



Fostering Gender-Transformative Change in Sustainable Forest Management

THE CASE OF THE DEDICATED GRANT MECHANISM (DGM)

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Cover photo: DGM Mozambique/ Virgílio Conjo, 2019 Graphic design: Andrea Carega and Karlien Truyens

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Abbreviations

| AMAN | Indigenous Peoples' Alliance of Indonesian Archipelago |
|-------|--|
| СВО | Community-Based Organization |
| CI | Conservation International |
| CIF | Climate Investment Funds |
| CFUG | Community Forest Users Group |
| DGM | Dedicated Grant Mechanism for Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities |
| | DGM Global Learning and Knowledge Exchange Project |
| | Democratic Republic of the Congo |
| | Forest Carbon Partnership Facility |
| | Food and Agriculture Organization (of the United Nations) |
| | Forest Investment Program |
| FIF | Forest investment Frogram |
| GBV | Gender based Violence |
| GEA | Global Executing Agency |
| GRM | Grievance Redress Mechanism |
| GSC | Global Steering Committee |
| IPs | Indigenous Peoples |
| IPLCs | Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities |
| ISRR | Implementation Status and Results Report |
| IUCN | International Union for the Conservation of Nature |
| М&Е | Monitoring and Evaluation |
| MDB | Multilateral Development Bank |
| | |

| NEA | National Executing Agency (of a DGM country project) |
|-----------|--|
| | |
| NRM | Natural Resource Management |
| | |
| NSC | National Steering Committee (of a DGM country project) |
| | |
| NTFP | Non-timber Forest Products |
| DEDD. | |
| REDD+ | Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation |
| DEDALEE | Nationally of Indiana and I and Decolotions for the Costsinable Management of DDC Found |
| REPALEF | Network of Indigenous and Local Populations for the Sustainable Management of DRC Forest |
| | Ecosystems |
| CAR | |
| SAR | Semi-annual Report |
| CEALL | |
| SEAH | Sexual exploitation, abuse, and harassment |
| 1 | T 1 T 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 |
| IIL | Task Team Leader (World Bank) |
| \/IF | F: |
| VIF | Financial Inclusion Window (DGM Mexico) |
| \//C | Contribution Window (DCM Montre) |
| VIS | Social Inclusion Window (DGM Mexico) |
| 1475 | W 118 1 |
| WB | World Bank |

Acknowledgements

This study was commissioned by the World Bank. Meerim Shakirova, Natural Resources Management Specialist, and Ezgi Canpolat, Social Development Specialist, designed the study and led the preparation of the report. Conservation International research team led by Vince McElhinny, Senior Director of Social Policy and Practice, and Kame Westerman, Senior Gender Advisor, and including Alli Cruz, Senior Manager, Indigenous and Traditional Peoples Program, and Theresa Buppert, Director Rights, Governance and Social Policy, conducted the study and drafted the report.

The report Fostering Gender-Transformative Change in Sustainable Forest Management: The Case of the Dedicated Grant Mechanism (DGM) is a result of contributions from a wide range of experts from across the globe. First, we would like to thank DGM Global Steering Committee (GSC) members Bharati Pathak and Jagat Baram (DGM Nepal), Manuel Aldrete (DGM Mexico), Mina Setra (DGM Indonesia), Idrissa Zeba (DGM Burkina Faso), Kapupu Diwa Mutimanwa (DGM DRC), Grace Balawag (Non-FIP country representative), Lucely Pio (DGM Brazil), Play Christophe Sare and Delphine Ahoussi (DGM Côte d'Ivoire), Bashiru Gambo (DGM Ghana), Daniel Maula (DGM Mozambique), Ruth Buendia Mestoquiari and Marilen Puquio Arturo (DGM Peru), Guy Moussele-Diseke (DGM Republic of Congo), and Byron Alonzo (DGM Guatemala) for their valuable contributions that helped inform the report.

The study team gratefully acknowledges the contributions of members of the DGM National Executing Agencies (NEAs) and the Global Executing Agency (GEA) who participated in interviews for this study and shared important insights and experiences: Samdhana Institute

(Indonesia), Solidaridad (Ghana), World Wildlife Fund (Peru), IUCN (Burkina Faso), Conservation International (Global).

For the case studies, the team is especially grateful to the Indigineous People and Local Community (IPLC) leaders and community members that informed the case studies, to Vassileva Ralitsa Alorvor, Paramita Iswari and Suyana Huamani Mujica who led in-country consultations to gather qualitative information, as well as the many National Steering Committee members who volunteered their time to share insights and personal stories.

Special thanks to Christian Peter and Iain Shuker, Practice Managers of World Bank's Environment, Natural Resources and Blue Economy Global Practice and Mafalda Duarte, Head of the Climate Investment Funds for their overall guidance in the preparation of this study.

The report benefited greatly from World Bank DGM Task Team Leaders (TTLs). We would like to thank Andrea Kutter, Loic Braune, Grace Muhimpundu, Ana Luisa Gomes Lima, Nyaneba Nkrumah, Alberto Coelho Gomes Costa, Katharina Siegmann, Dianna Pizarro, Iwan Gunawan, Tini Gumartini, and Celine Lim. We are also grateful to colleagues from the World Bank Group for their inputs at key stages of this work including Bouke Berns, Asyl Undeland, Philippe Dardel, Garo Batmanian, Nicholas Meitiaki Soikan, Ines Angulo, and Anne Kuriakose.

The team gratefully acknowledges the funding provided by the Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF) for this study.

Executive Summary

Background of the DGM and the study

Since 2015, the Dedicated Grant Mechanism for Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities (DGM) has provided a unique model for inclusive and bottom-up approaches to delivering climate finance for sustainable forest management. Through 12 countrylevel programs designed and implemented by Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities (IPLCs), the DGM is guiding investment of around \$80 million and impacting the livelihoods of over 200,000 people. DGMsupported activities are intended to be designed and implemented in a genderresponsive and socially inclusive manner and aim to improve key gender equality outcomes based on the particular and varied contexts of DGM countries.

The objective of this study is to gather evidence on how DGM country projects have provided meaningful benefits related to women's economic achievement of, access to and control over productive assets, voice and agency, and how that has supported positive changes in women's leadership and participation. The study also looks at how change at the individual level may have led, or contributed, to changes at the household and community levels and whether there are signs of broader, systemic societal changes (i.e., changes in institutions, policy or gender norms).

Women's participation in, and benefit from, forestry management is inextricably tied to the social, cultural, historical, and political contexts of communities where forest management efforts take place. With the wide variety of country projects, this is evident across the DGM. IPLC women have the potential to

be important agents of change in the fight against climate change, but multiple and interconnected barriers often restrict them. These barriers include structural elements (economic, legal, institutional, political) and informal factors of context-specific gender norms, roles, and expectations. One of these barriers—land tenure and access—remains one of the most formidable impediments to gender equality in forestry.

As programs such as the DGM and others seeking to promote gender-responsive forestry and climate outcomes emerge, it is important to analyze and document the lessons learned and identify successes that should be replicated. This study analyzes relevant DGM documents and literature, includes interviews with World Bank and implementing partners, and is supplemented by four case studies involving primary data collection from subproject beneficiaries and key DGM leaders at the national level.

Conceptual framework

Using a framework for gender-transformative change, the study aimed to understand how inputs from the DGM (in the form of subproject grants, capacity building, access to knowledge and policy decision makers) could contribute to women's increased agency, voice, and control over resources. How could that growing influence, in turn, shift the norms governing the perceived legitimacy of women's leadership and the distribution of resources and opportunity that flow from a more just and equitable system? The study further aimed to analyze how a shift in gender norms could shape community-level governance and decision-making and reduce the informal and local barriers to gender equity. Through the

agency of networks, movements, and alliances, could formal change be effected in policies, laws, and regulations that ultimately secured gains for women? If successful, these longer-term changes in formal structures could free up new, additional resources (economic, political, cultural, environmental) to sustain change and create space for further expanding rights claims.

Within this framework, it is important to recognize that what gender-transformative success might look like after a relatively short project like the DGM is influenced in great part by the baseline or starting place. Given the variety of countries and their cultural contexts, success in one place might be quite different than in another-notions of voice and agency can mean different things for different groups of women. In the context of this study, gender-transformative change focuses on the incremental shifts toward more equitable participation, ability to shape decisions, and have control over resources to which DGM programming contributed. The study draws on women's experiences and perceptions regarding whether such shifts have occured and grounds its assertations in these experiences rather than theorizing a generic notion of women's voice and agency.

Methodology

The study team examined key project documents about the DGM from its inception to the present, drew on relevant academic and gray literature, conducted interviews with expert stakeholders from the World Bank and implementing agencies, facilitated two validation workshops with stakeholders, and conducted in-depth case studies in Ghana, Indonesia and Peru to gather data from direct

beneficiaries. The study's two primary research questions were:

- How did DGM country projects contribute to improved outcomes in the identified areas of gender equality, namely, economic achievements and income generation, access to and control over productive assets such as land, and voice and agency such as participation in decision-making processes?
- To what extent did the DGM, particularly through promoting women's leadership and effective participation, enable gendertransformative change in project areas?

Findings

Observed steppingstones toward gender-transformative change show that progress was achieved by DGM despite a lack of explicit gender requirements.

Recommendations for promoting gender equality and women's participation within the DGM can be found at all levels of its design and operational guidance, although this fell short of any clear requirements or accountability for gender parity in leadership or beneficiaries. It should be noted that the DGM was created in 2011, well before the current, more ambitious World Bank gender strategy and in the early stages of CIF Gender Action Plan development. Earlier editions of the WB and CIF policies, however, created an environment which eventually allowed gender-transformative change to be a priority. Without a clear priority on gender-transformative change and associated accountability at the outset of DGM, considerable discretion was provided to the countries themselves to define a gender strategy, targets, and priority.

Country IPLC ownership and gender champions determined the variation in scope and ambition of DGM country gender strategy. Country project teams took different approaches, based on the influences of key enabling factors, such as National Steering Committee priorities, National Executing Agency expertise, World Bank TTL support and interest, IPLC organizations in-country, and the social-cultural contexts. Several countries (e.g., Ghana, Burkina Faso, Nepal, Indonesia, Republic of Congo) included gender as a priority focus with targets and proactive activities geared towards engaging women; others took a more community-wide approach (e.g., DRC and Peru to some extent) and did not necessarily directly target women as a specific subset of beneficiaries, at least from the beginning. The variability in gender considerations for DGM country projects reflects a commitment by the World Bank and Climate Investment Funds to support a design process that was led by and owned by IPLCs and reflected their knowledge of the needs and preferences of the local population. However, the desire for gender-transformative change likely needed to be a more prominent priority with clear requirements in the project design stage.

If projects include clear gender assessments and dedicated gender resources, relevant staff capacity, and clear action plans with targets they are more likely to contribute to gender-transformative change. The scope of the gender strategy (the types of interventions or methods of project implementation) in a DGM country project was often a good indication of the results in terms of stepping stones toward gender-transformative change. For example, country projects that had staff with gender expertise, provided targeted outreach and support to women, and had robust targets (>30%) for women's participation and direct benefit saw more obvious and positive changes in gender norms.

Women's representation in National Steering Committees (NSC) and the influence of NSC women leaders are widely viewed as evidence of positive DGM gender impact. The study first looked at gender parity in the governance of the DGM, specifically among the Global Steering Committee (GSC) and the NSC. (As of the 2021 selection, the GSC has 35% women as voting members and the NSCs have between zero and 45% women). Again, no specific requirements were made for gender parity, only a recommendation in the DGM Operational Guidelines that gender be considered in selection, and hence the variety in composition across country projects. The NSCs play a critical role in determining DGM country project priorities, guiding the implementation of the country projects and making funding decisions on eligible subgrant proposals. Most key informant interviews consistently pointed to women's influence on the NSCs, including some women leaders who have assumed greater authority in their respective roles within the DGM and beyond, as an indication of gender-transformative change.

The widely recognized DGM NSC ability to elevate and legitimize women's voices and agency at a national level and at international levels also reflected intersectional factors.

The journey that women take to secure a leadership role on an NSC varies but a common feature has been previous leadership at the community or national level, for example with women's or social, economic or cultural groups. The ability to advance to leadership is influenced by many social characteristics, meaning certain groups of women can access leadership platforms more easily than others. Simply emphasizing women's leadership is not necessarily sufficient to ensure that more marginalized women are included. Efforts to increase women's role in leadership must take into account the varied and nuanced experiences of different women, including

factors such as indigenous identity, migration status, age and education level.

Recognition of women's positive NSC influence may be increasing the appetite for quotas. The NSC case study suggests that the growing legitimacy and influence of women leaders in the NSCs increases the willingness to use gender quotas despite the initial reluctance to set quotas for gender parity. While there were often questions about whether women IPLC leaders could genuinely represent the interests of men as well as those of women—a standard that was not applied equally the other way round—there was no evidence of a tradeoff between NSC diversity and competence. Shared lessons about the pros and cons of a quota system to support affirmative action may be contributing to a wider use of NSC quotas in recently approved DGM country projects. There is a stark contrast between the early DGM country projects and more recent ones, which have more specific and progressive gender targets. This can be attributed to lessons learned from the earlier projects and the fact that new projects are being designed in a more progressive policy environment (e.g., CIF Gender Action Plan Phase 2 and the CIF Gender Policy) and are still in an early phase of implementation.

Equitable access to subproject funding was guided by innovative country-led approaches that adopted varied commitments to reaching IPLC women. Subprojects are the DGM's primary mechanism for directing funding to IPLCs and these direct funds are accompanied by capacity building efforts. Building off the DGM operational framework, which emphasizes country differences and priorities, project design and implementation of subprojects varied greatly due to their unique strategic country-based approach, NSC priorities, NEA expertise, and the country project's gender/social strategy. Subproject funding procedures reflected creative and

thoughtful efforts to include IPLC stakeholders in line with country specific priorities and context. There was no standard definition of women-led or women-focused subprojects, and no standard gender targets, leading to great variation across the countries, which made comparisons difficult.

In all DGM countries, either gender targets or proposal selection rating guidance for gender to allocate subprojects and capacity building opportunities were adopted. Half of the countries use outcome targets ranging from 30%-50% of approved subprojects being awarded to women-led or womenfocused proposals and the other half choose to focus on scoring criteria and proposal selection processes to reward strong gender commitments. The target approach seemed to prioritize proactive efforts and activities toward reaching women and supporting them to apply for subprojects, although with varying degrees of success in reaching the target. Some country projects that did not initially include gender quotas in their design but later realized the importance of such targets and altered their approach.

Land tenure rules remain a prominent structural barrier for gender equality, despite significant overall progress for Indigenous land rights in several DGM countries. Across most of the country projects, and certainly those in the case studies, land tenure and access for women was a consistent issue. Secure land rights for women (including ownership, access, use, control and involvement in governance over decisions regarding resource use) are seen as critical for successful and equitable REDD+ initiatives. In some DGM country projects, women's land tenure was a programmatic priority. For example, the Indonesia case study demonstrates how transformative receiving a land title was for a women's group in East Java in addressing multiple forms of internal

inequality, including gender. In others, despite tenure being an issue for longer-term success, women's land tenure was not addressed. This was the case for migrants in Ghana, for babassu coconut breakers in Brazil and for women generally within the Mexican agrarian tenure system. The issue of equitable access to legal land tenure for men and women in Nepal was noted as a central barrier to delivering on meaningful livelihood improvements for women in the community forestry sector, but efforts to prioritize addressing this barrier in DGM country work have been resisted.

DGM provides strong support for targeted capacity building for IPLC women. A major component of all DGM country projects is capacity building around climate change, forest management and REDD+. Many projects reported challenges in reaching and engaging women at the same level as men and they developed creative and culturally appropriate ways to try to overcome some of them. Several DGM country projects delivered specific capacity building to support gender integration and women-led or womenfocused subprojects from the beginning, including separate trainings for women and men. When designed well (i.e., they have women as facilitators, include topics that are relevant to women's priorities, are held at times/locations that are accessible to women, they include discussion of gender norms, etc.) general capacity building efforts can be an important place to introduce gender issues among both male and female participants and build important leadership skills in women including literacy. Many interviewees pointed to capacity building as one way in which women gained important knowledge, technical skills, and confidence that influenced their voice and agency.

Findings underscore the barriers that prevent emerging IPLC women leaders from taking increased opportunities and occupying new leadership space. One underlying current in all countries was the need for more experienced and skilled women leaders, who were ready to step into leadership opportunities like the ones DGM offered. We therefore suggest that the DGM, and other similar programs, should prioritize capacity building for emerging leaders so that when the next leadership opportunity arises, there is a prepared cohort.

Monitoring and reporting

The lack of formal gender-sensitive performance indicators restricts wider capture and reporting of gender impact at the global level. Although the available documentation makes the plans, progress and achievements of efforts to mainstream gender in the DGM appear promising, the actual official monitoring of sex disaggregated results is disappointing and underscores an important lesson. No country has more than 2 of 10-12 results indicators reporting gendersensitive results. Without an early agreement on how monitoring and evaluation will capture the efforts to mainstream gender, the absence of more than minimal indicators (beneficiary estimates) reduces the reliability and accuracy of any other claims of success. Hence, the lesson is that despite efforts by the World Bank, GEA and others, an opportunity has been missed to translate gender-transformative objectives into systematic and meaningful accountability. The relatively few gender indicators and variation in reporting across the countries makes portfolio-level tracking and comparison challenging.

