

*Natural resources and the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda
for the transition the green local development in the Arab region*

Monia Braham, Sustainable Development Consultant

Introduction

Chapter I

Concepts and methodological framework for Analysis

Section I: Key concepts for analysis of the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development

§1: Gender concepts

§2: Key concepts relating to local development

§3: Key concepts on natural resources

§4: Key concepts on civil society

Section II: A Methodological framework for analysis of the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development

§1: A Human rights approach to SDGs

§2: A capital-based approach for sustainable development

§3: The theory of change

Chapter II

Closing the gender gap in natural resources management under the 2030 Agenda

Section I: Closing gender gap for the natural capital sustainability

§1: Closing the gender gap for equal access to land

§2: Closing the gender gap for equal access to water

Section II: Closing the gender gap for enhancing local resilience to environmental risks

§1: Closing gender gap for local resilience to climate change

§2: Closing the gender gap for local resilience to natural disasters

§3: Closing the gender gap for building resilience to armed conflicts

Chapter III

Gender justice a driving force for the transition to Green Local Development

Section I: Gender justice and the intangible capitals of nation for the transition to Green Local Development

§1: Goal 12 on Sustainable Production and Consumption Patterns an engine for the transition to Green Local Development

§2: The intangible capitals of nation and the transition to green local development

Section II: Human rights approach to sustainable development and the accountability for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda

§1: Human rights approach and progress on gender justice

§2: Localizing the 2030 Agenda for gender equality

§3: A proposed dashboard for monitoring progress on natural resources and the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda

ACRONYM AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASDR	Arab Sustainable Development Report, first edition
AFF	Arab Foundations Forum
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CSOs	Civil society organizations
CEDAW	International convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women
CRC	Convention on the Rights of Child
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
ESCWA	Economic and social commission for west asia
IAEG-SDGs	The Global Indicators Framework Developed by the Inter*Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators
ILO	International Labor Organization
LEED	The Local Economic and Employment Development Project
PVOs	Private voluntary organizations
SEEA	System of Environmental-Economic Accounting
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index of the OECD
TSOs	Third Sector Organizations
INDCs	Intented Nationally Determined Contributions
UNDG	United nations development group
UNSDIR	United nations strategy for disaster reduction

FIGURES AND CHARTS:

- [1] Arab Philanthropic ecosystem, page 10
- [2] Conceptual framework for Analysis, page 11
- [3] Natural Capital Approach to Sustainable Development, page 12
- [4] Percentage of female agricultural holders out of the total agricultural holders, page 14
- [5] Female agricultural holders in the Arab region compared to world average and other region, page 15
- [6] Distribution of households by person usually responsible for water collection by urban and rural areas at the national level (per cent) for selected Arab countries among LDCs and MICs, page 21
- [7] Distribution of population by average time needed to collect water by rural area in selected Arab countries, page 22
- [8] Distribution of population by average time needed to collect water by urban area in selected Arab countries, page 22
- [9] Ranking of Arab countries on the human capital development Index of WEF, 2016 compared to the highest score, page 35
- [10] Unemployed rate of women compared to men in the Arab region, page 35
- [11] Gender Disparity in labour force participation rate in the Arab region; North Africa's figures as compared to West Asia, 2014, page 36
- [12] Distribution of employed persons by economic sector, by sex and sub-region, 2015, page 37
- [13] Distribution by 1 digit occupational groups by sex in North Africa and West Asia, 2013, page 38
- [14] Distribution by 1 digit occupational groups of women in North Africa and West Asia, 2013, page 38
- [15] UNDG, Mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Reference Guide to UN Country Teams, 2016, page 50.

CASE STUDIES:

- [1] **Case study 1:** Women's Affairs Center of Gaza; The Inheritance denied project I and II, page 16
- [2] **Case study 2:** Jordan's Royal Society for the Conservation of Nature (RSCN), Water conservation in the girl-single schools, page 23
- [3] **Case study 3:** IUCN, Global Gender and Climate Alliance and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland; Program for Mainstreaming Gender in Climate Change Efforts, page 25
- [4] **Case study 4:** Gender considerations for the implementation and the empowerment of women-led community stewardship committees; CGF Funding proposal, 21 November 2017 :Enhancing Climate Change Adaptation in the North Coast and Nile Delta Regions in Egypt, page 26

[5] **Case study 5:** Arab Network for Environment & Development (RAED) with the involvement of the World Vision International (WVI), Global Network of CSOs for Disaster Reduction (GNDR) and the Norwegian Refugee Center (NRC); Advocacy for an active role of CSOs, NGOs and CBOs in building local resilience to disasters Sharm El-Sheikh Civil Society Declaration on Disasters in the Arab region, 2014, page 28

[6] **Case study 6:** Arab Group for the Protection of Nature (APN); Campaigning: “Our Country’s Mothers” project and the Million Tree Campaign planting the Iskaka Village in Salfit (West Bank) and Advocacy for mainstreaming gender into the Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition in protracted crisis, page 30

[7] **Case study 7:** SOS SAHEL SUDAN international NGO working in partnership with local NGOs for engaging women in natural resource management and conflict resolution processes in South Kordofan (Sudan). Page 31

[8] **Case study 8:** The Gender Action Plan of Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework, GCF-EBRD, page 40

[9] **Case study 9:** The Association for the Protection of the Environment (APE) and the Community and Institutional Development consulting(CID consulting); Waste management and the marginal status of the Zabaleen’s Community in Mokkatam-Cairo, page 46

[10] **Case study 10:** AAND and OXFAM, Regional Approaches for the Implementation of 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Arab Civil Society notes, page 47

TABLES:

[1] Women access to land in selected Arab countries. Source: Social Institutions and Gender Index SIGI, OECD, 2014, page 18 and 19

[2] Access of Arab women to credits and financial services (Source: The Gender Gap Index,OECD, 2014), PAGE 41, 42 and 43

[3] A proposed dashboard for monitoring progress on natural resources management and the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda : The ”2030 NATURAL RESOURCES-GENDER-MONITOR”, page 52-67.

Introduction:

Since the adoption of the international convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) and the Beijing platform for Action, women have made significant strides in achieving equality in health, education and employment in the Arab region and ‘gender gaps have narrowed considerably in several key areas, but the region continues to rank poorly by international standards’¹. Moreover, incidence of poverty among female-headed household in several Arab countries are higher than the rate among male headed-household, which means poverty is widespread among households headed by females². Indeed, the feminization of poverty in the Arab region is primarily due to the fact that women face legal, structural and attitudinal barriers that prevent them from having equal access or control over various resources needed for production including natural resources. In rural areas, where access of women to land and non-land resources remains challenging³, closing the gender gap for poverty alleviation is a must and should benefit from the momentum of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

Furthermore, women are the custodian of natural assets and their productive functions, including farming lands, forests, watersheds, genetic pools, fisheries... Their crucial role in conserving biodiversity for their sustainable use is acknowledged by the international law⁴. The traditional knowledge of women related to genetic resources for food and agriculture and its contribution to ensuring livelihoods and achieving food security should be recognized as full part of arrangements under the international and national regimes of access and benefit sharing from genetic resources. This target was reiterated in the 2030 Agenda under goal 15 regardless gender issues⁵. Furthermore, access to other natural assets for production and consumption poses particularly problem with regard to the paradox of abundance and scarcity that are shaping the status of natural resources in the Arab region, in addition to the heavy patriarchal legacy that prevent women from tapping their economic potential for the benefit of their families, communities and countries.

The adverse impacts of climate change and natural disasters are threatening ecosystems and their related services and consequently intensifying the socio-economic vulnerabilities of women and men alike. The high risk exposure of women to those heightened dangers and casualties is well-known but needs more evidence through accurate, reliable and disaggregated data for the formulation of gender-responsive natural resources policies that are to enhance the resilience of women and local communities to those impacts. On the other side, armed conflicts in the Arab region, are affecting men and women differently. The socio-economic vulnerabilities of women are, indeed, exacerbated by the extreme fragility of local economies and the destruction of natural resources base, the degradation of land and livestock in addition to human displacements brought about hostilities.

With regard to the masculinization of armed conflicts and the recruitment of men by belligerents, women become main actors of natural resources management in their localities of origin. Population dynamics and human displacements imposed by conflicts make them the first responsible for ensuring livelihoods within hosting communities or refugee camps. Under failed states, protracted conflicts and serious human security threats, uncertainty to ensure the basic needs for populations and obstacles to deliver on public services are to impose the philanthropic organizations’ intervention and the humanitarian aid as the unique window of opportunity for endurance and survival at the local level.

The Beijing platform for Action has already recognized that ‘‘environmental conditions have a different impacts on the lives of women and men due to existing gender inequality. It also stresses that women’s role in sustainable development is hampered by unequal access to economic resources, information and technology, and limited participation in policy formulation and decision-making in natural resources and environment management’’⁶. The new Agenda reiterated the need for ‘‘ending all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere’’ (Target 5.1) and recalled for verifying whether ‘‘legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex’’ (Indicators 5.1.1).

Equality of opportunities is at the heart of inclusive green economy ‘‘ that results in improved human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities; It is low carbon, resources efficient and socially inclusive’’⁷. It is also an alternative to today dominant economic model with the ambition to leaving no one behind⁸ by combating exclusion and alleviating poverty. However, green economy has been implicitly acknowledged under the Agenda which reaffirmed the Rio+20 outcome document: ‘‘The Future we want’’⁹. It is also framed under goal 12 on Sustainable Production and Consumption Patterns and other related goals as it is mentioned in the outcome document of New York Summit¹⁰ about the integrated and indivisible nature of the new Agenda that is to ‘‘balance the three dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental.’’¹¹

Localizing the 2030 Agenda, that is also transformative in nature, seems to be sine qua non to the transition to inclusive green economy and poverty alleviation, but needs to be deployed beyond the urban agenda pursuits¹² to embrace rural space. Gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda are key to reduce environmental risks and ecological scarcity at the local level. For this research, those dimensions as reflected in goal 5 and related natural resources goals and targets of the new Agenda are considered as a driving force for the transition to green growth at the local level. This latter refers to all economic and governance units that operate at the sub-national levels. ‘‘Local areas encompass places where people live and work ranging from rural communities to metropolitan areas and green activities are those associated with researches, technologies and industries, which are directly geared to improve environmental outcomes, protect natural resources, reduce pollutions and consequently contribute to human well-being and achieve social cohesion and equity’’¹³. Furthermore, green economy solutions for enhancing resilience of internally displaced persons and refugees need to be explored at the local level especially with regard the Doha Declaration on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the Arab region which reconsider the local development pursuits in making concrete the goals and targets of the new Agenda.

In this contribution, the natural resources base of local economies is considered under the natural capital approach, which is underpinning the transition to the alternative economic model of *Local Green Development*¹⁴ with a special focus on the different intangible forms of the wealth of nations¹⁵. These forms are enabling conditions for the transition to the new economy. To be transformative under this insightful approach, the new agenda should be of guidance for the national planning systems, including the adoption of gender responsive natural resources policies, as well as gender mainstreaming into the different policy making levels: Projects, programs, sectoral strategies, economic and social plans, and sustainable development strategies...In their notes to the regional meeting on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda¹⁶, Arab Civil Societies Organizations representatives called for reconsidering the development model and emphasized that ‘‘achieving sustainable development and meeting the Agenda’s requirements require a change of the current development model, the options, and the economic and social policies, so as not be limited to the concept of economic growth and rely on the principles of justice and equality’’.

Moreover, the international community, while recognizing that each country has primary responsibility for its own economic and social development, exhorted civil society organizations and philanthropic organizations to play an active role in the implementation of the Agenda, on the same footing as private sector actors, ranging from micro-entrepreneurs to cooperatives to multinationals,”¹⁷. “Regular and inclusive reviews of progress at the national and sub-national levels, which are country-led and country-driven, should draw on contributions from indigenous peoples, civil society, the private sector and other stakeholders, in line with national circumstances, policies and priorities”¹⁸.

At the regional level, the Muscat Declaration “Towards the achievement of gender justice in the Arab region”¹⁹, as adopted by the 7th session of ESCWA Women Committee, highlighted the close link between gender justice and social justice and acknowledged the 2030 Agenda “as an integrated development plan driving progress, development, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls in the Arab region” and welcomed “the adoption of the Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region at the twenty-eighth ESCWA ministerial session as a political commitment that promotes policies aimed at achieving justice as a primary goal of development policy”²⁰.

The committee “considered the expected roles of civil society and invaluable national women machineries in implementing the Goals, and of parliaments in holding those machineries accountable and reviewing their work.”²¹, and called for taking into account proposals from member states and civil society in preparing the regional strategy on women, peace and security, and its related action plan. However, it is unfortunate that the Declaration didn’t endorse the option of its preparatory document, to undertake national researches, with view of identifying the most critical targets for sustainable development and gender equality and providing baseline for review of future efforts “taking into consideration views from various stakeholders, especially civil society, women’s organizations, and the private sector through the organization of multi-stakeholder national consultations”²².

The same document, underscored in its annex goal 5 as the goal entirely dedicated to gender justice to be added to goals of main reference to women and Girls in SDGs, most of them provide a special focus on natural resources: Goal 1, 2, 6,8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16 and 17. Nonetheless, it overlooked some gender-related goals from natural resources perspective, for which gender terminology is missing such as goals 14 and 15. Mutual supportiveness between these goals on terrestrial and marine ecosystems, goal 1 and goal 5, on one hand; and the indivisible and integrated nature of the 2030 Agenda, on the other hand, are indeed convincing arguments to integrate such goals and their targets for monitoring progress on the gendered dimensions of the Agenda, even though their indicators are not disaggregated by sex in accordance to the current state of art.

It is noteworthy to mention that the reading of the current status of gender inequality regarding the access to natural resources and the local resilience to the adverse impacts of environmental risks and those inherent to conflicts on livelihoods and human security need to be, to the maximum extent possible, evidence-based and should be grounded in accurate, relevant, reliable and comparable data. This research reveals a huge data gap: The availability of data from national and international sources poses particularly problem, qualitative analysis is highly needed in order to identify the interlinkages between gender, natural resources and local development.

Several case studies are selected as an illustration of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) endeavors about gender and sustainable development reflecting their potential to embarking on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and monitoring SDGs under adequate mechanisms. Without doubt, there is a room for continuous improvements based on lessons learned from CSOs success stories, Community Based Organizations (CBOs) valuable

feedback from the ground and activists' field experiences rooted in people's daily lives against the backdrop of the respective roles of men and women in natural resources management. This research shows obviously that several indicators lack today metadata for calculation and methodologies should be developed by the specialized international organizations for monitoring SDGs. CSOs can thus be a true power of proposal for closing the gender data gap, the formulation of gender sensitive public policies and for an enhanced accountability on natural resources with regard the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda.

A human rights based approach to sustainable development is key for monitoring progress on the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda. To be effective, this approach should tackle the different prohibitive grounds of discrimination for further progress on gender equality at the country level²³ and requires the design of a dashboard for monitoring the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda. The static elements of SDGs involving gender-related goals and targets and their indicators, in addition to the evolving issues such as data disaggregation and Metadata for calculation, binding and non binding commitments under international law and platforms are all components of the proposed dashboard that could first serve the determination of national baselines on the gendered dimensions of the Agenda and their integration into the national planning system beyond the imposed donors' safeguards and rules.

From a civil society perspective, this report is envisioning to analyze the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda with regard to natural resources management and their transformative nature for social change and economic transition. This will be explored as way forward for tackling persistent disparities that exist in ownership, and control over economic wealth, access to resources and markets that hamper sustainable development goals pursuit. Topping the social and economic inequalities, gender inequality between and within Arab countries, which has profound and complex connection with violence, conflicts and poverty, remains the most pressing developmental issues in the Arab region. This will entail a breakthrough in terms of innovative policies for applying multi-stakeholder approaches, adapting SDGs to national, sub-national and local contexts, creating horizontal policy coherence by breaking silos and vertical policy coherence by glocalizing the Agenda²⁴.

This report is intended to be evidence-based on the current status of natural resources through gender lenses in reference to the aspiring and inspiring 2030 Agenda goals and targets. It will also provide qualitative information on this status at the country level in the Arab region. The potential of Civil Society Organizations to accelerating the pace for the implementation of the Agenda²⁵ will be highlighted. The Third Sector Organizations' role to trigger the process for economic transition to achieve social justice at the country level needs to be especially emphasized in the horizon 2030. For this purpose, the report will be structured around two main ideas entailing way forward for closing the gender gap in natural resources management under the 2030 Agenda: **Chapter II**; and **the** gender justice as a driving force for the transition to *Green Local Development*: **Chapter III**. **Chapter I** will be delving into the key concepts and the methodological framework for Analysis.

Chapter I: Key concepts and methodological framework for analysis:

In this chapter, a methodological framework for analysis is proposed (**Section II**) based on the selection of several key concepts that will provide some insightful analysis drawing on the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development with regard to the transition to *Green Local Development* as way forward for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda (**Section I**).

Section I: Key concepts for analysis of the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development:

Key concepts for this analysis will entail gender (§1) as well as those related to local development (§2), civil society (§3) and natural resources (§4).

§1: Gender concepts:

Gender justice: The successful realization of gender justice relies on two key elements: Accountability and equality that are in alignment with international and regional standards, notably the 2030 Agenda and the Beijing Platform for Action. Therefore, *Gender justice* is perceived in the Arab region²⁶ as a formal process and a substantive outcome²⁷: The formal process of seeking gender justice focuses mainly on accountability while the ultimate substantive outcome is achieving gender equality.

*Gender equality*²⁸ refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. It implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is a human rights principle, a precondition for people-centered and sustainable development, and it is a goal in and of itself. Gender equality is in line with relevant international instruments such as the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Declaration. It is also informed by the 2030 Agenda and SDGs.

Gender accountability and gender-sensitive accountability: Accountability refers to the obligation and responsibility on the part of State structures and public officials to implement gender mainstreaming and achieve gender equality policy objectives, to report on progress achieved, and to be answerable of failure to meet stated gender equality objectives. Gender-sensitive accountability requires that the decisions of public actors can be regularly assessed from the perspective of women's and men's needs and interests and that gender equality is one of the standards against which the performance of decision-makers is assessed²⁹.

Gender mainstreaming is “the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.”³⁰ Gender mainstreaming includes gender-specific activities and affirmative action, whenever women or men are in a particularly disadvantageous position. Gender-specific interventions can target women exclusively, men and women together, or only men, to enable them to participate in and benefit equally from development efforts.

§2: Key concepts related to local development:

According to the World Bank, *local economic development* aims at “building up the economic capacity of a local area to improve its economic future and the quality of life for all. It is a process by which public, business and non-governmental sector partners work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth and employment generation”³¹. Moreover, local economic development signals the drive for rooting employment creation by building on the comparative advantages and the unique characteristics of localities. It is quite different from the *pro-poor local economic development*³² that had been successfully experimented in South Africa for the Tourism sector. However, it built on its essence: The geographic scope of localities as defined within the national context³³.

ILO underscored the need for new “strategies that contribute to stronger policy coherence between national and sub-national levels, whilst connecting to cross-border value chains and markets” and depicted *pro-poor local economic development* as crucial for “building up local

capacity and for effective policy making, systemic development planning and strategy implementation. This could benefit women and men regardless their geographic location. It includes the promotion of dialogue between local-level stakeholders in both rural and urban areas, the creation of employment strategies at the local level, an enabling environment for micro, small and medium enterprises at the local level and the extension of social security coverage to informal workers and local population’’³⁴.

OECD considered *Green Local Development*³⁵ for identifying “approaches to support the adaptation of the public sector to green economy in view of removing the barriers to the emergence and expansion of greener practices and activities in the private sector. The proposed approaches of OECD under the LEED project³⁶ (The Local Economic and Employment Development Project) envisioned to look at ways in which the public sector can improve the quality of advice services offered to enterprises (e.g. market prospection), workers (e.g. skills assessment) and the civil society (e.g. communication) to stimulate the green economy at the local level. Moreover, the organization called for building local capacities to adopt and adapt green technologies and for innovative public sector-led action such as setting procurement policies that encourage enterprises to provide greener goods and services as a condition of securing contracts to supply the public sector, and stimulating a greener approach to doing business.

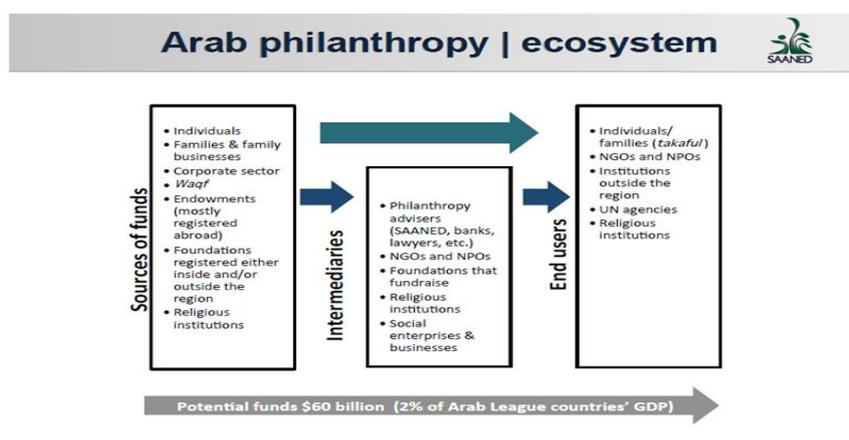
For this report which builds on the World Bank definition of *local economic development*, a broader scope of this concept will be needed in reference to the ILO approach of pro-poor local economic development and will select the OECD terminology and approach of the LEED project: *Green Local Development*³⁷.

§3: Key concepts related to civil society:

Civil Society encompasses a wide range of organizations: Community foundations, community organizations, consumer organizations, cooperatives, foundations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), non-profit organizations (NPOs), political parties, religious groups, private voluntary organizations (PVOs), professional associations, religious organizations, social enterprises, social movement organizations, trade unions and voluntary associations. Basically, all these organizations are communities of citizens linked by common interests and collective activities. Their main characteristic is that they are independent of governments and they emerge as non-economic and have populous aspects, especially during economic transformations that could have impact on the public sphere and on private sector. Three concepts deserve to be pointed out for this analysis, in addition to Civil Society Organizations (CSOs): Community Based Organizations (CBOs), philanthropic organizations and the Third Sector Organizations (TSOs).

Community Based Organizations (CBOs) are non-profit groups that work at a local level to improve life for residents. The focus is to build equality across society in all streams - health care, environment, quality of education, access to technology, access to spaces and information for persons with disability. Their role is central to alleviating poverty and combating social exclusion. Their main feature is that they operate within the given locality to insure the community with sustainable provision of adequate services and the needed care in all aspects of life. These organizations are key for community-based natural resources management aiming at the local management of shared resources within forests, mountains, coastal zones and providing rural population with water and sanitation services. They are also key for community based disaster preparedness and for peace-building initiatives and post-conflict transformation. Women participation in Community based organizations, as well as activities that target women, girls, men and boys of such organizations at the local level should retain our attention for this report.

Philanthropic organizations, or charitable organizations or charities are non-profit and non-governmental entities that utilize donation assets and income to provide social useful services. Community foundations, endowments and charitable trusts are also categories of philanthropic organizations. They are organized under The Arab Foundations Forum (AFF) that serves as a platform to encourage dialogue and collaboration between philanthropic institutions and key stakeholders involved in the philanthropic sector both in the Arab region and beyond³⁸. The following figure illustrates the Arab philanthropy ecosystem:



Source: Atallah Kuttab, Natasha Matic and Noha El-Mikawy, Arab philanthropy: from social giving to social change?³⁹

Third Sector Organizations (TSOs) is a term used to describe a wide array of organizations that are neither public sector nor private sector. It includes voluntary and community organizations such as charities and associations, and community groups, social enterprises, mutuals and cooperatives. These organizations are generally independent of government and ‘value-driven’. This means they are motivated by the desire to achieve social goals (for example, improving public welfare, the environment or economic well-being) rather than the desire to distribute profit and reinvest any surpluses generated in the pursuit of their goals. TSOs are associations of people who share common values and objectives. Many have company status but with a not-for-personal-profit approach. Very many have charitable status or are community interest companies, industrial and provident societies or cooperatives. For this report, we do prefer this concept that reflects several legal forms including cooperatives that are key for natural resources management and agriculture, even though the New York Summit outcome document ranged cooperatives within the private sector organizations⁴⁰.

§4: Key concepts on natural resources:

Natural capital: According to the Natural Capital Forum⁴¹, the natural capital is defined as “the world’s stock of natural assets which include geology, soil, air, water and all living things. It is from natural capital that human derive a wide range of services often called ecosystem services”. OECD underlined the statistic definition of natural capital as following: “Natural capital is natural assets in their role of providing natural resource inputs and environmental services for economic production. This form of capital is generally considered to comprise three principal categories: Natural resource stocks, land and ecosystems. All are considered essential to the long-term sustainability of development for their provision of “functions” to the economy, as well as to mankind outside the economy and other living beings.”⁴².

