Executive Summary

Green Jobs, an Opportunity for Women in Latin America

Climate Change, Gender and Just Transition
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Executive Summary

Green Jobs: an Opportunity for Women in Latin America
Climate Change, Gender and Just Transition

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Prologue

The Just Transition focuses on maximising the social and economic opportunities of climate action and minimising its negative effects, as well as promoting transformations that ensure environmental sustainability and generate decent work, with an equitable distribution of the costs and benefits of the climate transition.

The effects of climate change tend to accentuate pre-existing inequalities such as those regarding gender, which is why gender equality is an essential component of the transition to an inclusive and regenerative green economy.

Despite the progress made in recent decades in this area, women’s labour force participation rate remains lower than that of men and the gap widened during the COVID-19 pandemic. Working women face higher decent work deficits and lower wages, whilst acute occupational segregation persists, relegating them to lower-ranking positions and lower-productivity sectors. Their limited access to capital, land and credit increases barriers to the development of their businesses, which, in large part, are based on an unfair distribution of unpaid care of the family that places a burden on women and limits their financial independence. However, whilst women share multiple forms of gender discrimination, they do not constitute a homogeneous group. Most environmental damage has repercussions on women who are poor, indigenous, of African descent, or those who live in rural areas or have a lower level of education.

In addition to adaptation measures for reducing the vulnerability of nature and people to climate change, as well as mitigation measures aimed at achieving carbon-neutrality, transformations are required for strengthening social justice, reducing inequality, discrimination and poverty, and ensuring decent livelihoods for all. In this process, the stakeholders of the world of work are agents of change and the processes of social dialogue are indispensable tools for generating agreements and moving towards transformative strategies that also encompass the full participation of women.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) and the International and Ibero-American Foundation for Administration and Public Policies (FIIAPP), via the Euroclima+ Programme funded by the European Union, have joined forces to identify priorities for strengthening the gender dimension in national and sectoral adaptation and mitigation strategies.

Given the marked inequality that characterizes Latin America and the impact of climate change on groups experiencing multiple forms of exclusion, this report highlights the intersectionality dimension and the need to address, in particular, the situation faced by indigenous and Afro-descendant women.

We understand that public policies are the lynchpins for reducing inequalities and promoting social justice, and that the role of the stakeholders of the world of work in this process is essential, which is why we hope that this thematic study will contribute to the development and implementation of public climate policies and serve to strengthen platforms for dialogue and the participation of higher numbers of informed women within these forums.
**EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

**Introduction**

In Latin America, as is the case worldwide, the magnitude and frequency of extreme weather events have been exacerbated. According to the WMO (2022), in 2020 there was a record number of 30 storms in the Atlantic basin, and the hurricanes in Central America affected over 8 million people, with intense rains causing floods and landslides. In other areas of Central America and the northern region of South America, insufficient rainfall (40 per cent below normal levels) has led to a drought of enormous proportions, leading to the worst water crisis in 50 years. Increases in ocean temperatures are causing a rise in the frequency and intensity of hurricanes, and rising sea levels will lead to the disappearance of large coastal areas. Between 1998 and 2020, the effects of climate change claimed the lives of over 312,000 people and affected more than 277 million people in Latin America and the Caribbean (WMO, 2022).

In order to address the climate crisis, the international community is committed to promoting adaptation policies to reduce the vulnerability of ecosystems and human beings to these phenomena, and mitigation policies to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. The results have been insufficient, however, and at the current growth rate of emissions, the global temperature will increase 2.7 degrees Celsius by the end of this century (UNEP, 2021a; 2021b). At the same time, the lack of funding for climate adaptation has widened the gap between needs and responses, which is accentuated when the gender dimension is incorporated (Schalatek, 2021).

The effects of climate change affect those with fewer resources to a greater extent and accentuate inequalities. The power imbalances between men and women, which are expressed in access to employment, social security and decision-making spheres, put women at a disadvantage in the face of climate change, and also impose on them a work overload of family care, especially for those women living in situations that exacerbate their exclusion and marginality due to poverty, their ethnic-racial origin and the territories they inhabit. Women are also at risk of being left out of jobs that will be created in key industries for decarbonisation, whose workforce is highly masculinised (European Commission, 2022). If measures to address climate change do not take into account the factors that are at the root of inequality, and do not incorporate women in the processes of developing and implementing these measures, they will not only be less effective, but could even, unwittingly, contribute to increasing gender gaps. (UNEP, 2021a, 2021b).

The crisis generated by climate change paradoxically opens up a major opportunity to carry forward a transformative agenda that places the sustainability of life centre stage and promotes changes in our production and consumer patterns and in the ways we inhabit the planet. This requires an integrated approach, which embraces the interdependence that exists between natural resources (environmental dimension), the gender approach (social dimension) and productive activities (economic dimension), in order to promote decent work (ECLAC, 2021a, 2020b). It also involves transforming the foundations of a patriarchal culture that sets expectations on the behaviour and spheres of action of men and women and naturalises the subordinate position of women (Lamas, 2013).

Only a strategy based on the Just Transition principles will allow for progress towards a greener and more inclusive economy that responds to the four pillars of decent work and contributes to eradicating poverty and gender inequality (ILO, 2015b).

In this paper we propose to analyse, within the Just Transition parameters, the way in which Latin America is facing climate change, as well as its impacts on labour markets and on the patterns of inequality that characterise the region. It identifies the differentiated impacts on men and women and reflects on the criteria for progressing towards more sustainable societies, which generate economic growth, decent work and promote gender equality.
1

Fair Transition, Green Jobs and a Gender Approach

A Just Transition agenda recognises the vulnerability and interdependence of peoples and the planet and attaches importance to caring for both within a process of integral, territorially situated and plural transformation, involving greater levels of equality.
1. Fair Transition, Green Jobs and a Gender Approach

I.1. A Just Transition with Gender, Economic Growth and Decent Work Dimensions

The Just Transition is a systemic, multidimensional and multi-stakeholder approach that optimises the social and economic opportunities of climate action whilst minimising risks and managing challenges. After years of intensive work and discussion with the ILO and other stakeholders, the concept of Just Transition was incorporated into the Preamble of the Paris Agreement, signed at the 21st Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC (COP 21) in 2015.2

The ILO considers that “A just transition for all towards an environmentally sustainable economy (...) must be managed properly and contribute to the achievement of the goals of decent work for all, social inclusion and poverty eradication” (ILO, 2015b). It uses social dialogue as a fundamental tool and promotes creating green jobs with rights, social protection, gender equality and the reduction of inequality in all areas. On the global agenda, it is seen as a third pillar for climate action, together with the mitigation of emissions and adaptation to the impacts of warming (ILO, 2015b; Cavero and Guereña, 2021).

Some conventional views limit the concept of climate transition to a process of technological change and substitution for mitigating greenhouse gas emissions through the incorporation of renewable sources and the pursuit of energy efficiency. This leads to the prioritisation of the biophysical aspects of the environment. However, a Just Transition agenda recognises the vulnerability and interdependence of peoples and the planet and attaches importance to caring for both within a process of integral, territorially situated and plural transformation, involving greater levels of equality.

A Just Transition creates green jobs, that is, decent jobs that contribute to improving energy efficiency, limiting gas emissions and pollution, adapting to climate change and developing more environmentally-friendly production processes, guaranteeing fundamental labour rights, including those related to equality and non-discrimination.

The concept of green employment is sometimes limited to those who produce environmental goods or services. However, there are other sectors that are essential to the climate and environmental agenda, such as, for example, those in the care sector – health, education, personal care. Unpaid care work is what makes it possible for people to carry out a job within the labour market and it is here that resilience strategies are focused. Although care services are essential and have a huge potential for job creation,3 little thought has been given to this sector’s contributions to adaptation and mitigation strategies. Nor has the impact of climate change on the working conditions of those employed in this sector been taken into account.

It is also necessary to broaden the horizon towards the improvement of processes in other environmentally-friendly sectors. Just as the sectoral approach allows for the study of jobs in the sectors of activity that produce key goods and services for decarbonisation, the occupational approach allows for a broadening of perspectives according to the type of work carried out and the nature of the activities undertaken. This complementary approach (occupation and sector) is relevant for analysing the competencies and skills required to perform green jobs (Parrilla, 2022).

It is therefore necessary to delve deeper into what constitutes green employment. A broad approach recognises different types of jobs that are critical to a sustainable economy. Care work is low carbon by nature and is a key component of the Just Transition.

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2 The commitment of Latin American and Caribbean organisations was instrumental in securing the key support of their governments in the framework of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).

3 It is estimated that public investment in care services could create between 40% and 60% more jobs than the same investment in the construction industry (UN Women, 2021).


I.2. Effects of Climate Change on the World of Work: Increased Decent Work Deficits for Women

a. Women are More Likely to Lose their Jobs as a Result of Natural Disaster

Natural disasters, pollution and high temperatures limit the development of economic activities, in particular that of women and other groups experiencing multiple forms of exclusion and discrimination, as they have fewer resources to ensure their well-being and are more likely to lose their jobs (Blecker et al., 2021; Balvedi, 2022; ILO, 2018a).

Crisis situations tend to lead to increased gender inequalities. The COVID-19 crisis marked a major setback for women in the region of Latin America, which experienced the largest reduction in female employment in the world, backtracking 18 years in their labour force participation (from 51.8% in 2019 to 47.7% in 2020) and employment recovery has been slower for them, with gender gaps widening (ILO 2021a, ILO 2021b). There was also an increase in the time women spent on family care, owing to the closure of schools and the transfer to households of many care and family care services, resulting in an increase in the time poverty gender gap. (UN Women and ECLAC, 2020). Despite their increased presence in the workforce, women undertake three quarters of the time spent caring for the family, since there is still a culture of placing this responsibility on them (ILO, 2022b).

