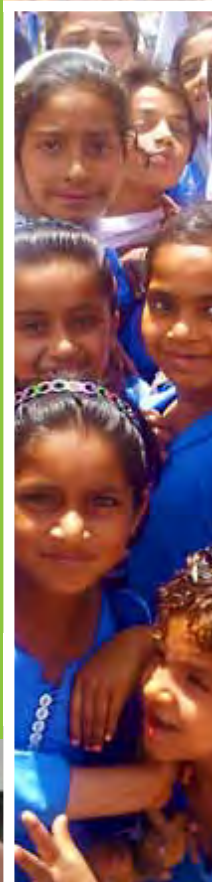




PAKISTAN COUNTRY GENDER ASSESSMENT VOLUME 1 OF 2: OVERALL GENDER ANALYSIS



PAKISTAN COUNTRY GENDER ASSESSMENT

VOLUME 1 OF 2: OVERALL GENDER ANALYSIS



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Currency

(As of 16 May 2016)

Unit	–	Pakistan rupee (PRe/PRs)
PRe1.00	=	\$0.00955
\$1.00	=	PRe106.70

Abbreviations

ADB	–	Asian Development Bank
BHU	–	basic health unit
BISP	–	Benazir Income Support Programme
CEDAW	–	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
FATA	–	Federally Administered Tribal Areas
GBV	–	gender-based violence
GDP	–	gross domestic product
GEDI	–	Global Entrepreneurship Development Index
GGI	–	Gender Gap Index
GII	–	Gender Inequality Index
HBW	–	home-based worker
ICT	–	Islamabad Capital Territory
IDP	–	internally displaced person
ILO	–	International Labour Organization
INGAD	–	Inter-Agency Network on Gender and Development
MDG	–	Millennium Development Goal
NCSW	–	National Commission on the Status of Women
NGO	–	nongovernment organization
OECD	–	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PDHS	–	Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey
PPHS	–	Pakistan Panel Household Survey
RHC	–	rural health center
SIGI	–	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SOE	–	state-owned enterprise
USAID	–	United States Agency for International Development
WDD	–	Women Development Department
WEOI	–	Women's Economic Opportunity Index

Note: The fiscal year (FY) of the government ends on 30 June. FY before a calendar year denotes the year in which the fiscal year ends, e.g., FY2016 ends on 30 June 2016.

Glossary

- acid throwing** – A traditional harmful practice. Disfigurement of women by throwing acid on their faces and bodies, usually by husbands and in-laws. Reasons stem from perceptions of dishonor or displeasure.
- bonded labor** – A practice in which employers give high-interest loans to workers in exchange for long-term services and labor. It is rooted in the feudal system and reasons for entering bonded labor could include taking loans for marriages and medical care, as well as for food.
- dai** – Traditional birth attendant
- darul aman** – Women’s shelter
- domestic violence** – Physical, sexual, or psychological harm by family members or intimate partners
- dowry** – A traditional harmful practice required from the bride’s family as a condition for marriage. In contrast to a bride price, money, jewelry, household amenities, and other possessions are provided by the bride’s family to the groom’s. A woman may be abused by her in-laws if the in-laws feel that she has not brought enough dowry. Husbands may divorce their wives and keep her dowry, and remarry for additional dowry from the next wife.
- gender** – Refers to social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female, socially constructed expectations on roles of women and men and their relationship with each other, which are learned through socialization processes. Concepts of gender may vary across race, culture, class, age, and time, and are therefore changeable.
- Gender and Development** – A development framework that takes into account the roles and needs of both men and women. Strategy 2020 of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) describes the gender and development approach as one that sees gender as a crosscutting issue with relevance for and influencing all economic, social, and political processes.

- gender equality** – A situation wherein women enjoy the same rights, opportunities, and have equal value as men. Alongside women’s empowerment, gender equality is the desired result of gender equity measures.
- gender equity** – An approach that recognizes the different needs and interests of women and men, and requires a redistribution of power and resources. ADB’s long-term strategic framework, Strategy 2020, included gender equity as one of the five drivers of change.
- gender mainstreaming** – A gender and development strategy that entails gender analysis to assess the implications for women and men of any planned action, legislation, policy, or program so that women and men may equally benefit, and gender inequalities are not perpetuated. It incorporates concerns and experiences of women as well as of men into the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies, programs, and projects.
- honor killing** – A traditional harmful practice. The killing of a person (usually a woman) either by her own family, or by community members on the orders of a *jirga* (assembly of tribal elders) as punishment for bringing dishonor to her family, tribe, or clan, because of adultery, marrying someone of her own choice, or for any other exhibition of behavior deemed unacceptable by her family or community.
- human trafficking** – The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others, or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude, or the removal of organs.
- jirga*** – Assembly of tribal elders
- karo kari*** – A traditional harmful practice. Term used in Sindh province for honor killing.
- nikahnama*** – Marriage contract
- sex** – Biological characteristics that categorize someone as either female or male
- sexual violence** – Includes rape, sexual abuse, forced pregnancy, and prostitution
- vani*** – A traditional harmful practice. An ancient custom of child marriage practiced in the rural areas of Pakistan, in which one family’s daughter is married to the son of another family to settle a dispute between the two families.

- walwar** – A traditional harmful practice. As opposed to a dowry, *walwar* is a bride price paid by the groom’s parents to the bride’s family. This practice is primarily prevalent in northern Pakistan. This practice may lead to a bride’s family requiring her to stay with the husband, regardless of abuse, as they do not wish to return the bride price.
- watta satta** – A traditional harmful practice. A custom whereby a brother and sister are married to a brother and sister of another family, also known as exchange marriages. Problems may arise if one couple is having problems and are forced to stay in their marriage because their siblings are in a related family. Families may also exact revenge on their daughter-in-law if they perceive that their own daughter (married to their daughter-in-law’s brother) is having problems in her marriage.
- women’s empowerment** – The desired result of gender equity, manifested in women’s meaningful participation in decision making and influence over their individual, family, and community affairs; and their access and control over resources.

Executive Summary

In 2014, Pakistan approved Vision 2025, which outlined its medium-term development priorities and strategies. Thus, the Asian Development Bank (ADB); Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Government of Australia; Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development, Government of Canada; Islamic Development Bank; and the World Bank agreed to conduct this country gender assessment to inform their strategic development plans to improve gender equality and economic empowerment in line with Vision 2025.

Pakistan has made progress toward reaching its Millennium Development Goals for education, gender equity, and health, although targets remain mostly unrealized. Overall, achievements as of 2013 were lower in rural than in urban areas among households in lower-income quintiles, and in Balochistan. Regarding health, girls had lower infant and child mortality rates than boys despite equal incidence rates for acute respiratory infections and diarrhea. Households were somewhat more likely to provide full immunization coverage, seek treatment, and provide antibiotics for acute respiratory infections, and provide oral rehydration therapy for boys. Boys, however, were more likely to be underweight and stunted. Women's rates of contraceptive use, use of antenatal care services, and deliveries with a skilled birth attendant and in a health facility all increased, and contributed to a reduction in the maternal mortality rate from 553 to 276 per 100,000 live births between 1990–1991 and 2012–2013. Lady health visitors can be credited for some of these achievements, and so can the increase in adult literacy among women.

The 18th Amendment to the Constitution committed Pakistan to educate girls and boys to 16 years of age. However, girls have had lower net enrollment rates than boys at the primary and secondary levels, although gender disparities in enrollment have been declining over time. Girls also had lower scores in basic reading, writing, and arithmetic tests. Disparities in early childhood, primary and secondary education outputs and outcomes were evident by the sex of the child, rural or urban residence, and wealth quintile, reflecting interactions between factors associated with demand for and supply of education. Likewise, adult female literacy rates were widely dissimilar by province, indicating longer-term differences in demand- and supply-side factors that have influenced households' decision making regarding the education of girls. Closing gender disparities in educational outputs and outcomes will require a number of measures, including increases in the share of gross national income spent on education.

Despite some progress in human capital investment, women in Pakistan face many challenges. For example, women are often restricted in leaving their home alone for any purpose other than to visit a neighbor. Many women also face domestic violence; one survey found 15% of female respondents and 12% of male respondents indicated that

men have hit women in their households. Other types of gender-based violence, such as bonded labor, acid throwing, sexual violence, honor killings, and human trafficking, also occur in all classes, religions, and ethnicities, and in both urban and rural areas. Further, there are very few shelters for women who are victims of domestic violence, and women often have difficulty obtaining justice against perpetrators of gender-based violence given the fact that women comprise less than 1% of the police force. Most police stations and courts lack women-friendly facilities as well, like bathrooms or prayer areas.

Women's access to finance and assets was also shown to be limited. Only 6% of women reported having access to either an individual or joint bank account. Although microfinance is estimated to reach at least 2.0 million citizens aged 15 years and older, the evidence base to support claims of microfinance's positive impacts on gender equality in Pakistan is weak. Only 13% of women reported owning any asset, compared with 69% of men. In addition, many households did not own household appliances that are time saving for women (e.g., refrigerators, electric or gas stoves, or washing machines), and women had limited access to markets, especially in rural areas. Bicycles and motorcycles were the most frequently owned household modes of transport; otherwise women relied on extended family, neighbors, or public transport to travel any significant distance from their homes for education, employment, or health services.

The employment–population ratio for women doubled between 1995 and 2012. However, unemployment rates among young and all women were higher than those for men and persisted even when analyzed by groups with different levels of educational attainment. Higher unemployment rates, along with lower average wages for females, indicate lower returns to education for girls and may affect parents' decisions regarding investment in a girl's education.

While the Constitution provides a strong legal framework for many dimensions of women's equality, implementation of many provisions is weak. Since 2002, the proportion of seats in the national and provincial assemblies reserved for women has increased to about 20%, and varies at local government levels from 10% to 33%. The presence and activity of female representatives have contributed to the passage of 10 and 6 new laws at the national and provincial levels, respectively, which promote or increase the protection of women's rights and empowerment.

Within the executive branch, the passage of the 18th Amendment eliminated the Ministry of Women Development and devolved full responsibility for women's development to provincial governments. This occurred without prior strengthening of institutional capacity of provincial women development departments. These departments are currently in the process of revising their mission statements and organizational structures, identifying women's development priorities in the provinces, and strengthening their ability to plan and effectively and efficiently manage women's development programs within the budgetary resources available at the provincial level.

Unlike the executive and legislative branches of government, Pakistan does not specifically reserve a percentage of seats for women in the Sharia Court, Supreme Court, or other courts. None of the 17 judges of the Supreme Court are women, and only 3 of 103 judges serving in the five high courts are women.

One important institutional actor is the National Commission on the Status of Women (NCSW), which is tasked to examine the relevance and efficacy of all government policies, programs, and measures related to safeguarding and protecting the interests of women and achieving gender equality; and monitor Pakistan's achievements against human and women's rights obligations under international agreements or conventions to which Pakistan is a signatory. Provincial councils on the status of women have also formed, or are forming, in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Punjab, with missions similar to that of the NCSW but tailored to provincial concerns.

This assessment identified through interviews, documents, and the verification workshop several areas where future development partners' assistance may further Pakistan's progress toward gender equality and women's empowerment. Recommendations for future development partner assistance are summarized below.

Policy development. Policy reform in Pakistan is challenging, especially for crosscutting issues like gender equality and women's empowerment, and in Pakistan's decentralized governance context. Nevertheless, several opportunities exist to provide assistance for future policy reform, including (i) passing the Home-Based Workers Law (draft 2011); (ii) developing and passing policies likely to promote the growth of industries that disproportionately hire women and/or have backward linkages to women working in agriculture; (iii) adopting sector-wide approaches to coordinate development assistance for social sectors at the provincial level; (iv) requiring that state-owned enterprises receiving development assistance for infrastructure create permanent social and environmental impact assessment and monitoring units with gender experts among permanent, full-time staff; and (v) supporting establishment and functioning of gender task forces in select ministries and agencies (e.g., the National Highway Authority) to incorporate gender in their policies, investments, and services.

Program development. Development partners, through multisector and single-sector projects, have supported many interventions that have improved gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan, such as support for the Benazir Income Support Programme (BISP) that provides cash transfers targeted to women. Priorities for scaling up earlier project initiatives include those that focus on (i) continued financing for health commodities that are purchased with foreign funds (e.g., contraceptives, immunizations, and antiretrovirals); (ii) school lunches and/or stipends for girls (and boys) from poor households linked with attendance of primary school; (iii) functional and financial literacy, and entrepreneurial training for adult women receiving microfinance; (iv) rehabilitation of primary schools in conflict areas; (v) training of women to provide basic veterinary services in their communities; and (vi) expansion of female-friendly transport services in urban areas.

Suggestions for development partner support for new project initiatives in select areas/sectors include the following:

- **Education.** Review curricula and textbooks to correct gender biases; provide vouchers to rural communities to send children to private schools that enroll at least 50% girls from poor areas; improve the relevance of technical and vocational education and training in fields with a high demand for female labor; develop curricula to provide

financial literacy knowledge to students at middle and secondary school levels, including females; strengthen mechanisms that improve accountability of school operations that effectively include or increase mothers' participation; provide cash transfers for girls from poor households to continue through secondary school; and evaluate the relative effectiveness of various messages and media outlets among different groups in raising the economic and social benefits of educating girls and generating demand for greater government investment and recurrent expenditure in the education sector.

- **Employment.** Test combinations of existing programs (e.g., the BISP, microfinance, and Rural Support Programme efforts) to determine their joint effectiveness on reducing unemployment and underemployment of women in rural areas; develop incentives for industries that disproportionately hire female labor to locate in semirural and peri-urban areas; incentivize entry of female-owned businesses, or those with high percentages of female employees, into value chains for agricultural and industrial products and services; identify incentives needed to reverse women's declining employment in industry and service sectors in peri-urban and urban markets; provide seed capital to create organizations (e.g., the Punjab Skills Development Fund) to develop job placement opportunities for urban women; and create programs on mobile platforms to provide retraining for women laid off during periods of slow or negative economic growth.
- **Transport.** Support pilot testing options to improve transport for females in rural areas to access education and health services (e.g., microfinance for motorcycles, subcontracting for female-friendly rural transport, and/or increased reliance on mobile approaches); and support research to determine the needs of poor urban women for subsidized bus services, types of behavior-change communication campaigns that reduce sexual harassment on urban transport systems, and adaptation of female-friendly approaches for railways.

Capacity development. Earlier development partner initiatives that aimed to develop public sector capacity for gender-related planning and budgeting, such as gender reform action plans, have had variable levels of provincial government commitment to sustain after devolution. Development partner support to nongovernment organizations (NGOs) has generally not included core funds for developing sustainability after the end of a project. Areas identified for future development partner support for capacity building include building provincial women development departments and sector (e.g., education and health) capacity to mainstream gender in strategic planning, program management, and especially monitoring of outputs and outcomes to demonstrate effectiveness and impact; providing the NCSW and its provincial counterparts with core financing to facilitate their provision of leadership toward development with priorities for moving forward toward longer-term women's development goals in Pakistan, and coordinated medium-term plans to achieve these goals; and providing financing to support leadership and staff development and financial savings by NGOs to facilitate retention of experienced staff (especially female).

Evaluation, research, and statistics. Monitoring, evaluation, and research of the gender-related benefits and other impacts of development assistance in Pakistan are generally weak. Future development partner technical and financial support is needed to improve knowledge generation and management by including gender-sensitive targets and

indicators in national and provincial plans, and financing analysis of survey data to monitor progress related to women's development objectives; developing a national beneficiary registry on the foundation of the BISP database to improve the coordination and monitoring of various social benefits provided to females; providing sufficient grant funds associated with loans or grants to develop rigorous monitoring and evaluation frameworks and indicators at the project design phase so that the outcomes and impacts can be assessed; using multivariate analysis of existing survey data to determine the independent role of sex of respondents on observed outcomes when controlling for the impacts of other independent variables; introducing or expanding the use of new information and communication technology to improve the collection of vital and social sector services statistics; and developing a permanent, countrywide, multisector knowledge management resource concerning gender (e.g., under the NCSW or a nongovernment organization), and convening a working group made up of Pakistan's public and private universities and other research institutions to advise on data and analysis needs and current research priorities related to gender.

Development partner coordination. The Inter-Agency Network on Gender and Development (INGAD) plays an important role in maintaining communication among development partners concerning gender issues in Pakistan and in development assistance to Pakistan. INGAD members should consider supporting additional initiatives to increase effectiveness in coordinating the mainstreaming of gender in development assistance to Pakistan. Examples of potential initiatives include encouraging all major development partners in Pakistan to demonstrate their strong commitment to gender by having at least one gender specialist as a permanent member of their in-country staff, and allocating a given proportion of their budget for gender-related initiatives on an ongoing basis; designating an INGAD member as a focal person to represent INGAD on other sector networks (e.g., energy) to learn and share knowledge about gender issues related to sector development and to be a resource to other INGAD members about what is evolving in the sector; and collecting information from all INGAD members on their gender portfolios to provide a database useful to guide members in designing similar efforts, coordinating in similar geographic regions, or avoiding overlap of efforts and expenditures.

This report concludes that while Pakistan lags behind on gender indicators and indexes, it has also achieved progress toward gender-related Millennium Development Goals, narrowing of gender gaps measured in other indicators, and increasing the participation of women in political life and governance. This progress must be credited to gender activists and legislators, leaders and managers in both the public and private sector, and preceding and current generations of families in Pakistan who have aspired to better lives for their daughters and sons. Enabling these stakeholders to continue to drive the gender agenda in Pakistan must be the lens through which development partners develop and coordinate their assistance.

PART A

Introduction

I. Overview

Key Findings

- In 2014, the Government of Pakistan approved its medium-term strategic plan, Vision 2025, including goals and initiatives for increasing gender equality and women's empowerment.
- A group of development partners determined that it was a strategic time to prepare a country gender assessment for Pakistan to provide data and analysis useful for developing future cooperation.
- To accomplish this objective, this report includes (i) data and analysis of trends in gender indicators, (ii) information on legal frameworks and institutional contexts supporting women's rights and empowerment, (iii) case studies providing lessons learned from design and implementation of prior development assistance regarding gender, and (iv) identification of potential entry points for future development partner assistance to strengthen gender equality and women's empowerment outcomes in Pakistan.
- Preparation involved gathering and analyzing data from numerous publications and from extensive consultations with various public and private sector stakeholders throughout Pakistan.
- The main findings of a draft of this report were discussed with stakeholders at a verification workshop in July 2014. A later draft was circulated for in-depth review by Pakistan and development partner gender experts. Suggestions from the workshop and draft reviewers have been incorporated into this final report.
- The final report consists of two volumes: Volume I (overall gender analysis) and Volume II (sector analyses and case studies).
- While the primary audience is development partners, it is hoped that this report will also serve as a useful reference for others engaged in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan.

A. Purpose and Objectives

In 2013, the Government of Pakistan released a draft of its Vision 2025 document toward human, social, and economic development, and was finalizing its 11th Five-Year Development Plan. At the same time, several development partners were conducting reviews of prior assistance to Pakistan¹ and developing their medium-term strategies for

¹ ADB. 2013. *Country Assistance Program Evaluation: Pakistan, 2002–2012—Continuing Development Challenges*. Manila; and S. A. Abdullah et al. 2012. *Common Country Assessment Pakistan 2011*. Islamabad: United Nations. <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/pakistan/docs/Legal%20Framework/UNDP-PK-Common%20Country%20Assessment%202012.pdf>

assistance with the Government of Pakistan. It was a strategic time, therefore, to prepare an updated gender assessment of Pakistan to facilitate the mainstreaming of gender into development efforts. The Asian Development Bank (ADB); Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Government of Australia; Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development, Government of Canada; Islamic Development Bank; and the World Bank thus developed this country gender assessment for Pakistan.²

It is hoped that sustainable achievements in gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan will be improved. Toward this purpose, this report has the following objectives:

- (i) document trends in indicators of gender equality and women's empowerment, and provide analysis of factors related to progress or lack thereof;
- (ii) document legal frameworks and institutional contexts that support or hinder progress toward gender equality and women's empowerment;
- (iii) summarize lessons learned from the design and implementation of prior development partner assistance regarding gender equality and women's empowerment in select sectors; and
- (iv) identify important or new entry points to improve the gender focus in future development partner assistance in Pakistan.

While the primary audience for the assessment is development partners, this report should also serve as a useful tool for others engaged in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan.

B. Methodology

1. Approach

A mixed-methods approach was used to gather data and evidence. The team based findings and conclusions by utilizing (i) quantitative data on sex-disaggregated indicators; (ii) qualitative information provided from key interviewees, participants in focus group discussions, and observations made during site visits; and (iii) quantitative data and qualitative information and analysis available in documents on gender and development in Pakistan, including evidence on the gender impacts of programs and initiatives of the government, private sector, civil society, and development partners.

2. Sources

Two recent reports provide compilations of aggregated and disaggregated gender indicators for Pakistan to 2012. One gender assessment, sponsored by UN Women, was based on a cross-sectional analysis of recent survey data, focusing on gender differences across rural and urban locations, by wealth quintiles and by provinces.³ Another assessment, sponsored by the United States Agency for International

² See Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). *The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and the Accra Agenda for Action (2008)*. Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/34428351.pdf>

³ Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*. Islamabad: Center of Gender and Policy Studies, Management Development Institute.

Development (USAID), used time-series data and analysis of country-level gender indicators, and compared Pakistan's progress with that of other countries in the region.⁴ To avoid repetition of these analyses, this report focuses on presenting the cross-sectional or time-series data concerning gender and other country indicators generated since these reports were published.⁵

The global literature on gender and development in Pakistan is extensive.⁶ From 2000 to 2013, at least seven country gender assessments for Pakistan were published.⁷ In addition, several papers and publications on specific topics relevant to Pakistan and gender were written, and many were used as sources for this report. Moreover, details on development partner loans and grants, as well as evaluations of these efforts, were collected to provide a basis for analysis of best practices and lessons learned regarding development partner efforts that directly supported or mainstreamed support for gender in Pakistan.

Key interviews were conducted in the Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT), Punjab, and Sindh with government, project management office, private sector, nongovernment organization (NGO), and development partner representatives. Government representatives from Balochistan, Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were interviewed in Islamabad.⁸ Representatives of NGOs involved in policy, evaluation, research, and/or services delivery related to gender equality and/or women's empowerment were either consulted through interviews or half-day focus group discussions organized in Karachi and Islamabad. Likewise, representatives of development partners were either interviewed or featured in a group discussion. In total, the team met with over 114 individuals (Appendix 1).

Key informant interviews and focus group discussions concentrated on four areas:

- (i) recent or current policy, program, or project initiatives, achievements, and challenges;
- (ii) views on priority areas in the near term (i.e., up to 2018), with the greatest probability of achieving progress toward gender equality and women's empowerment;

4 A. M. Spevacek, E. Kim, and N. Mustafa. 2013. *Pakistan Gender Overview*. Arlington, VA: USAID Knowledge Services Center.

5 Recent surveys used include Annual Status of Education Report (2013), Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (2012-13), Household Integrated Economic Survey (2011/12), Labor Force Statistics (2012/13), and Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (2011/12).

6 One synthesis may be found in World Bank. 2011. *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equity and Development*. Washington, DC. ADB has also published an ADB-wide gender policy and strategy, operational plans, reports on plan accomplishments, and guidance for conducting project-associated gender assessments. Several other development partners have published guides and toolkits for conducting gender assessments.

7 ADB. 2000. *Country Briefing Paper: Women in Pakistan*. Manila. http://adb.org/sites/default/files/pub/2000/women_pakistan.pdf; World Bank. 2005. *Pakistan Country Gender Assessment—Bridging the Gender Gap: Opportunities and Challenges*. Washington, DC. http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/1W3P/IB/2006/02/01/000160016_20060201091057/Rendered/PDF/322440PAK.pdf; K. Mumtaz. 2005. *Gender and Poverty in Pakistan*. Background paper for Pakistan Poverty Assessment Update. Manila: ADB; Sustainable Policy Development Institute (SPDI). 2008. *Pakistan: Country Gender Profile*. Islamabad; ADB. 2008a. *Releasing Women's Potential Contribution to Inclusive Economic Growth—Country Gender Assessment: Pakistan*. Manila. <http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/32238/cga-pakistan-2008.pdf>; Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*; and A. M. Spevacek, E. Kim, and N. Mustafa. 2013. *Pakistan Gender Overview*.

8 Information for provinces not visited by the team is limited. Few individuals could travel to Islamabad for interviews, and this limited the variety of government and private sector points of view that could be assessed. Further, it was not possible to meet with representatives of NGOs whose offices are located in these same provinces. Recent survey data are often lacking for these same provinces. Additionally, community-level interviews and focus groups were not held with females who may have been beneficiaries of ADB or other programs or projects. Published data and documents were used to provide, as much as possible, these informational gaps.

- (iii) lessons learned from recent experience regarding the most effective and sustainable means through which government, business, civil society, and development partners can improve gender equality and women's empowerment; and
- (iv) suggestions for how bilateral and multilateral development partner assistance can be improved to facilitate progress toward gender equality and women's empowerment.

It would have been highly desirable to include project site visits in the assessment, but the security situation restricted the team's movements outside of Islamabad, Karachi, and Lahore.⁹ A half-day site visit was made to schools operated by the Education Health and Development Foundation in poor urban areas of Islamabad, which provided an opportunity to better understand challenges facing teachers and students to provide and obtain good, affordable schooling.

Half-day verification workshops were held over 2 consecutive days to review select findings and to obtain suggestions from participants on areas needing further elaboration in the report. Participants included representatives of national and provincial governments, development partners, and NGOs. The consultants presented findings from the draft report, comments and questions were obtained from participants after each presentation, and then more detailed discussions occurred in working groups. The working groups reported a summary of their discussions at the end of each day. A report on the specific suggestions from participants was prepared postworkshop and used in the revision of this report.

C. Contributions of Partners

1. Partners and Consultants

ADB was the lead organization for the country gender assessment and engaged two consultants (a team leader and a population, health, and nutrition specialist). ADB staff at headquarters provided overall technical guidance and supported contract administration. The ADB Pakistan Resident Mission gender consultant (ADB regional technical assistance 7563) coordinated with partners throughout the conduct of the assessment and was instrumental in organizing interviews, focus groups, and the verification workshops.

The Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Government of Australia contributed findings from the End Violence against Women assessment for Pakistan, and provided financing for conduct of focus groups and the verification workshops.

The Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development, Government of Canada engaged a consultant who worked on poverty and gender in Pakistan. Further, its gender equality advisor in Islamabad also provided numerous references and case studies related to gender issues and mainstreaming efforts in Pakistan.

⁹ The limited time available outside of Islamabad made it impossible to interview enough persons or to draw representative, reliable conclusions from the interviews and site visits alone. Published data and documents were used to provide representative data for various populations within Pakistan and to fill information gaps.

The Islamic Development Bank engaged a consultant who contributed to portions of the report on laws, institutions, and the education sector. Consultants also provided critical review and comments on the report summary prepared for the verification workshops.

The World Bank shared reviews of efforts to mainstream gender in its education sector assistance in select provinces in Pakistan.

2. Inter-Agency Network on Gender and Development

The Inter-Agency Network on Gender and Development (INGAD) is composed of representatives of development partners in Pakistan that provide assistance to government and civil society efforts to strengthen gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan. INGAD members contributed to the assessment by participating in an initial meeting with ADB consultants to learn about the team's approach and to provide comments and suggestions during the verification workshop. The following INGAD members made additional contributions:

- **UN Women.** Staff organized a meeting for the ADB team with representatives of United Nations organizations, and shared copies of INGAD data and analyses regarding the effectiveness of development partner assistance related to gender equality and women's empowerment from earlier studies conducted in 2008 and 2011.
- **ADB; the Government of Australia; the Government of Canada; International Labour Organization (ILO); the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); and the United Nations Population Fund.** These organizations completed a matrix prepared by ADB, documenting characteristics of all programs or projects in which gender was the main theme or was mainstreamed. However, due to the lack of input from other INGAD members that have significant gender-related portfolios, it was not possible to update the earlier 2008 and 2011 profiles.

D. Organization of Report

The country gender assessment report is organized into two volumes: Volume I (Overall Gender Analysis) and Volume II (Sector Analyses and Case Studies).

Volume I comprises four parts. Part A provides an overview of the assessment purpose and methodology, and background information on Pakistan. Part B provides information on cross-sectional and time-series trends in gender indexes in comparison with neighboring countries, and measures of gender equality and women's empowerment concerning women's agency, human capital, and women's employment. Part C covers development of provisions related to women's rights in the Constitution as well as national and provincial laws. This section also reviews information on women in public institutions at the executive, judicial, and legislative levels and in quasi-public institutions. Part D presents a summary of information contained in Volume II about aspects of gender equality and women's empowerment with respect to select sectors of priority to the government and associated with development partner assistance.

The sectors reviewed in Volume II include education; energy; finance; inclusive rural and urban development; population, health, and nutrition; postconflict and natural disaster reconstruction; social protection; and transport. The sector chapters present a brief background on the sector, women's roles as consumers and/or providers of sector-specific products or services, case studies of development partner assistance in each sector with lessons learned, and potential entry points for future development assistance.

II. Country Background

Key Findings

- More than half of Pakistan's population lives in rural areas; however, the proportion living in urban areas is increasing. Both settings face challenges in providing access to quality public services. High population densities in the northeast and along the Indus River are coincident with natural disasters, which cause population displacement and reduce livelihoods, and in which harassment and/or violence decrease women and children's security.
- The proportion of female-headed households nationally increased from 7% to 11% between 1996 and 2013. The percentages of female-headed households were higher in rural areas, and highest in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.
- Pakistan's gross domestic product (GDP) increased by 60% in real terms between 2001 and 2012, without a change in the structure of the economy. Growth in the second half of the period was low because of armed conflict, costs of major natural disasters, and the global financial crisis.
- Pakistan's GDP growth was reflected in reductions in poverty headcount and the poverty gap from 35% to 12% between 2000 and 2011. However, declines in these measures of poverty were not reflected in the percentage of children under 5 years old who are stunted, as this figure remained above 40%.
- Regarding gender, "Vision 2025 focuses on ending the discrimination faced by women, and providing an enabling environment for them to realize their full potential and make their contribution to the socio-economic growth of the country ... (recognizing that) ... gender equality and women's development hinges very strongly on her independence to pursue economic growth and exercise her life choices freely."
- Achievement of public-sector-related initiatives in Vision 2025 will require further development of policy, planning, budgeting, and management capacity at the provincial level for the sectors devolved in the 18th Amendment to the Constitution. Additional sources of public sector finance for provincial social services will have to be identified to address deficits in access and quality.
- Emerging challenges for Pakistan's development strategies include capturing the demographic dividend, reducing community and larger-scale conflict that discourage domestic and foreign investment, and developing and implementing strategies to mitigate damages from natural disasters including those resulting from climate change.

A. Demographic Trends

With an estimated 184.5 million people in 2012, Pakistan is the sixth most populous country in the world. The current population growth rate of 2.1% per year is due to an increasing life expectancy at birth of 64.6 years for males and 66.5 years for females,

and a slow decline in total fertility estimated at 4.1 to 3.8 births per woman between the Pakistan Demographic and Health surveys (PDHSs) of 2006–07 and 2012–13.¹⁰ Pakistan's population is projected to reach 302.0 million persons by 2050, assuming only modest further reductions in total fertility.¹¹

The population density of Pakistan increased from 164 to 232 persons per square kilometer between 1995 and 2012. During this time, the percentage of the population living in urban areas increased from 31.8% to 36.6%, with the proportion of the population living in agglomerations of over 1 million persons increasing from 16.0% to 19.2%. Pakistan's population density is greater not only in major cities, such as Karachi and Lahore, but also in the northeast and along the Indus River.

During 2012–2013, the average size of households was estimated at 6.8 individuals, with 6.9 in rural households and 6.6 in urban households. About 23.7% of all households were estimated to include 9 or more individuals, with 25.6% of rural and 20.2% of urban households having 9 or more household members. Pakistan's population was also young, with 39% aged under 15 years, only 4% aged over 65 years, and 57% aged 15–64 years. This age distribution resulted in an inverse total dependency ratio of 132.6 persons of working age per 100 children or elderly dependents.

Statistics on female-headed households are collected in the Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement surveys but only compiled and documented in gender compendiums that are periodically published by the Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. Nationally, the proportion of female-headed households increased from 7% to 11% of total households between 1996–1997 and 2012–2013. Also during that period, Sindh had the smallest proportion of female-headed households (from 2% to 4%), and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa had the highest (from 10% to 14%). Female-headed households in Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were somewhat more likely to be located in rural areas, whereas in Balochistan and Sindh, female-headed households were somewhat more likely to be located in urban areas. Married women headed 4%–5% of all households, with unmarried, widowed, or divorced women making up about 3% of all households.¹² The PDHS 2006–07 estimated that the proportion of female-headed households was 8.5% overall, comprising roughly equal proportions of rural (8.7%) and urban (8.2%) households. The PDHS 2012–13 estimated that the proportion of female-headed households was 10.9%, comprising 11.5% of rural and 9.7% of urban households.¹³

10 Men and women both indicated that their desired total number of children was 4.0. Among ever-married women, the mean number of children was 4.1, unchanged between 1992 and 2013. National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*. Islamabad: NIPS and Calverton, MD: ICF International. <http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR290/FR290.pdf>

11 Pakistan's population in 2050 is projected to range from 266 million to 342 million persons, depending upon the degree to which Pakistan is successful in lowering fertility from current rates. Total fertility rates are higher among women starting childbearing at ages 15–19 years, among women in rural areas, and among women in lower-income quintiles. R. Royan, and Z. A. Sathar. 2013. Overview: The Population of Pakistan Today. In Z. A. Sathar, R. Royan, and J. Bongaarts, eds. *Capturing the Demographic Dividend in Pakistan*. New York: Population Council. http://www.popcouncil.org/uploads/pdfs/2013_PakistanDividend/Chapter1.pdf

12 No data or analysis was identified that determined when a woman's age, marital status, or other characteristics were significantly correlated with poverty among female- compared with male-headed households. Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2005. *Compendium on Gender Statistics*. Islamabad; and Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2010. *Compendium on Gender Statistics of Pakistan 2009*. Islamabad.

13 NIPS and Macro International. 2008. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2006–07*; and NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

A study of internal migration in Pakistan from 1996 to 2006 found that rates of rural to urban migration in Pakistan were increasing, and that females were increasingly prominent among these migrants. The study posited that the increase in female migration was due to an increase in the number of landless households matched by a decline in sharecropping opportunities.¹⁴ Longer-term migration trends from rural to urban areas were also cited.¹⁵ The PDHS 2012–13 confirmed these findings, estimating that a higher percentage of females than males, 4.6% versus 2.9%, reported to have migrated to their current residence during the previous 10 years, with 87.0% reporting having migrated in the last 5 years. About 55.7% of migrants moved from rural to urban areas, with the remainder migrating between urban areas. Migrants tended to be younger, have higher levels of education, be married, and be in a higher wealth quintile. Nineteen percent of rural households and 16% of urban households had at least one out-migrating member.¹⁶

B. Economic Trends

1. Economic Growth

Pakistan's gross domestic product (GDP, in current and nominal terms) increased over fourfold from PRs3.8 trillion in 2000 to PRs20.1 trillion in 2012; however, when adjusted for inflation, it increased by 60%. Both the growth of real GDP and real GDP per capita accelerated from 2001 to 2005, but declined thereafter to 2008 without improvement until after 2010. Growth in real per capita terms was negative in 2000, 2008, and 2010.