Environmental assets versus natural resources: Natural resources are a subset of environmental assets defined by the SEEA (System of Environmental-Economic Accounting) as “the naturally occurring living and non-living components of the Earth, together constituting the biophysical environment, which may provide benefits to humanity”. In the

SEEA, environmental assets are viewed as the individual components that make up the environment, with no direct account taken of the interactions between these components as part of ecosystems⁴³ whereas natural resources include all natural biological resources (including timber and aquatic resources), mineral and energy resources, soil resources and water resources. All cultivated biological resources and land are excluded from the scope of the statistics definition of natural resources. However, the primary role of land in the SEEA is to provide space. Land and the space it represents define the locations within which economic and other activity is undertaken and within which assets are situated⁴⁴. This is important for localizing the new Agenda.

Natural resources base of economic and social development: Through its assessments over the past six years, the International Resource Panel (IRP) has drawn attention to the current practices and future opportunities for ensuring the sustainable management of the natural resource base of economic and social development through ‘decoupling the rate of economic growth from escalating resource use and environmental degradation’. For example, good experiences on technology prospects for decoupling through improved productivity in the use of energy, land, water and materials⁴⁵. This approach will be of guidance for building the analysis on gender, natural resources and *Green Local Development* within the 2030 Agenda under a proposed methodological framework that conceptualizes the interlinkages between the three thematic issues for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the context of Arab countries.

Section II: A Methodological framework for analysis of the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development:

Understanding the complexity of the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development under the 2030 Agenda requires a comprehensive approach for analysis that reflects the multifaceted roles of CSOs for the formulation of sustainable development policies, their implementation, monitoring and follow up and reviews in the special context of the Arab countries.

For the Agenda to be transformative, the following complementary approaches are proposed as a conceptual framework for analysis of two driving forces for gender mainstreaming under the 2030 and their desired dynamics under the theory of change: A human rights based approach to SDGs should be corroborated by a capital-based approach to sustainable development entailing the sustainability of natural capital and the intangible wealth of nations dynamics (Industrial capital with its dual facets manufactured and financial, human capital and the social capital), but deployed at the local level. The following figure illustrates this framework:

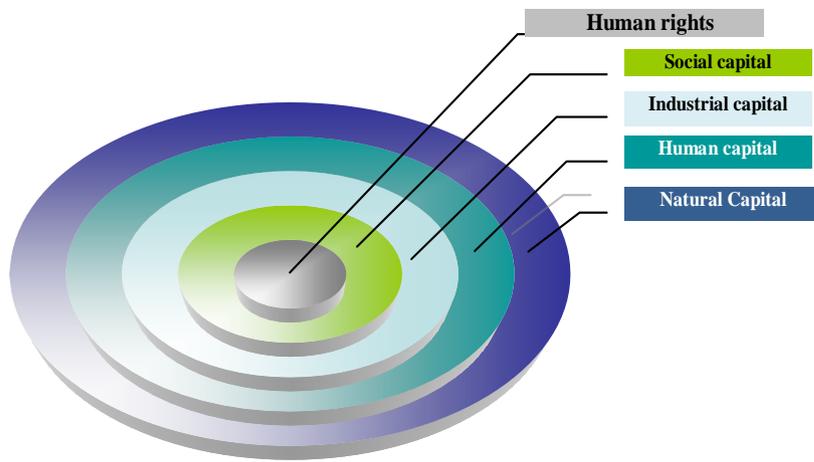


Figure 1: The conceptual framework for analysis proposed by the author for this report

§1: A human rights based approach to SDGs:

Since women’s rights are human rights, the human rights based approach to SDGs is depicted as a driving centripetal force for economic transition and social change founded on the universality of human rights as enshrined in the international law. Nevertheless, localizing the 2030 Agenda needs a closer look at human rights from the perspective of several Multilateral Environmental Agreements. Therefore, this approach should build on the implementation of two distinct legal corpuses under international law: The Universality of human rights and the Multilateralism under International Environmental Law, should be of guidance for an active role of CSOs for the transition to *Green Local Development* that we need to consider as an alternative economic model in the Arab region.

At the national level, the implementation of, compliance with and enforcement of the international law related to human rights and environment will need not only their recognition within constitutions, national laws and regulations but also the integration of the 2030 Agenda goals and its targets into the national planning systems. A dashboard will be proposed as a civil society tool for accountability on the implementation of the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda against the background of the national commitments under international law.

§2: A capital based approach for sustainable development :

The design of gender responsive natural resources policies, as well as the integration of gender strategies and action plans into the national planning systems for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the Arab countries should be evidence-based while reflecting the transformative nature of the agenda including SDGs localization. *Green Local Development* is proposed as the economic model that could ensure, through the driving centrifugal forces of the wealth of nations, the well-being to be founded, among other issues, on a capital-based approach for gender mainstreaming into the territorial policies. Indeed, natural capital is the backbone of this approach but intangible forms of wealth will be also crucial to ensure the required dynamics for progress on SDGs and the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

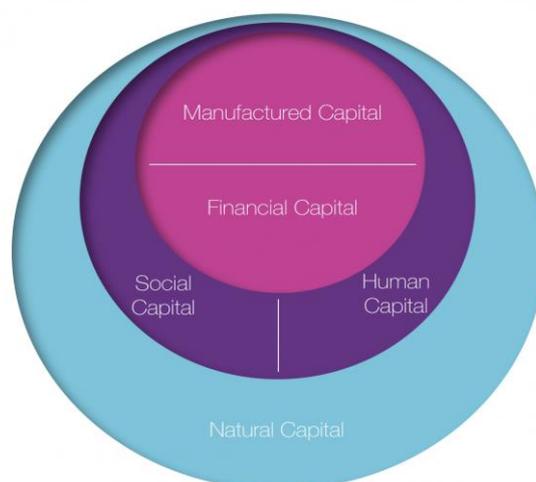


Figure 2: Natural capital approach to sustainable development, The Natural Capital Forum, <https://naturalcapitalforum.com/>

To the question where the Arab region stand two years after the adoption of the 2030 Agenda about the implementation of goal 5 of SDGs and natural resources-related goals and targets with a special focus on natural resources management, this conceptual framework will serve to assess the current situation in the Arab region about the level of responsiveness of natural resources policies to gender preoccupations. It will be of use for exploring the perspectives of localizing SDGs through an enhanced CSOs contribution to deliver on the development outcomes in times of peace and war and to render possible progress on gender justice as well as the transition to *Green Local Development*.

§3: Theory of change:

The theory of Change is essentially a comprehensive illustration of how and why a desired change is expected to happen in a particular context. It is focused in particular on mapping out or “filling in” what has been described as the “missing middle” between what a program or change initiative does and how these lead to desired goals being achieved. It does this by first identifying the desired long-term goals and then works back from these to identify all the conditions considered as outcomes that must be in place for the goals to occur and how these related to one another causally. These are all mapped out in an Outcomes Framework.

This report will propose this Outcomes framework based on a mapping of the current situation about the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development shedding lights on the role of CSOs as actors of social change. Prospects on possible improvements of their action in the context of the 2030 Agenda will involve achieving gender justice for economic transformation through an emerging Third Sector Organizations. Laying the foundations of social justice in the Arab region⁴⁶ will inevitably impose Civil Society representatives at the driver seat for monitoring the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda. Closing the Gender gap is key for the sustainability of natural capital and will be central to building resilience under the 2030 Agenda. However, intangible forms of wealth are catalyst for achieving the desired change and will trigger new dynamics for localizing SDGs at the initiative of CSOs.

Chapter II: Closing the gender gap in natural resources management under the 2030 Agenda

Women are the custodian of natural resources and major actors for building resilience at the local level and for coping ingeniously with socio-economic vulnerabilities brought about by a

wide range of natural and man-made hazards that men, women, girls and boys are forced to shoulder unequally the burden (**Section II**). Maintaining the natural resource base of economic and social development will be conducive for sustaining growth and ensuring human well-being through a pro-poor local development. The CSOs' power of proposal for equal access to natural resources is a prerequisite to ensuring the sustainability of the natural capital (**Section I**).

Section I: Closing the gender gap for equal access to natural assets:

In this section, a special focus will be provided to the access to land (§1) and water (§2). For these natural assets, data is relatively available and could provide evidence on the current situation from a gender equality perspective. Nevertheless, the lack of disaggregated data by sex relating to the access to modern sources of energy is the main hindrance to capture the full picture about the access to natural assets that could ensure the satisfaction of basic necessities of men and women, alike. Furthermore, access and benefit sharing from genetic resources are endorsed by the Agenda regardless their holders whereas natural assets from extractive industries are completely overlooked from the scope of the agenda and should be tackled from a local development perspective if the ambition is to cover all the natural assets that could be considered as the natural resource base for the economic and social development at the local level⁴⁷.

§1 Closing the gender gap for equal access to land:

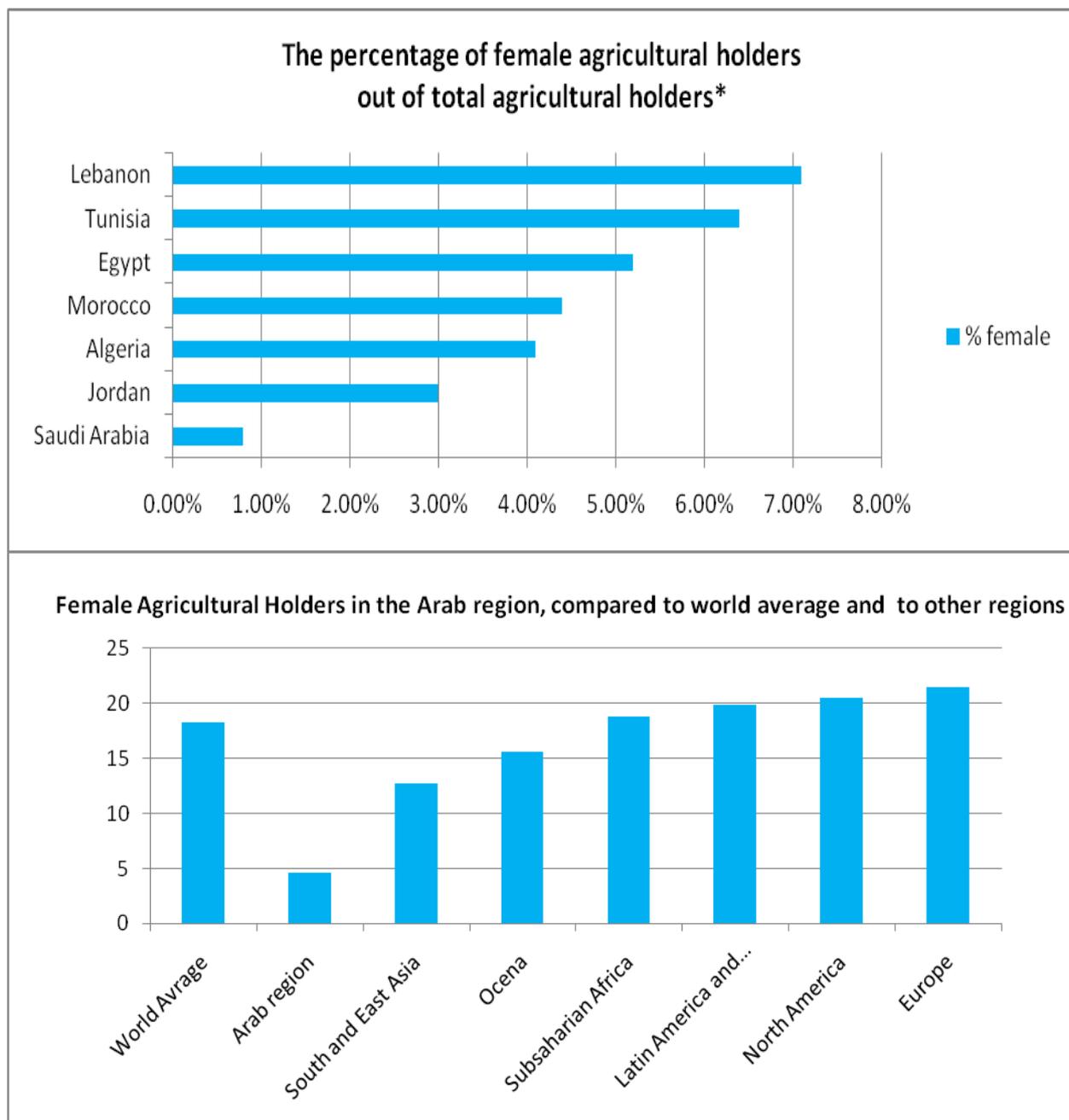
The unequal access to land is the landmark of Arab societies reflecting the heavy legacy of a patriarchal culture locking the productive potential of women and hampering women's entrepreneurship. The implementation of the 2030 Agenda will require a strong commitment for removing all hindrances that prevent women from having access to land. CSOs representatives and activists should be at the forefront of women struggles for equal rights to land through advocacy and policy influencing at all levels.

Considering that the objective of the Agenda is to ensure by 2030 that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, *ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance* (Goal 1.4), Access to land and ownership are essential to women empowerment and gender equality. In the Arab region, gender equal tenure rights⁴⁸ needs to be promoted in order to ensure equality in land access. It is important to determine not only who owns the land but also, who the titular head of the household is and who has decision making power over the land and its uses.

In several countries, the masculinisation of the rural space remains a salient feature despite land governance transformation induced by tenure's reforms⁴⁹. According to the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI, OECD 2014), "in only 37% of the 160 countries on which data were collected do women and men have equal rights to own, use and control land". In more than half, while the law guarantees women and men the same rights to own, use and control land, customary, traditional and religious practices prevent women from having access to land. In 4% of these countries women explicitly have no legal right to own, use and control land.

However, the above mentioned index didn't provide any reliable data about women ownership of land in the Arab region. Moreover, such reliable data is not available from other national and international sources while the Food and Agricultural Organisation reported in 2011 the significant *disparity between women and men as agricultural land holders and not*

owners in selected Arab countries. The following two figures show obviously that the Arab region averages for those selected countries (figure 1) are well below global averages and far from to be comparable to other regional averages (figure 2):



Source for figure 1 and 2 : Author's calculations from FAO Gender and Land Database.

<http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/data-map/statistics/en/>

* This classification is based on data gathered from national agricultural census for different years as follows: Lebanon (1998), Tunisia (2004-2005), Egypt (1999), Morocco(1996), Algeria (2001), Jordan (1997), Saudi Arabia (1999).

The qualitative information provided by OEDC-SIGI of 2014 about the situation in the Arab countries demonstrates that “women in the Arab region are widely acknowledged to be lagging behind men in terms of access to land and property rights. This not only poses concerns regarding the full realization of their human rights and well-being, but also has a negative impact on the social and economic development, food security, climate change, peace and stability in the whole region”⁵⁰.

Despite the fact that the statutory laws guarantee equal access and legal rights to land resources, significant gender gap remains preventing women from equal economic opportunities, especially in rural areas. It is important to underline that women do have constitutional and legal rights to own, hold and use land under several legal frameworks: Civil law, commercial law, family law... Moreover, women maintain their rights to own and manage property, including land under the marital status in several Arab countries. However, inheritance rules, as grounded in Shariia, are according to the majority of views, the main source of inequality between women and men in the region.

Some moderate opinions provide a different reading about gender inequality and the right to land and argue that neither religion nor law are the main source of discrimination, as one could think at first sight. The minimum provided by Chariia for inheritance for example is inhibited by the tradition of a patriarchal rural society reluctant to ensure the transmission of land property by marriage outside the same family. De jure, women have the right to own and manage land but inequality, preventing them de facto from inheritance. Customary law remains therefore the main impediment to closing the gender gap for equal rights to land in the Arab region. The following case study from Palestine is an illustration of the above conclusions.

	CASE STUDY FROM PALESTINE
	<p>CSO: <i>The Women's Affairs Centre Gaza</i> <i>Inheritance Denied Project I, implemented from 2010 to 2013: (€) 860,888</i> <i>Inheritance Denied Project II Implemented from 2013-2016: (€)1474 704</i> Donor: <i>European Union</i> Implementing Agency: <i>DanChurchAid</i></p>
<p>In Palestine, only 5% of women own or have a share in land (compared to 24% of men). These statistics provided by the Palestinian National Authority in 2013 drew attention to the issue of inheritance⁵¹. In 2006, the <i>Women's Affairs Centre Gaza</i>⁵² surveyed women on inheritance rights and highlighted the key reasons hindering women from claiming their inheritance rights. Approximately 60% of women said that they lost their inheritance rights because of 'fear of family boycott'; 13% because of 'lack of awareness of their rights'; 10% because of 'ignorance of laws and procedures related to inheritance partition'; 7 % of because of the 'lack of financial resources for complaining in a court', and 5% because of the 'social criticism of a women who would embarrass her husband'.</p> <p>Inheritance denied project I, implemented by the Women's Affairs Centre Gaza, targeted 20 community based organizations (CBOs) in Palestine, that all work to change women's position in the society and to secure their legal rights to own property. It included several activities such as capacity building of local CBOs to lead campaigns on women's property rights issues, the organization of study circles and training events for CBOs, journalists and lawyers, legal aid for women who's inheritance is endangered through a network between CBOs, lawyers and journalists and media campaigns on women's right to inheritance for raising awareness through documentary movies and drama reenactments.</p> <p>The Palestinian Women and Inheritance Report, one of the Inheritance Denied Project II deliverables, prepared by the Women's Centre for Legal Aid and Counseling (WCLAC) in 2014, reiterated that "Under a variety of social and economic pretexts, women are deprived of their inheritance rights due to a patriarchal dominance and a longstanding social culture that consolidates the dominant social position of men."⁵³. Moreover, the Women's Affairs Center of Gaza conducted two day training about "the pressure and advocacy skills in women right in heritage", the training targeted 25 representatives of CBOs in Gaza Strip.</p>	

In 2015, the Women's Affairs Center of Gaza implemented an advanced training about "Pressure and advocacy campaigns for empowering women to reach their right in inheritance". Methods and means used for campaigning, and advocacy, the strategic plan, and problem tree and change theory had been on the Agenda aiming at influencing for the adoption of the idea of establishing a department of inheritance issues within the ministry of justice⁵⁴.

It is widely acknowledged that by addressing these issues, in 2011 and 2012, civil society organizations activated the *National Committee for the Personal Status Law*, a coalition of organizations working to promote gender-equitable legislation. Progress was made with regards to women's rights particularly through Shariia courts. Three administrative orders were passed by the Chief Justice of the Shariia court to reduce the vulnerability of women and to ensure that women have access to accurate information in inheritance cases (ESCWA 2012)⁵⁵.

In particular, action was taken to reduce the number of women renouncing their land rights. The decree of 15/5/2011 defines the preconditions required for inheritance renunciation as following: A detailed inventory of the movable and immovable properties of the defunct; evaluation of the belongings to be excluded of inheritance under the renunciation (tanazul) procedure; publication of the tanazul decision in a newspaper for at least a week, under the supervision of the sharia court; and the final tanazul decision should not be registered before the end of four months following the decease⁵⁶.

In several Arab countries, women's rights to land are constitutional (Algeria, Bahrain, Iraq and Lebanon). Equal rights to own and access land are acknowledged in several other countries (Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait) under civil and commercial codes. In some Arab countries, women are able to maintain their rights to ownership, control and access to land under the separation regime of the marital status. Unless stipulated in the marriage contract, women can manage and dispose of land property without her husband's consent (Bahrain).

For reforms to be successful on women's rights to land, legal frameworks need to be specific about ownership and inheritance, movable and immovable property, joint titling, and disposal of marital property. However, security of tenure, rather than ownership, is fundamental to women's economic, social and political empowerment, as well as to an increased prosperity for their families and communities. In fact, security of tenure is prerequisite for the access to non land resources, especially to the financial services needed for the promotion of women entrepreneurship in rural areas. Skilled women holders of their agriculture lands are well placed to apply the best available techniques to their exploitations and to enhance the productivity of their lands through innovation and adapted technologies.

In some Arab countries, however, it is not considered appropriate for women to own property. In addition, fathers or brothers can claim the property of unmarried women (UAE). According to the FAO⁵⁷, 5.2% of land in Egypt is owned by women but Egyptian women rarely own the land that they work, and it is not considered socially acceptable for them to inherit land. Where women do own land or other property, they often delegate the responsibility of managing it to husbands or male relatives. The following synthetic table which gathers detailed quantitative and qualitative information on women's rights to land in several Arab Countries from the SIGI, OECD,2014, could provide some illustrative figures of the above conclusions.

Women access to land in selected Arab countries. Source: Social Institutions and Gender Index SIGL, OECD, 2014⁵⁸

Algeria	Under the Constitution and the Family Code, women have the right to own and use land and other forms of property. Under the Family Code, when a woman marries, she retains ownership of any property, and can dispose of that property without permission from her husband. The Family Code that governs women's access to land is a piece of civil law but is directly informed by Sharia. Women are generally too poor in Algeria to buy or lease land independently, and traditional social values inhibit women's exercise of economic independence. Women delegate decision-making in regard to land and property to their husband or male relatives. The Rural Renewal Policy of 2006 designed to revitalise rural areas and boost sustainable development – appears to be gender blind, and does not specifically target or support rural women. However, as of 2008, CEDAW report (2010) notes that 3,550 women (out of a total of 101,838) had been assisted to purchase land through a state 'farmland ownership productivity enhancement programme'.
Bahrain	Under Bahrain's Constitution, Commercial Code, and the National Action Charter, women have the right to own, access, and manage land. On marriage, a woman retains control and ownership of any property that she owns unless stipulated in the marriage contract; she can manage and dispose of that property without her husband's consent. Property and land ownership is governed by civil law in Bahrain, not by Sharia law. Under civil law, women have the same legal capacity as men. Some women authorize a male family member to manage property, land, and other assets. In addition, the Bahrain Women's Union note that in practice, in the case of divorce, it is often difficult for women to claim their right to property purchased jointly during the marriage.
Egypt	The Egyptian Civil Code and Commercial Code give women equal rights to own and access land. It appears that women's access to land is governed solely by civil law. According to FAO, 5.2% of land in Egypt is owned by women. In rural areas women rarely own the land that they work, and it is not considered socially acceptable for them to inherit land. Where women do own land or other property, they often delegate the responsibility of managing it to husbands or male relatives.
Iraq	Under the 1970 Agrarian Reform Law, women in Iraq were granted the right to exercise economic independence and own and cultivate land. On marriage, a woman has the right to retain to ownership and control of her own property, including land. Land and property ownership appear to be governed exclusively by civil law and few women are able to exercise their property and land rights in the current social and political situation.
Jordan	Under the Civil Code, women in Jordan have the legal capacity to own land and they do not need their husband or guardian's approval to do so. Land and property ownership is governed solely by the Civil Code. According to JICA (2009), women own 4.9% of land in Jordan, while the FAO gave a figure of 3% (no date provided). Government research (2008) cited in the official Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) report notes that at that time, 15.1% of women owned land. According to the Arab Women Organization, 44% of women-headed households own land. Most land plots owned by women are small, because they come into women's ownership through inheritance, and women's inheritance entitlements are half those of men. In rural areas, women's lack of access to economic resources makes land ownership difficult.
Kuwait	Women in Kuwait have the full legal right to own and manage land under the Civil Code, which does not discriminate by sex with regards to a person's legal capacity to own property and carry out commercial transactions. Women have the full legal right to own and manage land.
Lebanon	According to the Lebanese Constitution (Art. 7), married and unmarried women have the same rights as men to conclude contracts and own and administer property, including land assets. Within marriage, regardless of religious affiliation, each spouse has the right to own and administer property separately and independently (the default marital property regime is separation of property). In practice, husbands and male family members often heavily influence women with regard to the administration of property. More specifically, discriminatory inheritance practices in some cases work against women in terms of ownership (e.g. Muslim women typically inherit half that of sons and many cede land to their male relatives so as to keep property in the male line. Limitations also arise from the fact that many women remain unaware of their economic and legal rights.
Libya	Women have the legal right to own, manage and administer land. In practice, however, social convention dictates that men retain control and ownership of land. This is despite the fact that according to FAO, extensive out-migration of men from rural areas in Libya has resulted in the effective 'feminisation' of agriculture, with women assuming more and more responsibility for agricultural production. However, relatively few women actually own land (12%). More broadly, there is little current information on property rights in contemporary Libya. The latter were highly inconsistent under the Qadhafi regime, and the government regularly confiscated private land, some of which was redistributed to the landless or political favourites. Private property ownership was abolished in 1986, leaving Libyans with transferable use-rights only to land and inheritance rules are largely unfavourable towards women.
Morocco	Moroccan women have the same ownership rights to land as men, but tradition often limits those rights. Despite a favourable legal framework, women's access to land is often restricted, particularly in rural areas, and few women own land. Where they do, it is often managed by male relatives. Under Morocco's standard matrimonial system, spouses retain their own property. Women own only 7% of the Moroccan land.
Oman	Following changes to legislation in 2008, women acquired the right to obtain land without the condition that they be the sole providers of their families, or divorced or widowed, as was previously the case. In practice, however, husbands often make decisions regarding property and income owned by women and authorities are reluctant to intervene to uphold women's rights in this area, seeing it as a private matter. According to a report published by the UN Food and Agricultural Organization, women own as little as 0.4% of the land. The default marital property regime is separation of property and the original owner is legally entitled to administer their property during marriage.