At the national level, gender reporting by NEAs has been uneven and incomplete in some cases. The weak performance on gender reporting could be due to a lack of stringent requirements from the DGM and FIP. Key experts reported that the importance of gender reporting wasn't adequately

explicit during the early stages of the DGM and focused simply on collecting sex-disaggregated data. In retrospect, that wasn't enough, and more needed to be done to build gender considerations into different processes. Although several countries have not finalized their results frameworks, the overall observation is that monitoring at the country project level is not consistent across all projects, and sex-disaggregated reporting is rather limited.

Discussion and recommendations

The DGM made important contributions to closing key gender inequality gaps. It is clear that the DGM country projects provided resources and opportunities to individual and community beneficiaries. These were both tangible (e.g., subproject benefits, capacity building) and intangible (e.g., leadership opportunities, knowledge sharing, social cohesion and solidarity through stronger IPLC networks). How these inputs influenced individual women, their households and communities, and societies to be more equal is the critical test of the DGM's contribution to advancing on a progressive path of gender-transformative change.

The study found clear evidence that DGM inputs provided assets, skills, and capacity building to women beneficiaries. IPLC women are now recognized as leaders of climate-resilient farming methods (in Ghana), hold operational control over productive subprojects within the community (in Peru), and have opted for economic opportunities that forgo outmigration (in Indonesia). These case study findings mirror global DGM reporting of the consolidation and community-wide benefit sharing of more women-led or women-focused subprojects.

Wider generalization or quantification of these case study results is difficult due to reporting limitations. However, most key informants expressed confidence that examples of DGM achievements by IPLC women prepared the ground for sustained or expanded support. Importantly, though, it was clear that in order to ensure that women equitably benefitted from DGM initiatives, it required proactive and targeted efforts.

The DGM catalyzed the influence of IPLC women at multiple levels. The study found evidence that the economic and knowledge gains for women supported by the DGM enhanced their ability and the power to engage in, and influence, decision-making at multiple levels. This included acquiring skills and resources to compete in the markets as well as secure fair access to economic, social, and political institutions. The case studies and desk review identified specific examples of how involvement in DGM contributed to women's capacity to speak up and share in discussions and decisions that affect them—raising their voice. Similarly, DGM has enhanced women's ability to make decisions about their own life and act on them, individually or collectively, to achieve a desired outcome—increasing their agency. Through its governance structure and knowledge exchanges, the DGM projects also led to clear improvements in women's voice and agency at the national level, as discussed in detail in the NSC case study.

However, these improvements in women's voice and agency in decision-making spaces must go deeper. For example, across the DGM country projects, interviewees have observed that despite women's presence in meetings, agenda-setting for community assemblies remained largely the prerogative of men, resulting in missed opportunities for women's inputs and for ensuring their concerns were included. Facilitation of meetings is also an area where women's authority has only begun

to be recognized in many DGM countries, with only the Brazil NSC and GSC adopting gender balanced co-chairs as a voluntary behavior in order to adopt gender balance for co-chairs and to incentivize women's participation.

Case studies showed evidence of shifting gender norms. The study identified examples of how economic benefits and increased voice and agency among women beneficiaries have translated into shifts in community-level changes in gender norms. Most of these examples are found in the case studies, which gather personal information from beneficiaries about how their lives have changed due to their involvement in the country project. For example, in Ghana and Indonesia, we see shifts in household level dynamics with men taking on more responsibilities to allow women more time to devote to lucrative project-related activities.

Recognition of women's effective role in NSC leadership, despite their holding only one fourth of the seats, may prompt further gender norm change and erode the political, cultural or economic barriers to gender parity. It has been suggested by many key informants that the ascension of women to NSC leadership roles is an indication of changing community-level norms. The fact that women have been elected to these positions is itself an indication that change is under way. Importantly, simply by being successful and effective in these positions, women may also be influencing further gender norm change, as in Mexico where a DGM representative became the first appointed woman to the community's top decisionmaking committee. The significance of the role that IPLC women played in DGM governance through their NSC leadership position is explored in detail in the NSC case study.

The study found less evidence of influence on formal rules, institutions and policies to make

them more gender responsive. Transformative change is a long, ongoing, and complex process of encouraging a transformation of people's beliefs and actions. The DGM country projects—lasting five years—can only provide steppingstones in the larger process, and it should be recognized that many other factors (political, economic, cultural) are also at play and they both help and hinder achieving gender goals. Here, the evidence of DGM's impact is highly suggestive and contingent on the influence of these other factors. While many interviews suggested that small steps toward gender-transformative change could be identified, it was difficult to say whether the impact would be long lasting and substantially transformative. Some interviewees said that given the way that the DGM was framed it was not likely to lead directly to transformative change, but it could certainly contribute.

The DGM program could have been designed differently to achieve more transformational outcomes by providing more explicit direction and measurable progress indicators from the outset. Starting with the institutional design of the NSC itself, few informants could provide a full description of the process that resulted in the election of the current NSC members or chairs. As noted, this flexibility and high-level guidance for NSC design was intentional, both to acknowledge the DGM as a pilot experience and to provide IPLCs with space to define a culturally appropriate solution. The result was a limited number of women in nearly all NSCs. Due to these design choices, the lack of clear guidance on gender presents a missed opportunity for moving the needle closer toward gender-transformative change more holistically and with greater accountability. This study indicates there were few attempts to suggest or encourage a systematic gender approach across the portfolio of country projects. As a result, reporting on gender was not systematic or set up to capture transformative gender change.

Drawing on these findings, the study provided the following forward-thinking and immediately applicable recommendations.

Many of these recommendations have already been put into practice at various levels and in different forms across the DGM portfolio:

Define an explicit gender strategy that includes a focus on structural inequality

Ensure a robust gender strategy at the center of the project strategy and project ambitions.

An explicit gender strategy that recognizes and aims to respond to structural gender inequality issues is the only way to overcome the barriers preventing women from fully and effectively participating and benefiting from efforts to improve livelihoods and protect nature. Clarity about the project's gender ambitions should be based on a full understanding of the range of barriers and challenges in a project location, the commitment at the outset to put resources and effort toward both the proximate and structural gaps, and to ensure accountability with consistent terminology, targets and monitoring frameworks. One key way to support this recommendation is to revise the scope of the World Bank's Gender Tag to include fully Trust Funded projects, like the DGM.

Build on and deepen good practices of the DGM

Learn from, replicate and build on the DGM's most innovative and effective gender strategy components. Despite lacking explicit and complete gender strategies, most DGM projects nevertheless piloted innovative components that resulted in modest steps toward gender-transformative change. These include:

- Ensure gender expertise on the project team and an adequate budget for related activities.
- Make customized training and outreach available to women and women's organizations to help overcome information gaps and increase their ability to fully benefit from the project.
- Consistently and substantively reflect project-specific gender ambitions in all project documents.
- Specify, with adequate precision, the procedural and outcome requirements for moving toward gender-transformative change.
- Provide guidance for defining gendertransformative change through high quality baselines.
- Create monitoring and reporting frameworks at the program and country project levels that can better capture all aspects of gender-transformative change.
- Develop a gender-sensitive Grievance Redress Mechanism at the global and national levels that is easily accessed by all project beneficiaries.



Be specific and holistic about building the next generation of formal and informal IPLC women leaders

In order to be forward-thinking, projects like the DGM should prioritize building the capacity of emerging women leaders so that future projects don't have similar situations. In nearly all the country projects there were too few women leaders that could readily assume a position within the NSC. The new approach to leadership building must be holistic, recognizing the multiple interconnected constraints and challenges that IPLC women face. Creating cross-sectoral projects that can address some of these constraints, such as access to clean water, electricity, basic education, and healthcare is a good start. Until these basic needs are met and targeted training is provided IPLC women will struggle to gain enough collective voice to influence meaningful change.



1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and purpose of this study

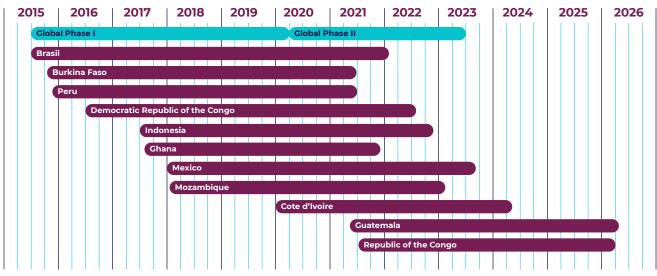
The Dedicated Grant Mechanism for **Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities** (DGM) provides a unique model for inclusive and bottom-up approaches to delivering climate finance for sustainable forest management. Operating across 12 countries, the DGM empowers Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities (IPLCs) by reinforcing the enhanced role that they play in protecting the forests they depend on. So far, these initiatives have made a significant, beneficial impact on the livelihoods of over 200,000 people. They have also supported sustainable forest management, helped to curb forest degradation, reduce deforestation-related greenhouse gas emissions, and promoted forest carbon stocks.

The DGM, approved in 2011 by the Forest Investment Program (FIP) sub-committee, is a stand- alone funding window within the FIP. The FIP is a program of the Climate Investment Funds (CIF). The DGM is fully implemented by

the World Bank and CIF plays an important role in reviewing the DGM projects for gender. The DGM program is composed of a global and national component designed to strengthen the capacity of IPLC organizations by providing them with grants to develop and support their own initiatives (subprojects or micro-projects) and to strengthen their participation in FIP and other REDD+ processes at the local, national, and global levels.

DGM-supported activities are intended to be designed and implemented in a gendersensitive and inclusive manner that improves key gender equality outcomes based on the context. To this end, DGM projects include components that specifically target women—through communication and outreach mechanisms, capacity building, and skills development support, for example—in order to foster their leadership, participation in decision-making and benefit-sharing. IPLC women represent a significant share of the

FIGURE 1: DGM PROJECT TIMELINE



Pending Approval

beneficiaries of the DGM program, directly or indirectly, and serve as IPLC representatives at the global and country levels.

The objective of this study is to gather evidence on how DGM projects, through a variety of efforts, provided meaningful benefits to women and influenced gender norms. It analyzes the contribution of DGM projects to women's economic achievement, access to and control over productive assets, voice, and agency that support positive changes in women's leadership and meaningful participation. Crucially, the study also looks at how change at the individual level may have led (or contributed) to systemic change at the community/household and broader societal levels (i.e., change in institutions, policy, or gender norms).

This broader systemic or societal change we refer to as gender-transformative change.

This framework moves beyond individual self-improvement toward addressing the complex and overlapping root causes of inequality (norms, cultural beliefs, structures, and systems, etc.). It recognizes that there are both practical and structural elements that either constrain or support the achievement of gender equality. In the next section, we explore the complexity of these constraints and supports in the context of sustainable forestry management and REDD+.

This study analyzes relevant DGM program documents, literature, and key informant interviews, and is supplemented by four case studies involving primary data collection.

These data points are used to describe quantitative and qualitative results and identify trends and lessons learned about efforts to advance gender equality outcomes. We draw from a cross-section of wider literature at the nexus of gender, Indigenous rights, sustainable forest management, and climate change. The findings from this study aim to inform similar programs in the World Bank and Climate Investment Funds, as well as other relevant organizations that are working with IPLCs, and will help to increase the capacity of those entities to mainstream gender in climate finance and REDD+ strategies.

1.2. Gender, IPLC women, sustainable forestry management and REDD+

1.2.1. IPLC women and forestry resources

Participation of women in forestry management is inextricably tied to the social, cultural, historical, and political contexts of communities where forest management efforts take place. Gender plays a key role in shaping environmental rights of control, access, and responsibility that interact with class, race, caste, culture, or ethnicity to shape ecological change and sustainable livelihoods (Peach Brown, 2011). For example, studies demonstrate significant gender differences in the collection and use of nontimber forest products (e.g., Sunderland et al., 2014; Samndong & Kjosavik, 2017). Women

in forest-dependent communities depend significantly on forests for their livelihoods, and it is estimated that they generate up to half of their income from forests (Marin & Kuriakose, 2017). Agarwal et al. (2006) find that as household poverty levels increase, so too does the household's reliance on the forest for income, and that women assume greater responsibility for the provision of food and supplies from forests. Unsurprisingly, women's knowledge of forests and their resources is crucial for household resilience to shocks such as drought, food shortages, and loss of income (Samndong & Kjosavik, 2017). Not only are women important forest users, their involvement in management of forest resources results in better governed



community forests which can lead to improved conservation and climate outcomes (Leisher et al., 2016).

Context-specific gender roles and social norms often result in women having differential access to, and benefit from, forests and limited influence on decisionmaking. For example, women experience land tenure insecurity, are forced to focus on low-return forest products and activities, have limited participation in forest product value chains, and encounter limited ability to participate in local forest governance and to influence benefit-sharing decisions (Marin & Kuriakose, 2017; Agarwal, 2001). Women do not constitute a homogenous group, and more recently, there has been an increasing focus on intersectionality, which highlights how—in addition to gender—other factors such as indigeneity or migration status influence differentiated patterns of vulnerability and resilience among women. Approximately 100 million Indigenous women worldwide depend on forest resources, and so they constitute a key group for forest management and REDD+ initiatives (Low, 2020). As a result of structural discrimination against them as both women and Indigenous, Indigenous women may be even more exposed to the inequalities described above due to multiple disadvantages that they experience including ascribed gender roles and high dependence on climate-sensitive natural resources to fulfill household obligations which make them disproportionately vulnerable to the impacts of climate change (Coirolo, Canpolat, Cudjoe, 2021).

Indigenous women also have the potential to be agents of change in the fight against climate change. They are custodians of Indigenous knowledge and practices, which they apply to climate solutions across regions and build resilience in their communities to the impacts of climate change and other shocks. For example, they use their rich

knowledge of Indigenous tree species to combat deforestation by establishing tree nurseries and replanting programs (Coirolo, Canpolat, Cudjoe, 2021). They use water resource management strategies to help improve community resilience to droughts and shape cultivation decisions, including crop choice, through weather forecasting (ibid.). Indigenous women are also organizers and leaders at the local level in the fight against climate change, despite limiting patriarchal norms (Canpolat, Cudjoe, Coirolo 2021). Therefore, despite the disadvantages they may face, Indigenous women have been critical in helping their communities in the fight against climate change.

1.2.2. Barriers to women's participation and influence in forest management

Barriers to women's participation in forestryrelated activities include structural factors (economic, legal, institutional, political) and informal institutions of context-specific gender norms, roles, and expectations.

These barriers reveal a wide array of enduring inequalities between men's and women's roles and opportunities within the forest sector, and exacerbate each other, compounded by multiple forms of exclusion, in a vicious cycle (Kristjansen et al., 2019; World Bank, 2018). Constraints on women's participation in forestry management decision-making is well documented (e.g., Agarwal, 1997). These constraints include time deficit due to an overwhelming set of household responsibilities, social biases against women in leadership, lack of support from fam ily members to engage, lack of self-confidence/ public speaking, literacy and access to education, insufficient background information to effectively engage, feeling uninvited and unwanted, and lack of a critical mass of other participating women.

Increasingly, systems that provide communities with greater influence over land rights and decision-making are being prioritized, however there is no guarantee that these rights extend to women.

Decentralized forest conservation, which has become widely implemented worldwide to reduce deforestation and is meant to be participatory and inclusive, can reinforce local gender inequalities if women are not fully incorporated or are confined to limited participation within patriarchal structures (Agarwal 2006, Agarwal 2001, Cornwall 2003). The gender composition of forest committees/ organizational structures and the intersectional sociocultural backgrounds of women significantly affect their attendance at meetings and the probability that they will voice their opin ions. Because men often have more leisure time and dominate public decision making, they are more frequently available and able to engage in (and control) decentralized management structures. Women, however, with heavy domestic responsibilities, face time constraints which make participation difficult (Samndong & Kjosavik 2017).

Land tenure remains one of the most formidable barriers to gender equality in

forestry. A recent assessment of national laws regulating Indigenous peoples' and local communities' forest tenure found that almost all of them fail to adequately acknowledge and protect the rights of women, including women's rights to property, inheritance, community membership, community-level governance, and community-level dispute resolution (RRI, 2017). Least understood is women's tenure security in terms of the extent of rights of access, use, and benefit and participation in the governance of collectively held lands and resources (Giovarelli et al., 2016; Bose et al., 2017; Doss & Meinzen-Dick, 2018).