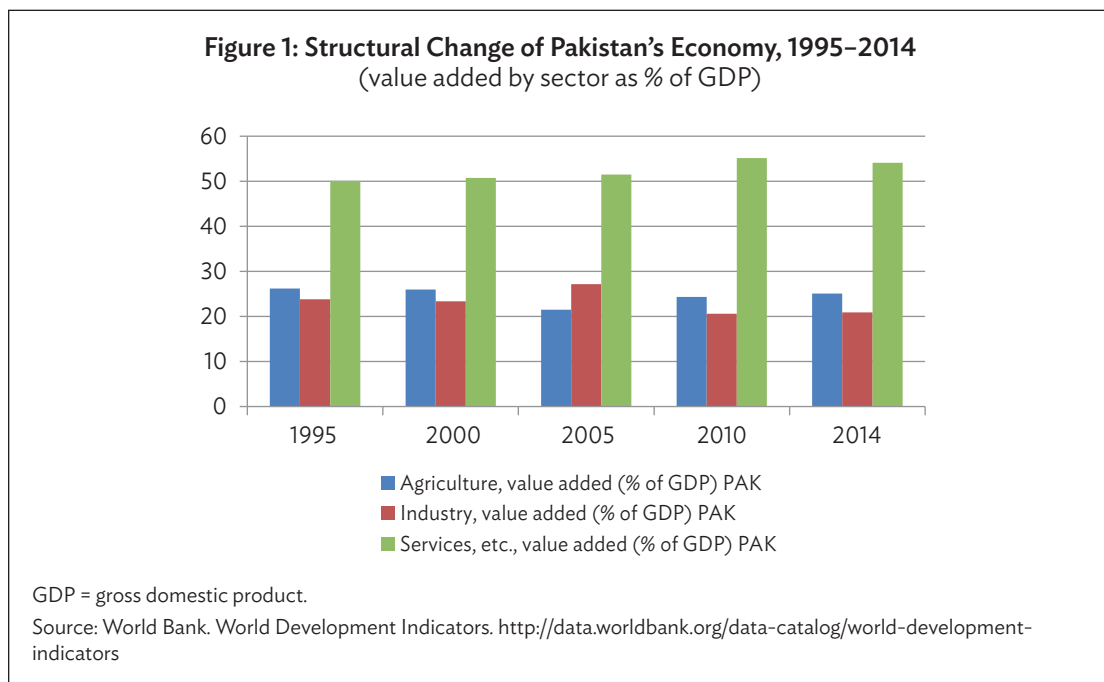
Pakistan faced several challenges to achieving sustained growth over this period, including lack of sufficient, reliable sources of energy; lack of an insufficiently educated and skilled labor force to increase production and adoption of new technology; road and transport infrastructure in need of capital investment for enlargement and repair; and internal security problems and spillovers from regional conflicts that reduce investors' confidence in steady returns. Further, Pakistan was affected by two shocks: the global financial crisis and floods in 2010 and 2011. The government was constrained in using fiscal policy to stimulate growth due to the need to increase domestic interest rates to try to stem the net outflow of foreign currency reserves, and the devaluation of the Pakistan rupee and reduction of subsidies on electricity tariffs and certain foods contributed to a high rate of inflation.¹⁷

14 The rural–urban migration of females between 2000 and the mid-2000s may also have reflected the increase in female employment in the industry sector.

15 The study proposed that migration has shifted from males only toward families, which is consistent with migration caused by conflict or natural disasters, rather than employment opportunities. S. Hamid. 2010. *Rural to Urban Migration in Pakistan: The Gender Perspective*. Islamabad: Pakistan Institute of Development Economics.

16 Out-migration among family members tended to be more prevalent in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (28%) and in Punjab (20%) as compared with Balochistan (5%).

17 The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the Government of Pakistan agreed in December 2013 on a set of measures for a 3-year stand-by arrangement that, in addition to setting macroeconomic performance measures, includes (i) fiscal policy reforms that increase taxes and reduce subsidies; (ii) banking sector reforms to increase banks' capitalization and put into place programs to protect consumers' deposits; (iii) privatization of specific state-owned enterprises; (iv) strengthening the capital market, including reforms of the Securities Law; and (v) initiation of revenue-based load shedding in electricity distribution companies. Given some of these reforms will have at least short-term adverse impacts on the poor, the arrangement also includes indicative targets of an amount to be transferred through social safety net programs such as the Benazir Income Support Programme. IMF. 2014. *Pakistan: First Review under the Extended Arrangement under the Extended Fund Facility, Request for Waiver of Non-Observance of a Performance Criterion and Modification of Performance Criteria*. IMF Country Report. No. 14/1. Washington, DC.



2. Structural Change

Since 1995, a significant shift in the sector structure of the economy has not occurred due, in great part, to a lack of sufficient domestic and foreign investment to the industry sector. The services sector value added increased slightly from 50% to 54.1% of GDP over the same period. The industry sector's initial increase from 23% in 1995 to 27% of GDP in 2005 was not sustained, declining to 20.09% by 2014. In addition, the agriculture sector's contributions declined from 26% to 22% of GDP between 1995 and 2005, increasing to 25% by 2014 (Figure 1).¹⁸

3. Poverty

Estimates of poverty headcount at \$1.25 (purchasing power parity) per person per day suggest that the incidence of poverty declined from 66.5% in 1987 to 14.7% during 2010–2011.¹⁹ Moreover, estimates of the Poverty Gap Index²⁰ at \$1.25 (purchasing power parity) per day declined from 23.9% to 1.9% over the same period.²¹ While these figures imply that Pakistan has achieved significant reductions in poverty, other data question

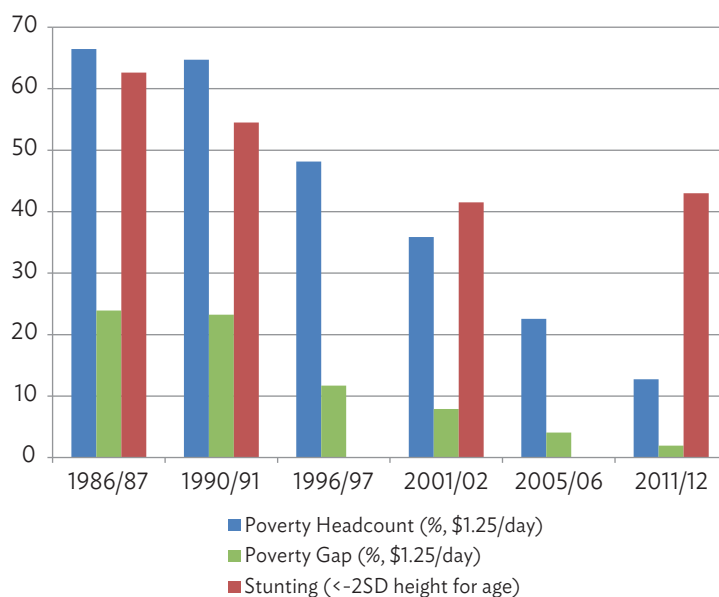
¹⁸ Pakistan's recent negative real growth rates per capita and lack of significant change in the structure of the economy impact patterns in employment ratios, the proportion of the population employed in agriculture compared with industry or services, and the proportion of the population in vulnerable employment.

¹⁹ The poverty headcount is the percentage of the population below a specified amount equivalent to the poverty line.

²⁰ The Poverty Gap Index is a measure of the "distance" of individuals' income from the specified poverty line.

²¹ World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>

Figure 2: Poverty Headcount, Poverty Gap, and Stunting, 1986/87–2011/12
(%)



Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>.

this conclusion. The Multidimensional Poverty Index²² for Pakistan calculated with PDHS 2006–07 data estimate that a higher proportion of Pakistanis were poor (about 50%) than measured by income poverty (about 20%).²³ Further, the percentage of children aged under 5 years who are stunted has not declined since the mid-1990s, suggesting that households have remained sufficiently poor, experiencing high levels of food insecurity that translates into chronic child undernutrition and/or malnutrition (Figure 2).

Using the government's poverty lines for Pakistan's total, rural, and urban populations, the percentage of the population living in poverty increased between 1999 and 2002 but declined through 2011, with faster rates of decline in the urban population. The Pakistan Panel Household Survey (PPHS)²⁴ provides the most recent estimates of total (20.7%), urban (16.6%), and rural (22.4%) poverty incidence in 2010.²⁵ The percentage of the urban population below the national poverty line has declined more rapidly than the rural population.

22 This index is based on 3 dimensions and 10 indicators, with each indicator carrying an equal weight. The dimensions and associated indicators are (i) education—years of schooling and school attendance; (ii) health—child mortality and nutrition; and (iii) standard of living—access to electricity, sanitation, and water; type of cooking fuel and flooring; and ownership of assets. Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative. 2013. *Country Briefing: Pakistan, Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) at a Glance*. Oxford, UK: University of Oxford. <http://www.ophi.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/Pakistan-2013.pdf?79d835>

23 The index has yet to be updated using new PDHS 2012–13 data to provide a more current measure of poverty.

24 The PPHS sample sizes are small, limiting the degree of confidence in estimates, particularly at the subnational level.

25 G. M. Arif and S. Farooq. 2012. *Dynamics of Rural Poverty in Pakistan: Evidence from Three Waves of the Panel Survey*. Islamabad: PIDE.

PPHS data for rural areas illustrate movement into and out of poverty over the same period. Overall, 51.5% of the rural population experienced poverty sometime during the period, with 4.0% being poor during all three surveys implemented in 2001, 2004, and 2010. About 16.6% were poor during two surveys, and 30.9% were poor during only one survey. Higher proportions of the rural population of Punjab and Sindh were found to have “moved out” of poverty between the 2001 and 2004 surveys, and between the 2001 and 2010 surveys than “moved into” poverty, but the converse was true between the 2004 and 2010 surveys, coinciding with the increase in conflict and occurrence of natural disasters during this latter period.²⁶

Consistent with other studies globally and in Pakistan, analysis of PPHS data found that poverty, especially chronic poverty, was more common in households that are larger, have a higher dependency ratio, are headed by a person with less education, and do not own land and/or livestock.²⁷ A greater proportion of female- than male-headed households was not poor during all the three PPHSs; however, a greater proportion of all chronically poor households were headed by females, suggesting that male-headed households were more likely than female-headed households to be able to move into and out of poverty over time. The surveys did not report whether a woman’s age, marital status, or other characteristics were significantly correlated with poverty among female- as compared with male-headed households.²⁸

C. Political Developments

1. Government Development Plans

On 29 May 2014, the government approved Vision 2025, its strategic long-term planning document. It identified seven pillars as priority areas: (i) developing human and social capital; (ii) achieving sustained, indigenous, and inclusive growth; (iii) strengthening democratic governance, institutional reform, and modernization of the public sector; (iv) achieving water, energy, and food security; (v) supporting private sector and entrepreneur-led growth; (vi) developing a competitive knowledge economy through value addition; and (vii) modernizing transport, infrastructure, and regional connectivity. Regarding gender equality and women’s development,

Pakistan Vision 2025 focuses on ending the discrimination faced by women, and providing an enabling environment for them to realize their full potential and make their contribution to the socio-economic growth of the country ... [recognizing that] gender equality and women’s development hinges very strongly on her independence to pursue economic growth and exercise her life choices freely.

To achieve these objectives, Vision 2025 outlines efforts to (i) reduce discrimination based on cultural practices, (ii) strengthen the lady health visitors program, (iii) improve nutrition for all children and pregnant and lactating women, (iv) achieve gender parity in primary

²⁶ Rural populations in southern Punjab and Sindh appeared to suffer more from chronic poverty than rural populations in northern or central Punjab. G. M. Arif and S. Farooq. 2012. *Dynamics of Rural Poverty in Pakistan: Evidence from Three Waves of the Panel Survey*.

²⁷ While a greater proportion of female- as compared with male-headed households was chronically poor, the proportion of female-headed households that were never poor was greater than the proportion of male households that were never poor.

²⁸ Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2005. *Compendium on Gender Statistics of Pakistan*; and Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2010. *Compendium on Gender Statistics of Pakistan 2009*.

and secondary education, (v) further develop the legislative framework to protect women's rights and strengthen enforcement efforts, (vi) increase the female workforce participation rate from 24% to 45%, and (vii) increase development of day care centers.²⁹ These efforts will require commitment by leaders and managers in the public and private sector as well as allocation of adequate budgetary financing.

The National Commission on the Status of Women (NCSW) outlined additional priority areas for action: (i) ensure that women fill 33% of seats in representative bodies and participate in other consultative processes (e.g., peace-building processes); (ii) involve staff of Women Development departments (WDDs) in public planning, programming, and budgeting processes from macro and meso sector levels to improve gender mainstreaming; (iii) facilitate the transition from poverty and food insecurity to well-being and income generation or secure employment through integrated actions, not stand-alone projects; (iv) recognize the consultative status of the NCSW and provincial commissions on the Status of Women in policy development, planning, and law making, and ensuring that their recommendations are considered by Parliament, provincial assemblies, or concerned ministries within a reasonable time frame; (v) urgently establish provincial commissions on the Status of Women in Balochistan and Sindh; (vi) increase financial, technical, and human resources to improve the quality of services; (vii) facilitate women's access to information under the Right to Information Act, and improve women's access to the formal justice system by establishing women-friendly courts, legal centers, and police stations; and (viii) improve the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated statistics.

2. Decentralization

Pakistan has been a federation since its founding, but in the early 2000s, the 17th Amendment aimed to provide greater autonomy to local governments through local elections, devolution of key functions like education and health to the local government level, and rules for fiscal transfers between levels.³⁰ However, these powers officially lapsed in 2009, and the 17th Amendment was repealed through passage of the 18th Amendment by the Senate in April 2010.³¹ The 18th Amendment included a number of important provisions related to devolution of various federal responsibilities to the provinces, including guidance for fiscal arrangements under decentralization; and elimination of the concurrent list of areas of concern shared between the federal and provincial level, with devolution of areas of concern on the concurrent list to the provincial governments.³²

Elimination or reform of federal ministries that previously had responsibilities for devolved concurrent functions took place in three phases: (i) five ministries were eliminated in

29 Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission. 2014. *Pakistan Vision 2025*. Islamabad.

30 H. Mukhtar. 2013. *Promoting Efficient Service Delivery with Decentralization*. Islamabad: World Bank.

31 The Gazette of Pakistan. 2010. *Constitution (Eighteenth Amendment) Act No. X of 2010*. Islamabad. 20 April.

32 Responsibility was devolved to the provinces for the following: civil procedure; marriage, divorce, and adoption; population planning and social welfare; welfare of labor; primary and secondary education policy, planning, curricula, syllabi, and standards; zakat (obligatory alms giving); wills, intestacy, and succession; arbitration; contracts including partnership and agency; trusts and trustees; transfer of property; actionable wrongs; movement of prisoners between provinces; preventive detention; arms, firearms, and ammunition; explosives; opium; drugs and medicines; infectious and contagious diseases; mental illness; environmental pollution and ecology; trade unions; labor exchanges, employment information bureaus, and training establishments; safety of labor in mines, factories, and oil fields; unemployment insurance; shipping and navigation on inland waterways; mechanically propelled vehicles; newspapers, books, and printing presses; evacuee property; ancient and historic monuments; Islamic education; production, censorship, and exhibition of films; tourism; and Auqaf and religious affairs. S. Ahmad. 2010. *Impact of the 18th Constitutional Amendment on Federation-Provinces Relations*. Islamabad: Pakistan Institute of Legislative Development and Transparency.

December 2010, including the Ministry of Population Welfare; (ii) five additional ministries were devolved in the next phase, including the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Welfare and Special Education; and (iii) a final seven ministries, including the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Labour and Manpower, and Ministry of Women Development, were abolished in June 2011.³³

The federal government devolved many of its existing sources of revenue to provincial governments. Rigidities in the remaining federal budget, due to the high percentage of the federal budget assigned to wages and other benefits, defense, and interest payments, have reduced its ability to further reallocate funds to the provinces. Thus, provinces that have made policy commitments to expand social services must either raise additional revenue or divert a portion of their development budget to their recurrent budget.

Further, most existing laws and regulations concerning the devolved subjects were passed at the federal level prior to the 18th Amendment. Future changes in the law must be approved by the national and/or provincial assemblies, and future proposals to change governance procedures must be approved by the national and/or provincial governments. There is also the question of uneven capacity in provinces to manage decentralized responsibilities and yet-to-be determined roles of local governments regarding the provision of public services.

D. Opportunities and Challenges

1. Demographic Dividend

A demographic dividend refers to increases in output per capita over 40–50 years due to reductions in fertility that permit increases in household and government investments, including in human capital (e.g., education, health, and nutrition). Increasing women's participation in making decisions concerning fertility and household investments in children is necessary to take advantage of the demographic dividend.

Efforts are needed to reinvigorate Pakistan's family-planning program, thereby reducing demand- and supply-side constraints to families able to decide on the desired number and spacing of children, thus permitting higher rates of household savings. Simultaneously, access to and the quality of education must be improved for a better-educated and healthier labor force. Tax policies and other incentives must be developed; unnecessary business establishment procedures must be reduced; reliable energy and other infrastructure must be provided; and crime, corruption, and violence that deter investment must be lessened.³⁴

33 Centre for Peace and Development Initiatives (CPDI). 2014. *Status of Implementation of Eighteenth Amendment in KPK in Health, Education and Agriculture Sectors: Baseline Report on Eighteenth Amendment in KPK*. Islamabad: CPDI.

34 R. Royan and Z. A. Sathar. 2013. Overview: The Population of Pakistan Today. In Sathar, Z. A., Royan, R., and Bongaarts, J., eds. *Capturing the Demographic Dividend in Pakistan*.

2. Domestic and Regional Conflict

Pakistan's population lives in a context of both ethnopolitical and religiously motivated violence that have long-standing roots. Further, violence has been increasing in recent years due to spillovers from regional conflict, primarily Afghanistan, as well as an economy not growing fast enough for increasing numbers of youth.

Military operations to deal with internal or regional conflict are thus resulting in many internally displaced persons (IDPs). Women and children usually comprise the majority of IDPs, as males often remain behind in an effort to protect their land and homes. Conditions in IDP camps do not provide women with sufficient privacy, and impacts of displacement include increased mental and physical stress as well as increased risk of harassment and/or gender-based violence (GBV).³⁵ While development partners provide financial and in-kind support for the basic needs of IDPs, there are other costs to caring for these groups such as providing law and order in IDP camps, minimizing environmental damage from IDP camps in fragile mountain environments, and rebuilding livelihoods of IDPs after they return home.

3. Natural Disasters and Climate Change

Pakistan is prone to a number of natural disasters including cyclones, droughts, earthquakes, and floods. The 2005 earthquake claimed 73,000 lives and incurred losses of over \$5 billion, and the 2010 and 2011 floods resulted in estimated losses of over \$13.7 billion, and displaced millions of people who have been unable to rebuild their homes and/or have migrated permanently to larger cities.³⁶

The government has recognized that women and children are especially vulnerable to these events and has created, with development partner support, gender and child cells in the National Disaster Management Authority and its provincial counterparts. The frequency of natural disasters is likely to increase due to a rising population as well as the impacts of climate change.

³⁵ While the experience of female IDPs has been studied, the experience of females due to economically, ethnically, politically, or religiously motivated violence in Pakistan has not been studied.

³⁶ H. Khan and M. Forni. 2013. *Managing Natural Disasters*. Islamabad: World Bank.

PART B

Gender Indicators

III. Gender Indexes: A Comparative Perspective

Key Findings

- Pakistan's score on the Gender Gap Index has not shown consistent improvement from 2008 to 2014 compared with Bangladesh and India. In 2014, Pakistan ranked second poorest on the index (141 out of 142 countries), with Bangladesh and India achieving better ranks of 68 and 114, respectively.
- Similarly, Pakistan ranked 108 out of 133 countries in 2010 for the Woman's Economic Opportunity Index, worse than Bangladesh (104) and India (84).
- Conversely, Pakistan's score on the Gender Inequality Index improved from 0.573 to 0.536 between 2011 and 2014. Pakistan ranked 121st in 2014, ahead of than India (130th) but was behind Bangladesh (111th).
- In gender-based discrimination experienced, the Social Institutions and Gender Index classified Pakistan as "high" overall, and alarming "very high" for subindicators revealing son bias and women's lack of protection from legal mandates (family code).
- The different gender index scores illustrate that Pakistan's accomplishments with respect to gender equality and women's empowerment are dependent upon the dimensions being measured. Further, Pakistan's rank among other countries is highly dependent upon the specific index and the other countries for which that index is calculated in any particular year.

This chapter presents select gender indexes³⁷ for Pakistan and other countries in the region to place Pakistan's performance into global experience. Subsequent chapters review cross-sectional and/or time-series measures of gender equality and women's empowerment to better understand progress in gender equality and women's empowerment within Pakistan.

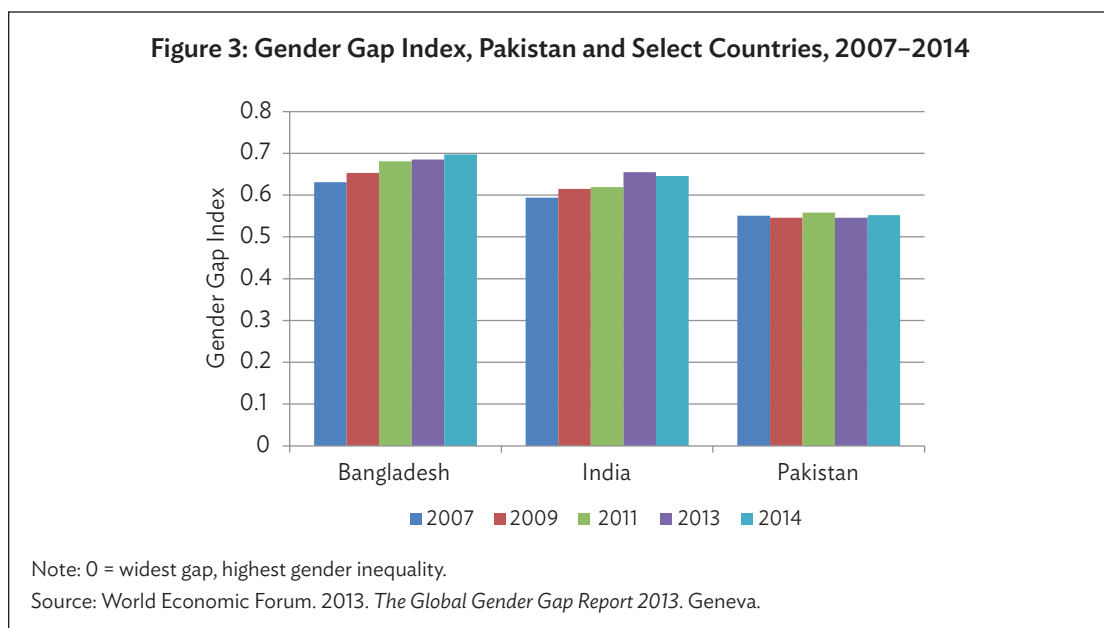
³⁷ Gender indicators, whether rates, ratios, or indexes, are measures of one or more dimensions of opportunities or outcomes of females compared with males. Indicators, to the extent that they have a common definition and data, are collected from a sample that is representative of the population; can be compared across or within geographic areas within countries; and can be compared by educational level, ethnicity, income, occupational group, or another population attribute. Since 1995, the global community has been defining and refining indexes related to gender equality. Indexes are based on a selection of measurable indicators and weights for each indicator into a subindex, then reweighting the subindex scores into an overall single index value. Overall, index and subindex scores are helpful for tracking a country's progress over time, assuming the methodology for calculating them and for estimating the measures used remain the same. Country index or subindex scores can then be used as a basis for ranking countries, but comparison of rank over time is problematic in that the rank in any given year depends on the number of countries for which the index is calculated in that year and also on whether comparator countries in a particular year are more or less "developed" in the measures included in the index. Rank scores are most useful for flagging countries that have the greatest possibility for improving performance in a specific development area. All indexes have been criticized on many technical grounds, but perhaps the most important critique is that it is difficult to capture, in a single number, important aspects of complex economic and social dynamics within and between countries.

A. Gender Gap Index

The World Economic Forum introduced the Gender Gap Index (GGI) in 2006. The GGI is a composite index based on outcomes of women compared with men along four dimensions: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. Higher GGI scores indicate smaller gaps in measured outcomes between females and males.³⁸ A comparison of the GGI score for Pakistan with those of Bangladesh and India for 2007 to 2014 shows that while Bangladesh and India were able to reduce gender gaps, Pakistan showed little progress (Figure 3). In fact, Pakistan ranked 134 out of 135 countries in 2012 on the GGI, 135 out of 136 countries in 2013, and 141 out of 142 countries in 2014.

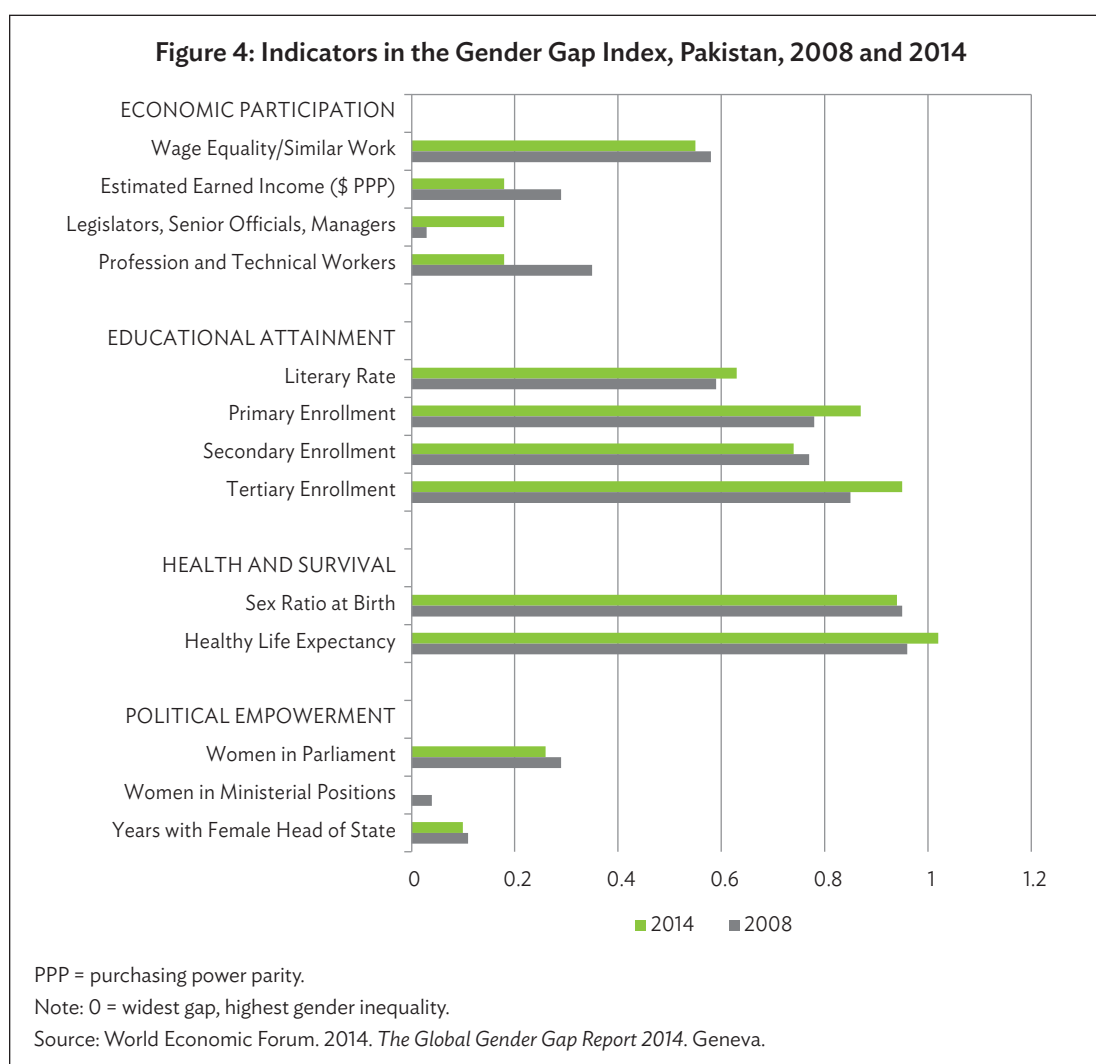
Breaking down the GGI for Pakistan into its subindexes and their specific measures over time provides more insight. In Pakistan, the largest gender gap occurs in the political empowerment subindex, while the smallest gender gap occurs in the health and survival subindex. Neither of these measures changed significantly between 2006 and 2014. The subindex for educational attainment improved over the same period, while the subindex for economic participation and opportunity declined after 2008.

Changes in the specific measures for the gender gap subindexes are not uniform either in direction (i.e., decreases or increases) or in magnitude. Increasing gender gaps were found for all five measures for the economic participation and empowerment subindex between 2008 and 2014, suggesting that adverse economic conditions following the global financial



³⁸ The measures used to compare differences (i.e., a gap) between the same indicators for females and males are not linked to a country's overall level of development. For example, countries can receive the same score for the measure of healthy life expectancy at birth within the health and survival subindex of the GGI whether they have low or high life expectancy as long as the life expectancies of females and males are the same in the specific country.

crisis and 2010 and 2011 floods may have fallen disproportionately on women in the labor force. Gender gaps fell for three of the four measures of the educational attainment subindex, with gender gaps only increasing at the secondary school level. Girls may be discouraged from going to secondary school due to harassment, household and/or farm work, or early marriage. Further, the global financial crisis may have also limited household income, resulting in an increase in decisions not to send girls to secondary school. All three measures of the political empowerment subindex showed increasing gender gaps: women in Parliament, women in ministerial positions, and number of years with a female head of state. Finally, the two measures of the health and survival subindex, which already showed a relatively small gender gap, either retrogressed slightly (sex ratio at birth), or improved (e.g., a healthy life expectancy) (see Figure 4).



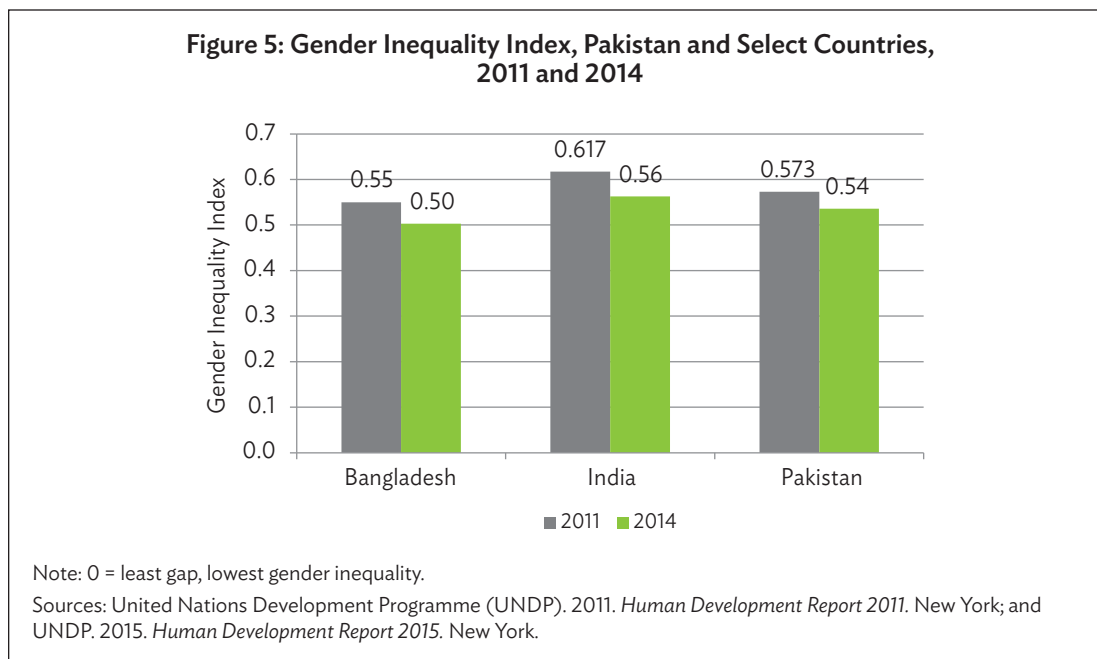
B. Other Gender Indexes

1. Gender Inequality Index

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) was introduced in 2011 as a composite index to measure the percentage loss of human development in a country due to gender inequality.³⁹ The GII combines measures representing three dimensions: reproductive health, women's empowerment, and labor market participation.⁴⁰ Scores range from 0 to 1, with scores closer to 0 indicating more gender equality. Pakistan's GII indicates wider gender gaps than in Bangladesh, but lesser gender inequalities in comparison with those in India (Figure 5). From 2011 to 2014, the GIIs showed an improvement in gender equality in all three countries, with the greatest improvement in Bangladesh. Pakistan ranked 121 out of 155 countries in 2014 on the GII, improving to 0.54 from 0.573 in 2012.

2. Social Institutions and Gender Index

The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) uses data in the Social Institutions and Gender database of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to score and rank non-OECD countries according to the social institutions (i.e., societal practices and legal norms) that contribute to observed inequalities between women and men.⁴¹ SIGI subindexes aim to measure the extent that the country has a



39 In 1995, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was the first organization to propose measures of gender equality, the Gender Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure. Due to various critiques of these measures, UNDP introduced the GII in 2010, which it modified in 2011.

40 The selected measures do not necessarily reflect a country's overall level of development; thus, less-developed countries can perform well on the GII as long as their gender inequality is low. Further, measures making up the subindexes are complementary, as inequality in one measure tends to be associated with inequality in another.

41 B. Branisa, S. Klasen, and M. Ziegler. 2009. Background Paper: The Construction of the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI). Göttingen: University of Göttingen, Germany. http://genderindex.org/sites/default/files/SIGI_background_paper.pdf

Table 1: Social Institutions and Gender Index and Subindex Values, Pakistan and Select Countries, 2014

Country	Overall		Subindex Values				
	Classification	Value	Discriminatory Family Code	Restricted Physical Integrity	Son Bias	Restricted Resources or Entitlements	Restricted Civil Liberties
Bangladesh	Very High	.390	.973	.332	.583	.591	.451
India	High	.265	.644	.377	.542	.591	.354
Pakistan	High	.301	.691	.413	.700	.408	.451

Note: 0 = least gap, lowest gender inequality.

Source: Social Institutions and Gender Index. 2014 Results. <http://www.genderindex.org/ranking/all>

discriminatory family code, restrictions in physical integrity,⁴² son bias, restricted resources and entitlements, and restricted civil liberties. The closer a country's SIGI score is to 0, the less societal institutions and laws are biased against females.

The SIGI was first calculated in 2009 for 102 countries and in 2014 for 160 countries.⁴³ In 2014, SIGI classified Pakistan as a country with a high level of gender discrimination in its social institutions; and in the South Asian region it was ranked next only to Bangladesh in this regard. An examination of the SIGI subindexes reveal that son bias in Pakistan was very high (0.7) and found to be more prevalent than in Bangladesh and India (Table 1). Calculated from a shortfall on the number of women in sex ratios for certain ages, the subindex on son bias points to a high incidence of sex-selective births and its consequence, missing girls or women. The 2014 SIGI also assessed Pakistan's family code as highly discriminatory (value = .691, see Table 1), based on a review of gender equality in laws governing the legal age of marriage, parental authority over children during marriage and after divorce, and inheritance rights of widows and daughters; as well as the incidence of early marriages among girls aged 15–19 years.