<i>Palestine</i>	Women have the legal right to access land, but female ownership is low because of social norms that limit women’s economic activity. A PCBS survey from 1999 indicated that only 5% of women owned (or shared ownership of) a piece of land. While updated national statistics on land or property ownership are unavailable, a survey of 80 women and 50 men conducted in 2005 by researchers at the Institute of Women’s Studies at Birzeit University revealed that 8% of men compared to 2.5% of women surveyed owned land. They concluded that there may be a stigma associated with land and property ownership by women.
<i>Qatar</i>	Women and men who are Qatari citizens have the same rights to own and manage land assets. However, Freedom House reported that in practice, social norms and customs make it difficult for women to exercise these rights. Law No. 40 of 2004 provides that Qatari men and women have the same rights over their individual incomes.
<i>Saudi Arabia</i>	In Saudi Arabia, married and unmarried women have the legal right to own land assets (Basic Law, Articles 7, 17, and 18). Upon marriage, women retain control and ownership of any property that they may already have; noting that the default marital property regime is separation of property (Basic Law, Articles 7 and 23).
<i>Syria</i>	The default marital property regime is separation of property and the original owner has the legal right to administer property during marriage. In addition, there are no legal restrictions on women’s access to land. However , women’s land ownership remains very low: In 2006, JICA reported that just 5.3% of agricultural land was owned by women, and that land holdings owned by women were on average smaller than those owned by men.
<i>Tunisia</i>	Women in Tunisia have equal ownership rights to property. They are free to own and manage land independently. The default marital property regime is separation of property and the original owner has the legal right to administer their property during marriage. Since 1998, spouses have been allowed by the Law to opt for the community of property regime, under which common goods may be transferred only with the consent of both spouses; lacking this option in the matrimonial contract, separation of property applies.
<i>UAE</i>	Women in the UAE are considered adults at the age of 18, at which point they are legally able to have independent access to land assets . The law also provides that when women marry, previously owned assets – as well as any income resulting from those assets – remain separate property of the spouses. In practice, however, it is not considered appropriate for women to own property, nor for them to live on their own. In addition, fathers or brothers can claim the property of unmarried women. According to the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), in 2002 women owned just 4.9% of land in the UAE.
<i>Yemen</i>	Women have the legal right to own land. Within marriage, women maintain ownership and control over their own property and assets, which are not considered to be under joint ownership (the separation of property is the marital property regime by default). But poverty, illiteracy, unawareness of economic rights and discriminatory practices limit the ability of women to exercise these rights; in most cases, women hand over the administration of their property and positions to their husband or male relatives. In addition, it is considered socially unacceptable for women to register land in their own names in rural areas. This, and the high fees charged for land registrations serve as further de facto limitations on women’s access to land. Survey data from the Status of Women in the Middle East and North Africa (SWMENA) project shows that only 4% of women owned and controlled the land (an additional 3% owned land but had no control over the asset); 14% of whom exercise full control over the asset.

I-Closing the gender gap for access to water:

In the Arab region, where water is the foundation of life and livelihoods, women voice on the gendered dimensions of water, sanitation and hygiene need to be heard and acknowledged as fundamental for the formulation of gender-sensitive natural resources policies. In general, “women’s civil society has a mounting track record of successful interventions in providing water and sanitation for the poor, preventing conflicts, increasing resource efficiency, and addressing water management in an integrated manner for sustainable livelihood. Their strength lies in their ability to reach down into the capillaries of society”⁵⁹; In reference to the 2030 Agenda, the human right to water entails universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all by 2030 (target 6.1). The same goal exhorted countries to pay attention to the special needs of women and girls in achieving access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene and ending open defecation (target 6.2). A reading of the target 6.b and target 6.5 combined will inform on way forward for the involvement of local communities and women groups in improving water management through integrated water resources management by 2030.

With the task of water collection falling mostly on the shoulders of women, available data on the access to drinking water provides several figures on the hardship for women collecting water for domestic uses, especially in rural areas. Water collection is an unpaid work that might prevent women and girls from making progress on education attainment and achieving personal fulfilment through work and leisure. Water related chores keep young girls under fifteen out of schools and the time burden of water collection has tremendous impacts on women and girls lives. Water collection competes with time to spend on other economic activities and the time burden of water collection diminish women ability to be engaged for other pursuits such as waged work, political involvement, recreation and cultural activities⁶⁰.

Women are depicted as a disadvantaged social group in many aspects of social and economic life, which can impact on their capacity to cope with water scarcity. “Policies directly addressing water scarcity need to be “rights based and gender responsive”. Access to safe water also plays an important part given that women are primary caretakers of family and children and require access to safe water”⁶¹. Women in the region are more likely to manage the household and, in effect, control water consumption. Girls need to be targeted to raise awareness of water consumption. The case study below about targeting eco-clubs within single-gender primary and secondary schools on water conservation illustrates such concerns.

Furthermore, women and men are unequally affected by water availability, access and quality due to the prevailing economic roles and social norms. In rural areas men often focus on water for farming and raising livestock whereas women’s concerns are water uses for domestic needs, health and hygiene. The difference of priorities in managing water in rural areas is ranging from irrigation systems for men and drinking water provision for women. Consequently a gendered profile of water collection is more pronounced in rural areas and especially in Least Development Countries as shown in the figures below.

However, data on water availability and women vulnerability to water, with regard to equal rights to water, remain the major problem from a gender analysis perspective. Whereas, gender specific data is relatively available for household management of drinking water and can inform on gender inequality, especially in some Least Development and Middle Income Countries, time spent for water collection in the Arab region is unfortunately a gender-blind

indicator. The access to drinking water could be measured at the household level. Intra-household inequality based on sex and age is also possible to be accurately measured from international data sources in selected Arab countries as follows:

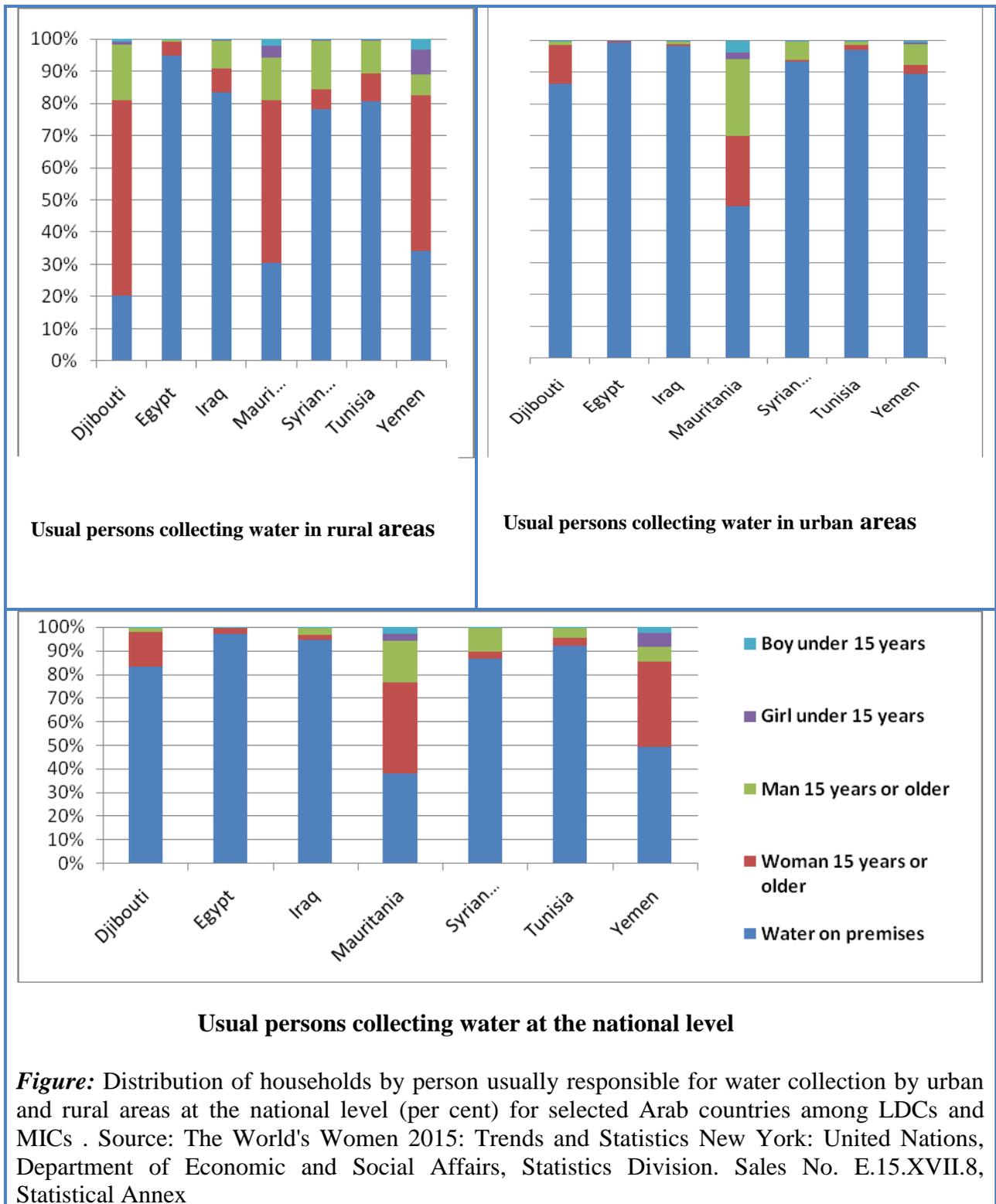
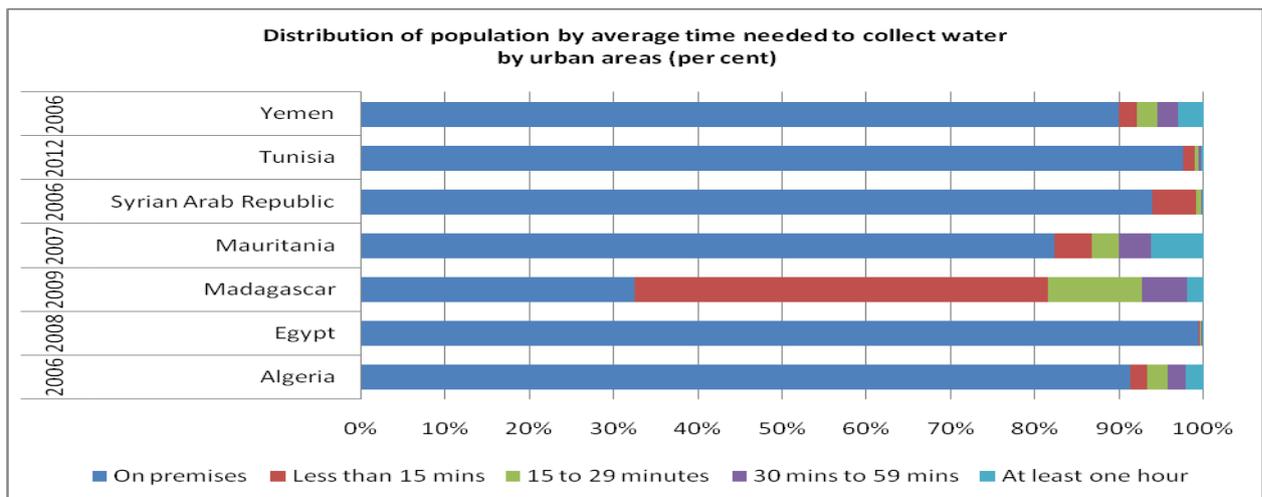
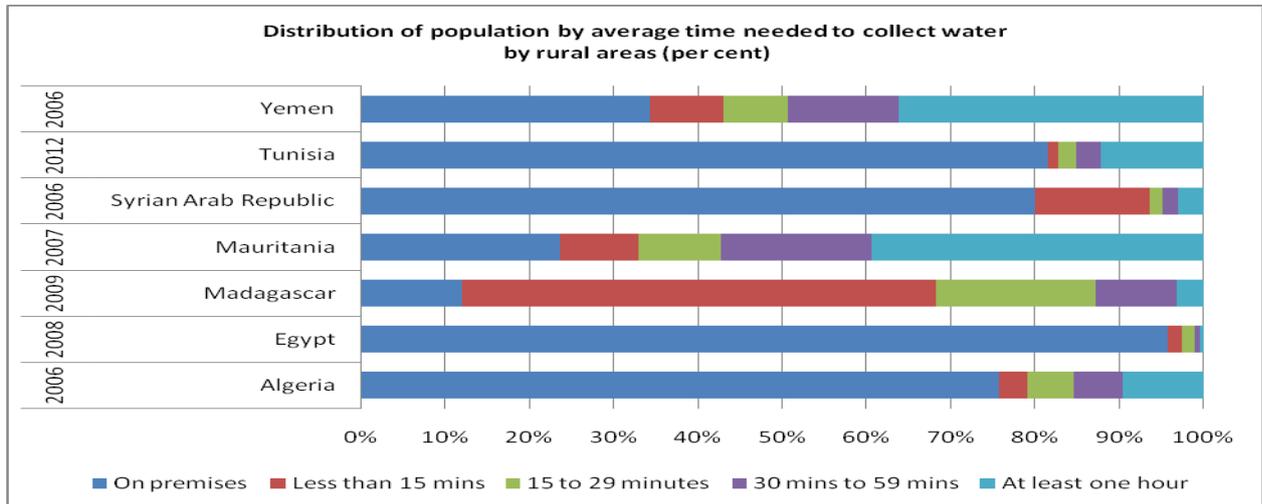


Figure: Distribution of households by person usually responsible for water collection by urban and rural areas at the national level (per cent) for selected Arab countries among LDCs and MICs . Source: The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics New York: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division. Sales No. E.15.XVII.8, Statistical Annex

The above averages on water collection burden shouldered by women 15 years or older and by girls under 15 in rural areas are particularly high for Yemen and Mauritania. It is noteworthy to add that the indicators related to the distribution of population by average for the time spent to collecting water in rural and urban areas, regardless the lack of disaggregation by sex, complement information about gender inequality for the access to water and could provide the full picture about women water collection burden, especially in rural areas.



Source: United Nations, 2015. The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics. New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division. Sales No. E.15.XVII.8, Statistical Annex

These figures confirm that water collection by women and girls in rural areas in Mauritania and Yemen is particularly of concerns while the situation seems to be less worrying in Middle Income Countries. Nonetheless, no data had been provided from the above sources on Jordan. The following case study about the Jordan's Royal Society for the Conservation of Nature (RSCN) project on Water Conservation Education targeting single-gender primary and secondary schools in the kingdom needs to be considered as a success story for replication within other Arab countries.



Jordan's Royal Society for the Conservation of Nature (RSCN)

Donor: USAID/Jordan

Implementing Agency: GreenCOM

The Jordan's Royal Society for the Conservation of Nature (RSCN) introduced environmental conservation clubs in *single-gender primary and secondary schools* throughout the country since 1986. Considering the increasing water scarcity and the rapidly growing population, RSCN introduced the water conservation focus in the mid-1990s. USAID/Jordan asked GreenCOM, an environmental education and communication project active in 28 countries, to provide technical assistance to this new programme in research, training, evaluation and curriculum development and implementation. In 1994 GreenCOM conducted formative qualitative research on a sample of RSCN eco-clubs representatives from 10 schools in different parts of the country. The themes included in the interviews and focus groups covered knowledge of Jordan's water situation; water shortage and pollution; attitudes towards water problems and roles and responsibilities in solving those problems; and water conservation practices at home, in school and in the community. Initial findings indicated high levels of awareness of water shortage and pollution among teachers and students. Nevertheless, respondents were not convinced that they could take effective action to ameliorate Jordan's water problems and felt that any solutions were the government's responsibility. The unavailability of technical materials on water conservation in the eco-clubs was also noted.

The project partners to develop a secondary school *water conservation curriculum* benefiting from these findings. The curriculum was divided into five units covering the natural water cycle and water sources in Jordan: Irrigation, pollution, home gardens, household water consumption and groundwater and surface water. The curriculum emphasized the importance of engaging students in discussions and hands-on experiments to help them understand the topic's relevance and the need to change their water consumption habits. One activity required students to take some simple water-saving actions at home. They were asked to compare household water bills received before and after the experiment to observe the reduction in water use and expense. GreenCOM introduced the new curriculum to eco-clubs by first training RSCN staff, which later held a series of two-day teacher training workshops with 163 leaders from 72 selected clubs. Trainees practiced using the manual and conducting some of the experiments. Many of the teachers reported that it was the first time they had encountered an interactive teaching methodology.

After the trained teachers had used the new materials in their clubs for four months, GreenCOM conducted post implementation surveys to gauge the curriculum's impact. The curriculum had a strong positive influence on the number and kind of water activities teachers implemented in their clubs. Most teachers who received the curriculum training implemented almost all of the recommended activities with their students. An overwhelming majority (90 %) said they would use the curriculum again. Implementing the curriculum did little to change teachers' beliefs about the advantages of interactive teaching methods and their confidence in using those methods. Despite this finding, the research suggests that using interactive methods could change teachers' preferences over time. On the other hand, students from eco-clubs that used the curriculum had more positive scores on knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about water conservation than students from non-participating clubs. Students who were exposed to the new curriculum had more positive scores on an aggregate scale of social behaviours than students with no exposure.

GreenCOM's work on the water conservation curriculum for secondary school eco-clubs demonstrated several important results entailing professional development: Skill building for staff members of RSCN's education department was a major component of this project; Dialogue about water conservation: The new curriculum helped to open a public dialogue on water conservation. Introduction of interactive teaching methods: The curriculum introduced Jordanian teachers to interactive teaching, which contrasted sharply with their traditional lecture-based methods.

Section II: Closing the gender gap for enhancing resilience to environmental risks

For strengthening resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries (Target 13.1), national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 need to be adopted. Local disaster risk reduction strategies are also needed and should be aligned to the national strategic framework on risk reduction (indicators for targets 13.1). Target 13.b exhorted countries for the promotion of mechanisms for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities.

Although men and women possess similar vulnerabilities to the impact of environmental risks, based on their respective roles in local societies, climate change is forcing Arab countries to rethinking long-standing gender roles that have perpetuated gender inequality (§1). In the majority of these countries, women will face exclusively the impact of natural disasters (§2). This is because they are often poorer than men; responsible for natural resources and household management; lack access to opportunities for improving and diversifying their livelihoods, have low participation in decision-making, and bear solely the responsibility, as female-headed household in displacement situations. Closing the gender gap will contribute therefore to enhancing local resilience in conflict-affected countries through an active role of the Civil Society Organisations (§3).

§1-Closing gender gap for local resilience to climate change

The formulation of gender responsive strategies to climate change, requires not only the determination of the risks and vulnerabilities, that pertain to women, men, girls, and boys at all levels but also drawing these strategies on a wide range of socio-economic, cultural, and structural inequality issues. The gender analysis is an adequate tool to provide a comprehensive overview of the social representation, the role and responsibilities, natural resources rights, adaptive capacities and all forms of resilience that need to be embedded into the national climate change strategic frameworks.

In the region where gender inequalities are perpetrated through formal rules and informal practices, vulnerability to climate change is increasing. The progress of Arab countries toward environmental mandates and the gender dimensions which, as well as promoting gender equality, are a substantial element in the ‘Intended Nationally Determined Contributions’ (INDCs) under the new international climate change agreement⁶³.

For this qualitative analysis, the following example from Jordan might provide evidence about the need for making effective such policies in Middle Income Countries, but more analysis need to be undertaken for least developing countries taking into account their priority in being eligible to climate finance, especially for the adaptation to the adverse impacts of climate change. The case study from Egypt on the expected role of women CBOs for implementing the project for the Adaptation of Nile Delta to Climate Change is also more than significant given the imperative of gender mainstreaming into national climate policies and the relevant programmes and projects to be proposed for their implementation.

Jordan: Program for Mainstreaming Gender in Climate Change Efforts⁶⁴

***supported by Global Gender and Climate Alliance,
the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland and IUCN***

 <p>Overall Objective: To ensure that national climate change efforts in Jordan mainstream gender considerations so that women and men can have access to, participate in, contribute to and hence optimally benefit from climate change initiatives, programs, policies and funds.</p>	
Examples of Proposed Actions in Jordan	
Priority Area	Action Involving Women
 <p>Water</p>	Monitor the amount of funding on water made available for gender activities at the local level
 <p>Energy</p>	Encourage families to increase energy efficiency through enforcement of construction codes
 <p>Agriculture and Food Security</p>	Promote women's participation in small-scale enterprises and food processing transformation industries
 <p>Waste Reduction and Management</p>	Conduct "Train the Trainers" sessions for community centre representatives, teachers at schools, and Imams and priests at mosques and churches

In 2015, Jordan integrated gender responsive actions into its Intended National Determined Commitments (INDCs) submitted to UNFCCC within the context of Paris Agreement negotiations. It was the logical extension of the 'National Climate Change Policy of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan 2013-2020' that acknowledged gender as a key factor for the implementation of the national climate policy. Indeed, this had been the landmark of a long journey towards the culmination of a process launched since 2010, entailing the creation of the "Program for Mainstreaming Gender in Climate Change Efforts" and the adoption of the Jordan's Action Plan by the Government after its endorsement by the National Women Committee. The program's objective is "to ensure that national climate change efforts in Jordan mainstream gender considerations so that women and men can have access to participate in, contribute to, and hence optimally benefit from climate change initiatives, programs, policies and funds." Building on the 2010 programme, as part of the enabling activities for the preparation of Jordan's third 'National Communication to UNFCCC in 2013, gender was expressed as a national priority in the context of climate change.

Women's Strategy, launched in 2012, embedded well before the third national communication a section on 'Women, Environment, and Climate Change,' with the ambition to ensure the empowerment of women for maintaining and developing natural resources. Nevertheless, the National Inter-ministerial Committee on Climate Change, the main body responsible for providing guidance on initiatives relating to climate change, has not been active in ensuring that projects and initiatives under its consideration are in line with the principles of ensuring gender inclusion. There is a need to enhance the partnership between the Jordanian National Commission for Women's Affairs and the National Inter-ministerial Committees on Climate Change to merge gender and climate change actions, through follow up, control, evaluation and development



CASE STUDY FROM EGYPT⁶⁵

CGF Funding proposal, 21 November 2017

Enhancing Climate Change Adaptation in the North Coast and Nile Delta Regions in Egypt

Gender considerations for the implementation of the project and the empowerment of women-led community stewardship committees.

As reported by ESCWA⁶⁶, the vulnerability of women farmers to climate change in Al-Bahirah is the landmark of the impact of climate change on livelihoods in the Nile Delta. Over 70 % of the population in the Al-Bahirah Governorate in Egypt's Nile Delta is within the working-age group (aged 15-64). Notwithstanding this favorable percentage, the population faces a number of underdevelopment challenges that curb their productivity, such as an illiteracy rate of 41.1 %, and a school non-enrolment rate between 6 and 10 %. Considering these factors, the high outward migration rate, at 3.4 % in 2014, illustrates a critical concern regarding the number, nature and quality of development and productivity opportunities available for the people in Al-Bahirah. The general dissatisfaction of young people, particularly young men, with the nature of agricultural-based opportunities creates a strong push factor for emigration. Generally, these young men show interest in employment opportunities that are not readily available in their local communities.

This dynamic creates a change in gender roles, forcing rural women to take on the additional work burden in the agricultural sector in addition to their reproductive, household and community roles. For instance, 32 % of rural women in Al-Bahirah reported such additional burdens associated with securing sufficient water resources. These changes have critical long-term consequences over the viability of returns to agricultural activity and food security, which creates a vicious cycle of vulnerability and underdevelopment. In conclusion, the example of Al-Bahirah illustrates the particular vulnerabilities of women to climate change in the Nile Delta.