Collective land ownership can present a structural barrier to women's participation in forest management. While enhanced collective tenure security for IPLCs provides greater overall advan tages regarding the rights to control access, define use, and decide on the type of benefits that flow from territorial management, it remains unclear if it also ensures equal benefits and opportunities for women within the group. A recent study finds that devolution of land ownership law that places control in collectively held lands can 'pave the way' for women to gain tenure and access rights, but it says that gender inclusion should not be assumed and suggests that it should be mandated (Salcedo-la Viña & Giovarelli, 2021). Another recent study of forestry incentive programs in Mexico finds that because male landholders dominate decisionmaking in the forestry sector, collective land ownership represents both a traditional and structural barrier to women's participation and representation in the management and conservation of natural resources (World Bank, 2018). Because having a land title is also a prerequisite for applying to most government forest programs, collective title may also restrict women's access to incentive programs or subsidies related to infrastructure, credits, and technical assistance. As a result, the study found that more men than women apply to and participate in REDD+ activities and subsequent benefit-sharing models.

Existence of customary practices that protect women's land rights does not guarantee women's active participation in decision-making. Matrilineal societies, while often considered to empower women with rights and access to property, is a system that simply transfers assets through the female line to male relatives; power and decision-making still often lie with male family members (CGIAR, 2015). For example, in Indonesia, some Indigenous

lands are governed under the adat customary practices that follow matrilineal ownership and inheritance rules, a system that protects women's land rights following a divorce. But while women are the customary tenure rights holders, they are typically silent, and defer to husbands to speak at clan assemblies and it is men, overall, who play a greater role in decision-making (Salcedo-la Viña & Giovarelli, 2021). In Costa Rica, the Indigenous Bribri and Cabécar groups practice a matrilineal system in which women inherit the land and in turn pass on the ancestral lines to their daughters; despite this matrilineal structure and the support of the communities, many women claim that they still do not have formal recognition of property (World Bank/FCPF, 2019d). Matriarchal societies, on the other hand, are organized so that women have power and decision-making authority (CGIAR, 2015), however there are few true matriarchal societies documented across human history.

Women, especially those most marginalized, must be supported to engage in and influence community decision-making in order for it to be truly 'participatory'. Despite good intentions, even if women are present in decision-making spaces doesn't mean they are influencing outcomes. Therefore, in order for women to effectively participate in forest management it is important to understand how power relations operate in these spaces and how to impact the ability of women to voice their interests and influence outcomes along with men.

1.2.3. Forestry benefitsharing mechanisms

Forestry benefit-sharing mechanisms are not consistently designed to be gender sensitive.

A recent review of ten forestry sector benefitsharing programs revealed a general lack of compelling evidence of gender-sensitive program design and implementation among most of the cases. Several programs described promoting gender equality in documents and interviews but lacked information on how this was done in practice, and several simply grouped women and other marginalized groups together for program design and implementation. (World Bank, 2019a)

However, there are examples that suggest that gender is being prioritized in some benefit- sharing mechanism design. In Nepal, the community-based forestry program mandates that each Community Forest User Group's (CFUG) management committee is made up of 50% women and also has proportionate representation from other marginalized groups (Indigenous peoples, minority ethnic groups, poor, and/or socially marginalized groups), along with promoting regular communication and public auditing and hearings. CFUGs are required to allocate at least 35% of their income for poverty alleviation specifically to socially marginalized groups, Indigenous peoples, and women. In Brazil, the Bolsa Floresta Familiar program provides a monthly direct monetary transfer to female heads of households. This incentive of 600 Brazilian reais (approximately US\$150) per year is provided for use at the discretion of the female head of household and is contingent upon a commitment to good forest management practices, including zero net deforestation. However it is important to note that this program is implemented in the Amazonas state and for families living within the protected area. In Indonesia, a microfinance component of a forestry project is implemented through local community groups which are often made up entirely of women; utilizing these groups not only encourages and builds capacity for local entrepreneurship, but also empowers women by vesting them with financial management authority (World Bank, 2019a).

There are concerns that in the context of REDD+, women's participation in decentralized climate and forest management efforts might result in exploitation of their labor and may have negative impacts on their wellbeing. It is argued that the responsibility for carrying out global climate decisions rests largely on women and marginalized individuals in the global south (Bee & Basnett, 2016). In identifying Indigenous women as 'agents of change' in forest management, careful attention is needed not to assign women more responsibility for conservation without the fair increase in economic benefits, representation, and rights (Low, 2020). In a comparative study of REDD+ projects across six countries, Larson et al. (2018) find that living in a REDD+ site was sig nificantly associated with a decline in women's subjective wellbeing, suggesting that more attention to gender must be made in design and execution of REDD+ projects.

Women, and IPLC women in particular, have often been absent from the climate change decision-making processes at all levels.

Despite being critical stewards of Indigenous knowledge and practices, research shows that IPLC women may remain much less informed and knowledgeable about REDD+ restoration and tree planting plans and their potential benefits than men (Larson et al., 2018, 2015). Decentralized natural resource management, climate finance and REDD+ may result in inequalities in gender relations, benefit sharing and opportunities for participation in deci sion-making or challenge relations of power between and among men and women (Khadka et al., 2014), especially if Indigenous women's rights are not upheld under REDD+ schemes.

1.2.4. Enabling conditions/ factors for strengthening women's participation and leadership in REDD+ and forest management decision-making

1.2.4.1. Quotas in decision-making bodies

Quotas or targets for female representation on forest decision-making bodies and/ or dedicated funding in benefit-sharing mechanisms can improve women's participation and leadership. Gender quotas and explicit mandates in legislation set minimum thresholds for women's inclusion in resource governance bodies and have opened space in decision-making forums for women (Salcedo-la Viña & Giovarelli, 2021). A broad mandate, such as Nepal's 50% quota for women in CFUGs, gives women the numbers to have a strong collective voice.

The debate over gender quotas is often put forth as a tradeoff between diversity and competence. There is a robust discussion about the positives and negatives of gender quotas in the business and political sphere. Some argue that there are clear economic and societal benefits while others contend that quotas are bad for women. However, there is relatively little discussion about gender quotas in the context of community-based forestry. A limited number of studies address quotas in conservation governance (e.g., Agarwal, 2010 & 2015, Cook et al., 2019) and point mainly to the conservation benefits of a gender quota leading to more gender balanced forestry decision-making groups. Elias et al. (2020) provides a more nuanced discussion of the gender quota in community-based forestry, arguing that simple gender quotas can obscure the diversity of women (e.g., marginalized

women continue to be left out). Gender quotas can even consolidate the power of powerful men within the community whose female relatives fulfill the gender quota on their behalf.

Participation of women in deliberative bodies does not always guarantee influential decision-making. While women may be present in deliberative bodies, men can continue to hold more influential positions and shape decisions. In Nepal, although the participation of the poor, Dalits, and Indigenous women in key decision-making positions has increased, they are still far from influencing decisions in their favor based on social justice principles as local political leaders continue to shape decisions (Devkota, 2020). In Kenya, despite the constitutionally mandated 30% women ratio on water committees, men hold more higher-level leadership positions than women, contribute significantly more time to committee activities, and facilitate and lead meetings more frequently (Hannah et al., 2021).

1.2.4.2. Program planning and monitoring for gender outcomes

Gender indicators and targets can be applied to project activities to ensure that benefits are equally or equitably distributed among women and men. These indicators and targets make visible the gender goals of a project and help overcome gender inequalities and facilitate women's participation in and benefits from the project. Increasingly, many climate finance mechanisms, including the Climate Investment Funds (CIF), Green Climate Fund (GCF), the Global Environment Facility (GEF), are making explicit their desire to see their programming help to close gender equality gaps in the environment and forestry sector through targeted gender analyses, womenspecific activities, and robust gender indicators and targets. An evaluation by Women's **Environment and Development Organization**

(WEDO) (2020) found that CIF programming and investments are on the right track with positive trends across CIF programs in engagement with women and gender-related groups in project design and implementation. In their review of REDD+ gender action plans, Kristjanson et al. (2019) identify targets and quotas aimed at equitable benefits from forestrelated programs as an important element. The rationale for setting gender targets and integrating activities that close gender gaps is both a rights-based argument (that people whose lives/livelihoods are impacted by projects should be informed, participate, influence, and benefit) and a conservation efficiency argument (that project activities will be more effective and sustainable if they're designed inclusively). Directing training and tailored assistance to women, providing funds for gender-targeted activities, and including gender indicators are identified as best practices in community-based forestry project/program design and implementation (Kristjanson et al., 2019), although the quality of those trainings and indicators is also important.

1.2.4.3. Capacity building/ strengthening

Gender responsive capacity-strengthening efforts, if properly designed and delivered, can create an enabling environment for women's leadership and effective participation. Leadership and technical trainings tailored for women (and different types of women) have been found to result in enhanced and more sustainable management of forests (Moss, 2011; Mwangi et al., 2011). Promotion of collective action among women, from the formation of new groups and strengthening of networks to South-South knowledge exchanges, have proven to be an effective means for overcoming the barriers and influencing climate and natural resource management processes (Kristjanson, 2019). The establishment of women's collective enterprises allows them to make visible contributions to community wellbeing, leading to increased leverage in local decision-making and empowerment. These economic gains are associated with reported improvement in women's self-confidence, bargaining power in the household and the capacity to claim greater access to community resources and decision-making arenas (Mello, 2014; Schmink & Gómez-Garcia, 2015).

Capacity building must anticipate and address the barriers to women's upward **mobility and empowerment**. Many forestry projects include a capacity building component, but it is important to look at the full life cycle of capacity building and support women need in order to effectively become influential leaders and shape decision-making. This may be achieved by targeting community-based social and civic organizations that are led by or engage women, that in turn enable alliances within social movements or shift to actions to claim a wider suite of rights (Hillenbrand et al., 2015). Another way is by providing physical space for women to meet and plan together, as in Nepal, where construction of a meeting space also enabled a women's group to meet and enhance their influence within the CFUG. Capacity building should be focused on expanding access to space for women on committees, providing them with exposure and training in public affairs and community leadership, and allowing those aspiring to higher leadership roles to accumulate the experience traditionally required for moving up and building collective strength and seeking greater impacts (Salcedo-la Viña & Giovarelli, 2021).

1.2.4.4. Incorporating genderbased violence into programming

Recognizing, mitigating, and responding to project-related gender-based violence (GBV) is increasingly a priority in the conservation space. GBV is a strong deterrent to women's participation and leadership in the environmental space (Castaneda et al. 2020). Experiencing, or even fearing the threat of, violence is certainly enough to keep women from engaging in forestry initiatives. Due to multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination, IPLC women's vulnerability to violence is heightened by the economic, legal, social, political, and cultural contexts in which they live (UN Women 2013). While global data is too sparse to generalize (most of it is not disaggregated by ethnicity), localized data examples include domestic violence rates that are higher for Indigenous women (in comparison to the general population) in Bolivia, India and the Philippines, child marriage is higher for Indigenous girls in the Philippines, and female genital cutting is more common among local communities in Kenya (IASG, 2014). Indigenous women environmental defenders often face intersecting and reinforcing forms of GBV (Castaneda et al. 2020). Forest interventions that change gender power relations can meet with tension and conflict. It is imperative that genderbased violence is monitored and reported and that people are equiped to respond. These tensions themselves may be indicators that power relations are shifting, which can present positive opportunities to identify and mediate dialogues for constructive gendertransformative change if handled effective ly (Hillenbrand et al., 2015).

Grievance redress mechanisms (GRMs) can accelerate accountability for addressing gender inequality and GBV in the forestry sector. Gender-responsive GRMs are designed to be accessible to all women and men and

managed by entities familiar with gendersensitive communication and responding to gender GBV incidents (including Sexual Exploitation Abuse and Harassment). These mechanisms, and their ability to potentially mediate gender inequality and GBV, can be an enabling condition that supports women's participation and leadership. A survivorcentered approach to GBV calls for GRM design that is responsive to the needs of the victim and ensures no further harm. The World Bank has some very clear lessons learned on how to structure GRMs to be responsive to GBV and SEAH-related grievances (e.g., from the GEWEL project in Zambia). Delivering on this commitment can trigger rapid institutional policy changes in hiring, training, data management, audit, disclosure, and reporting functions. As GRM implementation shifts certain responsibilities to community organizations, customary practices that allow or perpetuate GBV may be challenged and modified. Effective safeguards such as these are therefore an important catalyst for gendertransformative change.

1.2.4.5. Engaging men and male allies

Engaging men and male allies to challenge gender norms and support women in leadership positions is critical to enduring change. Transforming unequal power relations between women and men is fundamental to achieving gender equality, and men are necessarily involved in this effort. Shifting gender norms to allow women access and ownership to assets, a voice in decision-making, or financial independence involves challenging deep-seated notions of masculinity and traditional perceptions of manhood. As powerful and influential gatekeepers, men can play an important role in either resisting

or supporting change. For example, REDD+ initiatives in Nepal confirmed that men's power was influential in deciding women's participation in REDD+ processes in locallevel forest institutions (Khadka et al. 2014). In the DRC, where women are expected to gain access to land via their husbands, the right of single women to inherit from their father are often contested by male siblings (Samndong & Kjosavik 2017). In a study of Indigenous territory in Nicaragua, male community leaders were observed to exclude women from participation in forest decision-making as it was perceived as stepping out of the bounds of acceptable gender roles (Evans et al. 2017). Engaging men to understand and appreciate the broader benefits of gender-transformative change is critical to shifting the narrative.

1.2.4.6. Policies and processes are becoming more gender-responsive

National REDD+ processes are becoming more gender-responsive. Broader enabling conditions are evolving to support women's participation and leadership in forestry and REDD+ initiatives. National REDD+ Strategies are beginning to recognize and support women's participation and leadership through the development of gender action plans. For example, the FCPF Capacity Building Program has funded gender assessments across multiple countries; in Ghana, this influenced the country's Cocoa Forest REDD+ Program. In Nepal, results of a gender analysis were mainstreamed into the Emissions Reduction program and revised Emissions Reduction Program Document (ERPD) (FCPF, 2020). Likewise, the IUCN has worked with national governments to develop over two dozen CCGAPs (Climate Change Gender Action Plans) that influence national REDD+ processes.



2. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

A gender-transformative change, or gender justice, framework aims to move beyond individual self-improvement among women and toward addressing the root causes of inequality. These structural drivers of inequality include social norms, systems, cultural beliefs and values, power dynamics and structures that reinforce gender inequalities (Hillenbrand et al., 2015). This framework helps explain the larger and complex networks and structural conditions that can either support or hinder gender goals, effectively taking the sole burden of change off individual women themselves.

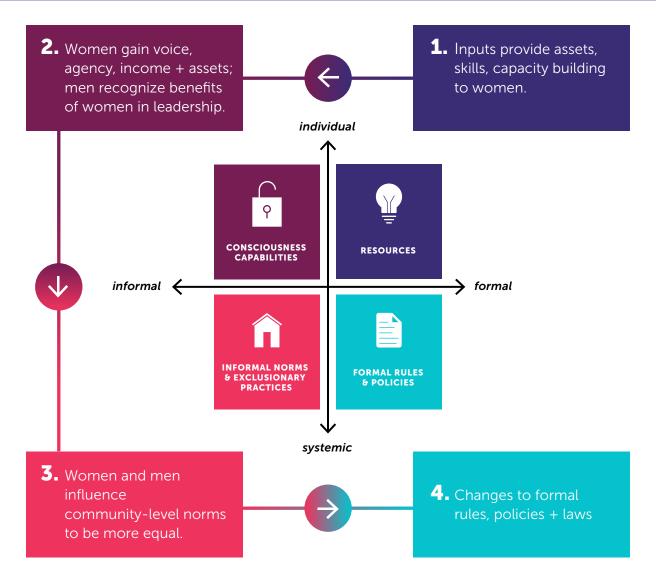
Gender-transformative change is complex and cannot be achieved just by a certain project or set of activities; projects and activities should be seen as complementary to other ongoing processes that may shape transformative change. Efforts that only provide practical support to women (e.g., services and training) do not bring transformational change because they do not address the underlying norms and structures that perpetuate gender-based inequalities (IDRC, 2019). For that reason, transformational change implies collective action that links actions and results at the individual, household, community and institutional levels. Transformational change is inherently sustainable, lasting longer than the life-time of a project or intervention.

This study builds on these principles and views of gender-transformative change as a non-linear progression involving individual, collective, and systematic change (see Figure 2). Inputs can contribute to increased agency, voice, and control over resources, which in turn can shift the norms governing perceived legitimacy and influence of women's leadership. The shift in gender norms can expand to community level governance and decision-making that reduce the informal and local barriers to gender equity. Through networks, movements, and alliances, interests

are aggregated to influence formal change (policies, laws, regulations) that secure gains for women. These longer-term changes in formal structures that reinforce gender norms free up new, additional resources (economic, political, cultural, environmental) to sustain change and open space for further expanding rights claims. This framework assumes that structural barriers are permissive to change, that mechanisms of interest aggregation exist and that change is positively calibrated at different levels (individual, household, community, society). The Analytical Framework presented in Figure 2 has been tested against Indigenous women's transformational change, demonstrating that this theoretical approach can be applied to an Indigenous context (Fleming et al., 2019).