3. Women's Economic Opportunity Index

The Women's Economic Opportunity Index (WEOI) was piloted by the *Economist Intelligence Unit* in 2010. The goals were to promote collection of comparable sex-disaggregated data on the factors that influence economic opportunity within a country as a basis for dialogue, further research, and promotion of policies and programs to encourage women's participation in the workplace.⁴⁴ The country with the highest aggregate WEOI score, as well as each subindex score, receives the lowest rank. Pakistan ranked 108 among the 113 countries assessed in 2010, worse than Bangladesh and India.

42 Restrictions in physical integrity may also be worded as "controlling their own bodies." This could range from being unable to adopt family planning, to limiting the number of children, to having to endure domestic or other GBV.

43 SIGI scores and subindex scores cannot be compared over time, as the variables included in the subindexes were expanded in 2012.

44 The WEOI is constructed from 26 indicators, each scored from 0 to 100, with 100 representing the most favorable conditions. The indicators are grouped into five subindexes: (i) labor policy and practice, (ii) access to finance, (iii) education and training, (iv) women's legal and social status, and (v) general business environment. Each indicator and each subindex are given equal weight in the final index score.

Table 2: Women’s Economic Opportunity Index Score, Rank, and Subindex Rankings, Pakistan and Select Countries, 2010

Country	Overall Index		Subindex Rankings				
	Score	Rank	Labor Policy Practice	Access to Finance	Education and Training	Legal and Social Status	General Business and Environment
Bangladesh	32.6	104	93	79	103	108	106
India	42.7	84	57	49	98	89	95
Pakistan	29.9	108	108	77	111	104	80

Source: L. Butt, et al. June 2010. *Women’s Economic Opportunity: A New Global Index and Ranking*. London: Economist Intelligence Unit.

Yet while Pakistan ranked lower on general business environment than Bangladesh and India, its rank was the highest or second-highest on the other four subindexes (Table 2).⁴⁵

45 The Global Entrepreneurship Development Index (GEDI) is based on 34 individual and institutional measures that represent societal bottlenecks and weaknesses that impede economic growth and job creation, and was calculated and published for 120 countries in 2013. In 2013, the Gender GEDI was created to compare countries along dimensions that affect women’s ability to succeed as entrepreneurs. The Gender GEDI focuses on “women business owners who own and operate businesses that are innovative, market expanding and export oriented.” The Gender GEDI is based on 30 individual and institutional indicators aggregated into 15 pillars and 3 subindexes: (i) entrepreneurial environment (that impacts both females and males); (ii) entrepreneurial ecosystem that does or does not provide a level playing field between women and men (e.g., laws and regulations, access to resources, and social norms and attitudes in the business culture that disproportionately disadvantage women); and (iii) entrepreneurial aspirations. To date, the Gender GEDI has been applied to 17 countries on a pilot basis. Gender Entrepreneurship and Development Institute. 2013. *The Gender Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI): Executive Report*. Fairfax, VA: School of Public Policy, George Mason University.

IV. Agency, Voice, and Participation

Key Findings

- Agency is the ability of individuals or groups to give voice to or act on preferences and to influence outcomes that affect them and others in society. Women's agency is important for a number of reasons, because (i) of the impact on the woman and her children's well-being; and (ii) when collectively expressed, it can reshape social norms, laws, and institutions. Agency can be assessed through proxy measures at household, community, district, provincial, and national levels.
- The National Baseline Survey 2012 was conducted to determine the attitudes and practices of women and men concerning women's rights at household and community levels and as leaders in public and private sectors. Overall, the survey found that women and men voiced more permissive attitudes toward women's decision making and participation than they reported women actually exercised. Further, the survey found that female respondents were more supportive of attitudes and reported practices than men.
- The survey found that women's influence over family formation was limited. Further, women were generally limited in gaining permission to go out of the home.
- Women were significantly less likely to own household assets as compared with males, and had the greatest independent influence over how much income they earned themselves.
- The Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13 found that 68% of female respondents agreed with at least one justification for wife beating, and when it or other forms of domestic violence are viewed as unacceptable, it is considered a problem that should be dealt with in the household. Incidents in the broader category of gender-based violence including acid throwing, honor killing, and rape are underreported, and it is difficult to obtain population-based estimates. A woman who leaves her husband and his family will find a lack of shelter, health system and judicial system support, and possibly even support from her parents.
- The Constitution provides for universal suffrage, and women constitute 44%–45% of registered voters. However, data showing a breakdown of the total number of voters by males and females have not been released.

A. Introduction

Agency is defined as “the ability of individuals or groups to give voice to or act on preferences and to influence outcomes that affect them and others in society. Agency is affected by and also affects individuals’ ownership of and control over endowments and their access to economic opportunities.”⁴⁶ Women’s agency has intrinsic value for the woman, relates to other aspects of a woman’s well-being, contributes to improved well-being of the woman’s children, helps shape children’s future life choices and behavior related to gender relations, and can reshape social norms and laws if collectively expressed.⁴⁷

Agency is a difficult concept to measure, as preferences will vary across individuals, groups, and countries as will the legal and social space to express preferences. Further, the observed choice outcomes will reflect an individual’s human capital endowments and degree of economic opportunity. Nevertheless, agency may be assessed through proxy indicators at the household, community, provincial, and national levels.⁴⁸

B. Agency at the Household Level

1. Autonomy in Decision Making: Family Formation

Age at marriage. Early marriage for girls is linked to early pregnancy and poor pregnancy outcomes.⁴⁹ Pakistani law is clear that boys under 18 years of age cannot be married. However, only Sindh has passed legislation making the marriage of boys or girls aged under 18 years a crime. The minimum age of marriage for girls in other provinces remains 16 years. The PDHS 2012–13 estimated that 4.4% of females aged 15–24 years had been married by 15 years old, a figure that decreased significantly from the 19.9% of those aged 40–49 years who had been married by 15 years old.⁵⁰ Early marriage is significantly higher among girls who are uneducated and come from rural, poor households.

Choice of spouse. Article 4 of the Constitution indicates that “no person shall be prevented or be hindered in doing that which is not prohibited by law” and that “no person

46 N. Kabeer. 1999. The Conditions and Consequences of Choice: Reflections on the Measurement of Women’s Empowerment. *UNRISD Discussion Paper Series*. No. 108. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

47 World Bank. 2011. *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equity and Development*. Washington, DC.

48 Proxy indicators of agency at the household level may include autonomy in decision making over family formation; decision making on their own or children’s use of social services; and control over time, assets, and income. Proxy indicators of agency at the community level may include freedom of movement outside of the home or community, freedom from harassment at the workplace, and freedom from risk of violence. Proxy indicators of agency at the district, provincial, or national level may include participation in decision making regarding political representation; participation in public advocacy for greater gender equality in laws and institutions; and participation in collective action and bargaining regarding wages, nonwage benefits, and workplace protection from environmental or other hazards.

49 Female child marriage was significantly associated with high fertility, rapid repeat childbirth, unwanted pregnancy, and pregnancy termination. M. Nazrullah, et al. 2014. Girl Child Marriage and Its Effect on Fertility in Pakistan: Findings from Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey, 2006–2007. *Maternal Child Health Journal*. 18 (3). pp. 534–554. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23580067?dopt=Abstract>

50 The shift away from very early marriage is also confirmed by the fact that the median reported age of first marriage rose from 18.5 years for women aged 45–49 years to 20.9 years for females aged 25–29 years. National Institute of Population Studies and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

shall be compelled to do that which the Law does not require him to do.”⁵¹ The National Baseline Survey 2012 on gender perceptions⁵² found that 73% of Pakistani women, compared with 59% of men, agreed that women should have the right to “marry by choice.”⁵³ However, only 34% of either female or male respondents indicated that females in their households actually had the right to marry of their own choice.⁵⁴

Childbearing. Childbearing decisions, with regard to age of first pregnancy, spacing of pregnancies, and total number of children, impact a number of other household decisions.⁵⁵ The total fertility rate (i.e., the total number of children born to a woman) has declined in Pakistan from 5.4 children per woman (1985 to 1990), to 4.1 children (2006 to 2007), to 3.8 children (2010 to 2012).⁵⁶ During 2012–2013, urban households had, on average, 3.2 children, and rural households had 4.2 children. Both mothers and fathers indicated that they would like 4.0 children,⁵⁷ although the total number of children desired declines with the number and sex of children already born.⁵⁸ The median birth interval was 28 months, 1 month shorter than the PDHS estimates for 1990–1991 and 2006–2007.⁵⁹ There is only a 1-month difference in birth intervals between urban and rural areas and no significant difference in birth intervals after birth of a male compared with a female child.

Divorce. About 56% of female and 47% of male respondents to the National Baseline Survey 2012 agreed that women should have the right to demand that provisions for divorce be included in their *nikahnamas* (marriage contracts).⁶⁰ Views on this issue sharply diverge between females and males in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (67% of females to 27% of males). Only in Sindh do more men than women agree that women should have the right to have a provision for divorce included in the marriage certificate (53% of females to 61% of males). Despite supportive attitudes often voiced, divorce is not viewed favorably.

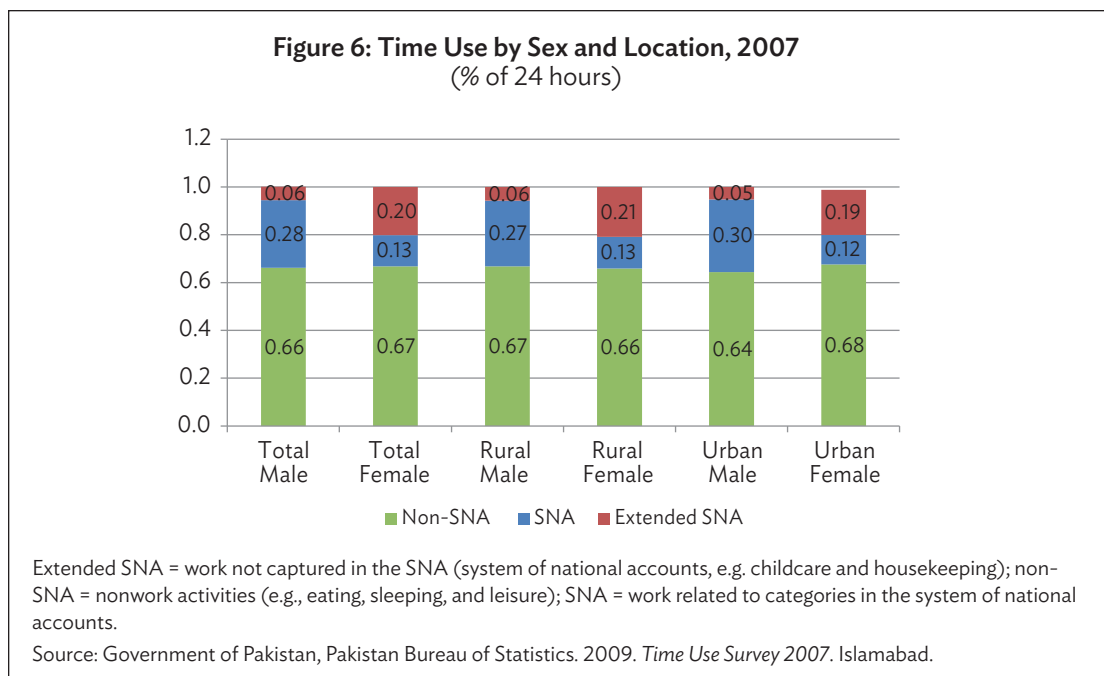
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- 51 Despite the Constitutional rights of choice of spouse, the courts have provided somewhat contradictory guidance on whether women even aged over 18 years require permission to marry. Specifically, the Lahore High Court held that an adult woman is required to obtain the permission of her father or a *wali* (guardian) to contract a valid marriage (PLD 1995, Lah. 364), whereas the Federal Sharia Court noted that “consent of *Wali* is not required and a *sui juris* Muslim female can enter a valid *Nikah*/Marriage by her own free will.” R. H. M. Patel. n. d. Family Laws and Judicial Perceptions. Unpublished. <http://www.supremecourt.gov.pk/ijc/articles/21/3.pdf>
- 52 The National Baseline Survey 2012 examined knowledge, attitudes, and practices of 11,200 adults (50% female and 50% male) from Balochistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, and Sindh to benchmark existing knowledge, attitudes, and practices with respect to women’s rights and access to justice and institutions, women’s empowerment, and all forms of GBV. The average age of respondents was between 45 and 59 years. Interviewees were selected through random sampling. Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Study*. 30 April. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation.
- 53 Among those who did not agree that women should have the right to marry a man of their own choice, 58.2% indicated that the choice was the “right of elders,” 26.2% felt that women would “make emotionally driven wrong decisions,” and 17.0% felt that women would “lose self-control.”
- 54 Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions: National Baseline Survey*.
- 55 For example, allocation of food within the household (and thus nutritional status), demand for own and children’s education, need for and utilization of health services, infant and maternal mortality, and availability for and hours spent in employment outside of performing daily household activities.
- 56 Over the same period, the total fertility rate of urban women declined from 4.9 to 3.2 children (–34.7%), and the total fertility rate of rural women has declined from 5.6 to 4.2 children (–25.0%).
- 57 Women indicated that they have, on average, one more child than the number desired. Nevertheless, the gap between desired and actual family size may fall in the future, as a substantial increase in planned births, 75%–84%, occurred between 2006 and 2012.
- 58 This is illustrated by the fact that when the number of children is two, 10.7% of women with two girls want no more children, in comparison with 37.3% of women with two boys. When the number of children increases to four, 43.9% of women with all girls want no more children, in comparison with over 85.0% of women with two or three boys.
- 59 The shortest birth intervals were estimated for children born to women aged 15–19 years or had lost a preceding child. The longest birth intervals were observed among children born to mothers in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (32 months) and women aged 40–49 years (38 months).
- 60 The *nikahnama* was introduced in the Muslim Family Law Ordinance of 1961. The *nikahnama* can include a clause that gives the woman a right to initiate divorce. If this clause is included, the woman, if providing evidence against her husband, can retain *haq mehr* (the obligatory gift given to the wife by the husband in consideration of marriage). If such a clause is not included in the *nikahnama*, then a woman may still initiate divorce through a *khula*, which does not require provision of evidence against her husband but results in loss of the woman’s right to *haq mehr*. M. Haq. 2012. What You Need to Know about the *Nikahnama*. *The Express Tribune*. 8 July. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/404557/what-you-need-to-know-about-the-nikahnama/>. In addition, a 2005 report cited a survey in which 75% of married women had no *nikahnama*, and most were not aware that one was required by law. Among the 25% who had a *nikahnama*, only 25% knew what was written in the document, meaning that they did not know if they could initiate a divorce. World Bank. 2005. *Pakistan Country Gender Assessment—Bridging the Gender Gap: Opportunities and Challenges*.

Divorced women are unlikely to receive economic support from their husbands, may be ostracized by their family and neighbors, and may be considered bad omens. The PDHS 2012–13 reported only 1.7% of ever-married women and 1.0% of ever-married men aged 15–49 years in the survey sample were divorced.⁶¹

2. Control over Resources

Time use. A time-use survey conducted in Pakistan in 2007 collected data in 19,380 households.⁶² The survey found that males and females reported spending 66% and 67% of their day, respectively, on activities such as eating, leisure, or sleeping. Males reported spending 28% of the day working on economic activities represented in the national system of accounts, and 6% of the day on activities such as childcare and housekeeping. In contrast, females reported spending about 13% of the day on economic activities, and 20% of the day on childcare and housekeeping. The survey did not find substantial differences in time allocation between residents of urban and rural areas (Figure 6).

The distribution of time for activities, such as eating, sleeping, hygiene, and physical exercise, was similar for both women and men. However, men reported spending more of their leisure time than women on community functions, while females reported allocating more of their leisure time to reading (including newspapers), watching television, and gossiping.



⁶¹ The PDHS 2006–07 reported that only 0.5% of female respondents aged 15–49 years in the survey sample were divorced.

⁶² Household members kept records for themselves and sometimes for others (e.g., for children or in tribal areas where heads of households recorded data for other household members) on their allocation of time.

Assets and inheritance. The Qur'an, Hadith, and other Islamic guidance indicate that women have a right to an inheritance. Further, Pakistan is a signatory to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Beijing Platform of Action (1995), both of which specify that women have a right to an inheritance.

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that a majority of male and female respondents supported women's right to an inheritance, 84% and 80%, respectively.⁶³ In practice, however, only 54% of women, compared with 71% of men, reported that women in the household actually had a share in inheritance.⁶⁴

The survey also inquired about ownership of assets and other household durables. Some assets are more likely to be acquired as a result of inheritance, and females were less likely to own these. Only 13.3% of females, compared with 68.9% of males, owned a home, shop, factory, or workshop; 4.5% of women, compared with 27.5% of men, owned a plot or agricultural land; and 8.9% of females, and 29.7% of males, owned gold or silver (Table 3).

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that 13.3% of females reported owning assets, compared with 68.9% of males. The assets most frequently reported as owned by women were homes, shops, factories, or workshops (13.3%); mobile telephones (9.1%); televisions (9.3%); and gold or silver (8.9%).⁶⁵ Women were least likely to have acquired the assets that they owned from their own earnings or savings, while 34.9% reported having received their assets from their husbands. Females' lack of ownership of a specific asset neither precludes them from being able to use the asset (e.g., a refrigerator or washing machine) nor precludes access to any income earned through ownership of the asset. However, lack of ownership may result in females having less influence over when they have access to use the asset, how the asset is used, or when it is bought or sold.⁶⁶

Financial decision making. The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that 70% of women, and 61% of men, agreed that women should participate in financial decision making. If they answered no, reasons cited included that it is "not a woman's business," "women lacked knowledge," and "women cannot make the appropriate decisions."

The PDHS 2012–13 included questions about who participated in financial decision making when either the wife or husband received cash earnings.⁶⁷ About 51.7% of women receiving cash earnings were the primary decision makers on use of their earnings, 35.0% decided with their husbands, and husbands or others made financial decisions in 9.7% and 3.1% of cases, respectively. Overall, married women who were older, had more children, had higher education, and/or who were in higher wealth quintiles were more likely to be the primary decision makers on use of their own wages. Women residing in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were

63 There was a high degree of concurrence on the question of a woman's right to an inheritance among female and male respondents in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, and Sindh. However, a significantly lower percentage of males than females in Balochistan expressed the view that women should share inheritance.

64 Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Survey*.

65 The PDHS 2012–13 reported that the majority of ever-married women did not own a house (89%) or land (96%) alone, jointly, or both alone and jointly.

66 Men were significantly more likely to own any type of asset than women and more likely to have acquired an asset through their own earnings or savings, with only 1.1% of males reporting owning an asset as a consequence of receiving it as a gift from their spouse.

67 Fifteen percent of married women reported earning the same or more than their husbands, with the proportion being highest in Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT) (33%). The proportion of married women that earn as much as or more than their husbands increases with age, education, and wealth, and is higher for urban women. Seventy-one percent of married women reported earning less than their husbands, and 14% reported that their husbands did have cash earnings.

Table 3: Asset Ownership by Assets and Sex, 2011/12
(%)

Type of Asset	Females	Males
Productive Assets		
Agricultural land	4.5	27.5
Cattle	3.3	26.4
Home, shop, factory, workshop	13.3	68.9
Durable Household Goods		
Air conditioner	0.9	4.0
Air cooler	1.5	10.4
Freezer	0.4	3.0
Refrigerator	4.9	31.6
Washing machine	7.2	37.2
Transport		
Car	0.9	4.6
Motorcycle	2.6	24.3
Communication and Information		
Mobile phone	9.1	52.8
Television	9.3	47.2
Other		
Gold, silver	8.9	29.7
Shares, bonds securities	0.7	2.9
Owned Any Asset	13.3	68.9
If Owned Asset, the Source		
Personal earnings, savings	14.1	68.1
From parents	19.5	22.0
Dowry ^a	23.8	3.8
From spouse	34.9	1.1
Other	7.9	4.9

Note: Females = 5,632, males = 5,641.

^a Dowry is property, such as money, jewelry, household amenities, and other possessions, that are traditionally provided by the bride's family when she gets married. Disputes regarding dowry often result to violence against women; a woman could face maltreatment and discrimination from her husband and in-laws if they feel she has not brought enough dowry. Sometimes husbands divorce their wives and keep her dowry, and remarry for additional dowry from the next wife.

Source: National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*. Islamabad: NIPS and Calverton, MD: ICF International. <http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR290/FR290.pdf>

most likely (59%), while women residing in Balochistan were least likely (18%) to be the primary decision makers on use of their own cash earnings.

The converse was found when married women were asked about who controls the husband's cash earnings. Married women reported that 40.3% of husbands made the decisions themselves, 48.4% made the decisions with their wives, and 9.4% and 1.8% had wives or others, respectively, who primarily controlled financial decision making. Women

who did work were more likely to jointly make decisions about use of the husband's wages as compared with women who did not work outside of the home.⁶⁸

C. Community Level

1. Freedom of Movement Outside of the Home or Community

Overall, the majority of Pakistani women are constrained from leaving the home, regardless of purpose, as they need the company of another and/or permission. Women's freedom to go out of the home varies considerably by the purpose of the trip. Over 70% of women are not allowed to leave the home to visit a bank, attend an NGO meeting, go to a job, or pursue an education.

Over 80% of those who are able to leave the house for these purposes do not need permission to do so.

Women have the greatest liberty to leave the home alone if the purpose is to visit neighbors (80.1%), although 66.2% of these women reported needing permission. Women are able to leave the home over 85% of the time to sell or purchase items, visit a hospital or doctor, or attend a wedding ceremony; however, only 50% of women who are able can do so alone, while the others must be in the company of another. Over 66% of women who are able to leave the house for these reasons must also have permission to do so (Table 4).

Table 4: Women Able to Leave Home by Purpose of Trip, 2011/12 (%)

Purpose	Can Go Out from Home					Total	Needing Permission	Cannot Go Out from Home
	Alone	With Child	With Adult Women	With Adult Men				
Meet neighbors	80.1	6.5	5.9	3.0	95.5	66.2	4.5	
Sell or purchase items	50.4	13.1	14.3	8.2	86.2	68.2	13.8	
Visit hospital or doctor	45.8	15.8	19.5	12.8	93.9	77.7	6.1	
Attend wedding	43.0	13.4	21.3	14.4	92.3	78.0	7.7	
Visit a bank	10.1	3.8	6.8	6.0	26.7	24.0	73.3	
Attend NGO meeting	6.5	1.8	3.5	3.1	14.9	13.1	85.1	
For job	6.8	1.8	3.8	3.5	15.9	14.5	84.1	
For education	8.4	2.2	4.2	3.8	18.6	17.1	84.4	
Visit other village or city for any work	18.2	6.8	13.7	16.6	55.3	48.0	44.7	

NGO = nongovernment organization.

Source: Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Study*. 30 April. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation.

⁶⁸ When husbands, rather than wives, were asked about who makes financial decisions in the household, somewhat different results were obtained.

2. Freedom to Work Outside of the Home

About 80% of females and 64% of male respondents to the National Baseline Survey 2012 indicated that women should work for a living. When respondents were asked if women needed permission to work, only 47% of females and 49% of males agreed. In fact, only 12% of females and 13% of males indicated that women in the household actually were working for a living.⁶⁹

3. Freedom from Harassment at the Workplace

No reliable information was identified concerning women's attitudes or experiences of harassment at the workplace.

4. Freedom from Risk of Violence

GBV in Pakistan pervades class, religion, and ethnicity, and prevails in both urban and rural areas. GBV includes a range of violent acts committed by men against women within the context of women's subordinate status within homes, communities, and society. GBV in Pakistan includes bonded labor, domestic violence, human trafficking, sexual violence, and traditional harmful practices.

National legislation relevant to improvement of protection for women in cases of GBV includes the Women's Protection Act 2006 and Acid Crimes and Control Act 2011.⁷⁰ Although Pakistan's Penal Code now has provisions to address cases of rape and acid throwing, no national law covers all forms of GBV. The Domestic Violence (Protection and Prevention) Act 2012 and Sindh Domestic Violence (Protection and Prevention) Act 2013 established domestic violence as a crime and penalties for residents of the ICT⁷¹ and Sindh.

Implementation of GBV-related laws is weak for several reasons. Women and/or their families do not report cases of GBV due to feelings of shame or fear of stigma and/or subsequent harm. Police have very limited resources for responding to cases of GBV, and police may not report or incorrectly report cases of GBV as they are often viewed as family matters. Further, medical and legal providers and police do not have training to recognize signs of GBV or how to provide medical and psychological support to victims, while both police and judges tend to be male and may also be bribed. Prosecutions of GBV cases are lengthy, and victims or their families often seek redress through more traditional forms of dispute resolution.

The Gender Crime Cell established within the National Police Bureau in 2006 to gather, collate, and analyze data on GBV does not widely publicize its data; thus, these are not available to policy makers, program administrators, the media, or funding or service provision agencies.

⁶⁹ These findings are in line with earlier data that only 15.9% of women are allowed to go out of the home for a job.

⁷⁰ Women are a majority of the victims of acid attacks resulting in permanent disfigurement and disabilities. Their attackers are usually spurned men, husbands, or in-laws who are motivated by perceptions stemming from displeasure, dishonor, to hatred.

⁷¹ To date, no resources have been allocated for its implementation, and no data are available regarding whether any prosecutions in the ICT have taken place under this act. Adam Smith International. <http://www.adamsmithinternational.com/>

5. Domestic Violence

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that an average of 15% of female and 18% of male respondents agreed that husbands had the right to hit their wives. Only 12% of both Punjab females and males agreed that men have the right to hit women. Women in other provinces believed that men had the right to hit women.

In practice, 15% of female and 12% of male respondents to the National Baseline Survey 2012 indicated that men have hit women in the household. Balochistan respondents had the highest proportions of respondents who indicated that men have hit women in the household (females 39%, males 23%).⁷²

The PDHS 2012–13 asked ever-married women and their husbands if a husband would be justified in hitting his wife if she (i) burned the food, (ii) argued with him, (iii) went out of the home without informing him first, (iv) neglected their children, (v) refused to have sexual intercourse, or (vi) neglected her in-laws.

Rural and urban ever-married women were more likely than ever-married men to agree with any justification for domestic violence. Rural women were more likely than urban women to agree with any justification. The smallest percentage of respondents agreed that burning of food justified domestic violence, whereas the percentages and distribution of agreement by rural and urban females and males for all other reasons were similar (Figure 7).

Levels of acceptance of at least one justification for domestic violence were nearly equivalent between females and males in the ICT (about 20%), Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (about 70%), and Sindh (about 40%). Acceptance of abuse for at least one justification was lower among females than males only in Balochistan (about 50% versus 65%) whereas acceptance for at least one justification was higher among females than males in Punjab (about 35% versus about 20%) (Figure 8).⁷³

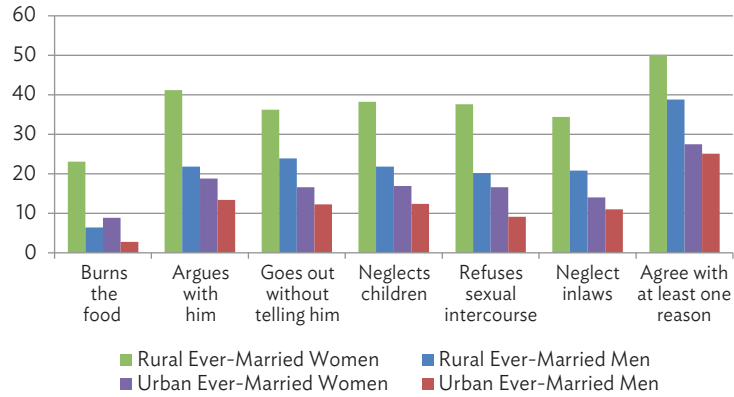
Women older than 20 years old, unemployed, residing in urban areas, with more years of education, and in the highest wealth quintile were least likely to agree with at least one justification for wife beating. Men employed for cash wages, with higher education, and in the highest wealth quintile were least likely to agree with at least one reason. Age was not a factor in whether men agreed, suggesting that their attitudes are developed within their families and social groups and were not influenced by youth programs or mass media campaigns.

About 32% of women who did not accept any justification for abuse reported experiencing domestic violence. About 42% of women who accepted one or two reasons, 51% who

72 The National Baseline Survey 2012 reported that the percentages of women abused by men were considerably lower than those reported in the PDHS 2012–13. The differences illustrate the difficulty of obtaining accurate estimates of domestic violence, given the lack of acknowledgment of abuse as a problem and, until recently, the lack of any definition of domestic violence in Pakistani law.

73 PDHS 2012–13 estimates of acceptance of justification for domestic violence are higher than those in the National Baseline Survey. Reasons for this difference may include the larger sample size of the PDHS and/or inquiring about the number of possible justifications for domestic violence, leading respondents to provide more accurate responses than to a single generic question in the National Baseline Survey.

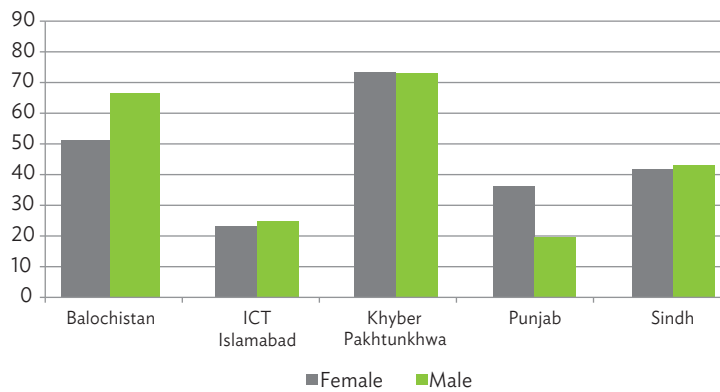
Figure 7: Agreement of Ever-Married Women and Men with Justifications for Wife Beating, by Rural or Urban Residence, 2012 (%)



Note: Ever-married women or ever-married men.

Source: National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS and Calverton, MD: ICF International. <http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR290/FR290.pdf>

Figure 8: Agreement of Ever-Married Women and Men with at Least One Reason for Wife Beating by Province, 2012 (%)



ICT = Islamabad Capital Territory.

Source: National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012-13*. Islamabad: NIPS and Calverton, MD: ICF International. <http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR290/FR290.pdf>

accepted three or four reasons, and 50% who agreed with five or all six justifications reported experiencing domestic violence.⁷⁴

Aware Girls conducted a nonrandomized survey using a social media platform on attitudes toward violence against women. The survey report did not note the number of respondents (although it indicates the survey was small) or their characteristics (e.g., age, income, province, or sex). About 36% said it was acceptable for husbands to beat their wives, 11% said that husbands had the right to beat their wives, 25% stated that a husband could occasionally beat his wife, and 14% said it was unacceptable for men to ever beat their wives. Agreement with justifications for wife beating included a wife disobeying her husband (52%), a wife not taking care of the husband (26%), a wife going out without the husband's permission (21%), and a wife visiting a male doctor without the husband's permission (9%).

About 6% believed that domestic violence is not a serious issue, and "wives needed to compromise." About 21% of respondents indicated that domestic violence issues should be resolved within the home, as going to court could ruin the family's honor. However, 33% did say that women should seek legal help in serious cases of domestic violence, while 8% did not support women seeking legal help in any case of domestic violence. Despite the views that domestic violence cases should be resolved in the home, 62% of respondents indicated that husbands should be punished for hitting or verbally abusing their wives, while 10% said that they should not be punished. About 92% of respondents indicated that legislation is needed to protect victims of domestic violence.⁷⁵

6. All Forms of Gender-Based Violence: Aurat Foundation

Since 2008, the Aurat Foundation has published an annual report on the number of cases of GBV reported in Pakistan media. Reliance on media-reported cases of GBV may give a biased view of the incidence and prevalence of various forms of GBV in any year and over time as victims of GBV often do not report the incident to the police. In addition, print media reporting reflects the interests of readership as perceived by editors who assign reporters to specific issues to cover and select stories to include in each edition.⁷⁶ This affects not only the number of cases reported, but also the types of cases selected for publication. Details about reported cases are incomplete in terms of age, marital status, literacy, socioeconomic status, urban or rural residence, and other characteristics, making these data inadequate in developing priorities and plans for reduction and mitigation of GBV.⁷⁷ Despite these shortcomings, the Aurat Foundation data are the only dataset that

74 The United Nations defines domestic violence as any act of GBV that results in physical, sexual, or mental harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. The same definition has been adopted by Pakistan's Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights. NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012-13*.

75 Aware Girls and Young Feminists Movement. 2014. *Survey on the Perceptions and Attitudes of People towards Domestic Abuse in Pakistan*. Peshawar. <http://www.awaregirls.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Survey-Report-VAW.pdf>

76 Many of the districts with higher literacy rates (e.g., Chakwal, DG Khan, Faisalabad, Gujarat, Gujranwala, Lahore, Multan, Muzaffargarh, Okara, Pak Pattan, Rawalpindi, Shaiwal, Sargodha, Sheikhpura, and Sialkot) are also among those with the highest reported number of cases of GBV. R. Perveen. 2012. *Beyond Denial: Annual Report 2012 - Violence against Women in Pakistan, A qualitative review of reported incidents*. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation. http://creativeangerbyrakhshi.com/resources/policy/beyond_denial.pdf

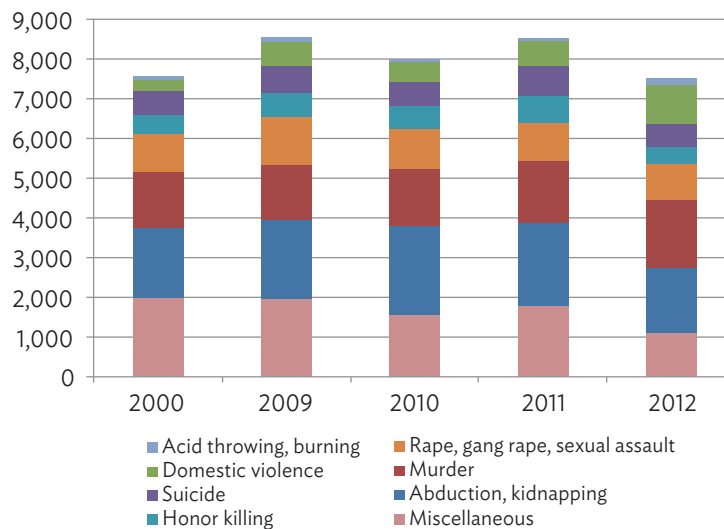
77 For example, in 2012, 2,103 of the reported victims of GBV were married, 1,589 were unmarried, and information was not available about the marital status of the remaining victims. No information was available about the age of more than 68% of GBV victims, but at least 18% of total victims were below 18 years old. Only 55% of the total GBV cases reported in the media were registered with the police, 13% were unregistered, and information was unavailable about the remainder of the cases.

utilizes common definitions and methodology for tracking cases of GBV over time and thus adds value to the periodic population-based surveys that tend to ask less detailed questions about GBV.

The total number of GBV cases reported between 2009 and 2011 was higher than in 2008 and 2012. However, it is unclear whether this increase indicated a higher incidence of violence,⁷⁸ an increased tendency for the victims to report the violence, and/or an increased tendency for the media to report GBV. Abductions and murders have made up the most frequently reported cases of GBV, and patterns have remained relatively constant over time (Figure 9).