The proposed project for CGF funding, which includes Al-Bahira among other localities in the Nile Delta, addresses gender dimensions within the project design and implementation in order to identify and integrate interventions to provide gender responsive and transformative results. As women are key players in managing basic household resources, as care takers, as well as participants in income generating activities, the design of the proposed project addresses the cultural, the physical, as well as the information and capacity related obstacles preventing women from being actively engaged in, supporting, promoting and maintaining the mitigation and adaptation solutions that the project will be implementing.

To this end, a *gender analysis and action plan* was prepared that accounts for gender and social inclusion implications, including the level of awareness, commitment and accountability of all stakeholders to ensure the participation by women in climate resilience processes. Specifically, the following components are included in the project to mainstreaming gender into project activities. Women, youth, the elderly and the disabled are equitably will be represented in the project consultations in the hotspot governorates. Procurement for this project will ensure gender equality and equal participation of women in the contracting schemes. Women and men are able to voice complaints during the project construction under the grievance mechanisms. Development of capacity building trainings, communication campaigns and awareness raising messages in relation to gender and social inclusion mechanisms that are contextually relevant to the subject of climate change while being both culturally and gender sensitive. The Funding proposal underlined the need for developing a stakeholder participation plan, as well as gender-responsive monitoring plan and indicator, and ensuring equitable representation of women and men in the development of the ICZM plan. Women-led community stewardship committees will be empowered for the implementation of the plan.

§2-Closing gender gap for local resilience to natural disasters:

UNISDR defines disaster risk reduction (DRR) as “the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events”. DRR covers analysing and managing hazards to reduce vulnerability to disasters. It includes actions that strengthen preparedness, prevention and mitigation. Community participation is essential to foster resilience. According to UNWOMEN, “Gender-responsive disaster risk reduction refers to analysing and taking into account the needs, opportunities, roles and relationships of women, men, boys and girls formed by gender norms within a given culture and society”⁶⁷. It requires specific attention to women’s rights and gender equality as part of a proactive and people-centred approach to reducing risks and vulnerabilities.

Under the current demographic trends, the Arab Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction 2010-2020⁶⁸ predicted that “the most parts of the region will experience severe migration pressures as a result of which the most vulnerable groups, especially women, are likely to be the most affected”. Beyond migration induced by disasters, gender gap increases women’s and girls’ vulnerability because they limit women’s and girl’s access to information and resources and consequently prevent them from benefiting from equal opportunities. The Strategy provided a special focus on “addressing the vulnerability of women, children and internally displaced persons (IDPs) and other vulnerable groups, combating disease and public health challenges, promoting environmental sustainability, and ensuring partnerships for development”.

Gender disaggregated data, especially pointed out for carrying out risk assessments while collection and use of sex- and age-disaggregated information and data are required for the integration of gender into a wider range of assessments including vulnerability, risk and capacity assessments. Therefore, the strategy called for “establishing regular opportunities for training and skills development for administrators, decision makers and community volunteers, while ensuring the participation of women”. Indeed, women’s participation, leadership and voice in disaster management processes are crucial for building resilience at the local level and contribute to effective DRR that decreases disaster losses, and protects economic, social and cultural assets of communities and countries.

Gender equality and women’s rights in disaster risk reduction will require gender-responsive governance and policy-making through programming, monitoring and evaluation. “Disaster preparedness plans, contingency plans, recovery and reconstruction plans at all administrative levels with the participation of women, the aged, children, IDPs and people with special needs” are proposed as policy tools that should contribute to reduce vulnerability of women and other vulnerable groups and mobilize new partnerships.

Providing support to Arab countries in the fulfillment of gender commitments under the Sendai Framework 2015-2030 in a gender-responsive manner will require open channels for women’s participation and leadership in disaster risk reduction and resilience building. The objective is to ensure that women are better prepared when disaster strikes by increasing their access to early warning instruments, information and protection systems. It will also support women’s access to recovery services and products such as micro-insurance, disaster

compensation and social protection. Such concerns should be reflected in the new regional strategy on DRR for 2020-2030 whereas the Doha Declaration on the regional preparations for the fifth global conference on DRR underlined only the role of women in disasters risks reduction and couldn't embrace the comprehensive Civil Society vision as expressed by the following declaration.

	<p>SHARM-EL-SHEIKH CIVIL SOCIETY DECLARATION ON DISASTERS IN THE ARAB REGION, 2014</p>
	<p>Arab Network for Environment & Development (RAED) with the involvement of the World Vision International (WVI), Global Network of CSOs for Disaster Reduction (GNDR) and the Norwegian Refugee Center (NRC).</p>
	<p><i>Advocacy for an active role of CSOs, NGOs and CBOs in building local resilience to disasters</i></p>
<p>Noting that Civil society organizations (CSOs) have played important roles over past years in the disaster field, starting from the traditional approach of response and relief, the emphasis has gradually shifted to disaster risk reduction, regional NGOs as well as national and local NGOs have recognized the significance of and need for <i>community-based risk reduction</i>. Acknowledging that Arab NGOs have endeavoured in their different capacities to establish links to the policy options at the local and national levels, they recommended, in the run of the regional preparations to the Sendai framework, the following:</p>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The involvement of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) in the formulation of DRR policy, strategy and planning at the local and national level 2. The recognition of the role of CSOs among multi-stakeholder groups in preparedness operations at the local level 3. The need for improving the collection and accessibility of information including two-way exchange of local and traditional knowledge 4. The imperative of enhancing policies to support communities vulnerable to climate induced displacement and policies to support internally displaced persons (IDPs) 	
<p>It is worthy to note that the declaration provided a special focus on the need for enhanced policies to support vulnerable communities to climate induced displacement and internally displaced persons (IDPs). The devastating effects of internal displacement on IDPs themselves, as well as on the hosting local authorities and communities are also highlighted in the declaration. This latter added that the true problem is not IDPs who are dependent on others for basic needs such as shelter, food and water, but the greater risks that the longer displacement could bring about such as the destruction of traditional family and social structures, accelerating IDPs dependency on outside aid and increasing their vulnerability to economic exploitation. The authors of this declaration called for establishing a regional fund to finance programs and activities to be carried out by CSOs to reduce the risk of disasters and confront potential risks of displacement in different Arab countries.</p>	
<p>Moreover, Civil Society representatives called for enhancing the role of CSOs in building resilience of local communities to disasters, especially <i>women, youth & children</i> in order to reduce their vulnerability to disasters. They underlined the need for supporting CSOs in conducting public awareness activities and training & education programs on disaster risks, with the assistance of volunteers from local communities. They emphasized that building resilience to disasters entails activating partnership between States and CSOs in order to engage these latter not only in formulating of local and national plans and strategies, but in monitoring and following up on their implementation. The dissemination of success stories, especially those carried out with the participation of CSOs should be part of this partnership. And the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction and all concerned regional and international organizations were urged to take part in developing the capacities of Arab CSOs to enable them for building capacity for resilience to disasters.</p>	

§3: -Closing gender gap for building resilience in the context of conflicts and occupation:

The adverse impacts of armed conflicts on the availability and use of natural resources such as land, agricultural crops and water underpinning the basic needs of local populations and food security impose a shift in gender roles and responsibilities taking mainly on the traditional masculine roles in natural resource management. Compared to women, men undergo intense pressure for recruitment into armed groups and often have more difficulty in maintaining their traditional role in ensuring livelihoods. Moreover, cross-border refugees movements and internal displacements are populations dynamics for coping with the destruction of environmental assets at the local level within the conflict settings⁶⁹.

Conflict can also lead to the adoption of other coping strategies that damage the local resource base, such as intensified land use, encroachment of protected areas and even deforestation. In turn, this environmental degradation can limit women's access to essential resources, further marginalizing impoverished communities⁷⁰. Other strategies for coping with the impact of conflicts are more dangerous affecting human dignity and threatening human security. Adopting some riskier behaviours by men and women, alike, such as prostitution, or other tactics to maintain or gain access to livelihood assets are very common in the context of conflict⁷¹. The topping is child marriage that needs to be prevented, especially within the refugee camps. There is a room for Civil Society intervention in order to raise awareness about the need for protecting girls, to be considered as a vulnerable group against such practices. Nevertheless, women are not only victims of violence in the context of armed conflicts. It is not excluded for women, fleeing their cities and villages of origin and losing the natural resource base of their livelihoods, to be perpetrators of violence and consequently to be full part of the conflict in order to ensure their survival. The role of Civil Society in building resilience of these vulnerable groups needs to be emphasized beyond humanitarian aid and should be considered within the strategies for peace building and human security.

In the context of occupation, structural inequalities against women are exacerbated by the occupying authorities' practices, imposing exclusion and restrictions on local communities and farmers to own and access natural resources and destabilizing the foundations of peaceful societies. Population under occupation in Palestine are facing several challenges involving usually land tenure, but also extends to access and usage rights for other renewable resources, such as water, and benefit-sharing from genetic resources and other extractive natural resources.

The UNSC Resolution 1325 on Women Peace & Security should be considered to address systematic violations committed against women and girls in conflict areas across the Arab region, which has intensified in an unprecedented pace and in varying forms, from physical to sexual violence, including murder and rape, because of limited efforts for prevention and for the provision of relief, recovery and rehabilitation services to victims. Drawing the attention on violence against women as weapon of war, the Arab Regional Network for Women, Peace and Security comprising women leaders from 12 Arab countries, established by the NGO KARAMA and supported by UNDP in 2013 called for 'protecting women in conflict areas against all forms of violence, and of involving women in committees and consultations pursuing conflict resolution, peace building and reconciliation, at national, regional and global levels.'



ARAB GROUP FOR THE PROTECTION OF NATURE (APN)

Campaigning: “Our Country’s Mothers” project and the Million Tree Campaign planting the Iskaka Village in Salfit (West Bank)

Advocacy for mainstreaming gender into the Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition in protracted crisis

Campaigning: “Our Country’s Mothers” project and the Million Tree Campaign planting the Iskaka Village in Salfit (West Bank)

APN, through its Million Tree Campaign III, continued its efforts in land revival projects and empowering smallholder farmers, particularly *female-headed households*, by planting 1,105 olive, fig and pomegranate trees in the Iskaka area in the Salfit governorate. The event was part of the "Our Country's Mothers" project and was organized in collaboration with the Salfit Development Association and other youth organizations in the area. The Iskaka village lies directly adjacent to and is completely surrounded by the Ariel settlement (the largest settlement in the West Bank).

The "Our Country's Mothers" project aims to plant 7,600 fruit trees of different varieties (olive, pomegranate, fig) in the Salfit villages of Al Furkha, Yasouf and Iskaka over 343 dunams of land, benefiting 110 women farmers and 695 family members⁷².

Advocacy for mainstreaming gender into the Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition in protracted crisis.

APN, represented the Western Asia region in the Civil Society Mechanism (CSM) coordinating committee. APN works to mobilize as well as facilitate participation of Arab CSOs in the CSM consultations and meetings with the *Committee on World Food Security (CFS)*, as well as in negotiations with the Committee on policies and principles issued such as the Voluntary Guidelines on Responsible Governance of Tenure, Fisheries, Forests and the Global Strategic and Framework for Food Security and Nutrition in protracted crisis.

Focusing the *Committee on World Food Security* attention on the global and regional priorities particularly to food insecurity during conflicts, APN was named as a coordinator of the Global Civil Society Working Group concerned with food security in protracted crises. APN became a member of the High-level Experts Forum (HLEF) Steering Committee on Protracted Crises organized by CFS and advocated gender issues related to conflicts and disasters⁷³.

Continuous, recurring and prolonged cycles of disasters pose threats not only to peoples’ lives but also their livelihoods. The short term emergency and relief assistance normally provided to those countries by the international community has so far not helped in breaking this crisis cycle. Protracted crises call for specially designed and targeted assistance that addresses the immediate need to save lives and also the underlying drivers of food insecurity as well as disaster risk reduction plans. The particular impact on women and children, and the importance of gender perspective in crises responses, should also be given greater attention.⁷⁴

Recently, the APN took part in the *Committee on World Food Security (CFS) Forum on women’s empowerment in the context of food security and nutrition* and was joined by a group of women’s activists, unionists and farmers from across the world who shared their experiences, expertise, struggles and the common vision on future female empowerment in the context of the agriculture and agri-food sector. Disastrous conflict, war and occupation as undeniable drivers of women disempowerment and global food insecurity as it had been focused by the APN. The forum also discussed the role of CFS in advancing women’s empowerment, women’s rights and gender equality⁷⁵.



CASE STUDY FROM SUDAN⁷⁶

SOS SAHEL SUDAN international NGO working in partnership with local NGOs for engaging women in natural resource management and conflict resolution processes in South Kordofan (Sudan)

Conflict in Sudan has spanned almost 50 years. Although the establishment of the Republic of South Sudan on 9 July 2011 officially marked the final stage of a six-year peace agreement, many critical issues remain unresolved. Decades of violent civil war followed by a fragile peace have disrupted traditional conflict resolution mechanisms and left numerous localized conflicts unsettled. In South Kordofan, a province of the Republic of Sudan situated along the country's southern border, tensions related to grazing lands and water access remain high.

The expansion of mechanized farming is further compounding these grievances. The region is plagued with low rates of literacy, minimal access to healthcare services and pervasive poverty, and has historically faced tensions along pastoral corridors. Further challenges are emerging as the availability of natural resources continues to decline: Variable rainfall, recurrent drought, increasing competition over scarce resources and uneven governance have led to increasingly strained relations between local farmers and pastoralist groups. In response to these mounting tensions, SOS Sahel, an international NGO working in partnership with local NGOs, has implemented a resource-based conflict reduction programme in South Kordofan focused on engaging youth and women in natural resource management and conflict resolution processes.

Pastoralist systems in South Kordofan rely on seasonal transhumance through livestock corridors and thus require a high degree of cooperation among various livelihood groups to function properly. However, the institutional mechanisms that previously facilitated this cooperation have been weakened due to the erosion of traditional leaders' authority over land allocation and conflict management. Additionally, the lack of a coherent institutional framework through which to address land issues has served to further undermine people's livelihoods, security and sense of identity. These factors, coupled with altered migration patterns and increased livestock densities, have caused tensions among pastoralists and farmers, often inciting conflicts along livestock corridors. With these traditional governance structures in flux, opportunities exist to foster more inclusive decision-making processes and promote equitable access through the systematic engagement of women and youth. In fact, women pastoralists have been recognized as being particularly influential in managing conflict, yet remain largely excluded from traditional decision-making processes.

To address this, SOS Sahel adopted an entry point system for approaching marginalized groups, first by engaging the community on more general issues and then seeking permission from traditional leaders to involve women and youth. Through a series of training workshops and meetings, SOS Sahel began educating women on concepts of conflict reduction and peacebuilding in order to promote a common understanding of processes and knowledge of available tools. From these interventions, steering groups with women representatives were developed and community structures were registered as legal bodies in accordance with Sudanese regulations. Such legal standing enables committees to carry out voluntary work on behalf of their communities, including the demarcation of corridors, which is a critical component for peacebuilding and conflict mitigation. Moreover, facilitating this dialogue has enabled a broader discourse on alternative means for conflict resolution, which is particularly important for women in pastoralist communities, as they have been vocal advocates against violence, encouraging youth to solve disputes by dialogue.

Chapter III: Gender justice a driving force for the transition to Green Local Development:

Green Local Development, as defined by the Centre for Local Economic Strategies (CLES), is different from Green Local Economy⁷⁷, and it is founded on ten principles: Recognizing the environment as the most important asset, engaging the community, greening procurement and investment, creating an army of local experts, embracing high density development, a revolution in community energy scheme, a significant shift in personal transport, full circle recycling, shortened supply chains, education to embed principles and develop skills.

However this concept could match some components of Green Local Economy about “strategies impacting the green economy that can be broken down into five broad categories: Green Economic Development, Resource Efficiency and Green Purchasing, Local Production, Waste Management, Green Infrastructure⁷⁸. For the implementation of the 2030, a close look at the goal 12 on Sustainable Production and Consumption as an engine for the transition to *Green Local Development* will be provided under the natural capital approach and especially for the intangible wealth of nation’s components (**Section I**). Needless to say that economic transition and social change are supposed to go hand in hand and that CSOs are intended to be full part of any accountability mechanism to put in place on the gendered dimension of the Agenda (**Section II**). Monitoring progress on the aforementioned economic and social dynamics will require the adoption of a human rights-based approach to sustainable development.

Section I: Gender justice for the transition to Green Local Development

The nation’s wealth, which refers to the sum of a country’s assets, in terms of natural, human, social, produced and financial capitals is the foundation of the capital-based approach for sustainable development. In order to be economically prosperous, a country needs to be a good steward of its natural capital and to build its economic model on the intangible forms of wealth. Closing the gender gap for the sustainability of the natural capital, as depicted in chapter II, needs to be complemented by analyzing gender justice with regard to the intangible forms of wealth (§2),. The objective is to explore way forward for unleashing the potential of men and women to seize economic opportunities under the transformative nature of Goal 12 of SDGs as mentioned above (§1).

§1: Goal 12 as an engine for the transition to Green Local Development:

The Arab Regional Strategy for Sustainable Consumption and Production⁷⁹ had been adopted since 2009 for the implementation of the 10-year global programme framework on sustainable consumption and production at the initiative of the League of Arab States and UNEP⁸⁰. The 2030 Agenda reiterated this global framework and pointed out in goal 12 the implementation of this framework by all countries “with developed countries taking the lead, taking into account the development and capabilities of developing countries” (target 12.1). The global indicator framework developed by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) opted for the “Number of countries with sustainable consumption and production (SCP) national action plans on SCP mainstreamed as a priority or a target into national policies” as an indicator (indicator 12.2).

Furthermore, gender and local development dimensions within SCPs had been overlooked from the scope of goal 12, except for target 12.b exhorting countries to developing and

implementing ‘tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products’. The “ number of sustainable tourism strategies or policies and implemented action plans with agreed monitoring and evaluation tools” was retained by IAEG-SDGs as the indicator for monitoring progress on this target (indicator12.b.1).

It is worth mentioning that several Mediterranean Arab countries have been beneficiaries of the Mediterranean programmes and initiatives on Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns, notably the Switch-Med Programme⁸¹ with its three components: Switch-med policy component, the Switch-Med Demonstration component and the Switch-Med Networking Facility (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Lebanon, Palestine, Jordan, Algeria, Lybia and Syria). Moreover, these countries benefitted from the UfM Mediterranean RESCP post RIO+20 Project: Promotion for the adoption of Sustainable Consumption and Production and Resource Efficiency models in the Mediterranean Region. This project aims at providing access to financing for companies adopting Sustainable Consumption and Production (SCP)/ Resource Efficiency models as well as stimulate the development of green industries and entrepreneurship.

The gendered dimensions of the SCPs regional and national strategies and action plans need to be explored against target 12.2 exhorting countries to “achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources by 2030” and other targets related to chemicals and waste management, involving the local level. Other policies targeting SCPs such as the promotion of lifestyles and local cultures, procurement including purchasing policies by municipalities and local actors , reporting systems by transnational companies on their impacts on ecosystems and local populations, access to information, awareness and education for sustainable development are in the scope of this goal 12. Unfortunately, their gendered dimensions are not reflected within the global indicator frameworks on SDGs but could be acknowledged full part of the follow up and review mechanism involving Civil Society.

Goal 12 integrated also several aspects about Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) into SCPs policies urging developed countries taking the lead on the global 10 year framework on SCPs implementation to provide the required support to developing countries to strengthening their scientific and technological capacity in order to move towards sustainable consumption and production patterns. Environmentally sound technologies are at the center of the transition to Green Local Development. For this purpose, much more needs to be done for the localization of Goal 12 under the 2030. All these aspects should be assessed through the different regional and national frameworks on SCPs in the Arab Region. At first sight, the Arab Strategy on SCPs overlooked such aspects except the allusion to gender disparity about the transition to SCPs in rural areas.

In reference to the UfM Third Ministerial Conference on strengthening the Role of Women in Society, held in Paris in September 2013, where, the Ministers of the UfM member countries renew their commitments to promote, de jure and de facto, equality between women and men in their civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. Three main priority areas have been emphasized: Equal rights of women and men to participate in the political, economic, civil and social life; Combat against all forms of violence and discrimination against women and girls and Change in attitude and behavior to attain gender equality. Despite progress made in Euro- med space, UfM recognized that women still experience a triple gap in their

participation in economic life: A participation gap, a remuneration gap with lower salaries, a progression gap with low level of women in decision making positions. In the southern part of the region, in particular, the labor force participation of women is about 23%, the lowest rate in the world. This translates into a loss of GDP 25% for the whole region⁸².

Nevertheless, the Regional Action Plan on Sustainable Consumption and Production in the Mediterranean under Switch-Med didn't pay due attention to the gendered dimension of SCPs, although its third Strategic objective underlined the need for engaging 'key stakeholders: international organizations, national and local public authorities, business sector, consumers, civil society, universities and research institutions in sustainable consumption and production models and circular economy measures leading to high resource efficiency and preservation, reduced pollution, and decoupling the development process from environmental degradation and promoting sustainable lifestyles'⁸³.

Furthermore, reflecting the gender blindness of the Regional Action Plan on SCPs under Switch-med, The National Frameworks on SCPs of Morocco, 2015⁸⁴; Egypt, 2015⁸⁵; Lebanon, 2015⁸⁶; Tunisia, 2016⁸⁷; Palestine, 2016⁸⁸ haven't integrated the gendered dimensions of SCPs although several aspects related to the role of Civil Society in promoting SCPs at the local level were included in the scope of these strategic documents. This is particularly significant about the need for reviewing the global and regional strategic frameworks on SCPs toward gender mainstreaming into national activities for the implementation of the mentioned above action plans and achieving the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources by 2030 (target 12.2).

§2: The intangible capitals of nation and gender justice

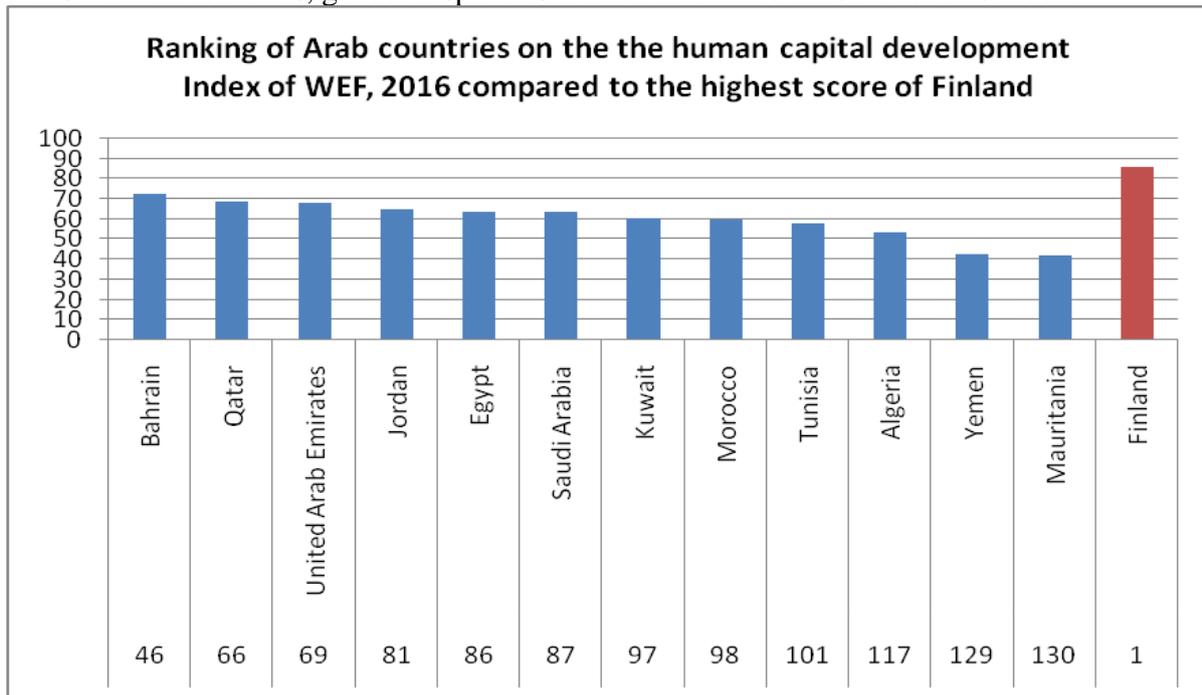
In 2006, the World Bank proposed to deepen the understanding of the linkages between development outcomes and the level and the composition of wealth at the national level and published the book: " Where is the wealth of the Nations? Measuring capital for the 21st century ". The authors highlighted that Gross Domestic Product looks at only part of economic performance: The income but say nothing about wealth and assets that underline this income and that most of countries wealth is captured by what we term intangible wealth⁸⁹. For this report, a special focus will be provided to the gendered dimensions of human capital, industrial capital and social capital as the components of the intangible wealth of the nation.