This study also acknowledges that women involved in the DGM project are incredibly diverse and aims to use an intersectional approach. Women do not constitute a homogenous group, but instead have multiple overlapping identities that influence their power, agency, voice, and access to and ownership of assets. Different cultural contexts shape and are shaped by IPLC women's particular roles, knowledge, and participation and influence their perceptions of agency and voice. Existing literature demonstrates that IPLC women, and particularly Indigenous women, face multiple and overlapping forms of discrimination and exclusion that limit their economic activities, access to information, and participation in decision-making processes (IACHR, 2017). During the qualitative research conducted for this study IPLC women also explained how they experienced these limitations and shared their journeys in overcoming them through the support of DGM programs. Other important characteristics, such as differences between native versus migrant women come up in DGM countries like Ghana. Integrating an intersectional gender approach to climate change that goes beyond

FIGURE 2: GENDER AT WORK FRAMEWORK



simple binary male and female categories to unpack indigeneity, race, ethnicity, migration status, sexual orientation, class, age, disability status, etc. is critical in order to address underlying gendered structures of participation, representation, ownership and livelihoods (Low, 2020). Among women, including those in Indigenous communities, there can be great diversity and it should be acknowledged that elite capture and undue influence on the part of certain women may occur (Bee, 2016).

The theory of change for this study recognizes the baseline conditions, inputs from DGM projects (i.e., subprojects and capacity building), outputs at the individual level, outcomes at the community level, and finally, transformational change that positively influences the unequal baseline conditions (see Figure 3). Structural conditions (Figure 3, Column 1) are identified and assessed as risk factors that are not necessarily in the control of the DGM, but which may open or close space for change. The DGM gender theory of change suggests that project teams (World Bank, NEA, NSC and to varying degrees,

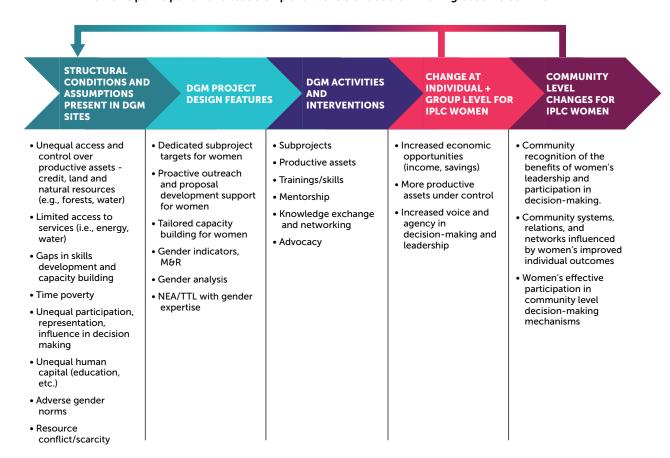
the Government) made deliberate choices regarding the methods and the degree to which gender would be considered through their country project's design (Figure 3, Column 2). The inputs (Figure 3, Column 3) consist of the actual activities and funding that was directed to women, women's groups, and projects where women benefitted. The final two columns define the outcomes and impacts that feed back into changing the structural conditions.

points and therefore the Theory of Change must be flexible. The formal and informal gender norms, rights, laws, and practices of each country are unique. Even within a country, these can vary greatly between urban centers and rural communities. That starting place, or baseline, can be more or less permissive to gender-transformative change depending on a host of factors. As a result, success in terms of women's leadership and participation may look starkly different from one location to the next.

FIGURE 3: INDICATIVE THEORY OF CHANGE

Transformative change begins to happen

- Gender and social norms begin to change
- Formal rules, policies, laws change
- Women's participation and leadership at all levels of decision-making become common

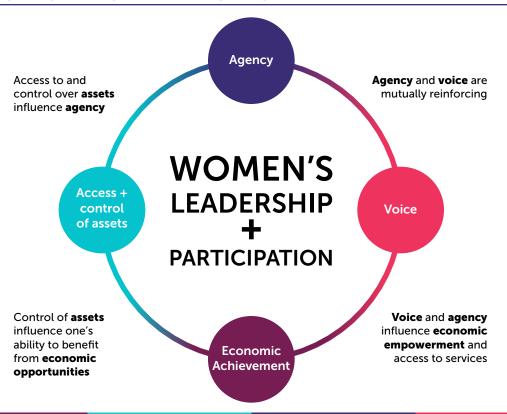


This study recognizes the interlinked and mutually reinforcing nature of four critical areas of equality, as described in Figure 4.

The study provides an analysis of how DGM contributed to improving outcomes for women at the individual level including impacts on: (i) access to and control of resources (i.e., land,

forests, water, credit); (ii) women's economic achievements and increased incomes; (iii) women's access to and use of services; and (iv) women's effective participation in local and national decision-making bodies, their ability to shape key decisions, and their leadership role.

FIGURE 4: WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION



Economic achievement refers to the ability to succeed and advance economically and the power to make and act on economic decisions. This includes skills + resources to compete in the markets and fair access to economic institutions.

Access + control of productive assets is one's ability to access and exercise ownership and control (share in the benefits of use) over productive assets. Productive assets are those with the ability to generate profits and cash flow. Examples of productive assets include land, trees, animals, house/infrastructure, equipment/tools, savings, credit, and capital.

Agency is the ability to make decisions about one's own life and act on them to achieve a desired outcome, free of violence, retribution, or fear. The ability to make those choices is often called empowerment. Agency is about the ability to make effective choices and to transform those choices into desired outcomes. This can be individual or group agency (collective action).

Voice is having the capacity to speak up and be heard and being present to shape and share in discussions, discourse, and decisions. Full and equal participation requires that everyone have a voice. Participation in decision making enables women to voice their needs and challenge gender norms in their communityindividually and collectively.



3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research questions

The study's research questions were framed and sequenced to follow the gender-transformative change framework presented above.

The two primary research questions were:

- 1. How did DGM projects contribute to improved outcomes in the identified domains of gender equality, namely, economic achievements and income generation, access to and control over productive assets such as land, and voice and agency such as participation in decision-making processes?
- 2. To what extent did the DGM, particularly through promoting women's leadership and effective participation, enable gender-transformative change in project areas?

More specifically, this study aimed to answer the following questions:

- How did DGM programs integrate gender in subproject design and implementation and how effective were these efforts at directing money to women-focused projects?
- 2. How effective were DGM IPLC capacity building efforts in reaching women and incorporating a gender lens?
- 3. How did the subproject inputs influence women's agency, voice, economic achievements, and access to and control over assets, resulting in women's leadership and effective participation in decision-making and shifting of gender norms and influencing formal rules and policies?

- 4. To what extent did the DGM provide IPLC women (and men) with the capacity and space to change negative gender norms at the community level?
- 5. To what extent did the DGM provide IPLC women the capacity and space to lead and meaningfully participate in important policy-making and decision-making spaces?
- 6. How can the experience and lessons learned from gender integration in DGM subprojects inform future efforts to enhance meaningful participation of women and gender equality outcomes in FCPF and REDD+?



3.2. Research process

The research process took a stepwise approach to gather relevant quantitative and qualitative information. This included a careful examination of key project documents, a review of relevant academic and gray literature to set the findings into context, a series of key expert interviews, and four in-depth case studies that gathered primary data (three at the subproject level, one global).

The team interviewed 27 key expert stakeholders in 14 interviews consisting of the World Bank TTLs from DGM project countries as well as members of the Global Executing Agency and National Executing Agencies (a full list of interviewees can be found in Section 9). The interviews were conducted virtually with two study team members who took written notes. Each interview lasted approximately one hour, was recorded to ensure accurate understanding and followed a semi-structured research guide derived from document reviews.

The study team¹ undertook an in-depth analysis of documentation and interview findings. Following each interview, the notes were cleaned for clarification and recordings were referenced to add in any missing information. Summaries of the interviews were also created. The interview notes were read by the researchers and coded to align with the study's thematic areas and specific research questions. The study team held a half-day session to synthesize reading and interview feedback to identify the primary themes that emerged, discuss how responses supported or challenged the literature and DGM document review, and generated the primary areas of discussion and conclusion identified in this

report. Through review of the interview notes, the study team also identified exemplary quotes that could be used to support the main findings and examples/explanations from key experts to include in the findings.

In-depth case studies were then used to gather first-person qualitative information on the impact of DGM on key study areas.

Three of the case studies focus on specific subprojects in Ghana, Indonesia and Peru, while a fourth focuses on women's roles and influence at the NSC level. The purpose of the case studies was to examine, at an indepth micro level, how the DGM supported and influenced women's leadership and effective participation in project activities and decision-making and contributed to gendertransformative change. These particular case studies were chosen for a variety of reasons, including thematic area and alignment with the study's analytical framework, longevity of the country project, and geographical distribution. Information for these case studies was gathered through in-country consultants (for subproject case studies) and the study team (for NSC case study). Due to COVID-19 protocols, interviews were conducted virtually with the exception of those in Ghana.

¹ The Conservation International Study Team is separate from the Conservation International's role as the DGM Global Executing Agency. See Section 8 for more information.



4. FINDINGS

4.1. Design: Requirements for and inclusion of gender considerations in DGM project operational design

World Bank and CIF policies, strategies, and action plans help to create an environment within which it is possible to talk about gender-transformative change. The World Bank's gender strategy (2016-2023) positions the institution to be an effective actor in tackling specific gender gaps, emphasizing measurable results based on data and evidence of what works. The strategy introduced a new gender "tag" to strengthen links between country-level and/or sector gender equality objectives and Bank operations and to identify those operations that meaningfully narrow gaps between males and females in the four key pillars of the strategy, however it should be noted that the DGM did not fall into the scope because it is fully Trust Funded. Following the CIF Gender Action Plan – Phase 1 (2014) and Gender Action Plan – Phase 2 (2016-2020), the newest Gender Action Plan - Phase 3 (2021-2024) deepens the Fund's approach to catalyzing gender-transformative outcomes. Gender-transformative change is defined as women's improved asset position, livelihoods and voice status at the main levels of individuals, community, institutions (formal and infor mal), and markets. As CIF's Phase 3 Gender Action Plan emphasizes, CIF aims to move toward promoting systemic change and achieve gender-transformative outcomes, which includes but goes beyond improved outcomes at the level of individual women and men and integrates efforts to foster "longer-term institutional change at the

level of systems and institutions". The Action Plan is underpinned by the CIF's Gender Policy (2018) which serves as a governance framework that ap plies to all activities under the CIF's programs and instruments and seeks to advance equal access to and benefit from CIF-supported investments for women and men. CIF Gender Policy and Action Plans quide gender integration across CIF programs including the Forest Investment Program (FIP). While the World Bank's gender tag system is a robust method to support projects in clearly closing gender gaps, the DGM project (as a full Trust Funded project) is outside the scope of the tag system and therefore not eligible (World Bank, 2021). Instead, the CIF has a complementary gender monitoring system called "gender scorecards"² that score DGM projects for gender integration.

There are signs of increasing gender ambition within the FIP, although relatively less ambitious than World Bank and CIF. The FIP Design Document (2009) refers to women as a historically marginalized group and calls for consultation approaches that pay special attention to women (among other groups) while the 2018 FIP M&R toolkit instructs that countries are encouraged to strive for gender equity as much as possible and that (if possible) benefits should be disaggregated by gender. It also has added a section to describe examples of outstanding gender mainstreaming.

² The CIF uses the following gender scorecard indicators to track performance on gender of its projects and investment plans at the design phase over time: (i) sector-specific gender analysis, (ii) women-specific activities, and (iii) gender indicators. Quantitative scoring of projects and investment plans across CIF gender scorecard indicators is determined based on qualitative analysis of operational design documents. The quantitative and qualitative data collected for gender scorecards will be used in this portfolio review to present a general picture of the quality of gender-integration at the entry level across the entire CIF portfolio over time.

While there have been great strides forward and increased ambition with respect to gender among the World Bank, CIF and FIP, much of this has occurred after DGM's creation in 2011. The environment in which the DGM was originally created was different than it is today. Gender ambitions were lower, recognition of gender was less widespread, and technical skills to create gender-transformative projects were less common. Therefore, the approach to gender was arguably less comprehensive or robust than it would be if designed today.

The DGM does not have a specific gender plan or strategy but includes several provisions for gender equality in its program documents. Within the DGM framework operational guidelines (2013) gender is only mentioned twice, both in relation to NSC composition being "balanced to the extent possible." The DGM's Programmatic **Environmental and Social Management** Frame- work (2014) includes only one paragraph where gender is addressed in reference to vulnerable groups; it discusses only the issue of consultation processes being inclusive of the views, concerns and priorities of men and women, calling for additional considerations in the ESMPs. Phase 1 of the DGM's Global Project (2015-2019) included a handful of provisions for gender equality and women's participation, while Phase 2 of the Global Project (2020-2023) contains explicit reference to strengthening the participation of IPLC women in regional exchanges and fellowships through topical discussions and working groups and recommending women's selection in delegations. The target for women's participation in these spaces is 50%.

There is great variety across the DGM country projects. Due to significant socioeconomic and cultural differences across the DGM countries, with guidance from the World Bank each country has adapted the global framework guidelines to detailed **Project Operational Procedures Manuals** which are aligned with local contexts and DGM country project design. Interviews with key experts further clarified these approaches and underscored some of the social and structural opportunities and challenges in integrating gender targets and genderresponsive approaches. Table 1 outlines gender considerations in DGM country project operational procedures, demonstrating the varying approaches to gender across the portfolio.

TABLE 1: GENDER CONSIDERATIONS IN DGM PROJECT MANUALS

| Brazil | The 2017 manual, Volume 2 (subprojects) calls for improved participation of youth |
|--------------|---|
| | and women in the organization's activities as a result of the project. |
| Burkina Faso | The 2015 manual states only that the project team will be supported by a gender specialist at headquarters. |
| Peru | The 2018 manual states that governance and gender are cross-cutting themes for the first two components of the Saweto DGM (native land titling and Indigenous Forest management). The document also notes that there is a specific target focused on subproject implementation by women. One of the four criteria by which the NSC was directed to evaluate sub-project proposals was the proposed project's contribution to the DGM Peru's gender targets. |
| DRC | No mention of gender in the manual. |
| Indonesia | The 2017 manual outlines that "approximately 30% of the direct beneficiaries will be women," and that this percentage could increase as projects become gender sensitized and women's capacities are increased. Through these and other activities, the "quality of women's participation in decision-making" will be improved. The manual also outlines a specific role on the NEA team for a "gender specialist" to provide guidance on gender issues, mainstream gender in the project, and more. |
| Ghana | The 2017 manual calls for specific attention to gender issues. The Social Specialist in the NEA will coordinate all project gender-related activities and will also elaborate a specific roadmap for an explicit focus on the gender aspects in the Project, reporting to the Steering Committee on a regular basis on this roadmap. Specifications on training include consciously engaging women in all trainings and ensuring that they are held at convenient times—for women. The document sets a target of 50% women grantees executing subprojects. |
| Mexico | The 2017 manual was updated twice (2018, 2020), clarifying the procedures for the two subgrant windows (VIS, VIF) and the procedures related to the assignment of technical support and budget. The manual recognizes the economic, political and social importance of women's contribution to the DGM vision of development, in particular: a) it says the incorporation of women into the various activities of daily life in the project area constitutes an important opportunity for development that fosters social integration; b) it recognizes that there are important inequalities that make it difficult for women to achieve their integration and development in some areas, and this is a task on which the project must work and invest more resources. The manual defines how the social investment window (VIS) will be responsive to these operating principles. |
| Mozambique | The manual established a target that 50% of beneficiaries from among community based organizations must be women and youth. This target was later revised to 30% (see discussion below). Women and youth also represent one of the target groups for capacitybuilding at the local level. Documentation notes that the NSC ensures that selected projects help promote women's participation and reduce their vulnerability within the community, per DGM Mozambique's objectives. |

Overview of gender considerations outlined in project operational procedures manuals

| Côte d'Ivoire | The 2020 manual states that "at least 50% of the funding for the subprojects will be devoted to women for specific targeted activities, in order to strengthen women's effective access to the benefits of the project." The operations manual also looks to "ensure gender is taken into account" when selecting subprojects, as well as to consider gender mainstreaming in implementation of subprojects. |
|----------------------|--|
| Guatemala | Not yet available |
| Republic of Congo | Not yet available |
| Nepal | Not yet available |

4.2. Governance: Global and National Steering Committee gender composition and evolution

The key decision-making bodies of the DGM governance structure are the two Steering Committees – the Global Steering Committee (GSC) and the National Steering Committee (NSC). Both committees are multi-stakeholder bodies comprised primarily of IPLCs, a defining feature of the DGM, where IPLCs have a key decision-making role in the program with active support from governments and MDB members.

4.2.1. Global Steering Committee (GSC)

The GSC is the primary decision-making body within the DGM, with appointed representatives of each NSC and established operational norms, procedures, and guidance.

The GSC formally meets on an annual basis to review and approve work plans, budgets, and internal policies and to set the general direction of the DGM at a global level in line with a strategic plan. By establishing operational norms, procedures, and guidance, and facilitating a grievance mechanism at the DGM's global level, the GSC has some limited ability to influence and shape how the program impacts and benefits men and women. With the support of the GEA, the GSC adopted several internal procedures and plans that were relevant to gender mainstreaming, including a Monitoring and Evaluation Framework, a Grievance Redress Procedure and Semi-Annual Reporting Templates. As one member explained, the GSC has "pushed for changes to get more women in the NSCs".