Patterns of reported cases of GBV in 2012, when considered by province, are quite different. Punjab's reported GBV cases, comprising 63% of Pakistan's total cases, show a similar pattern to the distribution of GBV cases for the country as a whole. Balochistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa show significantly higher proportions of murder and honor killings⁷⁹ than Punjab. Abduction is the most frequently reported form of GBV in the ICT and is higher compared with the other provinces (Figure 10).

Figure 9: Gender-Based Violence by Type of Violence, 2008–2012

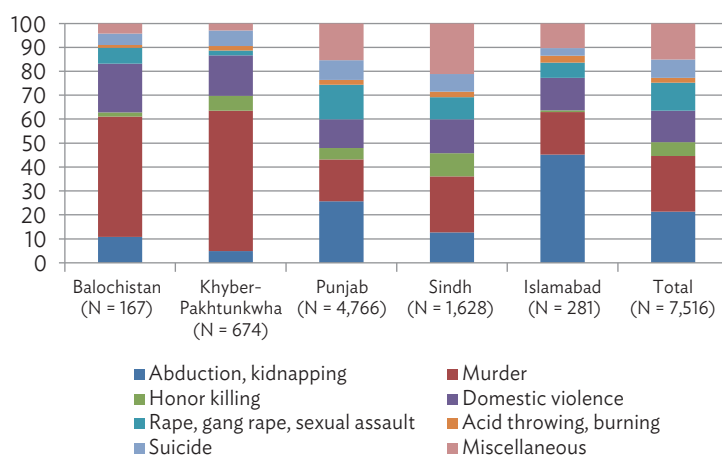


Sources: N. Azhar. 2011. *Annual Report: Violence against Women in Pakistan. A Qualitative Review of Statistics 2011*. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation. <http://www.af.org.pk/PDF/VAW%20Reports%20AND%20OPR/Violence%20Against%20Women%20Annual%20Report%202011.pdf>; and R. Perveen. 2012. *Beyond Denial: Annual Report 2012 – Violence against women in Pakistan: A qualitative review of reported incidents*. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation. Also available at http://creativeangerbyrakhshi.com/resources/policy/beyond_denail.pdf

⁷⁸ These were years of population disruption due to floods, internal and external conflict, and reduced employment in the Middle East due to the global financial crisis.

⁷⁹ Honor killing – when a person (usually a woman) is killed, either by her own family, or on the orders of a *jirga* (assembly of tribal elders), for bringing dishonor to the family, tribe, or clan, because of adultery, marrying someone of her own choice, or for any other exhibition of behavior deemed unacceptable by her family or community.

Figure 10: Gender-Based Violence by Type of Violence by Province and Total, 2012 (%)



Source: R. Perveen. 2012. *Beyond Denial: Annual Report 2012 – Violence against women in Pakistan: A qualitative review of reported incidents*. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation. http://creativeangerbyrahkshi.com/resources/policy/beyond_denial.pdf

7. Factors Associated with Gender-Based Violence

Women who were more likely to report experiencing domestic violence included those (i) not currently married (e.g., divorced, separated, or widowed); (ii) having grown up in homes where mothers were beaten; (iii) married to older men (10 or more years); (iv) employed but not for cash; and (v) having less than a higher secondary education.

Perpetrators of domestic violence were usually husbands, former husbands, or in-laws. Characteristics of males more likely to inflict emotional or physical violence on women included those who tried to monitor and control many aspects of their wives' behavior; engaged in substance abuse, especially alcohol; and were unemployed or experiencing financial stress. Households in which domestic violence was more likely to occur were those with larger numbers of children, having adults who had grown up in households where violence against women or children had occurred, and in the lowest income quintiles.⁸⁰

8. Services for Victims of Gender-Based Violence

Prior to the 18th Amendment, the Ministry of Women Development set up 26 crisis centers to provide services to victims of violence and *darul amans* (women's shelters) for women affected by GBV or other problems that made living with their families difficult for emotional or physical safety reasons. After devolution, the Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights has continued to provide financing for 24 crisis centers, as some provincial governments' commitment to finance the crisis centers and *darul amans* is weak.

⁸⁰ NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

D. Civic and Political Participation

1. Registration and Voting

The Pakistan Ordinance (1947), establishing Pakistan's nationhood, granted full suffrage to women. The Interim Constitution of Pakistan (1953) reaffirmed the right of women to vote in national elections. Then, Pakistan's Constitution (1973) Article 25 indicated that "there shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex alone," and Article 34 indicated that "... steps shall be taken to ensure full participation of women in all spheres of national life." Pakistan is a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952), which included full suffrage for women.

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that 93% of females and 90% of males agreed that women should exercise their right to vote. The lowest levels of agreement for both females and males were recorded in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (females 87%, males 84%).

From 2002 to 2013, the percentage of the estimated voting population registered to vote declined from 93.1% to 73.9%. The ratio of women to the total number of persons registered to vote declined from 46.1% in 2006 to 43.6% in 2013, suggesting that barriers to voter registration disproportionately affected women. Barriers included impacts of conflict, the 2005 earthquake, and the 2010 and 2011 floods. In addition, women face barriers, such as lack of a computerized national identity card, restricted mobility, and/or threats of physical violence or imposition of fines, should they register to vote.

On a provincial basis, women as a percentage of registered voters increased slightly in the ICT and Sindh, while declining by 1.2% in Punjab and 3.3 percentage points in Balochistan. Lack of disaggregated data for the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in 2008 makes it difficult to determine trends in women's registration in these provinces; however, it is clear that registration of women as a proportion of total registered voters in FATA is significantly lower than in other provinces (Table 5).

Although the overall percentage of eligible voters who are registered to vote declined between 2002 and 2013, the voter turnout rate increased from 41.8% to 55.0%. To date, the Election Commission of Pakistan has not released data showing a breakdown of the total number of voters by males and females, despite calls from the NCSW and other women's organizations to do so. In addition to the general constraints on women's movement outside of the home, in some tribal areas, women and/or their families are threatened with physical harm to themselves or their property if women exercise their right to vote.⁸¹

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that 71% of females and 88% of males surveyed reported that women in their households had participated in the last election (2008). Reported participation rates were lowest for Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. The level of participation appears to be much higher than the overall turnout rates reported by the Election Commission of Pakistan for the 2008 election, although additional analysis is needed to ascertain reasons for the discrepancy.

⁸¹ Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*.

Table 5: Women as a Percentage of Registered Voters, 2006, 2008, and 2013

	2006	2008			2013		
	Women (% of total)	Women	Total	%	Women	Total	%
National	46.1	35,603,778	80,910,291	44.0	37,597,415	86,189,802	43.6
Federal		221,104	482,801	45.8	288,064	625,964	46.0
Balochistan		2,004,639	4,363,610	45.9	1,421,271	3,336,659	42.6
Federally Administered Tribal Areas		4,761,362	12,071,538	39.4	596,079	1,738,313	34.3
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa					5,257,624	12,266,157	42.9
Punjab		20,004,376	44,485,869	45.0	21,561,633	49,259,334	43.8
Sindh		8,612,297	19,506,473	44.2	8,472,744	18,963,375	44.7

Source: Aurat Foundation. 2003. *Legislative Watch*. 18–19 (February); Aurat Foundation. 2008. *Legislative Watch*. 23 (January–March 2008); and Aurat Foundation. 2013. *Legislative Watch*. 41 (March–December 2013). <http://www.af.org.pk/Newsletters/Newsletter%2023.pdf>

2. Representation

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found that 74% of females and 60% of males agreed that women should participate in political activities. Overall, females were more likely than males to agree that women should participate in politics. Women's actual participation in political arenas is driven by the percentage of seats reserved in federal and provincial assemblies and local government for women, but women's impact on political processes or decisions has not been documented extensively in Pakistan. The exception is passage of legislation on issues of concern to women, such as making child marriage a crime and providing protection against harassment in the workplace, as these are often credited to women in the legislatures.

V. Gender Dimensions of Human Capital

Key Findings

- Pakistan has made progress in reducing infant, child, and maternal mortality, but it is unlikely that it will achieve its health-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015.
- Pakistan's sex ratio at birth of 108.5 indicates that households have son preference, which results in lower female survival during pregnancy, infancy, or childhood.
- The PDHS 2012–13 estimated that no significant differences were found between girls and boys in the incidence of fever, acute respiratory infection, or diarrhea; boys had higher infant and child mortality rates than girls; boys were more likely to be underweight and/or stunted than girls; and boys were more likely to receive all childhood vaccinations, be taken to a health provider when having a fever or acute respiratory infection and receive antibiotics for these conditions, and receive packaged oral rehydration therapy in cases of diarrhea.
- Pakistan's maternal mortality ratio was estimated at 276 deaths per 100,000 live births with reductions over time, correlated with increased use of antenatal services and supervised delivery by trained birth attendants and at health facilities. Lower maternal mortality ratios were also correlated with increased age of pregnancy, years of mothers' education, and household wealth.
- Pakistan has made progress in increasing adult literacy, primary net enrollment, and primary school completion rates. Further, Pakistan has made progress in improving gender parity at primary and secondary schools as well as in youth literacy. However, Pakistan's progress has not been sufficient for it to reach its education or education-related gender equality MDGs by 2015.
- Disparities in Pakistan's level and pace of improvement in educational indicators (including those for gender gaps in education) are evident when comparing province of residence, rural versus urban residence, and wealth quintile of the household. In addition, the educational achievement of the mother has a significant relationship to the enrollment and completion of education by girls.
- Comparison of test results for girls and boys aged 5–16 years in basic reading, writing, and arithmetic tasks showed that girls did not perform as well as boys.
- Unemployment is higher among women than men who have achieved the same level of grade completion. These higher rates of unemployment, coupled with lower average wages, serve as a disincentive to poor households to educate girls, as the returns to education are lower.

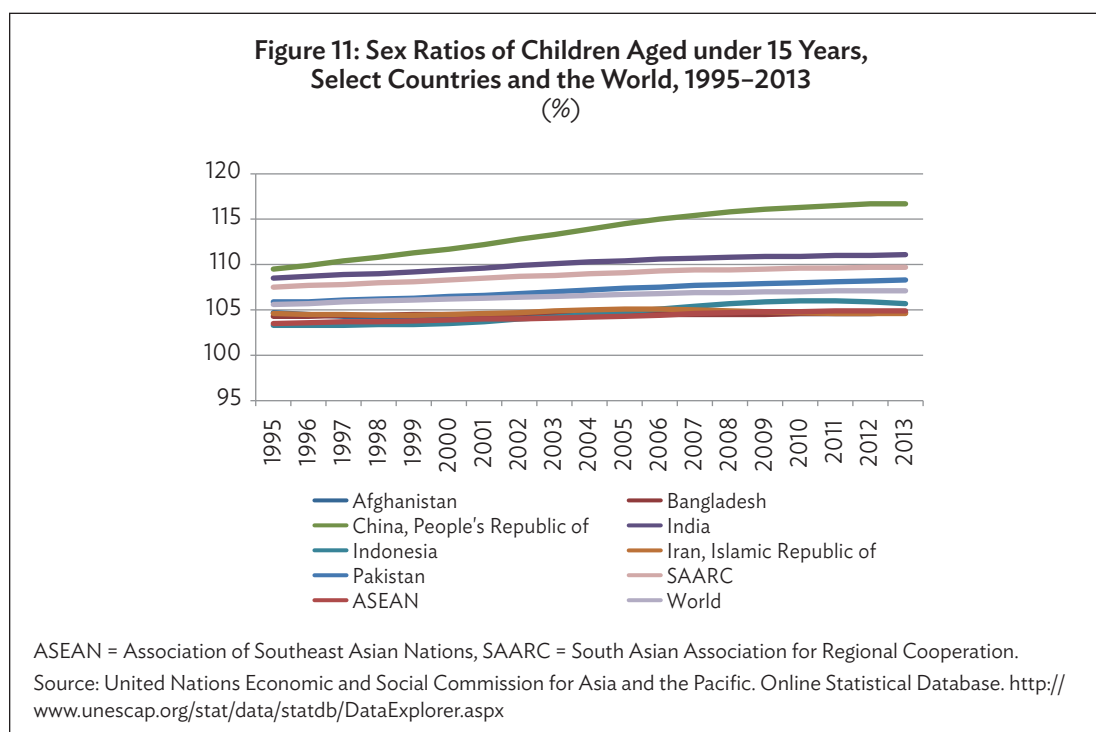
A. Population, Health, and Nutrition

1. Sex Ratio

Pakistan's 2011 census documented a ratio of 108.5 males to 100.0 females.⁸² This ratio signals some degree of son preference⁸³ among households, resulting in sex-selective pressures that reduce the number of girls that survive pregnancy, infancy, or childhood.⁸⁴ However, it is incorrect to conclude that there has been a decrease in son preference over time. The male-to-female ratio for children aged under 15 years for select Asian countries shows an increase since 1995, with the sharpest increases in the People's Republic of China, followed by India and Pakistan. These trends indicate that son preference is increasingly being expressed in practices that discriminate against female children (Figure 11).

2. Infant and Child Health Millennium Development Goals and Gender

Pakistan has made progress to achieving the health-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The infant mortality rate has declined from 102 to 74 deaths per 1,000 live births, and the under-5-years mortality rate declined from 117 to 89 deaths per 1,000 live



⁸² It has been asserted that in Asia, son preference contributes to “missing women,” or women who would be alive today, because son preference gave rise to discrimination that contributed to females’ poorer survival rate during pregnancy, infancy, or early childhood. The latest estimate of “missing women” in Pakistan was 6.1 million in 2007. A. M. Spevacek, E. Kim, and N. Mustafa. 2013. *Pakistan Gender Overview*.

⁸³ Son preference is commonly observed in South Asia, where systems of social protection for the elderly neither exist nor have been widely developed, as male children are expected to provide financial and other support to their elderly parents.

⁸⁴ Sex-selective pressures can include abortion (usually following determination of a fetus’s sex based on an ultrasound), abandonment, lack of adequate feeding, and/or lack of adequate care of infant girls contributing to higher rates of infant mortality.

births between 1990–1991 and 2012–2013. Pakistan, however, is unlikely that its 2015 MDG health-related targets were achieved.

When disaggregated by sex, Pakistan's infant mortality rate was 79 for girls and 82 for boys. The higher infant mortality rate for boys is due to male biological weaknesses during the first month after birth.⁸⁵ Pakistan's under-5-years mortality rate was 96 for girls and 98 for boys.⁸⁶ Factors associated to gender-related differences include the following:

- (i) **Underweight.** According to the PDHS 2012–13, 30.0% of children aged under 5 years were underweight, and 9.7% were severely underweight. Male children were more likely to be underweight (33%) compared with female children (27%).⁸⁷
- (ii) **Stunting.** When the period of nutritional deficiency is more than transient, children become stunted.⁸⁸ The PDHS 2012–13 found that 44.8% of children were more than two standard deviations below, and an additional 23.7% were more than three standard deviations below the normal height-for-age standard measures. Boys were more likely to be stunted than girls (47.9% versus 41.7%) and more likely to be severely stunted (26.2% versus 21.4%).⁸⁹
- (iii) **Postnatal care.** About 57.2% of children received no postnatal check-up within the first 2 days after birth, while 34.3% were taken to a doctor, nurse, or lady health visitor, and another 8.3% were seen by a *dai* (traditional birth attendant). The PDHS 2012–13 did not report any difference in postnatal care-seeking for infants by sex of the infant.
- (iv) **Immunization.** The government's Expanded Programme on Immunization provides all of the World Health Organization-recommended antigens: bacille Calmette-Guerin (tuberculosis); diphtheria, pertussis, and tetanus; oral polio; and measles.⁹⁰ The PDHS 2012–13 found that boys were more likely to be fully immunized than girls, 56% versus 52%.⁹¹
- (v) **Acute respiratory infection.** In the PDHS 2012–13, mothers stated that 15.9% of children under 5 years old reported symptoms of acute respiratory infection during the 2 weeks preceding the survey. The prevalence of symptoms did not differ by the sex of the child. About 64.4% of children with acute respiratory infection symptoms were taken to a health facility or provider. There was no significant difference in care-seeking behavior for boys or girls. Antibiotics were given to 41.5% of children with acute respiratory infection symptoms. Provision of antibiotics did not vary significantly by the age or sex of the child.⁹²

85 Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*.

86 Estimates of the infant mortality rate and under-5-years mortality rate also differ by rural and urban residence and household wealth, the age of the mother at birth, educational level of the mother, birth order of the child, and birth spacing.

87 Other socioeconomic factors related to children being underweight are rural (33%) versus urban (24%) residence; children living in Sindh (42%) compared with Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (10%), Punjab (10%), and the ICT (14%); being born to underweight mothers (44%) compared with mothers who are overweight or obese (19%); being born to mothers with no education (39%) than those with higher education (10%); and living in the poorest households (48%) compared with the wealthiest households (16%).

88 Observations of high percentages of stunting are of concern, as stunting often accompanies lower development of cognitive abilities and greater probability of illness at older ages. Further, stunting is not reversible through better nutrition at older ages.

89 Rural children were found to be more likely to be stunted than urban children (48.2% versus 37.2%) and to be severely stunted (26.0% versus 18.7%). Other characteristics of children more likely to be stunted are the same as for those found to be underweight (although the percentages may vary).

90 The PDHS 2012–13 found that 85% and 61% of children received the bacille Calmette-Guerin and measles vaccines, respectively. About 79% and 92% of children received the first doses of the diphtheria, pertussis, and tetanus, and polio vaccines, respectively, but only 65% and 85% of the same children received the third doses of diphtheria, pertussis, and tetanus, and polio, respectively. About 5% of children were found not to have received any vaccine at all.

91 Only one-third of children aged 12–23 months were found to have a vaccination card. NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

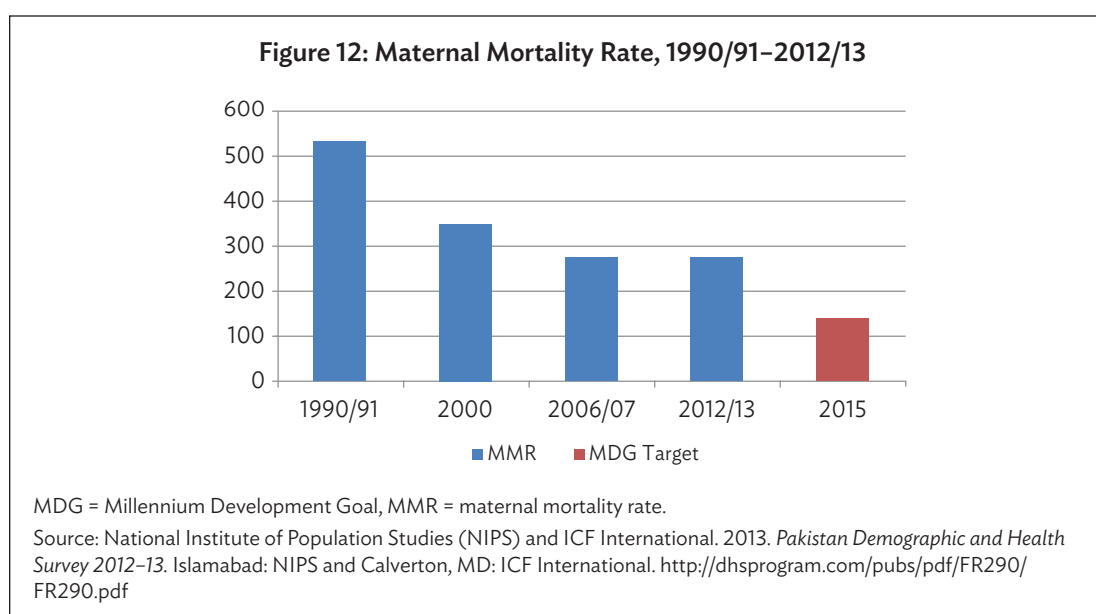
92 NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

- (vi) **Diarrhea.** The reported incidence of diarrhea in the PDHS 2012–13 did not differ by the sex of the child or the type of toilet facility, but was higher among households using a non-improved source of drinking water (e.g., surface water or unprotected well). Holding other factors constant, boys were more likely than girls to be taken to a provider for diarrhea, and boys were more likely than girls to be treated with prepackaged oral rehydration therapy.

3. Maternal Mortality Millennium Development Goal

Pakistan's maternal mortality rate (i.e., the number of deaths among every 100,000 women occurring during childbirth or pregnancy in any given year), fell from 533 during 1990–1991 to 276 during 2012–2013.⁹³ This decline parallels increases in women's reported use of at least one antenatal care visit from 27.5% to 75.5%; supervised delivery with a doctor, nurse, lady health visitor, or other skilled birth attendant from 35.4% to 52.1%; and delivery at a health facility from 13.5% to 48.2%. There were no reductions in maternal mortality rate estimates between 2006–2007 and 2012–2013, making it unlikely that Pakistan will reach the MDG target of 140 deaths per 100,000 live births (Figure 12).

Factors associated with the increased likelihood of having a skilled birth attendant present at the time of delivery include women who are under 20 years old and giving birth for the first time. Factors associated with a higher probability of delivering in a health facility include women who are under 35 years old and have higher numbers of antenatal visits. Factors associated with women having a higher likelihood of having a skilled birth attendant and/or delivering in a facility include urban residence, more years of education, and living in a household in higher wealth quintiles. Provincial analysis shows a wide range



⁹³ Maternal mortality rate estimates for each province in 2012–2013 were Balochistan (785), Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (275), Punjab (227), and Sindh (314). NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

Table 6: Distribution of Health Care Use by Sex and Type of Care, 2011–2012

Type of Care	Males	Females	Total
Inpatient	49.1	50.9	100.0
Outpatient	45.9	54.1	100.0
Self-medication	45.4	54.6	100.0
Total	45.7	54.3	100.0

Source: Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2014. *Pakistan National Health Accounts 2011–12*. Islamabad.

of use of a skilled birth attendant or delivery at a health facility, reflecting combinations of the underlying characteristics of women and households as well as availability of health facilities and personnel.

4. Health-Seeking Behavior

Women consumed 54.3% of all health-related services used by adults in a 4-week period, compared with 45.7% used by males (Table 6).

Women's greater use of health services does not reflect greater independence in seeking health care. The PDHS 2012–13 found that 51.9% of women, compared with 75.1% of men, indicated that they had participated in decision making concerning their use of health services for themselves.⁹⁴ Females cited a number of difficulties in obtaining health services (in declining order): (i) not wanting to go to the health facility alone, (ii) arranging or managing transport, (iii) distance to facility, (iv) getting money for treatment, and (v) getting permission to seek treatment.⁹⁵ On the supply side, those who use public sector health facilities often experience poor quality due to absenteeism, poor equipment, and lack of basic drugs and consumables.⁹⁶

B. Education

1. Adult Literacy

The literacy of adult females rose by 16 percentage points, from 32% to 48%, and for males by 13 percentage points, from 58% to 71% between 2001–2002 and 2012–2013.⁹⁷ The literacy rates of males aged 10 years or older increased by 12% to 15% in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, and Sindh, while in Balochistan, this figure increased by only 9%.

94 Decision making on the use of health services was lowest among women in Balochistan (24.8%), followed by Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (35.3%), Sindh (51.7%), and Punjab (58.3%). Women were more likely to participate in decision making regarding use of health care services for themselves if they were educated and older, as well as residing in urban areas and from households in higher wealth quintiles.

95 Overall, a lower percentage of women in Punjab reported difficulties in obtaining health services than in other provinces, regardless of reason for difficulty.

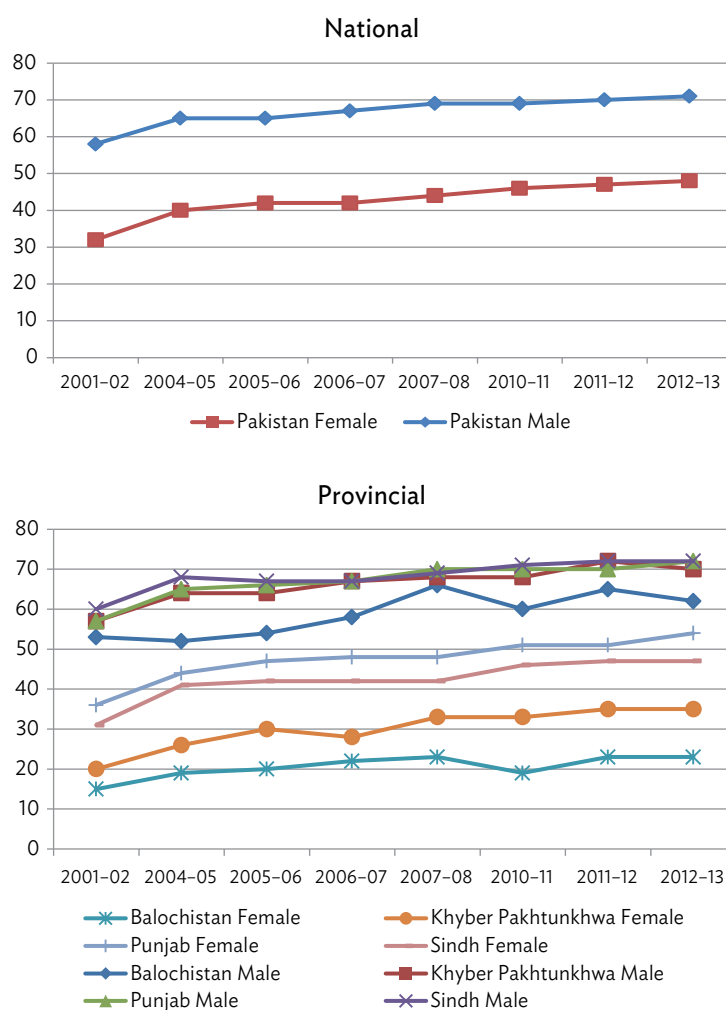
96 For example, the absentee rate for doctors was 50% in Balochistan and 45% in Sindh basic health units (BHUs) and 46% in Sindh rural health centers (RHCs). In Sindh, only 50% of BHUs and RHCs had equipment necessary to carry out deliveries, while antibiotics were available in only 12% of RHCs and 22% of BHUs. Oral rehydration salts were available in only 33% of BHUs and RHCs. World Bank. 2010. *Delivering Better Health Services to Pakistan's Poor*. Washington, DC. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/12369>

97 Trading Economics. Literacy Rate: Youth Female (% of Females Ages 15–24) in Pakistan. <http://www.tradingeconomics.com/pakistan/literacy-rate-youth-female-percent-of-females-ages-15-24-wb-data.html>

The starting levels and rates of change in literacy rates of females aged 10 years and older by province were quite diverse. In Balochistan, literacy was 15.0% during 2001–2002, increasing to 23.8% during 2012–2013, whereas adult female literacy was 31% in Punjab during 2001–2002, increasing to 46% during 2012–2013 (Figure 13). Increases in adult literacy rates reflect rises in enrollment and acquisition of reading and writing skills in primary school and, to a lesser extent, adult literacy programs. Despite improvements in adult literacy, Pakistan is unlikely to achieve its MDG literacy rate target of 88% by 2015.

Figure 13: Female and Male Literacy Rates, 2001–2013

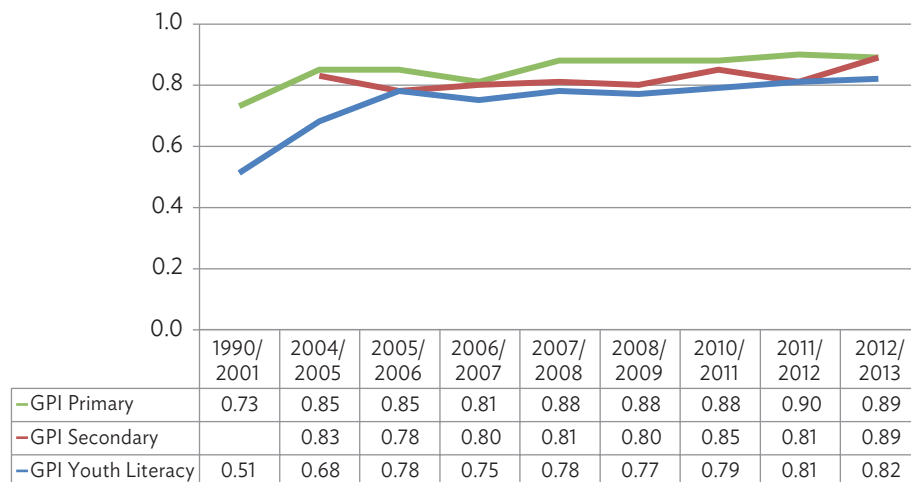
(%)



Note: Refers to those aged over 10 years.

Sources: Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2005b. *Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey, 2004–05*. Islamabad; Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2013. *Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey, 2011–12, National/Provincial*. Islamabad.

Figure 14: Gender Parity Index Trends, 1990/01–2012/13
(%)



GPI = Gender Parity Index.

Source: E. Mujahid-Mukhtar. n. d. *Situation Analysis of the Education Sector*. Islamabad: UNESCO Pakistan.

http://unesco.org.pk/education/documents/situationanalysis/National_Final_Report_Education_Policy_Analysis.pdf

2. Gender Parity Indexes

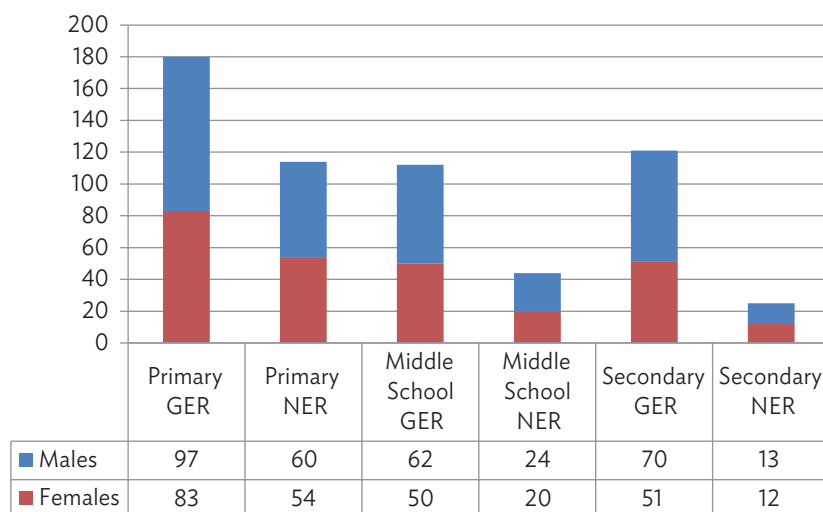
Gender parity indexes (i.e., the ratio of enrolled girls to enrolled boys at a given educational level) provide a measure of gender equality in education. Pakistan achieved significant increases in youth literacy and primary school gender parity between 1990 and 2012, and modest increases in the secondary education gender parity between 2004 and 2013 (Figure 14). Pakistan, however, is unlikely to achieve its MDG gender parity targets by 2015.

3. Gross and Net Enrollment Rates

During 2012–2013, the gross enrollment rates and net enrollment rates by grade level consistently showed disparities by sex. However, the disparities in net enrollment rates compared with gender enrollment rates were smaller, suggesting that fewer girls repeat each year level (Figure 15).

Rural net enrollment rates were lower than urban net enrollment rates throughout Pakistan, and the gap between rural and urban rates increased by grade level. Considering enrollment by year level and by province, female numbers, as a proportion of total students, declined from early childhood education to degree-level education for Pakistan as a whole. Declines in females as a percentage of total enrollment by year level were particularly evident at the secondary and post-secondary degree levels in Balochistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. In Punjab and Sindh, females made up more than half of all students in higher education and degree programs (Figure 16).

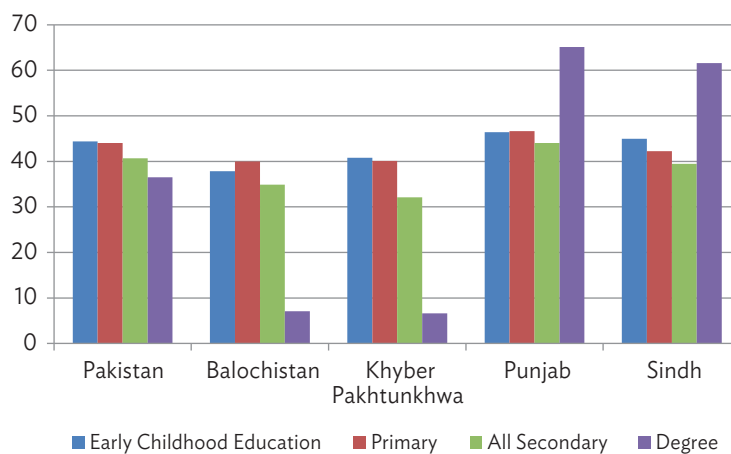
Figure 15: Primary, Middle, and Secondary Gross Enrollment Rates and Net Enrollment Rates, Females and Males, 2011-2012 (%)



GER = gross enrollment rate, NER = net enrollment rate.

Source: Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2013. *Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey, 2011-12*. Islamabad.

Figure 16: Females as a Percentage of Total Enrollment by Educational Level by Province, 2012-2013 (%)



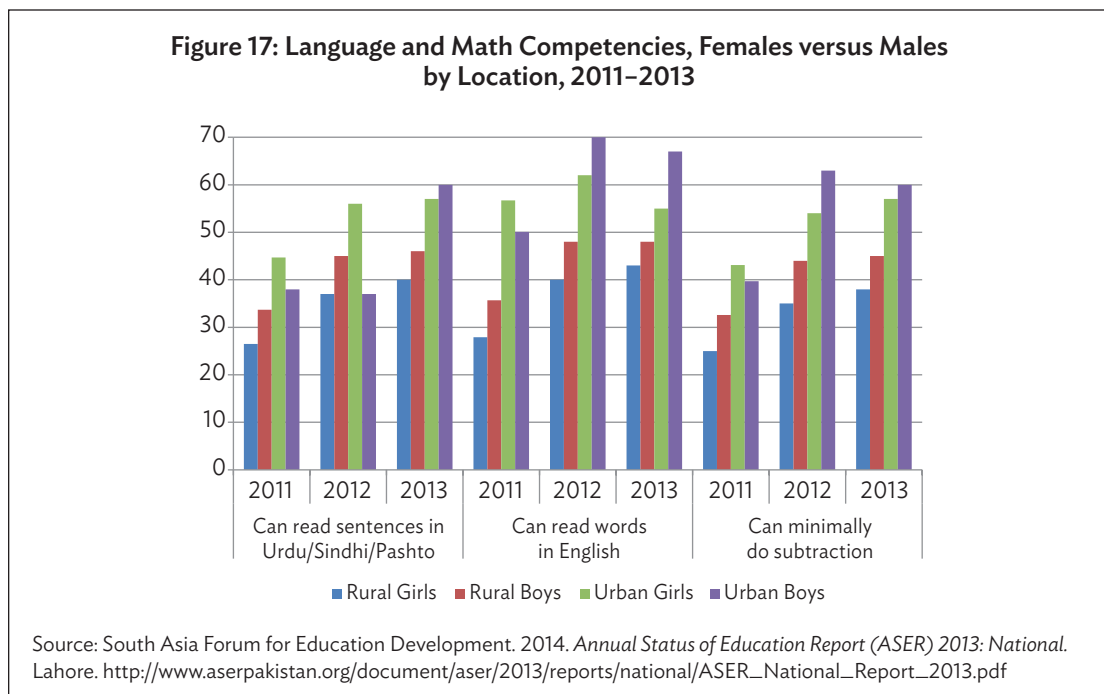
Source: Academy of Educational Planning and Management. 2014. *Pakistan Education Statistics 2012-13*. Islamabad.