I: Gendered dimensions of human capital:

At the confluence of technical change, globalization and economic liberalization, developing countries need to prioritize skills development as a key strategy for economic transition by enhancing competitiveness and boosting growth. In the Arab region, the challenges related to gender-based disparity in human capital especially on educational attainment, qualifications and skills are profound and complex.

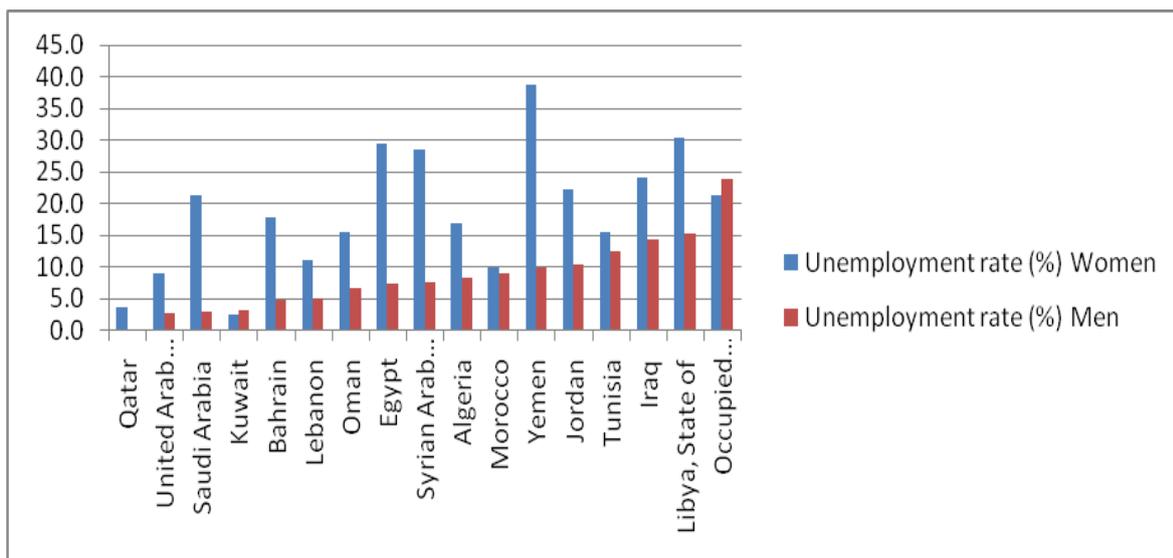
The critical role of a strong human resource base in complementing investments and natural resources policies to enhance productivity is crucial for the transition to Green Local Development. The World Economic Index on Human Capital Development provides the following figure about the ranking of Arab Countries compared to the highest scores on the

index . Yet, while the index depicted the stark disparity between Arab Countries and industrialized countries, gender disparities are not taken into account for this index.



Source: The World Economic Forum Human CAPITAL Development Index, 2016

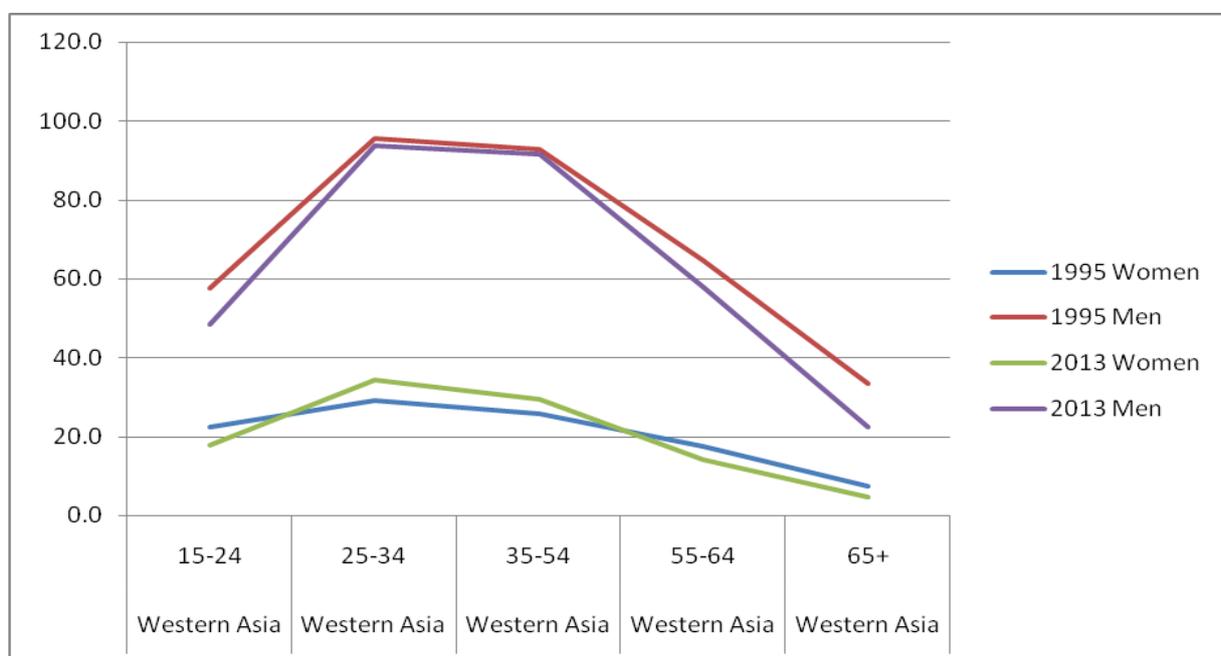
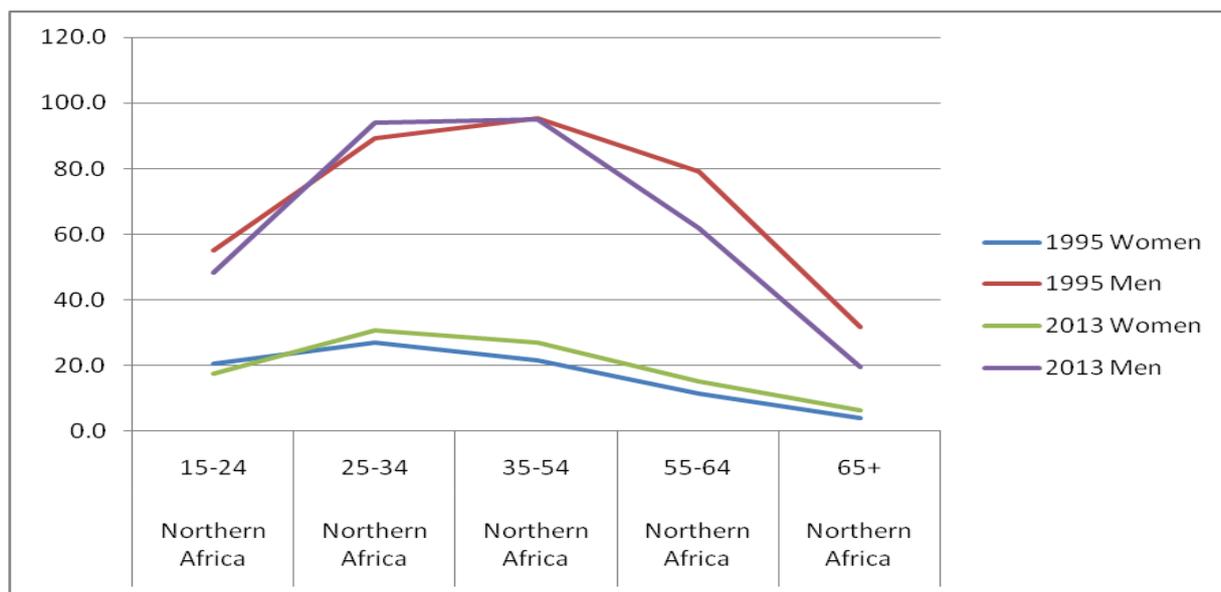
Future Gender researches should focus on how closing gender gap could improve the ranking of Arab countries under this index. It is worthy to note that female employment to population ratio has increased by 20 during the last two decades. However, this moderate improvements remains well below global averages:19% of females employed in the Arab region compared to 47% worldwide (2013). The ratio of women compared to men in vulnerable employment has risen during the last two decades. Analysis of the gender distribution of national wealth demonstrated limited economic women participation as well as lower earnings⁹⁰.



Source: United Nations Statistics Division calculations based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 8th edition, table 1a.

The labor force participation rate in North Africa and West Asia calculated for the following figures by expressing the number of persons in the labor force as a percentage of the working-age population reveals the gender gap especially for the two categories 25-34 and 35-54 years. It is more pronounced in west Asia sub-region if we compare rates registered in 1995 and 2013 whereas a slight improvement reflect the slow progress in North Africa countries towards closing the gender gap.

Gender Disparity in labour force participation rate in the Arab region; North Africa's figures as compared to West Asia:



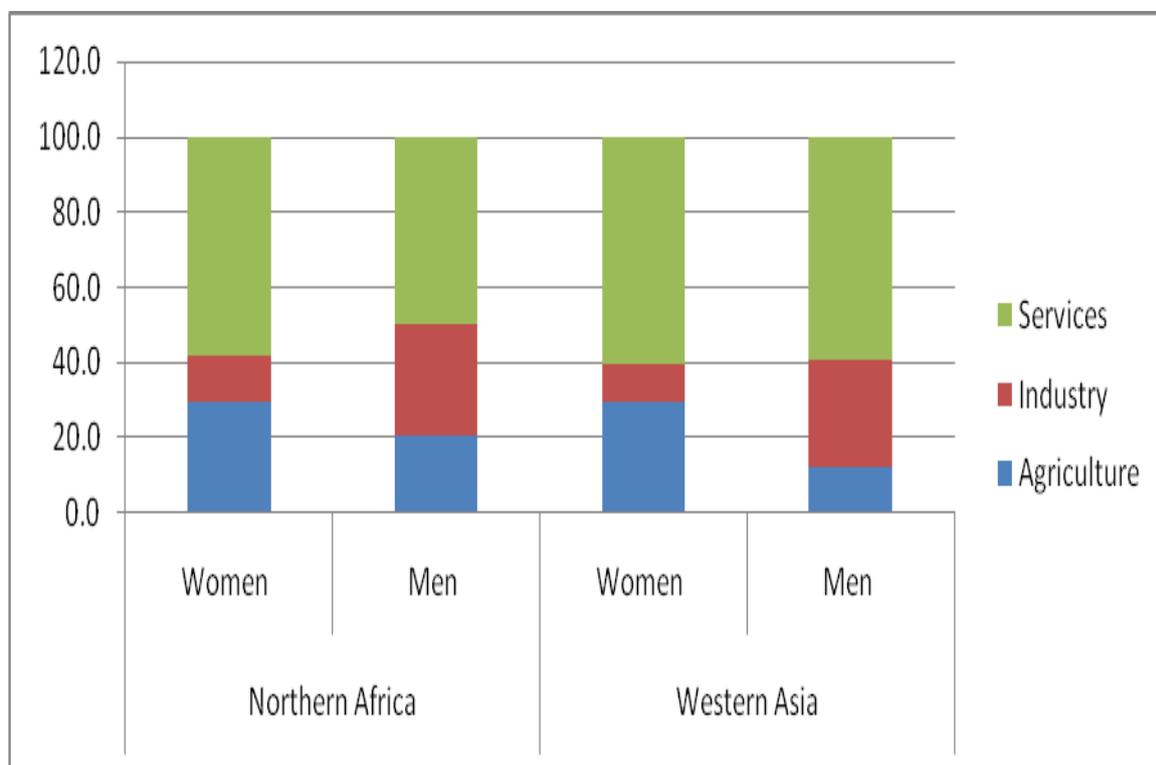
Source: United Nations Statistics Division calculations based on data from the International Labour Office, 2014b. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 8th edition, table 1a.

In fact, the continued high gender gaps in employment are generally attributed to “traditional, (sometimes perceived as religious) roles of women and gender biased economic policies. In addition, to the scarcity of social services (affordable child and elderly care programmes and culturally appropriate transportation) maternity leave policies make it difficult to women remain in the workforce”⁹¹. As depicted in chapter II, other hardships for collecting water, traditional energy sources and assuming the responsibility of livelihoods in conflict situations and disaster contexts could prevent, de facto, women and girls from education attainment and skills improvement that are crucial for the transition to *Green Local Development*.

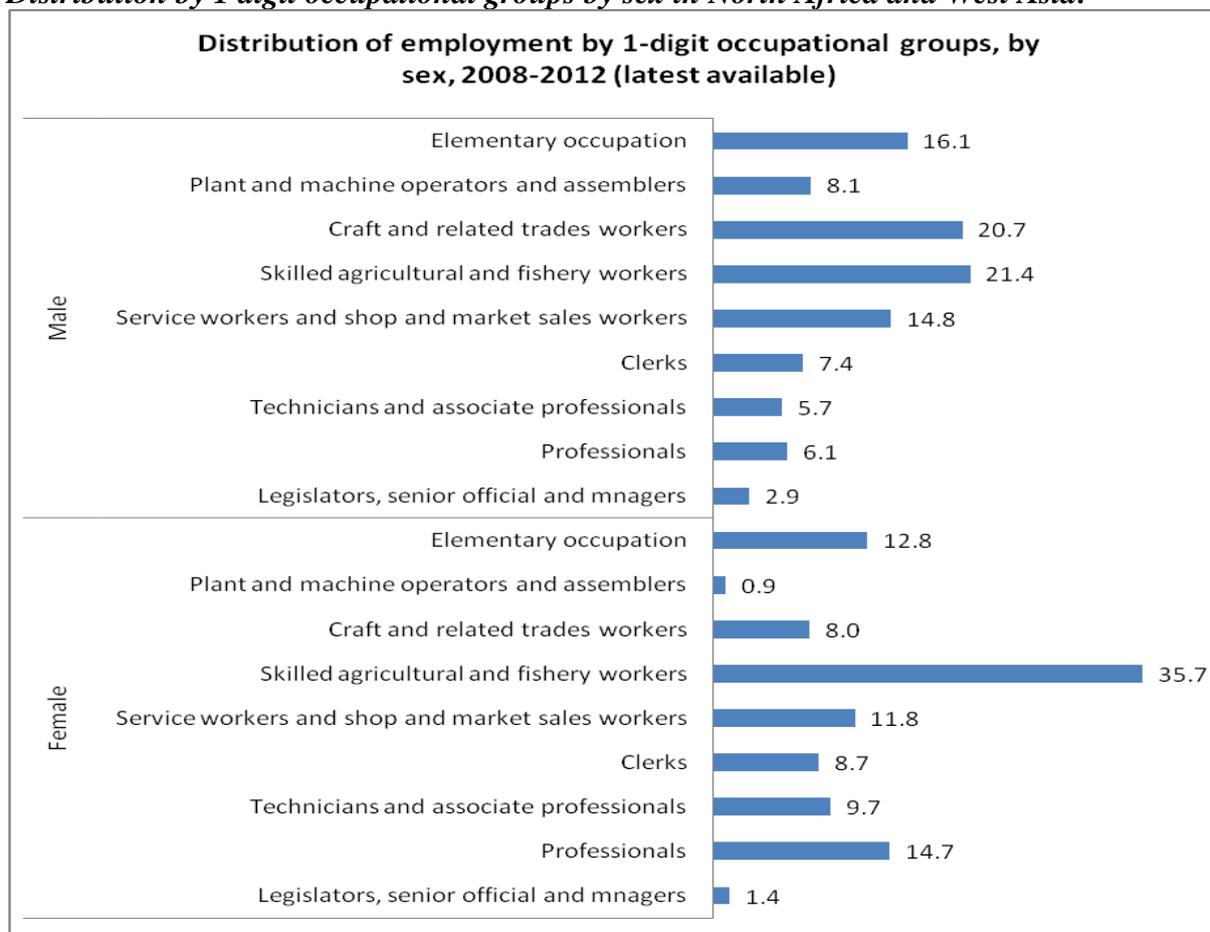
Furthermore, the female specialisation could inform on the untapped potential of women for the transition to the new economy: Two indicators are useful with this regard: the distribution of employed persons by economic sector, by sex and region that reveals the prevalence of agriculture as the main sector of women jobs. This is confirmed by the indicator on the distribution by 1-digit occupational groups between men and women in North Africa and West Asia that placed agriculture at more than 35 % of the total women occupations.

The trend about diversification to the services sector could influence this distribution in the future in order to unlock the potential of green services with a special focus on tourism as pointed out by the Agenda for the promotion of green local economies. However, it is obvious that insecurity in the Arab region will be the main obstacle to make concrete such perspective. An increasing role of women in green industries will be challenging given the persistent uncertainty about industrialization in the Arab region

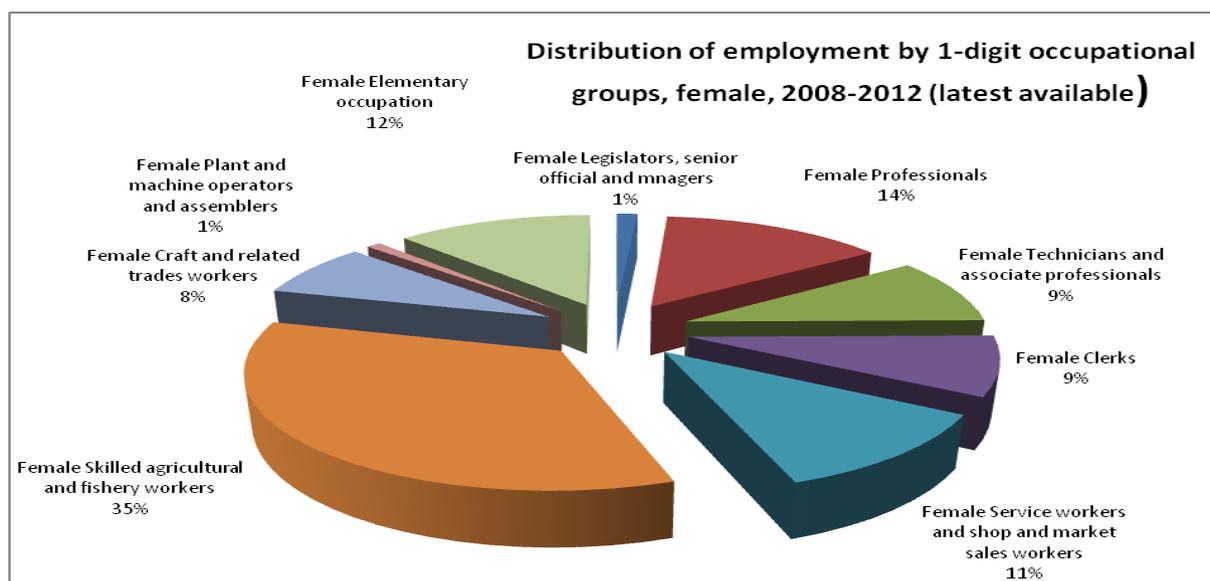
Distribution of employed persons by economic sector, by sex and sub-region, 2015



Distribution by 1 digit occupational groups by sex in North Africa and West Asia:



Distribution by 1 digit occupational groups of women in North Africa and West Asia:



Source: United Nations, The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics. New York: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division. Sales No. E.15.XVII.8 based on ILO, Estimates and Projections of the Economically Active Population (EAPEP), 2013 edition (April 2014 update).

As key component of the intangible wealth of nations, human capital raises several problems with regard to the low average levels of educational attainment compared to developed countries, the significant numbers of those with high levels of formal qualifications ending up

unemployed, working in jobs that under-utilise their skills are of concern in the Arab region. This might result in a misallocation of resources and failure to ensure the economic transition. Skills are, indeed, key to tackling inequality and promoting social justice. Investing in human capital is the single most effective way of not just promoting growth but also of distributing its benefits more fairly which coincides with the aspiring vision about the transition to *Green Local Development* and match perfectly the inspiring objective of the Agenda about achieving equality of opportunities for men and women alike.

In reference to this regional strategy, new strategies and approaches that focus more explicitly on the links and coherence between investments in skills development and employment on one hand and skills and productivity on the other hand, need to be adopted in Arab countries. Investing in skills is far less costly, in the long run, than paying the price of lower incomes, unemployment and social exclusion and requires further progress on gender equality in the labor market.

III- Gendered dimensions of Industrial Capital:

Industrial capital has two facets: Manufactured and financial. Several aspects about technology and industrialization were tackled above. Here a special focus will be provided to financial capital entailing access of Arab women to credits and financial services. Information provided by the social Institutions and Gender Index of OECD are general but accurate and could inform on the potential of financial services to support women entrepreneurship in green activities provided that gender-sensitive national strategies on green economy are adopted and disaggregated data is available based on sex and local origin.

This will need further researches that surpass this first prospect on gender justice and the transition to *Green Local Development*. In this report, the integration of gender approach into The Green Climate Fund will be highlighted. Equal economic opportunities for men and women specialised in RES (Renewable Energy Sciences) under the Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework Egypt⁹² are of a particular interest with regard to the Gender Action Plan of this project that entails aspects

The energy market is vital to Egypt's economy and women can in particular benefit from opportunities connected to the development of renewable energy sources. According to the GCF-EBRD Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework Egypt, women in Egypt currently work primarily in services and agriculture, with only very small numbers in power and energy. With appropriate university and vocational skills training, however, women can also access employment opportunities in RES engineering, industrial management and core operations.

The World Bank estimated that addressing women's under-representation in higher-value occupations such as RES would reduce the productivity gap and boost worker's output in Egypt by 3-25 per cent. By strengthening equality of opportunity in this framework, women are expected to be encouraged to apply their talents and seek training opportunities in RES sectors. The Gender plan for the Framework will ensure that all consultations with stakeholders will be designed in a gender responsive way and women will be equally consulted and participate in all discussions related to the subprojects.



In the country assessment of Egypt proposed by EBRD⁹⁴, civil society representatives urged the Bank to consider carefully the impact of its investments on social justice, which Egyptian CSOs regard as the ultimate goal of a well-functioning market economy. Also, CSOs urged the Bank to conduct throughout socio-economic impact assessments of its investment projects and to promote inclusive growth, youth and women's employment so as to reduce inequalities across sectors and regions. Women's rights organizations noted that gender issues were not duly reflected in the Concept Note proposed by EBRD.

For the implementation of the GCF-EBRD Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework, Renewable energy companies in Egypt are urged by the Bank to integrate gender considerations in their operations. The Gender Action Plan proposed for this project, gender considerations are considered as an integral part of business delivery in sub-project borrowers' operations which entails equality between men and women in energy provision and equal economic opportunities in RES (Renewable Energy Sciences):

Satisfaction with energy provision: This project will increase the evidence-base and support the provision of electricity to consumers, both men and women. This will contribute to identifying and addressing consumers' different needs in terms of access to electricity, ultimately leading to improved energy security and climate resilience for men and women in both urban and rural areas. focus group discussions, inclusive community participation and consultations with consumers in addition to consumers' satisfaction surveys need to be undertaken to create an evidence-based system for sub-project clients to assess progress and satisfaction with the services provided to both men and women as electricity consumers

Equal opportunities between men and women in RES: Strengthened equal opportunities policies and practices with eligible RES project developers will support women and men to be better able to compete equally for opportunities connected to operations in terms of technical skills and employment. EBRD will work closely with eligible clients to:

- Undertake a legal and regulatory review at sub-project level to identify potential barriers to women's employment, specifically jobs and occupations that women may be legally prohibited from accessing
- Develop and implement a comprehensive plan to ensure women and men are able to equally access opportunities connected to operations in terms of direct technical and operations skills and employment x Increased employment and enterprise opportunities for women and men
- Seek to develop partnerships with vocational/technical training schools, to enhance young women's access to developing technical skills and encourage female students to enrol in internship programs focusing on Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM).