The climate crisis is driving the displacement of women (in greater proportion than men) and the abandonment of their homes to escape catastrophes, in the face of the loss of job opportunities and the livelihoods that these entail. The lack of rainfall in Central America’s Dry Corridor – where 90% of the region’s population live – has forced a drop in agricultural production and a move to sow only once a year, generating food insecurity and pushing migration flows to the United States even more. This is a coastal area adjacent to the Pacific Ocean that stretches 1,600 kilometres, from Chiapas (Mexico), through Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and part of Costa Rica all the way to Panama (Felipe, 2019; IOM, 2015).

b. How to Protect Women Entrepreneurships and Women Workers from Natural Disasters

The concentration of women in a limited number of feminised occupations with higher informality rates and lower social security coverage leaves them more vulnerable to climate-related contingencies. Women entrepreneurs are also unable to face prolonged crises resulting from climate events, because they are in the sector of smaller companies, with lower capital and limited access to sources of funding. Hence the importance that plans to minimise climate risks incorporate a gender dimension and special measures to prevent costs from being disproportionately borne by women.

This implies considering measures to support the survival of businesses – in particular MSMEs throughout the value chain – and protect the employment and income of workers in the face of crisis situations caused by natural disasters. Active labour market policies are required that include, among other measures, subsidies for the recruitment of women, quotas for women in reconstruction jobs, tax benefits and subsidies for female entrepreneurship, soft credit lines and paid training in trades in high demand. In turn, the re-opening of schools and the care support system – one of the activities that is frequently suspended in the face of crises arising from disasters – is crucial for preventing women from withdrawing from the workforce.

Many of the measures taken in response to the crisis generated by COVID-19 are also valid in the case of the effects of natural disasters. These include fiscal packages to temporarily support people who have lost their sources of income and support provided for companies through temporary subsidies for the cost of wages and in general, putting in place formulas to avoid

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4 Saget et al. (2020) estimate that, in Latin America, the decrease in productivity due to the effects of heatwaves will be equivalent to 2.5 million full-time jobs.

5 According to ECLAC (2022a), the participation of women in the labour force was 50% in 2021, a figure similar to that of 2016, whilst that of men had already reached pre-pandemic levels and, in some sectors (for example, construction), had exceeded them.

6 According to ECLAC and UNFPA (2020), women of African descent are even more overburdened.
layoffs. This framework also includes temporary unemployment benefits and transfers (ILO, 2022).

c. Poverty and Lack of Social Protection Increase Women’s Vulnerability to Climate Change

It is estimated that the rate of poverty of the population of Latin America was 32.1% in 2021, and the rate of extreme poverty was 13.8%. This corresponds to 201 million people living in poverty and 86 million living in extreme poverty (ECLAC, 2022a). The highest rates of poverty are registered among children and adolescents, reaching 47.2%. The poverty rate among women is higher than that of men in all of the countries throughout the region. The female poverty rate averages 113.3, although in 9 of the 17 countries in the study this figure is higher. Both poverty and the number of women among the poor increased as a result of the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.

There are close links between poverty, the lack of social protection and environmental degradation. Households living in poverty are more exposed to the effects of climate change due both to their geographical location and the lack of means to protect themselves from them. The vast majority of women in poor households lack formal employment and social protection. Therefore, risk management in the face of climate events must, in addition to generating response capacities, include a social protection component. The latter acts as a complement to the adaptation of production processes and public and private infrastructure, ensuring minimum levels of welfare and social rights (ECLAC, 2021c, Bleeker et al., 2021).

I.3. Climate Change Increases Risks to Women Workers’ Health and Gender-Based Violence

a. Women Face Increased Health Risks from Adverse Weather Events

It is estimated that 300,000 people died as a result of climate events in Latin America and the Caribbean between 1998 and 2020 (Romanello et al., 2022). More than 30% of the new diseases to have emerged in the last 60 years are estimated to have resulted from land-use change, mainly deforestation (FAO, 2022).

The likelihood of people falling ill as a result of climate change is higher for women, children, adults, the elderly and those living in poverty. The greatest risks faced by women are the combined effect of physiological factors and behavioural patterns associated with gender inequalities. For example, natural disasters cause more deaths among women than men (WHO, 2016). In addition, increased illnesses of family members represent a higher demand for care, which falls to women.

Climate change is exerting acute pressure on public health systems, exacerbating the funding and management problems that have plagued the region for decades and increasing the risk of widening health inequality gaps. However, even though 83% of NDCs in Latin America recognise health as a priority area, less than 0.5% of multilateral funds for climate finance have been allocated to health initiatives. Uruguay is the exception, spending US$5.61 per capita on climate change adaption health initiatives (Yglesias-Gonzalez et al., 2022).

b. Risks of Climate Change to Occupational Health and Safety

The 110th Session of the International Labour Conference (2022) adopted a resolution incorporating the Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No.155) and the Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No.187) as part of the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (ILO, 2022c). This decision is relevant since certain sectors and occupations are particularly exposed to climate events.

Heat stress, one of the most evident effects of global warming, has been recognised as a serious risk to health and safety at work. Excessive heat during the working day, as well as hurricanes and floods, are frequent phenomena in Central America and the Caribbean and not only put the health of the population at risk, but also restrict the working capacity and productivity of workers (ILO, 2019f). Some occupations that require physical activity or are undertaken outdoors have a high presence of women, such as in certain areas of agriculture, tourism, street vending or outdoor fairs (ILO, 2019c).

The effects of climate change on public health will lead to additional demands placed on those working in the health sector. This sector is known for its marked gender stratification and considerable wage gaps. In Latin America,
72.6% of those employed in the health sector are women and the gender pay gap is 39.2%, which is much higher than in other economic sectors. Whilst 25.5% of the men are employed in the field of medicine (vs. 10.3% of women), there are much higher concentrations of women in other professional occupations or health techniques. Despite the fact that they are well represented in this sector, the number of women in management positions is low (2% women vs. 3.6% men), which detracts from their influence on decision-making processes, including in areas such as climate adaptation (ECLAC, 2022c, WHO and ILO, 2022, PAHO, 2020).

In view of the new demands faced by health workers, the WHO and the ILO (2022) highlight the need to create opportunities for social dialogue in order to protect the health and labour rights of those who undertake this work and to overcome gender inequalities. The issue has been condemned by trade union organisations in this sector, pointing out that, unlike other occupations, health workers are not able to adapt their schedules during extreme weather events and they will therefore be overburdened with excessive workloads during these situations. It is therefore imperative that health sector adaptation plans also include measures to safeguard the quality of jobs, the health and the labour rights of health workers.

c. Increased Gender-Based Violence in the Face of Crises Caused by Climate Events

Gender-based violence against women and girls and sexual abuse is a negative consequence of adverse weather events. Prolonged droughts, floods and hurricanes contribute to increased tensions due to food shortages, lack of employment and insecurity. Studies show that when men find it impossible to fulfil traditional gender stereotypes and their role as provider due to climate events they become frustrated and consume more alcohol and drugs, which leads to an increase in violence against women (Castañeda et al., 2020). Higher temperatures are also associated with the risk of violent behaviour and increased gender-based violence. A case study showed that the risk of a woman being killed by her partner or ex-partner increases by 28.8% three days after a heatwave occurs (Sanz-Barbero et al., 2018).

Gender-based violence is a global problem that occurs within the private and public sphere, as well as in the workplace. The ILO Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190), establishes everyone’s right to be free from violence and harassment in the world of work. It provides a clear framework for taking action and forging a future of work based on dignity and respect.

Another risk that triggers violence is the lack of productive land, a phenomenon aggravated by climate change. Violence is one of the most commonly used tools to exert control over women (Van Daalen et al., 2022). The risks of harassment, attacks and sexual violence also increase for women and girls living in rural areas who, due to the effects of climate change and increased pollution, need to move to more remote areas in order to obtain clean water and firewood for cooking. At the same time, migration caused by natural disasters increases the exposure of women and girls to various forms of gender-based violence and to human trafficking (IOM, 2015).

Finally, it is important to note that violence against environmental leaders (of both sexes) has increased, especially in situations where there is limited government control over territories and resources where there are vested interests. This situation takes on a gendered angle when sexual violence and other means are used to attack and discredit women environmental leaders, believing that they are challenging existing gender norms.

7 Latin America is the most dangerous region for those who defend the land, forests and natural resources. In the past decade, 68% of crimes committed against environmentalists occurred in Latin America. Brazil and Colombia recorded the highest number during this period, but Mexico ranked first in 2021. In Brazil, 85% of the crimes occurred in the Amazon and one third of the victims were members of indigenous or Afro-descendant communities (Global Witness, 2022).
The Challenges Facing Latin America Today for Moving Towards a Just Transition with a Gender and Intersectionality Approach

Latin America and the Caribbean vulnerability to climate change due to various factors related to its geography, population distribution and infrastructure is exacerbated due to social conditions, structural characteristics of inequality and the fragility of its labour markets.
2. The Challenges Facing Latin America Today for Moving Towards a Just Transition with a Gender and Intersectionality Approach

The Latin American and Caribbean region is home to around 60% of the world's biodiversity, 50% of primary forests and 28% of land with farming potential, making it a key region for preserving global climate stability (World Bank, 2022a). However, its vulnerability to climate change due to various factors related to its geography, population distribution and infrastructure is exacerbated due to social conditions, structural characteristics of inequality and the fragility of its labour markets.

II.1. The Latin American Paradox: Relatively low percentage of emissions, but suffering severe effects of climate change

Despite the fact that the region contributes around 8% of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, and produces a relatively low level of emissions per capita, it is one of the areas most affected by climate change and extreme weather events. The greatest economic impacts are produced by a combination of higher average temperatures and changes in the hydrological cycle, with less predictable rainfall patterns. The average rate of increase in temperatures was approximately 0.2 °C per decade between 1991 and 2021, compared to 0.1 °C per decade between 1961 and 1990 and sea levels are rising at a faster rate than in other regions of the world (WMO, 2022).

Latin America and the Caribbean is the second region most prone to natural disasters. Between 2000 and 2019 there were 1,205 disasters, affecting over 150 million people (WMO, 2022). Countries in the region have lost an average of 1.7% of their annual GDP as a result of natural disasters related to climate change (World Bank, 2022a), impacting people's lives and their sources of income, with a clear gender bias.