4. Educational Outcomes

In 2013, the Annual Status of Education Report included a survey of the language and arithmetic competencies of 217,862 schoolchildren aged 5–16 years. Learning outcomes improved for both rural and urban girls and boys between 2011 and 2013. Rural children performed more poorly than urban children on tests that assessed their ability to read sentences in Urdu, Sindhi, or Pashto; read words in English; and perform subtraction calculations.⁹⁸ Both rural and urban girls performed less well than rural and urban boys on the same assessments (Figure 17).

Learning outcomes along all three assessment measures also showed disparities when analyzed by gender and wealth quartile. A higher percentage of both girls and boys in higher-income quartiles passed tests than in lower-income quartiles. When holding income quartile and the type of test constant, girls, on average, performed less well than boys, although many of these differences were smaller than results for a specific text between income quartiles for either girls or for boys alone.

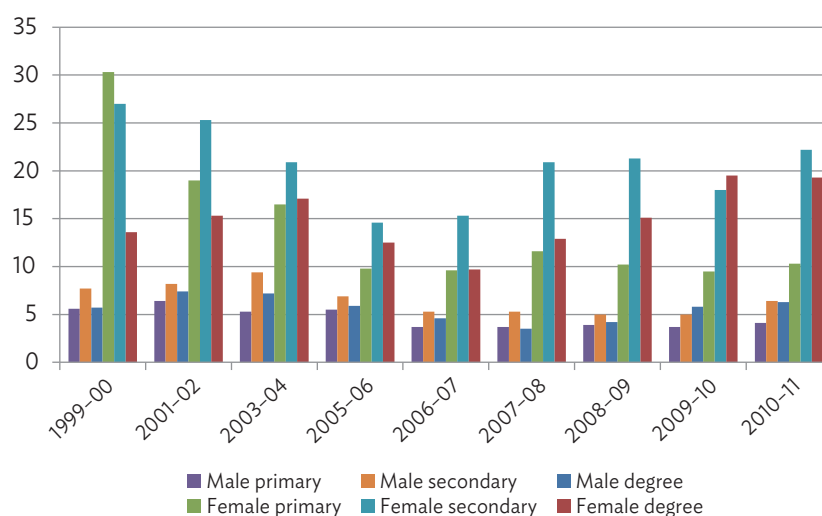
The study found that parents' education played an important role in children's access to and achievement in education. Mothers' education was especially important regarding educational outputs and outcomes of their daughters.⁹⁹ Learning outcomes were also, on average, better for students attending a private than a public school.



⁹⁸ More children in rural than urban areas go to public schools, suggesting that this is one factor in the poorer performance of rural children. SAFED. 2014. *Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2013: National*. Lahore. http://www.aserpakistan.org/document/asere/2013/reports/national/ASER_National_Report_2013.pdf

⁹⁹ About 24% as compared with 60% of mothers, and 48% as compared with 74% of fathers in the sampled rural and urban area households, respectively, had completed at least primary education. M. G. Qureshi. 2012. *The Gender Differences in School Enrolment and Returns to Education in Pakistan*. PIDE Working Paper. 2012:84. Islamabad: PIDE. <http://www.pide.org.pk/pdf/Working%20Paper/WorkingPaper-84.pdf>

Figure 18: Unemployment Rate, by Sex, by Educational Level Achievement, 1999–2010 (%)



Source: Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2012. *Pakistan Employment Trends 2011*. Islamabad.

Moreover, females have higher unemployment rates than males even when unemployment rates are considered for groups with the same levels of education.¹⁰⁰ Women's higher unemployment rates, along with lower average wages, indicate lower returns to education for females. These lower returns should impact household decision making regarding whether to invest in a girl's education, especially as women's income is not traditionally the source of income security for parents in old age. Since 2005–2006, unemployment rates for both females and males appear higher for those who completed secondary school as compared with those who completed primary school or university. This finding is consistent with the decline in the female population–employment ratio in the industry sector starting at about this time (Figure 18).

C. Promoting Women's Equality in Human Capital Outcomes

1. Demand

Female achievement of better human capital outcomes in health and education reflect choices that they or their families make. Specifically, women with more years of education are more likely to appreciate the benefits of consuming health services and investing in education services for themselves and their children. Females who postpone the age of marriage and first pregnancy, and space their pregnancies, are less likely to have problems in pregnancy and delivery. Increasing demand for female health and education services

¹⁰⁰ Women's higher unemployment rates after controlling for educational attainment may reflect women's choice of professional fields with low demand for labor as compared with supply, or women's inability, and/or unwillingness to return to work after the birth of a child.

may be achieved by increasing the availability of information about the current and future monetary and nonmonetary values of consuming those services.

However, since better health and education outcomes are often associated with households in higher wealth quintiles, it is important that females and their families can consume health and education services at an affordable monetary and time cost. Pilot efforts in Pakistan have already shown that provision of school lunches and attendance-linked stipends have resulted in higher school attendance. Other countries have found that provision of vouchers that cover the cost of a package of reproductive health services has increased utilization, especially by urban women. Likewise, rural women in Pakistan have benefited from the services provided by lady health visitors.

2. Supply

Improving the demand for basic health care and primary and secondary education may lead to an increase in outputs but not of desired outcomes if households have limited access to, and poor quality of, public social services. In rural areas, both health and education efforts suffer from poor quality as measured by high rates of absenteeism of personnel, lack of necessary equipment and supplies, and lack of basic facilities (including specifically for females) in buildings. While difficulty of placing skilled personnel in rural areas is a global problem, the remaining problems in Pakistan are linked to the insufficient allocation of public financing (about 2% of the budget) to the social sectors. Production of better-quality outputs has been demonstrated through application of mobile technologies to provide continuing education to providers in rural areas. Educators are also focusing on revision of the national educational curricula, although progress to make educational programs at the vocational and tertiary levels more relevant to needs of the labor market remains a challenge.

VI. Gender Dimensions of Economic Opportunity and Empowerment

Key Findings

- Employed females (aged over 15 years)-to-population ratios doubled from 11.8% to 24.3% between 1995 and 2015. The ratios increased as much as or more rapidly than rates of economic growth from 2003 to 2006 and after 2009. Employed males-to-population ratios remained almost constant during the same period.
- Increases in female employment were not absorbed equally by all sectors of the economy, and the majority of women were employed in the agriculture sector.
- While a higher proportion of women have become employed, the proportion employed in paid jobs declined after 2000. In contrast, the proportion of males employed in paid jobs increased from 35% to 43%.
- Average wages received by females were lower than those of males by sector. Studies were not identified that controlled for other factors such as differences in education, hours worked, or seniority, to demonstrate that wage differences were because of gender alone.
- A higher proportion of females than males were in vulnerable employment in the industry and services sectors, and about equal proportions of females and males working in agriculture were in vulnerable employment. Home-based workers (HBWs) constituted 1 million–2 million persons in vulnerable employment. HBWs lack job security, employment-related benefits, and the ability to advocate for better wages or work conditions. The National Policy on Home-Based Workers (2011) has been drafted but not passed.
- Women aged 15–24 years had higher unemployment rates than older women and also than males in any age group. Educational achievements do not necessarily provide women with more job security when growth of the economy falters.

Women's economic opportunity is the set of laws, regulations, practices, and attitudes that allow women to participate in the workforce under conditions roughly equal to those of men, whether as wage-earning employees or as owners of a business.

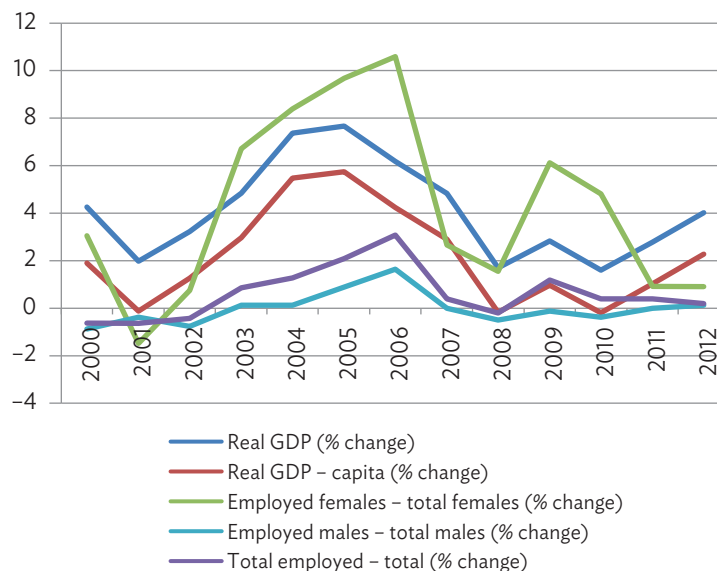
A. Employment Statistics

1. Employment–Population Ratios

Considered on a year-to-year basis, trends in employment–population ratios reflect Pakistan’s economic expansions and contractions. Specifically, the annual percentage change in employment of those aged 15 years and older was positive during 2003–2008, and increased between 2003 and 2006 during a period of rapid GDP per capita growth. Much of the growth in total employment–population ratios was due to increases in employment for women, whose increases in employment–population ratios exceeded GDP growth rates from 2002 to 2006 and again between 2009 and 2010, and remained higher than the GDP per capita growth rates for 2002–2011. In contrast, the growth rates of employment ratios of males aged 15 years and older to all males remained near 0 for much of the decade due to the already high rates of employment among males, with annual growth between 2002 and 2006. These patterns indicate that females have more opportunities to become employed during periods of economic growth but also face challenges in remaining employed during periods of economic decline (Figure 19).

Over the past 20 years, Pakistan has been able to create jobs at a rate somewhat faster than its rate of population growth as evidenced by trends in employment–population

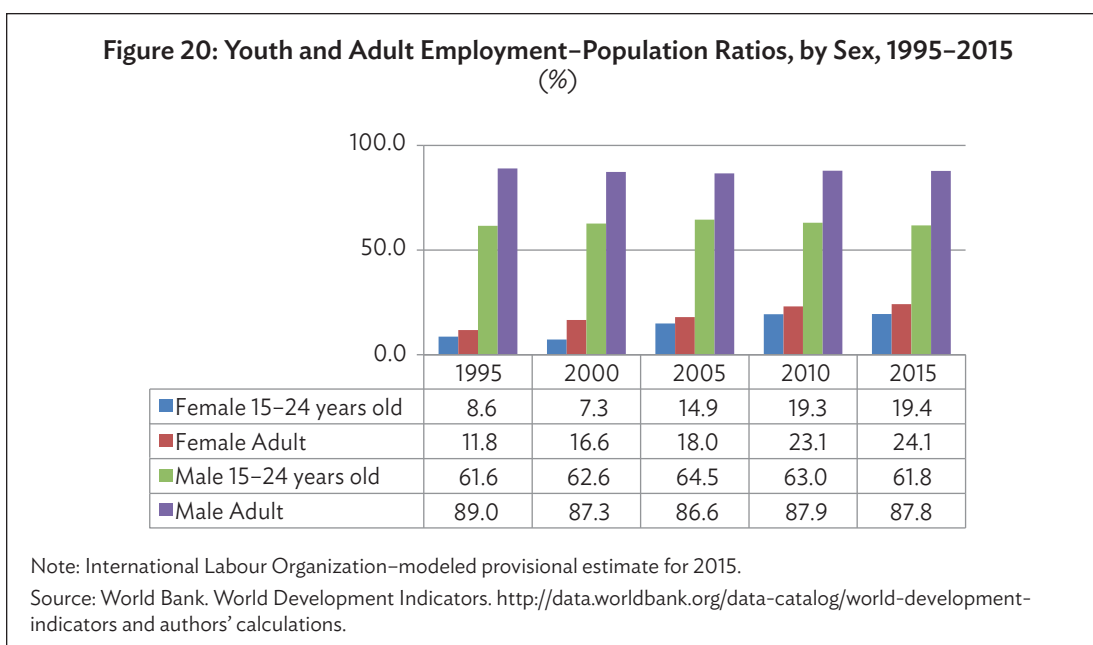
Figure 19: Percentage Changes in Real Gross Domestic Product, Real Gross Domestic Product per Capita, and Employment–Population Ratios for Females, Males, and Total Population, 2000–2012
(%)



GDP = gross domestic product.

Note: Those aged 15 years and older.

Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>; and authors’ calculations.



ratios.¹⁰¹ The increases in employment–population ratios has primarily occurred as a consequence of employment among females aged 15–24 years and females aged 15 years and older, with ratios more than doubling from 8.6% to 19.4% and from 11.8% to 24.1%, respectively. During the same period, the employment–population ratios for males aged 15–24 years and males aged 15 years and older remained nearly constant at about 62.0% and 87.0%, respectively (Figure 20).¹⁰²

Although a significant gap in ratios of employed adult females to employed adult males remains in 2015, Pakistan's progress in increasing employment among females aged 15 years and older is notable given the declining trend in employed adult females–population ratio for South Asia and the lack of change in ratios for East Asian countries over the same period (Figure 21).

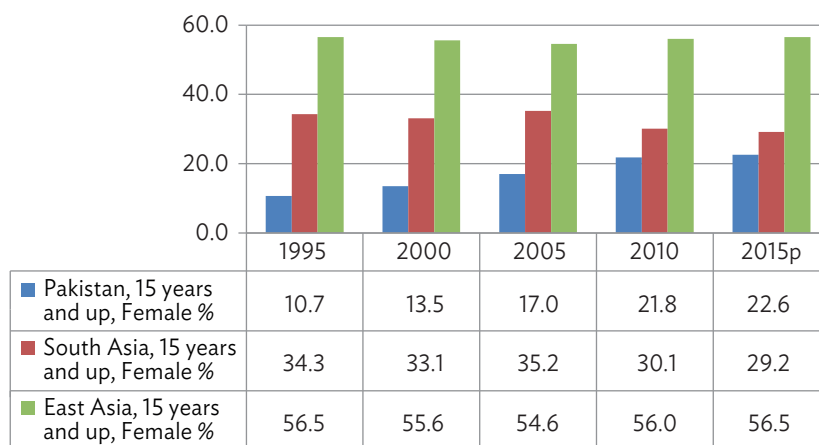
2. Composition of the Economy and Employment Trends by Sector

Despite the lack of structural change in Pakistan's economy, the increase in employment among females was absorbed differently by various sectors of the economy as well as over time. The share of employed females working in the agriculture sector increased from 67% in 1995 to 72% in 2013, while the share of employed females working in the services sector declined from 22% in 1995 to 13% in 2013. The share of employed females working

101 The Pakistan Bureau of Statistics defines an employed person as a person aged 10 years or older who works more than 1 hour in the reference period (usually a 1-week recall) on a casual, part-time, or full-time basis for a public or private employer and who received remuneration in the form of wages, salary, commission, tips, piece rates, or pay in kind. A person is also considered employed if he or she holds a full-time post but did not perform work during the reference period. A contributing family member who works for a household or relative's business, but did not receive payment in cash or in kind, is not counted among the employed (or among those unemployed or in vulnerable employment). Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2013. *Labour Force Survey 2012–13*. <http://www.pbs.gov.pk/content/labour-force-survey-2012-13-annual-report>

102 Increased female employment also resulted in increases in the overall employment–population ratios for the period.

Figure 21: Employed Females–Population Ratios, Pakistan and Regional, 1995–2015 (%)



p = provisional.

Notes:

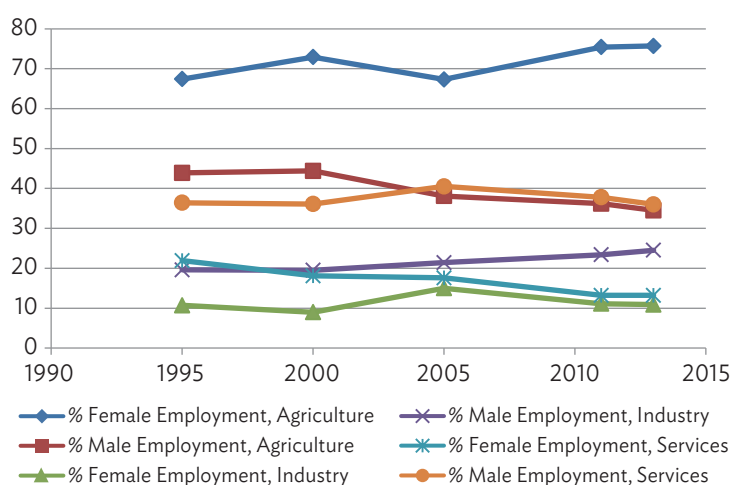
1. International Labour Organization–modeled provisional estimate for 2015.
2. Aged 15 years and older.

Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>; and authors' calculations.

in the industry sector increased from 11% in 1995 to 15% in 2005 (during Pakistan's period of rapid economic growth) but declined to 11% by 2011. In contrast, the share of employed males working in the agriculture sector declined during the same period, from 44% in 1995 to 34% in 2013, while an increasing share, 20% in 1995 to 25% in 2013, was employed in the industry sector. The share of employed males working in the services sector increased between 1995 and 2005 from 36% to 41%, but declined to 36% in 2013 (Figure 22).¹⁰³

The different patterns of female and male labor force participation by sectors over time may reflect fewer jobs in the industry sector following the global financial crisis and preference for retaining males in remaining open positions, reduction in the number of public sector jobs contributing to observed shifts of both females and males out of the services sector, and a decrease in the purchasing power due to price inflation of food and fuel resulting in an increased need for family members (e.g., younger and older women) to work in agricultural production.

¹⁰³ Similar patterns are evident for the proportions of total employed females and total employed males by occupation, comparing data for 2001–2002 and 2012–2013. The proportions of females employed as workers in skilled agriculture and fisheries increased from 44% to 64% and declined in all other occupational categories (e.g., women employed as technicians and associated professionals declined from 25% to 15%). Over the same period, the proportion of employed males changed no more than by 3% within any occupational group.

Figure 22: Employed Females and Males by Sector, 1995–2013

Notes: International Labour Organization–modeled provisional estimate for 2015.

Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>; and authors' calculations.

3. Disparities in Wage Employment and Wages

The ratio of women aged 15 years and above who were employed as a percentage of the population increased steadily from 1995 to 2015. However, during this time the trend for the proportion of women aged 15 years and above who were in the subset of paid or waged employment did not follow this general trend. Within a decade, the female share in waged employment dropped significantly from 33.1% in 2000 to 20.9% in 2011 (Figure 23), and had since been recovering, yet slowly, to reach 26.5% in 2014.¹⁰⁴

Conversely, from 1995 to 2013, the proportion of males employed in paid employment consistently climbed from 35% to 43.0%,¹⁰⁵ and in 2014 to 43.1%.¹⁰⁶

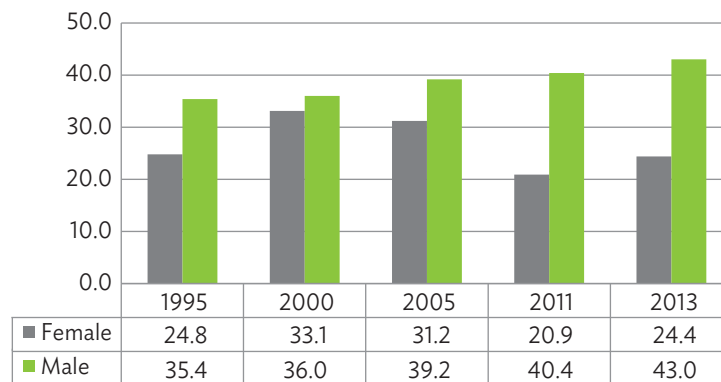
By 2010–2011, males in Pakistan were earning more than females at all ages and in all sectors. Wage differences between females and males were smallest in sectors where women made up at least 25% of total employment in the sector and were largest in sectors where females comprised the smallest percentage of total employment in the sector. For example, in agriculture, forestry, hunting, and fishing, where females made up 33% of the workforce, men earned about 50% more than women. In contrast, in transport, storage,

¹⁰⁴ Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2015. *Compendium on Gender Statistics of Pakistan, 2014*. p. 231.

¹⁰⁵ In 2007, Pakistan had fewer full-time, permanent employees (about 30 per business) as compared with all South Asian countries (about 90 per business). Further, Pakistan's businesses, on average, had only 1 full-time female worker, whereas businesses in all South Asia countries averaged over 15, and businesses in all low-income countries averaged over 20 full-time females per firm. Further, only about 5% of Pakistan businesses had females participating in ownership as compared with an average of 15% of firms in all of South Asia and 30% of firms in all low-income countries. World Bank and IFC. 2007. *Enterprise Survey*. Washington, DC.

¹⁰⁶ Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2015. *Compendium on Gender Statistics of Pakistan, 2014*. p. 231.

Figure 23: Employed Females or Males in Paid Employment, 1995–2013
(%)



Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>; and authors' calculations.

and communications, where females made up 1% of the workforce, men on average earned 130% more than women.¹⁰⁷

Wages for females may differ for a variety of reasons. Males may be perceived as being more suited for skilled positions, or may be more competitive for such positions due to higher levels of education. Males are able to obtain and/or hold higher-paying positions due to perceptions that females will place job duties after those of the family. In addition, females do not generally actively participate in trade unions; thus, issues of equality would not likely be put on unions' negotiation agendas.

Wages for females as compared with males may also be lower due to differences in the form of payment received by females. The PDHS 2012–13 found that married women were not only less likely to be employed than married men (29% versus 98%) but were less likely to receive cash wages only (71% versus 87%), less likely to receive payment in cash and in kind (6% versus 12%), and more likely to not be paid at all (15% versus 1%).¹⁰⁸

Wages for males may also be higher, as a significantly larger share of males than females work 50 hours or more per week. Men's propensity to work longer hours is one possible contributor to higher monthly wages, either from working more hours at hourly wages, or males being in professional or managerial positions that require longer working hours. Women may find it difficult to work long hours because of family and household responsibilities, especially if unable to hire outside help for these tasks.

107 Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*.

108 NIPS and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*.

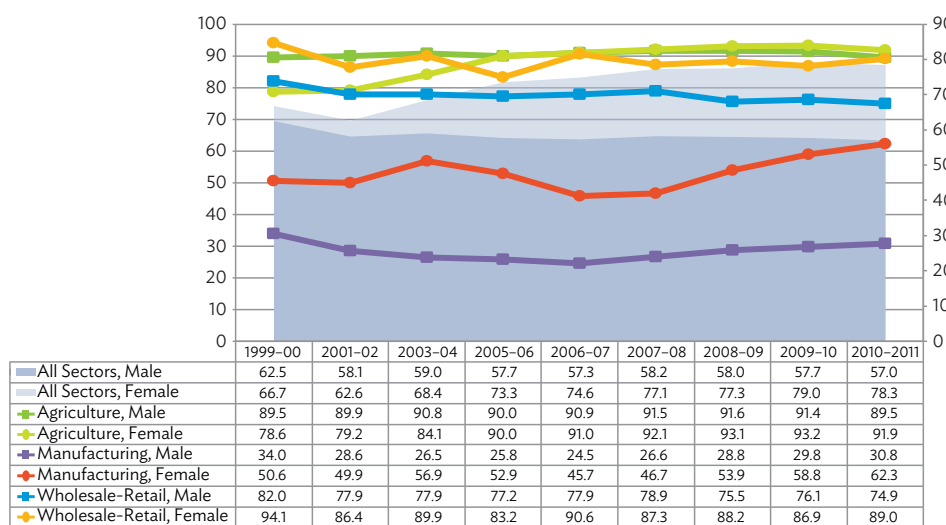
4. Vulnerable Employment and Unemployment

The share of the employed population that worked in vulnerable employment¹⁰⁹ increased from roughly 65% to 70% between 1999–2000 and 2010–2011,¹¹⁰ with equivalent proportions of working females and males. Employment insecurity has varied over time by sector¹¹¹ and by the sex of the worker. For example, a significantly greater proportion of women who work in the manufacturing, wholesale, and retail trade sectors are categorized in vulnerable employment. This finding is consistent with the observation that ratios of female employment increase during periods of economic expansion and fall during periods of economic decline, whereas ratios of male population employment remain relatively constant.

Roughly equal shares of females and males working in the agriculture sector are in vulnerable employment, although the share of women increased between 1999–2000 and 2010–2011 (Figure 24).

Home-based workers (HBWs) are one group engaged in vulnerable employment. About 80.0% of HBWs reside in Punjab, 8.2% in Sindh, and the remaining 11.2% in other provinces or territories. During 2008–2009, the majority (78.5%) of HBWs were engaged in manufacturing activities (e.g., bangle making) with another 10.9% in community, social,

Figure 24: Females and Males in Vulnerable Employment in Select Sectors, 2001/02–2009/10
(%)



Source: Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2012. *Pakistan Employment Trends 2011*. Islamabad.

109 Persons in vulnerable employment are at risk of lacking decent work. Decent work requires adequate wages, safe working conditions and hours, and social protection for income security. The ILO includes freedom of association and collective bargaining in their definition of decent work.

110 The Pakistan Bureau of Statistics measures vulnerable employment as the proportion of own-account workers and contributing family workers in total employment. Government of Pakistan, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics. 2015. *Compendium of Gender Statistics 2014*. Islamabad. p. 94.

111 The demand for labor by sector reflects the demand for different goods or services in domestic and international economies.

and services, and 6.5% in wholesale or retail trade. HBWs can be own-account workers (37.2%–49.7%), piece-rate workers (22.0%–33.3%), or unpaid family workers (12.6%–17.2%). Over half of HBWs work over 35 hours per week, and their real wages have declined over the period.

In parallel with Pakistan’s economic expansion and contraction in the 2000s, the estimated number of HBWs increased from 1.2 million during 1999–2000 to 2.1 million during 2005–2006, declining to 1.1 million during 2008–2009. Female HBWs increased as a share of all HBWs from 42.6% to 71.4% between 1999–2000 and 2008–2009, and the share of HBWs who were young females aged 15–24 years increased from 28.7% to 40.0% over the same period. About 50% of female HBWs did not have any formal education, and a large percentage was females who dropped out of primary school. During the expansion in HBWs from 2001 to 2006, the proportion that completed primary education and/or started education at the secondary level made up the sharp increase in the number of HBWs between 2001 and 2006.

HBWs face several constraints, including lack of representation, lack of insurance (health or life), lack of social assistance, and hazardous work and/or poor working conditions (e.g., congested spaces with poor lighting and lack of sufficient ventilation).¹¹² A number of organizations, such as HomeNet, are working to improve the working situation for HBWs through representation and low-cost insurance. Further, HomeNet and others are advocating for the development of a draft national policy on HBWs,¹¹³ although this policy has yet to be passed.

Paralleling patterns in Pakistan’s overall rates of economic growth, unemployment rates for young females and young males (aged 15–24 years) and for all females and all males aged over 15 years, increased between 1995 and 2000, but then declined by 2005 and even further by 2010, with a slight increase by 2012.¹¹⁴ Young women aged 15–24 years had the highest rates of unemployment over the period (ranging from a peak of 30% in 2000 to around 11% in 2012) followed by women aged over 15 years (ranging from a high of 16% in 2000 to around 9% in 2012), followed by young men aged 15–24 years (ranging from a high of 11% in 2000 to around 7% in 2012), with men as a whole showing the lowest rates of unemployment—below 6% over the entire period (Figure 25).

B. Factors Associated with Promoting Women’s Economic Empowerment

1. Level and Growth of National Income

Trends in women’s overall employment as well as in paid employment are related to patterns in rates of growth of Pakistan’s economy. This relationship is supported by the observation of an overall positive correlation between gender equality as measured by

112 Akhtar, S. 2011. *Searching for the Invisible Workers: A Statistical Study of Home Based Workers in Pakistan*. Islamabad: SEBCON and ILO. http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@asia/@ro-bangkok/@ilo-islamabad/documents/publication/wcms_185238.pdf

113 Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Labour and Manpower and Ministry of Women Development. 2011. *National Policy on Home-Based Workers*. Islamabad. Draft.

114 These similar patterns, regardless of their relative magnitudes, indicate that overall economic conditions had an impact on unemployment, regardless of age or sex of the person looking for employment.

Figure 25: Unemployed Females and Males as a Percentage of Relevant Labor Force, 1995–2012 (%)



Source: World Bank. World Development Indicators. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>; and authors' calculations.

the GGI and GDP per capita for a cross section of countries. However, the level of the economy is not wholly based on measures of the GGI, as countries with similar GDPs per capita achieve lower or higher GGIs. This observation suggests that reduction in gender gaps can be achieved through measures not necessarily dependent upon the level or growth rate of the economy.¹¹⁵

2. Labor- and Employment-Related Law

Pakistan's Constitution includes several articles regarding labor:

- (i) Article 11 prohibits all forms of slavery, forced labor, and child labor;
- (ii) Article 17 provides the right to exercise the freedom of association and the right to form unions;
- (iii) Article 18 recognizes the right of citizens to enter any lawful profession or occupation and/or to conduct any lawful trade or business;
- (iv) Article 25 prohibits discrimination on the grounds of sex alone; and
- (v) Article 37(e) includes provision for just and humane conditions of work, ensuring that children and women are not employed in vocations unsuited to their age or sex, and provision of maternity benefits for women in employment.¹¹⁶

¹¹⁵ World Economic Forum. 2014. *The Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. Geneva. Figure 7.

¹¹⁶ Pakistan requires 12 weeks of paid maternity leave, with the employer paying 100% of the woman's wages during leave. However, in practice, it is estimated that 0%–9% of women actually receive maternity benefits, primarily those employed in the civil services. There are no laws or provisions entitling women to breaks for the purpose of breastfeeding infants during the workday. ILO. 2014. *Maternity and Paternity at Work, Law and Practice across the World*. Geneva.

The government has also created laws related to conditions of work, labor relations, and settlement of labor disputes within the public and private sector. Pakistan has also developed and passed legislation at national and provincial levels intended to counter harassment of women in the workplace. Finally, the country has ratified at least 34 ILO conventions, including ILO Core Conventions.¹¹⁷

3. Employment Policies and Strategy

Pakistan has established many labor-related policies and strategies, such as the Labour Protection Policy 2006, Labour Inspection Policy 2006, National Employment Policy 2008,¹¹⁸ National Skills Strategy 2009–2013, Labour Policy 2010, and a draft Home-Based Worker Policy 2011. Most of these labor-related policies and strategies do not set out many provisions that distinguish between female and male employees; rather, they indicate or imply that labor policies are to be applied equally.

4. Public Sector Quotas

The Constitution, Article 27, states that women have an equal opportunity to enter the civil service. Further, Article 34 states that the government can take affirmative action measures to increase women's participation in the civil service. In 2007, the government adopted a policy that 10% of positions in the government are reserved for women and allocated according to the share of total civil service positions in each province or region. Unfilled vacancies among those reserved for women are left vacant until a suitable female candidate is identified.¹¹⁹

By 2008, women constituted 11.9% of the government's more senior levels,¹²⁰ but only 5.4% of civil service positions considering all levels.¹²¹ More recent figures of the proportion of women working in the civil service are not recorded on government websites for federal or provincial civil service commissions,¹²² nor do the Labor Force Survey statistics include civil service positions as a separate job category.

Among the factors that discriminate against females is that selection for employment in the civil service is based on an applicant's performance on a series of tests. Since females are discriminated against in terms of advancement in education, less women have the same level of reading and mathematical literacy skills as males within an applicant pool, thus making it statistically less likely that a woman is selected for a post.

117 The eight ILO Core Conventions include (i) Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87); (ii) Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98); (iii) Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29); (iv) Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105); (v) Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138); (vi) Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182); (vii) Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100); and (viii) Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

118 This policy includes data on women's employment, unemployment, and working hours, and recommends improving data on women as unpaid family workers and/or home-based workers (HBWs), and improving the working conditions for women in private, formal sector enterprises up to the levels available in public sector institutions.

119 Civil service quotas were established in the terms of the Establishment Division O. M. No. 4/14/2006-R-2, dated 22 May 2007 and are (i) merit (7.0%); (ii) Punjab and Islamabad (50.0%); (iii) Sindh (19.0%); (iv) Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (11.5%), Balochistan (6.0%), and FATA. CSS Forum. Recruitment Policy. <http://www.cssforum.com.pk/recruitment-policy.php>

120 A woman was appointed Secretary of the Cabinet Division for the first time from 2008 to 2013.

121 S. L. Kabir. 2009. *Women's Participation in Civil Service*. Pune: University of Pune, India. http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/2003/6/06_abstract.pdf

122 The Public Service Commission of Pakistan functions under autonomous administrative and semiautonomous financial status. The chair and members are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister.

5. Private Sector: Entrepreneurship

Women face many challenges to becoming entrepreneurs of micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises.

Ownership of assets may be a precondition of successful entrepreneurship if assets are required to secure a loan. About 68.9% of men responding to the National Baseline Survey reported owning any asset, compared with only 13.3% of females. Further, about 6% of women responding to the National Baseline Survey indicated that they had access to their own or a joint bank account, and 6% responded that they had a loan. Most women borrow from microcredit institutions, but at least 50% took the loan at the request of their husband or another family member. Despite microfinance institutions providing entrepreneurship training to women, none of the women responding to the survey indicated that they decided on their own how to invest the loan.

Women also need to access markets to obtain goods and services for themselves and/or their family, and/or to engage in the labor market. Women's access to markets is facilitated by access to information, freedom of mobility, access to transport, and availability of time. The National Baseline Survey found that 48.2% of women and 56.0% of men reported watching television. While the survey elicited information on the channels watched by females and males, it is unclear to what extent they spent watching one channel over another, and whether they selected programming that would improve their labor-related skills or provide them with market-related information that could contribute to improving production efficiency or sales. No more than 4.2% of females reported using other forms of mass media (e.g., computers, newspapers, or radio). Men were more likely to report reading newspapers (21.4%) than listening to a radio (10.1%) or using a computer (8.9%). About 55.7% of women and 66.2% of men reported using the internet if they used a computer (Table 7).

National Baseline Survey respondents indicated that while 86.2% of women can leave their homes to purchase or sell items, only 15.9% can leave their homes for a job. Walking, a form of transport for almost all, is limiting if the individual needs to cover significant distance to access markets or a job. In 2005, it was estimated that 85% of the rural population was within 2 kilometers (a 20-minute walk) of a paved road accessible for transport year round.

Table 7: Mass Media Use, by Media and Sex, 2011–2012
(%)

Mass Media Used	Females	Males
Listen to radio	3.6	10.1
Watch television	48.2	56.2
Read newspapers	4.2	21.4
Use computer	2.5	8.9
If use computer, use internet	55.7	66.2

Note: Sample size: women = 5,632; men = 5,641.

Source: Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Study*. 30 April. Islamabad: Aurat Foundation.

Table 8: Rural and Urban Transport Ownership, 2012–2013
(%)

Form of Transport	Rural	Urban	Total
Animal-drawn cart	12	3	9
Tractor	4	1	
Bicycle	28	27	28
Motorcycle	28	47	35
Car, truck, bus	4	12	

Source: National Institute of Population Studies (NIPS) and ICF International. 2013. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey 2012–13*. Islamabad: NIPS and Calverton, MD: ICF International. <http://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR290/FR290.pdf>

The PDHS 2012–13 noted that 28% of rural households reported having a bicycle, and 28% reported having a motorcycle. In urban areas, 27% of households reported owning a bicycle and 47% owned a motorcycle, although women are less likely than men to independently use these forms of transport. In the National Baseline Study, 3.5% of women and 28.9% of men reported ownership of a motorcycle or a car. Ownership of a car, truck, or bus was less common in rural than urban areas (Table 8).