Access of Arab women to credits and financial services (Source: The Gender Gap Index,OECD, 2014)

<i>Algeria</i>	Under the Constitution, women have the right to access financial services, including bank loans, and are free to negotiate business or financial contracts. The government provides loans and grants for agricultural development to women and men on an equal basis, although in practice, the number of women applying for such assistance is very small. In practice, it is very difficult for women to secure commercial loans, as they frequently lack the capital needed to secure credit. According to financial inclusion data held by the World Bank, 20% of adult women had a bank account in 2011, compared to 46% of men. In the same year, 1% of adults had taken out a loan with a financial institution; these data were not disaggregated by gender. CEDAW reported (2010), there are various government micro-credit schemes that particularly target women. However, no data on women's access to micro-credit was found.
<i>Bahrain</i>	Women and men have the same legal rights to access financial services, including credit and bank loans (law not specified). In practice, it appears that some do experience discrimination in accessing credit, including credit provided by government agencies. For instance, women are only able to apply for state-subsidised loans to purchase property if they are widowed or divorced; otherwise, they need the agreement of their husbands. According to financial inclusion data held by the World Bank, 49% of adult women had a bank account in 2011, compared to 79% of men. In the same year, 22% of adults had taken out a loan with a financial institution; these data were not disaggregated by gender. Some government programmes to support the establishment of small and medium-sized businesses have specifically targeted women. These include the Family Bank, established in 2007, which provides micro-credit as well as other services to support women entrepreneurs, and the Edbaa Bank (established in 2009), which provides micro-credit to low-income recipients.
<i>Egypt</i>	There are no legal restrictions on women's access to financial services, including credit, in Egypt and women do not need the permission of a male relative or husband to apply for a loan (laws not specified). It appears to be easier for women to access credit through credit societies than through banks, indicating that it is difficult for women to obtain bank loans. CEDAW report notes that some banks do discriminate against women and are reluctant to allow them to take out loans. In addition, in rural areas, many women do not have identity cards, so they cannot open a bank account or apply for credit. According to the World Bank, 13% of men and 7% of women had a bank account in 2011. In the same year, 4% of adults had taken out a loan with a financial institution; these data were not disaggregated by gender. The Principal Bank for Development and Agricultural Credit has various schemes in place to enable rural women to access credit. In 2009, a 2% cut in interest rates was introduced on loans to women running micro and small enterprises. According to the Microfinance Information Exchange, women made up 84.24% of recipients of micro-credit in 2012.
<i>Iraq</i>	Women also have the right to enter into financial contracts and access financial services, including bank loans and other forms of credit, and do not need their husband's permission to do so. Under the regulations of the Agricultural Bank, women are able to access credit on the same basis as men. No information was found regarding whether or not women experience discrimination in accessing credit. However, UNDP notes that women routinely need permission from husbands or male relatives to engage in activities outside the home, including economic activities, while social perceptions reinforce the idea that men are better at business. Together, this would indicate that women face de facto restrictions on accessing credit. According to the World Bank, 13% of men and 8% of women had a bank account in 2011. In the same year, 8% of adults had taken out a loan with a financial institution; these data were not disaggregated by gender. The government does not appear to run any micro-credit programmes for women, although some organisations do offer seed grants to women would-be entrepreneurs. Research by UNDP found that lack of familiarity, preference for borrowing from friends and family, and the need to secure permission from husbands or brothers or fathers meant that many women were reluctant to make use of micro-credit services. According to the Microfinance Information Exchange, in 2012, women accounted for 15.74% of recipients of micro-credit in Iraq.
<i>Jordan</i>	Women have the same legal rights as men to access financial services, including bank loans and other forms of credit (law not specified). Requirements for collateral to secure loans often disadvantage women, as they are less likely to own property and other assets. The Arab Women Organization notes that high interest rates and strict lending procedures are also barriers for rural women to access credit. In some cases, when women do gain access to credit, this money is then used by male members of the family for purchases that are not in line with the original aim of the loan. This leaves women in difficulties in regard to paying back the money. According to the World Bank, 34% of men and 17% of women had a bank account in 2011. In the same year, 4% of adults had taken out a loan with a financial; these data were not disaggregated by gender. In recent years, various institutions and organisations have developed and expanded micro-finance projects that target women, and those living in rural areas are also able to access loans for agricultural development.

	This includes programmes run by the Ministry of Planning and the Agricultural Loans Institution. Data from Microfinance Information Exchange indicate that women accounted for 96.75% of recipients of micro-credit in 2012. However, in 2009, JICA reported that only 21% of female-headed households in rural areas have received loans for agricultural development, compared to 43% of male-headed households.
<i>Kuwait</i>	The law allows women over 21 years of age to have access to financial services , including bank loans and enter into financial contracts, without permission from their male guardian. A wife's financial assets remain separate from those of her husband after marriage. 92.7% men compared to 79.6% of women hold a bank account at a formal financial institution. The UNDP Kuwait office reports that, despite women previously being concentrated in the public sector, there are now a growing number of women entrepreneurs who are transforming the image of Kuwaiti women into that of successful entrepreneurs.
<i>Lebanon</i>	With regards to access to financial services, women are legally entitled to open a bank account, access to bank loans and can enter into financial contracts, but experience some limitations in practice. According to the SWMENA Project, 46% of married working women felt that they would be able to obtain a loan on their own, without help from a spouse or parent; but levels varied considerably according to how much the woman earned, and her level of education.[70] According to the International Finance Corporation (IFC), only 3% of bank loans go to female entrepreneurs.[71] According to the 2006 Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) report, among an estimated 30 institutions lending to small-scale rural projects, only nine provide men and women with equal conditions. Moreover, women's share of the loans from these nine credit institutions ranges between 10 and 20%.
<i>Libya</i>	Women have the legal right to access financial services, including bank loans (without their husbands' consent). They also have the right to enter into various forms of financial contracts. In most cases, however, husbands or fathers take responsibility for any financial undertakings and commitments, and may also expect women to hand over their income. The 2013 IFES survey indicates that 59% of women do not personally have financial savings (versus 34% who do), although women who work have proportionally more access to or own financial savings than those who do not (46% versus 24% respectively).
<i>Morocco</i>	With regards to access to financial services, women in Morocco have difficulty obtaining credit from traditional banks on the same conditions as men. In response, the government has launched numerous initiatives to support women's entrepreneurship, including trainings, income-generating projects and micro-credit initiatives targeted at women. 27% of women compared to 53% of men hold bank accounts at formal financial institutions.
<i>Oman</i>	Women in Oman are legally entitled to open bank accounts, access to financial services, including bank loans, and to enter into various forms of financial contracts but social conventions mean that decisions regarding such activities are rarely made at the individual level, but rather by the family. It is reportedly difficult for women who are not heads of household to secure loans, although in 2008, the government issued instructions that all loans from the public housing bank should be distributed equally to men and women.
<i>Palestine</i>	Women in the West Bank and Gaza Strip have legal access to financial services, including credit, and are free to dispose of their income independently. But as so few women own property or land, they lack the collateral needed to secure credit. In addition, in reality, women often do not have control over their own income, and social norms that see the husband as the head of the family and responsible for all financial activities related to it hinder them from engaging in economic activity and concluding financial contracts. According to the World Bank, 10% of women aged 15 or older hold a bank account at a formal financial institution compared to 19% for men.
<i>Qatar</i>	There are no legal restrictions to women's access to financial services, including credit or rights to conclude business contracts. Although increasing numbers of Qatari women are entering the business sector, many businesswomen operate through male intermediaries. This is because women directly engaging with male business contacts often face criticism from family members. The Government reported that the lack of women taking loans to start small businesses is not a matter of legislation, but of personal, social or cultural factors. According to the Government of Qatar, national banks have special branches offering a variety of women's banking services. Data from the World Bank's Global Financial Inclusion Database show that 68.6% of women compared to 91.7% of men in Qatar hold bank accounts at formal financial institutions.
<i>Saudi Arabia</i>	Law requiring physical separation of unrelated men and women in all public areas limits women's ability to independently own and manage any kind of

	assets. This and other restrictions on freedom of movement mean that it is difficult for women to physically access banks and other financial services. However, legislation that required women wishing to establish their own businesses to hire a male manager in order to receive a commercial license was abolished in 2005, as were regulations stating that women needed permission from their mahram to start a business or take out a bank loan. In 2009, the Ministry of Commerce (but not other ministries) stopped requiring women to conduct business through a male representative. Generally, however, the de facto practice remains that women must get approval of male guardians – fathers, husbands, or sons – in order to carry out business.
<i>Syria</i>	The law does not appear to make any distinction between men and women’s access to financial services, including bank loans and credit. As such, women are not required to have the consent of their fathers or husbands in order to apply for or obtain loans, although married women do need their husband’s permission to work, and hence, to enter into economic contracts and activities. It is reportedly very difficult, however, for women in rural areas to obtain credit, as banks tend to require significant collateral. In response to this, the country’s first micro finance scheme was started in 2008. In addition, there are loan schemes that specifically target women, with the aim of increasing their economic participation.
<i>Tunisia</i>	Legally, women have equal access to financial services and may open a bank account in the same way as a man, have equal access to bank loans, and can enter into business and financial contracts independently. The Ministry of Agriculture has a specific unit in place to provide rural women with targeted advice and support, and women are also able to access micro credit facilities. This may indicate that other forms of credit are less forthcoming for women. However, it appears that women are entering into entrepreneurship, as it is reported that women head an increasing number of businesses. Approximately 33% of the loans issued by the Tunisian Solidarity Bank were granted to women, and of these 43.3% were involved in small-scale activities.
<i>UAE</i>	In terms of access to financial services, women may open a bank account in the same way as a man and may access to bank loans and credit without the permission of her husband or father, although the extent to which they are able to exercise this right in practice remains unclear. Some banks have opened “women’s bank” branches, where female bankers serve female banking clients. In some states, however, women are expected to have the permission of their husband or male guardian before engaging in business ventures and generally women are discouraged from doing business with men to whom they are not related, making entrepreneurship activities difficult.
<i>Yemen</i>	There are no legal restrictions on women’s right to access financial services, including entering into business contracts and activities, and no legal restrictions on women’s opening a bank account or accessing bank loans and credit;[yet, women encounter limitations in this area. According to SWMENA project survey data, only 5% of currently or formerly married Yemeni women reported that they can obtain bank loans or other credit without help from a spouse or parent, although this percentage increases among women with higher levels of education and employment. The common view in Yemeni society is that a woman’s place is in the home and husbands should manage financial matters.

III- Gendered dimensions of Social Capital

The World Bank defines social capital as the “norms and networks that enable collective action. It encompasses institutions, relationships, and customs that shape the quality and quantity of a society's social interactions.”⁹⁵ The definitions of social capital vary, but they tend to share the core idea that social networks have value. The definition used by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), is the following: “networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups”⁹⁶. Scholars are unanimous about the two elements that stand out in almost all the social capital definitions: The existence of *networks* of relationships other than market exchange (structural social capital) and the existence of *norms* shared by people in the network, which create the conditions for reciprocal trust (cultural social capital).⁹⁷

The Social Capital Initiative of the World bank have provided a strong evidence that social capital is determinant of progress in several development projects, and an important tool for poverty alleviation. Social capital can have a major impact on the income and welfare of the poor by improving the outcome of activities that affect them. In particular, social capital was found to improve the efficiency of rural development programs by increasing agricultural productivity, improving the management of common resources, making rural trading more profitable, and energizing farmers federations. It also enhances access of poor households to water, sanitation, credit and education in rural and urban areas. Moreover, social capital is a key factor in recovering from conflicts⁹⁸ and coping with political transition. Finally, it can reduce poverty through micro and macro channels by affecting the movement of information useful to the poor, and by improving growth and income redistribution at the national level⁹⁹.

The structural component of social capital addresses the network structure of people’s interactions. It covers the creation and dissolution of social relationships and the overall structure of the networks that are formed by these relationships, including institutions of the state, rule of law and local institutions and networks. Although, there is nothing, in the 2030 Agenda, to measure, report, or evaluate social capital, this latter remains an important contributor to development and it is time to revive the measurement of social capital¹⁰⁰. In this report, a special focus will be provided to gender equality, decision making and women voice at the local level which could encompass families or households, local communities, formal and informal groups.

According to the World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistic¹⁰¹ “women tend to be more involved than men, which is somewhat linked to the gender division of domestic labour. However, women’s involvement in local and national policy formulation and decision-making in natural resources and environment management remains limited”. In the Arab region, the low participation among women in the management of local natural (except the agriculture sector but with the prevalence of low wages, seasonal and precarious jobs) is strongly linked to gender inequality in status, roles, responsibilities and power. As mentioned previously, unequal domestic work burdens, women’s time constraints, lack of information, lack of support from men, and threats of hostility are all causes of women exclusion from local decision making with regard to natural resources. Furthermore, membership in local management groups is restricted to one household member, male heads of household may become the default representative and even if women are members of local management groups, their opinions may not be given the same weight as those of men. Therefore, women who still hold a minority of decision making positions in most public and private institutions, are rarely able to bring positive changes and continue to face challenges to express their voices in local management of natural resources.



Case study from Egypt¹⁰²

The Association for the Protection of the Environment (APE) and the Community and Institutional Development consulting (CID consulting) Waste management and the marginal status of the Zabaleen's Community in Mokkattam-Cairo



The city hub of Cairo and surroundings is home to more than 15 million inhabitants, generating more than 15,000 tons of solid waste per day. Approximately 60 percent of solid waste in Cairo is managed by the formal and informal sector, while the rest is dumped illegally, which causes serious ecological and public health problems. The local authorities represent the formal sector, while the informal sector is comprised of traditional garbage-collectors (Zabbaleen).¹⁰³ The Zabaleen operate a highly efficient waste collection, sorting and recycling system in a slum of Mokkattam in the outskirts of Cairo with a population of 30,000 whose main economic activity focuses on waste. It was estimated that the Zabbaleen informally handle one-third of garbage in Cairo, collecting up to 3000 tons of garbage every day and recycling up to 80 percent of the collected waste.¹⁰⁴

The zabaleen's marginal status had induced calls for help and support from the local nongovernmental agencies to endorse their work in solid waste management. The first was the Association of Garbage Collectors (1976) who was responsible for micro-financing small and medium projects. The Association for the Protection of the Environment (APE) started as a nongovernmental organization in 1984 and was a top-down establishment by the city governorate with the dual objective of improving the living conditions of the zabaleen, especially women and girls; as well as manage and integrate the waste recycling in the zabaleen area with the wider network of waste management in the Greater Cairo area.

APE was established after the Mokattam zabaleen settlement was selected in the 1980s to receive development funds from the World Bank. The APE has lent several helping hands to the zabaleen community, such as the weaving factory which provided work for women and girls, making rugs from the rags of clothes in the garbage. Also, two composting plants were built, and used the manure from the pigsties and produce natural fertilizers to be sold for profit. The aim was alleviating the hazards of accumulating organic waste from animals within the living location of the zabaleen, and promoting the health condition of women and girls.

Indeed, APE was part of a network of other associations which have been working around the zabaleen settlement or have emerged as philanthropic services: El Game'ya, El Mahabba Clinic, El Gabarty Services, el Salam Hospital and Anglo American Hospital. The CID: Community and Institutional Development was another NGO working with the zabaleen, co-founded by Laila Iskandar, who helped in initiating the recycling school of Mokattam settlement. CID consulting is a for-profit established in 1995 and has worked with the APE on pilot projects for urging separation of waste at source, in the households, to relieve the collectors from the cumbersome task of waste separation.

In the year 2000, CID has a significant role in starting up the school for zabaleen young boys who do not have access to education because of their workload with their fathers. The informal schooling setup was devised by CID to cater for the zabaleen boys' work schedule as well as provide them with knowledge and special skills useful for their practical working conditions. The zabaleen kids were equipped with basic knowledge of reading, writing and counting, in addition to extracurricular activities such as singing, acting, and health teachings. Iskandar had previously started a girls' school in 1988, to teach the zabaleen girls literacy skills as well as weaving rugs and mats from rags of cloth and threads, to be sold.

Section II: Human rights approach to sustainable development and monitoring progress on the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda

Tackling the prohibitive ground of discrimination against women under a human rights approach to sustainable development (§1) is central for achieving progress on the implementation of goal 5 of the 2030 Agenda and natural resources-related goals and targets. Localizing the 2030 Agenda is a prerequisite for gender equality under the new Agenda (§2). Accountability for the gendered dimensions of natural resources management will need tools for monitoring progress on gender justice, a dashboard is proposed for capitalizing on achievements and tackling remaining gaps (§3).

§1: Human rights approach and progress on gender justice

*“A rights based approach is the base of the 2030 Agenda”*¹⁰⁵. This approach is intended to promote “civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of women”, and tackle gradually the different prohibitive grounds of discrimination against women and girls. The determination of the national baselines for the implementation of goal 5 and natural resources related goals and target of the 2030 agenda is an important milestone on the path towards progress on gender justice. National baselines are required for policy making through “transparent and participatory national process.” as advocated by the civil society representatives from the Arab region in the following notes:

		
Regional Workshop for Civil Society Organizations in the Arab Countries: Regional Approaches for the Implementation of 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Beirut June 23-24, 2016 ¹⁰⁶		
Notes of Civil Society Organizations		
<p>The human rights approach is the base of the 2030 Agenda, and must have a direct impact when making choices, drawing policies, and making comparisons (pros & cons) between benefit and right. All development parties, including the private sector, governments, and civil society, must abide by <i>human rights as a reference</i>.</p> <p>The successful implementation of the Agenda largely depends on the national action, which requires:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Mainstreaming sustainable development and national goals within the scope of national development plans and strategies (or develop new plans for this purpose) and following-up on their full implementation.• Developing an efficient institutional framework ensuring <i>coordination and dialogue with various stakeholders, in order to plan and set strategies, follow-up on their implementation, and monitor progress towards achieving the SDGs</i>, which is essential to activate <i>accountability mechanisms</i> at the national level.• <i>Set priorities according to the national contexts through a transparent and participatory national process</i> aimed to define priorities and guided by the level of ambition of the global sustainable development goals and targets, but taking into account the national circumstances.• <i>Strive to achieve integration at the national plans level outside the scope of the sectoral concept and follow an integrated approach in terms of national development efforts</i>. This requires working beyond individual goals and targets and searching for the objective nexus existing between them. <p>...Emphasizing the importance of Goal 5, “Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls” but with the need to ensure that all national policies and strategies follow approaches aiming at achieving gender equality by <i>promoting civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of women</i> as a strategic priority for achieving sustainable development.</p>		

For this report, making connection between gender equality, poverty alleviation and natural resources management will be conducive for the national planning systems, from the formulation of women empowerment strategies to the design of gender sensitive public policies to finally gender mainstreaming into national economic and social plans and national sustainable development strategies. National baselines are needed for policy design and are the cornerstone for monitoring progress on the implementation of the national strategic framework on sustainable development under the New Agenda. National goals and targets on the gendered dimensions of natural resources management are required to hold public institutions accountable before parliaments about national commitments for progress on gender equality. Needless to say that Civil Society Organizations are mandated by the 2030 Agenda to play a role in ensuring follow up on the implementation of the Agenda and should be full part of the inclusive reviews as recommended by the New York Summit outcome document.

National accountability mechanism for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda on the interlinkages gender, natural resources and local development from human rights perspective should build on the dynamics of two distinct legal corpuses of international law, coupling Universality and Multilateralism. Human Rights Instruments including ILO norms and Multilateral Environmental Agreements and their mechanism for reporting and accountability should be of guidance for monitoring goal 5 and related natural resources goals and targets under the new Agenda.” Taking together, these fields and mechanisms provide powerful support to SDGs 5 and its targets. At the same time local , national, regional and international activities and policies to support the advancement of women through law as well as those working through quotidian social and environmental actions are essential. Taken together international law and policy provide fundamental mechanisms upon which SDG 5 Gender may be constructed in order to bring about meaningful change.¹⁰⁷

International instruments of Human rights: The gendered dimensions of natural resources management under the 2030 Agenda of the 2030 are at the heart of the right to development as recognized for individuals by the 1986 Declaration on the right to development. This overarching human right builds on ‘*promoting civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of women* as a strategic priority for achieving sustainable development’ and tackling the different grounds of discrimination against women and girls in order to reduce vulnerability and eradicate poverty under the new Agenda. The commitment of Arab countries for the implementation of CEDAW and the Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC) is key for imposing equality of chances and opportunities between men and women, girls and boys and therefore making progress on goal 5. Connection should be also made with economic and social rights on one hand and with civil and political rights, on the other hand through the implementation of the two covenants of 1966 in order to make concrete the human right to development including women’s rights . These conventions, as well, as the proposed ILO norms will need not only their recognition within constitutions and a wide range of national laws and regulations but also the integration of the 2030 sustainable agenda and its goals and targets into the national planning systems bridging human rights to SDGs.

A comprehensive list of human rights instruments that are relevant to gender issues under the 2030 Agenda was proposed by the Danish institute for Human rights including ILO norms (see the proposed dashboard in §3 of this section). It is useful to contextualize gender analysis against the background of the new Agenda through accountability on the national commitments under a wide array of international instruments of human rights¹⁰⁸. Reporting systems and mechanisms of follow up and review for upholding these instruments of human rights including the Universal Periodic Review, the platform of Beijing and reporting systems to specific human rights conventions will need coherence and coordination at the national

level in order to feed into follow up and review of progress on the 2030 Agenda under HLPF and related regional platforms.

Multilateral Environmental Agreements: For the implementation of and compliance with the international treaties and conventions related to environment, the Danish Human Rights Institute had identified several Multilateral Agreements that are relevant to the human rights approach to SDGs. As mentioned below, the Rio conventions and their additional protocols, as well as Paris Agreement on Climate Change are particularly of interest for this approach. Main decisions of the COPs to those Multilateral Environmental Agreements on gender mainstreaming into climate change policies, national strategic frameworks on biodiversity, desertification and land degradation are all of guidance for this approach under the 2030 Agenda. An enhanced accountability on the implementation of these conventions need to be explored and way forward to improve the reporting system in order to provide an insightful focus on environmental global issues from gender lenses under the Multilateral Environmental Agreements is the part to play by Civil Societies Organizations¹⁰⁹.

The proposed dashboard for accountability on the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda has already reflected such preoccupations. Regional frameworks on human rights are acknowledged as relevant to accountability; we can also point out the Arab and African conventions on human rights. Furthermore, several instruments of soft law expressing the private sector commitments to SDGs and especially to gender and environment under the global compact and other standards of Corporate Social Responsibility should be integrated into the human rights approach for monitoring progress on the implementation of the Agenda at the country level. From another side, environmental rights are also vital for resilience to the adverse impacts of climate change, and disasters and for combating pollutions that undermine the right to health. Equal rights to access natural resources are key for women empowerment including the rights to land, water, energy and food. However, investments for poverty alleviation under international development programmes and projects will require a special focus on the alignment of the safeguard clauses of the development banks with SDGs, from gender perspective, for financing natural resources and infrastructure projects before delving into climate finance and consistency of gender considerations at the local level under GEF and GCF funding rules and regulations¹¹⁰ with goal 5 and related natural resources goals and targets under the 2030 Agenda.

Civil society should play an active role under the follow up and review mechanism to HLPF (High level Political Forum) and other related global settings on financing, technology, trade and data for assessing progress on the gendered dimensions of natural resources management under the 2030 Agenda. Their valuable contribution to the regional follow up and review mechanisms especially under the ASDF (Arab Sustainable Development Forum) for assessing progress on those dimensions are also recommended. Furthermore, CSOs representatives should be part of the follow up on the implementation of the COPs decisions of Rio conventions and chemical conventions on gender mainstreaming into national climate policies, strategic framework on biodiversity, national action plans for combating desertification, strategic frameworks on POPs and other chemicals. Way forward for their enhanced involvement under related multi-stakeholder platforms and reporting system within these conventions need to be further explored.

§2: Localizing SDGs for monitoring the 2030 Agenda:

Arab civil society representatives in their aforementioned notes on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the region called for striving to “achieve integration at the national plans level outside the scope of the sectoral concept and follow an integrated approach in terms of

national development efforts. This requires working beyond individual goals and targets and searching for the objective nexus existing between them”. “This requires paying attention to the structural, economic, social, demographic, geographic challenges and others, which generate inequalities, and affect the countries’ options”. Localizing SDGs is proposed in this report as the suitable pathway towards integration and equality. It entails the whole process of the implementation of the Agenda at the country level including the sub-national levels in addition to undertaking regular and inclusive reviews of progress at several levels.

Taking into account sub-national contexts in the achievement of the 2030 Agenda is key to localizing SDGs. This entail considering the whole process about the implementation of the Agenda: From the setting of goals and targets at the local or regional levels, to the mobilization of the means of implementation and finally the design of indicators to measure and monitor progress. All SDGs have targets related to the responsibilities of local and regional governments.

Implementation Guidance Areas
for mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development
and Adapting the SDGs to National Contexts

1. Raising public awareness
2. Applying multi-stakeholder approaches
3. Adapting SDGs to national, sub-national and local contexts
4. Creating horizontal policy coherence (breaking the silos)
5. Creating vertical policy coherence (*glocalizing* the agenda)
6. Budgeting for the future
7. Monitoring, reporting and accountability
8. Assessing risks and fostering adaptability

Source: UNDG, Mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Reference Guide to UN Country Teams, 2016

In the Doha Declaration on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the Arab region, ESCWA member countries exhorted the Secretariat “to focus on *local development* requirements in rural and urban areas”¹¹¹ in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda. Putting the territories and their peoples’ priorities, needs and resources at the centre of the interest of those actors will be sustained through continuous exchanges between the global, national and local facets. As policy makers, their capabilities to promote integrated, inclusive and sustainable territorial development will be catalyst for the change. This level of government is best placed to link global goals with local needs and aspiration. Development goals can be reached only if local actors fully empowered to take part, not only in the implementation, but also in the agenda-setting and monitoring.

