has grown dramatically within the last decade (Challender & MacMillan, 2014; Stimson Center, 2016; Wittemyer et al., 2014). The trade exploits wild species and products (live or dead), such as rhino horn and elephant ivory, as well as medicinal plants, timber, corals, reef fish, shark fins and pangolins (Cooney et al., 2018 ; Nellemann et al., 2016). These products are used for pharmaceutical, ornamental and/or medicinal purposes, and constitute significant financial transactions both for national economies as well as black markets. According to the Stimson Center (2016), IWT currently generates between US$ 7–23 billion per year, more than the illicit trafficking of small arms, diamonds, gold or oil.

Due to its financial potency, the power and influence IWT has permeated through weak institutional and governance systems, and often actions to resist

or combat the trade result in violence. Taking the ivory trade as an example: between 2003 and 2013, over 1,000 park rangers were killed in their efforts to combat poaching (IFAW, 2013; Stimson Center, 2016). Prevalent poaching activity can bring crime and corruption into communities, shifting local economic systems toward sustaining risky and damaging poaching practices. Additionally, it can deprive local people of the natural resources that directly underpin their livelihoods, driving those who do not engage in the illegal trade into poverty. Resulting impacts can have significant implications for local communities, much of which is gendered, including GBV.

### *3.1.2 Gender-based violence as both a means and an impact of the illegal wildlife trade, disrupting and destabilising communities*

Illegal wildlife trafficking is often linked to other violent criminal activities, bringing along destructive and disruptive impacts that lead to an increase in violence and GBV in nearby communities (see Figure 8). For example, illicit activities can lead to higher incarceration rates among young men, destabilising families. Moreover, "[t]he insecurity brought by armed poachers threatens all investments – poachers are known to raid homes and markets for food, steal vehicles and even rape women" (Kahumbu & Halliday, 2014). Given the violent nature of these practices, women fear young men who believe themselves entitled to use violence to get what they want, including sexual abuse (Hübschle & Shering, 2018). Testimonies from the Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime (GI-TOC) stated that local women were afraid of 'the outsiders' who arrived in town to illegally hunt rhinos. These testimonies further explained how rhino poaching used all of the available labour force, affecting the social fabric and pushing communities into a vicious cycle of violence, fast cash and limited income (Hübschle & Shering, 2018). Furthermore, the inpouring of money from illegal rhino poaching often brings along increased abuse of alcohol and a rise in the sexual exploitation of women, which increases HIV/AIDS transmission rates (WWF, 2018).

Poachers also pose threats to women rangers. A Kenyan-based non-profit working to better protect and equip rangers similarly notes that women rangers face heightened threats that jeopardise the workplace and their safety: the risk of rape, in addition to murder, by poaching gangs (Hinsliff, 2019). (For more on GBV risks women rangers face, see Chapter 7.)

In addition to an increase of GBV fuelled by the presence of illegal poachers, the growing militarisation of rangers to combat IWT has also resulted in abuses of

power and crimes against local community members. While not directly involved in IWT, these community members hunt and gather natural resources for their own consumption or may know the poachers in the community. In this context, women are particularly vulnerable to sexual abuse at the hands of rangers seeking to extract information through torture (see Box 11).

**Box 11. Overlapping violence: Increased community tension and gender-based violence related to militarised efforts to combat crime**

As a report from Control Arms and Pace University (2016) notes, "by empowering paramilitary structures within the state, governments may entrench patriarchal norms and approaches to security" (Control Arms & Pace University, 2016, p. 6). At times, these forces abuse their position of power and force, committing institutional and sexual GBV offenses. For example, in 2013, the anti-poaching effort in Tanzania called Operation Tokomeza ended after only a few weeks due to widespread human rights abuses committed by security personnel, including raping women, forcing women and men to perform sexual and degrading acts and murder (Brooks & Hopkins, 2016). These violent acts, used as interrogation techniques against suspected poachers and as a way to coerce local communities into surrendering information on people engaged in IWT, resulted in long-term psychological and physical impacts on survivors (Makoye, 2014).

Source: Authors.

Amidst this context of violence and mistrust between anti-poaching units, rangers and communities, some illegal poachers have specifically used the threat of GBV for their own illegal gain. In India, male-led poaching rings recruit women to support illicit activities, such as transporting a product, and encouraging them to make false GBV allegations against male rangers. Not wishing to risk being implicated for such crimes, the rangers avoid confronting women, thereby effectively resulting in a severe exacerbation of poaching and illegal wildlife trafficking. To counter this, the local government began instituting gender quotas for ranger forces. However, the lack of adequate gender-sensitive ranger housing and facilities has undermined recruitment, resulting in a lack of progress meeting targets.[2] Although women rangers can be successful environmental stewards (see sample interventions at the end of this chapter and Chapter 7), their safety is at risk and their potential limited when they are added to predominantly male units without sufficient gender-responsive support, especially in geographically remote areas.

2 J. Wen. Personal communication, 23 July 2019.

# 3.2 Illegal logging

## *3.2.1 Setting the context: An economy of deforestation, degradation and crime*

Illegal logging generates US$ 30–100 billion per year, constituting as much as 30 per cent of all timber traded globally (Stimson Center, 2016). Converting forests to agricultural land via illegal logging is one of the main drivers of deforestation around the world, with over 20 million hectares of forest illegally converted from 2000 to 2012 (GFA, 2017). In key timber producing countries across Southeast Asia, Central Africa and the Amazon Basin, 50 to 90 per cent of timber exports are illegally harvested (Huerbsch, 2016; Stimson Center, 2016). Brazil, Paraguay and Peru in Latin America, and Indonesia, Myanmar, Malaysia and Papua New Guinea in Southeast Asia have been identified as main hotspots for illegal logging (Kleinschmit et al., 2016). Estimates indicate that Indonesia, Brazil and Malaysia supplied 50, 25 and 10 per cent, respectively, of the total estimated illegal tropical timber in 2013 (Kleinschmit et al., 2016).

Around 50 per cent of the wood extracted from forests worldwide is used as fuelwood and charcoal (FAO, 2017a). In Africa, charcoal represents one of the largest (and fastest growing) economic opportunities in the informal economy, yet a significant part of it is produced illegally (The Economist, 2018). Widespread corruption and weak law enforcement contribute to the rise in illegal logging and charcoal production and trade. Charcoal is extensively used across the continent's rapidly expanding urban poor environments, where people use it to cook and boil water in the absence of electricity or gas. While some communities have experienced some economic benefits from the trade, the industry is contributing to environmental degradation (The Economist, 2018). The illicit timber and charcoal trade threaten forests, animal habitats and biodiversity worldwide, along with communities who depend on them. The destruction of natural resources is only half the picture, as this illicit trade is also responsible for extensive human rights abuses, including the assassination of environmental human rights defenders (see Chapter 6) and massive tax fraud that deprives local and national governments of needed revenue (Huerbsch, 2016). It also leads to various forms of GBV, as shown below.


**Data from:** Authors. **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 9. The link between illegal logging and gender-based violence**

### 3.2.2 *Exploiting interlinked conditions of discrimination and abuse, perpetrating gender-based violence in the illegal logging sector*

Cases of sexual exploitation of women and minors underscore the link between the industry's abuse of power and increased GBV (see Figure 9). In Peru, the illegal logging industry is the main cause of deforestation, destroying more than 110,000 hectares of forests per year, while bringing in US$ 150 million annually (WRM, 2014). Since many Amazonian indigenous peoples living in this remote region are often undocumented – that is, their birth was never registered with the government – they are doubly vulnerable to human trafficking for forced labour and sexual exploitation (UNHRC, 2011). As such, some indigenous communities have been forced into labour, trapping them in a system of debt bondage called *enganche*, which includes instances of gendered dynamics and GBV. Women, for example, are generally trafficked into logging camps as sex workers, while men are mainly exploited for physical labour (UNHRC, 2011). In 2011, the United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) reported:

> *"On average, a logging camp is made up of 30 male loggers, a woman who cooks for the camp and another who is sexually exploited… First, indigenous communities are contracted to provide timber from their own land; second, timber bosses hire indigenous and mestizo men to work on their camps. In both instances, deception is used to entrap workers in a cycle of debt and servitude, which can be passed on from one generation to the next …"* (UNHRC, 2011, p. 9).

In South Sudan, reports of GBV have also been tied to illegal logging. After civil war broke out in December 2013, mismanagement of timber resources largely due to an absence of legal frameworks led to an increase in illegal exports of wood and charcoal, which has been exacerbating South Sudan's conflict and destroying the environment (Kiarie-Komondo, 2018). Over time, this conflict has contributed to the loss of livelihoods, displacements and famine crises. Gender discrimination and inequalities made thousands of women more vulnerable to these injustices and to sexual harassment and violence (Kiarie-Komondo, 2018). The deterioration of agricultural markets forced women, the majority of whom were farmers, to seek employment in the illegal logging industry. Within these forests, women faced discrimination and subjected to sexual violence and harassment.

Women in South Sudan experience rates of violence twice the global average; coupled with the effects of the civil war, women have experienced a multitude of adverse impacts, with serious implications for their physical, emotional and economic well-being and autonomy (Kiarie-Komondo, 2018). During a period of just two months in 2013, there were 19 documented cases of rape reported to local authorities from women and girls in the logging sites of South Sudan. Due to an illegal logging industry, there were no contracts or proof of employment, and thus no way to seek recourse for these crimes (Kiarie-Komondo, 2018).

### *3.2.3 Gender-based violence, the illegal charcoal trade and conflict*

The traditionally male-dominated nature of the charcoal industry, coupled with existing gender norms and discrimination, can put women at risk of abuse and GBV (Ihalainen et al., 2018). In parts of rural Zambia, where poverty is worsening, women are beginning to enter the trade out of economic necessity, challenging gender norms around breadwinning and division of labour. This threatens the patriarchal power structure, and thus men have responded with attempts to exploit women. Some women stated that some charcoal transporters have requested sexual favours as a type of 'payment-in-kind' if the

women are unable to pay the demanded price for transporting the charcoal to urban markets (Ihalainen et al., 2018).

These kinds of interactions are also observed in the illegal charcoal trade of several conflict zones. In many conflict contexts, the presence of armed interests can worsen GBV impacts, as it exacerbates existing social and economic tensions and resource scarcity. For example, in eastern Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), widespread illegal charcoal logging has destroyed huge sections of Virunga National Park, threatening the mountain gorillas that tourists pay up to US$ 400 a day to view (The Economist, 2018), as well as fuelled sexual violence against women (Dranginis, 2016). In Virunga, the illicit charcoal trade is one of the most successful revenue-generating businesses for the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR) (Dranginis, 2016). Entering Virunga is illegal without a tourist permit, but as Dranginis (2016) reports:

> *"… there is a well-established market for access to Virunga operated by FDLR factions and Congolese army and police officials. In exchange for access in and out of the park without criminal penalty or violent attack, civilians can pay informal "tolls." This extortion ranges from 50 cents to $30, depending on the individual's alliances and purpose, and may include multiple payments. For women, the cost of entry or exit may include 'sex in lieu' of or in addition to cash or food"* (Dranginis, 2016, p. 13).

The use of coerced transactional sex and sexual violence, as well as other forms of GBV, is pervasive within this region dominated by the FDLR (Dranginis, 2016), where the trade intersects with common gender-differentiated roles and responsibilities held by women. As women are typically responsible for the provision of fuel and food within the home, withholding, coercing or exchanging essential resources in exchange for sex is a regularly used form of GBV. The FDLR soldiers will only sell charcoal to women who have sex with them, reportedly (Dranginis, 2016). Further:

> *"The FDLR has consistently perpetrated forced marriage and sexual violence within its traditional combat structure, a practice also found within its charcoal networks. In one case …a woman was abducted outside the park, taken into an FDLR camp, and forced to collect charcoal from kilns and pack bags bound for market. She was told by one of the officers, 'This man is now your husband,' referring to another officer. So, apart from being kidnapped, forced to work, she was forced to marry. Then when that man got tired of her, she was passed to another man"* (Dranginis, 2016, p. 17).

In Somalia, 25 per cent of Somali women experience GBV, which is exacerbated by conflict and displacement (World Bank, 2018). There, similar patterns of GBV linked to conflict, environmental degradation and resource exploitation are observed. The scale is also worth noting, with 8.2 million were felled for the use of charcoal between 2011 and 2017 (UNEP, 2018b). The ensuing environmental devastation caused by the charcoal trade has further exacerbated drought, flooding, the loss of livelihoods and increased food insecurity, as well as fuelled the already existing conflict (UNEP, 2018b) and, in turn, increased violence, including GBV. The charcoal trade has generated millions of dollars for terrorist groups, such as *Al Shabaab*, which has maintained control of political power and economic resources in the region and contributed to an increase of violence (Koigi, 2018), including the use of GBV to control women (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2018). Under current conditions, illicit charcoal will only continue to fuel insecurity in the region, increase GBV and exacerbate environmental degradation in countries already vulnerable to drought, flood, poverty and famine (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2018; World Bank, 2018; Dranginis, 2016; Koigi, 2018; UNEP, 2018b).

# 3.3 Illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing

## *3.3.1 Setting the context: Unsustainability threatens livelihoods and food security*

Illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing represents one of the greatest threats to marine biodiversity and livelihoods across the world. Calculations indicate that roughly 18 per cent of the global catch, as much as 11–26 million tons, is caught illegally each year with a price tag of US$ 10–23 billion (FAO, 2016). Illegal fishing occurs at all scales and dimensions of fisheries, on both the high seas and in small- and large-scale fisheries under national jurisdiction. IUU involves the entire value-chain (including harvest, processing, transport, trade and food labelling) and has been linked to organised crime (FAO, 2016; Nellemann et al., 2016).

Fish and other seafood products constitute a significant source of animal-based protein for 3 billion people around the globe and the industry employs between 10–12 per cent of the global population, mostly in developing countries (Nellemann et al., 2016). With 30 per cent of global fish stocks overfished and nearly 60 per cent fully exploited, IUU fishing threatens the livelihoods and subsistence existence of coastal communities worldwide (Nellemann et al., 2016). IUU fishing also exacerbates poverty and food insecurity while undermining national and regional efforts to manage fisheries sustainably (FAO, 2016).

The unregulated nature of the work and poor enforcement of fishery regulations has made fisherfolk and fishing communities, especially those surviving in poverty, susceptible to violence and attacks from conflicts over resource access and subjected to forced labour, deplorable working conditions, child labour and GBV (EJF, 2010; Pomeroy et al., 2007; Ratner et al., 2014). The following sub-sections review the ways in which women, men and children are victimised by illegal fishing activity.

**Definition Box 7.**
**Illegal, unreported, and unregulated fishing**

**Illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing** is a broad term which includes:

- Fishing and fishing-related activities conducted in contravention of national, regional and international laws;
- Non-reporting, misreporting or under-reporting of information on fishing operations and their catches;
- Fishing by "Stateless" vessels;
- Fishing in convention areas of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) by non-party vessels; and
- Fishing activities which are not regulated by States and cannot be easily monitored and accounted for.

Source: FAO, (2016) and FAO, (n.d.).


**Figure 10. Men and boys endure sexual abuse and slave labour in illegal fishing activities**

### *3.3.2 Exploiting vulnerabilities and using gender-based violence as a tool of illegal fishing activity*

Studies show that IUU fishing is a major driver for human trafficking abuses, including sex trafficking. “A vast criminal enterprise,” illegal fishing “often coexists with violence against women” (Friends of Ocean Action, 2019). At fishing ports, women and children are vulnerable to organised sexual exploitation by fishers, with reports showing that women, young girls and boys are abducted and imprisoned on fishing vessels (Bondaroff, 2015). In Southeast Asia, a series of reports have documented the sale of migrants to fishing vessels for labour exploitation, where women, girls and men experience sexual exploitation, abuse and rape (Stoakes & Kelly, 2015; Urbina, 2015a; Urbina, 2015b). It is estimated that thousands of men, women and children, mostly from Cambodia, Myanmar and the Philippines are trafficked annually to Thailand for the purpose of labour exploitation aboard fishing vessels and to ‘jungle camps’ where they are detained and held for ransom, where women are often raped and tortured (Stoakes & Kelly, 2015; Urbina, 2015a; Urbina, 2015b). Men and boys are deceived into working on fishing boats to fish the waters of the South China Sea, including into Malaysian waters. These boats, out to sea

for up to two years or more, become floating prisons in which its fishers endure inhumane working conditions, beatings, rapes and even killings. Most of this abuse occurs on legally licensed commercial vessels that carry out illegal fishing (Urbina, 2015a).

Illegal activity in the fishing industry highlights the need for GBV interventions that support, protect and respond to the needs of men and boys. In 2015 alone, more than one thousand trafficked fishermen from Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos and Thailand were found in Ambon and Benjina, Indonesia (see Figure 10). Indonesia is a destination and a transit country for trafficked victims, but also a place for recruitment. Forced work on fishing platforms, known as *jermals*, is mainly done by boys aged 14 and under, who endure sexual abuse in addition to slave labour. In another case, 27 Indonesian fishermen were found to be working in slave labour conditions on a South Korean fishing boat fishing in New Zealand waters, of which a number of them were subjected to sexual abuse IOM et al., 2016). One such victim from Indonesia, who was trafficked into the New Zealand fishing industry recounts, "I experienced sexual harassment many times on-board Oyang 75. I have never told anyone about this because of my position as a labourer. The perpetrator…was the chief officer on the boat. I often thought about asking for help but I didn't know who to ask" (Lazarus, 2015).

## 3.4 Illegal mining

### *3.4.1 Setting the context: Interlinked criminality reinforcing exploitation*

The illegal mining industry's estimated costs (revenue and loss) are between US$ 12–48 billion and include the illicit mining of gold, diamonds, precious metals and other minerals (Stimson Center, 2016; Nellemann et al., 2016). A regional review highlights the ways in which lucrative, illicit mining accounts for a major part of economies around the world. For example, in Latin America, Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, Peru and Venezuela are the main hotpots for illegal mining. In Colombia and Peru, which currently have the largest cocaine production in the world, illegal gold mining is becoming a profitable alternative to drugs (UNEP, 2018a). In Peru, 20 per cent of gold exports are said to be mined illegally, while in Colombia, an estimated 40–60 per cent of total gold exports come from unlicensed mines (Stimson Center, 2016). Compounding the problem is the illegal drug trade intersecting with illegal mining, and weaving together complex, criminal value chains that prey on vulnerable communities.

For example, organised criminals in the drug trade are reported to launder their money via the gold trade (legal or illegal)[3], as it presents one of the easiest and most profitable ways to do so (UNEP, 2018a).

Furthermore, as illegal mines are typically located in remote areas, they are easily hidden from the purview of law enforcement. Throughout Latin America, and in many places across Africa and Asia, illegal mines often operate in areas controlled by organised crime, resulting in deep ties between illegal mines and the well-connected and powerful illegal drug trade, creating a climate of impunity that facilitates the exploitation of vulnerable people, including young impoverished men, but particularly women and children, who are treated as mere commodities. Widespread cases of labour trafficking and exploitation, sex trafficking and child labour are therefore commonly linked to illegal mines. Across these abuses, there is a clear, consistent motive: to use human trafficking as a means to fuel the needs of illegal mining camps (GI-TOC, 2016). Taken together, the lucrativeness of these criminal activities set the backdrop for a competition over resources that can result in abuses of power and GBV.

**Definition Box 8. Illegal mining**

**Illegal mining** includes mining that occurs in restricted areas (e.g. protected areas or national parks) and is associated with or involves criminal groups, and/or fails to comply with environmental, tax and labour laws. Illegal miners do not hold permits, evade taxes, disregard required environmental impact analyses and have lower labour standards. Illegal mines can range from small- to large-scale operations, with profits accruing to hundreds of millions of dollars

Source: Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime, 2016.

3 As is relevant across contexts discussed in this chapter, it is important to distinguish between informal and illegal activity. There is much misunderstanding about the differences between informal and illegal mining, as the definition of illegal mining varies across countries, and many lack regulations that clearly differentiate between informal and illegal mining (GI-TOC, 2016), putting communities at risk. Informal, small-scale or artisanal miners can be wrongly criminalised, losing their source of income and increasing their risk of falling victim to human trafficking or being recruited by armed groups (GI-TOC, 2016). Human rights and environmental violations exist throughout both illegal and legal operations, instead this chapter focuses on the cases of illegal mining that foster exploitative conditions wherein GBV thrives. (Issues related to extractive industries are discussed in Chapter 3.)


**Data from:** USAID (2014). **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 11. Sexual exploitation towards enabling illegal mining activities in Peru**

### *3.4.2 The use of gender-based violence to fuel illicit mining activities*

The inflow of large numbers of men miners (themselves sometimes forced) into remote illegal mining areas often generates a demand for sexual services, and illegal mining operations react by engaging networks specialised in sexual exploitation. In Latin America, the remoteness of mining areas coupled with their often close proximity to rural and indigenous communities with very little political power has made those surrounding communities particularly vulnerable to trafficking and forced labour, with both women and children particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation (GI-TOC, 2016). In South America, field research by GI-TOC finds that many female victims are trafficked after being sold by family members. In other instances, women and girls are deceived into sex work:

> *"Many women and girls respond to advertisements for jobs or are directly recruited by middlemen who offer well paid work in mining camps as cooks, store clerks, or waitresses. Once the victims agree, their identification documents are confiscated, and they are given fake IDs and new identities and are told what to say if questioned by authorities. Some women are required to provide sexual services to clients at restaurants and stores in mining camps, while others are trafficked into brothels. Women working as cooks are also often forced to provide 'sexual favours' to miners"* (GI-TOC, 2016, p. 29).

In 2011, the UNHRC found "a wide range of contemporary forms of slavery, most prominently trafficking in girls and young women from impoverished rural regions of the Amazon recruited and coerced into prostitution in brothels" in the illegal mining industry in Peru (UNHRC, 2011, p. 11). Similarly, in Madre de Dios, documentation shows the scale of the importance of sexual exploitation in sustaining illicit mining: approximately 4,500 women, about 78 per cent of them minors, were trafficked to work in bars, restaurants and brothels near illegal gold mining camps for sexual exploitation (USAID, 2014) (see Figure 11). Victims, as young as 12 years old, are trafficked to support the staggering demand for sexual services and exploitation: in one mining area, 2,000 sex workers, 60 per cent of whom were minors, which imply that there are approximately 1,200 underage victims of sex trafficking in the single delta area (GI-TOC, 2016). Many exploited children and adolescents from Cusco, Arequipa and Apurimac were found as being held captive under threat of death (USAID, 2014). In La Pampa, a province of Madre de Dios, Peru, 150 bars each host 10–15 trafficked girls, and field studies have shown that many are trafficked along rivers to mining camps as there is only one maritime police authority in the area (GI-TOC, 2016). In these settings, bodies are truly treated as commodities: high levels of complicity between brothel owners and mining workers have been noted, with camp workers acting as informers to brother owners when sex trafficking victims attempt to flee or "misbehave". Threats of violence against the family members of victims are used to exact compliance from trafficking victims who "have little choice but to endure their circumstances" (GI-TOC, 2016, p. 31). Furthermore, in the context of conflicts, GBV is also used by armed militias in illegal extractive activities (see Box 12).

Despite the linkage between illegal mines and sex trafficking, examples show that effective action can also be hampered when government and enforcement officials lack relevant knowledge. In Colombia, military forces that patrol areas where illegal activities take place, such as illegal mines, have shared with reporters that they are not trained to handle or address the needs or issues of

minors that are trafficked into sex work, and that they are the responsibility of police. Meanwhile, the police say that since the mines operate in remote, rural areas, they are the responsibility of the military. Networks therefore operate widely without much interference, and at times, with permissibility. Furthermore, though some officials privately acknowledge the problem, they exhibit reluctance to speak about the issue on-record, let alone addressing them directly (Bedoya Lima, 2013). In Peru, where recent government attempts to increase enforcement and prosecutions against illegal mines and associated trafficking has taken place, reports indicate that the lack of a coordinated government data collection system makes it difficult for authorities to verify statistics, assess efforts and respond to trends.[4] Additionally, high police turnover among anti-trafficking units undermine capacities and sex trafficking cases have been referred to generalised prosecutors where cases have been seen to stall. In other cases, the judicial system reduces sex trafficking charges to lesser crimes (U.S.Department of State, 2019).

4 Although a data collection system has recently been funded with foreign aid support, it has yet to be set in place and assessed.

**Box 12. Illegal mining, conflict and gender-based violence in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: Excerpt from a case study**

Lucrative natural resources can be a curse for fragile states that neither have the infrastructure or capacity to control their illegal extraction, nor the capacity or regulatory frameworks to prevent possible ensuing conflicts and impacts, such as GBV. In Africa, major conflict zones, such as those in the Central African Republic (CAR) ,Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Sudan (Darfur) have direct links to extensive illegal mining, both in the form of larger mines and artisanal small-scale mining (UNEP, 2018a).

The DRC is an extremely resource-rich nation with reserves of over 1,100 minerals and precious metals, yet its continuing recovery from long-term social, economic and environmental issues resulting from decades of conflict and political instability continue to have gendered and GBV dimensions. A case study received explains how militias from the DRC seeking control of natural resources in the Kahuzi-Biega National Park engaged in systematic sexual abuse of local women to fuel their efforts.

> *"Conflict in the DRC is financed in part by its mineral wealth, with all sides benefitting from the instability and seeking control of resource-rich areas to profit from natural resources, a practice that continues in some parts of the DRC by armed groups. The Congolese conflict has involved systematic rape, with estimates indicating that up to 12 per cent of women in the DRC have been raped at least once.*
>
> *The complex nexus between conflict, mining and gender-based violence is intensified in the DRC's ecologically unique but highly lucrative protected areas. Illegal mining in Kahuzi-Biega National Park played a significant role in the financing of violence and after the wars ended artisanal mining continued in the region, with many mines still being controlled by various armed groups (…)*
>
> *The presence of armed groups and current and ex-combatants in and around Kahuzi-Biega puts the population at severe risk of rape and sexual abuse. Kahuzi-Biega received an influx of 450,000 refugees from Rwanda and 800,000 displaced people from the First Congo War in the 1990s, making this an even more vulnerable population. Disputes between the populations and park authorities over land and access to mineral resources in the protected area further increase the instability of the communities regarding land tenure and livelihoods, creating disempowering conditions where rape and harassment are tolerated and victims have limited ways of protecting themselves from such abuse"* (Case Study EN26).

Source: Authors.

## 3.5 Ways forward

Environmental crimes, poverty and violence often overlap and reinforce one another; the high profits generated and their relationship with often well-established criminal networks help perpetuate a culture of impunity for the actors involved and the perpetrators of GBV in these contexts.

Evidence presented in this chapter indicates a need for further research to bring awareness of the linkages between environmental crimes and GBV. Better understanding of these linkages can lead towards improved national and

corporate policies, and actions for combatting these illegal activities and ending human rights violations, including human trafficking and sexual exploitation.

There is also a need to examine gender and GBV considerations throughout the entire value chain, from poachers, loggers, fishers, harvesters, miners and their communities, to traders, consumers, sourcing companies, local governments and regulatory requirements of purchasing countries (see Box 13). A gender analysis at each step of the value chain that incorporates issues of GBV will reveal context-specific gender dynamics and potential drivers of violence. They may also uncover bases for impunity, which are fundamental to its identification in order to improve long-term sustainable solutions that will positively impact communities affected by environmental crimes, poverty and GBV.

This section presents some examples of entry points and sample interventions to address GBV in environmental crimes, grounded in the analysis of existing literature and specific cases, as well as emerging promising practice. While not exhaustive, the examples provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward in addressing GBV in environmental crimes (see Chapter 8 on recommendations).

### *3.5.1 Advance research and information-sharing on gender-based violence and environmental crime links to enable informed interventions*

Environmental crime is a global challenge, but little academic work has been conducted with a gender-responsive approach on many of the illicit activities included under environmental crimes, especially with particular attention paid to GBV dynamics in these contexts (McElwee, 2012). Given the international dimension of these illicit activities, conducting regional comparative studies of GBV and environmental crimes could help to generate empirical evidence and indicators to inform the international agenda, such as meeting the SDGs,[5] and to develop regulatory measures and policies to combat organised crime and GBV. Some existing resources illustrate the importance of research and knowledge generation as fundamental to awareness raising, advocacy and capacity-building approaches. For example, GI-TOC was born from the conclusion made by numerous law enforcement officials from around the world

5 For example, SDG indicators relevant to environmental crimes: Indicator 14.6.1, which measures "[p]rogress by countries in the degree of implementation of international instruments aiming to combat illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing;" Target 15.7, which states that countries should "[t]ake urgent action to end poaching and trafficking of protected species of flora and fauna and address both demand and supply of illegal wildlife products;" and Target 16.4, which states that by 2030 countries should "significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organi[s]ed crime" (UNSD, 2017, pp. 15-18).

that the problems and impacts of organised crime and illegal trafficking and trade are not well analysed nor systematically integrated into national plans or strategies. It has also found that existing multilateral tools have not been structured towards facilitating improved bilateral cooperation. As such, GI-TOC resources, including those on illegal mining and related sex trafficking problems, review legislative frameworks, private sector initiatives and certification schemes, identifying and addressing weaknesses in existing practices and making recommendations for export and import countries and the private sector (GI-TOC, n.d.).

### *3.5.2 Develop gender-responsive value chain analyses to address challenges and potential solutions*

As shown in this chapter, value chains are complex. Addressing the root causes of environmental crimes with the support of gender-responsive value chain analyses will also be essential for reducing instances of GBV. For example, one of the challenges in combatting illegal fishing is tracking product origin. Once fish are transferred to a 'mothership' (a cargo ship containing extra supplies, fuel, nets, cold storage, etc.), it becomes nearly impossible for port-side authorities to determine their origin and determine whether they were caught legally by paid fishermen or poached illegally by shackled migrants (Urbina, 2015a). A variety of initiatives and programmes addressing this issue is underway; however, research on the links between GBV with fisheries sustainability is still in its initial stage and will require more attention, national policies and resources. In this light, GBV prevention training for fisheries ministries and relevant authorities, with particular focus on enforcement practices in remote and coastal areas, can help reduce the prevalence of exploitative GBV practices in fisheries (Siles et al., 2019) (see Chapter 2).

Similarly, as many countries are faced with the risk of increased financial vulnerability and dependence upon organised criminal groups, fighting environmental criminal industries will also be all the more challenging (Nellemann et al., 2016). For example, regarding illegal mining, in spite of increased effort to establish laws and regulations to combat organised crime, reduce the use of conflict minerals, fight human trafficking, protect the environment and reduce corruption, there remain numerous gaps in surveillance and enforcement. Governments and corporations can conduct capacity needs assessments to identify important skills gaps that could undermine their ability to enforce mandates, designing specific trainings for state service providers to comply with departmental, corporate, national and international mandates to combat GBV and crimes effectively.

## Box 13. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Integrating actions to combat wildlife crime and gender-based violence

The sustainable management of natural resources can be difficult for communities struggling with poverty, with ripple effects across development and environmental issues. A wildlife trust works with a local empowerment programme for victims and survivors of gender-based violence to encourage the communities bordering Kruger National Park in Southern Africa to unite in saying 'no' to both social and wildlife crimes in a joint project. The GBV-focused programme works to promote zero tolerance towards all forms of sexual assault, IPV, child abuse and HIV/AIDS stigma through community workshops, advocacy campaigns, improved police engagement and the opening of safe houses for survivors of abuse to help change social norms where victims and witnesses are reluctant to come forward to report crimes. Data from the villages where the GBV organisation operates show that there has been a 500 per cent increase in reporting on related crimes. Under the joint programme, the GBV-focused programme is working with conservation stakeholders to integrate a zero tolerance approach toward illegal wildlife trafficking to its GBV programming to likewise remove fear and stigma about reporting wildlife crimes by increasing community knowledge about wildlife laws and how communities are better served by ecotourism than conservation crimes (Case Study EN11).