II.2. The Productive Matrix of Latin America

The region is privileged in terms of its wealth of water and natural resources, with enormous potential for renewable energy and carbon sinks. But at the same time it is heavily dependent on mining and extractive activities, monocultures, cattle farming and large-scale forestry production, complicating the search for environmental solutions that are economically viable and socially beneficial.

a. In Search of an Environmentally Sustainable Model that Generates Growth and Social Justice

In Latin America economic growth and employment depend heavily on natural resources. The region has large mineral and hydrocarbon reserves, in addition to marine, water and agroforestry resources. In order to achieve long-term and environmentally sustainable development, the countries of the region have incorporated environmental management criteria, in order to assess and predict the environmental impacts of the use of natural resources, and thus preserve the environment and the replenishment of these resources. However, legislative frameworks are not always clear and in some countries there are no appropriate resources to monitor regulatory compliance (IDB, 2020). There are also economic activities in the region that have an “extractionist” rationale, which escape the obligation of environmental management and undertake excessive exploitation of natural resources. This leads to environmental degradation and GHGs. In addition, it contributes to concentrating wealth and maintaining high rates of informality in employment.

Latin America’s growing specialisation in exporting basic commodities and the subsequent intensification of the trend towards the reprimarisation of the economies of the region, which occurred within the framework of the programmes of liberalisation and attracting foreign investment, has generated resources and employment in the short term, but has come at a high cost to the environment, some of which is irretrievable (Azamar Alonso et al., 2017). This strategy has left countries highly vulnerable to economic cycles of demand for primary goods – and international price volatility – which affects
tax revenues and diminishes the scope for social policies. Extraction projects in sectors such as mining transform local dynamics and open up employment opportunities for women during the project construction process, although many of these jobs are lost when they begin operations. In this second phase, diseases linked to pollution from toxic metals increase, as well as travel time to look for clean water, increasing the women’s work overload.

Monocultures involving forestry and food and agriculture for export also create enclave economies and are one of the factors driving rural populations to cities, especially when crops requiring very little labour are introduced and put small-scale family farming at risk.

At the corporate level, concern has arisen in recent years for establishing criteria for socially responsible investment and for guiding their decisions in environmental, social and corporate governance matters. In 2016, only 10% of CEOs of asset and wealth management companies in the world expressed serious concern about this issue, a figure that increased to 25% in 2020, although over 60% of the directors surveyed expressed some level of concern about the climate, pay gaps and social instability (PWC, 2022).

b. Agriculture and Changes in Land Use are the Main Sources of Emissions in the Region

Latin America is unique in the sense that fossil fuels are not the main source of emissions. Fossil energy use accounts for less than half (44%) of total GHG emissions, a figure that is much lower than that of the European Union (87%) and the global average (76%). The most significant sources of emissions in the region are in agriculture, including crops and livestock (26%) and changes in land use, associated with deforestation processes (20%). Their combined effect is slightly higher than that of energy (46%). Waste and industrial processes produce approximately the remaining 10%. (Samaniego et al., 2022).

The region is home to 23% of the world’s forests, but between 1990 and 2020 its forest cover decreased from 53% to 46% of the regional territory (138 million hectares were lost). It is estimated that more than 70% of deforestation is caused by the transformation of forest land for other uses, such as pasture for livestock, or crops for export. Brazil is home to 53.3% of the forests of the entire region (497 million hectares), and over the last 30 years it has lost 92.3 million hectares of forest. A total of 88% of this loss is due to land-use change for commercial agriculture and livestock, mainly for export. Furthermore, deforestation has led to an increase in forest fires, which have also been fuelled by a rise in periods of intense drought (ECLAC, 2021b; Dummet et al., 2021).

Monoculture-based agriculture for export – the vast majority of which introduces non-native species – also affects soil quality and biodiversity, compromising land productivity and food security.

II.3. Structural Inequality in the Region Accents the Costs of Climate Change, Especially for Women

Latin America and the Caribbean is the region with the highest inequality in income distribution in the world. In 2018, 80% of income was concentrated in the hands of 7% of the population (World Bank 2020). Informal employment, a structural characteristic of the region’s labour markets, is yet another expression of inequality. Over half of employed people, excluding the agricultural sector, work in the informal sector and this figure is close to 80% in several lower-middle-income countries such as Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua. In 2021, 53.7% of employed women in Latin America worked in low productivity and very high informality sectors (Maurizio, 2021; ILO, 2019c).

a. The Risk of Excluding Women from New Occupations in the Move Towards Decarbonisation

The transition to a zero-emission future has significant job creation potential. A study by the IDB and the ILO estimated that in Latin America the conditions exist – through appropriate policies – to create 22.5 million jobs by 2030, helping to decarbonise the agriculture, forestry, renewable energy, construction and manufacturing sectors. This represents a potential net increase of 15 million jobs, 4 per cent of the region’s total employment, which would occur largely in sectors and occupations with a male majority. There would be an increase of 18.5 million jobs in masculinised occupations, but a loss of 6 million jobs in high-polluting industries. Feminised occupations, on
the other hand, would see an increase of 4 million jobs and a loss of 1.5 million (Saget et al., 2020).

If current patterns of occupational segregation persisted, women would have less access to the new jobs created by decarbonisation programmes. In Latin America, 72% of employed women are concentrated in services (42.1%) and commerce (29.9%) and are almost absent in sectors such as electricity, gas, water, construction and transport. Men, on the other hand, are more evenly distributed across different sectors of the economy (ILO, 2022a).

In the agricultural sector, employment in vegetable production is expected to increase by 54% and in forestry by 6%, whilst 29% of jobs (4.3 million jobs) in high-emission activities such as cattle farming, animal husbandry and the dairy industry would be lost. Employment in the renewable energy sector would grow by 22% (100,000 new jobs) and investments to increase energy efficiency would lead to 2% employment growth in the construction sector (540,000 jobs). Significant job losses would occur in the fossil fuel-based electricity sector (-57%) and in fossil fuel extraction (-32%). However, the combined action of both sectors would represent the loss of less than 400,000 jobs (Saget et al., 2019).

In the phase of transition to greener economies, increased demand for the provision of environmental services to businesses, communities and public institutions is expected to have a positive impact on women’s employment as these will require skills they already possess. These services include work in the legal field, communications and community links, in addition to training programmes, both on technical-sectoral and management issues, as well as on how to incorporate the gender dimension into climate projects and their implementation.

II.4. Economic Transformation for Decarbonisation Requires New Job Skills

The transformations for moving towards low-carbon economies require a workforce with skills and qualifications for adapting to the requirements of new jobs. However, there are major shortcomings in the region. Only 15% of the workforce has received some kind of training, much lower than the average 56% observed in OECD countries (Saget et al., 2019). Furthermore, the training is usually aimed at people with a higher level of initial education and those in formal full-time employment. This perpetuates and amplifies inequalities in initial skills and can lead to a vicious cycle of low investment in training, inadequate skills, low productivity and informality.

The ILO (2019a) points out that promoting green jobs requires strengthening the training aspect of climate transition policies and that specific measures are needed to reduce gender gaps in training, especially for the low-skilled.

In Latin America, more than half of the jobs that could be created by 2030 in key sectors for decarbonisation are at an intermediate level of qualification (13.5 million). A third of these new jobs will require low-skilled labour (8 million) and just one million jobs will fall into the high-skilled category (Saget et al., 2019). The fact that most of these jobs are concentrated in middle-skilled occupations is relevant from a gender perspective, as they are currently mostly held by men.

In addition, finer diagnoses are required to identify vocational training needs along the entire production chain and adapt training programmes and curricula to these new needs.

Gender segregation in the labour market begins at the education stage. In order for women to benefit from the new job opportunities it is necessary to overcome their low presence and improve their skills in careers in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM). According to UNESCO (2019), gender stereotypes still permeate different levels of education. School texts, classroom practices and the different signs received by girls about their skills and possibilities in life limit their career options and distance them from training options in STEM fields. Expanding opportunities for women and girls requires challenging existing social norms.

The patriarchal culture legitimises social imagery in which women are perceived as having less skills in STEM fields. The low presence of women in traditionally male-dominated occupations and ones that are strategic for decarbonisation has as a counterpart a gender segregation in technical and vocational training. In Mexico, of the total entries, graduations and qualifications at the higher technical level and bachelor’s degree in training fields related to electricity and energy generation, only 12% correspond to women (ECLAC, 2020c). In Chile, women represented 15.5% of the total number of graduates in generic careers in the field of engineering in 2020, but the proportion that specialises in the electricity sector
or in purely technological fields is considerably lower (SENCE, 2022).

Women’s access to and use of digital technologies is also a requirement for them to protect themselves from the risks of climate change and to access the benefits of decarbonisation policies. In Latin America, between 2017 and 2018, the percentage of internet access was 63% for men and 57% for women (Saget et al., 2020). The largest proportion of those excluded are rural households, the elderly and those with lower incomes and education. Women have less access to the internet (connection gap), and if they do connect they give very limited use to digital devices (usage gap).

Digital illiteracy, unfamiliarity with digital technology, and limited time for exploring it, leave women with a lower level of knowledge and awareness of the potential these technologies have to offer. The digital gender gap has been increasing insofar as technologies have become more expensive and sophisticated (Vaca-Trigo and Valenzuela, 2022).

Addressing the connectivity gap and digital literacy is indispensable in order for women to participate in managing climate emergencies and benefit from early warning systems. Digital technologies can become a powerful tool for supporting adaptation activities carried out by women, through timely meteorological information and access to public support networks. They are also a useful tool for improving the productivity of small businesses run by women, expanding their access to networks, digital financial instruments and links with other markets.
Indigenous and Afro-descendant Peoples in the Face of Climate Change: an Intersectional Approach

At a time when the scientific community is warning of the decline of biodiversity, indigenous peoples are its most faithful custodians. Ancestral knowledge and practices are successful examples of adaptation and are a knowledge base that must be recognised.
3. Indigenous and Afro-descendant Peoples in the Face of Climate Change: An Intersectional Approach

Latin America is characterised by its vast socio-demographic diversity, in which inequalities and discrimination based on ethnic and racial status lead to situations of exclusion that are reproduced inter-generationally. The ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (169) regards as indigenous peoples those who are descended from populations that inhabited a geographical region at the time of the conquest and retain their institutions or part of them. The concept of “indigenous” is closely linked with the colonisation that occurred in Latin America beginning in the fifteenth century, which organised a cultural, economic and political system that treated the original inhabitants as inferior (Del Aguila, 2015).