Bottom up consultative and participative mechanisms are also needed to involve all relevant actors in the decision making process relating to the planning of cities and human settlements, to water and energy efficiency, to disasters risks reduction, to managing other risks including chemicals and waste, in addition to adaptation to climate change. Reducing the impact of cities on the global climate system is particularly highlighted in the Agenda.¹¹²

The Agenda called for encouraging and promoting effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships¹¹³.

The revitalized Global Partnership will facilitate an intensive global engagement in support of implementation of all the Goals and targets, bringing together Governments, civil society, the private sector, the United Nations system and other actors and mobilizing all available resources¹¹⁴A multi-stakeholder collaboration between Member States, civil society, the private sector, the scientific community, United Nations entities and other stakeholders will structure the Technology Facilitation Mechanism considered the forum on science, technology and innovation for the Sustainable Development Goals and an online platform¹¹⁵.

Furthermore, participants to the New York Summit underscored the engagement of the civil society in expressing the voice of the poorest and the most vulnerable during the intensive public consultations of the Open Working Group¹¹⁶and acknowledge the role of civil society organizations and philanthropic organizations in the implementation of the Agenda, on the same footing as private sector actors, ranging from micro-entrepreneurs to cooperative to multinationals while recognizing that each country has primary responsibility for its own economic and social development¹¹⁷.

Sustainable urban development and management are crucial to the quality of life of people¹¹⁸ while strengthening national and regional development planning is key to support positive links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas (11.a of goal 11), the participants to New York Summit pointed out the need to take account of population trends and projections in national rural and urban development strategies and policies¹¹⁹.All SDGs have targets related to the responsibilities of local and regional governments. Participants to New York Summit expressed their commitment to “work with local authorities and communities to renew and plan cities and human settlements so as to foster community cohesion and personal security and to stimulate innovation and employment”.

The participants to New York Summit expressed their commitment in conducting regular and inclusive reviews of progress at the sub-national, national, regional and global levels drawing as far as possible on the existing network of follow-up and review institutions and mechanisms. National reports will allow assessments of progress and identify challenges at the regional and global level¹²⁰.The regular and inclusive reviews of progress at the national and *subnational* levels which are country-led and country-driven should draw on contributions from indigenous peoples, civil society, the private sector and other stakeholders, in line with national circumstances, policies and priorities¹²¹.

Reviews under the High level Political Forum will be voluntary, while encouraging reporting, and include developed and developing countries as well as relevant United Nations entities and other stakeholders, including civil society and the private sector. These reviews shall provide a platform for partnerships, including through the participation of major groups and other relevant stakeholders¹²².They will be rigorous and based on evidence, informed by country-led evaluations and data of high-quality, accessible, timely, reliable and disaggregated by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migration status, disability and geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts¹²³.

§3: A proposed dashboard for monitoring progress on natural resources management and the gendered dimensions of the 2030 Agenda : The "2030 NATURAL RESOURCES-GENDER-MONITOR"¹²⁴

 GOAL 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law ¹²⁵	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
1.4 By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW. ACHPR and ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights (for Arab-African countries)	CBD , UN Convention to Combat Desertification
1.5 By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters	1.5.3: Number of countries that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030	<p>Computation Method: Computation methodology for several indicators is comprehensive. UNISDR prefers to refer to the outcome of the Open Ended Intergovernmental Working Group, which provides a full detailed methodology for each indicator and sub-indicator. The latest version of these methodologies can be obtained at: http://www.preventionweb.net/documents/oiewg/Technical%20Collection%20of%20Concept%20Notes%20on%20Indicators.pdf</p> <p>Disaggregation: By country By city (applying sub-national administrative units)</p>	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, CRPD, ICRMW, DEVAW; Also ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab-African countries	UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, UN Convention to Combat Desertification

	1.5.4 Proportion of local governments that adopt and implement local disaster risk reduction strategies in line with national disaster risk reduction strategies	N.A		
1.b Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions	1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	N.A	UDHR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, UNDRIP, ICRMW, DEVAW, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	
 GOAL2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
2.2 By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the <i>nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women</i> and older persons	2.2.1 Prevalence of stunting (height for age <-2 standard deviation from the median of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age	Survey estimates are based on standardized methodology using the WHO Child Growth Standards as described elsewhere (Ref: Anthro software manual). Global and regional estimates are based on methodology outlined in UNICEF-WHO-The World Bank: Joint child malnutrition estimates - Levels and trends (UNICEF/WHO/WB 2012)	ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD; Also ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries	UN Convention to Combat Desertification
	2.2.2 Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height >+2 or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)			
2.3 By 2030, <i>double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers,</i>	2.3.1 Volume of production per labor unit by classes of farming/pastoral/forestry enterprise size	N.A	ICESCR, UNDRIP, ACHPR; Also ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries	CBD , UN Convention to Combat Desertification

pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment	2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status			
 GOAL4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.	4.4.1 Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills, by type of skill	The indicator is calculated as the percentage of people in a given population who have responded 'yes' to a selected number of variables e.g. the use of ICT skills in various subject areas or learning domains, the use of ICT skills inside or outside of school and/or workplace, the minimum amount of time spend using ICT skills inside and outside of school and/or workplace, availability of internet access inside or outside of school and/or workplace, etc.	UDHR, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO 142, ILO 159; Also, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries	
4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	The indicator value of the likely more disadvantaged group is divided by the indicator value of the other sub-population of interest. $DPI = \frac{[Indi]d}{[Indi]a}$ where: DPI = the Dimension (Gender, Wealth, Location, etc.) Parity Index Indi = the Education 2030 Indicator i for which an equity measure is needed. d = the likely disadvantaged group (e.g. female, poorest, etc.) a = the likely advantaged group (e.g. male, richest, etc.)	UDHR, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO 142, ILO 159; ILO 169; Also, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries	
4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in: (a) national education policies; (b)	Non available metadata	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, UNDRIP Also, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries only	CBD, UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, UN Convention to Combat Desertification

of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development	curricula; (c) teacher education; and (d) student assessment			
 GOAL5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.	5.1.1 Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex	Non relevant	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, CEDAW, UNDRIP, DEVAW. Also, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights but for Arab African countries only	
5.4 Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	5.4.1 is calculated based on the average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and unpaid care work for the total relevant population. This type of measures can be used to compare groups and assess changes over time. Differences among groups or over time may be due to a difference (or change) in the proportion of those participating in the specific activity or a difference (or change) in the amount of time spent by participants, or both.	ICESCR, CEDAW, ILO 156, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	

5.a Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	Non available	UDHR, ICESCR, ICERD, CEDAW, ACHPR, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	CBD , UN Convention to Combat Desertification
	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control			
5.b Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	<p>Method for computing: Countries can collect data on this indicator through national household surveys. This indicator is calculated by dividing the total number of in-scope individuals who own a mobile phone by the total number of in-scope individuals.</p> <p>Disaggregation: For countries that collect this indicator through a national household survey, and if data allow breakdown and disaggregation, the indicator can be broken down not only by sex but also by region (geographic and/or urban/rural), by age group, by educational level, by labour force status, and by occupation.</p>	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, CEDAW, ACHPR, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	
5.c Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	Non metadata available		



GOAL6: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental

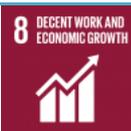
				Agreements
6.1 By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all.	6.1.1 Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services	Household surveys and censuses currently provide information on types of basic drinking water sources, and also indicate if sources are on premises. These data sources often have information on the availability of water and increasingly on the quality of water at the household level, through direct testing of drinking water for fecal or chemical contamination. These data will be combined with data on availability and compliance with drinking water quality standards (faecal and chemical) from administrative reporting or regulatory bodies.	UDHR, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UN Convention to Combat Desertification
6.2 By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.	6.2.1 Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a hand-washing facility with soap and water.	Method of computation: Household surveys and censuses provide data on use of types of basic sanitation facilities listed above, as well as the presence of handwashing materials in the home. The percentage of the population using safely managed sanitation services is calculated by combining data on the proportion of the population using different types of basic sanitation facilities with estimates of the proportion of faecal waste which is safely disposed in situ or treated off-site.	UDHR, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	
6.5 By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary cooperation as appropriate.	6.5.1 Degree of integrated water resources management implementation (0-100)	The concept of IWRM is measured in 4 main components: 1. Enabling environment: this includes the policies, laws, plans and strategies which create the 'enabling environment' for IWRM. 2. Institutions: includes the range and roles of political, social, economic and administrative institutions that help to support the implementation of IWRM. 3. Management Instruments: The tools and activities that enable decision-makers and users to make rational and informed choices between alternative actions. 4. Financing: Budgeting and financing made available and used for water resources development and management from various sources. The indicator is based on a national survey structured around these four main components (UNEP 2016).	UDHR, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, UNDRIP	UN Convention to Combat Desertification, Ramsar convention
6.b Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation	6.b.1 Proportion of local administrative units with established and operational policies	For countries that have data available from the local administrative unit level, they are asked to provide data on the number of local administrative units for which	ICCPR, UNDRIP, ILO 169, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UN Convention to Combat Desertification

management	and procedures for participation of local communities in water and sanitation management	policies and procedures for local participation (i) exist, and (ii) are operational, as well as (iii) the number of local administrative units assessed, and (iv) the total number of units in the country. The indicator is computed as (ii) the number of local admin units with operation policies and procedures for local participation divided by (iv) the total number of local administrative units in the country. Both numerator and denominator will be obtained through the GLAAS survey for the 2016-2017 cycle		
------------	--	--	--	--



GOAL7: Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
7.1 By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services.	7.1.1 Proportion of population with access to electricity 7.1.2 Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology	Given the low frequency and the regional distribution of some surveys, a number of countries have gaps in available data. To develop the historical evolution and starting point of electrification rates, a simple modelling approach was adopted to fill in the missing data points - around 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2012. This modelling approach allowed the estimation of electrification rates for 212 countries over these time periods. The SE4ALL Global Tracking Framework Report (2013) referenced below provides more details on the suggested methodology for tracking access to energy (Chapter 2, Section 1, page 82-87).	UDHR, ICESCR, ICERD, CEDAW, CRPD, UNDRIP, ACHPR, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	



GOAL8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements

<p>8.3 Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small-and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services</p>	<p>8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex</p>	<p>Computation Method: Proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment = (Informal employment in non-agricultural activities) / (Total employment in non-agricultural activities) x 100 Disaggregation: Disaggregated data by sex should be available. In order to produce this indicator, employment statistics disaggregated by formal / informal employment and by economic activity (agriculture / industry / services) are required.</p>	<p>CEDAW, ACHPR, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights</p>	
<p>8.5 By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value</p>	<p>8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities 8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities</p>	<p>Computation Method: Statistics on average hourly earnings by sex can be used to calculate the gender pay gap, as follows: Gender pay gap= ([Average hourly earnings] _Men- [Average hourly earnings] _Women)/ [Average hourly earnings] _Men x 100 Disaggregation: This indicator should be disaggregated by sex, occupation, age and disability status</p>	<p>UDHR, ICESCR, ICERD, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO 94, ILO 95, ILO 100, ILO 111, ILO 122, ILO 131, ILO 142, ILO 159, ILO 181, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights</p>	
<p>8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms</p>	<p>8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age</p>	<p>Computation Method: Children aged 5-17: Number of children aged 5-17 reported in child labour during the week prior to the survey divided by the total number of children aged 5-17 in the population, multiplied by 100. Children aged 5-14: Number of children aged 5-14 reported in child labour during the week prior to the survey divided by the total number of children aged 5-14 in the population, multiplied by 100. Children aged 15-17: Number of children aged 15-17 reported child labour during the week prior to the survey divided by the total number of children aged 15-17 in the population, multiplied by 100. Disaggregation: Sex and age.</p>	<p>UDH, RICCP, ICESCR, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO Protocol 29, ILO 29, ILO 105, ILO 138, ILO 182, ILO Rec 203, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights</p>	

8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status 8.8.2 Level of national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	Computation Method: The frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries will be calculated separately, since statistics on fatal injuries tend to come from a different source than those on non-fatal injuries, which would make their sum into total occupational accidents inaccurate. Disaggregation: This indicator should be disaggregated by both sex and migrant status. Wherever possible, it would also be useful to have information disaggregated by economic activity and occupation.	CRPD, ICRMWILO Protocol 29, ILO 29, ILO 81, ILO 87, ILO 98, ILO 100, ILO 105, ILO 111, ILO 122, ILO 129, ILO 138, ILO 144, ILO 155, ILO 161, ILO 182, ILO 187, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	Basel Convention
8.9 By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products	8.9.1 Tourism direct GDP as a proportion of total GDP and in growth rate 8.9.2 Number of jobs in tourism industries as a proportion of total jobs and growth rate of jobs, by sex	N.A	UNDRIP, ILO 172, ILO Rec 189	
8.10: Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all	8.10.2: Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider	Computation Method: The indicator is based on data collected through individual level surveys in each country with representative samples. Appropriate sampling weights are used in calculating country-level aggregates. Disaggregation: Disaggregation by Income; Age; Education level; Urban/rural; Gender	CEDAW, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	
 GOAL9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
9.2 Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries	9.2.2 Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment	Computation Method: Total employment in manufacturing activities divided by the Total employment in all economic activities x 100 Disaggregation: Data can be disaggregated by gender.		CBD



GOAL10: Reduce inequality within and among countries

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
10.2 By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status.	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, disaggregated by age, sex and persons with disabilities	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO 102, ILO 118, ILO 157, ILO Rec 202 ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UN Convention to Combat Desertification
10.3 Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies	10.3.1 Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ILO 102, ILO 118, ILO 157, ILO Rec 202, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	



GOAL11: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements

<p>11.1 By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums</p>	<p>11.1.1 Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing</p>	<p>Computation Method: This indicator considers three components to be computed as follows: a) Slum households (SH): = 100[(Number of people living in slum)/(City population)] b) Informal settlements households (ISH): = 100[(No.of people living in informal settlements households)/(City population)] c) Inadequate housing households (IHH): = 100[(No. of people living in inadequate housing)/(City population)] The unit of measurements for all these indicators will be %. Disaggregation: Potential Disaggregation: Disaggregation by location (intra-urban), Disaggregation by income group, Disaggregation by sex, race, ethnicity, religion, migration status (head of household), Disaggregation by age (household members), Disaggregation by disability (household members)</p>	<p>UDHR,ICESCR, ICERD, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women’s Rights</p>	
<p>11.2 By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons</p>	<p>11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities</p>	<p>N.A</p>	<p>ICESCR, CEDAW, CRPD, ACHPR, ACRWC</p>	
<p>11.5 By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters, including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations</p>	<p>11.5.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population 11.5.2 Direct economic loss in relation to global GDP, damage to critical infrastructure and number of disruptions to basic services, attributed to disasters</p>	<p>Computation Method: Affected people will be calculated as summation of sub-indicators. Several of sub-indicators will be calculated based on country averages of inhabitants per household, number of workers per hectare of agriculture, per livestock, per industry and per commerce. Disaggregation: Further to the recommendations of both the OEIWG and the IAEG-SDGs, the Secretariat recommends disaggregating data: -By country, by event, by hazard type, by hazard family (e.g. using the IRDR classification, natural hazards can be disaggregated as climatological, hydrological, meteorological, geophysical, biological and extraterrestrial) -By deaths / missing -Additionally, the OEIWG proposed disaggregation by age, sex, location of residence and other characteristics (e.g. disability) as relevant and possible, in order to align with SDG's requirements.</p>	<p>UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, CRC, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP,DEVAV</p>	<p>UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, UN Convention to Combat Desertification</p>

11.7 By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities 11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	N.A	CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	
11.a Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning	11.a.1 Proportion of population living in cities that implement urban and regional development plans integrating population projections and resource needs, by size of city	N.A	ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UNFCCC, CBD, UN Convention to Combat Desertification
11.b By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels	11.b.1 Number of countries that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 11.b.2 Proportion of local governments that adopt and implement local disaster risk reduction strategies in line with national disaster risk reduction strategies	Computation Method: Computation methodology for several indicators is comprehensive and can be obtained at: http://www.preventionweb.net/documents/oiewg/Technical%20Collection%20of%20Concept%20Notes%20on%20Indicators.pdf A short summary: Summation of data from National Progress Reports of the Sendai Monitor Disaggregation: By country By city (applying sub-national administrative units)	ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, UN Convention to Combat Desertification



GOAL12: Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation and disaggregation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements

12.1 Implement the 10-year framework of programmes on sustainable consumption and production, all countries taking action, with developed countries taking the lead, taking into account the development and capabilities of developing countries.	12.1.1 Number of countries with sustainable consumption and production (SCP) national action plans or SCP mainstreamed as a priority or target into national policies	N.A	ACHPR and ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UNFCCC
12.b Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.	12.b.1 Number of sustainable tourism strategies or policies and implemented action plans with agreed monitoring and evaluation tools	N.A	UNDRIP, ILO 172, ILO Rec 189	



GOAL 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
13.1 Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries	13.1.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population	The same for indicators 1.5.1 and 11.5.1 (see above)	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, CRC, CRPD, ICRMW, UNDRIP, DEVAW, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	CBD, UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, UN Convention to Combat Desertification
	13.1.2 Number of countries that adopt and implement national disaster risk reduction strategies in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030	The same for indicators 1.5.3 and 11.b.1 (see above)		
	13.1.3 Proportion of local governments that adopt and implement local disaster risk reduction strategies in line with national disaster risk reduction strategies	N.A		

13.b Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, CHPR, ACRWC	UNFCCC, Paris Agreement,
--	---	-----	--	--------------------------



Goal 14: Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
4.b Provide access for small-scale artisanal fishers to marine resources and markets	14.b.1 Progress by countries in the degree of application of a legal/regulatory/policy/institutional framework which recognizes and protects access rights for small-scale fisheries	N.A		



Goal 15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation	International law	
				Multilateral Environmental Agreements
15.9 By 2020, integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into national and local planning, development processes, poverty reduction strategies and accounts.	15.9.1 Progress towards national targets established in accordance with Aichi Biodiversity Target 2 of the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity	N.A	ACHPR	RAMSAR, CBD, UN Convention to Combat Desertification

	2011-2020			
15.c Enhance global support for efforts to combat poaching and trafficking of protected species, including by increasing the capacity of local communities to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities	15.c.1 Proportion of traded wildlife that was poached or illicitly trafficked	N.A	UNDRIP, ACHPR, ACHPR, Protocol on Women's Rights	CBD
 Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels				
Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels.	16.7.1 Proportions of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions 16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UNFCCC, CBD
16.b Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development.	16.b.1 Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, ACHPR, ACRWC, ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	UNFCCC, CBD

	human rights law			
--	------------------	--	--	--



GOAL 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Targets	Indicators	Metadata for calculation	International law	
			Human rights instruments	
				Multilateral Environmental Agreements
17.17 Encourage and promote effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resources strategies of partnerships.	17.17.1 Amount of United States dollars committed to public-private and civil society partnerships	N.A	UNGP, ACHPR	
7.18 By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high- quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.	17.18.1 Proportion of sustainable development indicators produced at the national level with full disaggregation when relevant to the target, in accordance with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics	N.A	UDHR, ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CRC, CEDAW, CRPD, ICRMW, ACRWC	
	17.18.2 Number of countries that have national statistical legislation that complies with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics	<i>Computation Method:</i> Indicator 17.18.2 = \sum countries of which the law has provisions relating to all the ten Principles of the National statistical legislation <i>Disaggregation:</i> There is no disaggregation level used for the indicator.		
	17.18.3 Number of countries with a national statistical plan that is fully funded and under implementation, by source of funding	<i>Computation Method:</i> Simple count of countries that are either (i) implementing a strategy, (ii) designing one or (iii) awaiting adoption of the strategy in the current year. <i>Disaggregation:</i> The indicator can be disaggregated by geographical area		

Abbreviation	Instruments
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/UDHR/Pages/Language.aspx?LangID=eng)
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CCPR.aspx)
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CESCR.aspx)
ICERD	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CERD.aspx)
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx)
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CEDAW.aspx)
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRPD/Pages/ConventionRightsPersonsWithDisabilities.aspx)
ICRMW	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CMW.aspx)
UNDRIP	United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/IPeoples/Pages/Declaration.aspx)
UNGP	United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights (http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/GuidingPrinciplesBusinessHR_EN.pdf)
DEVAW	Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/ViolenceAgainstWomen.aspx)
NAGOYA	The Nagoya Protocol on Access to Genetic Resources and the Fair and Equitable Sharing of Benefits Arising from their Utilization to the Convention on Biological Diversity(https://www.cbd.int/abs/doc/protocol/nagoya-protocol-en.pdf)

ILO Protocol 29	Protocol of 2014 to the ILO Convention 29(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12005:0::NO:::)
ILO 29	Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) (http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 81	Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO Rec 86	Migration for Employment Recommendation (revised), 1949 (No. 86)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 87	Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 94	Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949 (No. 94)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 95	Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 97	Migration for Employment Convention (revised), 1949 (No. 97)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 98	Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 100	Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 102	Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 105	Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 111	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 118	Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 122	Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 129	Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969 (No. 129)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)

ILO 131	Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131) (http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 138	Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 142	Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 143	Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 144	Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO Rec 151	Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (No. 151) (http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 155	Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 156	Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No 156)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 157	Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention, 1982 (No. 157)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 159	Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 161	Occupational Health Services Convention, 1985 (No. 161)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 169	The Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 172	Working Conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) Convention, 1991 (No. 172)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 181	Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
ILO 182	Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)
MLC	The Maritime Labour Convention (2006)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO::)

ILO 187	Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No. 187)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO 188	The Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO Rec 189	Job Creation in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises Recommendation, 1998 (No. 189)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO Rec 202	Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ILO Rec 203	Forced Labour (Supplementary Measures) Recommendation, 2014 (No. 203)(http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12020:0::NO:::)
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ACHPR Protocol on Women's Rights	Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
Paris Agreement	Paris Agreement
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
UN Convention to Combat Desertification	UN Convention to Combat Desertification
Ramsar convention	Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance Especially as Waterfowl Habitat
Basel Convention	Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal
UN Convention on the Law of the Sea	UN Convention on the Law of the Sea

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- [1] Alexandre Hallington, William Shipley, *SDG 5 on Gender Equality: Contributions of international law, Policy and governance* UNEP, CISDL, 2016
- [2] Alice Bouman-Dentener, Bart Devos, “Civil Society: key contributors to water and sustainable development”, UN Water Annual International Zaragoza Conference, 15-17 January 2015.
- [3] Amanda Franklin, *The Human Rights Guide to SDGs: A valuable tool for civil society*, Issue brief, Danish Institute for Human Rights, 2016
- [4] Amanda Franklin, Allan Lerberg Jorgensen, *Preparing for the Davos of Development: A human Rights guide to SDGs follow up and review*, Issue brief, Danish Institute for Human Rights, 2016
- [5] Atallah Kuttab, Natasha Matic and Noha El-Mikawy, *Arab philanthropy: from social giving to social change*, Alliance Magazine, 2016
- [6] Christiaan Grootaert and Thierry van Bastelaer, *Understanding and measuring social capital: A synthesis of findings and recommendations from the social capital initiative* By The World Bank Social Development Family Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network April 2001.
- [7] Doaa El-Sherif, M. Siraj Sait, Omberta Tempra, Dina Naguib, “Improving women’s access to land and property in the Arab states: the role of inheritance, dower and marital”, Paper prepared for presentation at the “2016 World Bank Conference on Land and Property” The World Bank - Washington DC, March 14-18, 2016.
- [8] Elisabetta Addis and Majlinda Joxhe, “Gender Gaps in Social Capital: A theoretical interpretation of the Italian evidence, Working papers (Dipartimento di scienze sociali ed economiche), Sapienza, Università di Roma, 2016.
- [9] Heba El-Laithy, *Gender inequality in Arab countries: Opportunities and challenges, interim report for household expenditure Patterns in Egypt during the 2000s*, IDE-JETRO, 2016.
- [10] Kirk Hamilton, Giovanni Ruta, Katharine Bolt, Anil Markandya, Suzette Pedrosogalinato, Patricia Silva, M. Saeed Ordoubadi, Glenn-Marie Lange, and Liaila Tajibaeva. *Where is the Wealth of Nations?* The World Bank, Washington, D.C, 2006.
- [11] Keeley Brian, *OECD Insights Human Capital How what you know shapes your life*, 2007
- [12] Nat J. Colletta, Michelle L. Cullen, “Violent Conflict and the Transformation of Social Capital Lessons from Cambodia, Rwanda, Guatemala, and Somalia, The World Bank, Washington, D.C. 2000.
- [13] Verner, Dorte and Clemens Breisinger, *Economics of Climate Change in the Arab World: Case Studies from the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, and the Republic of Yemen*. Washington, DC: World Bank, 2013.
- [14] EuroMed Rights, *Report on Advancing economic and social rights in the EuroMed region. Assessing civil society initiatives in the field of economic and social rights*. 2017
- [15] Uno Svedin, *Urban Development and the Environmental Challenges – “green” systems considerations*, The Stockholm Resilience Center, Stockholm University, Issue paper.

http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/studies/pdf/citiesoftomorrow/citiesoftomorrow_environmental.pdf

- [16] Both end connecting people for change, working paper series, Towards a workable approach to mainstream gender in natural resources, Netherland 2012.
- [17] Danish Institute for Human Rights, The Human Rights Guide to the Sustainable Development Goals, <http://sdg.humanrights.dk/en>
- [18] Danish Institute for Human Rights, Guidance paper on Rights human rights and 2030 Agenda for sustainable development, June 2017
- [19] Danish Institute for Human, Guidance paper on Rights human rights and the follow up and review of the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development, June 2017
- [20] Danish Institute for Human, data collection and baseline development practionner supplement , human impact assessment guidance and toolbox, June 2017
- [21] Heinrish Boll Stiftang, Pespectives, political analysis and commentary, Middle East & North Africa, A Region Heating Up: Climate Change Activism in the Middle East and North Africa, issue 6, August 2016
- [22] Civil society Declaration to HLPF, 2017. <http://www.socialwatch.org/node/17801>
- [23] ESCWA-UNEP, Arab Sustainable Development Report, first edition, Beirut, 2015
- [24] ESCWA, The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: A new roadmap to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls, document for the preparation of the 7th Session of the ESCWA Women Committee, 7 October 2015.
- [25] ESCWA, Report of the Committee on Women on its seventh session, Muscat, 20-21 January 2016 , published 8 February 2016. E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/IG.1/7/
- [26] ESCWA, Population and Development Report, Issue No. 7 Overcoming Population Vulnerability to Water Scarcity in the Arab Region, Beirut , 2015
- [27] ESCWA, Urbanization and sustainable development in the Arab region, Social Development Bulletin, Vol 5 n 4 , 2015.
- [28] ESCWA, Doha Declaration on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda https://www.unescwa.org/sites/www.unescwa.org/files/events/files/follow-up_issues_implementation_of_the_doha_declaration_on_the_implementation_of_the_2030_agenda_for_sustainable_development_in_the_arab_states_and_the_resolutions_issued_at_the_twenty-ninth_escwa_session.pdf
- [29] FAO, Gender and law, women’s rights in agriculture, Legislative Study 76, rev1,
- [30] Green Climate Fund, FP053: Enhancing Climate Change Adaptation in the North Coast and Nile Delta Regions in Egypt Egypt | United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) | Decision B.18/08, 2 November 2017.
- [31] League of Arab States, Arab Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction 2010- 2020. adopted by the Council of Arab Ministers Responsible for the Environment (CAMRE), resolution345, 22nd session of the council, 19-20 December 2010.
- [32] United Nations, 2015. *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics*. New York: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division.
- [33] UNEP, Global Gender and Environment Outlook, UN Environment, Nairobi, Kenya2016.