According to the DGM design document, there is no specific guidance or requirements on gender composition within the GSC.
While the DGM operational guidelines

(2013), state that the selection process of all steering committees should take "into account principles of equity, inclusiveness and transparency," gender is not specified. Indeed, the governance structure of the GSC (as outlined in the GSC Rules & Procedures document) identifies the need for both Indigenous People and Local Community representation, but presents no further requirements on other characteristics such as gender.

The GSC's gender composition can send a signal to the whole DGM about the importance of gender parity in decision making. As of July 2021, the GSC consists of 5 women and 8 men as voting members (36 percent women) (personal communication with GEA). The GSC has evolved over the years as new country projects joined the DGM. For example, the most recent term (2017-2021) was 46% women while the previous term (2015-2017) was 20-30% women. It is also important to note that both a man and woman have served as co-chairs from the beginning, and this was maintained in the most recent selection in July 2021. The GEA has made concerted efforts to communicate the importance of gender parity in GSC-level decision making, which has also likely had an impact on GSC make-up.

4.2.2. National Steering Committees

The National Steering Committees (NSC) play a critical role in determining DGM country project priorities, guiding the implementation of the country projects and making funding decisions on eligible subgrant proposals.

The DGM's operational guidelines call for

NSC members to be "representatives from Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities, balanced to the extent possible by geographic area, community/ethnic group/tribe and gender" (p. 6). The guidelines further explain that "in all cases, it is important that the process [of establishing the NSCs] be inclusive and generate broad support for the NSC's composition. The process should be inclusive and participatory and take into account gender, geographic and other diversity considerations as appropriate in the final composition" (p. 9). NSC participants do not receive any monetary compensation except per diems to attend meetings.³

With a few exceptions, women are largely underrepresented within NSCs, with significant variability in terms of gender parity and some potentially concerning trends toward less parity. (see Table 2 and Figure 3). There is a range of parity in composition from a low of 0 women members (Côte d'Ivoire) to a high of 45% (Indonesia). Change is also evident over time from initial base- line gender composition to present, with a third of the countries (4/12) declining in parity while only 2 saw an increase toward parity. Overall, approximately 24% of all NSC seats across the DGM projects are held by women.

TABLE 2: GENDER COMPOSITION OF NSC VOTING MEMBERS

| | Baseline | Actual (2020) | Change in gender parity | Woman as (co-) Chair | Notes about selection or evolution |
|--------------|--|---|-------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Brazil | 5 men/4 women (45%) (2017 AR) ⁴ | 9 men/5 women (36%) (SAR 11) ⁵ | DECREASE | Yes | Brazil's Project Appraisal document states that "the preliminary selection of IPTC representatives in the NSC was balanced by geographic area, ethnic diversity and gender". In 2018, a man and a woman were elected to lead the NSC. |
| Burkina Faso | 8 men/3 women (27%) (2017 AR) | No change (27%) (2020 AR) | NO CHANGE | No | The process for selecting the NSC in 2017 was an election during a series of workshops with stakeholders, and candidates met a list of criteria including belonging to a local organization, experience in managing natural resources and local development, having computer skills and access to the internet, availability for activities, as well as character. |

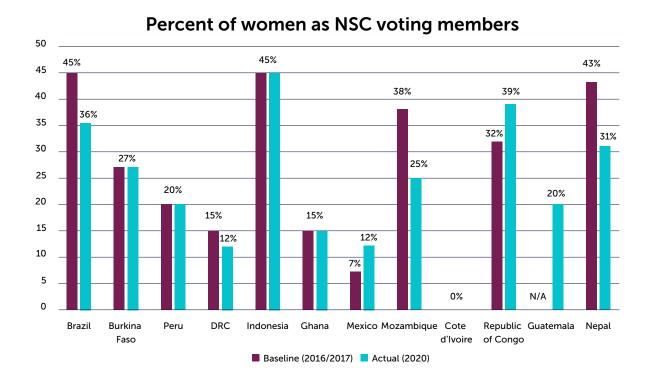
³ Due to COVID NSC meetings became virtual, and per diems were not provided.

⁴ Effective members of the NSC

⁵ Effective and substitute members

| Gender composition of DGM National Steering Committees | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--------------|----|---|
| Peru | 8 men/2 women (20%) (2017 AR) | No change (20%) (2020 AR) | NO CHANGE | No | The project required the NSC to have at least two women, one of which represents Saweto DGM on the GSC. However, there's been no rotation on the NSC. |
| DRC | 17 men/3 women (15%) (2017 AR) | 23 men/3 women (12%) (2020 AR) | DECREASE | No | NSC members were chosen through a self-election process in accordance with procedures determined by IPLCs and their decision-making institutions. It is composed of one representative from each of the 16 project territories, plus eight representatives from REPALEF (a national network representing most IPLC organizations). New members were recruited to join the Steering Committee when the mandates were renewed at the end of 2018. |
| Indonesia | 5 men/4 women (45%) (2017 AR) | No change (45%) (2020 AR) | NO CHANGE | No | Selection of the 9-member NSC was done at the DGM National Consultation. Seven seats represent one each of DGM-I's seven project areas, and upon recommendation of Indonesia's National Forestry Council and the facilitators of the National Consultation, two additional seats were reserved for women – one representing IPs and one LCs. |
| Ghana | 11 men/2 women (15%) (2017 AR) | No change (15%) (2020 AR) | NO CHANGE | No | The NSC was selected through a competitive community selection process to select someone who could read/write and represent the community. |
| Mexico | 13 men/1 woman (7%) (2017 AR) | 15 men/2 women (12%) (2020 AR) | INCREASE | No | NSC representatives were selected from the three project regions from local organizations. In recognition that women were largely underrepresented, 4 additional women were added as substitute members. Two women alternates became official representatives. |
| Mozambique | 8 men/5 women (38%) (2017 AR) | 12 men/ 4 women (25%) (2020 AR) | DECREASE | No | Members were selected from the Natural Resources Management Committee and civil society at a landscape forum. |

| Gender composition of DGM National Steering Committees | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--------------|----|---|
| Côte d'Ivoire | 14 men/0 women (0%) (2018 AR) | 8 men/0 women (0%) (2020 AR) | NO CHANGE | No | The project operations manual states that the NSC is composed of 15 members, including 8 voting members and 7 observers. The voting members are chosen by their communities. |
| Republic of Congo | 15 men/7 women (32%) (2016 SAR) | 14 men/ 9 women (39%) (2020 AR) | INCREASE | No | The criteria for membership in the NSC were established as follows: representatives must be an IP or come from a local community, must have worked with and know the challenges of IPLCs and understand the FIP, may not be a member of the national REDD+ committee or the FIP, and must be in agreement with the mission of the DGM. |
| Guatemala | N/A | 12 men/ 3 women (20%) (2020 SAR) | N/A | No | The NSC is made up of three networks, one of which is led by a woman. |
| Nepal | 8 men/6 women (43%) (2017 AR) | 9 men/4 women (31%) (2020 AR) | DECREASE | No | The NSC has 14 members representing their IP & LC groups. The membership was established through a self-selection process, with special consideration given to representation of a variety of stakeholder groups. The NSC was chosen in a way to ensure wide representation of ethnicity, caste and gender. Pushing for 50:50 gender balance was part of a prior agreement between the two largest community and Indigenous federations in the country. The NSC has two co-chairs – one each from the IP and LC groups. |



Quotas for women's representation at any legislative level, from national governments to village councils are often employed to move toward gender parity. The minimum threshold for achieving a 'critical mass' of women's representation needed for effective participation is often set at 30%. This threshold is supported in the community forestry space as well by Agarwal (2010), who also finds that this critical mass for women contributes to effective participation. Of the country projects, currently only Indonesia, Republic of Congo, and Nepal reach the 30% threshold, followed by Mozambique (25%) and Burkina Faso (27%).

Despite the increasing recognition of the benefits of gender parity and the need to actively support women in leadership positions, only one of the DGM country projects (Indonesia) chose to institute a quota system. While some NSC members interviewed for this study indicated that a quota system could have been a good way to increase the number of women and given women a better

chance at being chosen, this was not always the case. Multiple factors were given to explain why NSC members were divided on the need for and utility of quotas. They included the influence of large organizations over the NSC selection process (such as AIDESEP in Peru) and the perception among both men and women that women could compete fairly without quotas. One female NSC observer stated, "I think that we must first let women fight naturally to deserve their positions. But when the results are too segregated, we must apply the principle of positive discrimination to achieve a quota." A few male and female NSC members suggested that the expected results on the ground would require other representational objectives that were as or more important than attaining a specific number of women on the NSC. One female NSC member stated, "There is not a male/female quota but rather a native/Bantu quota. Furthermore, it is not easy to find highly educated indigenous women. There is a real need for capacity building among indigenous women."

Capacity to advance other strategic priorities was sometimes placed above women's representation. For example, in the DRC, in order to push for more gender parity in the NSC, the project would have had to introduce discussions about how communities are represented and how they are organized, which key experts said in interviews would be challenging and met with opposition.

The influence of large organizations can provide the leverage necessary to make gender parity a priority. In Nepal the NSC was chosen in a way to ensure wide representation of ethnicity, caste and gender. Pushing for 50:50 gender balance was part of a prior agreement between the two largest community and Indigenous federations in the country. The female NSC member interviewed for the NSC case study explained, "[W]e discussed within our two organizations and

made a common decision on 50% women in the NSC. Women are already very empowered in the [Commu nity-based Forestry Movement] CBFM, already practicing a 50% quota at the community level. Why not practice (this) at the NSC as well?" Likewise in Indonesia, the DGM country project was developing at the same time as opportunities for women's leadership were opening up in many of the bodies influential to the project's design. AMAN (Aliansi Masyarakat Adat Nusantara), one of the main representative bodies for Indigenous peoples across the Indonesia archipelago, had just elected its first woman secretary general in 2017, when the DGM Indonesia was launching. Key experts reported believing that the project's gender sensitivities were incorporated into the project in part due to the concurrent maturation of space for women's leadership in AMAN, the NEA, and other bodies related to the DGM.



Photo: DGM Mexico/ Gladys Garcia Osorio, 2020

However, strong organizational influence can also act to constrain progress on IPLC women's leadership. The two Amazon indigenous confederations in Peru had significant influence over the composition of the NSC, with each defining five representatives, and selecting one woman and four men. The NSC case study shows how the presence or absence of a larger organizational structure to articulate the interests of Indigenous peoples or local communities can be an enabling condition but can also act as a constraint on women's leadership. The Asociación Interétnica de Desarrollo de la Selva Peruana (AIDESEP) has encouraged quotas for women leaders at the national level since 2017, with important changes to AIDESEP's bylaws, including equal participation between women and men to be one full delegate for each AIDESEP base. However, this effort has met with resistance within the federations at the local level. As a result, some women may feel demoralized in seeing a directive ignored, as some interviews indicated.

When considering quotas, women's leadership is often held to a higher standard.

Women leaders on the NSCs have come from different backgrounds, including women's organizations, which communities have formed for economic, social, and political objectives. Two male interviewees in the NSC case study commented on the risk of appointing or electing women leaders of women's organizations as an insufficient qualification for making decisions that affected both men and women. These interviewees questioned whether leaders of women's organizations could properly represent men's interests within the DGM. One World Bank interviewee reflected on the legitimacy of a woman leader who represented only a women's group, compared to a woman leader who rose to that position based on other expertise, thereby enabling her to represent both men and women. Given the choice, it

was inferred that one may view representatives of women's organizations as less legitimate and less desirable for the DGM NSC. When asked about women's leadership in the DGM, interviewees often pointed to one or two "very strong" women who have secured or maintained their place in the male-dominated leadership space. Others suggested that because these women were so strong (i.e., outspoken), their presence compensated for the absence of more women leaders around them. According to the GEA, in general, men mainly lead the governance processes and women only do if they are the louder voice. By inference, male leadership is not qualified by a similar standard.

DGM NSC experience – Closing the gender gap

The DGM's ability to elevate and legitimize women's voices and agency at a national level, and at international exchange events, has been an important contribution to the overall achievement of project results. This was particularly evident in the experiences captured in the NSC case study.

Based on a desk review of DGM literature, interviews with key World Bank staff and 35 semi-structured interviews, including seven male and nine female NSC members or observers from seven DGM countries, the NSC case study offered important insights and lessons for gov ernance of climate programs.

Overall, NSC participation has enhanced women's voice, agency, and leadership, but the overall impact varied based on where women were on their own leadership journey and differentiated exposure to cultural barriers. Women's influence on NSC governance and decisionmaking was evident in actions and decisions on NSC representation, inclusion of womenled or women-focused subprojects and other aspects of emerging gender

strategies. Perspectives on NSC influence by men and women leaders underscored the heterogeneity of views on women's influence within the NSC, particularly regarding NSC decisions over the need to tackle structural barriers to women's inclusion, such as land tenure reform. The NSC case study underscored the value of gender strategy investments in emerging women IPLC leaders with targeted support, and a monitoring framework that explicitly seeks to close gender gaps by measuring gender transformative outcomes.



The growing perception of the legitimate leadership capacity of women NSC members was largely borne out in interviews. The majority of interviewees (including all female NSC members interviewed in the case study) have clearly demonstrated their ability and recognition as societal leaders. Female and male NSC members (Burkina Faso, Ghana, Mexico, Nepal, Peru, Indonesia) indicated that women (even those who are representatives of women's organizations) are seen and respected as legitimate representatives of both men and women in their communities with real influence in the NSC.

Effective inclusion of women in the NSC can have longer term positive impacts for governance, just as exclusion can have longer term costs. While a perceived tradeoff was an assumption among those skeptical of the value of gender parity, the grounds for this assumption were not borne out. The NSC case study found no indication of any tradeoff between NSC gender diversity and competence of the women selected. A few male and female NSC members explained that the presence of women on the NSC due to a quota system doesn't equate to a deficit in skills or knowledge, and instead pointed to skills and capacities that women were likely to introduce to NSC decision-making that would ensure overall better governance. Several female and male NSC members observed that women were becoming stronger, more forceful, and more willing to take on greater leadership roles. A quota system can work to bring women with those important qualities and skills to the table: likewise, the absence of a quota for contexts in which women leaders are substantially underrepresented at all levels of decision-making in forest sector organizations or communities can also have deeper costs for forest governance in terms of lost access to technical knowledge, diminished ability to pursue more integrated solutions, a less balanced and inefficient distribution of

work, and lower levels of trust, accountability and ethical commitments. Three NSC members went as far as to suggest that by not pursuing gender parity more aggressively, the DGM may have missed an opportunity to strengthen the overall project performance.

Access to NSC leadership positions is largely biased towards already established leaders. In order to successfully run for an NSC seat, one must already be well known and trusted as an effective community advocate. Other factors include support from family members, literacy in the DGM language, confidence in speaking out on behalf of others, and the financial capacity to take on what is essentially a volunteer position. Particular groups of women (e.g., those with poorer economic backgrounds, landless, migrant, lower educational or caste levels, or stricter gender norms) have more difficulty attaining this level of leadership than women who may not have these same barriers. It is important to recognize that simply counting the number of women on an NSC doesn't necessarily mean that those women are inclusive or representative of the large variety of women in the project area. It is therefore important to provide tailored capacity building support to different groups of women to ensure representation of different groups of women in leadership positions.

The DGM provides important examples of various pathways to NSC leadership. The NSC case study provides examples of IPLC women successfully rising through male dominated community, social, and governance structures. Equally, indigenous and non-indigenous women, some with greater education, and others with certain material advantages, were also invited to represent IPLCs on the NSC. In Brazil, both Quilombo and Indigenous women were represented on the NSC by different leaders. In Peru, only Indigenous people were eligible stakeholders, so the two Indigenous

women on the NSC were clearly representing the interests of Indigenous people (both men and women). In Mexico, only Indigenous women represented men and women from their region (Oaxaca). In Ghana, the two NSC women leaders seemed to represent a wider cross-section of community level women.

National level social movements for women's rights eased barriers to NSC gender parity.

A longstanding women's rights movement at the national level and among indigenous and community organizations has raised awareness of the importance of the involvement of women in decision-making. In some countries, (such as Indonesia and Nepal) the change within the economic, political and societal spheres catalyzed by these movements was mentioned in interviews as an important enabling factor for arguing for gender parity on the NSC. The hard-won achievements of women leaders and the advance of women's rights movements in some contexts supported securing gender parity on NSCs that may not have been as widely seen in all DGM countries.

For women leaders, support from champions and allies opened crucial space. Particularly for women NSC members, some reported having significant, direct encouragement and support from GEA/NEA members, GCS members, World Bank TTLs, government officials and national IPLC leaders in ways that enhanced their selection to their committees.