Women share multiple forms of gender discrimination but they do not constitute a homogeneous group. Most environmental damage has repercussions on women who are poor, indigenous, of African descent, or those who live in rural areas or have a lower level of education (Olivera et al., 2021). Hence the need to incorporate an intersectional approach when analysing the effects of climate change, recognising that inequalities are systemic and are shaped from the intersecting of different social factors such as gender, ethnicity and social class. Intersectionality refers to the multiple identities and experiences of exclusion, subordination and oppression experienced by indigenous and Afro-descendant women and seeks to shed light on the overlapping elements that exist within power relations (Viveros, 2016).

III.1. Indigenous Women in the Face of Climate Change

In Latin America around 58 million people identify as members of the more than 800 indigenous communities that exist in the region (ILO, 2019b). They represent, on average, 9.5% of the population. In some countries their numbers are much higher. They represent 43.6% of the inhabitants of Guatemala, 41.5% in Bolivia, 26% in Peru and 19.4% in Mexico. There is a great diversity of indigenous peoples in the region, which is expressed in their languages, culture and identity. Just over half of the indigenous population (52.2%) live in urban areas, where they have migrated to in search of job opportunities and face serious risks of labour exploitation. In the cities, indigenous women are consigned mainly to activities related to services, especially paid domestic work. The main source of employment for indigenous people in the region is, however, agriculture (ILO, 2019b).

Land, territories and natural resources hold special significance for indigenous women in Abya Yala, the term many peoples use in the Americas to refer to themselves. The land is considered sacred and is the foundation of the organisation of the community. For centuries it has been used to ensure wellbeing, harmony and balance between nature and the members of the community.

The indigenous and tribal peoples who inhabit Latin America find themselves in a paradoxical situation: despite being rich in natural resources and culture, they are poor in monetary income and access to public services (ILO, 2020a). Approximately 35% of the forests in Latin America are in areas occupied by indigenous groups and over 80% of the area inhabited by indigenous peoples (330 million hectares, of which 173 million correspond to “intact forests”) is covered by forests (ECLAC, 2021b). They contribute very little to greenhouse gas emissions, but are among the groups most vulnerable to climate change. They have high levels of poverty⁹ and are heavily dependent on the quality and quantity of natural resources to develop their economic activities and livelihoods. Furthermore, they experience high levels of political marginalisation, which limit their participation in the most important decision-making processes for the stability of their ecosystems and social wellbeing.

Even though they have legal titles to 40% of forest areas (and claim rights to lands for which they have no title) they face a growing threat from overlapping rights and conflicts with mining, oil, agricultural and forestry companies, as well as

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⁸ Abya Yala in the language of the Cuna people means “mature land”, “living land” or “flourishing land” and is used as a synonym for the American continent.

⁹ According to ECLAC (2022a), the poverty rate of indigenous people rose 46.7% in 2019 (double that of the non-indigenous population), and that of extreme poverty rose 17.3% (2.5 times higher).
from the acts of illicit and speculative groups that have increased deforestation.

Threats of intimidation and violence generally precede the occupation of these lands (FAO and FILAC, 2021).

Indigenous women also face higher levels of physical or sexual violence - compared to non-indigenous women - from a spouse or partner (ECLAC, 2013) and climate change accentuates their vulnerability (ILO, 2018a). They have lower levels of schooling and higher illiteracy rates, not only compared to non-indigenous women but also compared to indigenous men. Many are monolingual, making it difficult for them to communicate with the non-indigenous environment. They have little independence and limited access to decision-making both within community life and beyond it. They are poorer, their occupations are mostly informal and they are often not even recognised as workers. Most have to limit themselves to tending to a small vegetable patch where they grow vegetables for supplying their household with basic products, in addition to helping with other farming chores. Domestic activities take up a lot of their time and energy due to the lack of basic equipment. Some women still rely on farming, forestry, hunting or livestock activities as their main sources of employment. In some communities they also work in manufacturing (mainly handicrafts) and trade (ILO, 2019b; ECLAC, 2013).

b. Indigenous Women’s Participation in Individual and Collective Decision-Making

Although many indigenous women have played a leading role in defending their rights at the international level and have promoted processes of transformation at the national level, most still face considerable obstacles - at both the individual and collective levels - to their own organisation and to accessing structures of authority. Participation and decision-making systems are governed by a patriarchal culture that tends to naturalise this situation. These women face practical barriers, such as a lack of time or resources to be able to afford transportation to attend meetings, or not having a place at which to meet. Added to this are psychological and cultural factors and the lack of information, which makes them feel insecure when speaking in public - especially in the presence of men - since they are perceived as transgressors of implicit social norms.

Community affairs are considered a male-dominated area and immense pressure is exerted on women who attempt to participate in them. They are generally subject to criticism from community members (men and women), which can lead to situations of verbal aggression and threats (ILO, 2021d).

In some communities indigenous women have neither the right to voice their opinions nor to vote, and in other cases they participate, but only through minor positions.
If they are not part of the community’s core leadership, it is more difficult for indigenous women to influence decision-making, even on issues that directly concern them, such as demarcation, land titling, land management, land use and resolution of land conflicts or water concessions.

Women’s exclusion from climate-related decisions is exacerbated as a result of a lack of awareness of, for example, the implications of increased deforestation and climate change. This, to a greater extent, affects adult women deeply rooted in their culture, who have to devote a lot of time to caring for their numerous offspring whom they feed with the products they grow on their plots of land; they speak their native language, but have a limited knowledge of Spanish and their level of education is very low. Although they play a key role in the conservation of agricultural biodiversity and defending the forests, they do not have sufficient mechanisms to defend their rights (Castillo, 2019).

III.2. Environmental Racism

There are gender inequalities that are closely linked to others, such as racial and class inequalities. The concept of “environmental racism” recognises that social, racial and gender inequalities are decisive in determining the degree of exposure of social groups to environmental risks (Olivera et al., 2021).

The Afro-descendant population of Latin America and the Caribbean is 134 million. It represents 21% of the region’s total population, of which 108 million live in Brazil, where they constitute 50.9% of the population. In Haiti, 95.5 per cent of the population (over 10 million people) are of African descent. The rest have a greater presence in Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama and the Dominican Republic (UN Women, 2022).

In 2018 their levels of poverty (30.1%) and extreme poverty (10.7%) were significantly higher than those of the non-Afro-descendant population (although lower than those of the indigenous population). The feminisation index in poor households is higher among the Afro-descendant population than among the non-Afro-descendant population, with differences ranging from approximately 4% in Panama and Colombia to 25% in Ecuador (ECLAC and UNFPA 2020).

Afro-descendant women experience double inequality, due to their gender and their ethnic-racial status. They have fewer job opportunities, higher unemployment rates, much lower incomes, a greater lack of protection and security, and less access to social security leading to situations of increased marginalisation and poverty, and higher rates of gender-based violence than non-Afro-descendant women (Olivera et al., 2021, ECLAC and UNFPA, 2020).

Women of African descent find themselves in the most precarious segments of the labour market. Their presence in paid domestic work (17.3 per cent) is double that of non-Afro-descendant women (8.5 per cent) and they are over-represented among unpaid family workers. Although their levels of schooling are higher than those of their male peers, they receive lower incomes and the gaps increase as the level of education rises (ECLAC and UNFPA 2020).

Although the urbanisation rate of the Afro-descendant population of Latin America is above the population’s average rate, there are important rural settlements in several countries where communities exercise their collective property rights, undertake their traditional production practices, exercise their concept of territoriality, and implement options for their own development.

III.3. A Just Transition

Incorporating the Rights of Indigenous and Afro-Descendant Women

In 1989 the ILO adopted the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169), the only international treaty with specific provisions for promoting the right of indigenous and tribal peoples to inclusive and sustainable development. It also establishes a framework for adaptation and mitigation policies to be developed with the participation of indigenous and tribal peoples, promoting a transformation in gender relations and promoting decent work (ILO, 2015a).

Indigenous women and women of African descent contribute, through their culture and ancestral traditions, their knowledge related to the management, use, regeneration and monitoring of forests, jungles, water sources, seeds, animal species, and arable land. They play a crucial role in the conservation of territories and forests. At a time when the scientific community is warning of the decline of biodiversity, indigenous peoples are its most faithful custodians. Ancestral knowledge and practices are successful examples of adaptation and are a knowledge base that must be recognised. The processes of dialogue...
with the scientific community are a contribution to adaptation strategies.

Given the importance of the contribution women have made to tackling climate change, it is necessary to ensure that programmes for technical assistance, training, access to production and financial resources do in fact reach them and provide them with the tools to strengthen their productivity and entrepreneurial capacities, whilst ensuring that the conditions for preserving their cultural identity are maintained. In order to be successful, these programmes must be articulated in conjunction with markets and marketing strategies and should provide improved connectivity in order to prevent intermediation channels from making products more expensive and rendering their businesses inoperable.

Indigenous and tribal peoples are not only victims of climate change. They are also agents of change and key players in the search for solutions. These should be based on recognition and security of land tenure, food sovereignty and collective management of territories and forests. Being able to secure ownership over their territories, including the right to use forests and a lifestyle of greater integration with nature, are issues demanded by those who face illegal loggers or are expelled by mining concession programmes.

Securing land tenure is not only a less expensive option for reducing CO2, but also an effective alternative for strengthening cooperation between communities, boosting decent job creation and promoting women’s leadership. A prerequisite is the removal of legal barriers and traditional practices that prevent women from accessing land ownership. Various groups of indigenous women have raised the need to debate and change these limitations in order to exercise their full leadership in the individual and communal struggle for land (FILAC, 2021).

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10 A study carried out by FAO and FILAC (2021) in Colombia, Brazil and Bolivia concluded that the economic costs associated with ensuring the security of tenure of indigenous territories are between 5 and 42 times lower than the average costs of capturing and storing carbon from coal and gas power plants.
Regional Agenda for Climate Change: the Gender Context

Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) are at the core of the Paris Agreement and represent each country’s efforts to reduce national emissions and adapt to the effects of climate change. In 2015, 15 of the 33 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean that submitted their NDCs made references to gender or women.
### IV.1. Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) and Gender Mainstreaming in Policies for Addressing Climate Change

Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) are at the core of the Paris Agreement and represent each country’s efforts to reduce national emissions and adapt to the effects of climate change. In 2015, 15 of the 33 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean that submitted their NDCs made references to gender or women, although this did not guarantee mainstreaming in the national strategy or in all the sections. By 2021, all the countries in the region had incorporated the issue of gender, in addition to establishing sectoral goals (Aguilar, 2021a; Cavero and Guereño, 2021, Samaniego et al., 2022).

Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women have played an important role in this update. The Dominican Republic, Grenada, Panama, El Salvador, Uruguay, Honduras and Mexico have incorporated the response to climate change as a core focus of action of their Plan for Gender Equality.

Honduras incorporated the gender perspective into its updated NDC, as well as that of intersectionality, interculturality and rights, recognising the leadership and role of women, indigenous and Afro-Honduran peoples, and young people as agents of change (Aguilar 2021b).

Within the framework of these commitments, Uruguay set up the National Climate Change Response System (SNRCC in Spanish) in 2009 and it has a Gender Working Group, which has made it possible to influence the design and implementation of the NDC in priority sectors (electric transport, protected areas, sustainable tourism and livestock). In Ecuador, the Technical Table on Gender and Climate Change aims to promote knowledge regarding this topic, incorporating an intersectional approach. In Chile, the Gender and Climate Change Roundtable incorporates the gender approach into climate change instruments. In Mexico, the Inter-Institutional Group on Gender and Climate Change aims to contribute to mainstreaming gender in sectoral policies related to climate change (Aguilar, 2021b).

### IV.2. Gender and Climate Change Action Plans

The highest level of mainstreaming the gender approach has been carried out via the Gender and Climate Change Action Plans (GCCAP). In Latin America, eight countries have been developing their GCCAPs: Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Haiti, Panama, Peru, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay. The methodology has also been adapted and used at the subnational and local level, as is the case in Mexico, where there is a GCCAP for a protected natural area in the State of Sonora and another for the Yucatan Peninsula (Márquez et al., 2022).

Peru was the first country to promote a consultation and negotiation process for the development of a Gender Action Plan (GCCAP-Peru), which was adopted at COP23 (2017). This plan proposes collectively and consensually constructed multisectoral interventions to mainstream gender in management in order to tackle the adverse effects of climate change, benefit from the opportunities this process has to offer and contribute to reducing GHG emissions.

Peru already has a framework law on climate change in place, which incorporates a gender mainstreaming approach, as well as intercultural and intergenerational components.

Costa Rica developed its GCCAP within the framework of the National Strategy for Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (ENREDD+) and is one of the first in the world for this sector.11 The GAP-ENREDD+ contains six gender objectives (one for each ENREDD+ policy), and sets out specific actions for achieving results and monitoring indicators and the institutions responsible (World Bank, 2019).

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11 It is important to note that Costa Rica has been implementing a policy of restoration and reforestation for many years that has allowed it to recover land used for farming and increase forest cover.
Its participatory methodology of consultations with women’s groups from across the country identified higher poverty rates, less technical and financial support, and greater difficulties for participating in forestry projects due to their care responsibilities, gender stereotypes and limited access to information and decision-making. It was also found that the teams from environmental institutions had limited skills for implementing gender initiatives.

The diagnosis also identified the existence of huge potential for developing reforestation, ecotourism, cocoa farming, nurseries, home garden improvements, the collection of non-timber forest products (medicinal plants, seeds or species for construction) and for developing agroforestry systems, since women’s lands are located in priority areas for forest conservation and management, landscape and forest ecosystem restoration and for promoting low-carbon production systems. This opens up opportunities for creating new jobs for women, whilst at the same time reducing deforestation and forest degradation. However, although this GCCAP is an important step, it was also pointed out that the payment for environmental services linked to land tenure prevents women from benefiting from this scheme, since very few of them have property deeds in their name.

Colombia, for its part, set out a roadmap of its GCCAP, developed through the Colombian Climate Dialogues in 18 regions. This tool aims to integrate a gender-responsive approach into every GHG emission reduction and climate change adaptation action over the next 10 years. The GCCAP has four priority areas: (a) Capacity building, knowledge management and communication; (b) Women’s participation and leadership in climate action decision-making; (c) Coherence; and (d) Monitoring and reporting. A capacity-building programme on gender and climate change has been developed and implemented and the Gender and Climate Change Toolbox has been developed, which has guides for the mining, energy, transport, farming, trade, industry and tourism, housing, and city and territory sectors as well as the environment and sustainable development sector (E2050 Colombia, 2021; Pinilla, 2021).
Climate governance refers to how societies define their goals and priorities and implement and monitor actions to respond to the causes and consequences of climate change.

Climate Change Governance
5. Climate Change Governance

Climate governance refers to how societies define their goals and priorities and implement and monitor actions to respond to the causes and consequences of climate change. The State has a key, but not exclusive, role since there are multiple stakeholders involved in this process.

The ILO Guidelines for a Just Transition establish two fundamental pillars: a clear strategy for the future and extensive policy framework and, on the other hand, promoting comprehensive and effective social dialogue at all levels. The participation of women in policy-making for addressing climate change has been incorporated as a priority issue.

V.1. Contributions of Stakeholders from the World of Work for a Just Transition

Mainstreaming the gender dimension into the climate change agenda helps social stakeholders to better understand the challenges and opportunities they face, build consensus and manage potential conflicts. Social dialogue should be an integral part of the institutional framework for policy-making and implementation at all levels, requiring a well-founded, adequate and ongoing process of consultation involving all relevant stakeholders.

Dialogue between social stakeholders and public authorities is key to building a shared approach that allows all stakeholders to foresee the effects of decarbonisation strategies on jobs (ILO et al., 2022). The process of social dialogue is necessary to ensure a Just Transition both in the subsectors where jobs will be lost and in those that have potential for creating them (Saget et al., 2019).

Both the business and trade union sectors stress the importance of being informed and expressing their opinions on the best ways to address the effects of climate change. In Argentina, the Union for Industrial Argentina (UIA) highlights the need to build macroeconomic consensus for environmental sustainability, the future of work and the gender agenda. The General Confederation of Labour (CGT-RA) and the Argentine Workers’ Federation (CTA) have recognised the need to act urgently, promoting sustainable production development models that acknowledge the intrinsic link between social justice and climate justice. They also highlight the goal of gender equality in the processes of discussion and decision-making regarding climate issues (ILO et al., 2022).

The International Organisation of Employers (IOE, 2022) recognises the importance of incorporating the gender dimension into the climate agenda, developing special policies to support micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) and developing qualifications that will be required for the jobs that are created. In order to make progress in this area, the IOE has set up a Just Transition Working Group to facilitate the exchange of experiences, build partnerships and strengthen the capacities of companies. Companies’ concern is not limited to the production of ‘green’ goods and services and the use of clean and efficient technologies, but also encompasses the ‘greening’ of workplaces and a wide scope of action for adaptation and resilience within their communities. The focus of the Just Transition has been the cornerstone on which the international trade union movement has positioned itself for little over a decade within the framework of discussions on climate change and new models of production and consumption. The Trade Union Confederation of the Americas (CSA) addresses the issue of just transition within the framework of the Platform for Development of the Americas (PLADA), which incorporates the political dimension of sustainability, understanding it as fundamental for being able to address the power structures that led to the current environmental crisis, emphasising the role of participatory democracy in managing processes of transformation. Likewise, it develops a political position with public policy guidelines on the democratisation of energy and the just transition.

For the trade union sector, it is key to ensure that women have access to good quality jobs in strategic sectors for decarbonisation, but also that they access new jobs in other sectors that do not produce high emissions (ILO, 2021b). The International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC, 2022) highlights the importance of expanding social protection coverage, addressing the causes of gender inequality from the Just Transition agenda through specific policies and appropriate budgets (Koening and Smith, 2022).
V.2. Greater Opportunities for Collaboration and Intersectoral Coordination

One of the biggest challenges for implementing the Just Transition is to adapt the work of the State to the integrated and intersectoral platform required by climate action. This is a cross-cutting issue that requires inter-agency coordination mechanisms and a high degree of policy coherence. It is essential to strengthen synergies between the objectives of climate action and those of green growth, gender equality, the creation of quality jobs and the reduction of inequality and poverty.

Experience in the region demonstrates the benefits of comprehensively and more systematically addressing gender equality in the climate agenda, allocating greater resources for gender-sensitive climate and sustainability actions, and creating quality jobs. Despite significant efforts being made by several countries, women continue to face social, economic and cultural barriers that limit the benefits they could derive from well-designed policies.

In most of the countries of the region, the Ministries of the Environment do not have the resources and power to “mainstream” the environmental and climate agenda in the public sector as a whole, nor have they been assigned a primus inter pares status.

The labour aspect of climate policies and the institutional mechanisms for implementing them are not sufficiently developed and climate-related factors do not feature prominently in the discussion on labour policies.

Just as there is a risk of only formally incorporating the climate objective or delivering a misleading image of commitment to the environment (“eco-laundering” or “greenwashing”), there is also a danger of false gender mainstreaming in climate policies (“genderwashing”), which fails to lead to the empowerment of women.

V.3. Increase the Participation of Women in Discussions and Decision-Making on Climate Change

Women are underrepresented in discussions, negotiations and policy-making at all levels, from the community level to the international level. A critical mass of women in positions of power is needed to ensure that climate policies are transformative and empower women and to advance the development of gender equality policies.

Despite the fact that women tend to express greater concern about environmental issues and the effects of climate change, and incorporate practices of greater care and protection of nature and participate to a greater extent in environmental and environmental organisations, their presence in negotiations and decision-making on climate issues is low.

Although Latin America has managed to improve the proportion of women in national parliaments, it is far from achieving parity. According to the 2020 Global Gender Gap Index, the area of greatest gender disparity at the global level is that of political representation where that of women is only 25%. (World Economic Forum, 2020). The presence of women in universities and fields of research on scientific issues related to climate change is also low, as is the proportion of women in the companies in key sectors for decarbonisation, especially in managerial and senior management positions.