### Understanding the gendered dynamics of value chains toward improved interventions

In illegal logging and the illicit charcoal trade, the social and gendered complexity of the value chain, including the drivers, impacts and expressions of GBV, require an intersectional approach to improve the structural inequalities that exist for women, which make them more vulnerable to GBV and exploitation, as well as to improve the sustainability of the trade. Within the charcoal industry, some efforts are being made to green the industry through better management of the supply value chain and its various actors (FAO, 2017b). For example, in Zambia, with support from the Forest and Farm Facility (FFF), the government is working to better organise producers and traders (who mostly operate illegally or informally), securing permits and licenses, with improved tracking of resources, in an attempt to improve livelihoods without contributing to deforestation. Included in this plan is to support and strengthen producer organisations for women and a commitment to better understand women's roles throughout the value chain (FAO, 2017b). Further research is needed to measure the impact of these actions on GBV incidence in the charcoal industry and to adopt specific measures to address GBV. In another example, the Responsible Sourcing Tool was developed to support corporations in better understanding if and where human and sex trafficking may be hidden in supply chains, as detection is critical to combatting the problem. It provides resources on best practice guidance on combatting human trafficking, case studies on risks and risk management, guidance on ethical engagement with survivors and specific tools to address the seafood industry. The tool is also designed to help support advocates and consumers in better understanding human trafficking risks (RST, n.d.).

**Empowering women in formal positions to combat illegal wildlife trafficking and change gender norms**

In various places around the world, the value of women's participation in combatting IWT has resulted in decreased tensions between communities, poachers and wildlife protection forces. Where women have been trained and included in ranger units in large numbers, not only are altercations reduced, but community perceptions about gender norms have also changed. In India, the women of the Pench Special Tiger Protection Force (STPF) patrol the 1,921 km$^2$ between the Indian states of Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh while transforming local gender norms. With an average age of 23, the women report that their families have been supportive and that their communities place them in positions of respect. One woman recounts:

> *"We have to make it very clear to prospective grooms that this is our life and career. I will never give it up. As for my parents, they are fielding proposals every day. There's a line outside the door seeking the hand of their daughter, now that I have this job"* (Sahgal, 2014).

While poaching had risen in almost every part of India, parks where effective STPFs have been set up have seen a drop in poaching incidents. As with Zimbabwe's all-women *Akashinga* unit (see Chapter 7 for more about the *Akashinga*), locally recruited rangers are seen as more effective as they come from the same communities that poachers rely on for information and logistic support (Sahgal, 2014). In South Africa, an unarmed patrol of local women called the Black Mambas have achieved a 76 per cent reduction in rhino poaching since 2013. As with the Akashinga in the Phundundu Wildlife Area, the Black Mambas focus on peace-based enforcement, with one member stating, "the poachers will fall – but it will not be with guns and bullets" (Aldred, 2016). Another member echoed the norm-changing effect that women units can have:

> *"Unlike some years ago, when they used to say this job is for men, now there are women who are working to protect the wildlife. It means a lot to us and makes us continue to do our job because we know that people are behind us, supporting us"* (Aldred, 2016).

Inspiration comes from other regions: in Tajikistan, women rangers protecting snow leopards aim to "inspire a generation of active women who contribute to the preservation of the environment and the livelihoods of their communities, especially when it comes to the economic empowerment of local women" (UNDP, 2018). In Afghanistan, where 16 per cent of women engage in formal work, Band-e-Amir's women rangers "are seen as a symbol of resilience and hope" (Darabi, 2015). These initiatives have reported a shift in gender norms and a reduction of violence. Further research on the correlation with GBV can help scale up these models.

Source: Authors.

## Suggested resources and tools 3. Gender-based violence and environmental crimes

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| The Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime - Environmental crimes (GI-TOC, n.d.) | Generates knowledge and conducts much needed analysis on transnational crimes, including a focus on environmental crimes. In some publications, the GBV implications of these crimes are analysed. For example, a report on illegal gold mining across Latin America pays specific attention to the forced trafficking of women and girls to work as labourers or sex workers. This initiative also has a network for exchanging knowledge, expertise and advice. |
| Responsible Sourcing Tool (RST, n.d.) | An initiative from the US State Department's Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, Verité, Made in a Free World and the Aspen Institute to fight human trafficking. The platform provides information, analysis and practical guidance to effectively detect, prevent and combat human trafficking in global supply chains. |
| Trafficking in Persons Report (U.S. Department of State, 2019) | Provides much needed information on human trafficking, including labour and sexual exploitation and trafficking, across countries. The report classifies each country according to a Tier system (based on the U.S. Trafficking Victims Protection Act 2000) and provides country narratives on human trafficking across multiple legal and illegal activities, including recommendations for prosecution, protection and prevention. |

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# 4.

# The impacts of extractive industries, large-scale infrastructure projects and agribusiness on gender-based violence

***"If you're unlucky you only get paid if you let the guy 'do his thing'. It happens all the time."***

A Liberian woman who works at a rubber plantation

(WRM, 2019, p. 4)

## The heart of the matter

- The activity of extractive industries and large-scale agribusiness disrupts ecosystems and social and economic norms, often displacing local communities, degrading the environment, interrupting access to increasingly stressed or scarce natural resources, and changing socio-economic systems; which can result in loss of livelihoods and a rise in gender-based inequalities and violence.
- Exploiting and reinforcing patriarchal norms, extractive industries also bring high numbers of male workers to remote areas, creating conditions for coerced prostitution and sexual exploitation and commodification in particular of women and girls.
- Intersecting forms of marginalisation and discrimination put indigenous women and girls at heightened risk of multiple forms of gender-based violence.
- Reinforcing power asymmetries pave the way for violence to occur throughout the agriculture sector, from smallholder farms to large-scale industrial farms, mirroring patterns prevalent in mining and infrastructure to support resource exploitation.
- Improving enabling conditions for rights-based, gender-responsive policy and practice in public and private spheres is urgent, with policy reform, cross-sector coordination, assured accountability and improved guidance that addresses gender-based violence among top next-step needs.

The 21st century has seen a steep rise in activities, including the unsustainable large-scale extraction and use of natural resources that impose stress on the environment and on the communities who depend on natural resources and ecosystem services. The extractive sector in particular has widespread implications on the environment, including: deforestation and land degradation; biodiversity loss; water overuse and waste mismanagement; and chemical, dust and airborne pollution (UNEP, 2017).

Growing population and consumerism patterns, along with the need for increasing renewable and non-renewable energy resources to support these patterns, has led to the current surge in extractive activities, such as mining and oil and gas extraction, and the expansion of large-scale infrastructure and agribusiness, which is characterised by the removal of large quantities of natural resources. There is a growing consensus amongst academics and civil society that the extraction of natural resources – whether related to mining, agriculture or large-scale infrastructure projects – be classified as its own economic and political model, called ‘extractivism’, that prioritises profit over human rights and environmental sustainability, and exacerbates power asymmetries between

developed and developing economies (Barcia, 2017a; Schrecker et al., 2018; USAID, 2010). The extractivism model contributes to rapid environmental degradation around the world and human rights violations including GBV, particularly against indigenous peoples and local communities (Burger, 2014).

Extractive activities and agribusiness depend on large production scales to achieve profitability, often resulting in the displacement of local communities and the disruption of local ecological, social and economic systems (Carvajal, 2016; Sassen, 2015). The social fabric and corresponding gender roles within communities are often dramatically altered by the deterioration of local economies, dispossession of land, loss of local livelihoods and degradation of natural resources – all of which can give rise to GBV (Barcia, 2017b; Gender Action, 2011; Hill & Newell, 2009). For example, women experience a higher work burden when resources are scarcer, at times making them even more economically dependent on their husbands and reducing their status in the house and family (Gender Action, 2011). These socio-economic and cultural changes can prompt domestic disputes over resources, and increase gambling, alcohol and drug use, all of which are linked to increased GBV (Byford, 2002; Hill & Newell, 2009; Hinton et al., 2006; Perks, 2011; Scheyvens and Lagisa, 1998; World Bank, 2014). Additionally, the high concentration of mostly transient, male workers employed within extractive industries and large-scale plantations can lead to an increase in coerced transactional sex and sexual exploitation (Barcia, 2017b). It has been documented that in both sectors women enter prostitution rings either voluntarily, sometimes due to diminished economic opportunities, or by force and/or coercion, spurring problems with HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) (Barcia, 2017b; Gender Action, 2011; Hill & Newell, 2009).

For many communities, addressing GBV involves dismantling long-established patriarchal notions of women's roles and status (Barcia, 2017a). These issues often sit on top of larger, more complex socio-economic, cultural and political circumstances unique to the context in which these industries operate. While more systematic analyses are needed, mounting evidence suggests that extractives industries employ GBV, particularly violence against women, as a form of control over those communities.

To better understand the relationship between extractives and GBV, this chapter features illustrative cases from different socio-cultural, political and geographical contexts. Examples related to mining, large-scale infrastructure projects and agribusiness, including palm oil and other plantations, show a common pattern of community disruption and increased gender inequality and violence.

Among various urgent and necessary steps to take for improving these norms, the chapter ends with a select few examples of fundamental action needed, plus a box of tools already available for environment and sustainable development policymakers' and practitioners' awareness and use.

## 4.1 Extractive industries and large-scale infrastructure

### *4.1.1 Setting the context: The destabilising effects of extractives and large-scale infrastructure projects on communities*

About 3.5 billion people live in countries rich in oil, gas and minerals; however, these resources have often been a source of conflict. Many of the 81 most resource-rich countries suffer from poverty, corruption and conflict as a result of weak governance, hindering opportunities for sustainable development (World Bank, n.d.). Countries that may be in search of fast profits often make poorly-managed investments that fail to deliver the development they promise, and instead lead to increased poverty, violence and social conflict, deepening economic, social and gender inequalities (Barcia, 2017a; USAID, 2010). For instance, extractive industries and governments often see land containing significant deposits of minerals, oil and gas as a source of foreign investment and income, overlooking local and indigenous peoples' rights to and environmental, social and cultural dimensions of the land and resources (Burger, 2014). In addition to extractive industries, large-scale infrastructure projects, such as major dams, energy plants, highways, ports and airports, can threaten local ecosystems, and subject them to disruption, pollution, contamination and overuse when social and environmental risks are not addressed. In many cases, indigenous peoples and local communities inhabit these territories and heavily rely on their land and natural resources for their cultural survival, being one of the most affected by these projects (IUCN, 2008).

### *4.1.2 Extractives and large-scale infrastructure developments deepen inequalities, exacerbating patriarchal norms and gender-based violence*

In patriarchal systems, violence against women, or the threat of it, represents the means by which men assert and retain their power and control over women (Bradshaw et al., 2017). In the mining sector, the physically demanding

and dangerous work associated with it also produces a type of male-male dynamic wherein male employees exhibit 'hyper-masculine' traits of bravery, fearlessness and risk-taking behaviours in order to provide for their families and/or for 'their' women (Bradshaw et al, 2017; Lahiri-Dutt & Macintyre, 2006). This type of hyper-masculinity, deeply entrenched in the patriarchal nature of the industry, is celebrated and promoted; it establishes both women's and men's position within the mining sector and the surrounding community (Lahiri-Dutt, 2013). Bradshaw et al. (2017) argue that the changes in social status "[give] men power over women because [the culture] is built on devaluing the contributions of others, in contexts where men themselves may have little other power" (Bradshaw et al., 2017, pp. 445).

As extractive industries often rely upon a gendered division of labour, gender-differentiated changes in communities reinforce gender inequalities that underpin increases in IPV. While men often increase their income from land compensations and jobs, for example, women may be negatively impacted with an increased work burden at home if their access to water, food and fuel sources is interrupted. Women's potential loss of land, natural resource-based livelihoods, and lack of direct employment opportunities may erode their economic autonomy and security (Lahiri-Dutt & Mahy, 2007). Extractive industries can therefore limit women's economic empowerment across regions, particularly those who rely on natural resources, making them more financially dependent on their partner, which can increase household stress and tension, and result in higher rates of domestic violence (Lahiri-Dutt & Mahy, 2007).

In Australia's rural mining areas, increased IPV has been observed across ethnicities, in both indigenous and non-indigenous communities (Carrington et al., 2011; Owen & Carrington, 2015; Sharma & Rees, 2007). Many indigenous and non-indigenous women face gender inequalities and discrimination in the form of few formal employment opportunities, which fuel their dependence on male partners employed in the mines and the socio-economic isolation associated with rural life (Carrington et al., 2010; Owen & Carrington, 2015; Lozeva & Marinova, 2010; Sharma & Rees, 2007). Men often work long hours, giving rise to strained relationships, higher rates of divorce and domestic violence (Sharma & Rees, 2007; Carrington et al., 2010). Compounding the issue is the shame associated with being a victim of domestic violence in rural Australia, which has contributed to a cycle of systematic under-reporting of instances of violence and under-provision of services (Owen & Carrington, 2015). As such, women's inability to report acts of violence illuminates the dependence women have on their partners and the

suppression of women's rights due a male-controlled industry and patriarchal culture (Owen & Carrington, 2015; Sharma & Rees, 2007).

An analysis of the construction of the Chad-Cameroon oil pipeline and the West Africa Gas Pipelines (WAGP) showed similar results. The WAGP disproportionately employed men over women and economically disenfranchised many already impoverished communities, with women facing the brunt of the repercussions (Gender Action, 2011). Interviews with women revealed that the collapse of local economies and deterioration of long-held livelihoods, namely farming, fishing and handicrafts, after the pipeline's construction had diminished their household decision-making power and increased their economic dependence on men. The familial tensions that arose from lost income reportedly increased domestic violence and led families to break apart (Gender Action, 2011).

Similar stories of social and economic disruption increasing gender inequalities and driving further cases of GBV surround some large-scale infrastructure projects. In Vietnam, the construction of the A Luoi Hydropower Plant and Srepok Dam forced the displacement of many surrounding communities. The destruction of the traditional economy and subsequent social re-organisation of the community led to increased tensions related to debt management and household economic decline, resulting in increased rates of domestic violence and alcoholism (Hill et al., 2017). In exchange for their resettlement, communities were provided with land to cultivate rice and other crops, but the quality of the provided land made it impossible, driving men into wage labour, from which women were excluded due to cultural norms (Hill et al., 2017). The loss of land and livelihoods led many men to lose their confidence in their ability to provide and caused women to grow financially dependent on their husbands. The increased cash-based wealth, coupled with new economic constraints, caused a rise in men's alcohol consumption and women reported their husbands had become increasingly violent in the home (Hill et al., 2017). Furthermore, it has also been noted that the employment of women in positions newly generated by large-scale infrastructure projects that have traditionally been performed by men can also increase risks for IPV (IDB, 2014).

### *4.1.3 The influx of male construction workers by extractive and large-scale infrastructure projects are linked to increased gender-based violence*

GBV can be exacerbated in large-scale infrastructure projects due to rapid urbanisation and population growth in the surrounding area, with often minimal

and unsafe infrastructure, and increased stress caused by socio-cultural disadvantages or barriers (O'Neil et al., 2015). The World Bank identifies "the risk of GBV linked to migration of workers and construction of ancillary roads [and] gender-insensitive work environments that discourage women's employment" as some of the challenges in large-scale electricity infrastructure development projects (Orlando et al., 2017, pp. 1-2).

For example, a recent report on the impact of hydro-electric projects in Manitoba, Canada, exposed testimonies of sexual abuses and rapes of indigenous women during the construction in the 1960s (CBC, 2018). In Mexico, the militarisation of wind energy projects to prevent access and the influx of male workers has led to an increase in the risk of sexual assaults and sex trafficking (García-Torres, 2018). Unfortunately, across numerous contexts, though GBV is linked to the arrival of such construction brigades, "field experience shows that most management plan interventions are limited to only distributing condoms among workers" (IUCN, 2018, p. 6).

### *4.1.4 Armed forces linked to extractives and large-scale infrastructure activities commit gender-based violence and abuses on local communities*

The presence of armed guards and security personnel can inject disruptive and violent effects on cultures, economies and communities across all levels of extractive activities – from artisanal, small-scale mining (ASM) to large-scale mining (LSM) (Lahiri-Dutt, 2011; Rustad et al., 2016) (see Definition Box 9). In the Mindanao region of the Philippines, namely the provinces of Caraga and Davao, where some of the country's highest rates of violence against women are found (PCW, 2017), the influx of mining has led to worsening poverty, increased violence against women and the displacement and marginalisation of surrounding communities (Yocogan-Diano et al., 2009). Mining areas, many of which are in indigenous territories, have seen heavy military presence, resulting in various human rights violations, such as torture, psychological disturbance, destruction and divestment of properties (livestock and crops), as well as violence against women, including rape (Yocogan-Diano et al., 2009). In these contexts, women and girls have been gang-raped, sexually assaulted or offered money in exchange for sexual favours by armed security guards employed by mining companies (Yocogan-Diano et al., 2009). In an LSM project in Papua New Guinea, Human Rights Watch (2010) documented incidents of gang rape by security personnel, noting they believed "these incidents represent a broader pattern of abuse" (HRW, 2010). Similarly, in Tanzania, where an LSM project is run by a Canadian corporation, after seven people were fatally shot and

12 others injured at one of its Tanzanian gold mines, the company sent a team of independent investigators to report on allegations that a dozen police and security guards were committing sexual abuse and assault. The investigation interviewed 10 women who gave credible accounts that they were "arrested at the mine site and sexually assaulted by company security guards or Tanzanian police over the past several years" (York, 2011). Furthermore, in most cases, "the women told the investigators that they were taken to holding cells and coerced into sex by police and security guards, who threatened them with imprisonment if they refused" (York, 2011). There were also cases of gang rapes by the mine's security personnel:

> *"One woman said she was gang raped by six guards after one of them kicked her in the face and shattered her teeth. Another said she and three other women were raped by 10 security guards, who forced her to swallow a used condom"* (York, 2011).

Across extractives and large-scale infrastructure development, industries have also been seen to attempt to quell resistance by using violence – gender-based and otherwise, including forceful displacement, rape and murder (Rustad et al., 2016; IUCN, 2019; Schrecker et al., 2018). For instance, in Myanmar, military forces committed human rights abuses, such as torture, killing and rape, against the local population during a massive forced relocation (Salween Watch, 2013). In Guatemala, security forces, some of whom were security guards directly subcontracted by the hydro-electric dam company Hidro Santa Cruz, "sexually harassed the women and threatened them with rape" after separating them from men during raids (GHRC, n.d.).

### 4.1.5 *Intersecting forms of discriminations in extractives and large-scale infrastructure put indigenous women at increased risk*

The patterns of discrimination throughout the mining sector are not only gender-based, such as favouring the employment of men over women, leaving women with few economic opportunities and, in turn, a stronger dependence on men, but also based on various and overlapping inequalities, including those related to class, ethnicity and age. When extractive industries intersect with these multi-layered forms of discrimination, indigenous women can become more vulnerable to violence and less able to speak up against it.

Extractive industries located nearby indigenous communities often take advantage of and discriminate against indigenous peoples, with women being

**Definition Box 9. Large-scale and artisanal small-scale mining**

**Large-scale mining (LSM)** constitutes mining that extracts a sufficient quantity of high-quality minerals with established mining legislation, infrastructure, experienced mining personnel and access to investment capital. Many large-scale mining operations use advanced technology and are carried out by large, transnational corporations headquartered mainly in the United States, South Africa, Australia and Canada (GI-TOC, 2016). Large-scale mining employs roughly 7 million people worldwide (World Bank, 2013).

**Artisanal small-scale mining (ASM)** constitutes a form of mining that is largely informal and employs mostly non-mechanised means of extraction (GI-TOC, 2016). Occurring predominantly in Africa, Asia, Oceania and Central and South America, the industry is found in roughly 80 countries worldwide, employing roughly 100 million people (World Bank, 2013). In comparison to large-scale industrial mining, the work is much more labour-intensive, as it lacks the technology available in large-scale operations. This results in much lower productivity, yet it still provides an important livelihood and income source for many local populations (World Bank, 2013).

Source: Global Initiative against Transnational Organized Crime (2016) & World Bank (2013).

doubly discriminated against because of both their ethnicity and gender. For example, in Guatemala, female employment within the Fenix nickel mine near El Estor – home to an indigenous Q'eqchi Maya community – was mostly restricted to low paying jobs as kitchen and cleaning staff, or as sex workers outside of the mine (Deonandan et al., 2017). Like many indigenous populations around the world, the history of the Q'eqchi Maya people is one of oppression, marginalisation and struggle for land rights (Lovell, 1988; McFarlane, 1989). Given that mine jobs are mostly restricted to men, and that Mayan women typically experience higher rates of poverty, illiteracy and unemployment, local women were ill-placed to benefit from the Fenix project (Deonandan et al., 2017). In the hands of armed guards tasked with addressing protests by indigenous peoples, these discriminatory attitudes translate further into GBV. In the case of the Fenix nickel project, a group of indigenous Guatemalan women filed suit against the Canadian mining company over human rights abuses that included the gang rape of 11 women by security personnel working for mining company subsidiaries, along with police and army personnel, during a violent land eviction (Nobel Women's Initiative, 2013).

Discriminatory practices can also result in disregard for the safety of indigenous women against GBV abuses. In the area of the Agnico-Eagle Meadowbank gold mine in Northern Canada, indigenous women are not only employed by the mine in low-paying positions as housekeepers and kitchen staff, but they are also made to work directly in men's sleeping quarters without precautions (Nightingale et al., 2017). This placed women at greater risk of sexual assault, rape and physical and verbal harassment:

> ***"We've had a number of women coming in and telling us about rapes. There were rapes. I mean they weren't just somebody who changed their mind, it was somebody who was actually raped up there."***
>
> Service provider, Pauktuutit Inuit Women of Canada
> (Nightingale et al., 2017, p. 376)

Here, reports highlight the important intersection of gender and racial discrimination as women were not only uninformed of their rights as workers, but also afraid to lose their jobs. Sexual harassment and assault were so problematic that nearly 50 per cent of survey respondents for the report and numerous focus groups emphasised the problem. It was also among the top three reasons why Inuit women left their jobs at the mine (in addition to temporary contracts and lack of day-care) (Nightingale et al., 2017).

Similar trends exist across large-scale infrastructure projects wherein indigenous women activists face persecution and death, as seen in examples from Honduras and Mexico (IUCN, 2019). In Honduras, the murder of a community defender against hydro-electric development has been described by the Council of Indigenous Peoples of Honduras (Copinh) as being a part of "political femicide" (Agren, 2016). (For more on this subject, see Chapter 6, on environmental human rights defenders.).

### 4.1.6 *Intersecting forms of discriminations place girls at increased risk*

Age can also be a factor for compounded discrimination and GBV risks. For example, in the DRC, research has uncovered that there have been instances of forced marriage and rape of young girls under 12 years of age (Lahiri-Dutt, 2011).

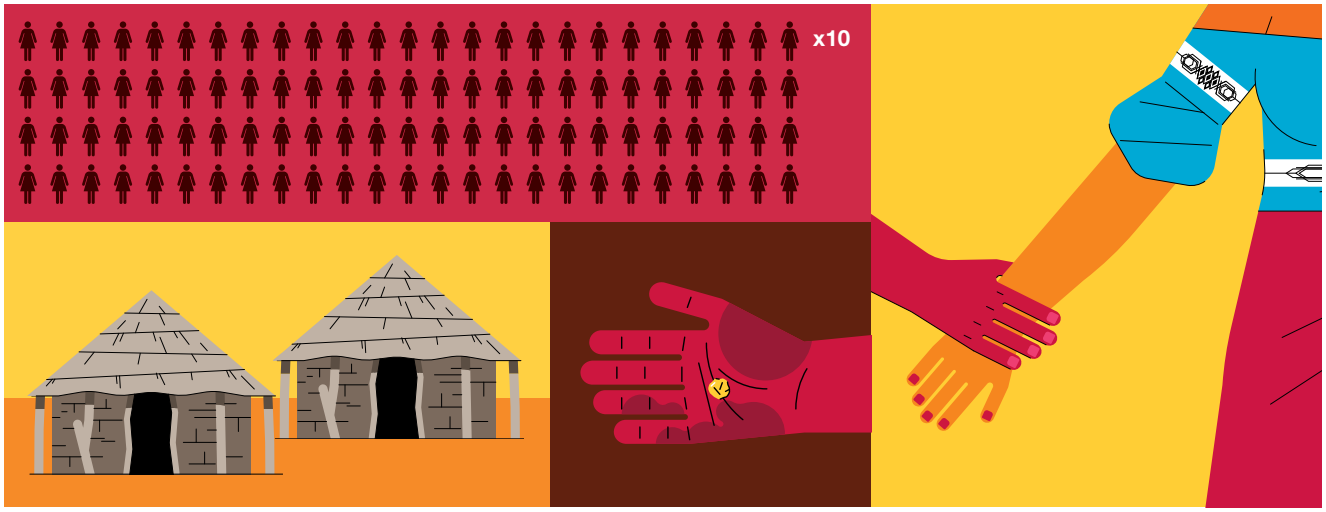
> *"In the ASM sector, sex with young virgins, often children as young as five, is encouraged...as a means to secure wealth. In one month alone in 2008, Pact [international aid group] received reports of the rape of three children; two of which were between the ages of two and four years old. In one case, the child was left in the woods after having been raped and the local chief discovered a group of men attempting to burn her alive suspecting her to be a witch"* (Lahiri-Dutt, 2011, p. 189).

In a similar vein, the gold rush in Senegal has increased demand for sex workers, some of whom are underaged and have been trafficked, as miners believe that paying for sex increases their chances of finding gold (Gillmore, 2013). In Ghana, girls as young as 10 years old are trafficked into mining camps (Gillmore, 2013) and in Mali, over 12 per cent of sex workers in mining towns are teenagers trafficked from Nigeria and Côte d'Ivoire (HRW, 2011).

GBV is not solely perpetrated by men against women, but also used to juggle power between older and younger men, based on upended intergenerational hierarchies related to bride wealth (Jolly et al., 2012). GBV in Papua New Guinea, as in many places, is particularly complex. The capitalist system that extractives brought to Papua New Guinea exacerbated intergenerational conflicts, arousing violence between younger and older men in the competition for brides and also in their violent control over women – including threats of gang rape as punishment for recalcitrance (Jolly et al., 2012). Women in certain mining regions, who were traditionally landowners, were further being stripped

of their titles, losing autonomy and control as men gained more access to land titles and wealth through extractive-industry labour (Jolly et al., 2012).

**In Kedougou, Senegal, over 1,000 women and girls have been trafficked into prostitution to serve gold mineworkers,** having been deceived with the promise of work in Europe




**Data from:** Guilbert (2017).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 12. Women and girls are deceived into sex trafficking for illegal mining operations in Senegal**

### *4.1.7 Forced prostitution and sex trafficking in the mining and large-infrastructure sectors*

Evidence shows that across the globe there is a link between prostitution and the extractive industry, partly caused by the high concentration of male workers in remote areas, as well as the complicity and lack of oversight of national governments and extractive companies. Extractive company owners have much to gain from the exploitation of their low-paid (mostly male) labour force, so ensuring that all their 'services' are provided, from food and lodging, to sexual relationships, is a way to maintain control and dominance over their workforce (Bradshaw et al., 2017). The increased cash flow to these communities also provides men with the economic opportunity to pay for and demand sexual services (Lahiri-Dutt, 2012). While not all sex workers have been forced into prostitution and transactional sex (Lahirit-Dutt, 2011), there are many reports of sex trafficking and forced prostitution across the globe.

An article from Reuters detailed the account of Nigerian women trafficked into prostitution to serve mineworkers in the burgeoning gold rush in Kedougou, Senegal. Of the 1,000 women and girls working as sex workers into the mining town of Kedougou, many were deceived into sex work by being promised work in Europe (Guilbert, 2017) (see Figure 12). Once arriving on site, women's documents were confiscated and then "forced to work off debts to their traffickers of up to 3 million CFA[1] francs (US$ 4,900) – in a region where miners pay no more than 2,000 CFA francs (US$ 3) a time for sex," (Guilbert, 2017). Women have been beaten and threatened and used merely as a means to serve the growing male workforce where the industry is continuing to grow (Guilbert, 2017).

Sex-trafficking and forced prostitution is not only present in mining exploitations. In Brazil, women have been disproportionately affected by the construction of dams, resulting in various cases of forced prostitution and sex trafficking. The Movement of Dam-Affected peoples in Brazil (MAB, by its Portuguese acronym) reported that dam construction companies are complicit in sex trafficking of women, including minors (WRM, 2018). In one construction site in Belo Monte, they found women, including underage women, living in enslaved conditions in brothels, where they are treated as pure commodities for the male workforce (WRM, 2018).

Similar instances of sexual exploitation and abuse, as well as increased rates of domestic violence and sexual violence against women, have been reported in Papua New Guinea's oil and gas industry, suggesting that the increased GBV in the country is correlated with the arrival of an extractive industry to local communities. One of the case studies received reported:

1 For an explanation about CFA, please see: https://www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/en/country-files/africa/franc-zone/

***"I was contacted by [X company][2] in Papua New Guinea to develop GBV support and training for the medical staff employed to respond to the many cases of domestic violence and sexual violence that they were faced with on their sites. GBV is very high in Papua New Guinea but, apparently in the oil drilling sites, there was rampant use of sex workers (sexual exploitation and abuse) as well as a lot of domestic violence and sexual violence reports from the women in the nearby areas. The organisation did not document any of this nor would they acknowledge that extractive industries tend to increase violence where they are. I also worked in Tari, in the Northern Highlands with Médecins sans Frontières (MSF) in 2011 helping to set up the Family Violence Unit in the hospital there. Many of the women that we treated were married to employees from the company. The links between the extractive industries and GBV are not well researched but MSF's [project] documents could help to understand how it impacts the local women."***

(Case Study EN30)



2 Redacted to protect the identity of victims, survivors and specific aspects of the submitted case study.

Likewise, a respondent to the GBV-ENV survey working in Africa emphasised the links, including the impact on the nearby conservation project:

> ***"Women and young girls were encouraged or forced to have sex with mine workers in order to bring some more money to their households. Women were prevented to gain money as economic empowerment was seen as a threat to man['s] power within the communities; however, boys and girls were forced to be engaged in fetching and selling various goods including woods and food instead of going to school. [The impact of this situation in the conservation programme was] less participation of women; they didn't feel secure enough to be fully engaged in [the] programme that [was] designed for them."***
>
> (GBV-ENV survey respondent EN27)

**Definition Box 10. Agribusiness**

A business that earns most or all of its revenues from agriculture. An agribusiness tends to be a large-scale business operation and may dabble in farming, processing and manufacturing and/or the packaging and distribution of products.

Source: Business Dictionary (n.d.).

## 4.2 Agribusiness and industrial production

### *4.2.1 Setting the context: Inequality at scale*

The agribusiness sector (see Definition Box 10) provides a significant source of employment and income worldwide (FAO, 2017). Globally, women fill roles throughout value chains, with case study analyses suggesting that when companies invest in women workers, they increase innovation and lower recruitment and turnover costs (IFC, 2016). However, while their participation varies according to region, data demonstrates that rural women overall experience a greater labour burden than men, due to their disproportionate unpaid responsibilities of maintaining the household, such as preparing food and collecting fuel and water (FAO, 2011).

### *4.2.2 Broken promises of wealth related to increased intimate partner violence*

Though agribusiness has been promoted for its potential positive impact on poverty reduction and women's empowerment, particularly in developing

countries (FAO, 2017), unfulfilled commitments by companies have led to hunger, malnutrition and worsening poverty, as seen in monoculture palm oil plantations around the world (WRM, 2018; Sijapati-Basnett et al., 2016). Promises to communities to improve local community infrastructure, such as improved roads, wells and schools, are often not upheld (WRM, 2018; Li, 2015). In Africa, these lost opportunities have compounded impacts on communities when they are displaced, forced off land and subsequently lose their source of food and income (Dancer & Tsikata, 2015). In Indonesia, a number of case studies examining the gendered impacts of palm plantations have demonstrated that the adverse outcomes for women and whole communities can result in increased domestic violence. Women who have experienced a loss in income and land once used for vegetable and rice farming also experience the deterioration of their status as landholders, which increases their vulnerability to acts of violence in the plantation workforce and increased domestic violence associated with increased alcohol consumption from men's palm oil plantation incomes (Li, 2015).