Thus, a large proportion of the population, particularly in rural areas, is dependent upon public transport to move any significant distance from their home. The overall state of public transport (both bus and rail) is poor, with crowded vehicles that may not run on schedule or keep to a regular set of stops. Such conditions are not conducive for female travel as there could be either the perception, or reality, of physical or verbal harassment.

Results of the Time Use Survey 2007 suggested that the bulk of childcare and housekeeping activities were the responsibility of females and this in turn affects the time they can allocate to economic activities. This allocation of time likely contributes to women's lower wages and income, and lessens the empowering effect that income can have on women's role within households and society.

6. Private Sector: Corporate Employment

A survey of 1,000 female employees as well as interviews with 35 female senior managers from 14 corporations was carried out to assess women's experience as employees in a corporate environment in Pakistan. Although all of the corporations claimed to be committed to a diversity agenda, 56% of surveyed female employees did not report that they perceived a visible commitment to this by the chief executive officer, and 63% reported that the corporation did not have any performance indicators to measure progress on commitments to gender diversity. About 74% of women surveyed reported that having a supportive spouse and family was the most important factor in being able to work. Other factors important to women were having a safe work environment (54%) and having job flexibility to manage the dual demands of work and family (51%), but only a limited percentage of respondents reported receiving these.

A majority of women (74%) and men (67%) surveyed in the National Baseline Survey of 2012 agreed that women could head an organization. Females agreed with this statement more often than males in all provinces. Among females, the highest level of support for women as heads of organizations was in Sindh (80%). In fact, men in Sindh were more likely than males in other provinces to agree that women could head organizations.

According to annual reports, 93 out of 303 listed companies had at least one woman on their boards (31%). Sixty-seven of the 93 companies were family-owned businesses, and over half of these companies indicated that the family relationship was a primary reason for the woman to be on the board. The perceived benefits of having women on corporate boards included female relatives protect family business interests (41%), female board members make excellent observations during board discussions (26%), and, overall the presence of females resulted in more balanced decisions (23%). Opinions expressed as to why women would not be suitable as board members included women lack business knowledge and experience (44%), women are unable to achieve a good work-life balance (41%), women are overly aggressive or emotional (27%), qualified and experienced women are lacking (17%), and women have overly risk-averse attitudes (11%). Regarding the future, 84% of respondents did not favor placing more women on corporate boards, with some flexibility in that attitude in the event that more women had appropriate qualifications and experience. Only 13% favored passage of legislation, including a quota for the proportion of women on corporate boards.

Pakistan has 14 trade union centers and 23 labor federations and other unions (e.g., for teachers). While information is available about the total number of members of each union (e.g., the Pakistan Workers' Federation has 880,000 members), the number of female members is either not documented or easily identified. Women are reported to have difficulty in attending labor union meetings because of the expectation that they will be at home in the evening for food preparation and childcare, biases against women attending meetings with unrelated males, and meetings held in the evening when it is more dangerous for a woman alone to be out of the house. The ILO, with financing from the Government of Canada, has provided leadership training and sensitization to increase women's participation in labor unions in Pakistan.

PART C

Gender Equality Laws and Institutions

VII. Gender Equality Laws

Key Findings

- Pakistan is signatory to over 25 international laws, agreements, and conventions related to the rights of women. The federal government tracks Pakistan's achievements on outcome indicators for progress and compliance with these agreements.
- The Constitution prohibits discrimination based on sex and includes provisions to reserve seats for women in the legislature and civil service.
- Over the past 15 years, several pieces of legislation have been passed at federal and provincial government levels to address issues such as early marriage, harassment of women at the workplace, and development of commissions on the status of women.
- There is considerable scope to close the gaps between legal rights elaborated for women in Pakistan and the degree to which public and private sector institutions guarantee those rights.

A. International Conventions, Declarations, and Resolutions

Pakistan has been a signatory to many international conventions concerning human rights and labor protection since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. The international agreements that have been most influential in the context of women's equality and empowerment in Pakistan are the Beijing Platform for Action 1995 and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) 1995.

1. Beijing Platform for Action

After the Fourth World Conference on Women, the government took several substantive initiatives toward gender equality. The Ministry for Women Development and provincial WDDs were strengthened, and the NCSW was established. NGOs were included in many activities and brought into the consultative process of the Beijing Platform for Action. Legal and policy initiatives included passage and revision of laws to reduce discrimination against women, reservation of 17% of seats for women in national and provincial legislatures and 33% of seats in local government representative bodies, and setting a specific quota of 10% for women in public sector employment. Programmatic efforts included initiating prosecution in cases of domestic violence, addressing sexual harassment at the workplace,

generating awareness against early marriages, improving the condition of female prisoners, and strengthening family courts for marital disputes.¹²³

2. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

Pakistan acceded to the CEDAW in 1996.¹²⁴ The Ministry of Women Development was designated as the institution responsible for implementing the CEDAW provisions. Pakistan failed to submit its initial report on the CEDAW in 1997 but subsequently filed the second, third, and fourth reports. The Concluding Observations on the Fourth Periodic Report of Pakistan in March 2013 observed that Pakistan has enacted and revised numerous laws and legal provisions aimed at eliminating discrimination against women,¹²⁵ had established in Sindh a “Land to the Landless” model that granted land titles to women, and had ratified four additional human rights treaties.¹²⁶

B. National and Provincial Laws

1. Constitution

The Constitution of Pakistan provides a strong legal framework for many dimensions of women’s equality. Article 25 indicates that “[a]ll citizens are equal before law and are entitled to equal protection of law. There shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex.” Articles 26 and 27 provide for equal access to public places and equality of employment in public and private sectors,¹²⁷ Article 32 makes special provisions for representing women in local government, and Article 34 empowers the government to take affirmative action to protect and promote women’s rights. The 18th Amendment recognized the provision of free and compulsory basic education for both girls and boys from ages 5 to 16 years as a fundamental human right.¹²⁸

2. Other National Laws

Between 2000 and 2013, the National Assembly passed several laws that promoted or increased protection of women’s rights and empowerment. Several of the laws rolled back the most objectionable provisions of Hudood Ordinances put in place during Muhammad

123 Pakistan Permanent Mission to the United Nations. n. d. Statement by Mrs. Zobiaida Jajal, Minister for Education, Women Development Social Welfare and Special Education of Pakistan, Twenty-Third Special Session of Tide General Assembly for Beijing + 5 Review. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/beijing+5stat/statments/pakistan6.htm>

124 The government registered reservations on two points: (i) CEDAW provisions should be in accordance with Pakistan’s Constitution, and (ii) the provision that under the CEDAW a different state could take Pakistan to the International Court of Justice by lodging a complaint that Pakistan violated one or more of CEDAW’s provisions. Pakistan has not signed or ratified the CEDAW Optional Protocol, which provides avenues for individuals or groups to file grievances against Pakistan.

125 Specifically, the CEDAW Committee welcomed the adoption of the Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act 2010, Criminal Law Act (Second Amendment 2011) referred to as the Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention, and Criminal Law Act (Third Amendment 2011) referred to as Prevention of Anti-Women Practices.

126 The International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights 2008; United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime 2010; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966; Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 2010; and International Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2011. R. Khan. 2009. *Situational Analysis and Mapping of Women’s Human Rights in Pakistan*. Islamabad: CIDA Pakistan. http://www.researchcollective.org/Documents/Final%20Report_on_Women.pdf

127 ADB. 2010b. *Special Evaluation Study: Gender and Development, Phase II—Pakistan Country Case Study*. Manila. Unpublished.

128 UNICEF. 2012. *Situation Analysis of Children and Women in Pakistan*. Islamabad. http://www.unicef.org/pakistan/National_Report.pdf

Zia-ul-Haq's tenure. These laws include the Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Ordinance 2002, Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2004 (Act No. 1 of 2005), Protection of Women Act 2006, Protection against Harassment for Women at the Workplace Act 2009, Criminal Law Amendment 2009 (enacted 2010), Acid Crimes and Control Act 2010, Prevention of Anti-Women Practices 2011, Women in Distress and Detention Fund (Amendment) Bill 2011, National Commission on Status of Women Act 2012, and Pakistan's Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act 2012.

3. Provincial Laws

Provincial assemblies have passed legislation in the area of women's rights, especially since passage of the 18th Amendment. Provincial legislation regarding women, some modeled on legislation passed earlier at the federal level, include the Balochistan Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Bill 2013, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Establishment of a Commission on the Status of Women Act 2009, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Enforcement of Women (Land) Ownership Rights Act 2012, Punjab Commission on the Status of Women Bill 2013, Punjab Protection against the Harassment of Women at the Workplace (Amendment Bill 2012), Punjab Fair Representation of Women Act 2014, Sindh Child Marriages Restraint Act/Bill 2013,¹²⁹ Sindh Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act 2013, and Sindh Industrial Relations Act 2013.¹³⁰

C. Opportunities and Challenges

Pakistan has continued to pass legislation to expand women's rights to assets, and protection from harassment and violence. In addition, legislation has been passed to establish gender-related institutions in step with the postdevolution period. Future challenges remain to ensure that there are no revisions to the laws, such as those that reduced quotas for women in some provincial and local government assemblies that lessen the space for women's rights, including political rights.

Despite Pakistan's commitment to human and women's rights under various international conventions, as well as the continuing evolution of Pakistan's own legal framework to improve gender equity and to protect women's rights at national and provincial levels, there are gaps between these legal frameworks and the realities experienced by women in households, communities, and society. The National Baseline Study 2012 noted that while the Constitution guarantees fundamental rights to women and considers them equal citizens, a "cycle of oppression" for women continues due to traditional and cultural practices based on patriarchy; a lack of political will and weak implementation of policy; and women's continued overall low economic, political, and social status in society.¹³¹

129 In 2014, the Sindh Assembly passed the Sindh Child Marriages Restraint Bill 2013, which makes marriage of girls or boys under 18 years old a crime that will result in fines and imprisonment of up to 2–3 years of parents, grooms, and brides.

130 The Sindh Industrial Relations Act 2013 includes the provision that in an "establishment where women are also employed, the trade union shall include the women in the executive and office bearers of the said trade union with the same proportion in which they are employed in the establishment." Provincial Assembly of Sindh. 2013. The Sindh Industrial Relations Act, 2013. Karachi. <http://www.pas.gov.pk/uploads/acts/Sindh%20Act%20No.XXIX%20of%202013.pdf>

131 Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions—National Baseline Study*.

The commitment of the government to taking a leadership role in addressing gaps in gender equality was questioned in a recent NGO contribution for the Fourth Periodic Report of Pakistan on CEDAW. The NGO report acknowledged the difficult challenges that the government faced in moving ahead with women's rights during the period and commended steps that the government had taken, but questioned the government's political will to prioritize the elimination of violence against women. The report concluded that efforts toward gender equality have "been generally restricted ... [and] remain isolated and marginalized from the mainstream. Moreover, [the] continuing prevalence of discriminatory laws, ineffective public institutions, negative attitudes, and limited legal services impede women's access to justice and human rights."¹³²

132 "Pakistan faced enormous challenges during this period stemming from a devastating earthquake coupled with a melting economy resulting in a sharp rise in poverty. Challenges posed by political instability, the war on terror, the issue of a large number of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and rise in extremism/militancy further compounded the situation. All these problems had a negative impact on the efforts of the Government to fulfill its obligations under the CEDAW Convention. In the face of the above challenges, the various attempts made by the Government to improve the legal, socio-economic and political status of women are commendable, but they are few in number and have proven not to be very effective. The agenda for eliminating all forms of discrimination against women failed once again to make its place in the priority list of the Government. As a result, there remain numerous issues for women, resulting in de facto and de jure discrimination against them, which are either ignored by the Government, or are not sufficiently dealt with." Gender Watch. 2011. *CEDAW and Pakistan*. <http://societalissues.wordpress.com/2011/06/13/cedaw-pakistan/>

VIII. Gender Equality in Institutions

Key Findings

Executive Branch

- Gender mainstreaming in planning and program implementation has been devolved to provincial governments, with the Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights retaining responsibility for reporting on Pakistan's compliance with international commitments.
- Programs of provincial Women Development departments continue to be dominated by short-term initiatives supported by development partner funds, lacking coherence with longer-term plans for gender equality and economic empowerment in the province.

Legislative Branch

- In 2002, Pakistan established quotas of seats reserved for women in national (17%), provincial (17%–19%), and local government (33%) legislatures. Since devolution, provincial governments have had the responsibility of setting the quotas for reserved seats, and they have remained at the same level or been reduced.
- Women's caucuses have been formed within national and provincial legislatures. The caucuses have been successful at passing a number of laws, such as those related to child marriage, harassment of women at the workplace, and gender-based violence.

Judicial Branch

- Pakistanis face challenges in accessing the formal legal system to receive a fair judgment in a timely manner. Women are disadvantaged in accessing the formal justice system because they are unable to leave their house, lack access to money and transport, lack access to female judges and police, and lack access to female-friendly facilities at courts and police stations.
- Many Pakistanis resort to traditional and sometimes illegal systems of justice to settle disputes. Women are disadvantaged in these systems, as women are not among the elders and often cannot voice their complaints or provide evidence.

Independent and Quasi-Independent Institutions

- The National Commission on the Status of Women and provincial commissions on the Status of Women provide inputs to the Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights for Pakistan's reports concerning gender in international commitments (e.g., the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women [CEDAW]), and may also file an independent report to CEDAW on Pakistan's compliance with international conventions concerning gender, facilitate the development of federal and provincial policy and plans concerning women, support the development of legislation related to women, and consult with organizations implementing select gender-related initiatives.
- The Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for the Protection of Harassment of Women at the Workplace and its provincial equivalents receive, review, and adjudicate complaints of sexual harassment alleged to have occurred at either public or private sector workplaces.

A. Executive Branch

1. Predevolution Institutions and Responsibilities

The Women's Division was first created in Pakistan's Cabinet Secretariat in 1979. Pakistan's Sixth Five-Year Plan, 1983–1988, the first to devote a separate chapter to women in development, stated that the government's objective was to “adopt an integrated approach to improve women's status, with programs integrated into each sector...[with a] focus on problems of illiteracy, constant motherhood and the primitive organization of work.” Subsequent plans continued to include chapters on women in development and demonstrated an increasing awareness of the importance of women to economic growth via their production in the informal and agriculture sectors and through investments in children's education and health. In 1989, the Women's Division became a ministry, which was merged with the Ministry of Social Welfare and designated the Ministry of Women Development in 1997.

The ministry was responsible for the formulation of policies and laws to meet the special needs of women, and to ensure that women's interests and needs were adequately represented in public policy formulation. The Ministry of Women Development also planned and coordinated programs for children, the elderly, and other persons with special needs.¹³³ During this period, the government established gender focal points to mainstream gender equity and empowerment into the policies and plans of 26 key line ministries.¹³⁴ The provincial governments of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Punjab formed WDDs within their departments of Social Welfare, and Balochistan and Sindh established freestanding WDDs to encourage gender mainstreaming within all departments at the provincial level and to operationalize various initiatives.

Pakistan prepared a national plan for action in 1998 to develop priorities and guide implementation of international commitments made upon signing the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. The plan was developed through a national participatory process involving federal and provincial governments, NGOs, women's organizations, and individual gender experts. The plan included 32 areas for action and identified priorities for actions in each.¹³⁵ While ambitious, it was criticized on several grounds:

efforts to implement the National Plan of Action and other policies for women are defective; hasty legal measures faulty; the claim that the National Commission on the Status of Women carries clout and its role and activities compliment that of Ministry of Women Development misleading. All this signals a lack of political will: the government is notably noncommittal about when it will bring about equality under law and in policies.¹³⁶

In March 2002, the National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women was approved, which included policies and programs to move forward women's empowerment

¹³³ Women Issues in Pakistan. Ministry of Women Development, Social Welfare and Special Education. <http://womenissuespk.blogspot.com/2009/08/ministry-of-women-development-social.html>

¹³⁴ In 2000, only 7 of the 26 focal persons were women.

¹³⁵ National Commission on the Status of Women. <http://www.ncsw.gov.pk/>

¹³⁶ S. Gah. 2013. *Obstructing Progress: Growing Talibanisation & Poor Governance in Pakistan*. Lahore. http://www2.ohchr.org/English/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/ShirkatGah_Women'sResourceCentre_FTS.pdf

and efforts to elaborate a reproductive health policy.¹³⁷ The policy expired in 2012, but a new draft version is being finalized by the NCSW for the Planning Commission. Overall, achievements during the Sixth through Ninth Plan fell short of objectives due to insufficient allocation of resources for developing the institutional capacity and budget to scale up programs to close gaps in measures of gender equality. Further, implementation of gender policies and plans have been unable to ensure that women are full participants in the political process, including policy making, programming, and budgeting (Box 1).

Box 1: Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action

The government translated its Beijing Platform for Action commitments and National Plan of Action and National Policy for Development and Empowerment of Women objectives into gender reform action plans (GRAPs) at national and provincial levels. The national GRAP laid out an agenda of reforms for the government to implement its national and international commitments on gender equality. Planned reforms aimed to align policies, budgetary allocations, institutional structures, and administrative procedures at the national, provincial, and district levels with gender equality. In addition, proposed activities included (i) disbursement of gender development grants, (ii) gender sensitization trainings, and (iii) provision and upgrading of basic facilities such as toilets or day care facilities for women employed in government. The initiative started in 2002, and was entirely government funded by 2006.

Examples of GRAP achievements in Punjab included the establishment of a gender mainstreaming committee, amendment of the rules of business for the Women Development Department, an increase in the number of government posts for women, mainstreaming of gender in programs of eight departments, development of career development centers in four universities, and media campaigns. Examples of GRAP achievements in Sindh included establishment of the Gender Steering Committee, designation of the Women Development Department as the lead agency for implementation, reservation of 29 of 168 seats in the Provincial Assembly for women, sensitization of parliamentarians on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, creation of 69 government posts for women at BS-16 level or higher, designation of focal persons in 11 provincial departments to develop gender-related actions in those departments and at the district level, and reactivation of the media cell with publication of print articles on women's issues.

Implementation challenges included frequent turnover of the secretary of the Ministry of Women Development, insufficient capacity building of the women development departments, and difficulties of the ministry and departments in obtaining cooperation of other ministries in efforts to mainstream gender into their plans and programs, and lack of adequate funds.

In 2006, the Ministry of Finance undertook a gender-responsive budgeting initiative with the goal of building capacity and budget monitoring mechanisms at national, provincial (Punjab), and in select districts levels to conduct gender-disaggregated beneficiary analysis, time-use analysis, public expenditure incidence analysis, and revenue incidence analysis, and to develop a gender-aware medium-term budget framework. Government departments in Punjab had difficulty achieving the initiative's objectives because of the absence of gender-disaggregated data and/or low capacity of staff to gather and present the required data and analysis. Further, members of the provincial assembly did not appreciate the value of gender-disaggregated data for budget review, and their demand for such analysis was low.

Subsequent to devolution, the federal government ended provision of earmarked funds to provincial governments for preparation of GRAPs and ended efforts to further institutionalize the gender-responsive budgeting initiative. Subsequent incidents in some provinces, such as Punjab, to terminate the employment of GRAP employees further lead to questions about sustainability of these initiatives in Pakistan.

Sources: M. Sabir. 2006. *How Can Parliamentarians Make an Effective Contribution? Gender-Responsive Budget*. Islamabad: Pakistan Institute of Legislative Development and Transparency; F. Yazdani and J. Shmyalla. 2010. *Review of the Implementation of Gender Reform Action Plan (GRAP) Phase I*. Islamabad: JICA. http://www.jica.go.jp/english/our_work/thematic_issues/gender/background/pdf/e10pak.pdf

137 R. Khan. 2009. *Situational Analysis and Mapping of Women's Human Rights in Pakistan*.

2. Postdevolution Institutions and Responsibilities

Passage of the 18th Amendment in April 2010 and devolution of women's development and social welfare to the provinces resulted in the elimination of a role for the Ministry of Women Development at the federal level.¹³⁸ As stated, each province now has its own organization related to women's development, and the plans and activities of each reflect the overall priority given to women's development and overall budgetary resources of each province.

Although it has been over 4 years since devolution, none of the WDDs has developed a mission statement from which they have derived long- and short-term objectives. Rather, the past achievements and future planned initiatives appear to have little relationship to an objective of mainstreaming gender in all provincial government departments' investments and ongoing programs. They instead appear to be ad hoc initiatives that are not clearly linked to a longer-term vision.¹³⁹ Postdevolution, there is a common need among the WDDs to create mission statements and objectives in line with the newly empowered provincial governments, and from these, to develop medium-term (5-year) strategies and (3-year) budgets in line with the budget cycles of the government.¹⁴⁰

B. Legislative Branch

1. Quotas and Women's Representation

Since 1956, Pakistan's constitutions have included provisions that reserve a specific percentage of seats in the national and subnational legislatures for women. Up until the early 2000s, the proportion of reserved seats was usually under 5% but no higher than 10% (1985–1988). The Ministry of Women Development advocated for increasing the quotas of reserved seats for women at all levels to 33% in the National Plan of Action. In 2002, legislation was passed to reserve 17% of seats in the National Parliament for women, and thereafter the proportion of seats held by women at national level (National Assembly and Senate) has ranged from 20% to 21%. By April 2014, the proportion of reserved seats for women was 16.3% for the Senate and 17.5% for the National Assembly.

In 1997, the percentage of seats held by women in provincial assemblies was 0.4%. From 2002 onward, the proportion of seats held by women has remained between 19% and 21% (Table 9). The number of reserved seats in provincial assemblies totals 11 in Balochistan, 22 in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 66 in Punjab, and 29 in Sindh. Article 106 of the Constitution stipulates that seats reserved for women be distributed among parties based on the proportion of general seats secured by each political party in the Provincial Assembly.¹⁴¹

¹³⁸ This has resulted in an absence of an institutional mechanism at the federal level to further gender mainstreaming in the remaining federal ministries as well as to coordinate efforts by WDDs in the provinces.

¹³⁹ The WDDs' current lack of clear mission statements may in part have resulted from past development partner funding that required demonstration of outputs in the short term. Future funding should aim to better align with the department's own missions rather than tempt them to deviate from their mandate by providing short-term project financing.

¹⁴⁰ The recent systematic restructuring process for the Department of Education in Punjab to improve effectiveness and efficiency could be a model for institutional reform of the WDDs.

¹⁴¹ Quota Project. Pakistan. <http://www.quotaproject.org/uid/countryview.cfm?CountryCode=PK>

Table 9: Women among Elected Legislators 1997, 2002, 2008, 2013

	1997			2002			2008		2013	
	Women	Total	%	Women	Total	%	Women	%	Women	%
National	11	787	1.4	233	1,170	20	233	20	228	20
Parliament Total	9	304	3.0	92	442	21	93	21	87	20
National Assembly	7	217	3.2	74	342	22	76	22	70	21
Senate	2	87	2.3	18	100	18	17	17	17	17
Provinces Total	22	483	0.4	141	728	19	140	19	141	19
Balochistan	0	43	0.0	12	65	19	12	19	12	19
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	1	83	1.2	23	124	19	22	18	22	18
Punjab	1	248	0.4	73	371	20	76	21	76	21
Sindh	0	109	0.0	33	168	20	30	18	31	19

Note: The number of total legislative seats at each level has remained constant since 2002.

Source: Aurat Foundation. 2003. *Legislative Watch*. 18–19 (February); Aurat Foundation. 2008. *Legislative Watch*. 23 (January–March); and Aurat Foundation. 2013. *Legislative Watch*. 41 (March–December).

The Constitution (Article 32) also states that “[t]he State shall encourage local Government institutions composed of elected representatives of the areas concerned and in such institutions special representation will be given to peasants, workers and women.” The Devolution of Power Plan (2000 to 2009) and Local Government Act 2002 increased the quota proportion of seats reserved for women at all local government levels (i.e., union council, subdistrict, and district) to 33%.¹⁴² In 2008, local governments were suspended, and after passage of the 18th Amendment in 2010, each province was required to develop their own local government act. Initially, the local government acts of Punjab and Sindh retained the 33% quota for women’s seats, while Khyber Pakhtunkhwa decreased the quota for women’s seats to 10%. The FATA did not establish a quota of seats for women but permits women and other special groups to occupy up to 25% of total seats.¹⁴³

In 2013, the governments of Punjab and Sindh passed new local government acts that decreased the percentage of reserved seats for women at the directly elected first-tier level to 7.7% in Punjab and 11.1% in Sindh, and at indirectly elected higher tiers to 10.0% and 22.0%, respectively. Bills pending in Balochistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa propose to retain the 33% quotas of reserved seats for women enacted in 2001.¹⁴⁴ In national, provincial, and local legislatures, women may be elected to open seats as well as to seats reserved for minorities; however, the number of women usually elected through these avenues is small.

¹⁴² This increase in the proportion of reserved seats for women reportedly resulted in over 42,000 women entering local government.

¹⁴³ Y. Zaidi. 2013. *Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012*.

¹⁴⁴ Quota Project. Pakistan. <http://www.quotaproject.org/uid/countryview.cfm?CountryCode=PK>

Table 10: National and Provincial Legislative Committees, Women's Rights

NATIONAL	
Senate	Functional Committee on Human Rights
	Standing Committee on Law and Justice
National Assembly	Standing Committee on Law, Justice and Human Rights
PROVINCIAL	
Balochistan Assembly	Standing Committee on Services, General Administration Department, Interprovincial Communication, Law and Parliamentary Affairs, Prosecution and Human Rights
	Standing Committee on Social Welfare, Women Development, Zakat, Ushr, Haj Auqf, Minority Youth Affairs
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Assembly	Standing Committee on Law, Parliamentary Affairs and Human Rights
	Standing Committee on Zakat, Ushr, Social Welfare, Women Development Department
Punjab Assembly	Standing Committee on Social Welfare, Women Development and Bait-ul-Maal
	Standing Committee on Gender Mainstreaming
Sindh Assembly	Standing Committee on Law, Parliamentary Affairs and Human Rights
	Standing Committee on Women Development

Source: Pakistan Institute of Legislative Development and Transparency (PILDAT). PILDAT Online Directory of Parliamentary Committees, Civil Society and Research Organisations. <http://www.pildat.org/csodirectory/index.asp>

2. Committees

Functional and standing committees at national and provincial levels develop legislation related to women's rights as embodied in the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW, and other areas (Table 10). In addition, legislation may be developed by other functional and standing committees at the national and provincial level that includes provisions related to the rights of women.

From 2008 to 2013, 5 women were Parliamentary secretaries out of a total of 26 (about 20%). Women were chairs of less than 20% of standing committees in the National Assembly and provincial assemblies. Nevertheless, female representatives were able to move 20 out of 53 members' bills related to gender during this period.

3. Women's Caucuses

The first Women's Caucus was formed in the National Assembly in 2003 and became particularly active after 2008 as evidenced by passage of several pieces of important pro-women's rights legislation at the national level since that year. In December 2013, the National Women's Caucus passed a resolution calling for the establishment of women's caucuses in each of the provincial assemblies. To date, women's caucuses have been formed in Balochistan, Punjab, and Sindh, with one pending in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.

National and provincial women's caucuses meet together or one-on-one to develop strategies and to share experience. These interactions may facilitate development of

similar legislation across the provinces (e.g., domestic violence bills in Balochistan and Sindh). Further capacity building of and financing for women’s caucuses is needed, especially at the provincial level, to develop strategic plans including with other provincial women’s machineries (e.g., commissions and/or WDDs) to coordinate and move common agendas as well as to attract and focus resources. Provincial caucuses also need to develop intern programs to provide additional assistance to members.

C. Judicial Branch

Predevolution responsibility for reporting on Pakistan’s commitments to international conventions related to women’s rights was the responsibility of the Ministry of Women Development. Post-18th Amendment, responsibility fell under the Ministry of Human Rights¹⁴⁵ whose mission is to “safeguard and protect the Fundamental Rights as enshrined in the Articles 8–28, Principles of Policy’s Article 29 E, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, without any distinction of creed, race or religion.”¹⁴⁶ In 2013, the Ministry of Human Rights was merged into the Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights, which has a broader mandate of not only considering the human rights dimension of women’s issues but also to develop a wider legal framework of women’s empowerment and equality (i.e., to systematically review national laws against international commitments and facilitate the modification or creation of legislation that would bring alignment by Parliament and provincial assemblies).¹⁴⁷

The Constitution and other federal and provincial laws are binding for all. Thus, the government should aim to provide relevant support so that courts, police, and prisons are impartial in applying the law to females or males. Unfortunately, there is a lack of awareness of laws and protections, general disrespect for the rule of law, high financial costs of going to court, long delays, biases, corruption, and other inefficiencies.

Given the issues in accessing the formal legal system, Pakistanis may rely on informal systems of conflict resolution as well as illegal systems of justice (Box 2).¹⁴⁸ These informal systems are known by local communities, accessible in terms of financial and time costs, and dispense justice without lengthy time delays. However, these systems may have limited jurisdiction, provide judgments based on traditional beliefs or customs rather than on the law, be biased based on family relationships with one party in the dispute, give out sentences that are harsh with regard to the offense committed, and/or be illegal.

The National Baseline Survey 2012 found significant support for women going outside of the home to seek justice in the formal legal system (females 83%, men 66%), with both females and males voicing support for women to go to a police station than to a court.

145 Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Study*.

146 Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights. <http://www.mohr.gov.pk>

147 NCSW. 2010. *A Report on the Formal and Parallel Legal Systems Prevalent in Pakistan*. Islamabad.

148 Informal or parallel systems have been declared illegal by the Supreme Court. Junior judicial officers are directed to conduct their own independent investigations and not base their judgments on the findings of these parallel bodies. However, despite such clear directions, the system continues to be prevalent and manifests itself in urban and rural society. Lower-level judicial officials and police are also complicit in giving such bodies cover. N. Ansari. 2014. Biased/Unbiased—The Parallel Justice System in Rural Pakistan: A Close Scrutiny. *The Express Tribune*. 26 February. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/676185/biasedunbiased-the-parallel-justice-system-in-rural-pakistan-a-close-scrutiny/>; *The Express Tribune*. 2014. No Room for “Misconduct:” Civil Judge Suspended over Involvement in Jirga. 9 February. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/669374/no-room-for-misconduct-civil-judge-suspended-over-involvement-in-jirga/>; and A. Kharal. 2014. Jirga “Justice:” Widow Gang Raped on Orders of Muzaffargarh Panchayat. *The Express Tribune*. 30 January. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/665337/jirga-justice-widow-gang-raped-on-orders-of-muzaffargarh-panchayat/>

Box 2: Traditional Systems of Conflict Resolution and Justice

Informal and/or illegal systems of conflict resolution and/or justice include

- *Jirgas*. Male elders of Pakhtun families within a tribe sit together to decide by consensus on some major issue.
- *Loya jirga*. A large *jirga* consisting of elders of several Pakhtun tribes to decide issues that have a bearing on all of Pakhtun society.
- *Maraka*. A *jirga* for minor disputes within one Pakhtun family.
- *Mir system*. *Mirs* had total control over their population, in contrast to *jirgas* that serve primarily as dispute resolution bodies. *Mirs* were the rulers of the northern region who were “law givers” and adjudicators. These leaders lost these functions after their districts formally became part of the Northern Areas of Pakistan in 1970.
- *Panchayats*. Informal system of dispute resolution at the village level in remote, rural areas of the Punjab.
- *Sarkari jirga*. *Jirgas* made up of elders approved by the political agent empowered under the Frontier Crimes Regulations 1901 who are convened to resolve a dispute or conflict in the tribal communities of Federally Administered Tribal Areas.

Source: CSS Forum. Institution of Jirga. <http://www.cssforum.com.pk/css-optional-subjects/group-h-regional-languages/pushto/43106-institution-jirga.html>

However, only 6% of females and 8% of males said that any woman in the household had actually gone outside of the home to seek justice.¹⁴⁹

Some of the barriers that women face in going outside of the home for justice include lack of awareness of fundamental legal rights; fear of physical, emotional, or financial backlash from males or families; and relevant laws that overturned or misinterpreted and used against women. In addition, police stations and courts were reported by women often to lack separate seating areas, areas for prayer, and toilets for women, as well as separate counters and female staff.¹⁵⁰

Women are, in fact, underrepresented in the judiciary. Specifically, none of the 17 judges of the Supreme Court are women, and only 3 of 103 judges serving in the five high courts are women (2.9% compared with the 33.0% target set in the Beijing Platform for Action). There are larger numbers of women working as judicial officers, particularly for civil cases, in the lower judiciary.¹⁵¹ Women also represent less than 1% of the total police force, with the majority in the lowest tiers of the police hierarchy.

149 Women are also disadvantaged in their reliance on informal systems of conflict resolution and justice, as they are often excluded from providing evidence or influencing male decision makers.

150 Gender Equity Program. 2012. *Gender Differences: Understanding Perceptions – National Baseline Study*.

151 Despite encouragement from ADB and USAID to appoint more female judges in their loans and grant programs, and the Kerry-Lugar Bill (2009) in the United States reserving funds for this purpose, Pakistan’s judicial policy has not, to date, reserved any specific number or percentage of seats for women in the Sharia Court, Supreme Court, or higher or lower courts. S. Ali. 2013. Pakistan: Gender Imbalance in Pakistan Judiciary. *Asian Human Rights Commission*. 6 August. <http://www.humanrights.asia/news/forwarded-news/AHRC-FAT-022-2013>

D. Other Relevant Institutions

1. Ombudsman for Protection against Harassment of Women

The Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Law passed in 2010. The law requires that committees (i.e., of three persons) for protection against harassment be formed in all public and private organizations and display the code of conduct included in the law. There is a timetable (60 days total) for collecting evidence from both the person filing the harassment complaint and the defendant, a procedure for review of the evidence, and conduct of hearings by the committee, after which it delivers a decision in favor of the complainant or defendant. All expenses of the committees are to be borne by the public or private organization, and fees are not to be charged to the complainant or defendant. The current interpretation of the Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Law extends the law's provisions to sexual harassment at the workplace of men or of women.

The Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women in Workplace opened in 2011 and currently has a staff of 20 people.¹⁵² Provincial offices opened in Punjab in March 2013 with three professional staff members (Box 3) and in Sindh in July 2012 with one professional staff member.¹⁵³ These offices meet at least once a year to discuss common issues and to plan strategy. One of the key functions of the offices is to serve as appellate courts where the complainant or defendant may request review of the decision of the committees at the institutional level, and/or subsequently a review of the decision by the Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women in Workplace.¹⁵⁴

Box 3: Ombudsman's Office for Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace, Punjab

In Punjab, in addition to the regular staff, a government judicial officer has been assigned to the Ombudsman's Office for Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace to help with investigations. Further, each of the nine divisional commissioners has been requested to appoint an officer to liaise with the office if a complaint of harassment is made in their divisions. In the future, the office must become financially independent from the Women Development Department in the event that it needs to review cases of harassment brought by or against staff of the department.

Source: Ombudsman's Office for Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace, Punjab. 2014. Interview. May.

152 The Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women in Workplace is staffed by 1 secretary (grade 20), 14 deputy secretaries (grade 19), 2 deputy directors (grade 18), 2 consultants, and 1 liaison officer. Cases can be lodged and tracked through an online system. Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women in Workplace. <http://www.fos-pah.gov.pk/make-complaint.php>. As of February 2015, nearly 200 cases had been reported. APP. 2015. Federal Ombudsman Secretariat Registers 200 Harassment Cases. *Daily Times*. 5 February.

153 Provincial WDDs provided administrative support during the establishment of the ombudsman's offices.

154 Cases brought to the ombudsman's offices have included harassment of lady health visitors by doctors and female students by professors. One example of a case brought on appeal was that of a male hospital worker dismissed on charges that he had harassed other workers. Upon investigation, the ombudsman's office found that the proper procedures for investigation of complaints had not been followed by the organization and that dismissal was based on a reason not included in the law. The hospital worker was subsequently reinstated.