Female NSC members had varying influence on DGM priorities. In Brazil, the strong leadership of a female Quilombo NSC member led to a training course for a cohort of IPLC women to build on the achievements of their subprojects to "speak up, engage in public space, and show how women can address their demands." Similar observations were made of strong women leaders on NSCs in Peru and Indonesia. Another female NSC

member related that she was able to fight for some of the women to access grants. "I believe that if there were other women in leadership roles, we could have fought for most of these other women to also access grant opportunities," she said. However, in Nepal, despite a female NSC member actively pushing the DGM to tackle land tenure issues for women (a key barrier to women's economic empowerment), she was unable to include this in the country project's priorities.

Working within these complex constraints, DGM projects also experimented with creative solutions. In cases where original or initial NSC composition was far from achieving gender parity, some project designers have created opportunities for future parity improvements through creative and deliberate design adjustments. In Ghana, where few women were put forward by communities for the original NSC, the NEA made a deliberate effort in a subsequent iteration of the NSC to 'proac tively push' women into this position (successfully gaining one more woman on the NSC). Similarly, in Côte d'Ivoire, while no women have been selected for the country project's initial NSC, TTLs have encouraged a system of rotation for NSC positions, to allow points of entry for women NSC members in the future. As noted previously, in Mexico, the barriers keeping women from occupying positions in decision-making bodies like the NSC have roots in the customary and legal context that rewards service but prevents women from acquiring this experience. The DGM Mexico project has designed subproject technical assistance to prepare women to gain the confidence, skills and opportunity to contest these positions more competitively in the future. In the meantime, the project added four additional female members to the NSC as substitute members and two of those women became formal NSC members.

Additional compensation for time and to overcome cultural barriers may be necessary to overcome specific challenges that women face. Women's undue burden of domestic tasks and childcare severely constrains their ability to take part in other activities outside the household, and even more so when these activities are unpaid such as being part of the NSC. Likewise, there are cultural barriers that prevent women from traveling alone in some DGM countries. In the DRC, the project paid double per diem for a chaperone to accompany a female NSC member to attend a meeting. Similarly, in Mexico, the DGM encouraged communities to send two representatives to project discussions—one man and one woman—and paid a double per diem.

One of the key challenges in building gender parity on the NSC is a lack of women leaders who have the skills, knowledge, interest, and ability to engage in this type of leadership position. This dearth of qualified and able IPLC women leaders was a sentiment heard across most interviews. Building and supporting a pipeline of IPLC women leaders could be an important contribution of the DGM. Targeted support and mentoring for women NSC members could ensure they are effective and supported. Clarifying procedural norms for managing decision-making spaces that support gender equality could be an area of innovation for the DGM.

The combined experience of the first cohort of DGM NSCs suggests that moving from greater awareness of gender parity as a principle to practice is happening, albeit slowly. There is an indication that NSC quotas for women are given greater consideration in the more recently formed NSCs, whether it reflects learning within the DGM or is tracking other trends (e.g., momentum behind a gender strategy in the World Bank, greater general awareness). Even without quotas, the indication provided by the more recently approved country DGM projects (Côte d'Ivoire, Republic of Congo, Mozambique and Nepal) is that learning from DGM experiences has reinforced being more proactive and the desirability of adopting minimum thresholds for women's representation on the NSC. One female GSC member summarized the situation: "It is hard to reach ideal [gender] balance, but at least now [NSCs] try."

4.3. Grants: Subproject design and implementation processes

Subprojects are the DGM's primary mechanism for providing direct funding to IPLCs. The DGM Design Document (2011) specifies targeted outreach to assure participation of women and that decisions be taken based on gender equality (among other criteria). In response to diverse country projects, DGM subproject design and implementation varied with respect to strategic approach, NSC priorities, NEA expertise, and the project's gender/social strategy.

The DGM has supported over 2000 subproject awards from a much larger pool of proposal submissions (DGM, 2020). Nearly one quarter of all subproject proposals have been awarded to women-led or women-focused proposals, however this estimate is subject to non-uniform definitions of women-led or women-focused subprojects (see Table 3). In addition, this estimate discounts land tenure focused subprojects, which in most cases for Peru, Indonesia, and DRC where tenure was prioritized, were not considered to be women-led or women-focused subprojects, despite clear benefits for women in those communities. The rate of awarding womenled/focused subproject proposals range from 10% in Indonesia to 81% in Burkina Faso. The subproject award rate compares to a narrower range for overall DGM beneficiaries that are women (between 34% and 60%).6 Any observations should be interpreted with caution due to the diverse prioritization strategies across the DGM country projects.



⁶ Includes capacity building activities as well as subprojects. Based on methodologies and reported results in latest DGM Country Project ISRRs and SARs.

TABLE 3: SUBPROJECT DESIGN AND RESULTS

| Methods used to integrate gender into subprojects, and corresponding results | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---|--|
| | Subproject design specifications and processes | Specific outreach during subproject design and/or implementation | Results: projects that are women- led or women- focused* | Results: % of women beneficiaries (all DGM activities) | |
| Brazil | Selection criteria in both calls for proposals prioritized and awarded bonus points to projects that included the participation of women, youth and elders. | Training plan specifically for women; leadership training for women in early-2020. | 13 out of the 64 subprojects (20%) are being led by women, directly benefiting approximately 1,344 female beneficiaries. (Source: DGM 5 th Annual Report, 2020) | 51% (11,041 women of 21,650) (Source: DGM 5 th Annual Report, 2020) | |
| Burkina Faso | Burkina Faso assigns up to 40% weight to proposals that have addressed "gender approach and community involvement" with several references to gender and women in the call for proposals. | Proactive communication, some specifically directed toward women, about the project and application process. In workshops, the importance of gender and womenled subprojects was highlighted as a key success criterion (given the heavy weight). | 43 of the 53 (81%) livelihoods-focused subprojects are implemented exclusively by women. 15 of the 32 (47%) commune level subprojects have been implemented by women's associations. (Source: pers. comm. with NEA) | 60% (78,130 women out of 130,219 total) (Source: SAR11) | |
| Peru | Peru allocates \$500,000 (31% of the project's indigenous forestry management subproject portfolio) to subprojects proposed and/or primarily managed by women. An additional criterion established was that 50% of beneficiaries would be women. The NSC and National Executing Agency (NEA) have joint responsibility for ensuring that this target is met or exceeded during project implementation. | Strategy and training plan that includes a module focused on gender to help facilitate women's participation in training sessions. The capacity development program has a budget of \$150,000 and requires that 50% of participants are women (WB 2020). They also experimented with providing childcare during trainings to make it easier for women to participate. | Peru has funded 28 women-led subprojects (~30% of the total number of productive subprojects). (Source: ITAD 2019) | 48% (20,294 women of 42,280 total) (Source: SAR 11) | |

| Methods used to integrate gender into subprojects, and corresponding results | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---|--|
| | Subproject design specifications and processes | Specific outreach during subproject design and/or implementation | Results: projects that are women- led or women- focused* | Results: % of women beneficiaries (all DGM activities) | |
| DRC | Micro-project implementers (communities or CBOs) should ensure that 35% of project benefits are directed at womenled households. | Tried to have sensitive, meaningful contributions from women during proposal consultations. Made sure to have some women to speak/ contribute. Proposals were agreed to by community consensus. | 2 women's groupled projects out of 15 total projects (13%) have so far been approved. (Source: SAR 11) | 43% (4,032 women of 9,377 total) (Source: SAR 11) | |
| Indonesia | 30% target for female participation in consultation activities and livelihood projects. Hired a gender specialist to review proposals to assess how well they captured participation of women. Participation of women is one of the indicators used when scoring projects for selection. | IPLC communities across Indonesia came to the DGM with widely varying capacities for gender sensitivity. The gender advisor worked with applicant NGOs and communities to strengthen the gender sensitivity of their subproject proposals, ensuring they targeted at least 30% women beneficiaries. Specific trainings were held to raise awareness of the importance of gender equity and social inclusion. | Although DGM Indonesia does not formally distinguish "women focused" subprojects from others, the NEA reported 6 of the total 63 subprojects (10%) could be counted as women focused. (Source: Pers comm) | 34% (from livelihood-only activities) (1,760 women of 5,183 total) (Source: SAR 11) | |

| Methods used to integrate gender into subprojects, and corresponding results | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|--|--|
| | Subproject design specifications and processes | Specific outreach during subproject design and/or implementation | Results: projects that are women- led or women- focused* | Results: % of women beneficiaries (all DGM activities) | |
| Ghana | Set quota for women and migrant women led projects (50%). Identifying criteria was stripped during selection to ensure gender didn't play a role. | Gender-sensitive consultation efforts, including separate meetings for men and women, organizing meetings around women's schedules, and providing childcare. Support in filling out proposals to overcome illiteracy. | 64 of 152 individual grants are women (42%); 34% of those are migrant women. Of the 53 community grants, 36 are boreholes to provide water – most directly benefitting women/girls who are responsible for water collection and household agriculture. (Source: SAR 11) | Not reported | |
| Mexico | The Social inclusion window (VIS) (US\$ 1.55 million) prioritized vulnerable social groups inc. Indigenous women. Any proposals with a woman leader or active share of women participants got more points. Trained regional subcommittees and NSC on correct (gender-sensitive) application of criteria during evaluation and selection process. | Targeted outreach to women and youth during call-for proposal dissemination. DGM Mexico created a simplified process for proposals, requiring only an 'idea note' instead of a full proposal (no need for community endorsement and no feasibility study or permit required which are two big hurdles especially for women). | 47 of the 55 community initiatives (85%) are womenled. 6 of the 43 (14%) financial inclusion subgrants are womenled. (Source: pers. comm) | 87% of VIS beneficiaries (811 of 930) are women, compared to 14% of the VIF beneficiaries (1326 of 9059) and 21.4% overall (Source: pers. Comm; MDE Mexico, Update, Dec. 2020) | |
| Mozambique | During the selection process for CBOs eligible for application process, the NEA ensures that these organizations have at least 30% women in their membership. | DGM Mozambique enabled women to express their priorities and expectations for project development. Twenty women have been involved in the pre-evaluation of potential subprojects. | 29 pre-selected CBOs have been chosen, all with at least 30% women in their membership at the time of selection. (Source: pers. comm) | No data yet | |

| Methods used to integrate gender into subprojects, and corresponding results | | | | | |
|--|--|---|--|---|--|
| | Subproject design specifications and processes | Specific outreach during subproject design and/or implementation | Results: projects that are women- led or women- focused* | Results: % of women beneficiaries (all DGM activities) | |
| Côte d'Ivoire | Component 1 of DGM Côte d'Ivoire, focused on capacity building, set a target of women's participation at 50% - this is higher than any other capacity building gender target among existing DGM projects. Component 2, focused on subgranting, set a target for women or women's organizations to lead 50% of subprojects. | Women's associations were involved in various awareness-raising campaigns in the DGM's targeted project areas during project preparation. Capacity building sessions on the DGM, including what it is and how to submit a subproject proposal, will target women specifically alongside other stakeholders. | The target is 50% in both components, but the project has yet to reach implementation of either component. | No data yet | |
| Republic of Congo | Component 1 of DGM Republic of Congo, focused on subgrants for income generation opportunities, will target 50% women beneficiaries. Component 2 on capacity building has a stated target of 50% women benefitting from trainings. | Women and women's groups will be targets for capacity building on leadership and entrepreneurship development. Both men and women will be engaged in GBV awareness training. Women-led entrepreneurship will be an important subproject focus. | The target is 50% in both components, but the project has yet to reach implementation of either component. | No data yet | |

| Methods used to integrate gender into subprojects, and corresponding results | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|--|--|--|
| | Subproject design specifications and processes | Specific outreach during subproject design and/or implementation | Results: projects that are women- led or women- focused* | Results: % of women beneficiaries (all DGM activities) | | |
| Nepal | The project is designed to narrow gender gaps by (a) creating opportunities for women to benefit directly from value addition to forest products; (b) providing forest use and management rights to womenled households; (c) promoting female IPs and LCs leaders; and (d) building the knowledge and skills of women in both informal and formal institutions, through participation in capacity-building activities. | DGM Nepal builds off gender gaps identified in extensive consultation carried out by the FIP Forests for Prosperity project and the REDD+ Readiness project. | No specific target is yet identified and the project has yet to reach implementation. | No data yet | | |
| Guatemala | 30% of livelihood + food security subprojects should be led by women or women as the majority of direct beneficiaries. | Specific/tailored technical assistance for women during proposal design and implementation; team will include an Indigenous women's specialist. | The target is 30%, but the project has yet to reach implementation. | No data yet | | |

^{*} There is no standard DGM definition of women-led or women-focused. The study team's working definition of 'women-led' is woman/women designed and led implementation of the project; 'women-focused' is a project where women are the primary beneficiaries or where project benefits relieve/address challenges that are unique to women (e.g., community water provision).

DGM country projects chose to either set a target or scoring criteria to account for gender. As Table 3 describes, six countries used or plan to use outcome targets ranging from 30% to 50% of approved subprojects being awarded to women-led or women-focused proposals (i.e., Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire, Republic of Congo, DRC, Peru, Guatemala). The other five projects focused on scoring criteria and proposal selection processes to reward strong gender commitments (i.e., Indonesia, Brazil, Burkina Faso, Mexico and Mozambique).

Targeting approach for women-led or focused projects

For half of the DGM country projects, subproject-level gender targets were seen as necessary to ensure reaching enough IPLC women. In Ghana, for example, establishing a quota for women-led or focused projects was "probably necessary for rural Ghana...without that targeting we would not have reached as many women," explained a key World Bank expert. This is due, in part to women's lack of experience, capacity, and skills to define a project and fill in a proposal. The NEA met this challenge by filling in the form on behalf of proponents who could not write, but even with this support, many women were still hesitant to put a project forward. Despite an ambitious target, with proactive and creative efforts to overcome challenges and barriers, the project still fell a bit short of the 50% target with only 42% of projects targeting women. Likewise, in Côte D'Ivoire, subproject targets represent an important gender-responsive design measure. Currently in a very early phase, the project has established an ambitious requirement that there be 50% female beneficiaries across all project components. One World Bank expert noted that the figure is ambitious and that there have been multiple suggestions to

decrease this target to 30%. However, they determined it is better to aim high now: "It's good to start strong always."

DGM projects that did not initially include gender targets in their design later realized the importance of such targets and altered their approach. In the DGM Peru project design, there was initially no quota or mechanism for prioritizing women-led projects, nor any specific outreach to women about the process. Following the initial call for proposals where only one woman-led project was submitted, the project reconsidered its approach regarding women's engagement. The project began to include a specific allocation for women-led projects (\$500,000) and training specific to women. Because the DGM calls for proposals and training opportunities were not reaching all Indigenous women due in part to lower literacy levels among women as well as bottlenecks in information sharing by male community leaders, the NEA realized that it was necessary to go directly to the communities to reach women. A stakeholder engagement plan was developed that involved women-led organizations in spreading the word and encouraging women-led proposals. During the second and third rounds of applications, the number of women-led projects significantly increased due to this strategy and exceeded the established target (25), with the successful outcome of 28 total women-led subprojects funded. Likewise, the DGM DRC project recently (as of SAR 11) introduced a target of 35% of subproject benefits being directed to women-led households. It is unclear whether this target will be applied retroactively to previous subprojects.

Most of the newer cohort of country projects are opting for gender targets, with more ambition than most in the first cohort. While DGM Republic of Congo has not yet begun implementation, the project has some of the

strongest elements of gender-responsiveness at the design phase, with a target of 50% women beneficiaries in the subprojects. DGM Guatemala is proactively responding to gender considerations by targeting 30% of the livelihood and food security subprojects to be led by women or be designed so that women are the primary direct beneficiaries. Likewise, Côte d'Ivoire has set a 50% target for womenled subprojects.

Scoring criteria

Scoring criteria for women's effective participation and leadership in subprojects is another effective mechanism to strengthen gender equality outcomes under DGM projects. This method was more attractive than quotas to some country projects because it was seen as more transparent. Instead of a set-aside, this approach awarded projects that were stronger because they had integrated gender. For example, DGM Mexico gave additional points to any proposal with women leaders or with an active share of women participants. It is reported that this method was



Photo: DGM Burkina Faso/ Meerim Shakirova, 2020

very much appreciated by the NSC because it is very clear, quantitative, and transparent. This method also encourages gender to be integrated as a theme across all projects, rather than just focus on women-led projects. For example, DGM Burkina Faso assigns up to 40% weight to proposals that have addressed a "gender approach and community involvement" which both incentivizes women's organizations to apply and encourages other organizations to be thoughtful in how they address gender. As a unique example, DGM Mozambique requires that CBOs must have a minimum of 30% women in their membership in order to qualify for subproject support. However, there are no clear measures to ensure that women continue to remain among those organizations' membership after this initial phase or require that they equally or equitably benefit.

A positive enabling environment, combined with scoring criteria, can be helpful. In Burkina Faso, which has a large percentage of women-led subprojects (81%), the NEA relates

this success in part to longer term efforts on the part of government and CBOs to build and support women's associations. When the DGM project began, many strong women's associations already existed which had had some training in project conception, proposal development, and project implementation.