The succeeding sections show that acts of marginalisation and discrimination pave the way for violence to occur throughout the agriculture sector, from smallholder farms to large-scale industrial farms, and the communities who depend on them.

### *4.2.3 Multilayered discrimination leading to workplace gender-based violence in large-scale agribusiness*

Research shows that GBV and harassment is the reality in the world of work across different contexts and sectors, and agribusiness is no exception (see Chapter 7). Comparable data on incidences of GBV in agribusinesses at a global scale is limited (Nordhen, 2018), and there is less information on sexual violence and harassment experienced by men in the sector (Henry & Adams, 2018). However, over the last five years, a number of reports and studies have documented that agribusiness, such as industrial palm oil, rubber, coffee, tea, flowers, tropical fruit and sugar cane plantations, have had violent impacts on women and communities worldwide (WRM, 2019). The prevalence of sexual harassment and discrimination within the agribusiness sector across diverse countries demonstrates that certain cultural norms within the industry, coupled with often high rates of poverty among the agricultural workforce and a lack of formal contracts, prevents victims of abuse from reporting incidences of violence (FAO, 2011; Henry & Adams, 2018).

As the majority of agriculture work is done in fields, often out of the purview of others, it generates conditions that render women vulnerable to sexual harassment and violence (Henry & Adams, 2018). Instances of harassment are also known to occur in packing facilities, plantations and greenhouses of agribusinesses at varying scales, from international businesses to subsistence or small local farms (Henry & Adams, 2018). Similar to the extractive sector, managerial and supervisory roles are typically held by men, who have the ability to exert power and control over lower-ranking employees, who are disproportionately women (Henry & Adams, 2018).

In 2018, the World Rainforest Movement (WRM) posted seven articles from different countries and regions (Cameroon, Colombia, Guatemala, India, Indonesia and Liberia), calling attention to the importance of evaluating the differentiated impacts that industrial plantations, specifically palm oil, have on the lives – and bodies – of women today. It highlights, for example, what differentiated impacts can mean:

> *"Rape, physical and psychological abuse, harassment, persecution, work in exchange for sex, beatings, violated pregnancies, the presence of armed guards in and around their homes and communities, lower wages and longer work days, unpaid work, continuous use of toxic products without protection, deplorable working conditions, impacts on their reproductive and sexual health, the inability to make decisions on issues related to land, loss of access to the land, deprivation of their livelihoods and sustenance – which translates into harder, more intense and more prolonged domestic work – are just some of the termed 'differentiated impacts'(…)" (WRM, 2018, p. 4).*

Sexual harassment from male superiors, security guards and co-workers is frequent. In the cut-flower export industry in Kenya, where women workers are subjected to sexual harassment by male supervisors, they also experience verbal and physical abuse, corruption and wages being docked as a disciplinary measure (IDH, 2018). Similarly, a young Liberian woman described the reality on the oil palm plantation where she worked: "I work two times in the week and during those two days, the headman will always touch all the women's breasts and butts all of the time, including me" (WRM, 2019). In India, an elderly woman who had gone to collect rubber latex near her residence was found murdered in a rubber plantation by a rubber-tapping worker for resisting attempted rape (Mathrubhumi, 2019).

Expressions of GBV in agribusiness occur in high-income countries, just as they do in low and middle-income countries (Henry & Adams, 2018). For example, there are reports stating that up to 80 per cent of agricultural workers in the U.S., most of whom are migrants, suffer harassment and assault by their employers and others in positions of power (FIAN International, 2014). In the case of women, there are reports of sexual harassment and cases of women giving sexual favours to secure contracts. In these cases, the lack of social networks, limited access to health facilities, fear of legal persecution and linguistic and cultural barriers can disincentivise women from reporting these abuses (FIAN International, 2014).

### *4.2.4 Work-for-sex practices in large-scale agribusiness*

In addition to sexual harassment at work, women are often coerced into providing sexual favours in order to access or maintain a job, or being paid for the work done. For example, in Liberia, a woman working in the palm oil plantation explained:

> ***"The men who hire and supervise contract workers, the so-called contractor heads, regularly demand sex before giving jobs to women, or demand sex before paying them their wages they had earned from work already carried out, or before extending their short-term contracts. (…) [T]hose who refuse are subsequently unable to obtain work on the plantation or are threatened with dismissal. [Another woman stated] (…) Even if you were already working and completed a month's job but refused to sleep with the headman or supervisor, you will not receive your pay, your name will be missing from the list or you will get paid far less than what was initially promised or due to you."***
>
> (WRM, 2019, pp. 4–5)

Similar incidents of sexual violence have been reported from women working on industrial palm oil plantations in Central America. "Often, plantation foremen blackmail women, offering them work in exchange for sex; if they do not agree to sleep with them, the foremen do not employ them" (WRM, 2018, p. 14).

## 4.3 Ways forward

The following are some of the actions that can help address GBV in the extractive industries, large-scale infrastructure and large-scale plantation sectors: investment in improved legal frameworks, and countries' capacities to implement them; establishment of institutional and corporate standards and norms; data collection and dissemination, across levels; and new partnerships across private, public and local spheres.

Extractive industries have been able to assert their control and dominance through the dismantling of long-held power structures within resource-rich communities and the exertion of patriarchal values, violence and subordination of women. Other factors, such as age, class and ethnicity, overlap and intersect with GBV, contributing to individuals' and groups' vulnerability to acts of violence, harassment and discrimination in the face of extractive industries. Communities facing long histories of exploitation and political marginalisation are often the most severely affected, with little decision-making power and agency to resist – much less equitably adapt to or benefit from – the changes that resource extraction or agribusiness brings to their communities. With increasing awareness and light shed on this subject, countless opportunities exist – and indeed, are required – for improving the situation. Below are key ideas for immediate steps forward.

The following are a few examples of entry points and sample interventions on GBV and extractive industries, large-scale projects and large-scale plantations, grounded in the review as part of this research. While not exhaustive, these provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward in addressing GBV in these sectors (see further recommendations to address gaps in Chapter 8).

### *4.3.1 Establish and build enabling conditions to enforce rights-based, gender-responsive international policies and corporate standards that address gender-based violence*

The adoption and implementation of national laws and policies; establishment and enforcement of corporate policies, guidelines and standards; and strengthen monitoring and evaluation systems – these are just a few examples of measures which can contribute to the prevention and the development of a suitable response to GBV related to extractive industries and large-scale infrastructures and plantations. Moreover, combatting the exacerbation of

power asymmetries that extractive industries and agribusiness create means addressing powerful corporate interests, which are often economically and legally entangled with national governments. Due to their often-remote locations and the high profits generated, and in some cases corruption that benefits the host government, resource extraction and agribusiness often have the ability to operate with few consequences, upending communities with historically little political power, fuelling GBV as well as numerous other social conflicts. Additionally, the power structures created by the extractive model – fiscal policies incentivising exploration and extraction, corruption, lack of legal recourse for unlawful displacement and failure by national and international bodies to recognise human rights violations – greatly interact with, promote and facilitate extraction (Schrecker et al., 2018). When the rights of women and indigenous populations are not fully protected in policies and principles that govern extractive industries and agribusiness, there is a great risk of exploitation and human rights abuses that can threaten livelihoods, erode cultures and upend community well-being (OECD, 2017).

A number of international policies and corporate guidance principles have been established to protect the rights and interests of women and indigenous populations in the face of extractive industries and agribusiness, many of which countries have adopted, then instituting their own national-level policies (UNDP, 2018). Some of these include, even sparsely, explicit mention to GBV. The *United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights* provides recommendations on how corporations should deal with any risk to the violation of human rights violations, particularly in conflict regions and weak or authoritarian states, bearing in mind the differentiated risks faced by women and men. The Principles focus on three pillars: the state duty to respect, protect and fulfil human rights; the corporate responsibility to respect human rights; and access to effective remedies in the case of human rights violations. States are encouraged to provide “adequate assistance to business enterprises to assess and address the heightened risk of abuses, paying special attention to both gender-based and sexual violence” (OHCHR, 2011, p. 10). Likewise, at the corporate level, some organisations are testing promising practice in the implementation of principles and good practices to prevent and address GBV. As part of its updated Environmental and Social Framework, the World Bank has developed a Good Practice Note to support task teams and borrowers on how to address GBV in Investment Project Financing involving Major Civil Works (World Bank, 2018) (see suggested resources and tools 4).

Gaps remain in accountability and monitoring and enforcement of these policies and principles. In instances where policies do exist and cases are

reported, there is often little follow-through, and acts of harassment or violence go unpunished (Henry & Adams, 2018). Furthermore, due to hierarchies within the workplace, lower-ranking female employees have to report abuse to their commonly male supervisors, withholding certain sensitive information, and feeling that the reports are not passed onto higher level management (Henry & Adams, 2018). Understanding these gaps and ensuring robust accountability, monitoring and enforcement mechanisms is key to developing effective policies and principles, thus the need of attention from researchers, civil society, government reformers, and public and private investments.

### *4.3.2 Strengthen national capacity, coordination and accountability to ensure compliance with gender-based violence and human rights standards and policies*

Preventing GBV and human rights abuses in the extractives, large-scale infrastructure and agribusiness sectors requires concerted efforts amongst multiple actors, especially amongst government actors that are responsible for the implementation of gender-responsive and rights-based policies such as law enforcement. However, in some cases, governments, law enforcement and the judicial system may overlook these incidents, or enable or aid in these abuses (as mentioned above and in Chapter Two on illegal extractive activities). Even in countries where the government has established mechanisms to legislate resource extraction, these mechanisms and policies are often soft, addressing only specific aspects of human rights, most notably indigenous peoples' and local communities' participation and consent rights, but with little attention paid to gender, gender inequalities and GBV. A lack of coordination between national women's/gender ministries or machineries (who may be excluded) and other government sectors responsible for extractive industries, large-scale infrastructure and agribusiness, exacerbates this gap.

This gap is noted in academic research that resulted in core recommendation for Canadian policy, for example. A study on the inclusion of gender and GBV considerations in Canada's laws, policies and standards for large-scale extractive companies found that mechanisms for the extractive industries rarely include gender or GBV considerations, while Canada's Feminist International Assistance Policy – while arguably among the most progressive and inclusive – does not specifically mention the connections with the large-scale extractive sector (Seck & Simons, 2018). As a result, this interlinked gap affects awareness, accountability and investments. Recommendations from Seck and Simons (2018) for Canada and its industries are relevant and

echoed elsewhere, such as by International Alert for Uganda (International Alert, 2014), which highlights the need for governments to integrate gender and GBV considerations in their policies and regulations for extractive sector.

Research indicates that governments should invest in strengthening understanding, capacity and other conditions to bear accountability for abuses and to establish rights-based, gender-responsive mechanisms to prevent and respond to GBV related to extractives industries' work. Some state-level efforts offer sparks of progress. For example, Mexico's state-owned oil and gas company, PEMEX (Petroleras Mexicanas), has implemented, with support from United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Mexico, an institutional social inclusion strategy to raise awareness on gender equality and non-discrimination and to empower women and LGBTI employees in their workplaces (HRC, 2017; PEMEX, 2015; UNDP, n.d.). While there are no GBV-specific components, this strategy provides opportunities for further integrating GBV considerations to prevent and respond to abuses within and outside of the company. Implementation of the strategy can – and must – be accompanied by accountability and remedy mechanisms to prevent abuses and corruption that may reverse national progress on gendermainstreaming.

### *4.3.3 Improve attention to and strategies for addressing gender-based violence in corporate policies, plans, tools and communications*

Evidence shows a link between extractive industries, large-scale infrastructure projects and large-scale plantations and GBV. Thus, companies are at a strategic place to prevent and respond to GBV happening in and around their compounds with the adoption of gender-responsive strategies, policies, plans, tools and communications. A number of policies, plans and tools exist to support rights-based, gender-responsive and socially just action across the extractives industries, including in industry and corporate social responsibility manuals. While few of them pay explicit or substantive attention to the widespread issue of GBV, some do (see Box 14), and the impact of these tools could be studied for widespread awareness and further uptake. For example, Rio Tinto, an Anglo-Australian mining company with a past of human rights abuses and violations (Neate, 2013; Sjoberg & Via, 2010), has tried to position itself as a leader in the prevention and response to GBV. The company received the certification by the White Ribbon Workplace Campaign to "raise awareness of, and to eradicate, domestic violence, particularly that which affects our employees and communities" (Rio Tinto, 2018, p. 55). The programme has been extended to the U.S. and Canada, and, according to Rio Tinto, it extensively

tracks various measures relating to safety, well-being, and gender equality at all of their extraction sites (Rio Tinto, 2018). Examining the impact of these tools is key to ensuring effective prevention and response to human rights abuses and GBV, and may also help refine and strengthen further iterations.

At USAID, the Engendering Utilities programme was launched in 2015 to strengthen energy sector operations "by identifying and implementing gender equality best practices while helping utilities meet their core business goals" (Engendering Utilities, n.d.). Taking a phased approach, the programme started by establishing a knowledge base by researching 14 electricity utilities across the globe to identify and influence "effective implementation of evidence-based gender equality best practices". The programme then worked with an initial cohort of utilities in 2016 to improve gender equality and enhance business performance. Having then developed a customised best practices framework on the employee lifecycle, which includes considerations for addressing and mitigating GBV and gender-based economic abuses in workplaces, utilities have been supported through a tailored Gender Equity Executive Leadership Program produced and implemented in partnership with Georgetown University's McDonough School of Business. To date, USAID continues to expand the programme, working with 17 partner utilities from 17 countries (Engendering Utilities, n.d.; USAID, 2019). The framework encourages companies to conduct analyses on the costs of sexual harassment and GBV, and adopt sexual harassment and workplace GBV policies to tackle the common challenge of suppression of acknowledgement and/or reporting on GBV issues (USAID, 2019). As the programme offers promising, evidence-based practices, investors and donors can consider adapting this model to increase awareness and action on GBV in large-scale infrastructure projects.

Follow-on products to existing gender-focused manuals and guidance could also devote specific attention to GBV. Tropical Forest Alliance (TFA) 2020 is a global partnership of governments, private sector companies and civil society organisations that aims to end deforestation from the production of commodities by 2020, including palm oil, beef, soy, and pulp and paper (TFA 2020, n.d.). TFA 2020 produced a resource guide, as part of its collaboration with USAID and IUCN under their Advancing Gender in the Environment (AGENT) programme, to contribute toward a more prosperous and equitable TFA 2020 by identifying key resources, risks and opportunities, and best practices relevant to integrating gender equity and inclusion in sustainable commodity production and sourcing (Siles & Wen, 2018). To continue implementing its gender strategy, the partnership, as well as individual

organisations within it, could develop specific tools to help better understand and address GBV throughout value and supply chains, which would further demonstrate recognition of GBV as a powerful and pervasive gender gap that undermines their very goals.

## Box 14. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Identifying and applying promising practice from across industries through training and resource guides

There are various examples of companies who trialling and implementing practices to improve outcomes for women and communities affected by extractives. For example, the tea industry in Kenya was one of the first in the country's agricultural sector to address sexual harassment and GBV in the workplace (IDH, 2017a). Over the last 10 years, companies have taken concrete actions to address GBV, which has increased awareness across the industry and aims to reduce the incidence of GBV by 2021 (IDH, 2017a). The Ethical Tea Partnership (ETP) in Kenya works with IDH, The Sustainable Trade Initiative to increase the safety and representation of women in the tea industry through training opportunities for women and men and facilitating gender committees in factories (ETP, n.d.). One factory worker recounted how the ETP training helped him understand gender issues in the tea industry:

> *"I feel that it is time to create awareness and advocate for women to take up senior jobs. I believe that our gender committee can achieve this goal. The training has also helped a lot as a family man. I have learned how to relate better with my family"* (ETP, n.d.).

IDH has also supported the establishment of gender committees in the Kenyan flower sector that have contributed to an increase in job security, for example permanent contracts have risen from 35 to 80 per cent between 2003 to 2014, and to more women in supervisory and management positions. IDH explains that women's empowerment has also contributed to a reduction of GBV (IDH, 2017b).

### Empowering women entrepreneurs and learning from their best practice

Some companies are implementing projects to empower women entrepreneurs in the sector for better community, business and environmental results. For example, Mondélez International's Cocoa Life programme in Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana has effectively trained women farmers and entrepreneurs in good agricultural practices and on village savings and loans associations. The programme has supported women's participation and leadership in decision-making and their membership in cooperative societies, and is addressing land ownership for women through community sensitisation. It is further engaging with governments to drive change around realising women's rights. In order to strengthen the mainstreaming of women's leadership, Mondélez International commissioned CARE to review the programme's effectiveness and to support the company's efforts for a more gender-responsive approach (CARE, 2015). CARE has found that progress has been made on the awareness and perceptions of GBV, for example, the Vice President of a cooperative union said:

> *"If I see a man beating his wife, I will confront that man and ask him to find another way to solve the problem. Failing that, I do not hesitate to report him to the Human Rights Commission [CHRAJ] or Social Welfare Department [in the country]"* (CARE, 2015, p. 18).

CARE has also identified some areas of improvement, including the development of a strategy and the allocation of resources for ending GBV, including advocacy and sensitisation campaigns. According to Mondélez International, Cocoa Life had a plan in Côte d'Ivoire to address GBV through the project Transforming Education in Cocoa Communities (CARE, 2015), yet integration is still pending.

Source: Authors.

## Suggested resources and tools 4. Gender-based violence and industry

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Good Practice Note. Addressing Gender Based Violence in Investment Project Financing involving Major Civil Works (World Bank, 2018) | Aims to assist in establishing an approach to identifying risks of GBV, in particular sexual exploitation and abuse and sexual harassment within major civil works contracts (e.g. construction, infrastructure projects, etc.) |
| Common Training Manual – Addressing Gender Based Violence in the Kenyan tea industry (IDH, 2017a) | Its objective is to support trainers in their capacity building efforts to equip the key target groups in Kenyan tea companies on the issue of GBV with information, knowledge and skills to effectively prevent, control and manage GBV related issues in their organisations and society as a whole. |
| How to address sexual harassment and other forms of gender-based violence providing a roadmap for prevention & response for plantation management (IDH, 2018) | Provides information to companies on how to recognise issues around GBV and sexual harassment, and to develop sustainable interventions to prevent and respond accordingly. The roadmap primarily focuses on the tea plantation setting; however, elements of the roadmap are also relevant to the smallholder setting. |
| Building a Safer World: Toolkit for Integrating GBV Prevention and Response into USAID Energy and Infrastructure Projects (O'Neil et al., 2015) | Designed as a guide for USAID technical and programme officers working in energy and infrastructure sectors to integrate gender-based violence (GBV) prevention and response into various points of the USAID Program Cycle. |
| Extracting Good Practices: A Guide for Governments and Partners to Integrate Environment and Human Rights into the Governance of the Mining Sector (UNDP, 2018) | Seeks to support governments and other stakeholders to better manage the environmental and social aspects of mining, in a way that rebalances relations in favour of a more just and sustainable outcomes for local communities and vulnerable groups, including women and children, now and in the future. It includes specific attention to advancing gender equality and addressing GBV. A joint publication by UNDP and the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency |
| Gender Dimensions of Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining: A Rapid Assessment Toolkit (World Bank, 2012) | An easy-to-use toolkit for understanding men's and women's differentiated access to the resources and opportunities associated with ASM and how they are affected by ASM. It includes a recommendation for the provision of support to victims of sexual violence. |
| Good Practice Guide: Indigenous Peoples and Mining. The International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM, 2015) | Discusses the importance of responsible mining, featuring various success stories of responsible mining around the world. While it does not devote detailed attention to GBV, the guide offers relevant information from a rights-based and gender lens. It is complete with necessary measures and actions to ensure sustainable and responsible mining within the context of indigenous peoples. |

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Verité (Verité, n.d.) | Verité is an independent NGO that aims to illuminate labour rights violations in supply chains and remedy them to the benefit of workers and companies alike. Verité has, for example, a platform on trafficking risks across sub-Saharan African supply chains. The platform analyses the supply chains of many commodities such as wood, minerals, cotton, palm oil and other foods. It enables a search by commodity or by country. |
| Women, communities and mining: The gender impacts of mining and the role of gender impact assessment (Hill and Newell, 2009) | Informs mining company staff of the potential gender impacts of mining projects, including various forms of GBV, and introduces some tools and approaches that they can use to conduct a gender impact assessment of these projects. These tools should be of particular interest to community relations advisors as they are designed to help incorporate gender into community assessment and planning tools including social baseline studies, social impact assessments and risk analysis, community mapping exercises, and monitoring and evaluation plans. |
| OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Meaningful Stakeholder Engagement in the Extractive Sector (OECD, 2017) | Provides practical guidance to mining, oil and gas enterprises in addressing the challenges related to stakeholder engagement. Annex C, "Engaging with Women," includes specific considerations on GBV. |

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# 5.

# The impacts of climate change and weather-related disasters on gender-based violence

***"I used to stay with my parents, but my parents are very poor so they didn't manage to send me to school. [… T]hey used to have a small piece of land. But the floods took all our harvest. After that, we were fetching some firewood in the forest and selling it. Depending on what we managed to sell, we were able to buy some maize, which we would use to make porridge.***

***My husband went to my home to ask for my hand in marriage. My parents were the ones who accepted. I wasn't thinking about getting married at that age. I met my husband when he came to ask for my hand in marriage. I didn't know him before. When I saw him asking for my hand, I was not all that happy because I was seeing him for the first time.***

***I tried to negotiate, to tell my parents that I wasn't ready, that I didn't want to get married, but they told me that I had to because that would mean one mouth less at the table. I had to get married because they didn't have enough to feed the whole family, I was sent to be married because of shortage of food in the house. Otherwise they would have waited. That's what I believe."***

Ntoya Sande, 13 years old at the time of her marriage;

Kachaso village, Nsanje district, Malawi;

(Brides Of The Sun, n.d.)

## The heart of the matter

- The social, financial and infrastructure stresses that come with natural resource scarcity – and that particularly arise or are reinforced during and in the aftermath of weather-related disasters and climate change – can heighten gender inequalities and gender-based violence.
- Incidents of sexual and other gender-based violence threaten women's lives and impede their ability to carry out vital livelihood activities, such as accessing their fields or collecting water and firewood – risks that are amplified in the aftermath of disasters and situations of climatic stress
- In an attempt to cope with compounding climate or disaster impacts, families may increase harmful gender-based violence practices, such as child marriage.
- Climate-induced and other migration or displacement due to resource stress and scarcity can be highly dangerous, increasing exposure of women, children and other marginalised people to gender-based violence, including human trafficking and disrupting lives and livelihoods.
- Conflicts triggered or exacerbated by resource scarcity, including those due to the impacts of disaster and climate change, strengthen conditions for gender-based violence to thrive.
- Emerging research may link increasing temperatures to increased gender-based violence, but much more information is needed to understand how climate change risks contribute to gender-based violence overall, and how this violence in particular interferes with resilience and recovery efforts.

Climate change is fundamentally challenging the ways in which societies access, benefit from and interact with natural resources and the environment. Successively warmer surface and ocean temperatures have altered hydrological systems and geographical ranges, migration patterns, abundance and seasonal activities of certain species (IPCC, 2014a). These climatic changes have resulted in sea-level rise, degraded environmental resources and an observed increase in weather-related disasters,[1] such as heat waves, droughts, floods, cyclones and wildfires, with triple the number of such hazards over the period 2002 – 2009 compared to 1980 – 1989 (UN Women Fiji, 2014). Exposure to these effects can be devastating to natural and human systems alike. According to the

1 Weather-related disasters are the "combination of an exposed, vulnerable and ill-prepared population or community with a [weather or climate] hazard event that results in a disaster" (ISDR, 2008, p. 5). Weather and climate hazards, including hydrological (floods, landslides and wave action), meteorological (storms, extreme temperature and fog) and climatological (drought, glacial lake outburst and wildfire), are not disasters in and of themselves, but turn disastrous "when human lives are lost and livelihoods damaged or destroyed" (UNDDR & CRED, 2015, p. 06).

Special Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) on global warming of 1.5ºC, "climate change alone could force more than 3 million to 16 million people into extreme poverty, mostly through impacts on agriculture and food prices" (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018, p. 244). This same report also cautions that if adaptation initiatives to address this warming do not adequately address poverty and sustainable development, they run the risk of increasing gender and social inequalities (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018).

Older adults, youth, disabled people, ethnic minorities, sexual and gender minorities,[2] and women, particularly from poor and indigenous communities, are at greater risk of experiencing the adverse effects of climatic changes. This risk and vulnerability to climate change impacts is due to interlinking social, economic, cultural, institutional and legal discriminations that contribute to these groups' unequal access to vital resources that help build adaptive capacity to climate change (Braaf, 2016; Dankelman, 2016; Dwyer & Woolf, 2018). Women and girls in particular are harmed by climate change and weather-related disasters, facing heighted risks of experiencing GBV (CEDAW, 2018), especially women living in poverty and those who experience social marginalisation based on their race, ethnicity, sexuality and other factors (Richards & Bradshaw, 2017). According, again, to the IPCC: "[d]ifferences in vulnerability and exposure arise from non-climatic factors and from multidimensional inequalities often produced by uneven development processes (…) [that] shape differential risks from climate change…. Such social processes include, for example, discrimination on the basis of gender, class, ethnicity, age, and (dis)ability" (IPCC, 2014b, p. 6).

Despite some progress identifying GBV and environment intersections, there is still a scarcity of information and concrete evidence to understand how environmental degradation and climate change risks in particular contribute to GBV, much less how this violence interferes with resilience and recovery efforts (Braaf, 2016). Evidence from around the world reaffirms the importance of gender equality and women's empowerment to conservation, resilience building and sustainable development (Aguilar et al., 2015; Wedeman & Petruney, 2018). However, as GBV undermines efforts toward gender equality and women's empowerment, failing to address GBV issues in environmental and sustainable development programming in turn undermines successful interventions and harms the overall well-being of communities and ecosystems. It is essential to better understand these dynamics, including properly preventing and

2 The term sexual and gender minorities is a broader concept referring to the LGBTI community. This term enables the inclusion of other identifies, such as the idea of third gender that exist in other non-western countries

responding to GBV in emergency and longer-term climate change adaptation and mitigation efforts.

This chapter explores how the impacts of climate change and weather-related disasters can indirectly exacerbate different types of GBV, including violence associated with the stresses of resource scarcity and climate-driven migration. Given the complexity and pervasiveness of GBV and the multiple casualties surrounding it, the research presented in this chapter suggests that to meet global development goals and effectively tackle environmental concerns, gender-responsive action that addresses GBV in climate change mitigation, adaptation and resilience building strategies will be necessary.

## 5.1 Coping with and recovering from climate change and weather-related disasters

### *5.1.1 Setting the context: In the path of destruction*

Climate change impacts and weather-related disasters affect all areas of life, degrading natural resources, disrupting food production and water availability, damaging infrastructure and threatening progress on the full and effective realisation of human rights and poverty eradication (IPCC, 2014a; OHCHR, n.d.).

In many areas of the world, women's dependence on natural resources and agriculture for their livelihoods and their families' nutrition, coupled with their lack of control and ownership over land and resources and discriminatory norms, make them less able to respond to and recover from climate change and weather-related disasters. This also leaves them vulnerable to GBV in households and communities, often resulting from negative coping mechanisms in the face of livelihood and resource stress (Alston & Whittenbury, 2013; Dankelman, 2016). When countries and communities are unable or unprepared to cope with the impacts of climate change and weather-related disasters, compound stresses, such as a breakdown in economic systems, infrastructure and social services, including police and health centres, can increase gender inequality and foster proliferation of GBV.


▲

**Figure 13. The correlation between environmental disasters and gender based violence in Vanuatu**

### *5.1.2 Impacts on domestic and intimate partner violence*

Post-traumatic stress disorder; loss of property and livelihoods; erosion of community and cultural ties; and scarcity of food and basic provisions in the aftermath of weather-related disasters – all these can lead to feelings of powerlessness and societal and resource stresses. Such pressure on heads of households to provide for families can result in community conflict over resources and contribute to a marked increase in violent behaviours among men, including domestic violence and other forms of GBV (Dankelman, 2016). For example, after two tropical cyclones hit the Tafe province in Vanuatu in 2011, there was a 300 per cent increase of new domestic violence cases (UN Women Fiji, 2014) (see Figure 13).

Climate change and disaster impacts can augment unequal household gender dynamics and contribute to resource grabbing and violence as a means to maintain control. Two recent and independent fieldwork projects in South Sudan and Uganda focused on the impacts of climate change and environmental degradation on the lives of women and men (Case Study EN22). Results show evidence of an increase in GBV associated with climate change. In Uganda, due to the failure of income crops caused by prolonged

dry seasons, men were prompted to try to sell the crops grown by women for household consumption. Tensions led to men beating their wives to exercise control over the land, while there were also cases in which women beat men (Case Study EN22). Similarly, research from Whittenbury (2013) in the Murray-Darling Basin in Australia found some evidence of increased domestic violence during severe drought years. According to service providers, financial pressures associated with the drought were partly the cause of an increase in alcohol and drug consumption by men as a coping mechanism, which resulted in increased violence against women. The research noted that the violence – mainly emotional abuse, financial control, physical abuse and isolation of women – was first reported by service providers instead of being directly mentioned by the women (Whittenbury, 2013).

Another case study, in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), aimed to identify whether climate change might have negative impacts on incidence of IPV through the empirical measurement of variations of precipitation and temperatures. Preliminary findings show a correlation between climate change and GBV, as districts with higher temperatures experienced an increase in conflict that, in turn, led to an increase of GBV (Case Study EN16). This is a global trend that extends beyond countries, developed or developing, as gender inequalities persist globally (Alston & Whittenbury, 2013).

### 5.1.3 *Child marriage in response to disasters and resource scarcity*

Factors driving families to marry off their daughters at a young age are multiple and vary across countries; yet they are all rooted in discriminatory gender norms and customs (Freccero & Whiting, 2018). While child marriage can also affect boys, girls are disproportionately affected by this harmful traditional practice and are often married off to significantly older men. Globally, over 650 million women alive today were married before the age of 18, and 12 million more girls are married before the age of 18 each year (Girls Not Brides, n.d.). Niger has the highest child marriage prevalence in the world, and surveys of women and men aged 20–49 found that 77 per cent of women were married before age 18 compared to 5 per cent of men (UNICEF, 2014).

When families struggle to meet basic needs, marrying off young daughters is seen as a way to lighten financial burdens. Child marriage, however, is not only a violation of children's rights – it has a ripple effect at every stage of their lives, preventing them from getting an education, reinforcing social isolation, affecting health and exposing them to higher risk of exploitation,

sexual violence and domestic abuse – all factors which reduce well-being and resilience (Freccero & Whiting, 2018; Yi, 2018). As one community activist in Mozambique stated:

> ***"In my community, men seldom let their women go to school for fear of women's empowerment and change in the power relations. When they marry a young woman, it is a lifetime of deprivation and abject poverty [for the girl/woman] from the very onset of marriage. Physical and financial violence is the following stage."***
>
> (UN Women, 2017)

While child marriage has decreased in recent years, protracted conflicts and climate change in many countries have put more girls at risk of being wed at a young age, threatening to undermine the progress made (Yi, 2018). According to Freccero and Whiting (2018), there is growing concern around reports of an increase in child marriage associated with conflict and natural disasters and environmental shocks. A report from Human Rights Watch (2015) highlights the reality of many women living in poor and disaster-prone areas, such as Bangladesh, where early marriage has become a survival strategy:

> ***"'Our house keeps breaking [because of the river]. We keep bringing mud to stop it falling,' said Shapna, who married at age 12. 'The water would come in and not go out and then my father couldn't go to work. He works with land so he can't work when the land is underwater.' Shapna's father is a day labourer. The family's house was also damaged during Cyclone Aila. 'I was in class six and while I was studying I was married off,' Shapna said. 'My mother thought I have two younger siblings and they can't spend all their money on me.' Shapna's husband was 24 or 25 at the time of the marriage."***
>
> (HRW, 2015, pp. 44–45)

There are no official figures on child marriages resulting from climate change or weather-related disasters – which is not unexpected, as even figures for child marriage tend to be underestimated – but more organisations and governments

are starting to connect and bring attention to these issues (Chamberlain, 2017). One case on drought-induced migration in Ethiopia found that there was an increase in the number of girls sold into early marriage in exchange for livestock as families struggled to cope with extreme drought conditions (OCHA, 2017). In South Sudan, it was observed that due to crop failure and the death of cattle, which exacerbated hunger in the region, families resorted to marrying off their daughters, and men who could not afford the dowry in the form of cattle resorted to cattle raiding (Case Study EN22). Some countries are noticing the trend in national plans and reports: Malawi's '2015 Floods Post Disaster Needs Assessment' report lists child marriage as a heightened risk for women and girls resulting from disasters such as floods (Government of Malawi, 2015).