This underrepresentation of women is also expressed in international bodies related to climate change, where there is a glass ceiling that is difficult to overcome. The participation of women in national COP delegations increased from 30% in 2009 to 37% in 2021, but between 2020 and 2021 there was a 3% decrease (UNFCCC, 2022). Only 13% of delegations were led by women at COP 26 (2021). Women’s participation at COP 27 (2022) is estimated to have been one of the lowest ever at these climate summits.

However, these figures do not reflect their ability to influence. At COP 26, women had access to only 29% of the time allocated for intervening, even though they represented a larger proportion of delegates (37%). Gender disparity is particularly marked in the thematic sessions of the Governing Body. In the gender plenary, 11% of the panelists were men, but their intervention time was 24%. In that of ECT, men comprised 56% of the speakers but accounted for 73.3% of the speaking time (UNFCCC, 2022). Within this framework, the calls made for the first time at COP 21 to ensure a prominent role for women in decision-making and climate action and full, equitable and meaningful participation in the international climate process remain valid.
There is also uneven gender representation at the local level, exacerbated by the lack of opportunities for consultation involving women as well as channels of information for them to develop climate change proposals.

This power imbalance is an expression of a patriarchal culture that assigns less value to women's work and skills and to the contributions they can make in the search for better solutions. The absence of women also leads to an invisibility of gender determinants in climate policies. These are often designed based on the assumption that they are “neutral” and have a “technical” character that affects the entire population equally. This is a false assumption that can trigger an increase in inequalities by overstating the biophysical aspects and ignoring or relegating as a second priority the promotion of gender equality and creating decent work.

Hence, strengthening knowledge of gender policies in priority sectors can complement a general policy of gender mainstreaming in the face of climate change (Casa Varez, 2020). Collective bargaining is also a relevant tool for promoting concrete agreements in specific sectors and companies on Just Transition with a gender perspective.

V.4. Development of New Knowledge for a Just Transition with a Gender Focus

Although progress has been made in producing data and statistics broken down by sex in social and economic areas over the past decade, there is a backlog on environmental and climate change issues. It is necessary to take into account that the effects of the climate on women and girls are mediated by multiple gender aspects, which are expressed in social norms that restrict their independence, determine the use of their time and limit the exercising of their human rights. Fully understanding and providing evidence on how climate change affects gender inequalities and also on how it affects the time women spend caring for others is a priority.

Among the most urgent information needs are: (a) Breakdown by sex of all relevant environmental information (at the national, regional, international levels) that is already compiled and contributes to a better understanding of gender inequalities, including an intersectional view that recognises the reality of women living in situations of extreme vulnerability; (b) Develop new indicators to identify the gender aspects behind environmental degradation, the differentiated impacts of climate change on men and women, gender differences in vulnerability and the ability to address them, as well as women's contributions to environmental conservation, and mitigation and adaptation to climate change; (c) Generate transparent information systems to measure and track countries' progress on gender and women's empowerment in their environmental and climate change policies.
A Just Transition that Contributes to Gender Equality: Strategic Sectors

The links between climate change and unpaid care work are evident, but they have not been sufficiently highlighted and climate interventions have tended to ignore that care sustains people’s work. The Just Transition agenda will not be possible if the value of care work is not recognised.
6. A Just Transition that Contributes to Gender Equality: Strategic Sectors

The countries in the region have identified key sectors for their climate change mitigation strategies such as farming and forestry, energy, transport and waste. Adaptation policies add tourism, health and water, among others, to these.

VI.1. Key sectors for Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation

Latin American countries have identified the most relevant sectors for addressing environmental and climate emergencies and increasing resilience for better adaptation, or for reducing and mitigating GHG emissions (Sánchez and Reyes, 2015).

VI.1.1 Farming and Forestry

In Latin America, the farming and forestry sectors are essential for decarbonisation, as they contribute an inordinately high proportion of GHGs. Climate change also affects crop yields, food production, jobs and the wellbeing of rural communities, posing new challenges to adaptation.

According to FAO and others (2017), rural women are responsible for more than half of small-scale food production and also play an important role in the conservation of biodiversity, and food sovereignty and security through healthy food production.12 They have local knowledge of small crops, forest foods and medicinal plants, which represents a gateway to adaptation strategies (FAO, 2013). They do most of the farming and domestic work, but they do not have the same access to resources or decision-making as men, which generates a vicious cycle of exclusion.

In Latin America land ownership is highly concentrated. One percent of farms possess more than 50% of productive lands and 80% of smaller farms occupy less than 13% of the land. Inequality in the distribution of land has been increasing as a result of the growing specialisation in monoculture crops for export and the increase in international investment flows (OXFAM, 2016).

Women living in rural areas have a harder time adapting to climate change as they face greater discrimination in access to land, water, markets, technology and credit. Less than 20% of people who own farmland are women13 and when they do, the areas of land are smaller or of low quality14 (FAO, 2018). Women represent less than 12% of the population that have benefited from land reform processes, they receive 10% of the credit and only 5% obtain technical assistance for their farming work (We Effect, 2020).

More than half of those living in rural areas are considered economically “inactive” or “not eligible”15 for accessing technical assistance or benefitting from policies for the sector, and have little equipment and technology to increase their productivity (Inter-American Commission of Women, 2020). In Brazil, only 7% of family farms run by women had tractors and 5% had combine harvesters, fertilising machines and seed drills, while in male-run properties, more than 90% possessed these machines. Similar gaps are observed with respect to the availability of vehicles, increasing the difficulties faced by women farmers for distributing their produce (Olivera et al., 2020). Despite the benefits of organic farming, which also allows for approaching markets with higher prices, the percentage of family lands that have this certification is low, especially those run by women, due to the lack of technical assistance and the high costs for obtaining this certification.

In these conditions, a Just Transition strategy in the rural sector must necessarily address gender discrimination regarding access to land and productive resources, as well as supporting the development of family farming and promoting

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12 The World Peoples’ Conference on Climate Change (Cochabamba, 2010) established the right of peoples to control their own seeds, lands and waters, in order to ensure, through local and culturally appropriate production, people’s access to sufficient, varied and nutritious food (Olivera et al., 2021).
13 The percentage of farms run by women ranges from 30% in Peru to 8% in Guatemala. In Brazil they constitute 12.7% and in Argentina 16.2% (OXFAM, 2016).
14 In Costa Rica, for example, 45.3% of the farmland belongs to public limited companies, 50.3% to men and 4.4% to women.
15 This is considered a form of discrimination since in the provision of technical assistance services, technology and credit there is a clear preference for men.
environmentally sustainable value chains. This will contribute decisively to generating more efficient, productive and sustainable food and agriculture systems, reducing the pressure on forest lands.

VI.1.2 Clean Energy

Latin America has one of the greenest electricity grids in the world, based mostly on large hydroelectric power plants. However, the effects of climate change threaten the availability and reliability of the volume of water for electricity generation. Non-conventional renewable energy (NCRE) represents 5% of total primary energy consumption in the region, a figure that exceeds the global average by one percentage point (Messina, 2020). Some countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay) are also assessing the production of green hydrogen. The region also produces fossil fuels, which, in several countries, constitute one of its main source of exports. Meanwhile, the three largest economies in the region (Argentina, Brazil and Mexico) have increased investments and exploitation in the area of fossil fuels (mainly natural gas and also oil) (UNEP, 2022).

The NCRE sector has been identified as a priority for GHG reduction and it is estimated that the shift towards renewable energy would generate a net benefit in Latin America equivalent to 20% of the regional GDP by 2050 (UNEP, 2022). In addition, it is estimated that just in the NCRE sector - without including indirect jobs - 100,000 jobs could be created in Latin America by 2030. Fifteen countries in the region have committed to achieving a minimum of 70% NCRE in their energy matrix by 2030.

Women make up a third of the global workforce in the renewable energy sector, ten percentage points more than in the traditional energy industry (22%) but they are concentrated in administrative-level positions (IRENA, 2019). In the Latin American energy sector, women make up only 9% of CEOs and 17% of middle-level management positions. Their presence is especially low in positions associated with electrical, mechanical and construction engineering, as well as in equipment assembly and maintenance (Deuman, 2021). In order to address this situation, the countries of the region are developing various initiatives to incorporate more women into the NCRE sector.

Panama launched its roadmap “Nexus, Women and Energy” to promote the participation of women in consultation and planning processes, as well as in the construction, operation and maintenance of new schemes associated with energy use (UNDP, 2021). In Chile, the Ministry of Energy designed a gender strategy in 2016 together with companies and trade associations that culminated with the public-private plan Energy+Women, which has established commitments at the highest level to eliminate gender biases in corporate practices and progress towards integrating more women (Ministry of Energy, 2022).

The projected growth for the sector faces a shortage of appropriately skilled labour, which could provide a gateway for women. However, in addition to having the necessary qualifications, women must overcome cultural barriers, such as that of the “ideal worker” (without family responsibilities), that confront women with the false dilemma of having to choose between starting a family or pursuing a professional career (Williams, 2000). In addition to prejudices regarding women’s ability to perform in a traditionally male-dominated sector, their reduced access to networks, information and internships limits their possibilities of entering and developing careers in companies within this sector.

a. Women’s Networks for Making Headway in the Renewable Energy Sector

At the regional level, there is, among others, the Latin American Women in Renewables Network (MERL), which promotes the development of women in renewable energy, sharing knowledge, challenges and work experiences. The Women’s Energy Network (WEN) has national chapters of industry professionals and offers mentoring programmes and networking. Another example is the Central American Women in Energy Initiative (IMEC, in Spanish), which supports the professional development of women in the energy sector through coaching and empowerment courses, access to training programmes and a platform for women working in the energy sector. There are also women’s groups focused on subsectors, for example, Women in Solar Energy (WISE) which promotes diversity and inclusion across the solar energy industry (ECLAC, 2020c).

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16 NCRE reported an average annual growth of 23.6% between 2010 and 2018 (ECLAC, 2020).
17 However, the majority of the oil and natural gas producing countries in the region continue to develop most of their investments in these sectors and not in renewable energy.
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

b. Universal Electrification Contributes to Gender Equality

The energy sector transition is key for mitigation, but also for adaptation, especially in rural households where there is no access to electricity. Women are the main users of energy in the home and the lack of it represents many hours of work overload for them. Just to collect firewood, women spend an average of 100 hours a year worldwide (IRENA, 2020, ECLAC, 2022c).