4.3.1. Comparison of subproject design elements

In addition to the quota vs. scoring approach, DGM country projects incorporated different design elements to advance gender outcomes. Table 4 describes these elements, based on a review of DGM project documentation and interviews. This list is indicative of the diversity of country con texts and the changing weight of gender in the safeguard and climate policy mandates of the World Bank and national governments.

TABLE 4: SUBPROJECT GENDER DESIGN ELEMENTS

DGM subproject gender design elements

Gender/social specialist on the WB Project Team during design process

Gender analysis during project preparation

Interim NSC has some women representatives to guide design process

Defined gender strategy, including clear definition of indicators: (e.g., gender affirmative action's such as a quota, male and female NSC co-chairs, dedicated funding targets)

Separate consultations with women stakeholders to define benefits (e.g., focus groups)

Gender champions on NSC

Gender champions and technical skills on NEA team

NEA held to gender goals/receive gender support and accountability from organizational network

Quotas for women-led/women-focused subprojects (and related performance indicators)

GRM design is gender-responsive

Design of subproject proposal criteria revised to be easier for women to access and fulfill requirements

DGM subproject gender design elements

Gender scoring is part of proposal review/ranking system

Operations Manual (reflecting gender design commitments) is publicly disclosed

Proactive and culturally appropriate outreach/awareness raising/recruiting of women applicants (visual, verbal communication for non-literate)

Tailored training & proposal writing support for women applicants

Creating a simplified proposal process (that didn't require community consent, land tenure, or a full proposal upfront)

Gender advisor (consultant or staff person) to assist proposal scoring

Targets for women-led/women-focused subprojects (and related performance indicators)

More than two ISRR indicators that are sex disaggregated

Public reporting on meeting or not meeting gender targets, including grievances (e.g., ISRR, other publications, quality of SAR reporting).

Featured reporting and dissemination of gender outcomes (in SAR, project website, other)

Formal analysis of gender targets at mid-term review to validate process

Evidence of adaptive management/learning/corrections

Sustainability plan - dedicated follow-on plan or exit strategy for women

Formalized or dedicated support to community group/network or new group that secures women's leadership.

Integrated focus on linking subproject/project results to larger funding/institutional processes

Reporting on sustainability of gender results

Evaluation of subproject gender impacts

Gender ambitions of second-cohort country projects are generally stronger than those of the first cohort. This is likely due to a number of factors, including a changing policy environment in which gender ambition was raised and lessons learned from the first cohort. For example, the DGM Republic of Congo project engaged a World Bank gender and environment specialist who ensured strong alignment of the project to the World Bank's gender strategy pillars. As a key component of the gender-responsive design, there are strong gender targets (50%). The draft project paper (currently being

finalized) makes numerous references to gender throughout and outlines a detailed training approach that seeks to respond to drivers of GBV that are associated with climate change impacts and environmental projects which may inhibit meaningful participation. It is evident that local gender and social dynamics have been thoroughly considered in the context of this project. Similarly, DGM Guatemala is proactively responding to gender considerations, in part as a result of lessons learned from the early efforts of DGM Peru. Their target of 30% women-led or focused projects will be accompanied by

specific technical assistance and outreach to both women and men to ensure knowledge of the project and support in designing and implementing strong subprojects.

Likewise, DGM Nepal had the benefit of building on gender outcomes not only from the first cohort of DGM country projects, but also from the World Bank's Forests for Prosperity project and Nepal's REDD+Readiness project, two forestry projects running concurrently to the DGM in Nepal. Building off Environmental and Social Assessments (ESAs) conducted under both those projects, DGM Nepal set ambitious and

specific objectives to narrow gender gaps identified in those ESAs. To illustrate these differences, Figure 6 attempts to place DGM country projects' subproject design on a gender continuum. Countries in black have ongoing subprojects and those in blue have yet to implement. The criteria distinguishing respective gender subproject strategies inform their placement between the gender opportunistic and gender-transformative end points. It should be noted that Figure 6 represents gender strategy only for subprojects, not the entire country project (i.e., it does not con sider capacity building outside of subprojects or the gender parity of the NSC).

FIGURE 6: DGM SUBPROJECT GENDER STRATEGY CONTINUUM

Countries who have begun implementation

Countries who haven't begun implementation yet

DRC Indonesia Brazil Congo
Peru Burkina Faso Guatemala
Mexico Ghana Nepal
Mozambique Cote d'Ivoire

Neutral / Blind

Gender is not considered at all in project design, delivery

Sensitive / Informed

Gender is considered in the project rationale and addressed in the methodology but no action

Responsive

Gender is considered in the rationale, design, methodology and analysis of the project and is used to inform delivery

Transformative

Gender is examined, analyzed and evidence built to inform practical and structural change

DGM PROJECT EXAMPLES:

- Gender nominally considered but not a project priority
- No / low gender targets, goals, quotas
- Work within structural constraints
- Undefined / vague gender gap
- Indicators don't measure gap change, not SMART

DGM PROJECT EXAMPLES:

- Gender earmark / scoring system for subprojects
- Gender advisor / staff
- Clear gender goals, indicators/targets
- Proactive outreach/training and support to women

DGM PROJECT EXAMPLES:

- Ambitious gender goals, targets, actions that address identfied gaps
- Detailed, measurable gender action plan with SMART indicators
- Challenging structural boundaries
- Lasting gender norm change at the community / society level
- Clear line of sight for support beyond DGM



These placements are made as objectively as possible, but there are still many nuances that are difficult to capture. How explicitly and adequately gender is formally integrated into different functions of a subproject delivery system is also relevant for the definition of a DGM country project placement along this continuum. While some DGM country projects have robust transformative objectives, such as land tenure (Peru, Indonesia, DRC), it is not always clear that improved tenure is an automatic benefit for women and men equally if not specifically planned for. Gender responsive and transformative strategies look more carefully at this assumption and assess and plan for the risks and opportunities that may or may not deliver equal benefits for both men and women. This figure clearly shows that newer countries (those in blue, which

haven't yet begun implementation) are placed farther towards the 'transformative' side of the continuum, and this is likely due to several of factors:

- The newer projects have had the opportunity to learn from the older projects.
- Monitoring and knowledge management around gender has changed substantially from early DGM to today (as discussed in section 4.5).
- Gender discourse and accountability has also increased during this time at a broader scale within the World Bank, CIF, and among the general climate and forestry community (as discussed in section 4.1)

4.3.2. Case study snapshots

Comprehensive gender strategy led to household and community gender norm change in a DGM Ghana subproject.

DGM implemented individual, community, and CBO subprojects in the village of Koradaso with a thoughtful and robust gender strategy that included targeted capacity building, gender-sensitive communal decision-making, gender expertise on staff, and targets for women-led projects. Interviews with women and men reveal results in terms of increased income for women, but also changes in household dynamics whereby men were taking on more responsibility so women could participate in the more lucrative project activities. In addition, changes were observed with more women taking leadership positions in community organizations and groups.

Forest access and use rights increased women's income, voice, agency, and leadership in DGM Indonesia.

The Sabrang village subproject in East Java exemplifies efforts by DGM Indonesia to support communities to acquire their Surat Keputusan (formal decree) for forest access and use rights that directly benefitted 1,400 households. The subproject then guided the forest management plan, which explicitly prioritized widows, the elderly, and the poor in the designation of plots. This was an intentional design decision of the community, meant to address the subproject objective of reducing inequality in the community. With more secure access rights to the forest and improved incomes from forest farming, Sabrang women reported increased income from forest crops used to pay off debts and pay for household needs, a feeling of long-term security and safety, an increased ability to voice opinions and needs, and more respect from male community members.

Some success, but a missed opportunity for stronger gender outcomes in DGM Peru.

A fish farm in the Awajún community of Nazareth in the Amazonas region was one of the second-round livelihoods subprojects awarded following the elevated focus on reaching women. The project had been handed over to the women by the male authorities who had secured the DGM funding initially, but lost interest in it. Interviews with leaders of this women-led subproject indicated that it generated few additional economic or training benefits and the benefits that were generated appeared to be unevenly distributed among the cohort of women operating the subproject. Despite supporting the formation of a legal women's producer organization and possibly influencing the recent election of a woman as village Vice-Apu, the project seemed unsustainable and had done little to change gender norms in the community.

4.3.3. Land tenure and gender in DGM subprojects

Secure land rights for women (ownership, access, use, control and involvement in governance over decisions) are seen as critical for successful and equitable REDD+ initiatives. If designed well, DGM subprojects can help provide women with enhanced access to rights to lands and resources. This is especially the case when communal rights are granted in places where customary rules are supportive of tenure/rights for women and where external actors may influence local rules to include women. Across the DGM portfolio, several country projects (Indonesia, DRC, and Peru) focus specifically on securing land tenure at a community level. Through policy advocacy, training and subproject orientation, these projects prioritized IPLC tenure security at the community level through the recognition, demarcation and titling of collective Indigenous lands.

The DGM-DRC took a community-level approach that privileged Indigenous rights, where gender was not identified as a primary focus, although a target was set for 30% of the beneficiaries to be women by the end of the project. Prioritizing the participation of Indigenous Peoples in the land tenure reform and land use planning reforms and the review by the National Assembly of the Law on the rights of Indigenous Peoples reflected a priority on wholesale enabling conditions for Indigenous empowerment within which men and women were expected to benefit equally. Similarly, in Peru the primary focus was on achieving ambitious targets for the recognition in native communities, and the demarcation and titling, of 780,000 ha of Indigenous land—a priority of both Indigenous confederations driving the project.

Collective land tenure arrangements that formalize land tenure of IPLCs is critical for exercising their economic, cultural, social and political rights. A global analysis conducted by

Rights and Resources Initative in 2015 covering 64 countries and 82 percent of global land area found that Indigenous Peoples (IPs), Local Communities (LCs), and Afro-descendants (ADs) only legally owned 10 percent of this area and held designated rights to a further 8 percent (RRI 2020). However, these groups have been exercising customary rights over 50 percent of the global land outside of Antarctica RRI (2020). Therefore, improving collective land tenure and legally recognizing IPLC's community lands are of critical importance for IPLCs as well as for climate goals as legally recognized community lands store more carbon, have lower emissions, and lower deforestation rates than lands owned by other actors (RRI 2020).

Collective land tenure regimes should not assume gender inclusion but should include proactive measures to achieve gender equality based on the particular country circumstances. It is critical to ensure that collective land tenure arrangements consider gender equality considerations upfront and enable women's equal ability to influence decision-making regarding the use of collective land. IPLC women are already face overlapping forms of discrimination and exclusion due to their intersecting identities. Patriarchical local institutions and decision-making processes exclude women from ownership of, and access to, critical resources including land (IWGIA 2020: 21). When assessing the benefits for women from improved land tenure security, the overriding assumption is that because women make up one half of communities and Indigenous groups they therefore will equally benefit from communal land title. For example, the Peru NEA outlined the ways in which the community as a whole benefits from territorial security, something they have been fighting for over decades. According to gender research into the Peru project, "all community members are considered to benefit from land titling equally, but there are differences in women's

participation in this process compared to men's, and their ability to make decisions regarding forest use following the procurement of a community land title is an important distinction to make." (World Bank, unpublished). However, this view does not necessarily take into account existing gender biases within the community that can restrict women's access through the internal allocation of collective land use rights. As Salcedo-la Viña & Giovarelli (2021) explain, women play key roles in collective communities, yet generally they face many barriers to securing land rights, including gaps in the laws, weak implementation, lack of knowledge of rights, and discriminatory cultural norms and practices.



loto: DGM Burkina Faso/ Wend Tonté Apollinaire

Land titling and gender-based violence in Peru

The process of titling itself can reveal the gender roles assigned to men and women in carrying out the work that leads to recognition and titling. In Peru, securing collective title to over 340,000 ha of Indigenous lands for over 100 communities was a singular priority of the DGM Saweto program. The process of land titling involves groups of men, called 'brigades' that travel from their communities to regional centers to handle the logistics of land titling. Women often accompany these brigades as cooks. Women expressed interest in being more than cooks, but rather being the front-line leaders of the field brigades that carried out the land demarcation work for weeks at a time in remote areas. The benefits involved not only involved remuneration, but status as a community representative charged with engaging other community leaders and resolving political disputes.

The challenges for women in being involved in the titling work can include increased risk of GBV as a result of challenging and dismantling unequitable gender norms. In Peru, women faced the tradeoff between GBV risk and the opportunity of increased project job opportunities regarding the land titling brigades. As one key expert observed:

Because the national steering committee of the project was mostly men, everything was seen in terms of numbers, but not how women should participate. With implementation we realized that there was a lack of strategies to involve women. Participating in the assem- bly is not like participating in decision making. When we started in the field, we realized that a series of omissions had been made. Women are not involved in territorial decision-making - only as "cooks or companions." Men said they did not want to join a land regularization brigade that would be in the field for more than a month because their "physiological needs as men" were not being met, elevating fear that "men might misbehave in the field.

When the NEA reviewed the minutes of meetings for how decisions were made, it was noted that few women were participating.

DGM Peru developed several measures to prevent GBV risks related to women's increased participation in land titling. In order to ensure that project supported land brigades conducted their work in the field without risks associated with men's behavior toward women, a field protocol was developed that restricted woman from joining the brigade and included measures to avoid men in the group being involved in any way with women in the host communities. An expert observed the complexity of the issue and the potential for conflicts between communities. "There is violence against women in the communities. But men from the community do not allow it to be done from the outside." The NEA socialized these protocols and at a minimum, the project established expectations for conduct.



In practice, the distribution of the benefits that derive from tenure security hinge on internal customary governance and **gender norms.** The diversity of customary arrangements that govern informal access and use rights of collective tenure in IPLC territory and communities will dictate the power that women have in these decisions. Assessment of the enabling conditions of matrilineal and matrilocal systems is fundamental for understanding and enhancing women's ability to make decisions regarding forest use following the procurement of a community land title. These underlying benefit-sharing factors related to land tenure are important distinctions to explore further.

Other DGM countries also mentioned land tenure as an obstacle to project implementation, especially as related to women. In Ghana, for example, where women (and particularly migrant women) do not have land tenure, they struggled to participate in longer-term subprojects such as agroforestry. Recognizing this, the project pivoted to also include gardening as a subproject - something shorter term that didn't rely on land tenure. In Mexico, land tenure rights for women under the customary system was so challenging an issue that the project didn't attempt to address it. Likewise, in Nepal, despite recognition that women's land tenure was a significant barrier to women's economic empowerment, the NSC declined to make this a priority topic. As a female NSC member explains, "removing this barrier requires a land rights campaign to change policy, which is very conflictive. We tried including this focus within the DGM, but government resisted. If we can't solve this barrier, how can we really support women?"

4.4. Capacity building: Engaging women, gender balance, and thematic discussion during trainings, workshops, skills-building events

4.4.1. Capacity building at the DGM country project level

Capacity building is a requirement across all DGM country projects, recognizing that awareness raising about climate change, forest management and REDD+ is a critical first step to changing behavior, as well as the importance of technical assistance to develop and execute strong subprojects. Given the wide variety of project priorities and gender and social norms pres ent in DGM project sites, capacity building efforts are diverse. Many projects reported challenges in reaching and engaging women at the same level as men and developed creative and culturally appropriate ways to try to overcome some of these challenges.

Many DGM country projects delivered specific capacity building to support gender integration and women-led/focused subprojects from the beginning. DGM Indonesia engaged a dedicated gender advisor to work with organizations and communities looking to submit subproject proposals to strengthen their gender sensitivity capacity and ensure that subproject proposals included a target of at least 30% women beneficiaries. DGM Burkina Faso provided targeted capacity building support for women to develop and submit their subproject proposals, as well as ongoing capacity building once their project had been selected. This support included business plan trainings, managing equipment, and processing NTFPs. In this way, the capacity building was able to address illiteracy, one of the main barriers that women faced in accessing DGM benefits.

In DGM Ghana, the project conducted capacity building activities separately with women and men, recognizing that in mixed groups (especially those where a male leader was present) women were largely silent. Their efforts also included taking into account the times of day when women and men had more free time – women in the early part of the day before heading to the fields, men in the later afternoon once they'd returned. The project also utilized the local Queen Mothers—women leaders who are well respected—to influence other women. By training and engaging the Queen Mothers, they were able to encourage other women to participate in the project. In addition, the NEA provided tailored training materials that were engaging and relevant to participants, which further encouraged their participation and retentiont of information. The NEA provided childcare themselves so that new mothers could fully engage in the sessions without distraction from children. Similarly, DGM Mexico targeted communication and information about the subprojects to women and women's organizations through special events, as well as providing social promoters to work closely with proponents to create technically sound proposals. In this way, the DGM Mexico found a way to achieve one of the highest rates of women-led proposals being awarded by a DGM funding program, despite an NSC that had few women leaders.