### *5.1.4 Sexual exploitation and human trafficking*

Human traffickers take advantage of the insecurity felt by vulnerable groups after disasters to target people, especially women and children, into sexual exploitation and human trafficking (Calma, 2017). After a flood event in Fiji, it was reported that children were kept home from school either to take care of their younger siblings or to earn money at night through sex work (UN Women Fiji, 2014). Over 80 per cent of sex trafficking victims are women and girls, but this form of violence and coercion can affect all members of society, and traffickers are likely to target vulnerable communities, including due to forced displacement, lack of opportunities for income generation, discrimination and family separation (UNODC, 2018). According to the United Nations Population Fund, it is estimated that the Haiyan typhoon, which devastated Thailand in 2013, led to an increase of trafficking rates in the region (APWLD, 2015). Some preliminary research suggests that trafficking may have increased by 20–30 per cent during the disasters (Nellemann et al. 2011). However, the systematic analysis of the gendered impact of climate change, particularly as related to human trafficking, is not currently available (Dankelman, 2016).

Cases exist in which sex trafficking and sexual exploitation of children has been perpetrated by humanitarian staff, security forces or local leaders after disasters – the very ones who were responsible for recovery efforts. An assessment conducted by UNHCR and Save the Children-UK in the Mano River Sub Region in West Africa revealed widespread sexual exploitation of children, mainly girls between 13 and 18 years, by some NGO members, humanitarian staff, security forces, and men in positions of power and influence in exchange for money, food or other goods (UNHCR & Save the Children-UK, 2002). A male returnee from Sierra Leone explained that, "If you do not have a wife or a sister or a daughter to offer the NGO workers, it is hard to have access to aid" (UNHCR & Save the

Children-UK, 2002, p. 4). Given these findings, UNHCR provided a Framework for Action for all concerned UNHCR offices to address this abuse (UNHCR & Save the Children-UK, 2002). Another example comes from Mozambique: after Tropical Cyclone Idai hit in March 2019, several cases were documented of exploitation and sexual abuse perpetrated by local leaders charged with storing and delivering food supplies to those in need of assistance. According to the Human Rights Watch, some local leaders charged people money to include their names on food distribution lists, which often only listed the male head of households (HRW, 2019). For women who did not have money, leaders exploited those struggling to provide food for their families and the desperation of the situation, coercing women to exchange sex for food supplies (HRW, 2019). Furthermore, layers of discrimination experienced by marginalised groups can exacerbate GBV risks (see Box 15).

### Box 15. Discrimination against sexual and gender minorities in disasters

A rights-based intersectionality approach in disaster risk reduction[3] is key to understand and address the multiple and overlapping discriminations that certain groups face. For instance, the differentiated experiences of sexual and gender minorities in the aftermath of disasters have rarely been documented or considered in disaster risk reduction efforts, reinforcing discrimination patterns (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018). Assumptions of gender as a binary – man or woman – can leave transgender or third gender people excluded from relief efforts when they do not have official documents that match their gender presentation, as has happened with third gender *Aravani*[4] people in Tamil Nadu, India, after the Indian Ocean Tsunami of 2004 (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018). Additionally, many LGBTI people may feel discriminated against and threatened in evacuation shelters due to pre-existing discriminatory attitudes and prefer to find shelter with members of their informal networks. These networks are an example of resilience and cooperation in times of crises, as sexual and gender minorities help each other with coping mechanisms and share resources, knowledge and support (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018). A 2018 report from Fiji, called *Down by the River*, shares testimonies from sexual and gender minority individuals in the aftermath of category 5 tropical cyclone Winston in 2016. One recounts:

> *"----Straight after [tropical cyclone] Winston, whenever we came past these people, they would call out that it is 'us people' that caused [tropical cyclone] Winston. I asked them 'what people?' And they said LGBTQ people. I told them it is climate change, not LGBTQ people"* (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018, p. 27).

The report addresses the rights, needs and strengths of Fijian sexual and gender minorities in disaster settings, and provides useful recommendations for the integration of the considerations of sexual and gender minorities in policy and practice (Dwyer & Woolf, 2018).

Source: Authors.

3 Disaster risk reduction is "the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and reduce the causal factors of disasters. Reducing exposure to hazards, lessening vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improving preparedness and early warning for adverse events are all examples of disaster risk reduction" (UNDRR, n.d.).

4 *Aravani* is the term used in Tamil Nadu, India, to refer to third gender or what in western societies is defined as transgender. *Aravani* is used to refer to those assigned male gender at birth who do not identify as men. Other terms used in India to refer to the third gender are *hijra*, *kothi*, *kinnar* or *shiv-shakti* (Bearak, 2016).

# 5.2 Environment-related impacts and drivers of migration and displacement

## *5.2.1 Setting the context: A growing global challenge*

In 2017, 18 million people were internally displaced due to weather-related disasters, accounting for 61 per cent of total displacements (IDMC, 2018). The direct linkages between climate change and population displacement are complex and multi-causal, but many experts agree that climate change will make environmental drivers of migration – both slow-onset (e.g. sea level rise) and rapid-onset (e.g. cyclones, floods, wildfires, etc.) – more frequent and extreme, and will significantly contribute to migration and population displacement (Klepp, 2017). A study cited by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) predicts that by 2050 there will be between 25 million to 1 billion environmental migrants[5] due to climate change impacts (IOM, 2009).

Climate-induced migration can be generally sorted into three categories: "(i) individuals who make a premeditated decision to migrate because of climate change related factors (e.g. decreased availability of/access to food, water, economic opportunities, etc.); (ii) planned relocation; and (iii) unplanned climate change displacement" (PCCM, 2014, p. 4). Migration and population displacement due to climate change, whether by choice or circumstantially forced, can lead to unsafe and overcrowded conditions, particularly in evacuation centres and temporary housing. These conditions threaten human rights and the well-being of people and families, particularly indigenous peoples and women who face compound challenges due to social and legal discriminations, including GBV, such as exploitation and human trafficking (Nellemann et al., 2011).

Migration experiences and decisions are different for women and men depending on cultural context and access, opportunity, resources and security available (Klepp, 2017). For women faced with the decision to migrate due to climate change impacts, structural discrimination determines if and how they migrate. For instance, they may lack access to information, education, employment, housing and healthcare when they reach their destination, making

5 Environmental migrants are "persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to have to leave their homes, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their territory or abroad." (IOM, 2014, p. 6).

the decision to leave very difficult (Klepp, 2017). Additionally, "[t]he impacts of displacement may go far beyond the loss of security and livelihoods – profoundly affecting a community's deep cultural and ancestral connection to its land." (Richards & Bradshaw, 2017, p. 5)

Migration and displacement also has an impact on host communities and countries. A large influx of displaced populations into areas insufficiently prepared to host refugees or other displaced populations may lead to a deterioration of human rights and an increase in GBV, and can also have unintended consequences on the surrounding environment (UNEP, 2015). The overexploitation of natural resources by host communities and refugees, who may not have another alternative but to collect them to survive, puts additional pressure on resources, which has a particular effect on women who are primarily responsible for water, food and fuel collection to meet family needs (DeWeerdt, 2008; UN Women, 2015).


**Data from:** Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves (2016).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 14. Climate change, migration and gender-based violence in refugee camps**

### 5.2.2 Gender-based violence in temporary housing and emergency shelters

GBV perpetrated by family members or others tends to increase or becomes more evident after disasters, particularly for displaced populations in evacuation centres, temporary housing and shelters. These settings are typically overcrowded and can become unsafe for displaced peoples, particularly women and girls (UN Women Fiji, 2014). Numerous cases illustrate an increase in GBV amidst situations of high social and economic stress, such as those found in temporary housing and shelters. For example, after two cyclones hit Fiji in 2012, some women living in relief centres were reportedly being forced to have sex with their partners despite their reluctance, especially due to lack of privacy (UN Women Fiji, 2014). Violence in emergency shelters can occur in many contexts, including in both developing and developed countries. In the year following Hurricane Katrina in southern United States in 2005, for example, the rate of GBV experienced by women more than tripled, with many of them being displaced from their homes and living in temporary shelters (Henrici et al., 2010). In Bangladesh, a survey conducted by Khan Foundation and the Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) on GBV and climate change in coastal and disaster-prone areas showed that shelters were not seen as women-friendly by the majority of women respondents (93 per cent) (Khan Foundation and ARROW, 2015).[6] They identified lack of sanitation and toilet facilities in some shelters, discomfort due to cohabitation with men in the same space, and absence of female-only toilets and baths (Khan Foundation and ARROW, 2015).

Limited access to basic needs and resources (if at all available) push women to go outside shelters and camps to collect water, fuel and food sources, putting them at a higher risk of being harassed, sexually assaulted or even raped (UNHCR, 2011) (see Figure 14). This is particularly augmented in situations where resources are scarce in the areas surrounding temporary housing and shelters, such as in areas affected by drought or unsustainable resource use, where women must travel further to access resources. For example, a rapid assessment conducted by the Danish Refugee Council (2012) in Doro Refugee Camp in South Sudan showed that women identified going outside of the camp to collect firewood to meet the family's needs as the biggest risk contributing to insecurity. In this context, GBV took the form of rape and attempted rape, sexual abuse and harassment, along with a high prevalence of IPV, early marriage,

6 Publicly available resources were received as Case Study EN15. As noted in Section 1.2.2, there is not necessarily a link between submitters and submissions.

sexual abuse and attempted rape in firewood collection places and sometimes at water points (DRC, 2012). Along these same lines, a study from MSF, reported that 82 per cent of the 297 cases of rape treated in their clinics during a six-month period in West Darfur took place while women were pursuing daily tasks (MSF, 2005) (see Box 16 for more on the intersection of climate fragility, conflict and GBV). Similarly, in Farchana, Eastern Chad, one report found that 91 per cent of cases occurred outside refugee camps when women were collecting firewood (WRC, 2011a).

The provision of firewood in refugee camps can release pressure over natural resources and potentially reduce the incidents of GBV. However, while food and water are a priority in humanitarian settings, the provision of firewood and other fuel sources, as well as fuel efficient cookstoves, is limited in many settings. For example, an assessment mission in Uganda from the UN High Commissioner for Refugees and the World Food Programme in 2006 found that only 8 per cent of refugees in Gihembe camp had their firewood needs covered (WRC, 2011a).[7] Food insecurity and the lack of firewood forces women and girls to go outside of the camps to collect firewood despite the risks of suffering violence by militias, private forest owners, rangers or other unknown perpetrators (WRC, 2011a). Many GBV-ENV survey respondents also raised these concerns as one of the major threats in refugee camps as related to emergency responses and protracted crises.

Resource stress around temporary housing and shelters can negatively affect the relationship between displaced and host communities, who may adopt measures to prevent displaced populations from collecting natural resources in the area. A report from the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2006) explains how in Nepal, local communities hired so-called forest guards to harass Bhutanese refugee women and girls when collecting firewood outside of their camps by stealing their wood, imprisoning them and forcing them to pay fines, beating them and even raping and killing some of them. According to evidence and accounts, many opportunists took advantage of the tense situation with host communities to rape and murder girls in the forest because they knew that they would not be punished (Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2006).



7 As cited in the reference, this figure of 8 per cent was presented in a Women's Refugee Commission report from 2011 on the 2006 mission assessment.

## Box 16. Climate-related fragility and conflict and gender-based violence

According to the Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development (2015), at least 40 per cent of all intrastate conflicts in the past 40 years are directly or indirectly linked to the scarcity of natural resources, such as fertile land and water, or due to a competition over abundant lucrative resources, such as minerals and timber. While the impacts of climate change do not always cause violent conflict, climate change is considered a 'threat multiplier' at multiple levels, including one "that will increase state fragility, fuel social unrest and potentially result in violent conflict" (Rüttinger, 2017, p. 1). Likewise, violent conflict and fractured state-society relations increase vulnerability to climate change and disasters, depleting assets that facilitate adaptation efforts and contributing to environmental degradation, particularly threatening the livelihoods, rights and survival of vulnerable populations (IPCC, 2014a). If fragile states are unable to cope with and adapt to climate change, they run the risk of being locked into "fragility traps" (Rüttinger, 2017), which threaten the realisation of human rights, leading to increasingly strained social, environmental and economic situations. These situations in fragile and conflict-afflicted states contribute to gender inequality, discrimination and GBV (International Development Committee of the UK Parliament, 2013; Robleto-Gonzalez, 2014).

Sexual violence is employed as a tactic in war to intimidate, punish and retaliate against families and communities, not only for women and girls, but for men and boys as well (UN, 2018). The office of the Secretary-General noted on conflict-related sexual violence that cases of sexual violence "have been reported with shocking regularity" (UN, 2018). Using GBV as a control mechanism, "conflict thus compounds the gender gap in access to land and other productive resources, by further reducing women to an expendable 'currency' in the political economy of war and terrorism" (UN, 2018, p. 7). This is particularly amplified in situations of natural resource stress, including due to climate change and when destruction of the environment is used as a military strategy or the exploitation of its resources is used to fund wartime activities (Crawford & Bernstein, 2008; DeWeerdt, 2008). This has direct negative impacts particularly on women, both in terms of depleted resources for meeting livelihood needs and in increased exposure to violence, including the use of rape to intimidate women and men (UN, 2018). Additionally, during conflict, women typically assume the role of primary economic provider, while male partners are at war. After conflict, when men return, the subsequent colliding of gender roles can lead to increased rates of violence within the home (Rustad et al., 2016).

The intersection of these issues presents itself around Lake Chad, affecting North Cameroon, West Chad, South East Niger and North-East Nigeria (CARE International, 2018; Nett & Rüttinger, 2016; Taub, 2017). Instability and conflict in the region have caused the displacement of thousands of people in Chad and Niger who have settled along the shores of Lake Chad, which has already shrunk by 90 per cent in the past 50 years. This new wave of displacement has added to the more than 70,000 already displaced people due to natural resource-related violence, further increasing the demand on resources (Nett & Rüttinger, 2016). This area has fallen victim to wartime GBV tactics used by terrorist groups and armed militias to spread fear and in order to obstruct community resilience, including the abduction, imprisonment, rape and forced marriage of girls and women (Nett & Rüttinger, 2016).

These intersecting, often mutually reinforcing, dynamics are important to understand, as environment-related conflict due to natural resource scarcity and competing interests increasingly threatens communities' well-being and livelihoods. As the example above illustrates, addressing GBV during emergency responses is critical, as it is in longer-term adaptation, resilience building and peacebuilding efforts, in order to break the cycles of violence.

Source: Authors.

## 5.3 Ways forward

Effectively reducing disaster risks, as well as adapting and building resilience to and mitigating climate change and climate-related effects, requires rights-based, gender-responsive approaches, which include addressing GBV. To ignore this dimension suggests a vicious cycle. The risks include further increasing incidence of GBV, which in turn impacts health and security of women and their families, making them more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change and weather-related disasters, and further entrenching households and communities in poverty. Furthermore, failure to address GBV issues undermines the success of sustainable development programming, biodiversity conservation and peacebuilding, too – as GBV affects survivors' potential for participation, resilience and agency. GBV is a barrier to the inclusion and empowerment of all people as change agents for a healthier, more peaceful and sustainable planet.

The following are some examples of entry points and sample interventions on GBV that were reviewed as part of this research. While not exhaustive, these provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward in addressing GBV in climate change and weather-related disasters (complemented by recommendations to address gaps in Chapter 8).

### *5.3.1 Strengthen attention to gender-based violence through data collection and sharing*

GBV data collection and dissemination can inform a more fully realised understanding of the gender-environment nexus, including in particular for disaster and climate change contexts and resilience. This information is also necessary to measure progress on the impact of gender mainstreaming in environmental and sustainable development programming. Addressing the opportunities for holistic approaches toward measuring progress on these goals through strengthened cross-cutting data collection will help to communicate the importance of the issue linkages and drive change across sectors to prevent GBV.

Gender and climate change linkages are among the most well-documented within the gender-environment field, with a groundswell of information over the last decade in particular. Yet, there is still a lack of statistical data, which hinders efforts to properly understand and address the gender-differentiated impacts of disaster risk resilience and climate change, let alone the GBV-related dimensions. As the CEDAW Committee recognises, the limited technical

capacity to disaggregate by sex, age, disability, ethnicity and geographical location at the national and local levels "continues to impede the development of appropriate and targeted strategies for disaster risk reduction and climate change response" (CEDAW, 2018, p. 11). Thus, it recommends Parties to develop disaggregated and gender-responsive indicators and monitoring mechanisms in coordination with existing frameworks, such as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (CEDAW, 2018).

The SDGs – particularly SDG 5 on gender equality, SDG 13 on climate action and SDG 16 on peace, justice and strong institutions – represent a powerful framework and impetus for synergistic approaches toward climate adaptation and mitigation initiatives that integrate gender equality, environmental sustainability and peacebuilding principles. The SDGs provide an indicators framework to mark significant strides on global sustainable development through efforts to end poverty, hunger, and gender and social inequality, while promoting healthy and peaceful societies and ecosystems. This indicators framework, however, does not provide for disaggregated data related to disaster or climate indicators, such as measuring mortalities due to disasters. According to an analysis published in 2019 on gender and environment statistics by UNEP and IUCN:

> *There may be a correlation between the improvement of energy, water and sanitation access, particularly in post-disaster settings, and a reduction of GBV (...) However, the high number of unreported cases coupled with the lack of statistical data on the incidence and risk of GBV as related to energy, water and sanitation access, including in post-disaster settings, disregards and perpetuates GBV. The periodic collection of sex-disaggregated data on water, sanitation and firewood access, as well as time spent collecting it and the person responsible for it, can help advance the measurement of GBV incidence related to these sectors and contribute to the adoption of environmental policies and programming that address and prevent GBV (UNEP & IUCN, 2019, p. 25).*

### 5.3.2 *Learn from, adapt and utilise existing good practice from across sectors*

Extensive literature already exists on the various impactful strategies for GBV prevention and response in humanitarian and conflict settings. The many good practices, tools and manuals in this field can support environmental-sector and sustainable development efforts to address GBV in disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation and mitigation programming, especially considering the multiple linkages between the issues. Finding ways to translate the good practices, tools and manuals to climate change adaptation and mitigation contexts and projects can help identify and respond to GBV, as well as build networks, partnerships and other enabling conditions across sectors. This is also key to meeting interlinked SDGs.

It is important to note that not all of the strategies from humanitarian and emergency response frameworks will be directly applicable to disaster risk reduction and climate change mitigation, adaptation and resilience-building contexts or efforts. The manifestations of violence in the immediate aftermath of rapid-onset emergencies will be different from GBV experienced over prolonged drought, for example. Each situation will require specific responses to address and mitigate violence and to support the needs of survivors. Multi-sector collaboration and capacity building, including with relief agencies and organisations that provide long-term support, can help translate existing and formulate new good practices for disaster and climate change GBV response protocols.

Further, some emerging interventions are poised to deliver impact toward meeting human rights and climate change and resilience goals. With emphasis again on the overall lack of information on this topic, some illustrative examples are included below.

## Box 17. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Building climate resilience through attention to GBV

Climate change and weather-related disasters can increase insecurity, degrade environmental resources and strain the livelihoods of millions of people, particularly in less resilient and fragile states – which can directly or indirectly lead to an increase in tensions and GBV. Inclusion of GBV prevention within environment programming is fairly new, with some efforts mainly focusing on resilience building and disaster risk reduction. One key initiative that may inspire others is UNDP's support to the government of Uganda to integrate GBV issues within the project 'Building Resilient Communities, Wetland Ecosystems and Associated Catchments' that is being funded by the Green Climate Fund (GCF) (2017–2025):

Formative research in sub-counties revealed links between GBV and climate change disasters, such as droughts, famine and water shortages. The research suggested that child marriage increased during long droughts as a coping strategy wherein the family can receive "bride wealth" and reduce the number of people to feed in the household; during famines, women's vulnerabilities to transactional survival sex increases; and, in water shortages, IPV spikes during poor harvest seasons as women and men both partake in cultivation but only men make decisions on the sale of produce.[8] To mitigate GBV-related and other gender inequality challenges, and to help ensure that gender equality is built into resiliency strategies, the Wetlands Restoration project will integrate customised GBV preventive actions into the climate change mitigation and alternative livelihood components of the project in two sub-counties in Eastern and Western Uganda by 2020. This GBV pilot is part of a broader UNDP project on "Ending GBV and Achieving the SDGs," funded by the Republic of Korea. (Case Study EN37)[9]

### Integrating GBV prevention and response strategies and training in disaster policies and plans

The impacts of weather-related disasters on social dynamics and resource availability can affect the prevalence of GBV during and after disasters, including increasing domestic violence and IPV, child marriage and gender-based physical and sexual violence in emergency shelters (IFRC, 2015). In light of the GBV risks faced by communities coping with and recovering from disasters, it is important that national and institutional disaster plans and policies understand and incorporate specific strategies to prevent and respond to GBV in recovery efforts. However, social stigma, weak institutional capacity and a lack of safe reporting mechanisms can impede the ability for GBV survivors to report instances of violence post-disaster, which means that recovery efforts may not be aware of the extent of GBV issues facing communities and the resources needed to address violence (IFRC, 2015).

8 C. Owren. Personal communication with expert informant, 3 April 2019.

9 Submitters for Case study EN37 provided consent for authors to include identifying information in relation to the submission.

There are efforts to address this awareness gap and strengthen national and institutional disaster plans to prepare for GBV risks. For instance, the Samoa Red Cross Society (SRCS) has played an integral role in communicating the importance of GBV considerations in disaster situations and embedding these considerations into national plans and policies (SRCS, 2018). SRCS provided technical assistance and influenced recommendations on GBV in the 2017-2020 National Disaster Management Plan (Samoa Disaster Management Office, 2017), and supported the Samoa National Policy for Gender Equality to include a focus on how gender equality benefits community resilience (Samoa Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development, 2016).

Recognising a need to build national awareness and capacity on GBV in disaster situations, SRCS partnered with the UNFPA in 2018 to develop the Gender-Based Violence Programming in Emergencies training. The training supported national relief agencies, councils and ministries, including on women, youth, police and health, to identify and respond to GBV during crises. One 20-year old participant noted the importance of the training for her work and herself:

> *"I've learned the causes of the abuse and violence of women and other genders in communities... I've come to learn how to protect myself and decrease any chances of being affected from any type of violence"* (Wilson, 2018).

**Raising awareness and addressing the intersection of child marriage and climate issues**

As discussed in this chapter, there is growing recognition of the links between child marriage and the climatic stressors that affect the ability of families to meet their basic needs. There is a need to build the evidence base of this linkage, but also a need to proactively address child marriage within the context of climate change adaptation and mitigation. This will help to reaffirm the rights of women and girls, while addressing the threats of climate change to individual and community well-being.

Bangladesh has the fourth highest rate of child marriage in the world, with 29 per cent of girls marrying before the age of 15, and 65 per cent of girls marrying before the age of 18. In addition to gender discriminatory norms and customs, such as dowry, poverty, and limited educational and economic opportunities for girls, Bangladesh is one of the most affected countries by climate change and disasters (HRW, 2015). According to an NGO activist interviewed by HRW, while the link between floods and child marriage may not be direct, there is a clear indirect linkage, as the worsening of the economic situation of the family is a key factor on the decision to marry off a daughter (HRW, 2015). One effort to address the issues of child marriage and climate change in Bangladesh is community awareness-raising through girls' radio clubs started in 2017by the Coastal Association for Social Transformation Trust. Forty radio clubs now provide information to over 500,000 listeners in the Bay of Bengal about women's and girls' rights, reproductive health, domestic violence and child marriage, as well as ways to adapt to and prepare for the effect of climate change (CJRF, 2019).

In Mozambique, survivors of child marriage are struggling to find and maintain economic livelihoods after leaving their husbands due to the prolonged drought and its impacts on agricultural productivity, leading more families to consider child marriage as a source of food security (UN Women, 2017). In 2014, UN Women started a project in Mozambique called “Expanding Women’s Role in Agricultural Production and Natural Resource Management,” which aims to combat climate change and enhance food security in the Gaza province. The project addresses the connection between climate change and violence against women, particularly child marriage, by providing trainings and awareness raising sessions to rural women and men that challenge gender stereotypes and build economic autonomy for women through sustainable agricultural practices. The women involved have set “better examples for girls and women in their communities […] showing that early marriage is not the only way out” (UN Women, 2017).

Source: Authors.

## Suggested resources and tools 5. Gender-based violence and climate change

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| WHO ethical and safety recommendations for researching, documenting and monitoring sexual violence in emergencies (WHO, 2007) | Offers eight recommendations aimed towards ensuring that safety and ethical safeguards are in place when gathering data and information on sexual violence in emergencies, both to prepare those gathering the information and protect the rights and dignity of survivors. |
| Handbook for Coordinating Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings (GPC, 2010) | Serves as a resource for sectors across the humanitarian community to prevent and respond to GBV and provides guidelines for coordination among actors to facilitate action to end GBV. |
| Preventing Gender-based Violence, building Livelihoods: Guidance and Tools for Improved Programming (WRC, 2011b) | Provides guidance at each stage of the project cycle for designing safe, gender-responsive economic programmes that address the underlying causes of GBV to prevent exacerbation of violence. |
| Guidance for Gender Based Violence (GBV) Monitoring and Mitigation within Non-GBV Focused Sectoral Programming (CARE, 2014) | Outlines clearly how to practically and ethically monitor, and mitigate GBV; provides recommendations on preventing and responding to unintentional risks, threats and violence against individuals related to programme activities. This document is specifically aimed toward initiatives where GBV is not a specific programme component, and draws from GBV-related guidance and expertise to ensure best practices are translated across sectors. |
| Women and climate change: Impacts and agency in human rights, security, and economic development (Alam et al., 2015) | Offers an extensive view into the gender-related challenges associated with climate change from the view of human rights, security and economic development. |
| Guidelines for Integrating Gender-Based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Action (IASC, 2015) | Aim to provide reviewed and field-tested guidance and tools to coordinate, plan, implement, monitor and evaluate essential actions in humanitarian response to prevent and respond to GBV. |
| Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) Prevention and Response (UNHCR, 2016) | The training package provides 18 thematic modules, drawing from the experiences and knowledge of key experts and practitioners, to guide facilitators on conducting interactive trainings related to prevention of SGBV. |
| General Recommendation No. 37 on Gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change (CEDAW, 2018) | Provides recommendations for action to Member States to address GBV in the context of disaster risk reduction and climate change, among other gender-related recommendations. They include the development of policies, programmes and monitoring and evaluation interventions to address GBV and its root causes. |

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Section

III

# GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN ENVIRONMENTAL ACTION

# 6.

# Gender-based violence in defending land, territories and the environment – The situation of women environmental human rights defenders

***"It is not easy to be a woman leading indigenous resistance processes. In an incredibly patriarchal society women are very exposed, we need to face very risky circumstances, sexist and misogynistic campaigns. This is one of the things that can [weigh most]... the sexist attacks from all sides."***

Berta Cáceres, Woman Environmental Human Rights Defender assassinated in 2016 (El Desconcierto, 2016)

## The heart of the matter

- Violence against environmental human rights defenders is on the rise.
- Women environmental human rights defenders experience and are exposed to the same risks and types of violence as other defenders, but they also face gender-specific risks and violence – in part due to their actions challenging existing gender norms within their respective communities and societies.
- Gender-based violence is used to suppress women environmental human rights defenders' power and authority, undermine their credibility, dismantle their status within the community and discourage them and others from coming forward.
- A culture of impunity dominates the violence women environmental human rights defenders face, which emboldens the efforts of those who wish to silence them.
- Efforts geared to enhance accountability are thus urgently required, for example through enhanced legally binding policy.

Globally, there exists a historic struggle in defence of the environment, one in which women and indigenous peoples have been fundamental actors against the privatisation and destruction of natural resources such as land, forests and forest resources, and water. Long before the term *environmental human rights defenders* (EHRDs) was coined, women's grassroots organisations have been defending and protecting the environment and natural resources. From historically iconic movements (three are briefly summarised below) to the most recent movements against extractives and large-scale plantations worldwide, it has been demonstrated that women who defend their land and resources have suffered varying forms of violence including gender-based violence – from domestic violence to psychological, cyber, political and community-based violence.

Well-known movements in Africa, Asia and Latin America illustrate women's historic roles in the defence of natural resources and in advancing women's human rights, contributing to policy changes at the community, national and international levels. Women's participation in the men-led Chipko Movement in India transformed the effort, helping to set the precedent for non-violent protest against infrastructure development and massive deforestation while reshaping traditional views on gender roles (Jain, 1984). Today, the movement is viewed as an 'ecofeminist movement' due to women's central role in defiance against extractive activities (The Indian Express, 2018). In Kenya,

the Green Belt Movement (GBM), founded by the late Professor and Nobel Laureate Wangari Maathai, initially started as a women-led tree-planting initiative that advocated against land grabbing and deforestation (Maathai, 2006; GBM, n.d.). GBM members persisted against harassment, intimidation, criminalisation, violent attacks and threats against their lives by state and non-state actors. Today, GBM is a world-renowned conservation movement, still guiding community-empowered and rights-based sustainable development efforts across the region. In Bolivia, women's instrumental involvement in the fight against water privatisation and dam construction marked another pivotal moment for women's leadership for environmental action, wherein Bolivian women demanded greater political participation, decision-making power and increased recognition of women's rights (Beltrán, 2004).

Women and men environmental human rights defenders have played vital roles in defending and protecting local natural environments worldwide, long recognised and protected by international human rights frameworks and agreements under which they can exercise their rights. They also receive specific attention and protections under major environmental frameworks, including Principle 10 of the Rio Declaration, the 1982 World Charter for Nature as well as the Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs): namely the Stockholm Convention (Art. 10); the Convention on Biological Diversity (Art. 14(1)); the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (Arts. 3 and 5); and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (Art. 6(a)) (Wijdekop, 2017a).

Yet, violence against EHRDs around the globe is on the rise. At the time of this writing, 2017 marked the deadliest year on record with 207 murders across 22 countries (Global Witness, 2018). Over the last decade, violence against EHRDs has received greater attention from the international community, given the serious impacts on the health, well-being and livelihoods of entire communities. Momentum is growing both to protect defenders and to understand the gender-differentiated impacts of this violence, including the incidence of GBV against women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs) (see Definition Box 11). Although WEHRDs experience and are exposed to the same risks and types of violence as other defenders, they face gender-specific risks, including GBV, for example as they may challenge existing and ingrained gender norms within their respective communities and societies (Barcia, 2017; Okech et al., 2017).

Violence against WEHRDs in the public and private sector is interlinked with and rooted in social, economic and political power relations, including gender

discrimination, an unequal division of labour, and pre-existing levels of violence (Barcia, 2017). WEHRDs thus endure gender-differentiated violence, whether as users and managers of natural resources, as victims of abuse by state or non-state actors, or as journalists, lawyers, educators, indigenous leaders or everyday citizens concerned over the degradation of the environment and natural resources.

This chapter explores GBV as a specific risk faced by WEHRDs, with a special emphasis on indigenous women. Recognising that, in many parts of the world, human rights defenders are marginalised and discriminated against and are criminalised for their actions, and that impunity for state and non-state actors in violation of EHRDs' rights is commonplace, the chapter begins by providing an overview of the increasing violence faced by defenders, as well as GBV risk factors for WEHRDs. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the barriers that exist for addressing GBV against WEHRDs and what steps can be taken to advance progress.