- [34] UNEP, UN WOMEN, PBSP, UNDEP, Women and Natural Resources Unlocking the Peacebuilding Potential, 2013.
- [35] UNEP, Towards a Green Economy: Pathways to Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication, 2011.
- [36] UNEP, Arab Regional Strategy for Sustainable Consumption and Production, 2009
- [37] UNEP, Conserving the natural resource base for sustained economic and social development. A reflection from the International Resource Panel on the establishment of Sustainable Development Goals aimed at decoupling economic growth from escalating resource use and environmental degradation, february 7, 2014.
- [38] UNDP, SIDA, “Water Governance in the Arab Region Managing Scarcity and Securing the Future”, New York, 2013.
- [39] UNEP, CISDL, SDG 5 ON Gender Equality: Contributions of international law, Policy and governance
- [40] UN WOMEN, EU, EUROMONITOR, Report “Country gender and economic profiles”, October 2016.
- [41] UN WOMEN, UNHR/OHC, Report “Realizing women rights to land and other productive resources”, New York and Geneva, 2013.
- [42] UN WOMEN WATCH, Women , Gender Equality and Climate Change, fact sheet, 2009.
- [43] Women’s Centre for Legal Aid and Counselling (WCLAC), Palestinian Women and Inheritance Report,
- [44] UNENVIRONMENT, Global Gender and Environment Outlook, Nairobi, 2016.
- [45] Resolution 66/288 adopted by the General Assembly on 27 July 2012, http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/66/288&Lang=E
- [46] Resolution 70/1 adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015 Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E
- [47] Regional Action Plan on Sustainable Consumption and Production in the Mediterranean
- [48] UNDG, Mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Reference Guide to UN Country Teams, 2016.
- [49] UNESCO Priority Gender Equality Action Plan, 2014-2021, Paris 2014
- [50] UNIFEM (2008/09). Progress of the World’s women. Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability, 2008.
- [51] UNSTAT, System of Environmental-Economic Accounting 2012, Central Framework, New York, 2014
- [52] UNSTAT. Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs)
- [53] World Bank-Netherlands Partnership Program (BNPP), "Evaluating and Disseminating Experiences in Local Economic Development", Investigation of Pro-Poor Local Economic Development in Partnership Program (BNPP), "Evaluating and Disseminating Experiences in Local Economic Development", Investigation of Pro-Poor Local Economic Development in South Africa October 2005.

-
- ¹ ESCWA-UNEP, Arab Sustainable Development Report, first edition, Beirut, 2015, page 68.
- ² Heba El-Laithy, Gender inequality in Arab countries: Opportunities and challenges, interim report for household expenditure Patterns in Egypt during the 2000s, IDE-JETRO, 2016, page 25.
- ³ OECD, 2014 from the Gender Data Portal, available through this link: <http://www.oecd.org/gender/data/>.
- ⁴ The Convention on Biological Diversity and the Nagoya Protocol on the access to genetic resources and the fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from utilisation to the Convention on Biological Diversity.
- ⁵ Target 15.6: Promote fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and promote appropriate access to such resources, as internationally agreed. This target will be measures by Number of countries that have adopted legislative, administrative and policy frameworks to ensure fair and equitable sharing of benefits (15.6.1)
- ⁶ Principle 20 of the Agenda 21.
- ⁷ UNEP, Towards a Green Economy: Pathways to Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication, 2011. Also, UNEP, Uncovering Pathways Towards an Inclusive Green Economy: A Summary for Leaders", 2012
- ⁸ ‘ ‘ In practice, those left behind with respect to a particular dimension of the Agenda may be different groups in different societies (e.g.,)women, indigenous peoples, persons with disabilities, the youth and others and deprivation focused on single areas or sector, many indices of multiple deprivation exist, which incorporate social, economic and environmental dimensions.’’ For more information on defining those left behind, see the Brief on the Global Sustainable Development Report “ensuring that no one is left behind” and the 2030 Agenda.
- ⁹ Resolution 66/288 adopted by the General Assembly on 27 July 2012, see the document from the following link: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/66/288&Lang=E.
- ¹⁰ Resolution 70/1 adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015 Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E.
- ¹¹ Idem, see the Preamble page 1.
- ¹² ESCWA, Urbanization and sustainable development in the Arab region, Social Development Bulletin, Vol 5 n 4 , 2015.
- ¹³ Uno Svedin, Urban Development and the Environmental Challenges – “green” systems considerations, The Stockholm Resilience Center, Stockholm University, Issue paper commissioned by the European Commission (Directorate General for Regional Policy). Available in this link: http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docgener/studies/pdf/citiesoftomorrow/citiesoftomorrow_environmental.pdf
- ¹⁴ See the definition of the local Green Development in chapter, Section I, paragraph 2.
- ¹⁵ Kirk Hamilton, Giovanni Ruta, Katharine Bolt, Anil Markandya, Suzette Pedroso-Galinato, Patricia Silva, M. Saeed Ordoubadi, Glenn-Marie Lange, and Liaila Tajibaeva. Where is the Wealth of Nations? The World Bank, Washington, D.C, 2006.
- ¹⁶ AAND, Oxfam, ESCWA, Outcome Document and Notes of the Civil Society Organizations in the Arab Region on the Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Regional Workshop for Civil Society Organizations in the Arab Countries: Regional Approaches for the Implementation of 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Beirut June 23-24, 2016.
- ¹⁷ Paragraph 41 of the 2030 Agenda. See the full document of the GA resolution 70/1.
- ¹⁸ Paragraph 79, idem.
- ¹⁹ ESCWA, Report of the Committee on Women on its seventh session, Muscat, 20-21 January 2016, published 8 February 2016. <E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/IG.1/7/>, page 3.
- ²⁰ Idem.
- ²¹ Idem, paragraph 30, page 10.
- ²² ESCWA, The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: A new roadmap to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls, document for the preparation of the 7th Session of the ESCWA Women Committee, 7 October 2015, page 12.
- ²³ Analysis on the human rights based approach to gendered dimension of the 2030 are built on key findings of The Human Rights Guide to the Sustainable Development Goals of the Danish Institute for human rights: <http://sdg.humanrights.dk/en/targets2>
- ²⁴ UNDG, Mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Reference Guide to UN Country Teams, 2016, page 11.

-
- ²⁵ Civil society Declaration to HLPF, 2017. <http://www.socialwatch.org/node/17801>
- ²⁶ ESCWA adopted a broad definition of gender justice during its seventh committee on women held on 20 – 21 January 2016 in Muscat. For more details see Muscat declaration available from: https://www.unescwa.org/sites/www.unescwa.org/files/events/files/report_7th_session_-_final_css_en.pdf
- ²⁷ https://www.unescwa.org/sites/www.unescwa.org/files/page_attachments/does_gender_justice_matter.pdf
- ²⁸ UNESCO Priority Gender Equality Action Plan, 2014-2021, Paris 2014, page 11.
- ²⁹ UNIFEM (2008/09). Progress of the World's women. Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability, 2008, page 11, Available at: http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008/media/POWW08_Report_Full_Text.pdf
- ³⁰ See Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifty-second Session, Supplement No. 3 (A/52/3/Rev.1), chap. IV, para. 4. <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/docs/52/plenary/a52-3.htm>
- ³¹ See the definition of the WBG of local economic development, <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTURBANDEVELOPMENT/EXTLED/0,,contentMDK:20185186~menuPK:399161~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:341139,00.html>
- ³² Pro-poor local development is different from Pro-poor growth. This latter is a term used for primarily national policies to stimulate economic growth for the benefit of poor people. Pro-poor growth can be defined as absolute, where the poor benefits from overall growth in the economy which refers to targeted efforts to increase the growth specifically among poor people. World Bank-Netherlands Partnership Program (BNPP), "Evaluating and Disseminating Experiences in Local Economic Development", Investigation of Pro-Poor Local Economic Development in South Africa October 2005 <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLED/Resources/339650-1144099718914/ProPoorExecSum.pdf>
- ³³ Idem.
- ³⁴ See the ILO definition of Local Economic Development through this link : <http://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/local-economic-development-led/lang--en/index.htm>
- ³⁵ http://www.naco.org/sites/default/files/documents/Countries_Growing_Green_Local_Economy_-_June_2010.pdf
- ³⁶ LEED's mission is to contribute to the creation of more and better jobs through effective policy implementation, innovative practices, stronger capacities and integrated strategies at a local level. <http://www.oecd.org/cfe/leed/greendevlopment.htm>.
- ³⁷ For framing the scope of this project, Pro-poor Local Economic Development is the Green Local Development. Green should be considered in all situations pro-poor. Reference is made here to Rio+20 UN Conference outcome document calling for inclusive national approaches to green economy.
- ³⁸ The Arab Foundations Forum (AFF) is a non-for-profit membership-based association of philanthropic foundations in the Arab region and is working for an effective and strategic philanthropic sector in the Arab region that engages with all aspects of society towards growing social responsibility and investment, while advancing public goods. See more information through this link: <http://arabfoundationsforum.org/>
- ³⁹ <http://www.alliancemagazine.org/feature/arab-philanthropy-from-social-giving-to-social-change/>
- ⁴⁰ paragraph 41 of the document.
- ⁴¹ See <https://naturalcapitalforum.com/about/>
- ⁴² Glossary of Environment Statistics, Studies in Methods, Series F, No. 67, United Nations, New York, 1997
- ⁴³ UNSTAT, System of Environmental-Economic Accounting 2012, Central Framework, New York, 2014. Page 134.
- ⁴⁴ Idem, page136.
- ⁴⁵ UNEP, Conserving the natural resource base for sustained economic and social development A reflection from the International Resource Panel on the establishment of Sustainable Development Goals aimed at decoupling economic growth from escalating resource use and environmental degradation, February 7, 2014, page 6.
- ⁴⁶ Social justice Declaration
- ⁴⁷ These thematic issues should structure CAWTAR researches Agenda on Gender and natural resources.
- ⁴⁸ Fao guidelines
- ⁴⁹ UNEP, 2016, Global Gender and Environment Outlook, UN Environment, Nairobi, Kenya, page 33.
- ⁵⁰ Doaa El-Sherif, M. Siraj Sait, Omberta Tempra, Dina Naguib, "Improving women's access to land and property in the Arab states: the role of inheritance, dower and marital", Paper prepared for presentation at the "2016 World Bank Conference on Land and Property" The World Bank - Washington DC, March 14-18, 2016
- ⁵¹ Doaa El-Sherif, M. Siraj Sait, Omberta Tempra, Dina Naguib, "Improving women's access to land and property in the Arab states: the role of inheritance, dower and marital", Paper prepared for presentation at the "2016 World Bank Conference on Land and Property" The World Bank - Washington DC, March 14-18, 2016.

⁵²The Women's Affairs Center Gaza (WAC) is an independent and non-profit Palestinian NGO with the purpose of advocating women's rights and gender equality through capacity development, information and innovative research and advocacy programs. While implementing its strategy to fulfil its vision, WAC is guided by international human rights principles including empowerment and participation; equality and non-discrimination; and accountability to ensure justice and dignity for women.

⁵³ Women's Centre for Legal Aid and Counselling (WCLAC), Palestinian Women and Inheritance Report, 2014, page 4.

⁵⁴ More information are available from the WAC Gaza in this link <http://site.wac.ps/en/2015/02/28/a-training-about-the-pressure-and-advocacy-to-adopt-the-idea-of-establishing-a-department-of-inheritance-issues-in-ministry-of-justice/>

⁵⁵ See the paper of Doaa El-Sherif, M. Siraj Sait, Omberta Tempa, Dina Naguib, "Improving women's access to land and property in the Arab states: the role of inheritance, dower and marital",

⁵⁶ Idem.

⁵⁷ <http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/data-map/statistics/en/>

⁵⁸ <https://www.genderindex.org/countries/?region=middle-east-and-north-africa>

⁵⁹ Alice Bouman-Dentener, Bart Devos, "Civil Society: key contributors to water and sustainable development", UN Water Annual International Zaragoza Conference, 15-17 January 2015.

⁶⁰ UNENVIRONMENT, Global Gender and Environment Outlook, Nairobi, 2016.

⁶¹ ESCWA, Population and Development Report, Issue No. 7 Overcoming Population Vulnerability to Water Scarcity in the Arab Region, Beirut , 2015, page 37.

⁶² UNDP, SIDA, "Water Governance in the Arab Region Managing Scarcity and Securing the Future", New York, 2013, page 108.

⁶³ Heinrich Boll Stiftung, Perspectives, political analysis and commentary, Middle East & North Africa, A Region Heating Up: Climate Change Activism in the Middle East and North Africa, issue 6, August 2016

⁶⁴ <http://genderandenvironment.org/resource/jordan-program-for-mainstreaming-gender-in-climate-change-efforts-in-jordan/>

⁶⁵ UNDP, SIDA, "Water Governance in the Arab Region Managing Scarcity and Securing the Future", New York, 2013, page 108.

⁶⁶ ESCWA, Population and Development Report, Issue No. 7 Overcoming Population Vulnerability to Water Scarcity in the Arab Region, Beirut , 2015, page 38.

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Available in this link, http://www.unisdr.org/files/18903_17934asdrfinalenglishjanuary20111.pdf

⁶⁹ UNEP, UN WOMEN, PBSP, UNDEP, Women and Natural Resources Unlocking the Peacebuilding Potential, 2013, page 15.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² <http://apnature.org/en/content/million-tree-campaign-stands-our-countrys-mothers-planting-iskaka-village-salfit>

⁷³ Arab Group for the protection of nature , Annual Report, 2015

⁷⁴ Report of Committee on World Food Security (CFS) Global Strategic Framework for Food Security & Nutrition (GSF), 2015, page 32 <http://www.fao.org/3/AV031e.pdf>

⁷⁵ http://apnature.org/sites/default/files/press_releases_attachement/cfs_womens_forum_intervention_25_sep_17.pdf

⁷⁶ UNEP, UN WOMEN, PBSP, UNDEP, Women and Natural Resources Unlocking the Peacebuilding Potential, 2013

⁷⁷ See chapter I, Section I, paragraph 3.

⁷⁸ For more details see the NACo report "Growing a Green Local Economy National Association of Counties County Strategies for Economic, Workforce and Environmental Innovation", 2010.

http://www.naco.org/sites/default/files/documents/Counties_Growing_Green_Local_Economy_-_June_2010.pdf

⁷⁹ The final draft of Arab Regional Strategy for Sustainable Consumption and Production is available from this link: <http://www.unep.fr/scp/marrakech/publications/pdf/Final%20Draft%20Arab%20Strategy%20on%20SCP%20-%202006-10-09.pdf>

⁸⁰ A least four roundtables had been held on SCPs in the Arab region as following: 1st Roundtable Meeting of Experts on SCP, Al-Ain, United Arab Emirates (17-19 March 2008), 2nd roundtable on SCP and the Launching of the Regional Strategy on, 27th - 29th September 2009. Cairo, Egypt, 3rd Roundtable Meeting on Sustainable Consumption and Production in the Arab Region "Paving the Path to Green Economy in the Arab Region" Cairo,

Egypt 26-27 January 2011, 4th Roundtable Meeting on Sustainable Consumption and Production in the Arab Region
“Putting 10YFP on SCP into Action” Cairo, Egypt 17-18 June 2013.

⁸¹ Regional Action Plan on Sustainable Consumption and Production in the Mediterranean:

<https://www.switchmed.eu/en/e-library/regional-action-plan-on-sustainable-consumption-and-production-in-the-mediterranean>

⁸² UfM conference, 19-21 May 2015, Booklet on ‘Fostering Women’s Participation in Economic Life.

http://ufmsecretariat.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/Booklet_-_Agenda-v06.05.pdf

⁸³ Regional Action Plan On Sustainable Consumption And Production In The Mediterranean

UN Environment/MAP, Athens, Greece (2017), page 13.

⁸⁴ Available from <http://www.switchmed.eu/en/country-hubs/morocco/>

⁸⁵ Available from <http://www.switchmed.eu/en/country-hubs/egypt/>

⁸⁶ Available from <http://www.switchmed.eu/en/country-hubs/lebanon/>

⁸⁷ Available from <http://www.switchmed.eu/en/country-hubs/tunisia/>

⁸⁸ Available from <http://www.switchmed.eu/en/country-hubs/palestine/>

⁸⁹ Kirk Hamilton, Giovanni Ruta, Katharine Bolt, Anil Markandya, Suzette Pedroso-Galinato, Patricia Silva, M. Saeed Ordoubadi, Glenn-Marie Lange, and Liaila Tajibaeva. The estimation of wealth subcomponents is based on the background work of Susana Ferreira, Liying Zhou, BoonLing Yeo, and Roberto Martin-Hurtado, Where is the Wealth of Nations? THE WORLD BANK Washington, D.C. Measuring Capital for the 21st Century, WASHINGTON, 2006.

⁹⁰ UNESCWA-UNEP, Arab Sustainable Development Report, First Edition 2015, p 71.

⁹¹ Idem.

⁹² FP039: GCF-EBRD Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework Egypt | EBRD | B.16/02

⁹³ FP039: GCF-EBRD Egypt Renewable Energy Financing Framework Egypt | EBRD | B.16/02

https://www.greenclimate.fund/documents/20182/737049/Gender_action_plan_-_FP039_-_EBRD_-_Egypt.pdf/99382b2f-3205-412a-83fc-1d527cb86103

⁹⁴ See the document in this link: www.ebrd.com/downloads/country/technical_assessments/egypt-assess.pdf, page 4

⁹⁵ Christiaan Grootaert and Thierry van Bastelaer, Understanding and measuring social capital: A synthesis of findings and recommendations from the social capital initiative By The World Bank Social Development Family Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network April 2001

⁹⁶ Keeley Brian, OECD Insights Human Capital How what you know shapes your life, 2007. Page 102.

⁹⁷ Elisabetta Addis and Majlinda Joxhe, “Gender Gaps in Social Capital: A theoretical interpretation of the Italian evidence, Working papers (Dipartimento di scienze sociali ed economiche), Sapienza, Università di Roma, 2016

⁹⁸ About Somalia see Nat J. Colletta, Michelle L. Cullen, “Violent Conflict and the Transformation of Social Capital Lessons from Cambodia, Rwanda, Guatemala, and Somalia, World Bank, Washington, D.C. 2000, page 55.

⁹⁹ Christiaan Grootaert and Thierry van Bastelaer, Understanding and measuring social capital: A synthesis of findings and recommendations from the social capital initiative By The World Bank Social Development Family Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network April 2001

¹⁰⁰ Jos Verbeek, Alexander Dill, The forgotten dimension of the SDG indicators – Social Capital <https://blogs.worldbank.org/voices/forgotten-dimension-sdg-indicators-social-capital>

¹⁰¹ UNSTAT, The World’s Women 2015: Trends and Statistics, chapter 7: Environment

https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/downloads/WorldsWomen2015_chapter7_t.pdf

¹⁰² Manar A. Zaki Hussein, “Middle Class Imaginaries of Cairo’s Waste, The Zabaleen’s Story Retold”; A Thesis Submitted to the Cynthia Nelson Institute for Gender and Women’s Studies; The American University in Cairo; School of Global Affairs and Public Policy, September 2017. Page 53 and 54.

¹⁰³ Zafar, S. (2015) Gargabe Woes in Cairo, EcoMENA, <http://www.ecomena.org/tag/waste-management-in-cairo/>

¹⁰⁴ Fahmi, Wael Salah.(2005) The Impact of Privatization of Solid Waste Management on the Zabaleen Garbage Collectors of Cairo. Environment & Urbanization, Vol 17, no.2, p.158

¹⁰⁵ See the Outcome document of Regional Workshop for Civil Society Organizations in the Arab Countries: Regional Approaches for the Implementation of 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Beirut June 23-24, 2016.

¹⁰⁶ Outcome document of the meeting, <http://www.annd.org/data/file/files/outcome%20doc%20WEB.pdf>

¹⁰⁷ Alexandre Hallington, William Shipley, SDG 5 on Gender Equality: Contributions of international law, Policy and governance UNEP, CISDL, 2016, page 7

¹⁰⁸ Also, Danish Institute for Human, Guidance paper on Rights human rights and 2030 Agenda for sustainable development, June 2017.

¹⁰⁹ Amanda Franklin, The Human Rights Guide to SDGs: A valuable tool for civil society, Issue brief, Danish Institute for Human Rights, 2016.

¹¹⁰ See the case study about gender considerations under the funding proposal document on the Nile Delta project.

¹¹¹ ESCWA, Doha Declaration on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, page 2.
https://www.unescwa.org/sites/www.unescwa.org/files/events/files/follow-up_issues_implementation_of_the_doha_declaration_on_the_implementation_of_the_2030_agenda_for_sustainable_development_in_the_arab_states_and_the_resolutions_issued_at_the_twenty-ninth_escwa_session.pdf

¹¹² Paragraph 31 of the New York Summit outcome document.

¹¹³ Paragraph 17 of the New York Summit outcome document.

¹¹⁴ Paragraph 60 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹¹⁵ Paragraph 70 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹¹⁶ Paragraph 6 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹¹⁷ Paragraph 41 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹¹⁸ Paragraph 34 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹¹⁹ Paragraph 60 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹²⁰ Paragraph 77 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹²¹ Paragraph 79 of the New York Summit outcome document .

¹²² Paragraph 84 of the New York Summit outcome document

¹²³ Paragraph 74 of the New York Summit outcome document

¹²⁴ The proposed dashboard is inspired by the Danish Institute for Human Rights, The Human Rights Guide to the Sustainable Development Goals, <http://sdg.humanrights.dk/en> information about metadata for metadata calculations and data disaggregation are available under SDG Indicators Metadata repository <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/>

¹²⁵ See the list of the instruments of international law below the proposed dashboard.