Despite passage of the Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Law in 2010, as of 2014, many organizations, both public and private, have not established committees, and committee members selected from the working class rather than professional class need more training regarding their roles. Further, these organizations have not posted the code of conduct, or made employees aware of their rights under the law.¹⁵⁵ Some destitute women come directly to the ombudsman's office for support when they are harassed, as cases of harassment are often suppressed in these organizations. Women are also concerned that they may be unable to find employment elsewhere if they lodge a harassment case.

To address the problem of insufficient awareness among organizations and their employees, the National School of Public Policy and Management and Professional Development Department developed training materials on the law, and courses have been included in the curricula of government training institutes and placed on the Administrative Staff College annual calendar. Standard operating procedures have been prepared but need to be adapted with regard to who can be members of committees and procedures and timetables to follow during inquiry proceedings.¹⁵⁶ Continuous engagement is required by the ombudsman's office with public and private sector organizations to ensure that committees and focal persons are selected and trained in procedures for processing of complaints.

2. Commissions on the Status of Women

The NCSW was established in 2000. Its mandate is to examine the relevance and efficacy of all government policies, programs, and measures¹⁵⁷ related to safeguarding and protecting the interests of women. The NCSW must also achieve gender equality in accordance with the Constitution and other laws as well as obligations under international commitments. The NCSW reports on Pakistan's progress related to international commitments through the Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights. The NCSW responds to questions from the Parliament's Human Rights and Law Committee through the ministry and similarly has to work through the ministry regarding passage of new or amendments to existing laws.

The NCSW was granted autonomy on 8 March 2012,¹⁵⁸ meaning it can operate independently in administrative and financial matters. However, the rules of business for the NCSW have not been approved; therefore, it has not yet been able to hire staff, and most of the past several years have been spent institution building. At present, the NCSW is understaffed, with only one chair, four interns, and one secretary. The NCSW staff is expected to increase to 92 professionals in the future.

155 One recent innovation has been the establishment of a sexual harassment watch website where institutions that have implemented the requirements of the Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Law 2010 can register. Sexual Harassment Watch. <http://www.sexualharassmentwatch.org/>

156 Cases filed from Southern Punjab indicate that the standard operating procedures are not followed in all cases. For example, if a committee was not established prior to a case being filed, it cannot be formed subsequently for purposes of hearing that case.

157 Pakistan Permanent Mission to the United Nations. 2008. Statement by Mahmood Salim Mahmood, Secretary, Ministry of Women Development on Agenda Item Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, at the 52nd Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. February. http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw52/statements_missions/pakistan.pdf

158 National Commission on the Status of Women. 2012. *Annual Report, March 2010 to March 2012*. Islamabad.

The NCSW has established a law and policy committee, research committee, and executive committee. In the future, the NCSW will have a monitoring section and resource center as a repository of the Ministry of Women Development's library and for new documents relevant to its work. The NCSW can also mobilize financial resources for its activities.¹⁵⁹

Specific current or planned initiatives of the NCSW include

- (i) participating in advisory groups of various gender-related bodies at the national and provincial level (e.g., the Gender Equity Project);
- (ii) finalizing a new national policy on empowerment and development of women;
- (iii) supporting continued development of legislation for women's equity and empowerment at the federal level to provide needed protections in the ICT as well as to guide the development of new legislation at the provincial level;
- (iv) communicating with, coordinating, and supporting institutional development of provincial women's caucuses;
- (v) developing indicators for quarterly monitoring and reporting on international commitments with provincial women's caucuses;
- (vi) developing standard operating procedures and monitoring mechanisms for *darul amans* in collaboration with NGOs such as Dastak, Rozan, and Shirkat Gah;
- (vii) supporting development of sensitivity among enumerators for a national survey on GBV per United Nations indicators on crimes against women;¹⁶⁰
- (viii) participating in a strategic planning exercise with the Election Commission of Pakistan financed by UN Women; and
- (ix) advocating for the creation or passage of laws whereby all political parties fielding candidates in an election are required to have a minimum of 33% female candidates.¹⁶¹

Provincial commissions on the Status of Women were formed in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in 2013 and in Punjab in 2014 under provincial laws modeled after the national law that created the NCSW. The provincial commissions have their own individual mandates and programs and also provide support to the NCSW by obtaining data from provincial line departments on indicators required in reports on Pakistan's international commitments concerning women's rights.

E. Emerging Opportunities and Challenges

Women's governmental organizations in Pakistan at national and provincial levels are developing and reviewing policies and plans, hiring staff, and attempting to move to offices nearer national or provincial bodies. If matched by sufficient financing, this period of growth can increase the visibility of each organization with respect to its

¹⁵⁹ The NCSW can mobilize private resources in addition to the funds it receives from the public budget. This independence has benefits and costs, as it becomes an easy recipient for donor funding whether the initiative to be funded fits with the primary mandate of the NCSW or not (e.g., setting up help lines).

¹⁶⁰ The Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, with support from the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and UNDP, are working to make this survey part of its regular work.

¹⁶¹ Chair, NCSW. 2014. Interview. 15 March.

specific areas of concern as well as to joint efforts to improve women's equity and economic empowerment.

Challenges remain such as lack of office space allocated within the regular offices of the government (e.g., for the Punjab Women's Caucus); lack of administrative and/or financial autonomy within the provincial setting (e.g., the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa WDD); lack of support from provincial leaders to enable the organizations to carry out basic functions¹⁶² (e.g., WDD and review of development plans of other departments concerning gender mainstreaming); high levels of personnel turnover, especially in the WDDs, resulting in continued needs for capacity building; lack of information in forms on potential gender impacts of proposed development projects; and lack of success to identify and include indicators in surveys required for gender-related budgeting as well as to report on Pakistan's progress to meet gender commitments in international conventions.

¹⁶² In some cases, perhaps due to lack of WDD staff who have the technical capacity to understand how gender would be mainstreamed into nonsocial sectors.

PART D

Future Entry Points

IX. Entry Points for Development Assistance

This chapter reviews women's equality and empowerment within the context of select sectors of priority to the government and identifies potential entry points for future development partner assistance in the same sectors. More detailed versions of these sector reviews are presented in Volume II. The chapter also suggests ways that development partner assistance, regardless of sector, can be more effective in supporting progress toward gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan.

A. Infrastructure

Infrastructure is an important input to further gender equality and women's economic empowerment as it facilitates economic growth that creates jobs, frees up women's time for educational or employment purposes if using better sources of energy and transport, and increases access to educational and health services. In addition, investments in infrastructure, such as in irrigation and water management, can bring about improvements in human capital through better availability of food as well as reductions in time (and monetary) cost of ill health within the household.

There is a wide gap between the demand for and supply of energy by households and businesses, because of factors that constrain investment in expansion and maintenance of energy production as well as the government's provision of energy subsidies. However, this gap can be reduced by adopting energy conservation behaviors and technologies.

About 90% of rural and 50% of urban households use biofuels as their main or supplementary source of energy for cooking, lighting, and operating appliances. Women in households are responsible for fuel collection, transport to homes, fuel processing, and storage. These tasks have opportunity costs (e.g., less time available for investments in child quality, higher risks of health problems associated with biofuel collection and use, and higher risks of harassment from males during fuel collection). Women in households reliant on intermittent electricity also have higher opportunity costs in terms of lower efficiency in carrying out household tasks that require electric appliances, and reduced productivity of those who work from home.

Neither the government's energy policy nor the framework for energy sector reform refers to women. In contrast, the alternative energy policy does argue that investing in alternative energies will reduce time and health burdens on rural women of collecting biofuels.

Further, women participate in the energy sector labor force as engineers, staff of energy state-owned enterprises (SOEs), and entrepreneurs in alternative energy design and operations. However, women comprise only 0.7%–1.2% of total employees and 3.5% of total officers in energy SOEs, far less than the government’s 10.0% quota. Female employees in energy SOEs report experiencing discrimination in a variety of forms that effectively limits their professional advancement.

Entry points for future development partner support in the energy sector include

- (i) assessing the gender implications of proposed energy sector reforms (e.g., pricing) on women versus men in households;
- (ii) developing permanent social and environmental impact assessment and monitoring units with gender experts on staff within energy SOEs;
- (iii) supporting the development of models whereby microfinance institutions provide financing to facilitate the provision and use of alternative energy technologies;
- (iv) developing training programs for female entrepreneurs to work in various capacities along the alternative energy supply chain; and
- (v) determining effective means of communication and messages, and related needed incentives to increase efforts toward energy conservation.

Pakistan’s SOEs are engaged in the design, construction, and oversight of large infrastructure projects, many of which are partially or fully financed by loans and grants from development partners. However, SOEs do not have permanent departments to design and monitor social and environmental safeguards following international best practices, including efforts to mitigate gender impacts of infrastructure projects. Development partners should encourage SOEs to set up permanent social and environmental safeguard departments that include gender specialists on their permanent staffs. Pakistan’s universities currently produce graduates with skills in environmental and social impact technical areas who could be employed in these newly formed units.

B. Public Services Sectors

1. Education

Pakistan has made domestic and international commitments to educate girls and boys to age 16. Literacy rates of females and males have improved over the past 13 years, although there is still a significant gap. Literacy rates among females by province are widely dissimilar, indicating differences in demand- and supply-side factors that have influenced households’ decision making regarding the education of girls. Moreover, disparities in early childhood, primary and secondary education outputs and outcomes are evident by the sex of the child, rural or urban residence, and wealth quintile, reflecting interactions between factors associated with demand for and supply of education.

The 18th Amendment devolved early childhood, primary, and secondary education, and adult literacy to provincial governments, while the federal government retained responsibility for technical and vocational education and training and university education. Pakistan spends 2%–3% of gross national income on education, low in comparison with

countries in the region and compared with international recommendations. Additional public and private sector financing for education is required to address access and quality problems system-wide. Development partner assistance has supported pilot efforts that have identified cost-effective means to increase enrollment and/or improve students' performance through various incentives.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) providing sector budget support linked to provincial assembly passage of bills authorizing increases in recurrent budgets for education and adult literacy;
- (ii) supporting the review of curricula and textbooks to correct gender biases;
- (iii) investing in the development of curricula in select local languages to reduce barriers to education for girls and boys living in more remote and rural areas;
- (iv) supporting cash transfers for education of girls from poor households;
- (v) supporting the scaling up of provision of vouchers to rural communities to private schools that enroll at least 50% girls to poor areas;
- (vi) improving the relevance of technical and vocational education and training in fields with a high demand for female labor;
- (vii) supporting the Rural Support Programme and other grassroots organizations to scale up nonformal basic education including functional literacy for adult women;
- (viii) building capacity in education strategic planning, management, implementation of reforms, and monitoring, especially as related to improving equity in girls' access to quality education;
- (ix) strengthening mechanisms that improve accountability of school operations that effectively increase mothers' participation;
- (x) supporting the inclusion of gender-sensitive targets and indicators in national and provincial education sector plans and finance surveys to monitor progress;
- (xi) supporting multivariate analysis of educational output and outcome data by gender to take into account the impact of factors other than rural and urban location and income quintiles;
- (xii) developing and testing incentives for cross-departmental initiatives to address the needs of girls (and boys) with disabilities to attend primary school or the equivalent;
- (xiii) pilot testing the provision of cash transfers for girls from poor households to continue through secondary school;
- (xiv) evaluating which messages and media outlets are most effective among different groups in the population to raise parent and public awareness of the economic and social benefits of educating girls and to generate public demand for greater government investments and recurrent expenditures in the education sector; and
- (xv) using a sector-wide approach to facilitate the cost-effective organization of ongoing donor financing to improve education, especially for girls, at the provincial level.

2. Population, Health, and Nutrition

Pakistan has made progress toward achievement of, but will not reach its health MDGs by 2015. Girls have slightly lower infant and under-5-years mortality rates than boys, were less likely to be underweight or stunted, and had equal reported incidence as boys of acute respiratory infections and diarrhea. Women are more likely to breastfeed longer, provide

any vaccines, treat acute respiratory infections with antibiotics, and provide prepackaged oral rehydration therapy to boys rather than girls.

The frontline of Pakistan's health system is made up of two cadres of female health providers, lady health visitors, and community midwives. These workers provide cost-effective services at the household level (e.g., contraceptives, oral rehydration therapy, and skilled birth attendance). Yet improving access to and quality of health services provision by the public sector is hampered by lack of recurrent budget, a shortcoming that has not been effectively addressed by development partner assistance. The majority of total health spending in Pakistan is from households to private sector providers, resulting in an interest in developing health insurance.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) continuing to finance essential foreign exchange using health commodities (e.g., contraceptives, immunizations, and antiretrovirals);
- (ii) supporting efforts to introduce and expand the use of information and communication technology to provide lady health visitors, community midwives, and others providing health services in rural areas with continuing education and outreach;
- (iii) analyzing PDHS data to determine, controlling for other factors, whether and by how much the sex of a child is correlated with health services utilization and/or outcomes;
- (iv) estimating the resource gap for providing maternal and child health services as planned by each province;
- (v) testing conditional cash transfers and contracting options to identify which innovations can most efficiently achieve improvements in maternal and child health outcomes in rural and urban settings; and
- (vi) supporting efforts to introduce the use of information and communication technology to improve the collection of vital and health services statistics.

3. Social Protection

Article 38 of the Constitution notes that the government is responsible for providing social security for all government employees and basic necessities to all citizens unable to earn a livelihood, and reducing disparities in income and earnings. The government faces a number of challenges in providing social security and social assistance, including population growth, aging, and increases in the number requiring assistance in cases of conflict and natural disaster, as well as multiple institutions charged to develop policy and provide social security or social assistance benefits and slower growth in government revenue due to slow or negative economic growth since the mid-2000s.

In 2008, Pakistan introduced the Benazir Income Support Programme (BISP) to provide targeted cash transfers to poor households. BISP transfers are made to women with the hope that this will empower them to influence the spending of funds on inputs that improve human capital. BISP transfers are now a permanent part of Pakistan's social assistance policy and programs. The BISP has also started piloting initiatives that assist

recipients in graduating from dependence on the program and test the effectiveness of unconditional versus conditional cash transfers in increasing household investment in human capital.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) supporting review of options to standardize benefits across social insurance programs, including for females, whether married or not;
- (ii) developing clear guidance in emergency action plans on the roles of safety protection institutions in providing financial and in-kind assistance to those affected or displaced by natural disasters, including women who may not only be disproportionately represented among the displaced but may be more easily registered as eligible under the BISP and other social benefit programs;
- (iii) developing strategies effective at reducing unemployment and underemployment of women in rural areas (e.g., linkage of the BISP, microfinance, and Rural Support Programme efforts);
- (iv) assessing and financing capacity-building requirements to decentralize part or all of the BISP and its related graduation programs to the provincial level;
- (v) supporting the development of national beneficiary registry on the foundation of the BISP database to improve the coordination and monitoring of various social benefits provided to females;
- (vi) supporting the inclusion of indicators and analysis of survey data to assure that quantification of the need for and impact of social protection takes into account gender;
- (vii) supporting the development of up-to-date provincial databases on public and private sector facilities and staffing to help ensure that recipients of conditional cash transfers have access to functioning facilities and trained personnel; and
- (viii) conducting an impact evaluation of the individual and joint social services utilization and poverty impacts of community infrastructure grants, microfinance, and provision of health insurance (Waseela-e-Sehet) and cash transfers conditioned on children attending school (Waseela-e-Taleem).

C. Private Services Sectors

1. Finance

Only a minority of Pakistan's population uses financial services offered by banks and other institutions in the formal sector. The remainder relies either on informal arrangements or does not regularly use financial services of any kind. Only 6.0% of women reported having access to either an individual or joint bank account; 53.0% indicating that they had sole control and 33.7% saying that they had joint control of the bank account, with the remaining 8.7% reporting that their accounts were controlled by males in the household.

The microfinance industry in Pakistan is estimated to reach at least 2.0 million citizens aged 15 years and older. In theory, females' access to microcredit provides opportunities to start or expand a business and to generate income. However, the evidence base to support claims of positive impacts of microfinance on gender equality in Pakistan is weak.

Specifically, impact evaluations have neither measured impacts on females and males nor controlled for variables that would also have affected measurement of the impacts on females and males. Further, findings from at least two recent surveys suggested that much of the potential of microfinance for women's economic empowerment is unrealized, as household males often control funds borrowed by women.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) requiring finance institutions in the formal sector that receive development partner assistance and/or loans to provide the financial products needed, and amenities required, for females;
- (ii) requiring microfinance providers receiving development partner assistance to provide financial literacy training to all female borrowers, and entrepreneurship training to women intending to start or expand a business;
- (iii) encouraging ongoing and new initiatives by banks and/or microfinance institutions to include measures and analysis of program impacts on females; and
- (iv) developing curricula to provide financial literacy to students at middle and secondary school levels, including females.

2. Inclusive Rural and Urban Development

Inclusive development aims to provide equality of opportunity in participating in and benefiting from economic growth, while providing social programs for those who do not benefit from growth. Inclusive development projects include components that develop infrastructure, improve governance, and provide social services.

The Rural Support Programme is Pakistan's model for inclusive rural development. It reaches more women in rural areas than any other nongovernment effort and has shown greater success in improving women's livelihoods than increasing women's participation in their communities.

Pakistan's urban governments face different challenges. Urban governments often lack personnel with training on how to incorporate gender into urban planning and/or services provision, and/or such personnel lack a mandate from senior officials to incorporate gender considerations. Urban NGOs that provide services to women lack mechanisms for knowledge sharing, given a lack of funds for such purposes.

Best practices for effective implementation and sustainability of multisector inclusive development projects in Pakistan have been determined. Yet evidence is weak concerning best practices to achieve gender objectives in multisector efforts due to failure at the project design phase to clearly specify gender-related outputs and to develop monitoring and evaluation systems to allow rigorous impact evaluation.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) incentivizing institutionalization of permanent environmental, gender, and social units within government enterprises rather than relying on temporary project cadres;

- (ii) providing assistance to develop incentives for industries that disproportionately hire women (especially literate women who are unemployed or underemployed) to locate in semirural and peri-urban areas;
- (iii) supporting projects that increase women's linkage with agricultural value chains (e.g., development of milk collection centers for transport to larger markets and/or development of small-scale, organic agro-processing facilities), including as a part of microfinance and entrepreneurship building to improve women's incomes and mobility;
- (iv) providing seed capital to create organizations like the Punjab Skills Development Fund to develop job placement opportunities for urban women;
- (v) creating programs on mobile platforms to provide retraining for women laid off during periods of slow or negative economic growth;
- (vi) incentivizing female-owned businesses or those with high percentages of female employees into value chains for agricultural and industrial products and services;
- (vii) providing financing to support leadership and staff development and financial savings by NGOs to facilitate retention of experienced staff (especially female);
- (viii) scaling up approaches that improve women's income from agriculture (e.g., veterinary training);
- (ix) testing approaches for women to provide sales and maintenance services for low-cost technologies to remove bacterial, viral, and other contaminants from water; and
- (x) identifying incentives needed to reverse women's declining employment in industry and service sectors in peri-urban and urban markets.

3. Transport

Transport services are directly responsible for 11% of Pakistan's GDP and are an essential input to household and business investment and production. Addressing the deficits in transport infrastructure, especially rural roads and railways, is challenging given the large number of public and private sector institutions involved as well as the high investment and maintenance costs relative to revenues.

Women's problems accessing transport are supported by evidence of the limited ownership of Pakistanis in general, and women relative to men, have of any mode of transport. Those who lack ownership of any form of transport have to rely on extended family, neighbors, or public transport to travel any significant distance from the home.

Although men generally provide construction labor for major highway and other transport projects, women have successfully been engaged to provide labor for maintaining rural roads when paid government wages and benefits, and also when males on the project have been provided with training to sensitize them to gender equality and human rights. Further, a pilot test of female-friendly bus services between Islamabad and Rawalpindi found that participants reported better transport experiences using the piloted bus service, but also identified aspects of design for improvement before scaling up.

Entry points for future development partner assistance include

- (i) supporting the establishment of a gender task force in the Ministry of Communications and/or the National Highway Authority with responsibility to engender transport policies, investments, and services;
- (ii) supporting pilot-testing options to improve transport for females to access education and health services (e.g., microfinance for motorcycles, subcontracting for female-friendly rural transport, and/or increased reliance on mobile approaches);
- (iii) supporting pilot testing to determine the needs of poor urban women for subsidized bus services, types of behavior-change communication campaigns that reduce sexual harassment on urban transport systems, and adaptation of female-friendly approaches for railways;
- (iv) providing incentives to engineering and business schools to develop course materials concerning gender and transport to female students to enter civil engineering, and to professional associations to sponsor events for members to increase awareness of gender impacts of different transport and urban and rural system designs; and
- (v) synthesizing information on HIV/AIDS transmission via transport relevant to different communities in urban and rural areas of Pakistan, and of best practices for prevention programs that involve government and civil society.

D. Knowledge Creation and Management

Regardless of sector, gender-related efforts of development partners in Pakistan are often not funded on an ongoing basis, leading to the allocation of funds to support pilot efforts. When pilot efforts are quickly designed and implemented, they most often only provide qualitative case study information of limited value to policy and program decision makers. Although such case studies are helpful in quickly identifying design and implementation aspects that need altering before finalizing an intervention's design, they can also provide essential information to determine the potential gains, or lack thereof, that would come from scaling up the piloted approach.

The progress cited in this report toward gender equality and women's empowerment in Pakistan reflect the choices of millions of Pakistani women and men, households, and communities and their cumulative impact over time. Unfortunately, insufficient multivariate (i.e., cross-sectional and time-series) analysis of data has been carried out to determine the independent role of the sex of respondents on an observed outcome, compared with the impacts of other independent variables. Further, little research has been conducted that connects survey data with program or project information to consider the cost-effectiveness of different interventions on achieving a given outcome, and/or whether the joint implementation of interventions results in larger and/or more rapid changes. Thus, development partners should endow a permanent fund to help establish a proposal review from Pakistan's universities and research institutes that would support analysis of sex-disaggregated data.

The NCSW, through revival of the Ministry of Women Development Library, can play an important role in maximizing learning from small pilot efforts through sophisticated analyses of datasets by cataloguing this literature and linking it on its website with a search engine that would aid in the conduct of meta-analyses of informal and formal studies before designing new initiatives and/or identifying best practices for scaling up. Further, the Pakistan Bureau of Statistics could convene a working group made up of public and private universities and other research institutions in Pakistan to advise on data and analysis needs and current research opportunities unrealized due to lack of funds.

E. Development Partner Coordination

The INGAD should consider these initiatives to increase the effectiveness of gender mainstreaming within development assistance in Pakistan:

- encourage all major development partners in Pakistan to demonstrate their strong commitment to gender by having at least one gender specialist as a permanent member of their in-country staff and to allocate a given proportion of their budget for gender-related initiatives on an ongoing basis;
- designate an INGAD member as a focal person to represent INGAD on other sector networks (e.g., energy) to learn and share knowledge about gender issues related to sector development and to be a resource to other INGAD members about what is evolving the sector; and
- develop and update on a biannual basis a census of the gender-related efforts within the portfolios of all INGAD members to coordinate gender-related efforts in similar sectors or geographic regions, share lessons learned, and reduce duplication of effort.

Appendixes

APPENDIX 1

Persons Contacted

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Government of Pakistan: National Level					
Muhammad Tahir Noor	Director general (Cash Transfer)	Benazir Income Support Programme	X		
Muhammad Shahrukh Abbasey	Deputy director, Communication	Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women at Workplace	X		
Yasmin Abbasi	Ombudsman	Federal Ombudsman Secretariat for Protection against Harassment of Women at Workplace	X		
Shajjahan Khan	Section officer, Economic Affairs Division	Ministry of Finance, Revenue, Economic Affairs, Statistics and Privatization	X		
Zafar Nasarullah	Joint secretary, Economic Affairs Division	Ministry of Finance, Revenue, Economic Affairs, Statistics and Privatization	X		
Sabina Qureshi	Deputy director, Economic Affairs Division	Ministry of Finance, Revenue, Economic Affairs, Statistics and Privatization	X		
Hassan Mangi	Director general	Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights	X		
Ms. Shabana	Gender expert	Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights	X		
Mr. Shahzad	Deputy director	Ministry of Law, Justice and Human Rights	X		
	Secretary, Planning and Development Division	Ministry of Planning, Development and Reforms	X		
	Chief, Women's Development Manpower Section	Ministry of Planning, Development and Reforms	X		
Khawar Mumtaz	Chairperson	National Commission on the Status of Women	X		
Sardar Ijaz Ahmad	General manager, Environment, Afforestation, Land and Social Wing	National Highway Authority, Ministry of Communication	X		
Rubina Kausar	Assistant director general, Environment	National Highway Authority, Ministry of Communication	X		
Fasih Mumtaz Malik	Deputy director, Environment	National Highway Authority, Ministry of Communication	X		

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Aamera Riaz	Deputy director, Land and Social	National Highway Authority, Ministry of Communication	X		
Government of Pakistan: Balochistan Province					
Abdul Rasool Zehri	Chief planning officer	Health Department	X		
Haider Ali Shikoh	Secretary	Women Development Department	X		X
Government of Pakistan: Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA)					
Waheed Ullah Khan	Deputy director, Directorate of Projects	FATA Secretariat	X		X
Government of Pakistan: Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province					
Mohammad Abbas Khan	Advisor to the Speaker, Provincial Assembly and Coordinator, Donors' Coordinator Cell	Chief Minister's Secretariat	X		
Farah Hamid Khan	Secretary	Higher Education, Archives and Libraries Department	X		
Muhammad Suleman	Director, Planning and Evaluation Social Welfare	Planning and Development Department	X		
Amna Durrani	Coordination Officer	Provincial Commission on the Status of Women	X		
Neelum Toru	Chair	Provincial Commission on the Status of Women	X		
Government of Pakistan: Punjab Province					
Zahida Sarwar	Acting project director, Health Sector Reform Programme	Health Department	X		
Ishtiaq Ahmed	Planning officer, Foreign Aid, Economic Cooperation Administration	Planning and Development Department	X		
Arif Anwar Baloch	Secretary	Planning and Development Department	X		
Amjad Duraiz	Chief, Foreign Aid, Economic Cooperation Administration	Planning and Development Department	X		
Nader Khaliq	Deputy secretary, WD	Planning and Development Department	X		
Hina Nawaz	Project officer, Social Sector ME & PA	Planning and Development Department	X		

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
		School Education Department	X		
Muhammad Suleman	Director	Social Welfare and Bait-ul-Mall Department	X		
Irum Bukhari	Secretary	Women Development Department	X		
Government of Pakistan: Sindh Province					
Lubna Salahuddin	Special secretary	Education and Literacy Department	X		
Iqbal Hussain Durrani	Secretary	Health Department	X		
Salman Memon	Chief engineer, Kotri Barrage Region	Irrigation Department, Hyderabad	X		
Parvez Ahmed Seehar	Program director, Sindh Cities Improvement Program	Planning and Development Department	X		
Sarwat Sultana	Assistant chief, Social Sector	Planning and Development Department	X		
	Secretary	Planning and Development	X		
Syed Zahid Ali Shah	Superintending engineer		X		
Khalid Akhtar	Deputy director	Women Development Department	X		
Mumtaz Ali	Deputy secretary	Women Development Department	X		
Tariq Baloch	District officer	Women Development Department			X
Mudassir Iqbal	Secretary	Women Development Department	X		
Mussarat Jabeen	Deputy director	Women Development Department	X		
Qazi Shahid Pervez	Secretary	Works and Services Department	X		
Government of Pakistan: State-Owned or State-Supported Enterprises					
Shagulta Alizai	Senior consultant	First Women Bank, Karachi	X		
Charmaine H. Hidayatullah	Acting president and chief executive officer	First Women Bank, Karachi	X		
Shaheen Zamir	Senior vice-president, Marketing and Public Relations, Women's Entrepreneurship Development	First Women Bank, Karachi	X		
Mahr Khalid Mehmood	Director, Environment and Social Impact Cell	National Transmission and Despatch Company	X		
Abdul Rauf	Engineer	Pakistan Electric Power Company, Lahore	X		
Ali Ashfaq	Livestock specialist, Diamer Bhasha Dam	Water and Power Development Authority	X		

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Rahim Shah	Community development specialist, Diامر Bhasha Dam	Water and Power Development Authority	X		
Farhana Mazhar	Gender specialist	Water and Power Development Authority	X		
Private Sector					
Neha Mankani	Manager, Research, Monitoring and Evaluation	Aahung, Karachi		X	
Kamar S. Khan	Head, Behavioral and Social Sciences, Community Health Sciences	Aga Khan University, Karachi		X	
Babar Tasneem Shaikh	Director, Health and Built Environment	Aga Khan Foundation, Islamabad		X	
Simi Kamal	Chief of party, Gender Equity Program	Aurat Foundation, Islamabad	X		
Uzma Zarrin	Director, Programs, Operations and Coordination, Social Mobilization	Aurat Foundation, Islamabad	X		X
Sadia Ahmed	Director, Program Development and Quality	CARE International in Pakistan, Islamabad	X		
Amber Junaid	Senior governance advisor, Program Development and Quality Unit	CARE International in Pakistan, Islamabad	X		
Kaneez Fatima M. Kassim	Gender equity and advocacy advisor	CARE International in Pakistan, Islamabad	X		
Najma Khan	Advocacy manager	CARE International in Pakistan, Islamabad	X		
Jay Shankar Lal	Chief of party, Community Infrastructure Improvement Project	CARE International in Pakistan, Islamabad	X		
Malik Abdul Rahim Tabassum	Coordinator, Schools	Education Health and Development Foundation, Islamabad	X		
Anum Mughal	Director, Client Relations	Empowerment thru Creative Integration, Islamabad		X	
Ume Laila Azhar	Executive director	HomeNet Pakistan, Lahore			
M. Javaid Pasha	Senior programme officer	HomeNet Pakistan, Lahore			
Rabia Khan	Gender expert	Independent consultant, Karachi			X

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Meher Noshirwani	Gender and environment expert	Independent consultant, Karachi		X	
Amina Siddiqui	Gender expert	Independent consultant, Karachi		X	
Rukhsana Rashid	Gender expert	Independent consultant, Islamabad		X	
Hyder Shar	Project manager	Indus Resource Centre, Karachi		X	
Roshaneh Zafar	Managing director	Kashf Foundation, Lahore	X		
Zia Ahmed Awan	President	Lawyers for Human Rights and Legal Aid	X		
Mr. Waheed	Manager	Madadgaar Helpline, Karachi	X		
Ms. Samreen	Monitoring and evaluation officer	Madadgaar Helpline, Karachi	X		
Maliha Husain	Executive director and gender consultant and trainer	Mehergarh, Islamabad		X	
Salam Khalid	Programme manager, Gender and Development	National Rural Support Programme, Islamabad		X	
Farhat Parveen	Executive director	NOW Communities, Karachi		X	
Arif Jabbar Khan	Country director	Oxfam, Islamabad		X	
Muhammad Zubair	Program manager	Potohar Organization for Development Advocacy, Islamabad		X	
Ali Moiz	Livelihood advisor	Plan International Pakistan, Islamabad		X	
Ali Akbar Bosan	Chief operating officer	Punjab Skills Development Fund, Lahore	X		
Hajra Mazari	Associate, Placement and Testing Services	Punjab Skills Development Fund, Lahore	X		
Ali Sarfraz	Chief executive officer	Punjab Skills Development Fund, Lahore	X		
Babar Bashir	Managing director	Rozan, Islamabad		X	
Qadeer Baig	Country representative	Rutgers World Population Foundation, Islamabad		X	
Hilda Saaed	Board member	Shirkat Gah, Karachi		X	
Kashif Afzaal	Sociologist, facility management consultant	SMEC International, Lahore	X		
Muhammad Atif Raza	Environmentalist, facility management consultant	SMEC International, Lahore	X		
Robert Schenck	Team leader, facility Management consultant	SMEC International, Lahore	X		

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Project Management Offices					
Sadia	Administrative assistant	Jinnah Barrage Project	X		
Ijaz Ul Hassan Kashif	Acting project director, Procurement and Contracting	Kanki and Suleiman Barrages Project	X		
Tahira Baloch	Administrative assistant	Punjab Barrages Project	X		
Farah	Assistant director	Punjab Barrages Project	X		
Sheraz Hussain	Deputy director, Development Assistance and Resettlement	Punjab Barrages Project	X		
Research Organizations					
G. M. Arif	Joint director and section head	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics	X		
Rashida Haq	Senior research economist	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics			X
Asad Zaman	Vice chancellor	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics	X		
Vaqar Ahmed	Deputy executive director, research fellow (economics)	Sustainable Development Policy Institute	X		
Abid Qaiyum Suleri	Executive director	Sustainable Policy Development Institute	X		
Development Partners					
Uzma Altaf	National implementation consultant	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X	x	X
Michiel Van der Auwera	Senior financial sector specialist	Asian Development Bank, Manila	X		
Sharad Bhandari	Principal economist	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X		
Werner E. Liepach	Country director	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X		
Zaigham Naqvi	Project officer, Roads Sector	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X		
Saad A. Paracha	Senior program officer	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X		
Mian Shaukat Shafi	Unit head, Urban, Water and Emergency Assistance	Asian Development Bank, Islamabad	X		
Donneth A. Walton	Principal natural resources and agriculture specialist	Asian Development Bank, Pakistan Resident Mission	X		

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Table continued

Name	Position or Department	Organization	Interview	Focus Group	Workshop
Kate Chamely	First secretary	Australian High Commission, Pakistan	X		
Alia Mirza	Senior analyst, Pakistan Program	Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development, Government of Canada	X		
David Fournier	Counselor, Development and head of aid	Canadian High Commission, Pakistan	X		X
Fareeha Ummer	Gender equity advisor	Canadian International Development Agency Support Unit, Sterling Swift	X		X
Katja Jobes	Senior social development advisor and team leader, Democracy and Accountability	Department for International Development of the United Kingdom	X		X
Nazia Seher	Project officer	Japan International Cooperation Agency, Islamabad		X	X
Maki Suzuki	Representative	Japan International Cooperation Agency, Islamabad		X	
Valerie Aman		UN			
Nomeena Anis	Nutritionist and gender focal person	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations		X	X
Hadia Nusrat	Gender equity advisor	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs		X	X
Shaheen Hussain	Programme specialist, Knowledge Management	UN Women		X	
Sangeeta Rana Thapa	Deputy representative	UN Women		X	X
Rabia Akhtar	Gender advisor, Office of Stabilization and Governance	United States Agency for International Development		X	
Uzma Basim	Senior operations officer	World Bank		X	
Muqaddisa Mehreen	Senior gender specialist	World Bank, Islamabad		X	X
Deborah Clifton	Assistant gender advisor			X	

APPENDIX 2

Laws Related to Family Formation and Dissolution, Pakistan

Name	Provisions
Christian Marriages Act, 1872 and Divorce Act, 1869	These laws are used for family matters in the Christian community. Advocates are demanding updated laws since this has not occurred in many years.
Hindu Personal Laws	Revision of these laws has been proposed in the Hindu Marriage Act of 2014.
Farsi/Parsi Marriage and Divorce Act, 1936	These laws are used for family matters in the Parsi community. Advocates are demanding updated laws since this has not occurred in many years.
Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, 1961	<p><i>Succession and inheritance.</i> When a son or daughter dies, his or her children receive a share of inheritance equivalent to that which the parent would receive if he or she were alive.</p> <p><i>Marriage registration.</i> All marriages are to be registered with the Union Council.</p> <p><i>Polygamy.</i> This is not encouraged, and requires prior approval of the Arbitration Council.</p> <p><i>Divorce (talaq).</i> Marriages may be dissolved by husbands or wives through a <i>khula</i>, with different outcomes on distribution of assets or gifts, but a waiting period and reconciliation efforts are required. An arbitration council will form within 30 days to try to achieve reconciliation. Husbands must declare their intention to divorce (<i>talaq</i>) in writing, but a divorce is not effective until 90 days later. A woman may seek a divorce if the right to <i>talaq</i> is delegated to her.</p> <p><i>Maintenance.</i> Husbands must provide sufficient “maintenance” to their wives. If there are multiple wives, each wife must receive an equivalent amount.</p> <p><i>Dower (Punjab only).</i> If the marriage contract does not provide details on payment of a dowry, then it is assumed to be payable on demand.</p>
Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929 (enacted 1939)	This law prohibits marriages involving a girl or boy aged under 18 years. Prison sentences (e.g., of 1 month) and fines (e.g., PRs1,000) can occur for (i) a male marrying a young girl, (ii) parent(s) of said girl, and (iii) person(s) solemnizing the marriage.
Sindh Child Marriage Restraint Act 2013 (enacted April 2014)	This law replaces the Child Marriages Restraint Act, 1929. Marriages of girls or boys aged under 18 years are illegal, and parents and/or persons who promote such marriages may be imprisoned for up to 3 years, and unable to be granted bail or granted a pardon from their sentence.