**Definition Box 11.**
**Key terms on defenders**

The term *human rights defender* has been used since the adoption of the Declaration on Human Rights Defenders in 1998.[1] Since then, other UN Declarations, activists and organisations have used additional terms to describe more specifically the wide range of defenders. Throughout this chapter, acronyms are used to match corresponding source material.

**Human rights defenders (HRDs).** Any individual or group of individuals who work to promote or protect human rights, such as but not limited to the rights to life, food and water, health, housing, education and freedom to assemble (OHCHR, n.d.). Defenders can be of any gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, profession or background. They can be formally or informally organised, working as lobbyists, activists, working for various types of organisations or simply defending or protecting the rights of their community (OHCHR, n.d.).

**Environmental human rights defenders (EHRDs).**[2] Any individual or group of individuals working to protect or promote human rights in the context of the environment, such as the defence of land rights, access to natural resources and the right to a healthy environment (Knox, 2017; Wijdekop, 2017a). Some EHRDs are formally working to protect human rights and the environment, but many unintentionally become EHRDs, unaware they are acting as said defenders, typically in defence of their communities and natural resources (Knox, 2017; Wijdekop, 2017a). Often, EHRDs are members and/or representatives of Indigenous and traditional communities whose land rights and livelihoods are threatened by large infrastructure projects or extractive activities such as dams, logging, industrial fishing, mining or oil extraction (Knox, 2017).

**Women human rights defenders (WHRDs).** WHRDs are human rights defenders of any gender who work to promote and protect and fight for women's rights and gender equality (OHCHR, 2014). In this sense, they typically work to expose factors, such as gender, race, ethnicity, class, marital status and sexual orientation related to power structures within society and has a direct relationship to vulnerability to violence and discrimination (Barcia, 2017). Women who work on any issue in relation to human rights and fundamental freedoms, including human rights issues related to environmental issues, either individually or collectively, can also be classified as WHRDs (OHCHR, 2014).

**Women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs).** This paper uses the term women environmental human rights defenders (and WEHRDs for brevity) to refer specifically to women defenders working on human rights issues related to environmental justice, land rights and access to and control over natural resources.

Source: Authors.

1 The United Nations Declaration on Human Rights Defenders identifies defenders as rights holders, and outlines States' obligations to protect them and prevent violations of their rights. The Human Rights Defender framework incorporates protection mechanisms from various human rights systems including regional bodies, like the European Union (and its guidelines on Human Rights Defenders), the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (and its Rapporteur on Human Rights Defenders), and the African Commission for Human and People's Rights (and its Special Rapporteur on Human Rights Defenders) (OHCHR, n.d.)

2 Environmental human rights defenders are sometimes called 'Earth rights defenders' and 'land and territory defenders'.


**Source:** Global Witness (2018). **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 15. Industries driving the attacks against environmental human rights defenders**

# 6.1 A conflict of power and rights over resources

## *6.1.1 Setting the context: An increasing need for environmental defence is met with mounting violence*

EHRDs are defenders of both human rights and the environment, as the enjoyment of basic human rights includes, but is not limited to, the rights to life, health, education, freedom of opinion and expression and freedom to peacefully assemble (UN, 1948) along with clean water and sanitation (UN, 2010; UNW-DPAC, 2011). To fully exercise and enjoy such rights, a healthy and safe environment is essential, and each individual has the right and freedom to defend it (Wijdekop, 2017a).

Research demonstrates that there is an upward trend in violence and human rights violations against EHRDs – women, men and their communities – partly a consequence of the extractive model, which is tied to powerful economic interests of corporate and state actors (Carvajal, 2016; Jenkins, 2014). Regional

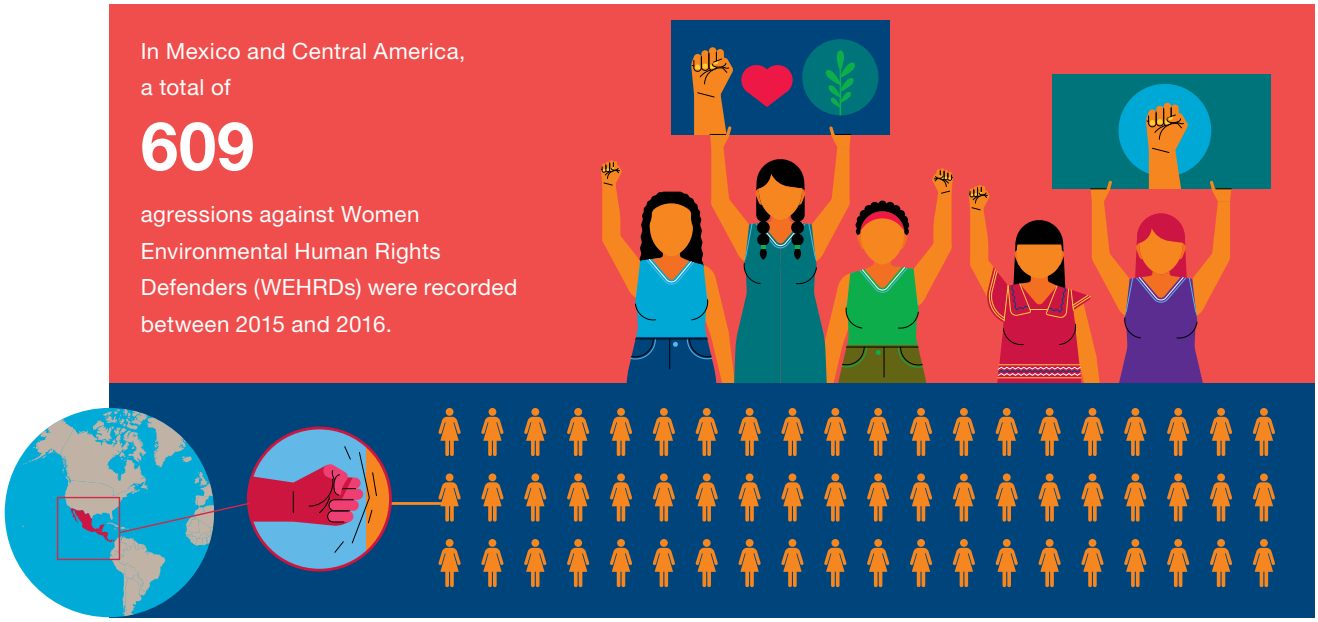
human rights commissions highlighted serious concerns; for example, in 2009, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR) stated that it was "deeply concerned by human rights violations by non-state actors in particular the sector of extractive industries" (ACHPR, 2009). The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (IACHR) also published a report on the impact of extractive activities on the rights of indigenous and Afro-descendent people, noting that "[t]he Commission is concerned that human rights are increasingly perceived as an obstacle to economic development when in fact they are its precondition" IACHR, 2016, p. 19).

Violence and human rights violations can be employed for the purpose of silencing EHRDs and deterring others from coming forward, and crimes against them are rarely met with justice (Barcia, 2017; Global Witness, 2018). The perpetrators tend to be backed by strong economic and political interests, while the defenders often belong to marginalised communities with little agency and recourse to seek justice or even receive attention from the media (Watts, 2018). As such, a culture of impunity dominates amid a backdrop of criminalisation and violence against EHRDs. This dynamic impedes EHRDs' efforts to defend the environment, while strengthening the efforts of those who wish to silence them.

Violence against EHRDs is typically found within a context of heightened resource scarcity (not least as related to issues discussed throughout Section II): each year, industries and governments are placing increasing pressure on natural resources as countries and corporations seek financial gain (Wijdekop, 2017a). The pressure for both profits and more resources has led to a rise in extractive activities, as well as a rise in environmental crime (Nellemann et al., 2016). The violence and intimidation employed to exert control over individuals' and local communities' territories and natural resources can also instigate, magnify and reinforce incidences of GBV (Carvajal, 2016; Jenkins, 2014; Penchaszadeh, 2014).

According to data collected by Front Line Defenders, 67 per cent of the total number of human rights defenders (HRDs) killed in 2017 were defending land, environmental and indigenous peoples' rights, almost always in the context of mega projects, extractive industries and big agribusiness (Front Line Defenders, 2018). Global Witness reported that in 2017, an average of four environmental defenders were killed per week for opposing threats to territory and the environment. As illustrated in Figure 15, agribusiness was the biggest driver of violence, followed by mining and extractives, poaching and logging (Global Witness, 2018) (see Chapters 4 and 6 for more on crimes and extractives, respectively). In addition to targeted murders, EHRDs suffer

from other acts of violence, harassment, criminalisation, stigmatisation and intimidation every day across the world (Wijdekop, 2017a). These acts are often hidden from the public eye, difficult to track and many go unreported (Wijdekop, 2017a; Osorio et al., 2016).




**Data from:** Mesoamerican Women Human Rights Defenders Initiative (IM-Defensoras) from Lopez and Vidal (2015); Osorio et al. (2016).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 16. The scale of violence against women environmental human rights defenders (2015-2016)**

### 6.1.2 *Women environmental human rights defenders experience differentiated expressions of violence as means for control*

According to the UNHRC, in 2019, violations against EHRDs include:

> *"Killings, violent acts, including gender-based violence, threats, harassment, intimidation, smear campaigns, criminalization, judicial harassment, forced eviction and displacement of environmental human rights defenders, including indigenous and women human rights defenders, and human rights defenders addressing issues relating to land rights, their family members, communities, associates and legal representatives"* (UNHRC, 2019a, p. 3).

While men tend to make up the majority of EHRD murder victims, GBV, including threats of rape, intimidation, criminalisation and acts of misogyny, is used disproportionately to control and silence women defenders (Barcia, 2017). Statistics provided by the Mesoamerican Women Human Rights Defenders Initiative (IM-Defensoras) found that a total of 609 aggressions against WEHRDs were recorded between 2015 and 2016 in Mexico and Central America alone (López & Vidal, 2015; Osorio et al., 2016) (see Figure 16). In this same region, between 2012 and 2016, at least 42 WEHRDs were killed (López & Bradley, 2017).

The UN High Commissioner for Human Rights further emphasised that:

> *"The lands and territories of indigenous peoples are increasingly threatened. Many defenders, including women, have paid with their lives for resisting unlawful development or for demanding the authorities obtain their free, prior, and informed consent before any development projects are launched on lands, territories and resources traditionally used by indigenous peoples"* (OHCHR, 2018) .

GBV is used to suppress WEHRDs' power and authority, undermine their credibility, dismantle their status within the community and discourage them and others from coming forward (Global Witness, 2018; Barcia, 2017). These considerations are critical as women's involvement in activism and political demonstrations in the defence of the environment is on the rise, a consideration worth noting as studies suggest women's involvement in political activism can be highly dangerous (ACLED, 2019). While most demonstrations are peaceful, the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project (ACLED) found that more demonstrations involving women include more instances of violent force (e.g. live fire) and intervention (e.g. arrests, tear gas) than demonstrations in which women are not present. This trend was found to be stronger in Southeast Asia, the Middle East and across Africa. Data from Latin America still needs to be collected and analysed. Although the data is not disaggregated to show how many of the incidents were related to the environment, ACLED's data demonstrates a similar trend found in the WEHRD movement (Oxfam, n.d.).

In many societies, women are not expected to speak out and challenge the status quo, and as a result, they suffer stigmatisation, social ostracism and criminalisation (Barcia, 2017). In the process of promoting and defending the rights of others, the risks of violence women face are compounded by the fact that they are defying cultural norms in challenging their socialised submissive

roles, social expectations and by assuming the traditional masculine behaviour of speaking out and refusing to be silenced (Barcia, 2017; Facio, 2015; Meffe et al., 2018).

### 6.1.3 *Weaponising gender in violent disputes over land and natural resources*

Violence is used as a means to preserve a certain social order, and to aid the privileged and powerful in maintaining their control over resources (López & Bradley, 2017). Gender norms may be 'weaponised' in a similar vein, especially though use of GBV. Across Central America, discrimination and GBV has become normalised to the point that society has rendered it nearly invisible. Women in this region experience violence and discrimination in private and public spheres, including in their intimate relationships and in the community and state institutions (López and Bradley, 2017). These overlapping and intersecting layers of discrimination have placed women at a disadvantage in their fight against state and non-state actors in their defence of the environment. WEHRDs, as caretakers of the home and family, also often face a double burden when they assume roles as full-time activists. Some activist mothers, for example, are repeatedly stigmatised, ostracised from their communities and labelled as 'bad mothers' for leaving their children at home when off working to defend their environment and community (Hurtes, 2018). In other cases, WEHRDs are threatened with having their children taken away (Hurtes, 2018). These types of threats can have long-lasting effects for young women, their families and communities, as well as environmental defence.

Additional cases come from parts of Africa, where women defenders may be characterised as being non-submissive, an unattractive quality for men looking for a romantic partner in some cultures. In rural Kenya, where many believe that marriage often provides women greater financial stability, stigmatisation becomes a form of control and violence against women (Angel & Kihara, 2017). A study on the criminalisation of HRDs, including those defending against land grabbing and extractives, emphasised that women experience targeted psychological GBV when police rounded women up, called them 'prostitutes' and 'home breakers'. The impacts are compounded when the women are jailed and criminalised for their efforts, as the legal fees they incur can be financially crippling (Angel & Kihara, 2017). In another case, a woman was threatened with cyber GBV, being told a doctored nude photo of her would be circulated online. The victim recounted, "I was really scared. This information goes to the family and people like me with a daughter are very cautious in case she hears what people are saying" (Angel & Kihara, 2017, p. 20).

### 6.1.4 *Indigenous women defenders and gender-based violence*

Indigenous communities are often on the frontlines of defending their territories, resources and rights from extractive projects and corporate interests (Wijdekop, 2017a). Across the globe, many indigenous women join this fight, facing intersecting and reinforcing forms of gender-based and other violence, due to a long history of discrimination associated with racism, socio-economic and political marginalisation. The GBV experienced by WEHRDs can often be exacerbated when it intersects with racial and ethnic discrimination.

In Guatemala, indigenous communities, which make up 60 per cent of the national population, often find themselves in defence of their territories against extractive interests (Carlsen, 2014). The country has also experienced a startling rise in GBV, particularly against indigenous women (Carlsen, 2014). As argued in a publication from Just Associates (JASS), the absence of sex-disaggregated data in national census records on indigenous communities suggests that indigenous Guatemalan women face various forms of institutionalised racism and sexism as the lack of data and national legal recognition presents indigenous women with heightened barriers to public services and participation in decision making. These further exacerbate a lack of awareness of their rights, making them more vulnerable to GBV in defence of their environment (Carlsen, 2014). This "nameless and faceless" treatment reinforces systemic racism and sexism that makes indigenous WEHRDs acutely vulnerable to threats and attacks (Barcia, 2017). An indigenous defender from Guatemala explains:

> ***"When they threaten me, they say that they will kill me, but before they kill me, they will rape me. They don't say that to my male colleagues. These threats are very specific to indigenous women. There is also a very strong racism against us. They refer to us as those rebel Indian women that have nothing to do, and they consider us less human."***
>
> (Barcia, 2017, p. 14)

One of the most recent incidents of violence against indigenous WEHRDs in Latin America that received international attention was the case of world-known indigenous leader Berta Isabel Cáceres, a Honduran environmental activist who actively worked to stop the construction of an internationally

financed hydroelectric dam on the Gualcarque River, an area held sacred by the indigenous Lenca people (Lakhani, 2018). After enduring years of gender-based harassment, threats and various forms of violence, Cáceres was assassinated in 2016 by a group of armed men who ambushed her home (López & Bradley, 2017). Seven men were convicted in 2018 for her assassination, yet the 'masterminds' of the crime – those who ordered and orchestrated her murder – have yet to be brought to justice (Lakhani, 2018).

## 6.2 Ways forward

In the course of developing this paper, researchers noticed that the accounts of violence perpetrated against women and men environmental human rights defenders multiplied almost daily. Blogs, social media and other forms of communications used especially by civil society to document experiences and attacks are increasing rapidly, suggesting the situation is increasingly urgent. Information specific to GBV is scarce, however, and even scarcer with regard to best-practice interventions. The situation requires immediate attention from all who support human rights, gender equality, indigenous peoples, conservation and sustainable development communities, among others.

The following are some examples of entry points and sample interventions on GBV that were reviewed as part of this research. While not exhaustive, these provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward on addressing GBV in protections and advocacy related to women and men EHRDs (complemented by recommendations to address gaps in Chapter 8).

### *6.2.1 Empower women environmental human rights defenders, ensuring their representation and protection*

Eliminating GBV and discrimination against WEHRDs and strengthening their voice in defence of the environmental is critical for achieving an equitable society that allows for resources and benefits to be shared and sustained among all. Fundamentally, the multiple layers of discrimination faced by WEHRDs place them in lower positions of power. When women and other EHRDs remain silenced, transnational corporations' control over resources and governments' backing of their interests permeates society and reinforces impunity. When women step outside of their traditional roles and speak up against these powerful economic interests to combat discrimination and marginalisation

to rightfully uphold their rights, the collision of power places them at extreme risk. The various forms of violence inflicted on WEHRDs and the violation of their rights not only affect the lives of WEHRDs and their communities, but have broader implications for sustainable development and preservation of biodiversity that sustains all life.

Women's relative lack of political power and participation in decision making regarding their communities, natural resources and territories have exposed them to differentiated violence, threats and intimidation in their defence of the environment. Drawing references from across women's empowerment and gender equality spheres and strategies, stakeholders engaged in promoting and protecting the work of women and men EHRDs should pay careful attention to women defenders' needs and capacities, as well as women's empowerment interventions and tools, to understand gender-differentiated dimensions and issues, particularly around GBV. Work along these lines is nascent but growing (see Box 18). Legal protections for WEHRDs already exist or are emerging in many countries. These can be promoted to raise awareness and encourage uptake of similar protections in other countries, increasing women's agency and their participation in formal and informal decision-making structures related to natural resource management and lessening violence against them (UN Women, 2013).

### *6.2.2 Leverage policy frameworks for increased attention to and resources for women environmental human rights defenders*

There is increasing international recognition of and support to protect environmental defenders, including through a UN landmark resolution (UNHRC, 2019a), which flags GBV specifically as an escalating concern. This attention is significant toward influencing and advancing the development of international legal mechanisms for the protection of these defenders (Wijdekop, 2017a), as well as improving possibilities for rights-based, gender-responsive implementation of other relevant agreements.

For example, the 2018 Escazú Agreement for Latin America and the Caribbean is the only legally binding agreement stemming from the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) and the first of its kind to include a binding provision for the promotion and protection of human rights defenders in environmental issues (Bárcena, 2018). While significant in furthering legal protection for EHRDs for the 14 signatories in the region, the Agreement does not include explicit mention of GBV against defenders. It is a starting point

for further action, however, as equitable access to information, participation processes and justice are important foundations to address protecting EHRDs from human rights, including GBV, abuses. Other regions and countries can and should follow suit to increase legal protections for EHRDs, with increased attention to gender considerations and GBV facing EHRDs.

With more legal protection, and agreements that call for it, more funds can be channeled into supporting EHRDs. Currently, some funders explicitly target their support for women and men EHRDs, including the Fund for Global Human Rights, Urgent Action Fund and Fondo Mujeres del Sur, which have implemented projects across Latin America and the Pacific (Dobson, et al., 2014). The Spotlight Initiative, a global multi-year partnership between the European Union and the United Nations to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls by 2030, provides another set of powerful entry points for supporting women human rights defenders' organisations to advance their human rights agenda, including in the defence of the environment (EU & UN, 2018). These and other cross-sector efforts indicate the imperative of intersectional approaches to tackle GBV and environment considerations, together.

## Box 18. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Increasing understanding of the situation of WEHRDs through data collection and dissemination

Since 2012, various Latin American feminist organisations and coalitions have developed conceptual frameworks and methodologies for addressing violence against WEHRDs, as well as contributed to significant media coverage. IM-Defensoras – the Mesoamerican Women Human Rights Defenders Initiative – is working to understand, fight and protect WEHRDs in the region. It notes that there is still much work to be done in understanding the trends in human rights violations against WEHRDs from an intersectionality approach, which focuses on vulnerability and risk associated with dimensions of ethnicity, class, location, age and sexual orientation, among others (Osorio et al., 2016). Its data, for example, was used in this chapter. Nevertheless, collection and dissemination of sex-disaggregated data contributes significantly to understanding of the complexity of the situation faced by women and men defenders.

### Pursuing legally binding agreements to protect women and men defenders from violence

Work towards securing legal protections with a gender perspective is underway. The UNHRC adopted a legally binding instrument on business activities and human rights to regulate the activities of transnational corporations and other business enterprises in order to protect the victims of human rights violations and abuses, including women and men EHRDs (UNHRC, 2019b). In its 2019 resolution, the UNHRC emphasises that it:

> *"... Continues to express particular concern about systemic and structural discrimination and violence faced by women human rights defenders of all ages, including sexual and gender-based violence, and calls upon States to take appropriate, robust and practical steps to protect women human rights defenders and to integrate a gender perspective into their efforts to investigate threats and attacks against human rights defenders, and to create a safe and enabling environment for the defence of human rights, as called for by the General Assembly in its resolutions 68/181 and 72/247"* (UNHRC, 2019b, pp.4-5).

This legally binding instrument encourages governments towards addressing the use of GBV against WHRDs and can provide an accountability mechanism for environmental programmes to follow.

Source: Authors.

## Suggested resources and tools 6. Gender-based violence and environmental defenders

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Claiming Rights, Claiming Justice: A Guidebook on Women Human Rights Defenders (APWLD, 2007) | A tool for WHRDs to claim rights and claim justice, to empower them further in their role as defenders. This guidebook details the types of violations experienced by WHRDs and explains how to document these, in order to develop protection mechanisms that are more responsive to their needs. |
| Environmental defenders and their recognition under international and regional law – An introduction (Wijdekop, 2017a) | Discusses and presents the status of environmental defenders globally and their rights within current international and regional frameworks, and addresses gaps in their protection and what is needed at the national and international level to preserve their rights and ensure their protection. |
| Human Rights Obligations of Transnational Corporations in Tort Law (Wijdekop, 2017b) | Examines the role national tort law can play in establishing a duty of care for Transnational Corporations (TNCs) to respect human rights, and secondly, in establishing the liability of TNCs in case these human rights are violated. |
| Impunity of violence against women defenders of territories, common goods and nature in Latin America: regional report (Spanish) (UAF-LA, 2018) | Highlights the need for a more feminist and intersectional approach in documenting the work of WEHRDs. The report underlines the alarming situation of 13 women activists in nine countries, who are subjected to criminal charges, threats, attacks, and various other forms of harassment. It documents their battle against impunity and the failure of the judicial system to properly litigate crimes and bring criminals to justice. |
| The United States National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (The White House, 2016) | Outlines the United States' action plan "to accelerate, institutionalise, and better coordinate efforts to advance women's inclusion in peace negotiations, peacebuilding activities, and conflict prevention; to protect women from gender-based violence (GBV); and to ensure equal access to relief and recovery assistance, in areas of conflict and insecurity." |

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# 7.

# Gender-based violence in environmental work and workplaces

***"I've thought about reporting it and then I was like, why? He won't be held accountable for change. It would be on me, and it would be something like, ' You need to take that less personally.'"***

Anonymous woman in conservation leadership

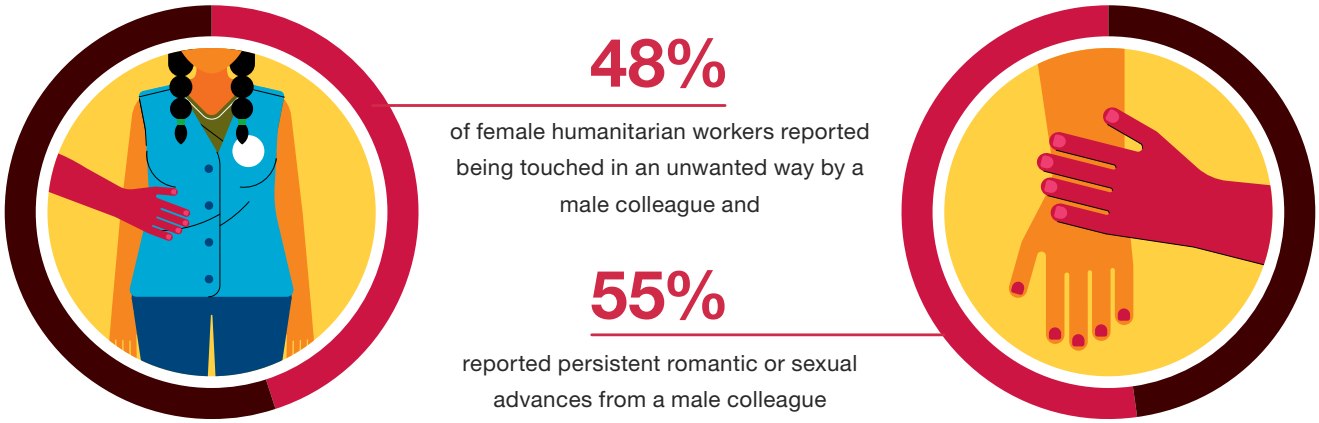
(Jones & Solomon, 2019a)

## The heart of the matter

- Gender-based discrimination and abuses in the workplace control and shape the roles that women fill, including affecting opportunities for advancement and fostering assumptions about competencies; such systematic discrimination and harassment of women can further lead to or enable other forms of gender-based violence, especially in remote areas where women face greater difficulties to report incidents.
- A culture of impunity and fear of retaliation against victims that report instances of gender-based violence exacerbates the cycle of discrimination and abuse in the workplace.
- Intersecting gender-based violence in environmental work and workplaces affect staffing, strategies, beneficiaries and results of programming.
- Environmental organisations and work – that is, interventions to protect and conserve the environment – can exacerbate gender inequality and gender-based violence in particular if gender-blind approaches are the norm to projects and programming.
- It is necessary to understand the gender-based violence that may be instigated, exacerbated or ignored by environmental projects and programmes to ensure that conservation and sustainable development organisations and initiatives take proactive steps to address gender-based violence, both, “inside the house”, and in the communities they seek to serve and support.

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a global problem rooted in structural gender inequalities, patriarchy and power imbalances that occurs in public and private settings, including in the workplace (USAID, 2016). According to one report, “it is estimated that no less than 75 per cent of the world’s 2.7 billion women aged 18 years and older, or at least 2 billion women, have been sexually harassed” (Chamie, 2018). This means that GBV, at least in some form, has affected a majority of working-age women as it impacts all spheres of their life, including employment. At the workplace, patterns of inequality and discrimination are often surrounded by a culture of acceptance that reinforce them and can lead to instances of violence and harassment, including GBV. Risks are particularly present when women discriminated against at work, particularly in those sectors that are considered ‘male-dominated’, such as environmental sectors. For example, in Asia, men dominate “most conservation and environmental management activities” (Nafi et al, 2018, p.1) and similar trends are found in Melanesia (Hausheer, 2016). Further trends were studied by IUCN in 2015 across Ecuador, Liberia and the Philippines (IUCN & CI, 2015). In the United States, research also suggests that “men

are still more likely than females to occupy the most powerful positions in environmental organisations" (Taylor, 2014, p.1).[1]




**Data from:** Humanitarian Women's Network (2016). **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 17. Gender-based violence by colleagues in the humanitarian sector**

Analysis of violence in the workplace has generally been consistent for certain sectors, including health, education, domestic work, transport, agriculture and workers in the informal economy. However, most international and national organisations conducting these types of analyses have not explicitly addressed the environmental sector. While it is difficult to find analyses specific to instances of GBV in environmental organisations, looking at the data for related organisations, it is clear that the experience of GBV in the workplace is widespread. Among them are those with a focus in humanitarian settings and disaster relief, or whose portfolios include environmental-related projects. One survey conducted by the Humanitarian Women's Network (2016) found that 48 per cent of female humanitarian workers reported being touched in

1 The study found that 70 per cent of presidents and chairs of boards of conservation and preservation organisations are male. Furthermore, at conservation and preservation organisations with budgets larger than US$ 1 million, men hold 90 per cent of presidencies.

an unwanted way by a male colleague and 55 per cent have experienced persistent romantic or sexual advances from a male colleague (see Figure 17).

These experiences happen around the world, as demonstrated by a study of women in conservation positions throughout the United States. Participants recount being sexually harassed at work, with organisations "tacitly tolerating this":

> *Many participants emphasised that this occurred across asymmetries in formal and age-related authority, through which older men in senior leadership roles harass younger, more junior women. Some participants in their 40s and 50s reported that although they were no longer objects of harassment, they were still sometimes expected to listen to male colleagues' sexual comments about other women. Several mentioned that sexual harassment was more egregious when doing fieldwork (Jones & Solomon, 2019b, p. 5).*

Discrimination based on gender, as well as age, race, ethnicity, cultural and social norms at the workplace is also replicated in the field in which environmental and conservation projects take place. As mentioned in previous chapters, the systematic discrimination of women related to the access, use, management and benefit from land and natural resources puts them in a more vulnerable position to further discrimination and abuses of power, including gender-based violence. These are the interlinked issues comprising this chapter.

## 7.1 Violence and harassment at the workplace in the environmental sector

### *7.1.1 Setting the context: Inequality and discrimination at work increases gender-based violence risks*

Discrimination, abuse of power relations, and gender, cultural and social norms have been recognised by ILO as hazards and risks that support and increase the likelihood of violence and harassment at work (ILO, 2019a). A study on the situation of women water professionals in the water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) sector in South Asia found that women rarely surpass 5 per cent in technical posts and are rarely found in senior positions. Their low participation is caused by multiple discriminatory dynamics, including customary norms around

gender: the perception of the water sector as being only suitable for boys; the need for women to prove themselves more than men; or being restricted from doing fieldwork and relegated to unchallenging deskwork. These conditions in turn create environments of permissibility for GBV, where women working in the WASH project also cite psychological GBV in the form of verbal harassment targeting their looks and the way they dress (SaciWATERs, 2011).

In light of the pervasiveness of violence and harassment at work, ILO has for the first time adopted the *Convention 190 concerning the Elimination of Violence and Harassment in the World of Work*, including gender-based abuses (see Definition Box 12). Adopted in 2019, the Violence and Harassment Convention is a binding document which acknowledges that GBV and harassment disproportionately affect women and girls and recognises that "an inclusive, integrated and gender-responsive approach, which tackles underlying causes and risk factors, including gender stereotypes, multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination, and unequal gender-based power relations, is essential to ending violence and harassment in the world of work" (ILO, 2019b, p. 4).

As noted in the American Sociological Review, "robust scholarly literature ties harassment to gender inequalities and other forms of workplace discrimination" as "sexual harassment can serve as an equaliser against women… motivated more by control and domination than by sexual desire" (McLaughlin et al., 2012, p. 625). Across many contexts, men in senior positions may use the challenges that women can face when working in specific sites, such as the lack of gender-segregated toilets, transportation and security, as an excuse to prevent them from advancing in their careers (SaciWATERs, 2011). Case studies and reports gathered for this paper demonstrate that this is a global attitude. A report from Nepal, for example, found that men exclude women from leadership posts, claiming that they cannot face the tough situations that fighting timber smugglers entails (Himawanti Nepal, n.d). In Argentina, one member of the fire brigade stated that she had been excluded from fieldwork and denied the proper equipment for it explicitly because of her gender (El Cordillerano, 2016). One case from Peru, for example, explained how marine biologists in the coast of Ica were not granted promotions because the positions they sought entailed working with local fishermen, "(…) and women are not [considered] strong enough…" (Case Study SP33).

**Definition Box 12.**
**Key terms for workplace violence and harassment**

**Violence and harassment** in the world of work as "a range of unacceptable behaviours and practices, or threats thereof, whether a single occurrence or repeated, that aim at, result in, or are likely to result in physical, psychological, sexual or economic harm, and includes gender-based violence and harassment."

**Gender-based violence and harassment** consists of "violence and harassment directed at persons because of their sex or gender, or affecting persons of a particular sex or gender disproportionally, and includes sexual harassment"

Source: ILO, 2019b, p. 4.