Energy poverty affects a significant number of households in the region, mainly in rural areas. In Mexico, around 11 million households found themselves in this situation in 2016 (36% of total households) and of these, almost 4 million did not have access to electricity and used firewood or coal for cooking, heating and even lighting. Moreover, these sources of energy are polluting, produce diseases and increase the risks of accidents (ECLAC, 2020c).

Access to clean, reliable and efficient sources of energy has a transformative effect on women as it frees up their time and thus paves the way for their financial independence.

A Just Transition must also address how to achieve healthy minimum and maximum temperatures within homes, as well as cooking and preserving food with clean energy and without a huge cost in terms of time, and minimum levels of lighting. Investing in renewable energy is a way of universalising access to electricity, since it requires less investment when it comes to isolated areas and the scale of generation can be adjusted based on demand, without the need for being connected to the transmission grid (Olivera et al., 2021).

VI.1.3 Transport

The transition to electromobility is a key component of the mitigation strategy. Transport is the second largest source of GHG emissions in the world. In Latin America, 35% of fossil fuel-related emissions come from the transport sector (the global average is 22%). Freight transport accounts for 53% of emissions in this sector,18 private vehicles 32%, whilst public transport barely reaches 15% (World Bank, 2022a, ECLAC, 2020b).

In Latin America, the population living in urban areas has been on the rise – it now stands at 82%, making it the second most urbanised region in the world. This has led to an increase in mobility needs and a rapid growth in transport using private vehicles (ECLAC, 2020b).

a. Gender-Responsive Transport Systems

It is not enough to replace fossil fuel-based means of transport with electromobility. The transition towards sustainability requires reducing transportation and encouraging the use of public transport that uses clean energy (Domínguez et al., 2020).

Transportation systems are not gender neutral. Because of their traditional roles, women make more and shorter trips, at more varied times of the day (“polygonal” trips), unlike men who tend to move from the point of departure to the point of arrival, mainly for work reasons (“pendular” trips). In addition to mobility for production purposes, women move because of their caregiving responsibilities. They use public transport to a greater extent, frequently travel accompanied by children and carrying a load (shopping, pushchairs). They use private transport or bicycles less, compared to men, and walk more (Pérez, 2019, IDB 2019b). However, the routes and schedules of the public transport system are usually designed based on pendular travel patterns, on the assumption of the universality of the journeys made by men. As a result, women must spend more time and effort getting to their destination, which increases their time poverty. This factor is of such consequence that it determines many of their decisions. A study carried out in Brazil showed that for 72% of women the time needed to get to work was a decisive factor in accepting a job or remaining in it (Olivera et al., 2021).

Personal safety is another significant element for women, as many face daily situations of violence and harassment on public transport. A study undertaken in Brazil showed that 97% of the respondents had been victims of harassment on means of transport at some point in their lives (Olivera et al., 2021) and in the Transmilenio in Bogota this figure was 86% (Moscoco et al., 2020).

The transition to sustainable mobility presents an opportunity to gradually incorporate transformations to move towards sustainable cities and transport systems that are clean and also responsive to women’s needs.

18 In Latin America, the majority of cargo is transported by road and its inefficiency is expressed in greater fuel expenditure and pollution (Martínez Salgado, 2018).
b. New Job Opportunities for Women in the Transport Sector

In addition to developing a mobility policy that responds to climate change and incorporates a gender justice dimension, it is necessary to face the risk that women will be excluded from the jobs that the renewal of the sector will generate. At the regional level, women represent less than 15% of the total number of people employed in transport (IDB, 2019a).

Several countries in the region have established in their NDCs the gradual electrification of public transport, in order to transform the sector and move towards a zero carbon emissions scenario and some have begun the renewal of their fleets. Colombia already has a regulatory framework to promote electromobility and has incorporated electric buses into its fleets in Bogota and Medellin. In order to support the incorporation of women, 450 women are being trained in the risks and operation of electric vehicles as electric bus drivers (SENA, 2022).

Chile has set out to renew 100% of its public transport fleet by 2035 and increase the presence of women in the sector. Currently, a quarter of electric bus drivers are women and have demonstrated better performance with better punctuality (23%), less absenteeism (12%) and a 42% lower complaints rate compared to male drivers. The State Bank (state development bank) has opened a special line of credit for women with small businesses for the purchase of light electromobility vehicles, an alternative for dispatching light goods and for school transport.

In Uruguay, a training plan has been developed for incorporating women as electric bus drivers and in the areas of the use and maintenance of vehicles (Parrilla, 2022).

Mobility policies for the decarbonisation of public transport fleets create public-private partnerships and decent work, and gender mainstreaming also creates new job opportunities for women in a traditionally masculinised sector.

VI.1.4 Tourism

Tourism is a sector that is extremely sensitive to the effects of climate change, natural disasters and the loss of biodiversity. Hit hard by the COVID-19 crisis, it presents sub-optimal working conditions, with high seasonality and informality. Tourism depends on natural ecosystems, but also contributes to their depletion. It contributes around 5% of global greenhouse gas emissions and most of these come from transport (UNWTO, 2021).

In 2019, tourism accounted for 4% of Latin America’s GDP and generated employment for approximately 11 million people in 2018, of whom more than 6 million were women. Including indirect employment, it accounts for 10% of occupations in the region (ECLAC, 2020b; Maffei, 2021).

Tourism is labour-intensive. In Latin America, women hold 57% of the jobs, which is higher than the global average (54%), but they are concentrated in low-skilled occupations and administrative tasks. They are underrepresented in professional positions and the wage gap is around 20% (UNWTO, 2021; ECLAC, 2020b).

The tourism sector operates in highly segmented markets. Large companies and international chains, in many cases, function as enclave economies that have few links with local economies, especially when they offer “all-inclusive” services. At the other end of the spectrum are the majority of the companies, which operate with limited capital and few staff members. By way of example, the latter constituted 98.7% of tourism-related companies in Costa Rica in 2016 and 99.8% of those in Mexico in 2018 (ECLAC, 2020b). Because of this, the proportion of self-employed women or women working as employers is higher than in other sectors.

On average, 51% of tourism businesses in the region are run by women, but this figure soars to 70% in Nicaragua and Panama (ECLAC 2020b). Women working in this sector have limited access to finance, markets, technology and information. This implies a lack of qualifications and skills in the area of entrepreneurship. Although the majority of tourism students in formal education are women, they have few high-level tourism training opportunities (UNWTO, 2022). The UNWTO (2021) also draws attention to the large amount of unpaid work done by women in family tourism companies, which, added to the time spent on unpaid work caring for their family, limits their options for financial independence.

a. Decent Work with a Gender Focus in New Green Jobs in the Tourism Sector

Climate change and disaster risk management are part of a common agenda for resilience development that is crucial for tourism. By incorporating a gender and decent work approach, climate- and environmental-risk-sensitive tourism
policies achieve a comprehensive view, covering investment needs, business support and job improvement.

Sustainable tourism activities can help boost local economies and create job opportunities for women. Their impact is especially relevant in areas where alternative sources of employment are scarce.

Green tourism in particular has potential for growth. An increasing number of countries in the region have adopted ecotourism as a strategy for sustainable economic development and an effective means of economic diversification. It can be a development path for more excluded rural communities such as indigenous communities, but it requires public investment in infrastructure, technical assistance and a territoriality approach. A sustainable tourism system also involves choosing destinations that are closer and environmentally-friendly transport. Some countries are starting to develop green stamps and offer certified accommodation and restaurants that serve local or organic food. These stamps can also be a strategy for promoting green jobs that guarantee decent work for women.

It is important to prepare MSMEs in the tourism sector for the future, in particular by strengthening digital skills. Booking platforms and social media allow interaction directly with customers, eliminating intermediaries and reducing barriers to entry. They also encompass other innovative technologies, such as big data to track consumer behaviour and forecast demand, as well as artificial intelligence to design unique experiences. (Saget et al., 2020).

Tourism can also contribute to the modernisation of the farming sector and the improvement of the living and working conditions of local populations. It often has lasting effects on food production, incorporating new products that meet visitors’ expectations, which can result in the creation of jobs for women. Agrotourism strategies help to increase different links with local economies and decrease the high tendency to import employed by large chains. This would allow for overcoming the logic of the enclave economy.

VI.1.5 Circular Economy, Waste Management and Recycling

The circular economy proposes new ways of producing and consuming through a more sustainable model, which uses cleaner, renewable resources in less quantity and extends their life cycle. The circular economy has huge potential for creating green jobs and improving the quality of those that currently exist in the recycling production chain, where informality, job precariousness, low incomes and activities that represent a risk to the health and safety of workers predominate (ILO, 2021c).

a. Decent Work Opportunities for Women Starting Up in Recycling

Recycling is crucial for energy efficiency, waste reduction, the safe treatment of hazardous waste and the recovery of valuable materials. This sector currently presents major challenges due to its poor working conditions and decent work deficit, where women face worse working conditions and greater risks regarding health and violence.

The distribution of activities is based on gender stereotypes, leading to less access to higher-value recyclable materials and therefore lower incomes. Women face increased vulnerability due to the lack of access to public sanitary facilities or the absence of safe public places and are at increased risk of sexual harassment and other types of violence during the processes of negotiating and selling materials (Arana, 2022).

The recycling of electrical and electronic waste (WEEE) poses a threat to sustainable development and is a source of precarious and dangerous employment. Waste electrical and electronic equipment increased between 2010 and 2019 by 49% in Latin America, however, the percentage that is recycled is still low. Recycling is 17% worldwide but in Costa Rica – the country that recycles the most – it is 8%, followed by Chile (5%) (Wagner et al., 2022). Although there is no official data, several countries in the region receive electronic waste from developed countries, despite the fact that they have ratified the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes (Forti et al., 2020).

More than 97% of the region’s e-waste is neither collected nor sent to special facilities for proper environmental management. It is deposited in landfills, where poorly educated informal female and male workers, with no training or safety equipment, pick out the valuable parts. Hazardous substances from this waste are generally untreated and pose risks to the stability of the environment and to public health.