APPENDIX 3

Registration and Turnout Rates for National Elections 2002, 2008, and 2013

Population	2002	2008	2013
Voting age population	76,627,450	91,856,744	111,782,605
Number registered to vote	71,358,040	79,934,801	81,532,739
Number registered to vote as a percentage of voting age population	93.1%	87.0%	73.6%
Number voting as a percentage of those registered to vote	41.8%	44.5%	55.0%

Sources: Election Commission of Pakistan and authors' calculations.

APPENDIX 4

Pakistan's Millennium Development Goal Targets and Achievements

Indicator	1990–1991	2013	Target for 2015	Status
MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger				
Population below the calorie-based food plus nonfood poverty line (%)		12.4	13.0	On track
Prevalence of underweight children aged under 5 years	40.0	31.5	<20.0	Off track
Population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (%)		30.0	13.0	Off track
MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education				
Net primary enrollment ratio (%)		157	100	Off track
Completion and survival rate from grade 1 to 5 (%)		50	100	Off track
Literacy rate (%)		58	88	Off track
MDG 3: Promote gender equality parity and women's empowerment				
Primary education gender parity index		0.90	1.00	Off track
Secondary education gender parity index		0.81	1.00	Off track
Youth literacy gender parity index		0.81	1.00	Off track
Share of women in wage employment (%)		10.5	14.0	Achieved
Proportion of seats held by women in National Assembly (%)		22.0		
MDG 4: Reduce child mortality				
Infant mortality rate (aged under 1 year deaths per 1,000 live births)	102	74	40	Off track
Under 5 mortality rate (aged under 5 years deaths per 1,000 live births)	117	89	52	Off track
Fully immunized children aged 12–23 months (%)		80	>90	Off track
Under 1-year-old children immunized against measles (%)		81	>90	Off track
Children aged under 5 years who suffered from diarrhea in the last 30 days (%)		8	<10	Achieved
Lady health workers' coverage (% of target population)		83	100	Off track

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Table continued

Indicator	1990–1991	2013	Target for 2015	Status
MDG 5: Improve maternal health				
Maternal mortality ratio (maternal deaths per 100,000 live births)	533	276	140	Off track
Births attended by skilled birth attendants (%)		52.1	>90.0	Off track
Contraceptive prevalence rate (%)		35.4	55.0	Off track
Total fertility rate		3.8	2.1	Off track
Women aged 15–49 years who gave birth during the last 3 years and made at least one antenatal consultation (%)		68.0	100.0	Off track
MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases				
HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–49 years (%)		0.041	50% of baseline	On track
HIV prevalence among vulnerable groups (%)	Intravenous drug users: 37.4 Female sex workers: 0.8 Male sex workers: 3.1 Hijra (transwomen) sex workers: 7.3		50% of baseline	Off track
Population in malaria-risk areas using effective prevention and treatment measures (%)		40	75	Off track
Tuberculosis incidence (cases/10,000 population)		230	45	Off track
Tuberculosis cases detected and cured with directly observed treatment (%)		91	85	Achieved

MDG = Millennium Development Goal.

Source: Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission. 2010. *Development amidst Crisis: Pakistan Millennium Development Goals Report 2010*. Islamabad. http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Pakistan/Pakistan_MDG_2010.pdf; and Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission. 2013. *The Pakistan Millennium Development Goals Report 2013*. Islamabad.

APPENDIX 5

International Conventions, National and Domestic Laws Pertaining to Women in Pakistan

Name	Date Enacted	Content
International Conventions		
Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others (1949)		
Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1953)		
Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)		
Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages (1962)		
Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1967)		
Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict (1974)		
The Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (1985)		
Education for All (EFA), 1990		The goal was reaffirmed in the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000 with specific targets for achievement.
Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993)	1993	This stated that women's rights are human rights.
Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1994)		
International Conference on Population and Development	1994	The International Parliamentarians' Conference on the Implementation of the Programme of Action was held in Strasbourg in 2004 to follow up on progress on goals.
Beijing Platform for Action (1995)	1995	Follow-up conferences to review progress on the platform have included the Beijing+5 (2000), Beijing+10 (2005), and Beijing+15 (2010).

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)	12 March 1996	
Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)	Not signed	
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights		
UN Security Council Resolution A/RES/55/2, Millennium Development Goals, 2000	2000	
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2003)	Not signed	
UN Security Council Resolution 1820, 2008	2008	This was a call to Member States to address violence against women, whether occurring via channels, such as domestic violence, through to as a consequence of armed conflict.
International Labour Organization Conventions		
Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention (1948)	14 February 1951	
Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (1949)	26 May 1952	
Convention Concerning Forced or Compulsory Labour (1930)	23 December 1957	
Equal Remuneration Convention (1951)	11 October 2001	
Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1957)	15 February 1960	
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958)	24 January 1961	
Minimum Age Convention (1973)	6 July 2006	
Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999)	11 October 2001	
Constitutional Laws and Provisions		
Pakistan Ordinance (creation of Pakistan)	1947	Women are granted suffrage.
Interim Constitution	1953	This reaffirmed the right of women to vote in national elections.
Constitution 1973	1973	Article 17 Article 18

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
		<p>Article 25: Equality of citizens.</p> <p>(1) All citizens are equal before law and are entitled to equal protection of law.</p> <p>(2) There shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex alone. The word “alone” was omitted by <i>Constitution (Eighteenth Amendment) Act, 2010</i>, Sect. 8 (with effect from 19 April 2010).</p> <p>(3) Nothing in this article shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the protection of women and children.</p> <p>Article 26: Nondiscrimination in respect of access to public places.</p> <p>(1) In respect of access to places of public entertainment or resort not intended for religious purposes only, there shall be no discrimination against any citizen on the ground only of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth.</p> <p>(2) Nothing in clause (1) shall prevent the State from making any special provision for women and children.</p> <p>Article 27. Safeguard against discrimination in services.</p> <p>(1) No citizen otherwise qualified for appointment in the service of Pakistan shall be discriminated against in respect of any such appointment on the ground only of race, religion, caste, sex, residence or place of birth:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provided that, for a period not exceeding 40 years from the commencing day, posts may be reserved for persons belonging to any class or area to secure their adequate representation in the service of Pakistan. This was substituted by the <i>Constitution (Sixteenth Amendment) Act, 1999 (6 of 1999)</i> Article 2 (with effect from 5 August 1999) for “twenty”, which had been previously substituted by <i>Revival of Constitution of 1973 Order, 1985 (President’s Order No. 14 of 1985)</i>, Schedule item 4 (with effect from 2 March 1985) for “ten.” • Provided further that, in the interest of the said service, specified posts or services may be reserved for members of either sex if such posts or services entail the performance of duties and functions, which cannot be adequately performed by members of the other sex. <p>(2) Nothing in clause (1) shall prevent any provincial government, or any local or other authority in a province, from prescribing, in relation to any post or class of service under that government or authority, conditions as to residence in the province for a period not exceeding 3 years, prior to appointment under that government or authority.</p> <p>Article 32</p> <p>Article 34: ... steps shall be taken to ensure full participation of women in all spheres of national life.</p> <p>Article 37(a): The State shall promote the educational and economic opportunities interests of backward classes or areas.</p> <p>37(b): Refers to the provision of free and compulsory secondary education within the minimum possible period (paraphrased).</p> <p>37(e): The State shall make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work, ensuring that children and women are not employed in vocations unsuited to their age or sex, and for maternity benefits for women in employment.</p>

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
		Article 38: "The State shall (a) secure the well-being of the people, irrespective of sex, caste, creed or race, by raising their standard of living, by preventing the concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of a few to the detriment of general interest and by ensuring equitable adjustment of rights between employers and employees, and landlords and tenants; (b) provide for all citizens, within the available resources of the country, facilities for work and adequate livelihood with reasonable rest and leisure; (c) provide for all persons employed in the service of Pakistan or otherwise, social security by compulsory social insurance or other means; (d) provide basic necessities of life, such as food, clothing, housing, education and medical relief, for all such citizens, irrespective of sex, caste, creed or race, as are permanently or temporarily unable to earn their livelihood on account of infirmity, sickness or unemployment; (e) reduce disparity in the income and earnings of individuals, including persons in the various classes of the service of Pakistan."
Constitution (18th Amendment) Act, 2010, Section 9	19 April 2010	Article 25A. Right to education: The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 5–16 years in such manner as may be determined by law.
National Laws		
Mines Maternity Benefit Act	1941	
Maternity Benefit Act	1958	Women employed for at least 4 months in any industrial or commercial establishment qualify for 6 paid weeks of prenatal and postnatal leave, with pay based on their last rate of pay and places. The act restricts dismissal of the woman during maternity leave.
Muslim Family Laws Ordinance	1961	This regulates marriage and divorce and restrains polygamy by requiring (i) registration of all marriages, (ii) written permission of a man's wife (or wives) to be presented before an arbitration council to decide if the man may marry again, (iii) abolition of divorce (<i>talaq</i>) by simple repudiation, and (iv) other safeguards for women in the event of divorce.
Hudood Laws	1979	Women's fundamental rights granted in the Constitution were suspended, including the right to be free of discrimination on the basis of sex. <i>Zina</i> (nonmarital sexual relations and adultery) was also criminalized. Women were banned from participating in and from being spectators of sports. Laws concerning <i>qisas</i> (retribution) and <i>diyat</i> (compensation) in crimes involving bodily injury were changed so women found to be victims were only provided half of the usual compensation.
Law of Evidence (<i>Qanun-e-Shahadat</i> Order)	1983	This disallows women from testifying in certain cases; in cases where they can testify, their testimony would not be weighed equally to that of a man. A woman's testimony, even if collaborated by another woman, would not satisfy the evidence requirement. For example, a victim of <i>zina-bil-jabr</i> (rape) could face charges of adultery if the rapist does not confess.
Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Ordinance, 2002	2002	

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 2004 (Act No. 1 of 2005)	January 2005	This includes several amendments of Pakistan Penal Code, 1860 (Act XLV of 1860) related to traditional practices related to honor, including <i>qatl-i-amd</i> , <i>qatl-i-shibh-i-amd</i> , and <i>badal-i-sulh</i> . The act specifies that the superintendent of police or above is to investigate the alleged crime as well as the number of minimum and maximum years of imprisonment for engaging in practices of <i>kari kari</i> , <i>siyah kari</i> , <i>badal-i-sulh</i> , or similar customs or practices.
Protection of Women Act, 2006	2006	This revises the Hudood Laws by removing <i>zina-bil-jabr</i> (adultery without consent) and shifting the prosecution of cases of adultery and rape from consideration under the Hudood Laws back under Pakistan's Penal Law.
Protection against Harassment for Women at the Workplace Act, 2009	2010	The law aims to protect women against sexual harassment and intimidation in public spaces and requires all public and private organizations to establish a code of conduct including complaint and appeals mechanisms. Organizations that do not establish such a code can face fines of up to PRs100,000.
Criminal Law (Amendment), 2009	2010	This amendment to Pakistan's Criminal Law does not restrict harassment in public spaces to mean only workplaces (during or outside of working hours) but also includes markets, parks, and homes (as in the cases of harassment of domestic workers).
Acid Throwing Legislation	2010	This set penalties of long imprisonment and fines of up to PRs1 million on a person(s) who cause(s) disfigurement or other harm through use of a "corrosive substance."
Prevention of Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law Amendment) Bill, 2011	Presented in 2007 but not passed. Reintroduced and passed in 2011.	This sets specific punishments for (i) compelling women to marry; (ii) compelling women to marry in exchange for settlement of a civil or criminal dispute (including <i>vani</i> , <i>wanni</i> , and <i>swara</i>); (iii) facilitating a woman to "marry the Qur'an;" (iv) depriving women from their inheritance, including property; and (v) other "anti-women practices."
Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2012	Presented in 2009 but not passed. Reintroduced and passed in 2012.	Domestic violence was defined as "all second intentional acts of gender-based or other physical or psychological abuse committed by an accused against women, children, or other vulnerable persons, with whom the accused person is or has been in a domestic relationship" and included "assault" defined as "use of criminal force, criminal intimidation, economic abuse, entry into an aggrieved person's residence without his or her consent, harassment, 'mischief' against property, physical abuse, stalking, sexual abuse, verbal and emotional abuse, insults or ridicule," as well as "willful or negligent abandonment of the aggrieved person," wrongful confinement, and "other repressive or abusive behavior ... where such conduct harms or may cause imminent danger or harm to the safety, health, or well-being of the aggrieved person." Specific financial and penal penalties were outlined for those committing acts of domestic violence and assault against women. Imprisonment and/or a penalty of PRs50,000 can be levied against anyone found to make a false accusation under this act. Post the 18th Amendment this Act applied only to the Islamabad Capital Territory.
National Commission on the Status of Women Act, 2012	2012	This granted the commission greater administrative autonomy to review laws, make recommendations, liaise with provincial governments, increase the scope of their mission, and raise funds independently.

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
Provincial Laws		
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Establishment of a Commission on the Status of Women Act, 2009	2010	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa authorized the creation of the first provincial-level Commission on the Status of Women in Pakistan.
Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa Enforcement of Women's Ownership Rights	2012	
Punjab Protection against the Harassment of Women at the Workplace (Amendment Bill, 2012)	2012	
Punjab Land Revenue (Amendment) Bill, 2012	2012	
Government College Women University, Bahawalpur Bill, 2012; Government College Women University Faisalabad Bill, 2012; Government College Women University Sialkot Bill, 2012; Women University Multan (Amendment) Bill, 2012	2012	
Sindh Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2013	2013	The Sindh Provincial Assembly was the province to pass legislation against domestic violence. Under this act, anyone who commits acts of violence against "vulnerable sections of society," especially women, is liable to be sentenced for up to 1 year of imprisonment and a fine of PRs20,000.
Balochistan Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Bill, 2013		Similar to national and Sindh legislation on domestic violence, Balochistan's legislation defines forms of domestic violence, including physical, emotional, economic, sexual, and verbal abuse, harassment, and stalking; and extends the ambit to include violence to domestic servants. Unlike the Sindh Domestic Violence Act, penalties under the Balochistan Act are only specified when the abuses have been specified in the Pakistan Penal Code; further penalties are determined by "protection committees."
Sindh Child Marriages Restraint Act, 2013	2014	Sindh repealed the Child Marriages Act, 1929 and fixed the matrimonial age at 18 years for both males and females. Violation of the act will be treated as a crime (cognizable, nonbailable, and noncompoundable) with a minimum of 2 years and a maximum of 3 years of imprisonment of the parents, groom, and/or bride and imposition of a fine (e.g., PRs45,000). Sindh is the first province in Pakistan to pass such legislation.

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Name	Date Enacted	Content
Punjab Commission on the Status of Women Bill, 2013	February 2014	<p>This aims to empower women, expand opportunities for their socioeconomic development, and eliminate all forms of discrimination against them. Specific areas of work include the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • examination of government policy, programs, and other measures for gender equality, empowerment of women, their representation, and political participation; • assessment of the implementation of government, and make suitable recommendations to the concerned authorities; • review of laws affecting the status and rights of women in the Punjab, and suggest amendments or new legislation to eliminate discrimination in accordance with the Constitution and international covenants; • sponsorship of research to maintain a database on gender issues for provincial policy; • inquiry into the violation of women's rights, and exercise powers through civil courts under the Code of Civil Procedure 1908 to inspect any jail where women or girls are kept; and • support for coalition building and networking to facilitate women's participation in all spheres.
Punjab Fair Representation Act, 2014	March 2014	
Punjab Reproductive, Maternal, Neo-Natal and Child Health Authority Bill, 2014	March 2014	

Sources: N. S. Ali. 2014. Tackling Domestic Violence. Dawn. 2 November. <http://www.dawn.com/news/1086246/tackling-domestic-violence>; Business Recorder. 2014. Sindh Takes Lead in Fixing Matrimonial Age at 18 Years. 29 April; The Constitution of Pakistan. <http://www.pakistani.org/pakistan/constitution/part2.ch1.html#36>; APP. 2013. Coordinated Efforts Stressed for Implementation of Domestic Violence Act. Daily Times. 19 December. <http://www.dailytimes.com.pk/islamabad/19-Dec-2013/coordinated-efforts-stressed-for-implementation-of-domestic-violence-act>; Free and Fair Election Network. 2014. Punjab Assembly Session: 5 Bills Passed and 12 Resolutions Adopted. 25 March. http://www.fafen.org/site/v5/detail-punjab_assembly_session:_five_bills_passed_and_12_resolutions_adopted!1720; H. K. Ghori. 2014. Sindh PA Passes Landmark Bill Prohibiting Child Marriages. Dawn. 29 April. <http://www.dawn.com/news/1102895>; International Labour Organization. NORMLEX: Pakistan. http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11110:0::NO:11110:P11110_COUNTRY_ID:103166; A. Manan. 2014. Law Passed: Punjab to Have Commission on Status of Women. The Express Tribune. 13 February. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/671007/law-passed-punjab-to-have-commission-on-status-of-women/>; Our Correspondent. 2012. PA Passes Six Women-Related Bills. The News International. 28 December. <http://www.thenews.com.pk/Todays-News-5-150885-PA-passes-six-women-related-bills>; H. Tunio. 2013. Round-Up: Provincial Assemblies 2008-2013. The Express Tribune. 17 March. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/522060/round-up-provincial-assemblies-2008-2013/>; H. Tunio. 2014. Sindh Assembly Passes Bill Declaring Marriage Below 18 Punishable by Law. The Express Tribune with the International New York Times. 28 April. <http://tribune.com.pk/story/701321/sindh-assembly-passes-bill-declaring-marriage-below-18-punishable-by-law/>; United States Institute of Peace. <http://www.usip.org/sites/default/files/SR305.pdf>; University of Minnesota. Human Rights Library. <http://www1.umn.edu/humanrts/research/ratification-pakistan.html>; A. M. Weiss. 2012. Moving Forward with the Legal Empowerment of Women in Pakistan. USIP Special Report. No. 305. Washington, DC; and Y. Zaidi. 2013. Baseline Study on the Status of Women and Men in Pakistan, 2012. Islamabad: UN Women Pakistan.

APPENDIX 6

Women's 'Machinery' of the Government of Pakistan

Table A6.1: Women in National and Provincial Legislatures, April 2014

	Parliament		Provincial Assemblies			
	Senate	National Assembly	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
Senate (%)^a	16.3					
Reserved Seats (no.)	17/104		4/17	4/17	4/17	4/17
Actual Seats (no.)	17/104		4/17	4/17	4/17	4/17
National Assembly (no. of seats) ^b		342				
Reserved Seats (%)		17.5	3/60	8/60	35/60	14/60
Actual Seats (%)		20.5				
Provincial Assemblies (no. of seats) ^c			65	124	371	168
Reserved (%)			16.9	17.7	17.8	17.3
Actual (%)			18.5	17.7	20.5	18.5
Local Government^d						
Reserved (%)			Proposed	Proposed	Enacted	Enacted
District (%)			33	33	10	22
Subdistrict (%)			33	33	10	22
Union Council			33%	33%	2/13	1/9

^a Women are indirectly elected to the reserved seats in the Senate by members of provincial councils and the National Assembly through a system of proportional representation according to the proportion of the total vote won by each party using a single transferable vote system. The 17th seat is reserved for a woman elected to represent Islamabad.

^b Women are indirectly elected to the reserved seats in the National Assembly through an indirect proportional representation list system (i.e., political parties submit lists of female candidates for reserved seats to the Election Commission prior to the election, and following the election, the reserved seats are allocated to women on the list according to the proportion of the total number of general seats won by each party in each province).

^c General provincial assembly seats are allocated on the basis of "first-past-the-post" or simple majority rule in single-member constituencies, while reserved seats for women are distributed among parties based on the proportion of total general seats secured by each political party in the provincial assembly.

^d Reserved seats for women as from the next local government election.

Sources: Quota Project. Pakistan. <http://www.quotaproject.org/uid/countryview.cfm?CountryCode=PK>; and Aurat Foundation. 2013. *Legislative Watch*. 41.

Table A6.2: Women's Legislative Caucuses

	National	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
Date Established	2003, but it became more active starting in 2008.	Not established.	Formation in process.	March 2014	Formation in process. The deputy speaker is the patron.
Officers				Convener: Majority party Secretary: Opposition Treasurer: Opposition	
Membership	Females: 78 women Males: unknown			Females: 12 total, with 5 majority and 7 opposition parties, and includes 2 members from minorities. Males: Observers only.	
Meeting Frequency				Minimum of once per assembly session	
Goal/Mission	Put women's issues on the legislative agenda and mainstream women legislators' participation into all legislative committees (e.g., at the national level, obtain participation of women on legislative committees for defense, finance, foreign affairs, and public accounts).				
Achievements	Developed as strategic agenda including goals, legislative, oversight, democracy, and lobbying, and linkage building. Passed seven major pieces of pro-women legislation. Passed resolution in December 2013 to create women caucuses at the provincial level. Pakistan is the first South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) country to pass such a resolution.				

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Table A6.2 continued

	National	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
Future Initiatives	Draft bill to amend Political Parties Representation Act so women have at least 10% of the general seats awarded to any specific political party, and establish a quota of 33% of places in the Executive Council for women.			Develop and pass legislation such as the Acid Burn Crime Act (acid throwing would be a noncompoundable and non bailable offense, potentially punishable by life imprisonment or death; the accused would be tried in an antiterrorist court so that a verdict would be reached in 60 days; and the government may have to provide financial support and rehabilitation to the victim); Hindu Marriage Act (in which Hindu marriages are registered and formally recognized); Thalassemia Act (prior to marriage, all couples must undergo testing for the Thalassemia gene); and a domestic violence bill. In addition, it is recognized that there will be a need to conduct seminars and workshops to sensitize other legislators on women’s issues, especially domestic violence. Party leadership has suggested preparation of a “comprehensive package bill.” Passage of each piece of legislation or the comprehensive package will require conduct of seminars and workshops to sensitize other legislators on women’s issues, especially domestic violence.	
Challenges				Establish a child protection authority and fund that would also support mothers and contribute to reductions in maternal and child mortality. The caucus would administer funds for the authority under the oversight of the caucus’s secretary general and treasurer and requiring two signatories for the release of funds. Creation of an authority and associated fund requires passage of a Money Bill, which needs to meet requirements of the Finance Department and involves other procedures for passage. Lack of office space within the provincial assembly building. Lack of housing other than in government hostels. Need to develop an internship program based on the model of the National Women’s Caucus.	
Development partner support				UNDP: Strengthening Democracy through Parliamentary Development, 2004–2013 UNDP: Policy Support Programme (2013–2017), which has provided the Women’s Caucus in National Assembly with support for developing legislation for women’s empowerment (e.g., the 10% quota of women for tickets for general seats bill).	

UNDP = United Nations Development Programme.

Sources: Chair, Women’s Caucus, MPA Punjab Assembly. 2014. Interview. May; M. Sarmed, National Technical Advisor, UNDP Pakistan. 2014. Interview. 15 May.

Table A6.3: National and Provincial Commissions on the Status of Women, Pakistan

	National	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab
Established	2000, granted autonomy 2012	NWFP Act XIX, 2009	
Reports to	Minister, Ministry of Human Rights (concerning international agreements) Minister, Law, Justice and Human Rights (concerning communications with Parliament)	Secretary, Department of Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment	Governor
Mission	Examine the relevance and efficacy of all government policies, programs, and measures related to safeguarding and protecting the interests of women, and achieve gender equality in accordance with the Constitution and other laws and obligations under international covenants and commitments.	Achieve the emancipation of women, equalize opportunities and socioeconomic conditions among women and men, and eliminate all forms of discrimination against women in the province. Review provincial legislation for women, assess government programs and projects for women, and monitor mechanisms of institutional processes for social care and justice for women.	Empower women, expand opportunities for socioeconomic development of women, and eliminate all forms of discrimination against women and other ancillary matters.
Leadership	Chairperson	Chairperson	Chairperson, and Secretary, Department of Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment. The chairperson has a 3-year term and responsibility of a principal accounting officer in that he or she is accountable for budget allocations through a grant to pay the salaries of staff and other operating expenses.
Membership			
Number	14 members and 5 ex-officio members	4 MPAs, 12 others (can include males)	3 MPAs, 12 others
Selection process	Nominated	Nominated	Nominated
Qualifications	As per Rules of Business	None required; some current members with gender expertise and/or minorities	To be specified in Rules of Business to ensure that there is gender expertise. At present, there is no requirement for membership to include a government official on an active or ex-officio basis.

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Table A6.3 continued

	National	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab
Meetings			
Frequency	Quarterly	Monthly	Quarterly
Quorum required	Minimum of 50% of commission members	Yes	Minimum of 50% of commission members
Institutional Framework			
Rules of Business	Being finalized (required for hiring of staff)	Under preparation	Under preparation
Positions sanctioned	Yes	No, within the Department of Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment	Yes
Budget sanctioned	Yes	No, within the Department of Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment. The commission has received a grant from the Gender Equity Project; however, funds are controlled by the Department of Social Welfare.	Yes
Secretariat staffing	Present: 4 interns, 1 secretary Future: 92 professional staff members	Present: 11, none with prior gender expertise Future: unknown	Present: 2; staff may be seconded from another department of the provincial government or hired on a contract basis. Future: unknown
Structure	Executive Committee Law and Policy Committee Research Committee Monitoring Section Resource Center	Administration Committee Policy Committee Research Committee	Under preparation

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Table A6.3 continued

	National	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab
Key accomplishments	Status of Women In Pakistan annual reports, which are research reports on various aspects of the socioeconomic status of women.	Development of a women's empowerment policy, which is awaiting approval from the provincial assembly. Engagement with the Women's Caucus in the provincial assembly for sensitization on women and gender issues.	Review and revision of draft strategic plan, which has been presented for approval. Drafted a provincial policy framework for the empowerment of women, including gender-disaggregated socioeconomic indicators and legislation such as domestic violence, child marriages, acid-burn prevention, and internal women trafficking. The commission has the authority to act as a civil court to obtain information from other government departments; however, it cannot conduct investigations or trials. Conducted consultations with various civil society organizations.
Future plans	Gender-based violence and violence against women initiatives.	Advocacy within public sector departments for enforcement of ownership rights endorsed by the Peshawar High Court that rules against the custom of <i>kagh</i> . Research on clauses of the <i>nikahnama</i> and women in emergencies. Development of a provincial law to raise the minimum age of marriage for women to 18 years.	Monitor implementation of a new law on rights of inheritance that removes arbitrary powers of the revenue officer, who is now bound to transfer property in the name of heirs. If a female heir(s) want(s) to give property to her brother(s), both have to go through a formal procedure of transfer of property, which includes paying transfer fees and taxes. Launch a helpline to provide information and counseling to victims of discrimination and/or harassment. Facilitate future passage and implementation of Punjab Violence against Women Law and Domestic Violence Bill such as (i) establishing protection committees at the local government level, (ii) providing awareness and sensitization training to police on the substance of the laws, (iii) developing and upgrading women's shelters, (iv) developing and upgrading aspects of the service delivery chain, and (v) establishing a helpline and complaint mechanism. Provide advocacy support to the Women's Caucus to increase the quota for women's representation in local government from 20% to 33%.

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Table A6.3 continued

	National	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab
District commissions on the status of women	This is the mandate of the provincial commissions.	15 district commissions on the status of women will be formed, each with 9–12 members. Efforts will be made to balance representation among members of political parties who are in office as well as members of civil society.	Guidelines developed by the provincial commission. 12 out of 26 districts are forming commissions. District Commission Officer will be ex officio member
Development partner support	Various development partners provide financing for research.	Unknown	GIZ is supporting placement of a gender specialist in the commission to collect information required for CEDAW reports. Additional secretaries of 26 provincial departments have been appointed as focal persons to facilitate CEDAW reporting. UNDP sponsored a strategic planning exercise involving the commission. USAID and UN Women have provided financing for a number of studies: (i) a survey of <i>darul amans</i> , (ii) a review of six labor laws, and (iii) a review of <i>nikahnama</i> registration and patterns of completing forms. The World Bank is developing a database on violence against women for purposes of monitoring the situation and linking into the work plans of the committee and women’s caucus.

CEDAW = Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, GIZ = Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit, MPA = member of the provincial assembly, UNDP = United Nations Development Programme, USAID = United States Agency for International Development.
Sources: Chair, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Commission on Status of Women. 2014. Interview. May; Chair, Punjab Provincial Commission on Status of Women. 2014. Interview. 6 May; Pakistan Permanent Mission to the United Nations. 2008. Statement by Mahmood Salim Mahmood, Secretary, Ministry of Women Development on Agenda Item Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, at the 52nd Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. February. http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw52/statements_missions/pakistan.pdf; and The Punjab Commission on the Status of Women Act 2014. <http://punjablaws.gov.pk/laws/2555.html>

Table A6.4: Provincial Executive Branch Institutions for Women's Development and Empowerment Postdevolution

	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
Offices	Secretariat and Women Development Directorate	Directorate of Women Empowerment	Secretariat and Women Development Division	Secretariat and Women Development Directorate
Department	Women Development Department	Department of Social Welfare and Women's Empowerment	Women's Development Department	Women Development Department
Established	1996	1995–1996	2012	2003
Mission statement				
Link to districts			No district offices presently; future possibility via working women hostels. Launching awareness program on CEDAW reporting requirements for all grade 1+ district officers. District department heads and <i>tehsil</i> headquarters collecting statistics on number of total and female employees.	
Achievements	Development and approval of Policy Framework for Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women. Operate women's crisis centers in one city and two towns that provide law officers, psychological counselors, and female welfare officers.	Provincial legal framework and financing for an autonomous foundation for widows and destitute women, which will provide conditional grants for economic empowerment. Improvement of women's skills training courses offered through technical and vocational institutes for women supported under the Department of Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment.	Support for establishment of Ombudsperson Office and commission on the status of women. Development of a provincial committee of all government departments that meets quarterly to document gender disparities at the provincial level to include in reports on international women's rights protocols. Support selection of a focal point in each departmental division to initiate procedures for workplace harassment complaints. Support legal reform to ensure 33% of corporate board membership is female.	Passage of the Sindh Child Marriages Restraint Act, 2013. Finalization of policy to legalize the rights of home-based workers in September 2013.

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Table A6.4 continued

Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
	Efforts to standardize courses to meet requirements of Technical Training and Testing Board.	Advocate for amendment of Family Laws in Local Government mandates.	
	Operation of five women's shelters and halfway homes, two other crisis centers, and three <i>darul amans</i> .	Pass law (2013) for 1 week paid paternity leave.	
	Operation of working women hostels in 12 districts.	Support amendment of inheritance law to provide adequate time for registration of all legal heirs.	
		Livestock/dairy development initiative for rural women.	
		Assist women to set up canteens in institutions of higher education.	
		Technical assistance and advocacy services for women on corporate boards or within the government.	
		Update Women's (Economic) Empowerment Package.	
		Sponsor helpline and counseling center for women affected by discrimination and harassment.	
		Establish standard guidelines for operations of day care centers, and encourage opening new centers.	
		Review proposal for new Islamic microfinance bank.	
		Promote Punjab government adoption of a home-based workers' policy that recognizes and extends social protection to them.	

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Table A6.4 *continued*

	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
2014 and future initiatives			<p>Adapt Women's Development Department mandate and initiatives to institutionalize at the district level.</p> <p>Registration, training, and placement of domestic workers.</p> <p>Provide technical and vocational training and certification for wives of laborers.</p> <p>Set up a skills development company, requiring inclusion of at least 2% women (including minorities).</p> <p>Placement of at least one female officer in all police stations.</p>	<p>Support for development and passage of legislation against early marriage.</p>
Unique challenges	<p>Lack of support from provincial leaders.</p> <p>Lack of administrative and financial autonomy.</p>		<p>Separation from Social Welfare Department not yet complete so establishment of district presence is not a priority.</p> <p>Lack of permanent office space in government buildings.</p> <p>Security concerns resulting in inability to post board identifying Women's Development Department offices.</p> <p>Lack of sufficient resources, e.g., only one focal person within each department.</p> <p>Lack of staffing and finance for multiple small initiatives.</p>	<p>Lack of office space in government buildings.</p>

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Table A6.4 continued

	Balochistan	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	Punjab	Sindh
Common challenges	Lack of understanding among government departments of the Women’s Development Department’s role to mainstream women’s concerns into other department’s policies and programs. None of the provincial departments indicated that “gender mainstreaming” was a past achievement or an area for future initiative(s). Women’s Development Department staff/experts not perceived by other departments to have worthwhile expertise. Frequent personnel turnover with an ongoing need for capacity building. Lack of strategic plans that are aligned with those of other women’s organizations at the provincial level, resulting in overlap of activities with women’s caucuses and provincial commissions on the status of women. Lack of adequate budgetary resources other than for small initiatives. Some in women’s empowerment require subsidies for continued operation or greater efforts toward full cost recovery (e.g., working women hostels and day care centers).			
Development partner support		UN Women: technical assistance	International Labour Organization: home-based workers pilot project	

CEDAW = Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women.

Sources: Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Social Welfare, Special Education and Women Empowerment Department. <http://khyberpakhtunkhwa.gov.pk/khyberpk/homepage.php?deptID=41>; F. Viqar, Provincial Chair of Commission on Status of Women Punjab, 2014. Interview, 6 May; WIEGO. Home-Based Workers’ Policies in Pakistan. <http://wiego.org/informal-economy/home-based-workers-policies-pakistan>; and Women Development Department, Government of Sindh. <http://www.sindh.gov.pk/dpt/WDD/index.html>

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Pakistan Country Gender Assessment

Volume 1 of 2: Overall Gender Analysis

The situation of women in Pakistan has improved over the last 2 decades. Human capital investments resulted in narrowing gender disparities in health and education access, as well as economic and political participation. Still, wide gender gaps remain within the context of persistent poverty and gender-biased cultural norms. This publication gives a broad analysis of the women's situation, describes the institutional efforts made toward closing gender gaps, and identifies enhancements to development programming assistance that could usher in gender equality.

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