> ***"In 2006, I applied for a position to work in the coordination of a project with fishermen but they told me that I could not because I was a woman (...) I have had very capable friends but their doctoral projects included field work and there we had to pass very hard filters because [men] think that a woman is not strong enough to live that experience. It is worse if you have children and forget about it if you're pregnant."***
>
> (Case Study SP33)

In these settings, the prevalence of discriminatory practices can foster a sense of institutional disregard for women's rights and the value that women bring to the sector. Such practices demonstrably seek to control and determine the roles that women fill, including opportunities for advancement and assumptions about competencies. This type of control can trend towards permissibility for forms of violence to occur, including verbal and non-verbal abuse, psychological and sexual harassment, bullying, mobbing and threats (ILO, 2019a). These violations can deeply impact the well-being of individuals, but also affecting their capacities. Such experiences can further include manipulating a person's reputation, isolating the person, withholding information, giving impossible goals and deadlines or assigning tasks that do not match capabilities as a form of retaliation (ILO, 2017).

### *7.1.2 Geographic isolation and accepted discriminatory behaviours further increase gender-based violence risks*

The systematic discrimination and harassment of women at work that fosters gender-based violence is aggravated in remote areas where women face greater difficulties to report incidents. A case study received from Mexico explained that there have been reports of supervisors sexually harassing female volunteers in turtle camps (preservations), where sexual harassment ranged from unwanted flirtatious remarks or direct insinuations, to touching or kissing them without their consent. Women were advised to report the incident. Many were afraid to do so, however, due to the possible retaliation of abusers, and because supervisors gave preference at work to female volunteers who consented to the behaviour (Case Study SP05). The normalisation and acceptance of these types of discrimination and violence reinforce these attitudes and practices.

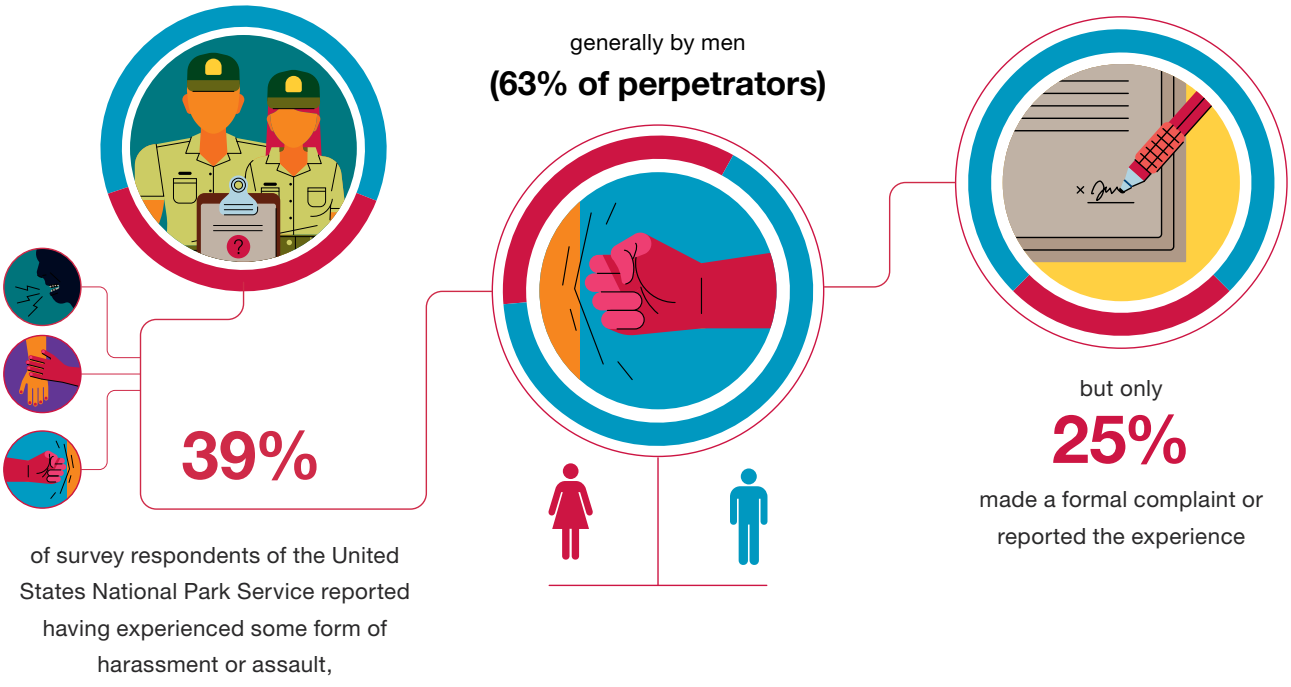
Women rangers face specific GBV risks, which constitutes a global challenge. A work environment survey conducted for the National Park Service of the United States, found that one-fifth of its employees experienced gender harassment, and one-tenth experienced sexual harassment (CFI Group, 2017). The survey also found that "gender harassment was more common for women than men, for employees with a college education than for those without a college education," and that gender harassment was more common in work environments "perceived as being tolerant of these behaviours and where employees witnessed harassment against another employee based on their sex/gender" (CFI Group, 2017, p. vii).

Investigative journalists have noted several key factors that contribute to continued risks for women rangers: "a murky internal process for reporting and investigating complaints; a longstanding culture of machismo that dates to the agency's foundation; and a history of retaliation against those who speak out" (Gilpin, 2016). Similarly, a 2016 report by the U.S. Department of the Interior's Office of Inspector General corroborated 22 witness accounts of sexual harassment, gender discrimination and retaliation by male boatmen and supervisors in the Grand Canyon's River District, finding a "long-term pattern of sexual harassment and hostile work environment" (Office of Inspector General, United States Department of the Interior, 2016, p. 1). A subsequent report investigated if there were unique environmental factors that increase the risk of harassment, including sexual harassment, occurring in the workplace. Among the 12 factors that were found, the following were established within an evidence base: homogenous workforces; coarsened social discourse outside workplaces; decentralised workplaces; workplaces with significant power disparities; and geographically isolated workplaces (Democratic staff of the House Committee on Natural Resources, 2018).

In Southern Africa, a study of three reserves and parks confirms some of these dynamics and contributing factors as relevant to GBV abuses. When the remoteness of workplaces is compounded by men vastly outnumbering women ranger colleagues, along with inadequate housing and facilities, the risk for rape is high. In Drakensberg, which encloses the central Southern African plateau, women were appointed in low numbers, and introduced to communal living quarters, washrooms and kitchens. "We had to deal with cases of male rangers raping female rangers… Obviously these guys are drunk and they have been working for two months without seeing their girlfriends, it is a recipe for disaster, if you know men" (Mathekga, 2017, p. 140).

### 7.1.3 *Multiple layers of discrimination at the workplace lead to higher rates of gender-based harassment and violence*

It is critical to address GBV in the workplace through an intersectional lens that considers discrimination, harassment and violence as anchored in multiple, often overlapping, imbalanced power relationships due to gender, race and ethnicity, disability, health status, sexual orientation, migrant status, age, education and poverty (ILO, 2017). These multiple layers of discrimination are risk factors for violence and harassment in the world of work (ILO, 2019a), as revealed by some surveys on discrimination and harassment at the workplace in the environment sector.




**Data from:** CFI Group (2017).

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 18. A survey result on gender-based violence in national parks**

The work environment survey of the United States National Park Service mentioned earlier is a rare and important study that advances knowledge on GBV issues in conservation activities, It found that 39 per cent of respondents had experienced some form of harassment and/or assault, generally by men (who make up 63 per cent of perpetrators). Further analysis showed that women, sexual minorities, ethnic minorities and younger staff are more

likely to suffer higher rates of harassment than their respective counterparts (CFI Group, 2017). Despite the alarming figures (see Figure 18), only 25 per cent of interviewees made a formal complaint or reported their experience, indicating the power of stigma and fear of retaliatory reprisals (CFI Group, 2017). The study further found that women were discriminated against based on their gender, and that greater discriminations and harassment were faced by young women or women from ethnic minorities (CFI Group, 2017). Key findings included:

- Younger (individuals aged 39 and younger) and older (individuals aged 50 and older) employees were more likely to experience higher rates of harassment based on their age than their middle-aged counterparts (individuals aged 40-49);
- Ethnic minority employees were more likely to experience higher rates of harassment based on their racial or ethnic background than their non-minority counterparts;
- Sexual minority employees were more likely to experience higher rates of harassment based on their sexual orientation than men or their heterosexual counterparts;
- Women and sexual minority employees were more likely to experience higher rates of gender harassment than men or their heterosexual counterparts; and
- Single, disable and women employees, were more likely to experience higher rates of sexual assault-related behaviours than their counterparts. (CFI Group, 2017)

Similar results were found in a recent peer-reviewed study on women's perceptions on how gender roles and minority status have constrained their careers in leadership positions in U.S.-based conservation organisations (Jones & Solomon, 2019b).

In light of these findings, it is important to understand the intersection, or combination, of multiple discriminations and the particular impact on incidents of discrimination and violence toward individuals, as well as their level of comfort in reporting violence and harassment in order to end violence and harassment at the world of work (ILO, 2017). This is particularly true where reports indicate that women from ethnic minorities tend to not have leadership roles. For instance, as previously noted, a report on *The State of Diversity in Environmental Organizations* (Taylor, 2014) found that powerful, decision-making positions in environmental organisations tend to be male-dominated. What it also found is that while some progress has been made towards gender equality, racial diversity is still a major issue in environmental organisations. While white women

are accessing and retaining leadership positions, women (as well as men) from ethnic minorities are concentrated in the lower ranks, occupying less than 12 per cent of the leadership positions in the environmental organisations studied (Taylor, 2014).

### 7.1.4 Inadequate institutional responses to gender-based violence also have impacts on survivors

Women who work in field offices face multiple barriers, when reporting instances of GBV, discrimination and harassment, knowing that it can result in losing their jobs or being transferred. While transferring a staff to a headquarters office, for example, is often pursued as a safety measure and may be appropriate depending on the circumstances, it might be done without the acknowledgment of the staff person's interests or desire to remain in the field. If this is the case, removing a survivor of GBV can re-traumatise and disempower them, disrupt their work and advancement and, when not done in a way that respects their privacy, can lead to a spread of misinformation and rumours among a survivor's colleagues (Nobert, 2017). While women may face increased risks of violence during fieldwork, especially given the remoteness of some work sites, prohibiting women from doing it is counterproductive. Preventing women from doing fieldwork not only means their knowledge and capacity is missing – potentially limiting the efficacy or impact of a project or mission – but it also hinders women's advancement in their careers.

These types of working environments are detrimental both for the institutions and organisations in which it happens, and for the victims. Violence and harassment in the workplace have direct financial implications, such as absenteeism or a high employee turnover. Moreover, there is evidence that employees who suffer violence or harassment in the workplace are more prone to depression, sleeping problems and stress-related disorders (ILO, 2016). A range of lost opportunities is also a result. As the study on women water professionals in the WASH sector in South Asia confirmed, women not only provide a different set of knowledge, values and attitudes but they could also be better in communicating with other women and men, which is key to project implementation. In water projects in Sri Lanka, where the participation of women from local communities was essential, they preferred talking with women engineers than with men (SaciWATERs, 2011).

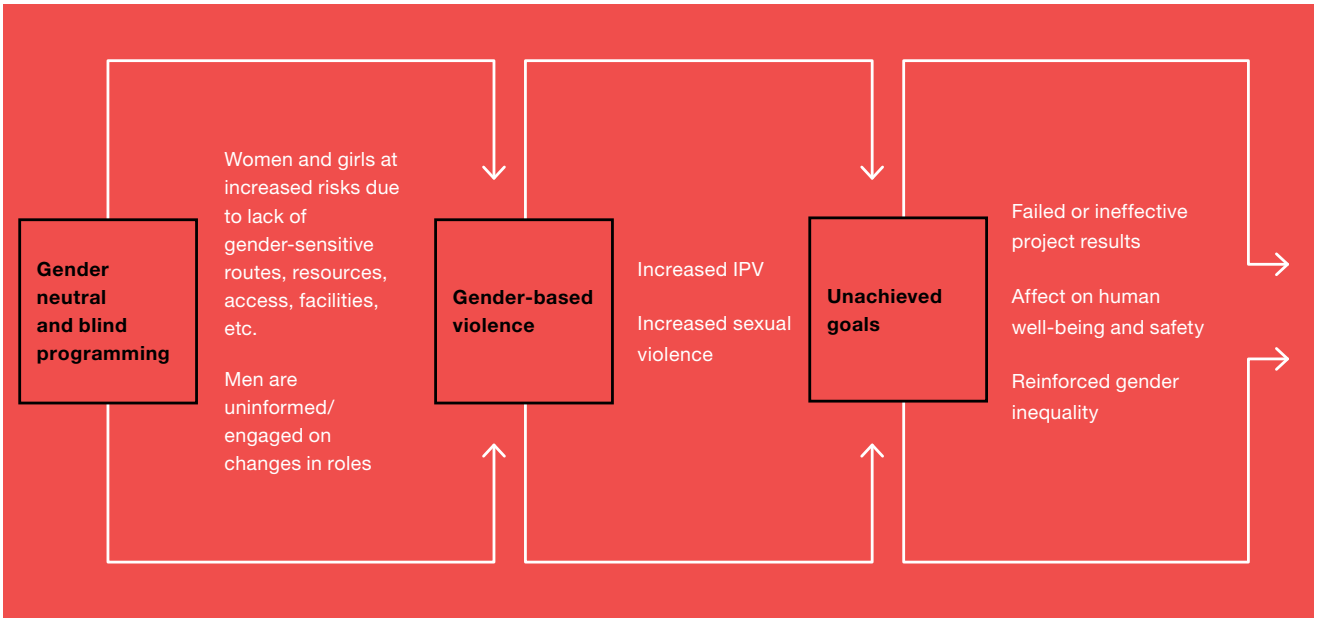
Several investigations and complaints have surfaced in the last few years that reveal a number of incidents involving harassment and concealment and impunity for attacks against women in the environmental sector. Some incidents

have received wide media coverage, such as those involving constant bullying, sexual harassment and abusive behaviour perpetrated by people in management positions. Complaints also stated that there have not been significant or effective changes in institutional practices to address these issues (Belmaker, 2018). In a similar case, workers of another organisation publicly denounced a regional executive director's office, claiming that women had been sexually harassed, psychologically abused and bullied at work. The co-director for the region acknowledged the cases presented and stated that appropriate measures had been taken to address the situation (AP, 2018). In another international conservation organisation, the complaints of discrimination and harassment, including sexual harassment, against employees, especially women, at the hands of some senior staff were initially mishandled by the leadership, yet the contracts of those accused were finally terminated (Colman, 2019). Undermining safety, well-being, health and agency, these experiences create an environment that negatively impact the ability of women to fully advance in and contribute to environmental work and conservation and sustainable development outcomes.

## 7.2 Gender-based violence in environmental work

### *7.2.1 Setting the context: Cyclical impacts of uneven power dynamics*

Conservation and sustainable development efforts offer widespread opportunities to address gender gaps of all kinds, including ending violence against women and girls, and reducing poverty. Likewise, efforts to prevent GBV and promote gender equality can meaningfully contribute to sustainable environments that support long-term well-being toward fundamental realisation and enjoyment of human rights (IUCN, 2018). Unfortunately, the lack of understanding on GBV-environment linkages among environmental and conservation organisations and decision makers means that GBV issues are often not taken into account in programmes, projects and policies (see Chapter 8), risking unintentional exacerbation of local conditions (or in-house organisational conditions) that contribute to GBV.




**Data from:** Authors. **Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

**Figure 19. The risks of gender-neutral and blind environmental programming**

### *7.2.2 Exacerbating gender-based violence, and undermining environmental strategies and outcomes*

Overlooking gender discrimination and GBV dynamics in the local contexts where environmental programmes are implemented can have a negative impact on women's safety and well-being, and be a major obstacle to the success of those initiatives (CARE, 2014) (see Figure 19). In myriad cases, women and girls face violence as a means to keep them from participating, specifically in environmental and conservation activities. This may then limit the viability of those activities along with exacerbating GBV. A GBV-ENV survey respondent from Mexico explained that "[a] woman stopped participating in project activities because her husband got angry when she spent time in environmental conservation activities or ecosystem restoration" (GBV-ENV survey respondent SP33). Another respondent from Kenya mentioned: "[a] woman was beaten by [her] husband for attending [the] community group meeting" (GBV-ENV survey respondent EN53). In Tanzania, a project encouraged the participation of women and men, but did not consider that women could face psychological and social violence by the community because of traditional culturally assigned gender roles:

> ***A woman and a man were selected from a rural village to attend a training on manual drilling in a neighbouring district. The woman attended the training and participated fully. She was the only woman to take part, and when she returned to her village, she had to face unpleasant rumours that she had had sexual relations with men while she was away.***
>
> (House et al., 2014, p. 15)

In light of instances such as these, environmental policymaking and programming needs to take proactive steps to understand gendered social and economic dynamics to avoid exacerbating GBV and to improve conditions (see Chapter 8). Without doing so, environmental interventions, such as the creation and management of protected areas, can have negative unintended impacts on the livelihoods, economies and social dynamics of local communities, and can lead to negative consequences for women and girls. For instance, establishment of some types of protected areas can result in restrictions on resource and land use that can negatively affect local gender dynamics and socio-economic conditions (Tauli-Corpuz et al., 2018). In Mkomazi Game Reserve in Tanzania, the removal of tens of thousands of livestock led to more intra-household conflicts, as men tried to appropriate women's income in the face of greater scarcity (Brockington, 2001). A case from Southeast Asia reported that in response to changes in economic opportunities, a young woman was coerced into sex-related work in communities near a protected area outpost, but despite attempts by the project staff to report the abuse to authorities and engage with a civil society group to support the victim, the incident was ultimately forgotten, since it was seen as 'beyond the scope' of the nature conservation project in question (GBV-ENV survey respondent EN64).

Protected area personnel can also be perpetrators of GBV toward local populations. For example, the UNHRC documented that rangers from the Chitwan National Park in Nepal and military officials designated to patrol the park's premises engaged in sexual violence against Indigenous women from the region (UNHRC, 2009). The risk of assault can be even greater when women access protected areas to collect firewood and other natural resources. A USAID gender assessment in Bangladesh in 2010 identified that women were at risk of being abused by forest guards when collecting firewood from protected areas (Case Study EN23). In these situations, women may be considered illegal loggers, and may face even greater violence and punishment by police (see Chapter 3). Experience with GBV in the context of humanitarian

aid and development projects (see Box 19) also highlights the importance of understanding risks and putting in place proactive measures to prevent and address any abuses in the context of environmental projects.

**Box 19. Lessons learned from the abuse of power by aid and development staff**

Data on abuses of power and perpetration of GBV by staff of environmental and conservation organisations, in particular, is lacking.

The data that is available from humanitarian and development experience highlights the significance of GBV issues and the need for adequate response mechanisms. For instance, the United Nations conducted an internal review and found that in 2016 there were 145 allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse, involving civilians or uniformed personnel, associated with at least 311 victims, 309 of whom were women and girls (UNGA, 2017). Echoing these findings, in West Africa, a report based on focus groups and individual interviews with 1,500 children and adults documented allegations against 40 agencies and 67 individuals. Among those interviewed, a refugee child noted, "it's difficult to escape the trap of those [NGO] people; they use food as bait to get you to have sex with them" (Naik, 2002, p. 18). Findings demonstrate that in West African refugee camps, exploiters were either men in the community with power, money and influence, or humanitarian workers targeting mainly girls, ages 13 to 18. Victims also cite the problem of impunity: reporting violations tended to be met with retaliation from other aid workers (Naik, 2002). Additional reports likewise noted that whistleblowers, rather than perpetrators, end up penalised and blamed for the toxic environment (International Development Committee of the UK Parliament, 2018). An investigative report by *The Times* found that there were several instances of Oxfam employees paying young women for sex, which is illegal in Haiti, and exchanging sex for aid in the aftermath of the earthquake in 2010 (O'Neill, 2018).

Experiences from the humanitarian sector also indicate that underreporting of abuses is a pervasive issue, whether due to fear of retaliation or from lack of infrastructure and resources available to the survivor. This makes the scale of the abuse difficult to define much less tackle (International Development Committee of the UK Parliament, 2018). When incidents do become known, the response can also be episodic, with an intense initial reaction that quickly fades, leading to inadequate implementation of reforms (Edwards, 2017; International Development Committee of the UK Parliament, 2018).

Source: Authors

## 7.3 Ways forward

Sufficient evidence exists that it is well past time to do better as a conservation and sustainable development community. This section offers a few core ideas for immediate steps forward, grounded in the analysis of existing literature, as well as emerging promising practices. While not exhaustive, the examples provide a few core ideas of possible ways forward in addressing GBV in the environmental sector and workplace (complemented by recommendations to address gaps in Chapter 8).

### 7.3.1 Expand knowledge on the institutional dimensions of gender-based violence in the environmental sector

Limited research and awareness on GBV in the environmental workplace makes it difficult for those experiencing violence to safely access resources and support. For those experiencing violence in the workplace, there may be barriers to reporting these incidents, including fear of retaliatory actions and loss of career opportunities, which is compounded by patterns of gender discrimination that also contribute to a misperception of what women are capable of in a workplace. Moreover, research that does exist across sectors, or in the environmental field in particular, rarely includes other intersecting dimensions of identity and experience, including race, ethnicity, age and sexual orientation, among others, that can impact prevalence of GBV, as well as willingness and ability to seek justice. Continued research to build the knowledge base around GBV dimensions in environmental workplaces is critical to unlocking progress in the direction of women's economic empowerment goals, together with environmental ones, by raising awareness and sharing information on this important issue that can inform effective policies and guidelines for addressing violence in the workplace.

Another area of concern is organisational and institutional staff abusing their power and position in communities to exploit and perpetrate GBV. While most of the well-known instances come from organisations that have a broader portfolio outside of environment and conservation, it is clear that this issue is pervasive and underreporting is a major barrier to fully understanding abusive power relations in environmental and conservation projects. More research is needed to better understand the incidence of GBV while implementing environment projects as well as its causes, perpetrators and consequences. The development of guidance for effective safeguards and policies to proactively address this exploitation and hold perpetrators accountable is equally necessary.

### 7.3.2 Build support for establishing a legal standard for addressing gender-based violence in the workplace

Violence and harassment in the world of work has devastating effects on individuals, enterprises, economies and entire societies, where national legislation often lacks an integrated approach that properly protects women and men. In light of this situation, the 2016 meeting of Experts on Violence against Women and Men in the World of Work highlighted the urgent need for an international legal standard to address violence and harassment in the

world of work (ILO, 2017). The ILO Violence and Harassment Convention was adopted in 2019 and will enter into force 12 months after two member states have ratified it. This convention clearly articulates that violence and harassment at the world of work is a human rights violation or abuse and provides a clear framework for action and an opportunity to shape the work as a space of respect and dignity, free of violence and harassment (ILO, 2019c). The Convention requires members to adopt laws and regulations to define and prohibit violence and harassment in the world of work, including gender-based violence and harassment and demands employers to take appropriate steps to prevent it (ILO, 2019b). The adoption of Convention 190, as well as Recommendation 206, sends a powerful message since it is the first time that the pervasiveness and unacceptability of violence and harassment, including GBV and harassment, is acknowledged at the international level and a legally-binding instrument is set in place (ILO, 2019c). Signing onto this convention is an important step for Member States, and signals a commitment to leadership on accountability and action toward protecting the rights of women and men in the workplace.

### *7.3.3 Promote structural and institutional measures to mitigate and address gender-based discrimination and violence in work and workplaces*

Effective policies, safeguards and grievance mechanisms in institutions that address gender-based discrimination and violence are a critical component of fostering a safe and respectful working environment. One ongoing study of women in leadership positions in the environmental sector underscores this point. The study interviewed 56 women, representing diverse age range and credentials, with results showing the importance of behaviours modelled by leaders, regardless of their gender, to emphasise a workplace culture "where employees can bring their whole selves to work," as noted by former United States Interior Secretary Sally Jewell (Jones & Solomon, 2019a). Participants in the study cited that "organisational policies on sexual harassment, salary inequity and other issues, and training on topics such as leadership and diversity" (Jones & Solomon, 2019a) have tangibly helped to improve their situations, emphasising that there is a need for "effective strategies for making conservation a more inclusive, empowering, and appealing profession in which to work" (Jones & Solomon, 2019b).

At the institutional level, some organisations anchored in rights-based approaches and conservation objectives are beginning to formulate concerted policies and initiatives to address GBV. The IUCN has devoted increasing

attention and action towards addressing GBV, including by integrating these issues in its 2018 Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Policy. This policy recognises that GBV and violence against women environmental defenders needs special attention and corrective action, and requires projects to take steps to ensure activities do not exacerbate GBV (IUCN, 2018). Additionally, IUCN recently developed an Anti-Harassment Policy, including Bullying and Sexual Harassment, for IUCN Events. This policy outlines steps for addressing harassment at IUCN events, as well as reporting and response procedures, in order to provide a "professional, respectful and harassment-free experience for all Participants" (IUCN, 2019, p. 2). Conservation International (CI) has also begun identifying the need to address GBV in environmental programming and developed a short guidance document to recognise and respond to GBV in community conservation, based on CARE's leading work on addressing, monitoring and mitigating GBV (CARE, 2014; CI, n.d.). USAID, one of the world's largest development and environment partners, includes GBV as a key component of its Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy (USAID, 2012), and has developed a strategy to prevent and respond to GBV in energy and infrastructure projects (O'Neil, et al., 2015). Institutional commitments and mechanisms on mitigating and addressing GBV are critical, and there is a need to ensure sustained attention toward implementation, including through building awareness among conservation donors that these issues require serious investment.

Efforts to address GBV in environmental and conservation programming is also happening at national and local levels. In Peru, for example, Profonanpe (Fondo de Promoción de las Áreas Naturales Protegidas del Perú)[2] has designed and adopted rigorous gender equality policies and social and environmental safeguards for their projects. These safeguards address GBV, labour and working conditions, and discrimination based on gender, age, class and ethnicity (Profonanpe, 2018). (See Box 20 for more examples.)

2 *Fondo de Promoción de las Áreas Naturales Protegidas del Perú* (Peruvian Trust Fund for National Parks and Protected Areas) is a not-for-profit organisation specialising in raising and managing financial resources for the implementation of environmental and conservation programming. For more information, please see their website: http://www.profonanpe.org.pe/en (English) and http://www.profonanpe.org.pe/ (Spanish)

## Box 20. Sample stories and approaches towards change

### Establishing gender-based violence safeguards and minimum standards at institutional and programming level

Addressing issues of violence resulting from programmes and projects, whether unintentional or as a tool or byproduct of abusive power relations, is gaining increasing global attention, driving a necessary change among varied institutions and organisations. One key aspect of addressing the numerous GBV-related challenges and issues in environmental and conservation organisations and their work is to ensure that comprehensive policies and safeguards are in place to both respond to and prevent GBV. For instance, working with 183 Member States, the Global Environment Facility (GEF), one of the largest environmental financing mechanisms, has a gender policy and gender-responsive requirements for financial support (GEF, 2016). In 2018, in part triggered by a profound local incident related to an infrastructure project noted earlier in this chapter, the GEF updated its policy on Environmental and Social Safeguards to address existing gaps, including specifically in relation to Indigenous Peoples rights, labour and working conditions, and GBV, including sexual harassment and abuse. New programmes and projects submitted for GEF financing must comply with the proposed minimum standards and demonstrate that projects have appropriate mechanisms in place to prevent and respond to GBV (GEF, 2018). Below is an excerpt:

#### *Minimum Standard 1: Environmental and Social Assessment, Management and Monitoring*

- Adverse Gender-Related Impacts, Including Gender-Based Violence and Sexual Exploitation and Abuse
  - Any risks or potential adverse impacts on women, men, girls and boys are identified as early as possible as part of project or programme screening and reflected in relevant safeguards instruments, and differentiated by gender where relevant, including adverse impacts on Gender Equality, Gender-Based Violence (GBV), and Sexual Exploitation and Abuse;
  - Discrimination against women or girls, or gender-based discrimination are prevented; and
  - In case incidences of Gender-Based Violence and/or Sexual Exploitation and Abuse occur, there are:
    - Established reporting and response protocols in place, with specific procedures for GBV including confidential reporting with safe and ethical documenting of GBV cases, that indicate when and where to report incidents, and what follow-up actions will be undertaken; and
    - Modalities to provide services and redress to survivors (GEF, 2018, p. 24).

These minimum standards help create a necessary blueprint for implementing agencies and other partner organisations to follow and expand upon, ensuring appropriate capacities, expertise, resources and other enabling conditions are in place. Effective and accountable implementation of this policy within the GEF portfolio will require that implementing agencies and staff are well equipped to address these concerns.

**Empowering survivors: Changing gender norms, promoting women's economic empowerment and improving conservation outcomes in protected areas**

A gender-responsive approach to conservation programming can not only aid and empower GBV survivors, but can also contribute to social transformation and improved environmental outcomes by supporting an alternative economy, as seen through the work of the Endangered Wildlife Trust Initiative (Case Study EN11). In Southern Africa, an all-female anti-poaching unit called *Akashinga*, "The Brave Ones", was created by the International Anti-Poaching Foundation (IAPF) to offer "an alternative approach to the militarised paradigm of 'fortress conservation' which defends colonial boundaries between nature and humans" (IAPF, n.d.). In past years, unit founders established male-dominated, militarised approaches to counter rhino poaching in and around Kruger National Park. However, they noted that although these violent means produced results, they were insufficient and unjust: "I knew what we were doing was not sustainable and not right, we're just holding onto what is left while someone else comes up with a better solution" (Mander, 2019). So in response, an all-women anti-poaching unit for former hunting reserves in Zimbabwe was established – and has proven effective.

Recruitment for the *Akashinga* unit focused exclusively on unemployed single mothers, abandoned wives, sex workers, victims of physical and sexual abuse, wives of imprisoned poachers, widows and orphans. This selection criteria became essential to the success of the programme (IAPF, n.d.). The women proved to be effective environmental stewards, including in comparison to men: when 199 men were selected for anti-poaching training, only three remained at the end of the first day – while after 72 hours of intense training, a mere three of 37 total women dropped out. As founders note, the women they targeted "weren't victims of circumstance, but victims of men" and were better prepared to endure and succeed (Mander, 2019).

After 20 months of operation, there was no corruption among the women rangers, who have predominantly used their income to buy land, build houses and get their families back together (Mander, 2019). At the community level, 62 per cent of operating costs invested in the *Akashinga* model goes into the hands of local villagers, with up to 80 per cent of these benefits at the household level (IAPF, n.d.). While initially rejected by local men, the *Akashinga* command respect, having made 98 arrests without firing a single gunshot by focusing on conflict resolution and relationship building. They have also changed local notions of the roles women can play, becoming inspirational figures for girls and boys alike. As the IAPF remarks, the biggest impediment to scaling this model is funding, with "an unlimited number of women warriors in the making ready to be deployed across the continent who just need the opportunity" (Mander, 2019).

Source: Authors.