Appropriate recycling of e-waste is not only crucial for caring for the environment, but can also generate new decent work opportunities for women if the right policies are in place.
VI.2. Mainstreaming Care Work to Combat the Effects of Climate Change

The work involved in caring for the planet and that of caring for people are closely linked. They are fundamental for the sustainability of life and essential for reproduction and social well-being. The ILO considers care work to be crucial for the future of decent work. Women carry out 76.2% of unpaid care work, especially those belonging to groups at risk of social, economic and environmental vulnerability (ILO, 2018c). This work overload leads to time poverty and limits women’s possibilities of generating their own income, gaining access to quality jobs, developing their own businesses and making progress towards achieving financial independence. In addition, it contributes to widening gender gaps, the feminisation of poverty and inequalities among women (ILO, 2018c; ECLAC, 2022c).

Care work in the fields of health, education and personal and domestic services is undervalued and faces greater decent work deficits than in other areas of activity. According to ILO estimates (2019d), there are 381 million jobs in this area, representing 11.5% of global employment. Two thirds of paid care workers are women (ILO, 2022b, WHO and ILO, 2022).

Care work is a key component of the Just Transition agenda and an integral part of the transition to a green economy. Labour market operations, as well as economic growth and the wellbeing of the population require physical infrastructure and technologies that save working time and facilitate day-to-day care work.

The global care crisis has been exacerbated by the effects of global warming, intensifying the work of caring for people, animals, plants and urban and rural green spaces. This increased demand triggered by extreme weather events is a burden that falls on women, who have to develop strategies to make up for the lack of public services whilst spending even more time on the work of family care.

However, mitigation and adaptation strategies often tend to prioritise the biophysical aspects of the environment, without taking into account unpaid care work. This can exacerbate women’s workloads and worsen pre-existing inequalities.

Climate action must, therefore, be care-sensitive and promote a gender-transformative agenda. The 3R Framework – Recognise, Redistribute and Reduce Care Work – sums up the international commitment to gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls, as set out in Goal 5 of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. The ILO has expanded this framework, incorporating the Reward and Represent components, in order to place it on the decent work agenda. It is the view of the ILO that this framework creates a virtuous circle mitigating inequalities related to care, addressing the barriers that prevent women from gaining access to paid work and improving the conditions of all female and male care workers, which leads to an improvement in the quality of care (ILO, 2018c). The 5 Rs are described as follows:

- Recognise, that is, acknowledge the value of unpaid care work, making it visible and taking into account its contributions to the workings of society, the economy and the environment.
- Redistribute, which involves allocating care equitably across society (including the state and the market), as well as within households between men and women.
- Reduce the time spent on unpaid care work by providing social infrastructure, and expanding care systems and public service coverage.
- Reward, in order to generate decent working conditions, living wages and safe environments for people working in paid care under conditions of environmental sustainability and access to social protection for those who have devoted their lives to unpaid care work and have been left out of contributory systems.
- Represent, that is, ensure the effective participation in social dialogue scenarios and guarantee the freedom of association of paid care workers, as well as ensuring that those who provide unpaid care have a voice and participate in other areas of community and public life.

The links between climate change and unpaid care work are evident, but they have not been sufficiently highlighted and climate interventions have tended to ignore that care sustains people’s work. The Just Transition agenda will not be possible if the value of care work is not recognised, and unless initiatives are developed for it to be distributed fairly and channels of participation and leadership are opened for caregivers. Analysing the 5R Framework from the Just Transition perspective is a first step to progressing towards fairer and more sustainable societies.
Conclusions and Recommendations

Four lines of recommendations have been identified in order to progress towards a gender-responsive Just Transition: A Just Transition requires a Comprehensive Policy Approach, Mainstreaming Gender and Intersectionality into Environmental and Climate Policies, Mainstreaming Care into the Just Transition and Employment, Enterprise Promotion and Social Protection Policies in Adaptation and Mitigation Plans.
Although Latin America contributes a relatively low percentage (8%) of emissions, it is one of the regions most affected by extreme weather events caused by climate change.

As the region with the highest disparities in the distribution of wealth, environmental degradation and rising temperatures impose greater costs – made invisible by the naturalisation of inequality due to gender, race, ethnicity and socio-economic status – on women, particularly poor, indigenous and Afro-descendant women.

The severity of the crisis raises the need for the profound transformation of a development model that considers natural resources unlimited inputs for economic activity, and that is denoted in the region for its highly informal labour markets, that imposes restrictions on small businesses and that does not distribute the benefits of development fairly. In addition, it conceals the links between production and care, placing greater value on productive time versus reproductive time.

Based on the diagnosis undertaken, four lines of recommendations have been identified in order to progress towards a gender-responsive Just Transition:

VII.1. A Just Transition requires a Comprehensive Policy Approach

- Develop Just Transition strategies with a comprehensive approach that recognises the interdependence of the climate and environmental, economic, social and gender dimensions. Mainstream the environmental and climate change agenda into national and territorial development strategies and sectoral agendas. Strengthen the role of the Ministries of the Environment for spearheading this process.

- Strengthen institutional mechanisms for intersectoral coordination by providing them with decision-making capacities and resources. Seek political solutions, backed by technical arguments and the participation of broad sectors in order to overcome the “silofect” that deals in an isolated manner with macroeconomic, industrial, environmental, labour, social and gender policies.

- Promote decent work plans for climate change with a gender approach at the Ministries of Labour and Social Security and incorporate specific measures regarding climate change into Gender Equality Plans, adopting an intersectionality and decent work approach.

- Incorporate gender equality into all components of the climate agenda and allocate preferential budgets for the implementation of gender-sensitive actions and those that generate quality jobs.

- Strengthen gender mainstreaming capacities of the sectoral ministries involved in the commitments made in the NDCs.

- Promote social dialogue and enrich governments’ dialogue with social stakeholders and civil society with the aim of generating broad consensus on how to carry out a Just Transition strategy. Collective bargaining is an important tool to consider in promoting gender-responsive just transition.

VII.2. Mainstreaming Gender and Intersectionality into Environmental and Climate Policies

Abundant evidence has been provided on the uneven impact of climate change on men and women and the risk of widening inequality gaps if appropriate policies are not implemented. Progress in mainstreaming gender and intersectionality into Just Transition Strategies requires efforts in the following areas:

- Ensure that climate change and environmental sustainability strategies are transformative and empower women.

- Generate new knowledge and empirical evidence that provide useful information for policy-making. Appropriate indicators are needed to reflect the link between environment, gender and climate change and the possibility of breaking down data not only by sex, but also by ethnic-racial status, in order to reveal the reality of indigenous women, as well as women of African descent.
Revaluate and systematise ancestral knowledge and generate dialogue between indigenous and scientific communities, recovering their contributions to adaptation policies.

Develop a broad outreach strategy on the links between the environment, the climate crisis and gender, in order to correct prejudices about the “neutral” nature of climate policies.

Strengthen the capacities of decision-makers and policy implementers for developing gender-responsive environmental and climate policies, as well as those of social partners, territorial leaders and civil society organisations – including women’s organisations – in order that they may participate in dialogues in an informed manner.

Establish monitoring and follow-up systems – based on outcome indicators, allocated budgets and established deadlines – with respect to the commitments undertaken by the Parties to mainstream gender into their NDCs.

Make more decisive progress in the development and implementation of the GCCAPs. Exchange experiences between countries and set up regional gender and climate change networks. Establish participatory mechanisms for monitoring the GCCAPs that have already been developed.

Establish mechanisms for the participation of women to make progress towards gender parity in platforms for discussions, negotiations and decision-making regarding climate issues – at the international, national and territorial levels. Make special efforts to increase the participation and leadership of indigenous and Afro-descendant women. Overcome the exclusion of women from decision-making both within and outside of their communities.

VII.3. Mainstreaming Care into the Just Transition

Recognise and give greater visibility to the links between climate change and care work carried out by women – paying particular attention to social groups that experience multiple forms of exclusion – and prioritise the inclusion of care and the problems of time poverty in climate policy-making.

Incorporate into climate strategies the objective of promoting a more equitable and democratic distribution of care work, avoiding overburdening women. A gender-responsive transformative agenda involves fostering a cultural shift that recognises caregiving as a public asset and not as the responsibility of women.

Incorporate into mitigation and adaptation strategies (macro, meso and micro), investment in social and green infrastructure, universalising access to water, sanitation, electricity, sustainable housing and digital connections, in order to lighten the burden of domestic workloads and empower women. Invest in care services with quality jobs. In addition, developing green roads and transport that are more accessible and appropriate to women’s needs is a prerequisite for opening up new opportunities for productive inclusion.

VII.4. Employment, Enterprise Promotion and Social Protection Policies in Adaptation and Mitigation Plans

Identify the precise impacts of extreme weather events and the transition to zero-carbon economies on jobs and businesses in specific territories and from a gender perspective.

Develop adaptation plans through active labour market policies that support the continuity of jobs and the survival of women’s businesses. Consider measures aimed at small businesses run by women, such as transitional tax benefits, soft loans, disaster insurance, temporary labour subsidies (hiring of women). Develop actions to support women workers through emergency bonuses, unemployment insurance not restricted to female workers in formal employment, and free training programmes in trades in high demand. Reopen schools and care services as soon as possible.

Develop diagnoses – located territorially – on the new skills, capacities and qualification levels that will be required in the transition to green economies. Develop special measures to increase training for women in technical areas and better long-term careers. Set out plans for the universalisation of digital literacy.

Include a social protection component in climate risk management in order to ensure minimum
levels of welfare and social rights and break the vicious cycle of poverty, lack of social protection and environmental degradation. Even if it does not focus on women, the latter would benefit the most from policies of this kind—especially rural, indigenous and Afro-descendant women—since they are overrepresented among the poor, the unprotected and those working in informal jobs.

- Generate policies, public-private agreements and tripartite commitments for a greater participation and broadening of the range of occupations of women in the sectors with the highest growth potential in the transition towards a zero-emission future. Considering that most of these jobs are in masculinised sectors, combined efforts must be developed to modify traditional gender stereotypes that dominate perceptions of occupations and break the patterns that limit women's opportunities.

- Review and modify the regulatory frameworks and institutional and social practices that discriminate against women with regard to access to land, technical assistance, credit and productive resources in the agroforestry sector and that trap them in a vicious circle of exclusion and poverty.
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