### Suggested resources and tools 7. Gender-based violence and environmental work

| Title and author/reference | Description |
|---|---|
| Handbook: Addressing violence and harassment against women in the world of work (ILO & UN Women, 2019) | An extensive publication which provides key concepts regarding violence and harassment in the workplace, an overview of international and regional human rights frameworks that frame this discussion, explores the roles of state and non-state actors in ending violence in the workplace, and promotes nine transformative approaches to ending violence and harassment against women in the workplace. |
| Managing #MeToo: How do your workers feel about harassment? Ask them (Kramer & Harris, 2018) | Part of an eight-part series on mainstreaming GBV prevention and response mechanisms in the workplace, focusing on conducting staff surveys to assess workplace environment. |
| Challenges and supports for women conservation leaders (Jones & Solomon, 2019b) | This study analysed semi-structured interviews with 56 women leaders in conservation organisations across the United States. All reported experiencing or witnessing gender-related challenges, including sexual harassment and GBV. |
| Administrator's Action Alliance for Preventing Sexual Misconduct (USAID, n.d.) | A fact sheet illustrating USAID's commitment toward preventing and addressing sexual exploitation and abuse of beneficiaries, as well as preventing and addressing sexual harassment at the workplace. It provides an overview of goals, actions and next steps for USAID staff and beneficiaries that can also be useful for other environmental and sustainable development organisations planning on adopting internal and external policies to prevent and address GBV. |
| Damien Mander on the Akashinga or "the Brave Ones" (Mander, 2019) | A podcast providing insight on why and how all-women anti-poaching units can empower marginalised women while transforming conservation. |

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Section

# IV

# PATHWAYS FOR CHANGE: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TAKING ACTION

# 8.

# Bridging gaps, taking action: Entry points for addressing gender-based violence and environment links, including for improved environmental programming

***"...[A] small but growing body of rigorously tested interventions demonstrates that preventing [violence against women and girls] is possible and can achieve large effect sizes. The interventions with the most positive findings used multiple, well-integrated approaches and engaged with multiple stakeholders over time. They also addressed underlying risk factors for violence, including social norms regarding gender dynamics and the acceptability of violence..."***

Interventions to prevent or reduce violence against women and girls: a systematic review of reviews

(Arango et al., 2014, p. 2)

This publication aims to establish a knowledge base on GBV across environment-related contexts, collecting research and evidence with a particular lens to inform environmental decision-makers and practitioners. Research findings indicate that understanding the dimensions of GBV-environment interlinkages is critical for effective policy-making, planning and interventions across sectors, as these issues influence one another in various ways that can hinder or even reverse progress. In multiple international and national policy frameworks, donor aid and finance mechanism priorities, as well as organisations' strategies and plans, matters pertaining to both GBV (including prevention of and response to violence) and environment (including conservation and sustainable development) tend to be targeted or crosscutting, but are rarely linked. This masks potential risks, not least the risk of exacerbated violence. Bringing interlinkages into priority focus offers a chance to see things differently, revealing strategic opportunities for new and renewed efforts toward meeting gender equality, environment and development goals.

Building on the issue- and strategy-specific entry points presented in the 'Ways forward' sections of each preceding chapter, this chapter presents overarching gaps identified through the research process that will need to be bridged in order to address GBV-environment links. A wide range of recommendations – identified using a [ 💡 ] in sections to follow – are presented to address gaps, in particular to inform comprehensive, rights-based, gender-responsive environmental policymaking and programming that specifically includes addressing GBV.[1] Entry points especially draw upon insights from the GBV-ENV survey (see Chapter 1), which solicited information and views from diverse gender, GBV and environment-sector practitioners, as well as from expert informants' guidance and literature review.

This chapter is organized into two overarching parts: global and programme levels. Sections present gaps and corresponding entry points for action across a wide range of overlapping areas, from international policy to project cycle considerations. The pressing need for more data, tools and capacity, as well as cross-sector coalition-building to address GBV-environment gaps, is highlighted throughout. Recommendations organised by stakeholders can be found in Annex 2. The bottom line is that numerous opportunities exist for decision-

1 This chapter focuses on environmental decision-making and programming as its primary focus, whereas a wide range of entry points can also be explored for gender equality and GBV target audiences, as mentioned throughout this publication. For example, GBV-focused policies and programmes can increase special attention to environmental issues, actors, policies and plans, as critical entry points for strengthened strategies and results.

makers and stakeholders at all levels to close gaps and strengthen coordinated action to meet interlinked global goals, and to do so without delay.

# 8.1 Global gaps and entry points

## *8.1.1 Leveraging and improving the international policy framework to strengthen attention to gender-based violence and environment links*

An international policy framework established and strengthened over decades connects the importance of gender equality, environmental action and sustainable development – and provides a foundation for decision-making and programming on all related issues.[2] These inextricable links are reinforced in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in the form of SDGs, suggesting that progress toward one goal affects progress toward others. These frameworks present powerful opportunities; and yet, the research suggests that its awareness and application, and significant gaps related to GBV-environment linkages require attention. The situation presents a range of entry points for improved action:

- All stakeholders, from policymakers to practitioners, can understand and champion addressing GBV-environment linkages as intrinsic to meeting the cross-cutting and cross-sectoral goals and targets of the interlinked **SDGs**;
- Decision-makers can use – and continuously improve – **the gender-environment policy framework** for increased and specific attention to addressing GBV as a fundamental gender gap; and
- Countries and stakeholders can use, improve and support environmental frameworks' **Gender Action Plans**, as well as efforts to **harmonise action and resources** to devote attention, capacity and resources to gender-environment issues, which specifically includes GBV.

### Sustainable Development Goals

The current global architecture of the SDGs, which for the first time puts environmental goals on the same level with social and economic ones (IUCN, n.d.), asserts that gender equality is just as key to the achievement

2 For an analysis and overview of the international gender-environment policy framework, see Chapter 2.1 in *Roots for the Future: the Landscape and Way Forward on Gender and Climate Change* (Aguilar et al., 2015), and pages 14–16 in *Gender and environment statistics: Unlocking information for action and measuring SDGs* (UNEP & IUCN, 2018).

of the rest of SDGs as securing environmental sustainability (UN Women, n.d.a). Core steps to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment comprise SDG 5, setting out to tackle major global GBV challenges, as well as strengthening women's access to reproductive healthcare, economic resources and participation in decision making. The goal on gender equality and women's empowerment is moreover meant as crosscutting and central to successful implementation of all other SDGs (UNSD, 2017; UN Women, 2018a). This means that meeting environment-related goals on clean water and sanitation (SDG 6), responsible consumption and production (SDG 12), climate action (SDG 13), and conservation of marine and terrestrial ecosystems (SDGs 14 and 15) will require an understanding of how GBV-related targets under SDG 5 need to be considered for measurable and long-term global progress in 2030. As discussed throughout this chapter, numerous efforts to construct coherent policies, enhance the research and evidence base, fill data gaps, raise awareness and build capacities, target investments and much more, can all aid in a more comprehensive understanding and application of what an interlinked agenda means.

### Gender-environment policy framework

International policy frameworks provide a set of agreements, safeguards and guidelines endorsed by state parties and implemented by varied stakeholders that help guide efforts on diverse issues, including human rights, gender equality, GBV and environment. As the GBV-ENV survey responses show, numerous frameworks can and do inform gender-responsive environmental work (see Figure 20).[3] For example, CEDAW is regularly used as a framework by almost half of the respondents (49 per cent), while 35 per cent refer in their work to UNHRC's *Resolutions on Human Rights and the Environment*. Fewer use, but indeed specifically mention the *Women, Peace and Security Resolution 1325*, which calls upon countries to protect against GBV during conflict (UN Security Council, 2000). Environment decision makers and programmes can employ these agreements and their varied recommendations for development and deployment of more rights-based approaches that address GBV.

3 The GBV-ENV survey posed a range of specific questions, plus provided space for respondents to fill with their own answers.

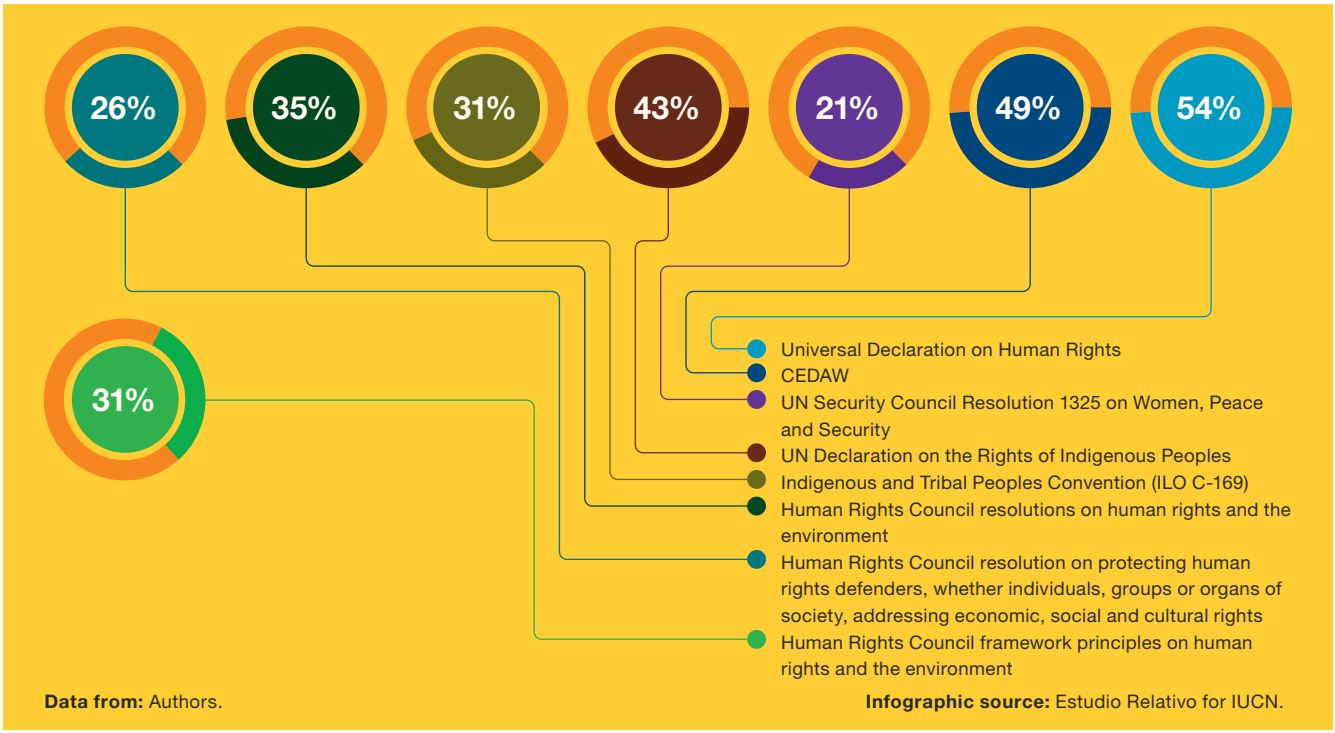


**Figure 20. Percentage of responses showing the application of grounding gender-responsive environmental work in major international frameworks and agreements**

### Recalling and using key frameworks to guide gender-responsive policy-making, financing and programming which address GBV-environment linkages

While far from an exhaustive list, the following policy frameworks and the others flagged throughout this publication are some of the major resources and powerful tools to enable further GBV-responsive decision-making, programming and action across environment and sustainable development spheres.

#### Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

A core human rights framework adopted in 1979, the CEDAW continues to be a driving force for striving to end violence against women and furthering women's rights and gender equality across sectors, including relating to environment issues. One of CEDAW's mandate is to make clear that women's involvement in decision-making is critical to addressing GBV (UNGA, 1979; Swaine & O'Rourke, 2015).

The CEDAW Committee monitors implementation and provides General Recommendations to States (and stakeholders) to identify and strengthen action on key issues. For example, the Committee adopted *General Recommendation 35* in 2017, which focuses on changing the social norms and laws that "directly and indirectly excuse, condone, and facilitate" GBV (OHCHR, 2017), specifically mentioning that GBV is affected by, *inter alia*, natural disasters and natural resource destruction and degradation (CEDAW, 2017). The Committee then adopted *General Recommendation 37* on gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change (CEDAW, 2018). Emphasising

the exacerbation of sexual violence in the aftermath of disasters, CEDAW recommends a wide range of interventions by States and other stakeholders, paying special attention to issues of child marriage among others. For example, the Committee advises States to:

a. Develop policies and programmes to address existing and new risk factors for gender-based violence against women, within the context of disaster risk reduction and climate change and promote women's participation and leadership in their development, including domestic violence, sexual violence, economic violence, human trafficking and forced marriage;
b. Ensure that the minimum legal age for marriage is 18 years, for both women and men. States should include training on the prevalence of child and forced marriage for all personnel involved in disaster response activities (…) [and] mechanisms should be established within local and regional disaster management plans to prevent, monitor and address the issue of child and forced marriage;
c. Provide accessible, confidential, supportive and effective mechanisms for all women wishing to report gender-based violence;
d. Develop (…) a system of regular monitoring and evaluation of interventions designed to prevent and respond to gender-based violence against women within disaster risk reduction and climate change programmes;
e. Provide training, sensitization and awareness-raising for authorities, emergency services workers and other groups on the different forms of gender-based violence that are prevalent in situations of disaster and how to prevent and address these (…)
f. Adopt long-term policies and strategies to address the root causes of gender-based violence against women in disasters, including by engaging with men and boys, (…) to identify and eliminate social and cultural stereotypes concerning the status of women. (CEDAW, 2018, pp. 15–16)

### The Beijing Platform for Action

The Beijing Platform for Action agreed in 1995 is another landmark framework that makes clear connection between gender and environment issues and informs countries' and organisations' gender-environment efforts. The Platform centres around 12 areas of concern, including violence against women, stating that GBV "impairs or nullifies the enjoyment by women of their human rights and fundamental freedoms. The long-standing failure to protect and promote those rights and freedoms in the case of violence against women is a matter of concern to all States and should be addressed" (UN, 1995, p. 48). A specific section on women and the environment addresses how women are affected by climate change and how to include women's voices more effectively in environmental planning and management (UN, 1995).

### United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples

International frameworks that address the rights of Indigenous Peoples are also essential to consider for recognising the intersection of gender inequality, GBV and environmental issues. The 2007 United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples focuses on the political, economic, and social rights of Indigenous Peoples and incorporates a focus on land tenure issues and on women and other vulnerable groups as climate change progresses (UNFPA & WEDO, 2009). The Declaration states in Article 22: "States shall take measures, in conjunction with [I]ndigenous [P]eople[s], to ensure that [I]ndigenous women and children enjoy the full protection and guarantees against all forms of violence and discrimination" (UN, 2007, p. 9). The 2018 *Report of the UN Special Rapporteur on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples* specifically highlights the threat to indigenous peoples because of intensified competition over the exploitation of natural resources:

> *The Special Rapporteur on the rights of [I]ndigenous [P]eoples is gravely concerned at the drastic increase in attacks and acts of violence against, criminalization of and threats aimed at [I]ndigenous [P]eoples, particularly those arising in the context of large-scale projects involving extractive industries, agribusiness, infrastructure, hydroelectric dams and logging. (UNHRC, 2018, p. 3)*

### Gender mandates and action plans

Over recent years, gender considerations have been steadily incorporated through parties' decisions across major multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs), such as: the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD), the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), together referred to as Rio Conventions; the Basel, Rotterdam and Stockholm (BRS) Conventions; as well as the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands. Parties to most of these MEAs have adopted Gender Action Plans (GAPs) to aid and guide implementation of gender mandates and are regularly reviewed and updated in order to continue strengthening their work and influence (UNEP, 2014; UNCCD, 2017; UNFCCC, 2018; BRS, 2019).[4] The adoption of GAPs to strengthen action on gender equality across the environmental policy landscape represents an international recognition of the importance of gender integration and gender-responsive programming so as to effectively achieve environmental goals, and about a third of GBV-ENV survey respondents note using them. These GAPs can provide a framework for the specific inclusion of GBV considerations within environmental programming, key to better understanding the intersections, raising awareness, improving capacities and allocating resources – including toward harmonised action and results. They can include, for example, the possibility for integrating GBV considerations in countries' reporting, data collection and actions to meet commitments of the respective agreements, among others.

## *8.1.2 Ensuring environment and sustainable development funding contributes toward addressing gender-based violence*

Today, all major environment funds and finance mechanisms, including the major climate finance mechanisms, incorporate gender in their work in some way – for example through policies and gender action plans and in their criteria for accessing resources (Adaptation Fund, 2016a; CIF, 2018; GCF, 2018a; GEF, 2018). While specific attention to GBV has been scarce to date, new mandates are bringing GBV issues quickly into focus, presenting an important opportunity for countries and implementing organisations, as well as donors, to improve their knowledge and capacities to address GBV in environment and sustainable development efforts at multiple levels.

4 The Ramsar Convention on Wetlands does not have a GAP as of the date of this publication, but has adopted a new gender resolution (Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, 2018).

- Environmental funding mechanisms and donors can increase attention to GBV, ensure clear **criteria** and expectations for addressing GBV and allocate a minimum requirement of **GBV-responsive resources**;
- Countries and implementing organisations receiving funds can improve **knowledge and capacities** to address GBV, including by establishing **protocols** and responsive mechanisms;
- Donors can support countries and implementing organisations to access **information** and **skills** to address GBV, including through supporting **guidelines** development and providing resources to work with **GBV experts**; and
- Sustainable development-focused and sector-specific funders can develop, and work together to develop, **funding opportunities** to research, build skills and address GBV-environment linkages specifically.

The Global Environment Facility (GEF) Policy on Gender Equality is explicitly gender-responsive, for example, stating that "equality for women and girls is a strategic and operational imperative for the GEF" (GEF, 2017, p. 2). The GEF further requires that any risks to women, men, girls and boys be identified as early as possible in the screening and safeguards, including establishing reporting and response protocols for GBV (GEF, 2018). The GEF's recently updated Policy on Environmental and Social Safeguards includes minimum standards to prevent and respond to GBV, sexual exploitation and abuse in the project cycle and at the workplace (GEF, 2018). The Environmental and Social Policies of both the Green Climate Fund (GCF) and the Adaptation Fund include the principles of gender equality and non-discrimination at work, as per ILO's standards (Adaptation Fund, 2016b; GCF, 2018b). Further steps to specifically address GBV can provide guidance and criteria for programming, as well.

To obtain financial support from these mechanisms, implementing countries and agencies agree to these minimum standards when implementing projects and have a responsibility to monitor, track and ensure that these standards are upheld. Given the wide reach and influence of these mechanisms toward shaping the design, implementation and monitoring of programmes and projects, integrating GBV fully within mandates and policies of these and other mechanisms, such as those of regional development banks, is important for fostering global progress on recognising and taking action on GBV-environment linkages.

### 💡 Accelerating attention to GBV-environment links through development and donor strategies and funds

Development agencies and donors have an important role to play in guiding and investing in implementation towards meeting countries' priority goals, including sustainable development and poverty reduction. For example, as the world's largest agency for international development, USAID and its partners have led the global development community with strong women's empowerment and gender equality mandates, including through a Global Strategy on GBV (USAID, 2016). By supporting this research, USAID is also taking steps to bridge knowledge, capacity and implementation gaps on GBV-environment links, which other donors can also support.

Donor and development partners strategies offer a useful lens through which to view GBV-environment links – and offer opportunities to increase attention to them. USAID Country Development Cooperation Strategies (CDCS) and Regional Development Cooperation Strategies (RDCS), for example, are typically 5-year priority-setting strategies developed by Missions in collaboration with governments (USAID, n.d.). To complement the research that went into this paper, IUCN analysed the CDCS and RDCS portfolio (as of 2018) to map key issues. The analysis showed that gender-environment considerations were, to some extent, mentioned in 56 per cent of documents, with most references making ties to agriculture and food security as a national priority. Seventy-nine per cent of CDCS/RDCS include GBV considerations, but only two of them – those from Rwanda and Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) – make specific link to GBV-environment considerations. Rwanda identifies the links between GBV and family conflict over resources, mainly land, while DRC focuses on GBV used as a weapon of war in the conflict in DRC, linked to mineral extraction (USAID, 2014a; 2015).

While it was outside the scope of this research to review other development agencies' strategies – much less investments and specific activities – conducting similar analyses may offer new opportunities as well.

## *8.1.3 Anchoring attention to gender-based violence in national environmental policies and plans to aid in filling implementation gaps*

Significant progress has been made in recent years to end violence against women and girls. At least 144 countries have passed laws on domestic violence and 154 laws on sexual harassment (UN Women, 2018b). Meanwhile, a wide range of countries have taken considerable steps to improve gender-responsiveness of environment-focused policies and plans, while various countries have increasingly integrated environment considerations (e.g. climate change, ecosystem restoration or addressing biodiversity loss) in gender equality frameworks. However, coherence amongst, implementation of and compliance with these is a persistent challenge – and bringing GBV-environment linkages into spotlight reveals a particular gap. Taking steps to improve attention to GBV in environmental policies and frameworks present plentiful entry points to help bridge awareness, data and implementation gaps.

- National environmental **policies and plans** have taken steps toward gender responsiveness around the world; increased attention to GBV can be an important next step for addressing pervasive gender inequality that acts as a barrier to sustainable development objectives;
- Countries' environment-related **implementation frameworks** – for example, Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) to address climate change or National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans (NBSAPs) – can improve gender responsiveness by paying special attention to GBV;
- Governments and their stakeholders can improve attention to gender considerations, including GBV-specific considerations, in their **national reports** to major environmental frameworks, such as those prepared on biodiversity, protected areas and wetlands, and for increasing awareness, data collection, strategy shaping and resource allocation;
- Countries, as well as varied international and national organisations, can increase priority attention to filling GBV-environment **data gaps**, including through establishing GBV indicators and collecting and disseminating information across sectors; and
- National actors can use the interlinkages focus of the **SDGs framework** to legitimise and substantiate an integrated, rights-based, gender-responsive approach to environmental and sustainable development policies and plans, thus bringing GBV and GBV-environment linkages into greater focus.

Previous chapters have signalled the importance of improving numerous national policies and laws – for example on land, property and inheritance rights – for tackling GBV. As various GBV-ENV survey respondents pointed out, national and local policies and laws often discriminate against women and other commonly disenfranchised groups, especially in areas where patriarchal norms prevail over national legislation. Earlier chapters illustrated, for example, the persistence of child marriage or property grabbing in many countries despite these being illegal practices. These are environment-relevant issues and can take a more prominent place in environment and sustainable development priority-setting.

Research has also shown that GBV is deeply entrenched in socio-cultural norms, with impact across sectors; thus, reasons for implementation gaps of existing GBV policies and laws are widespread. Policies specifically addressing or reflecting links do not yet appear to exist. Anchoring attention to GBV in national environmental and sustainable development priorities, policies and plans, especially those that have already taken steps to be gender responsive, may offer new opportunities to help bridge awareness, data and implementation gaps.

Attention to gender considerations across environmental decision-making and programming at the national level is uneven but gradually increasing, and likely related to international policy trends and increasing donor attention as well (as relevant to sections above). In 2015, IUCN examined gender considerations in national environment decision-making spheres, finding that 25 per cent of environmental sector ministries had a formal gender policy, for example, while 38 per cent of environmental sector ministries included gender considerations in their policies and/or programmes (IUCN, 2015). These are anchors to improve attention specifically to GBV issues.

Numerous countries have also developed or are committed to developing gender-responsive frameworks, strategies and action plans for enhanced conservation and sustainable development results. These can be important launchpads to address GBV as part of a gender-responsive approach – but it requires more specific information, strategies and tools. For example, dozens of countries have developed national Climate Change Gender Action Plans (ccGAPs), as well as gender-responsive REDD+ plans, forest landscape restoration plans and NBSAPs (Aguilar & Owren, 2015; IUCN 2017). Just about half of the countries that have developed NDCs to address climate change have included gender considerations to some extent (IUCN, 2016a). Many of these frameworks help align national gender equality mandates with environmental and sustainable development commitments toward meeting interlinked goals. Still, while some of these plans include GBV as a critical issue – for example by including GBV data and issues in background information – the integration of GBV-specific activities, indicators or resources is scarce. Resources to support countries and their stakeholders to identify GBV issues fundamental to meeting national priorities and plan accordingly can thus be enablers for positive change and for bridging policy and implementation gaps.

**💡 Taking advantage of national environmental reports to increase attention to and information on GBV**

Countries prepare a wide range of national reports on environmental and sustainable development priorities, which are opportunities to identify and include gender considerations, including incidence of GBV. Previous research conducted by IUCN under its Environment and Gender Information (EGI) platform has emphasised the importance of national reports (as well as the guidelines that typically structure them) to key environmental conventions as entry points to identify gender inequality barriers to meeting respective environmental goals. Reports can also track activities and resources countries invest to tackle them. While broadly, substantive attention to gender is still lacking in the majority of these reports, attention to GBV is even rarer.

It was outside the scope of this paper's research to collect and analyse national policies and plans that might reflect GBV-environment linkages, but doing so may reveal opportunities for strategic intervention. In the 2016 assessment of countries' reporting to World Heritage and Ramsar conventions, for example, which are the key frameworks for protected areas and wetlands, it was mentioned that the DRC includes GBV specifically as a threat and issue to address in the context of ongoing national conflict. Noted as particular concerns, GBV prevents women's access to safe resource use and decision-making spheres and interferes with broader conservation goals. The study concluded, among other things, that ensuring protected areas are safe for women may be a prerequisite for gender equality in protected areas conservation and management (IUCN, 2016b).

### *8.1.4 Using indicators to reflect priorities and fill knowledge gaps*

In 2016, UN Environment (UNEP) released the Global Gender and Environment Outlook report, which emphasised that gaping gaps in gender data exist across the environmental sector. The persistence of these gaps makes environmental and sustainable development analyses partial and inadequate, and outcomes all but impossible (UNEP, 2016). Among other things, this suggests that GBV – which is a systemic gender barrier – may remain invisible in gender-blind environmental policymaking and programming. Through various data initiatives, including the indicators framework of the SDGs, significant progress has been made in recent years to collect and use information on gender and specific environment-related issues. However, as research results of this paper has clearly showed, GBV-environment data gaps are so pervasive that a collaborative, multi-stakeholder and cross-sector work, across all levels, to gather and share GBV-environment information, should be considered as among the most pressing of priorities:

- GBV **indicators and data**, such as from the SDGs framework, can be employed and inform environmental policy-making, programming and action; and
- All stakeholders can increase attention to GBV-environment **information**, from formal data gathering and analysis exercises to project-level reporting and documentation.

Eliminating GBV in all its forms is among the priorities of the SDGs framework reflected in the targets of SDG 5 on gender equality (UNSD, 2017). A key target is to "eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation", while another is to eliminate all harmful practices such as child marriage (UNSD, 2017, p. 6). To meet these targets, environmental issues and linkages must come to the fore, which is not yet the case. Gender equality considerations have been included within some SDG targets related to the environment, but not related to GBV (UNEP & IUCN, 2018). The incidence of GBV is measured by two tier II indicators, meaning internationally agreed methodology exists even if widespread country data does not. Environment-focused efforts can contribute, at a minimum, to raising awareness and engagement around the importance of applying the methodology and meeting these targets.

Policy makers and practitioners need data and information analysis for better-informed work and better-realised results. The literature review, case studies collected and responses to the GBV-ENV survey clearly indicate that there are few statistical data and indicators on the intersections between GBV and environmental considerations. The survey found that 58 per cent of respondents specifically indicated that lack of data is a challenge to their efforts (see Figure 21). Where some information and data exist, especially in those areas where work has been done for some decades (e.g. water and firewood collection), the data is predominantly qualitative and based on case studies, news articles or local-level surveys; the majority of information comes from civil society reports at multiple levels, with comprehensive analyses of the causes and consequences of GBV in relation to the environment existing only in few fields. All stakeholders, from researchers to practitioners to donors to decision-makers, can commit to addressing these gaps, as explored further in the following sections.

# 8.2 Programme-level gaps and entry points

## *8.2.1 Improving environmental programming by addressing gender-based violence*

More than half of GBV-ENV survey respondents – 59 per cent – recorded that they had observed GBV taking place in or around environmental programmes and projects in some way or another.[5] As the literature review and other aspects of this research show, there are plentiful opportunities that can and should be embraced to reverse course, such as:

- Organisations can prioritise attention to GBV in **policies and other institutional mechanisms** as part of a rights-based approach;
- Organisations and programmes can commit to building, resourcing, sharing and using **information, awareness-raising tools and capacity-building** strategies to address GBV-environment links;
- Existing **tools and capacity building strategies** can be applied and/or modified to specifically include GBV considerations; and
- Organisations – across levels and sectors, and including local gender and GBV experts – can **work together in strategic alliances** to create positive change and expedite elimination of GBV.

5 Please note that the GBV-ENV survey specifically asked this question; response data thus reflect only the number of people who completed the survey. It would be inaccurate to extrapolate data beyond the survey. Survey respondents noted they had observed GBV (from sexual, physical and psychological violence, to trafficking, sexual harassment, sexual coercion – rape in specific – child marriage linked to environmental crises and more) across issues relating to women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs), environmental migrants and refugees, specifically-listed types of environmental crimes, land tenure and property rights, Indigenous Peoples, protected areas, climate change, energy and infrastructure, extractive industries, water, disaster risk reduction, forestry and biodiversity, and the access, use and control over natural resources of some type in the course of their work to implement environmental and sustainable development projects. The survey provided a definition of GBV in describing the types of violence they reported. Multiple questions and question type were asked to control for accuracy. For instance, open answers were reviewed and validated by authors and research assistants and tick-boxes were provided so respondents could catalogue the type of violence they witness and the gender of the victim/survivor(s). Additional follow-up questions asked respondents to provide details on how GBV impacted the implementation of projects.

### 💡 Understanding a gender-responsive approach as one that can and must address GBV-environment links

GBV can be both a cause and a consequence of environmental degradation, and have direct and indirect effects on individuals and communities, on environmental programming and projects, and at the workplace within environmental agencies. Along these lines, neither GBV nor environmental action, nor their intersections, happen in a vacuum; they are intersected by other factors, such as political, economic, social, cultural and institutional issues, and can be especially exacerbated in specific contexts of natural and humanitarian crises.

A gender-responsive approach is essential to realising rights-based and effective conservation and sustainable development, including as it implies identifying, avoiding, preventing, minimising, mitigating, managing, offsetting or compensating adverse impacts that environmental projects and programmes may have on GBV throughout a project cycle – thereby improving gender equality and enhancing the environmental and social outcomes of projects and programmes.

## Organisational priorities and policies

Despite the existing international and national frameworks on gender and GBV and the varied efforts to integrate gender across the environment sector, significant gaps remain at organisational level that affect implementation. GBV-ENV survey respondents emphasised gaps in knowledge on the GBV-environment linkages and capacities and mandates to address them as among the top challenges to addressing GBV in environment programming (see Figure 21).

The main challenge for environment practitioners, according to 71 per cent of respondents, is the lack of understanding on how GBV relates to their work, while 46 per cent of respondents noted a primary challenge is that GBV is not considered a priority or important for their offices or programmes (see Figure 21). Institutional priority-setting, policy-making and operational and governance structure can all represent entry points to address these gaps. Organisational-level policies, safeguards and other considerations should be aligned and include explicit reference to GBV, such as how the organisation itself and its programmes handle issues and incidents related to GBV experienced by staff, partners and programme beneficiaries (CARE, 2014).

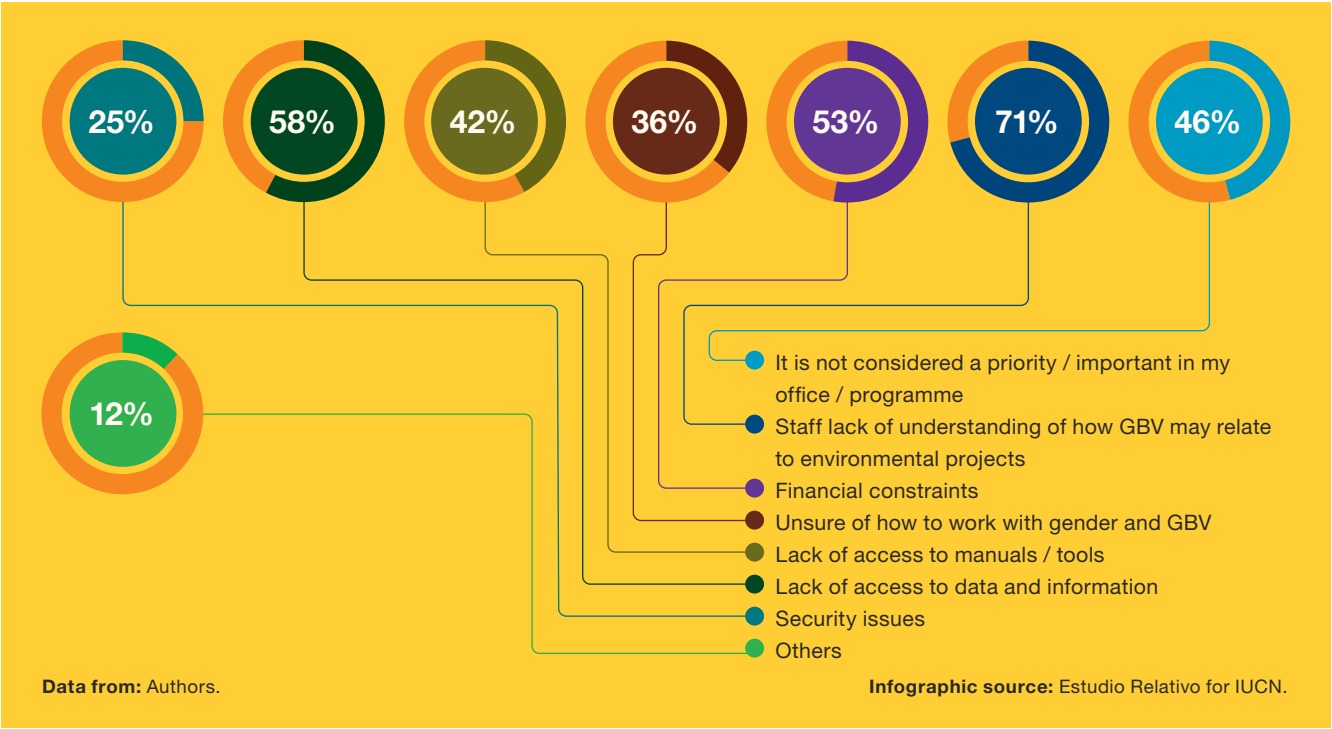


**Figure 21. Challenges to addressing gender-based violence**

Environmental organisations are increasingly paying attention to gender considerations. However, it is only recently that some leading environmental organisations and financial mechanisms are starting to address GBV in particular. Some are including GBV considerations within their policies and safeguards, such as mentioned above related to the GEF. Concurrently with this research, IUCN amended its Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Policy to recognise that GBV and violence against women environmental defenders demand special attention and corrective action, requiring projects to take steps to ensure activities do not exacerbate these conditions (IUCN, 2018). Important guidance for conservation organisations on integrating GBV considerations can also draw from cross-sector best practice; CARE developed guidance materials on monitoring and reducing GBV within non-GBV focused programming (CARE, 2014), for instance, while USAID's leadership in guiding development spheres includes a strategy to prevent and respond to GBV that cuts across its diverse portfolio of thematic work (USAID, 2016).

Even when gender equality and GBV policies are in place and mandatory, meaning that they should be considered in all projects and programmes, sometimes these are not properly implemented, for a great variety of reasons, hindering both potential and existing efforts to address GBV. Options for

addressing gaps are varied, from improving awareness and understanding of GBV-environment connections, to building staff capacity on how to integrate gender and GBV issues in environmental programming, to allocating budget and improving access to information and data (see Figure 23).

Environmental organisations and development agencies that already have gender policies in place may be in an advantageous position to integrate GBV more specifically within them, as they likely already have capacity and expertise on gender, and can work together to build communities of practice and expertise with GBV experts. Cross-office work, for example with safeguards and standards units, may offer strategic opportunities for enhancing attention to GBV-environment issues and protocols for addressing them. Complementarily, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) frameworks, which all major organisations have in place, can be amended to identify and monitor the extent to which GBV-environment issues are identified and addressed. Project development guidance can further ensure that gender-responsive budgets include necessary actions for addressing GBV.

### Information, awareness and capacities

The capacity of an organisation to address GBV within environmental programming or environmental issues within GBV projects largely depends on political will of leadership, along with the knowledge and capacity of its staff and community of members, partners, and/or peers. While research on the GBV-environment linkages is increasing, next-step needs will invariably be around developing tools and guidance to sensitise and train environmental practitioners about the risks and potential missed opportunities when not addressing gender considerations, particularly those that address GBV. Thus, even when an institution may be interested in addressing these intersections, or have gender and GBV policies, they may not have the capacity or knowledge to act and may require specific support.

Almost half of GBV-ENV survey respondents already work on gender and environment links in some way, and yet they note a lack of specific information and expertise on GBV and GBV-environment links as a barrier (see Figure 21). In some cases, the misperception or characterisation of GBV as synonymous with domestic violence is cited as an issue, leading environmental practitioners to think, for example, that GBV is a household matter, irrelevant to their work or not their responsibility to address. Thus, the lack of knowledge regarding these intersections can lead to a cyclical lack of capacity to properly prevent and respond to GBV across the project cycle, even when gender and GBV policies may exist within the institution.

### Tailored training and capacity building

Considerable progress has been made to build gender-responsive capacity of environmental professionals around the world. Many international and national organisations are already developing capacity and tools for environment decision-makers and practitioners on the importance of adopting a gender-responsive perspective in their programming so as to fully achieve gender equality together with environmental conservation and sustainable development. The specific inclusion of and attention to GBV considerations, however, is often missing from trainings and other capacity building methods and tools. Fifty-four per cent of GBV-ENV survey respondents confirmed that they had received training on how to address gender and environment linkages, but only 9 per cent had received training on how to address GBV in environment initiatives. These various efforts are thus important entry points to improve attention to GBV.


**Data from:** Authors.

**Infographic source:** Estudio Relativo for IUCN.

▲

**Figure 22. List of needs to better address gender-based violence – environment links (in order of priority based on survey responses)**

## Tools and guidance

As the GBV-environment knowledge base grows, so too will the need for tailored tools and guidance. Again, recalling the findings of the GBV-ENV survey and a specific question that asked participants to rank needs, respondents cited capacity building, technical support from experts, and manuals and tools as the top needs to address GBV within environmental programming (see Figure 22). Identifying and sharing knowledge and tools across sectors can be invaluable for building upon promising practices. Notable progress has been made in specific areas, such as to support the water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) sector or regarding firewood collection in humanitarian settings, as has been referenced in relevant chapters throughout this paper, which can be further tailored and applied for the environmental arena.

### 💡 Use and adapt existing cross-sector tools to address GBV-environment links

Some organisations have already produced sector-specific tools to address GBV which can inform tailoring guidance geared toward the GBV-environment nexus. UN Women's Virtual Knowledge Centre to End Violence Against Women and Girls (UN Women, n.d.b) provides essential information and guidance for programming to address violence against women and girls, including information on the forms, prevalence and consequences of GBV, international frameworks, main challenges, main strategies for prevention and response, monitoring and evaluation tools and other resources for implementation. While it does not currently include a specific theme related to the environment, innumerable resources are available to guide cross-sector programming.

Additional top examples are listed here, as well as at the end of each preceding chapter:

- Intimate Partner Violence and Land Toolkit (USAID, 2018)
- Violence, gender and WASH practitioners' toolkit (House et al., 2014)
- Building a Safer World: Toolkit for Integrating GBV Prevention and Response into USAID Energy and Infrastructure Projects (O'Neil et al., 2015)
- Toolkit for Integrating Gender-based Violence Prevention and Response into Economic Growth and Trade Projects (USAID, 2014b)
- Toolkit for Latin American Women Human Rights Defenders working on land and environmental issues (Peace Brigades International, 2015)
- Guidance for Gender Based Violence (GBV) Monitoring and Mitigation within Non-GBV Focused Sectoral Programming (CARE, 2014)
- Working with gender-based violence survivors: Reference training manual for frontline staff (UNRWA, 2012)
- Violence against women and girls (VAWG) resource guide (Global Women's Institute, Inter-American Development Bank & the World Bank, n.d.)

### Strategic alliances

Working collaboratively with organisations across sectors and levels will be key to strengthening the understanding of GBV-environment links, as well as combining capacities and strategies to address them. In the gender-environment field, there are many alliances, coalitions and groups that work together to advance gender equality and women's empowerment in and through environmental action. With coalitions and networks engaged at multiple levels, some include varied expert groups working at very local levels, accessing and addressing the highly context- and culturally specific GBV issues that have been raised throughout this paper.

Many GBV-ENV survey respondents recorded that they are already part of at least one network working on gender, GBV, and/or environment-related issues. An opportunity thus exists to tap into networks that are looking at these issues individually or at some specific intersections to share and enhance their capacity and knowledge on GBV-environment links, as well as to establish new partnerships to advance work in this particular arena. A dedicated GBV-environment community of practice may be a powerful driver of change.

The importance of multi-stakeholder, cross-sector cooperation, including across levels, cannot be overstated. Engaging the community and local partner organisations, including women's groups and GBV experts, can be especially beneficial to collecting, applying and understanding quantitative and qualitative data and information related to GBV. According to CARE, "[t]here is value in using qualitative data to explore community context… Reach out and speak to women's organisations and key informants from the project area as they can offer much richer information on community context than quantitative data and can provide valuable information about the local patterns and norms related to GBV" (CARE, 2014, p. 7). Faith-based and other organisations can also be fundamental partners for understanding and taking steps to positively change deeply-held cultural beliefs and practices.

## *8.2.2 Increasing the possibilities for eliminating gender-based violence by integrating it through the project cycle*

Given the high prevalence of gender-based violence around the world and the widespread impact it has, programming across all sectors should take care to include GBV considerations throughout the project cycle as part of a rights-based, gender-responsive approach. Environmental projects are not exempt. Exercising precautions to prevent possible unintended impacts – including the

exacerbation of existing inequalities and violence – and seizing opportunities to address and reduce GBV is critical. While a single project will not end GBV, concerted efforts from across sectors, at all levels, can contribute to its powerful progress.

- **Project guidance and standards** can increase attention to GBV as part of a rights-based, gender-responsive approach toward meeting interlinked global goals and environmental outcomes; and
- At every stage of the project cycle, **from design to M&E and learning**, specific attention to GBV can heighten awareness and sensitivities around interlinked issues, empower those encountering GBV, identify appropriate interventions and disrupt harmful norms.

Over recent decades, environmental organisations have developed many manuals, guidance materials and tools on how to integrate gender considerations throughout the project cycle in specific sectors (e.g. related to climate change, biodiversity, forestry, fisheries, drylands and natural protected areas, among others). The specific inclusion of GBV considerations in project cycle manuals and tools is more recent, yet steadily growing (see available box on existing cross-sector tools, p. 223). These can be continuously improved, for example by drawing best practices from across non-environment-focused sectors. Reviewing the general steps in a project cycle, from design to monitoring, evaluation and learning, the following sections note specific opportunities to integrate GBV in each phase.

## Design

GBV considerations should be included in the inception and design phase of any project, not least as identifying risks will inform if and how project outcomes can be realised. GBV-specific considerations are often overlooked, however, as they are not commonly considered to be the responsibility of environmental practitioners, who may not have the capacity to address them. As an illustration: a GBV-ENV survey respondent noted that GBV is occurring in and around a specific protected area, but the institutions in charge of them do not consider it their responsibility to deal with it so have not included any relevant response (Survey respondent EN64).

Conducting intersectional gender analyses is an important strategy for understanding gender considerations and gaps in any project context and the development of corresponding, socio-culturally appropriate actions to address them. Seventy per cent of GBV-ENV survey respondents – again, many of whom work already on gender-environment issues – affirmed regularly using

or conducting gender analyses. Yet, guidelines for developing gender analyses do not always include specific GBV considerations, which are fundamental to informing programming and project design. Locally led, expert gender analyses are important tools for identifying key issues in the given project context and developing tailored, socio-culturally appropriate responses. Social and environmental impact assessments, which often miss specific gender considerations entirely, can also consider GBV and other issues related to inequality as a fundamental part of a project context.

### Implementation

Including attention to GBV considerations throughout project implementation is key – not least as it is through this phase where GBV is most evident and observable. As mentioned above, this was specifically recorded in GBV-ENV survey responses. However, in most of the cases, the violence is not addressed for various reasons. For example, the lack of guidelines or protocols to address GBV prevents practitioners from addressing it because they do not know how to proceed. Survey responses mentioned the specific discomfort of attempting to address GBV within environment-related workshops and forums, fearing for example the reactions of participants.

Patriarchal norms, customs and cultural attitudes surrounding gender roles and GBV can interfere in a project's success, especially if GBV considerations are not integrated and addressed from the beginning. For example, in some regions, women may be excluded (either directly or indirectly) from activities implemented by environmental organisations due to existing gender norms and barriers; in some cases, women may experience GBV as a result of attempting to participate, or fear the possibility of it. This was specifically mentioned in various survey responses. The normalisation of these situations makes it difficult to identify the different factors that impede women's participation, as well as the GBV they may suffer.

The behavioural change needed to modify women's and men's attitudes towards GBV and gender discrimination more generally requires projects to be implemented over a sustained period of time in communities, which may not always be possible. Thus, the need to integrate GBV considerations within all environment and sustainable development programming and to join efforts amongst GBV and environment experts is even more compelling. Partnership across other spaces is also key. For instance, GBV assessment and response tools used in humanitarian settings by the Safe Access to Fuel and Energy (SAFE) programme of the Women's Refugee Commission (WRC) provide useful

information for addressing GBV related to firewood collection and can inform methodologies and manuals in this and other environment sectors.

Promising practice exists worldwide that can be further identified, shared, modeled and replicated. This paper has attempted to start, including with examples embedded throughout chapters (with due respect to the highly culturally and context-specific nature of GBV and environmental issues alike). For example, including men – or focusing on men – in discussions surrounding GBV in relation to the environment, and encouraging both men and women to be champions in the eradication of GBV, represent promising interventions across countries for successful project implementation.

### Budget allocation

Gender-responsive budgeting is key to achieving commitments towards gender equality within and for the benefit of environmental programming. As seen above, many organisations already have gender mandates, and international financing mechanisms require the integration of gender within projects in order to be eligible. Despite these requirements, gender and the environment are often addressed separately, and gender-responsive budgeting is not always included. Along these lines, the inclusion of GBV considerations in this phase of the project is often the most difficult. As a survey respondent working in a development agency mentioned, GBV and environment are still considered two distinct 'sectors' and funding is not mainstreamed to address the interlinkages between the two (Survey respondent EN186). Financial constraints were identified by more than half of GBV-ENV survey respondents (53 per cent) as one of the challenges in addressing GBV, which is likely why gender-responsive budgeting was ranked as the fourth most-needed resource by survey respondents (see Figure 22).

Plentiful tools exist to understand the value and apply the methodology of gender-responsive budgeting. UN Women offers a wide range of resources, for example, including those grounded in research and application across countries (UN Women, 2010). Organisations can also be proactive, demonstrating through their budgets their commitment to key issues such as eradicating GBV. They can set their own benchmarks or quotas for allocating gender-responsive resources and resources for eradicating GBV, again as part of a rights-based, gender-responsive approach.

### Monitoring and evaluation

The inclusion of GBV considerations within the M&E framework of a project has multiple benefits. When GBV considerations are integrated early on, in the

design stage and in the establishment of a baseline, monitoring and evaluation can include useful information on the success of the environmental project to address GBV. Positive and negative impacts, or incidence, alike can be tracked. Likewise, the information collected at various stages can contribute to increase the data and information available more broadly on the intersections between GBV and environment, not least to be able to aggregate information and take effective strategies to scale. With a strong emphasis on the context- and culturally specific nature of these issues, it is important to note that the integration of GBV considerations in monitoring and evaluation tools is still limited, especially in the environment sector, and methodologies and tools need to be developed so practitioners learn how to understand, track and use such data. The GBV M&E tools that exist from other sectors may be useful tools to review, adapt and apply.

### Learning to inform strengthened action

Last, but arguably the most important, is the opportunity that continuous learning presents. At every stage, environmental programming offers opportunities to learn, document information and data, build and share knowledge, explore enablers of successful partnerships, scale and replicate promising practice and innovate. Documenting GBV-environment links is the first step in learning to do better. Through project closure meetings and reporting, for example, evidence of GBV may arise, as was noted in GBV-ENV survey responses, but may be rarely or insufficiently recorded as it is considered 'tangential'. It was outside of the scope of this research to analyse specific project documents and reports, but practitioners and researchers at all levels, from all organisations, can do so. When GBV arises, it can be considered a part of the project that matters, including recording and reporting.

Organisations of all types and sizes are constantly evolving, learning and applying new knowledge to strengthen results, identifying and taking steps to remove barriers that impede realisation of human rights, gender equality and environment goals. Project teams and their wider infrastructure can document GBV-environment links, include them in project learning processes and consider ways of, first, doing no harm – and then doing better.

Further, the research community can support learning processes and programming through multi-level investigation, methodology development and testing, and action research. Annex 1 offers a range of research questions that can be taken up – presenting yet another range of opportunities for immediate action.

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# Annexes

## Annex 1. Research priorities for gender-based violence and environment issues

## Annex 2. Overview of recommendations, by stakeholder

## Annex 3: List of case studies

# Annex 1. Research priorities for gender-based violence and environment issues

This publication establishes a knowledge base on gender and environment linkages. Even so, it demonstrates that deeper, concerted research is needed to provide more detailed analyses and information on specific linkages. The following are research priorities identified by the research team throughout the production of this paper and in consultation with expert peers. Efforts to close these knowledge gaps can support improved GBV-responsive programming throughout environmental contexts.

- **GBV-environment hotspots.** GBV is a worldwide problem, yet its incidence associated to different environmental issues is context-specific. Although some research at the country, local or project level exists on some of these linkages, yet there is a lack of information of where GBV related to a specific environmental issue is more prevalent. Thus, there is a need to develop a methodology to measure GBV and environment linkages, including similar and recurrent patterns, so as to better understand why and how GBV is occurring and to identify these hotspots in order to prevent and respond to GBV in environmental programming.
- **Correlation between increased ownership over land and other natural resources and Intimate Partner Violence (IPV).** Evidence suggests that an increase in ownership over land and other natural resources increases women's decision making power over the management and conservation of resources and strengthens women's status at the household level, reducing the incidence of IPV. Other studies suggest that women's increased ownership can be perceived as a threat and could increase IPV. Thus, there is a need for more research on these links to better understand, prevent and respond to IPV and other forms of GBV associated to women's increased land and natural resources ownership.
- **Human rights and gender-responsive approaches in protected areas to reduce GBV in local communities and Indigenous Peoples.** It has been documented that the fortress-conservation model that includes militarisation and the exclusion of local communities and Indigenous Peoples from protected areas threatens their livelihoods and increases human rights abuses and GBV. Conversely, the involvement of local communities in conservation efforts and the adoption of a human rights and gender-responsive approaches can lead to better environmental and gender equality results and reduce GBV. In this context, there is an urgent

need to change the prevailing model and document how adopting these approaches in the design and management of protected areas improves conservation efforts and reduces GBV.

- **'Sex-for-fish' practices in legal and illegal, unreported and unregulated fisheries across regions.** The practice of 'sex-for-fish' has been mostly documented in Africa and in Asia and the Pacific. However, a few reports indicate that this practice is also common in other regions. Thus, there is a need for its systematic documentation across regions, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean, including drivers and consequences on local communities so as to adopt safeguards and policies that prevent these practices and improve the lives and livelihoods of those engaged.
- **The impact on GBV in times of abundance.** Evidence suggests that when there is a decrease in the abundance or availability of natural resources due to environmental stressors, such as climate variability, environmental crimes or extractive industries, there is an increase in GBV. However, while some research exists on that correlation, there is limited information about the impact of gender-responsive conservation and climate mitigation interventions in reducing GBV. While some projects claim that they have seen a reduction in women reporting abuse, more research is needed to test these claims. Research can better measure the impacts of projects aimed at preventing and responding to GBV so as to strengthen and scale up interventions.
- **Gender-differentiated impacts of environmental crimes in local communities.** Environmental crimes, which include illegal logging, fishing and wildlife trafficking, among others, are the fourth largest form of transnational organised crime. The illegality and violence associated with their actions contributes to an increase in human rights violations and GBV. Members of local communities can be both victims of these activities or be involved in them, as a means to survive, particularly in poverty-driven areas. However, little is known on the gender-differentiated impacts and the gender dimensions along the value chain. Thus, there is an urgent need for more research on these issues to improve conservation, combat environmental crime and eliminate human rights abuses and GBV.
- **Human trafficking, sexual exploitation and other types of GBV associated to legal and illegal extractive industries and agribusiness.** It has been documented worldwide that extractive industries and agribusiness can bring about an increase in GBV and human rights violations. However, there is a lack of official data on the occurrence of these issues. Thus, there is a need for sex-disaggregated data and gender

analysis on the gender-differentiated impacts and violence of these activities in order to develop strategies to address them.

- **The role of transnational corporations in addressing and preventing GBV associated to extractive industries and agribusiness.** The expansion of extractive industries and agribusiness are contributing to rapid environmental degradation and the erosion of the social fabric, and are associated with human rights violations and increased GBV, often with their consent. In this light, there is a need for research on the drivers and consequences of GBV associated to the extractive industry, the identification of best practices and the development of safeguards to prevent and respond to GBV.
- **Gender-differentiated violence against Environmental Human Rights Defenders (EHRDs).** The upward trend in violence against EHRDs requires urgent attention. While men make up most of the victims who are killed, violence suffered by women is different and often overlooked (e.g. GBV abuses). Reporting and documentation of cases is growing, particularly by civil society. Yet, there is a need for official sex-disaggregated data and analysis of the gender-differentiated violence against women environmental human rights defenders (WEHRDs) in order to better inform national policies and civil society action alike.
- **Women Environmental Human Rights Defenders (WEHRDs) in national GBV legislation.** International frameworks on human rights recognise the contribution of WEHRDs to the enjoyment of human rights, environmental protection and sustainable development. In order to ensure protection and end criminalisation against WEHRDs, there is a need to analyse and reform legislative frameworks at the national level.
- **GBV and the gender-differentiated impact of climate migration and displacement.** Given the unprecedented human migration due to climate change, research on the nexus between climate change, displacement and migration is rapidly growing. In this context, there is a need for more gender-responsive research to better understand the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change and migration on women's and men's rights and access to natural resources, such as food, water and energy, and how they intersect with pre-existing or new forms of GBV, in order to prevent and respond to GBV in humanitarian settings.
- **Climate change as a driver of child marriage.** While child marriage has decreased in recent years, protracted conflicts and climate change in many countries have put more girls at risk of being wed at a young age, threatening to undermine the progress made. There is a need for more research to document this trend across countries and regions, especially

those more vulnerable to weather-related disasters and climate change to better inform climate change policies.

- **The cost and impact of GBV in environmental programmes.** Estimates consider that the global cost of GBV could amount to 2 per cent of the global gross domestic product (GDP) (UN Women, 2016). Additionally, it has been documented that gender-blind programmes are less effective and, in some cases, fail to achieve their conservation and development goals, in part due to pre-existing GBV or its unintended exacerbation. Thus, there is a need to investigate and document what are the impacts and socio-economic costs of GBV in environmental programmes to develop GBV prevention and response protocols and build evidence on the importance of adopting gender-responsive programming.
- **Gender-differentiated violence experienced by rangers.** Evidence shows that defending national parks and protected areas is becoming increasingly dangerous. Female rangers are still a minority in the sector, but their participation in the defence of these areas is growing. However, little is known on the gender-differentiated violence that they suffer when doing their work. More research is needed on what the GBV women rangers are exposed to and on the gender-differentiated protection measures for male and female rangers.

# Annex 2. Overview of recommendations, by stakeholder

## ALL

- Identify and collaborate with key partners, including government, international organisations, civil society organisations and women's organisations working on gender, GBV and/or the environment to strengthen the knowledge base on the GBV-environment nexus, build capacity across organisations, forge impact collaborations and develop strategies to address these intersections
  - Maintain alliances and continuous cooperation, as addressing GBV requires sustained investment and interventions over a long period of time to be impactful
  - Engage and support gender and GBV experts at every stage of the project cycle
- Support the collection, analyses, application and dissemination of GBV data disaggregated by sex, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, education and economic status and other variables
- Develop internationally agreed GBV and environment indicators to advance in the collection of data and the production of statistics on these intersections, and to enhance the SDGs indicators framework
  - Conduct country case studies on GBV and environment indicators to strengthen national statistics capacity and identify entry points
- Sustain and further build support to hold private sector actors accountable to comply with international environmental and social agreements and standards to prevent and address GBV; in some cases, learn from and apply private sector promising practice

## INTERNATIONAL POLICY MAKERS

- Focus attention to and include GBV-environment considerations within relevant international policies, strategies and planning instruments, and in international funding mechanisms
- Assess gender and GBV considerations within international policy frameworks, as well as the state of GBV and environment issues across sectors, and identify policy gaps that could be addressed
- Evaluate how social and environmental standards and safeguards can be strengthened through the inclusion of GBV considerations

## NATIONAL POLICY MAKERS

- Advocate for the alignment of national environmental policies, strategies and planning instruments with GBV international frameworks and with local laws
- Integrate GBV considerations within national environmental mechanisms and processes (e.g. NDCs, ccGAPs) and reporting instruments (e.g. reports to MEAs)
- Assess gender and GBV considerations within national policy frameworks, as well as the state of GBV-environment considerations in the country, and identify policy and implementation gaps that could be addressed
- Allocate resources to build capacities across agencies and improve accountability; advocate parliamentary causes to allocate sufficient domestic resources to eradice GBV
- Allocate resources to fund GBV interventions in environmental programming

## ENVIRONMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

- Recognise the importance of GBV and the GBV-environment linkages by developing and adopting institutional policies, strategies, plans and other mechanisms to address them
  - Establish GBV and harassment policies at the workplace
  - Establish gender-responsive and GBV accountability mechanisms to measure progress on GBV reduction and gender equality
  - Ensure social and environmental safeguards and screening include GBV specifically
  - Invest in awareness raising and capacity building, including through tools, trainings and technical support, across staff and peer networks
  - Establish protocols of action to address and eliminate GBV
  - Always ensure women's groups, gender experts, and GBV experts are integral, funded parts of each process
- Ensure that gender/GBV experts within the organisations provide technical support to environmental programming and the project cycle
- Build capacity of women's organisations and local communities
  - Facilitate sharing of best practices through regional and sub-regional workshops
  - Empower women and all people who may be commonly in situations of heightened vulnerability and ensure that they know their rights, so that they can avail themselves of the services and resources they are entitled to in relation to the environment
  - Facilitate trainings on how to access specific environmental funds to develop potential projects on the GBV and environment intersection
- Strengthen the knowledge base on the intersections between GBV and the environment through the production and dissemination of knowledge products
- Document information, including but not limited to case studies and promising/best practices
- Identify and leverage best practices, methodologies, tools and manuals on GBV and specific environmental topics (e.g. USAID's Intimate Partner Violence and Land Toolkit, SHARE's Violence, gender and WASH toolkit, and Peace Brigades' toolkit for Latin American Women Human Rights Defenders working on land and environmental issues)
- Adapt existing and create new methodologies, manuals and tools to integrate GBV and environment considerations within the project cycle in different contexts
  - Identify existing gender analysis frameworks that include GBV considerations and leverage them to strengthen institutional gender analysis and assessment tools used in environmental programming

## GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE EXPERTS

- Develop training content and methodology on the intersections between GBV and environment, taking into consideration the different political, ecological and socio-cultural context
- Develop training content and methodology, or support environment experts to do so, on GBV for specific topics (e.g. environmental crimes, protected areas and landscape restoration)
- Design and facilitate innovative trainings on GBV and environment for policy makers, practitioners, private sector, women's organisations, local NGOs and communities (e.g. webinars, online training courses and community workshops)
- Include and engage environment practitioners in your networks

## FUNDERS

- Invest in a community knowledge platform on GBV and the environment
- Foster and fund research partnerships between academia and other organisations to better understand and address the intersections between GBV and the environment – particularly under-researched environmental sectors
- Encourage the development of innovative strategies to strengthen understanding on GBV and environment (e.g. policy briefs)
- Invest in the development, replication or scaling of promising practice, including for example to apply validated intervention strategies from other sectors for the environmental sphere
- Embed requirements on gathering GBV-related information to gender analyses, as well as strategies and approaches, to prevent and/or address GBV into procurements

## IMPLEMENTERS

### Design

- Apply the national and international GBV policies, standards and laws
- Request support from a GBV expert throughout the project phases
- Conduct socio-cultural assessments with a gender perspective to identify the norms and expectations that prescribe the roles of women and men in different contexts
  - Identify the types of GBV and evaluate potential negative impacts on programmes and projects
  - Identify and evaluate risks that the project may pose, putting measures in place to ensure activities do not exacerbate existing inequalities and GBV
  - Identify how GBV can limit women's and men's participation in projects
  - Create a baseline with qualitative and quantitative data on the GBV and environment to measure changes in GBV incidence
- Identify objectives, activities and measures to address GBV and ensure a gender-responsive project design
  - Ensure that activities are designed according to social and environmental international standards, including the involvement of Indigenous communities
- Develop monitoring and evaluation tools that include GBV indicators to monitor if the objectives defined in the design phase regarding GBV have been achieved

### Implementation

- Integrate and implement GBV prevention measures in environmental projects that include women's economic empowerment
- Partner with local organisations, engaging both women and men, to address gender and GBV which has been proved to be more effective in changing attitudes and behaviours
- Based on intersectional socio-cultural assessments, define strategies to ensure the participation of women and men from different groups and ages in decisions to reduce GBV and discriminatory attitudes
- Use protocols of action to report incidents of GBV during project implementation, especially in conflict settings
- Include specific messages on gender equality, GBV and human rights in the communication strategy and products of the project

### Budget allocation

- Ensure that specific budget is allocated to activities that include GBV as a component, such as:
  - Hiring a GBV technical expert
  - Securing funds for gender and GBV assessments, GBV interventions and evaluation

### Monitoring and evaluation

- Use existing international and national GBV indicators
- Develop monitoring instruments to track GBV incidents directly or indirectly related to the project
- Ensure that the evaluation processes includes attention to GBV, and in some cases include GBV reduction as an indicator of project success
- Ensure that the cost of GBV interventions is measured to identify scaling up opportunities

## PRIVATE SECTOR

- Leverage impact through Corporate Social Responsibility policies and methodology, improving the lives and livelihoods of people and communities
- Apply promising practice from across industries, including investing in women's and community empowerment models, in understanding and addressing GBV through value chains
- Invest in research, capacity building and building public-private partnerships, including realising or strengthening commitments to identify and ameliorate gender gaps that limit productivity and bottom lines

## RESEARCHERS AND ACADEMIA

- Build the evidence base on GBV-environment links, including through taking up the research questions posed in Annex 1 to this paper, to inform better action and realisation of results at all levels

# Annex 3: List of case studies

All the case studies mentioned in the report are listed below with a descriptive title of the information provided regarding GBV and environmental linkages

| Case study reference | Country | Brief description |
|---|---|---|
| Case Study EN05 | Kenya | Impact of water availability and climate adaptation in child marriage |
| Case Study EN11 | South Africa | Joint efforts to combat gender-based violence and illegal wildlife trafficking in communities surrounding Kruger National Park |
| Case Study EN15 | Bangladesh | Gender-based violence and climate change interlinkages in coastal and disaster-prone areas |
| Case Study EN16 | Democratic Republic of Congo | Correlation between temperature and precipitations variations and gender-based violence |
| Case Study EN19 | Cameroon | Gender inequality and gender-based violence in the access to and control over land and agriculture |
| Case Study EN22 | South Sudan and Uganda | The impacts of climate change and environmental degradation on gender-based violence incidence |
| Case Study EN23 | Bangladesh | Women's empowerment and climate resilience programming to reduce gender-based violence |
| Case Study EN25 | Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda | The cost of gender-based violence and the gender gap in agricultural productivity |
| Case Study EN26 | Democratic Republic of Congo | Illegal mining and conflict driving environmental degradation and gender-based violence |
| Case Study EN30 | Papua New Guinea | Linking gender-based violence and extractive industries |
| Case Study EN34 | Nepal | Tackling gender-based violence in biodiversity conservation and climate change adaptation and resilience-building |
| Case Study EN37 | Uganda | Addressing gender-based violence as a key component of building climate resilient communities |
| Case Study SP05 | Mexico | Sexual harassment and violence at the workplace in turtle preservation camps |
| Case Study SP33 | Peru | Gender discrimination in the academic sector of environmental science |

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