The DGM Brazil project integrated targeted training for women as part of the Capacity Building Plan in the project. The DGM Brazil project had one of the largest capacity building components (\$1.3 million) and provided training on a wide variety of topics. In late 2020, DGM Brazil launched a

women's empowerment training course for women leaders of traditional, Indigenous and Quilombo communities, designed by women on the NSC and representatives from subprojects. The aim was to promote women's role and leadership in various spaces, with an overall focus on gender equity in leadership. It centered on providing women and men with the same benefits and conditions of participation in the subprojects/networks supported, enabling the construction of an inclusive political organizational space, and valuing the role and contribution of Indigenous women, Quilombos and traditional communities in biodiversity conservation. Course modules addressed how to speak up and occupy the public spaces and how the community can organize themselves to better support women. One expert reflected in retrospect on the importance of such training, stating, "If we'd thought of it earlier, it would have been better to have included it from the very beginning as one of the first activities."

When designed well, general capacity building efforts can be an important place to introduce gender issues among both male and female participants and build important leadership skills in women. Within DGM Mozambique's general capacity building efforts around community governance there are specific components related to participation and benefit-sharing that advance the principles of fairness and equality in the decision-making process and support women's engagement. Integrated into these more general capacity building efforts, a specific training module called the Gender Action Learning System (GALS) will soon be adopted to address inequalities at a household-level across DGM project communities, which will be linked to the project's overall capacity building efforts. The trainings touch on gender equality issues such as how household tasks are divided at the family level and transparency in how household incomes are managed and used.

Although it is not yet in implementation, DGM Republic of Congo has a robust capacity building plan that seeks to support trainings on a range of management and technical skills with a 50% target for female participants. Topics include capacity building for NSC members, grant proposal trainings, entrepreneurship skills, NGO capacity building, technical skills in conservation, ecotourism, and literacy. The DRC project, which emphasizes literacy training as a general capacity building effort, reports that 63% of participants are women. Interestingly, the project also reports that the women who participate in capacity building activities are consistently the same subgroup of women (while men tended to be new each time). This resulted in a subgroup of women getting the information repeatedly (and some of those women becoming very knowledgeable and strong as a result). As literacy is often a critical skill for full and effective participation and leadership, providing this type of capacity building is helpful for both women and men.

Comprehensive M&E would provide further comparable information on capacity building.

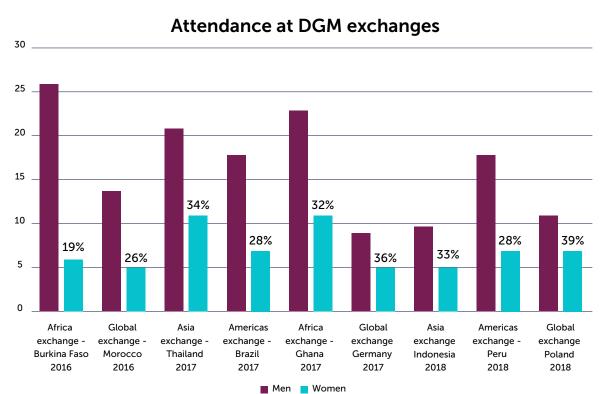
Gender disaggregated participation in all capacity building efforts is not a common indicator across DGM country projects and so it is challenging to present or compare these gender results at a portfolio level.

4.4.2. Capacity building at the global and regional level

Participation in the global and regional workshops and exchanges is determined by the GSC in coordination with the National Steering Committees (NSC), which nominate participants based on certain criteria. In the invitation to the event, the Global Executing Agency encourages gender balance in NSC nominations. However, given the varied challenges that IPLC women face in gaining the knowledge and experience as explained in above sections, it is not surprising that women's attendance is consistently below men's attendance at all exchanges. Figure 7 below illustrates female participation in the regional and global exchanges organized and funded by the Global Executing Agency in support of the DGM Global Steering Committee.

While none of the events reached gender parity, nearly all of them were close to, or over, the 30% threshold (mentioned in a **previous section).** Because the NSC and GSC members make up a large majority of participants it skews the balance of eligible invitees toward men. The GEA has actively invited Indigenous women leaders to attend the exchanges (particularly regional exchanges) as non-DGM participants; typically, 25% of invitees are from non-DGM countries. The second phase of the GEA has set a target of 50% women participants in exchanges which, when compared with previous exchanges, will require even more proactive and creative solutions. The current virtual format required for COVID-19 restrictions may also offer flexibility to reach gender parity.

FIGURE 7: ATTENDANCE AT DGM EXCHANGES



(Source: GFA)



Aside from attendance, content is also an important measure of gender integration at knowledge-sharing events. In reviewing agendas and reports from each of the exchanges, the first time that gender was specifically included as a thematic working group topic was the Ghana exchange in 2017. Since then, the GEA reports that a gender focus continued to be included, particularly in the regional exchanges, and that at least one working group was focused on gender at each event or was a mainstreamed topic throughout.

The new Global Learning Fellows is an initiative meant to strengthen storytelling, shared learning, and knowledge exchange across the DGM network so that IPLCs can learn from each other's best practices. Gender is one of the possible themes of the fellowship. The GEA received a total of 11 applications from women and eight from men. The selection process resulted in six women and two men receiving the fellowship. Of those, two will focus directly on gender and two indirectly.

4.5. Monitoring: Portfolio and project monitoring

The process of setting and reporting on gender-related indicators is critical to track progress and ensure accountability to a project's intention. This study highlights the plans, progress, and achievements of mainstreaming gender in the DGM, however based on available documentation, the actual official monitoring of gender outcomes is lacking. This observation underscores an important lesson: Without an early agreement on how monitoring and evaluation will capture the efforts to mainstream gender, the absence of more than minimal indicators (beneficiary estimates) reduces the reliability and accuracy of all other claims of success. Hence, the lesson is that despite the efforts of the GEA, World Bank, CIF and others, translating gendertransformative objectives into systematic and meaningful accountability was a missed opportunity.

4.5.1. Portfolio-level monitoring

At the portfolio level, there is a set of four common indicators that are aggregated from country projects. These indicators were agreed in 2017 between the GEA and the GSC as part of the approved DGM Program Monitoring and Reporting Plan.

- Percent of subprojects that successfully completed and achieved their objectives which are consistent with FIP objectives.
- 2. People in targeted forest and adjacent communities with increased monetary or non-monetary benefits from forests, disaggregated by gender.

- 3. Percent of participants in the capacity development activities with increased role in the FIP and other REDD+ processes at local, national, or global levels.
- 4. Percent of grievances registered related to delivery of project benefits that are actually addressed.

The precise framing of the indicators is not consistent between country projects, and not every country project has been required to report on each of these indicators. Due to this situation, the aggregated figures do not necessarily represent the cumulative progress of the DGM as a whole. It is notable that only one of these four core indicators is designed to disaggregate by gender, and even then, the most recent semi-annual report (11) doesn't report cumulative disaggregated results. It would certainly be interesting to disaggregate (at both country and portfolio level) the other indicators, which could illuminate some useful information for adaptive management.

The weak performance on gender reporting stems from lack of stringent requirements during DGM design. The GEA explained that the importance of gender reporting wasn't sufficiently explicit during the early stages of the DGM, focusing simply on collecting sexdisaggregated data. In retrospect, that wasn't enough, and ambition has been raised with more focus on building gender into different processes. This can be observed in the ambition of the second cohort DGM projects.

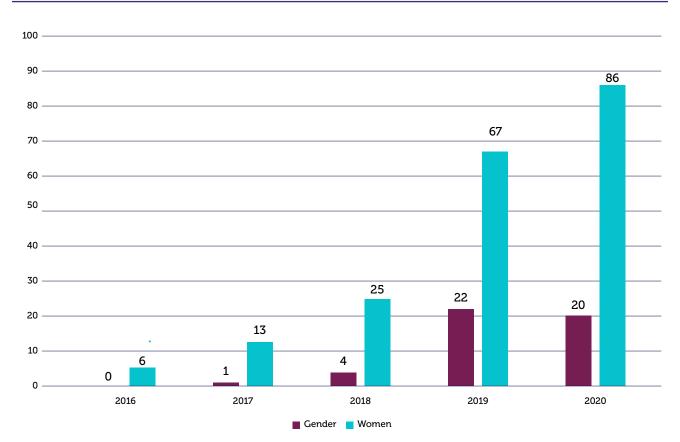
Beginning in mid-2019, a significant shift occurred in reporting on gender at the portfolio level (Figure 8). While there were certainly gender-related activities occurring in

DGM country projects which predate this shift (e.g., in Peru, Ghana, Burkina Faso, Indonesia), the annual reports only begin collating and reporting on gender as a cross-cutting issue at this time. In the first two reporting years (2016 and 2017) 'women' appeared in reporting mostly in relation to NSC composition. Between 2018 and 2020, substantial reporting increased on gender and women related to project activities, exchanges, and trainings. It is notable that in the 2019 and 2020 reports, gender was featured as a primary cross cutting issue, with the topic being front and center in the 2020 report launch activities. This change likely occurred for several reasons:

 What could be reported from a gender perspective became more substantial as subprojects came online. In the early stage of DGM project start-up the focus is

- on governance (NSC and NEA selection) and process (broad decisions on how the components of the projects would be approached). With greater reporting on subproject selection and implementation, opportunities to focus on the role of women also increased.
- In addition, the GEA's reporting requests around gender changed during the course of the DGM to more explicitly ask about gender progress and outcomes.
 While some questions related to sexdisaggregated monitoring were asked from the beginning, it was not until SAR 4 that a specific section on gender was incorporated into the reporting structure that was meant to capture more qualitative and broader information than just the number of men/women benefitting.

FIGURE 8: NUMBER OF TIMES 'GENDER' AND 'WOMEN' ARE MENTIONED IN DGM ANNUAL REPORTS



According to the GEA, the content in reports (which is gathered through a targeted questionnaire to NEAs) is largely driven by the CIF and GEA interests. Over the years, questions to NEAs have changed as projects evolved. During the early stages of project design and start up, gender-related data was largely restricted to NSC activity (meetings, trainings, communication). As project implementation involved calls for subproject proposals and greater engagement with direct beneficiaries, there were substantially more gender-related stories and outcomes to report.

The most recent semi-annual report (SAR 11) is the first where projects are asked to report on the number of subprojects that are womenled or women-focused. The GEA reports that these reporting requests have been an important driver for encouraging projects to think about gender and that, while results are wide ranging, the exercise has been helpful in bringing the issue of gender to the forefront. The GEA notes that the transparency of data and consistent discussion also slowly change the dialogue on gender.

4.5.2. Country project-level monitoring

At the national level, gender reporting by NEAs in the SARs has been uneven and incomplete. Table 5 provides the available information on sex-disaggregated indicators reported in the official supervision reports (ISRRs). Although several countries have not finalized their results frameworks, the overall observation is that monitoring at the country project level is not consistent across all projects, and sex-disaggregated reporting is rather limited. No country has more than 2 of 10-12 results indicators reporting gendersensitive results. Interestingly, where targets are defined, most have been met or exceeded, suggesting that targets were perhaps not ambitious enough.

Unclear definitions inhibit project teams from knowing what, and how, to count and report. While determining whether a project is 'women-led' or 'women-focused' may be simple for individual subproject grants (such as in Ghana), it becomes more difficult for subprojects led by communities, Indigenous Peoples Organizations (IPOs) or CBOs. The fact that there was never a set definition of how to count these types of subprojects mean that the data is difficult to collect retroactively and compare across or within country projects.

TABLE 5: GENDER PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

| DGM country project sex-disaggregated performance indicators | | | |
|--|---|--------|--------|
| DGM Country Project | Indicator | Actual | Target |
| Burkina Faso | Direct project beneficiaries (female) | 60% | 40% |
| | Forest users trained (female) | 62% | 10% |
| DRC | Direct project beneficiaries (female) | 43% | 30% |
| | People in forest & adjacent community with monetary/non-monetary benefit from forest (female) | 28% | 30% |
| Brazil | Community based subproject beneficiaries (female) | 51% | 30% |
| | Female subproject beneficiaries satisfied with the Technical Assistance provided by the project | 30% | 50% |
| Ghana | Percentage of women/women migrants (of total grantees) that execute subprojects. | 42% | 50% |
| Indonesia | Participants who benefit (monetary or non-monetary) from livelihood-only grant activities, disaggregated by gender | 34% | 30% |
| | Participants in consultation activities during project implementation (female) | 30% | 30% |
| Peru | Intended beneficiaries aware of project information and project investments (female) | 43% | 37% |
| | Direct project beneficiaries (female) | 48% | 50% |
| Mozambique | Share of women among community subproject beneficiaries | N/A | |
| Mexico | Share of targeted Local Community Promoters with improved capacity supported by the project (female) | 70% | 80% |
| | People in targeted forest and adjacent communities with increased monetary or non-monetary benefits from forests (female) | 28% | 20% |

Source: DGM Country Project ISRRs (mry); SAR-11

Brazil - In future reporting, a revised indicator will be "number of people trained in management of their territories and natural resources" disaggregated by gender.



5. DGM ON THE PATH TOWARD GENDER-TRANSFORMATIVE CHANGE

The progression toward gendertransformative change, as presented in this study's analytical framework (Fig. 2), is a useful way to analyze the tangible and intangible impacts that the DGM projects may have had on influencing gendertransformative change at the individual, household, and societal levels. This section draws heavily on the four case studies, as well as informa tion from the desk review to lay out how the DGM has contributed to the four stages: (1) individual resources leading to (2) individual change in capabilities leading to (3) systemic change in informal norms & exclusionary practices and finally to (4) systemic change in formal rules & policies.

It should be noted again that the diversity of DGM project countries results in differing starting places or baselines for women across the DGM. The complex and interlinking threads of gender and social norms and stereotypes, existing inequalities in education, political leadership and representation, economic access, and the country's legal frameworks (among other factors) contribute to differing environments in which the DGM operates. This context variation influences the type of interventions, how they are designed and delivered, and how effective they might be. Therefore, the milestones toward gendertransformative success might look quite different from one country or subproject to another.



5.1. Stage 1 - DGM inputs have provided assets, skills, and capacity building to women.

DGM inputs have clearly provided assets, skills, and capacity building to women **beneficiaries.** These inputs consist of the actual activities and funding that were directed to women, women's groups, and projects and capacity building where women benefitted. Through subproject funds and capacity building, many DGM projects directly contributed to improving women's economic achievements (both individually and collectively) and supporting access to and control of productive assets. These inputs range from technical skills in project management, climate change, agroforestry & agro-processing, conservation and territorial management, business development, policy advocacy, and education/literacy, among others.

The design and delivery of DGM subprojects and capacity building were the primary areas that DGM projects exercised some control in influencing gender-transformative change.

The DGM gender theory of change suggests that project teams (World Bank, NEA, NSC and, to varying degrees, the Government) made deliberate choices regarding how, and the degree to which, gender would be considered through design choices related to training content, quotas, targeting or scoring criteria for proposals and NSC composition, provision of technical assistance, design of training materials, investment in gender expertise and assessment, adoption of and reporting on results indicators, etc.

Ensuring that women benefitted equitably and directly from DGM initiatives required proactive and targeted efforts. Where there was greater planning for gender outcomes,

the results are more evident. In some country projects (e.g., Burkina Faso and Ghana) women's leadership and empowerment was clearly a top-line priority. Conversely, we see in the examples of Peru, Mexico, and DRC, where gender was not a top-line consideration in the beginning, a need to redesign how inputs are distributed to reach more women. Arguably, this adjustment cost time and money, and could possibly have been avoided by taking a more gender-responsive approach from the beginning.

With those proactive and targeted efforts, DGM country projects reported an increase in the participation of women in trainings and as subgrantee recipients over time. There was significant growth in women-led initiatives and their participation in trainings, governance, and subproject coordination (DGM SAR 11). Of the vast number of investments that promoted the piloting of IPLC led climate solutions in both adaptation or mitigation, an estimated 24% of all subprojects were led by women or focused primarily on implementing the ideas and efforts of IPLC women. Women represent 25% of all National Steering Committee members. Where project beneficiaries are sexdisaggregated, women tend to benefit less than men, but this gap may be closing (DGM 5th Annual Report, 2020).

The case studies provide specific examples, in greater detail, about how these inputs have positively influenced women's income and assets, skills, and knowledge. In Ghana, women's engagement in trainings and learning about climate-smart agriculture has resulted in more environmentally sustainable agricultural practices and the planting of new

crops. This allowed them to diversify their cash sources, resulting in a modest rise in income and savings and an ability to better manage income, expenses, and time. In Indonesia, where a DGM subproject helped a community receive formalized forest access and management rights, women farmers have been able to cultivate crops within the forest, increasing their income and ability to access business lines of credit from the local

banks. In Peru, the handover of a fish farm subproject from male to female leadership helped galvanize an alternative solution to food insecurity after an oil spill contaminated the community's primary water source (although in this case benefits were not shared equally among women participants and may not have improved household income for all but a few with access to markets).



Photo: DGM Burkina Faso/ Meerim Shakirova, 2019

5.2. Stage 2 - These inputs have contributed to enhanced voice & agency for women.

The economic and knowledge gains for women supported by the DGM enhanced their ability and the power to engage in, and influence, decision-making at multiple levels.

This area of change includes skills and resources to compete in markets, securing fair access to economic, social, and political institutions, and improving intra-household bargaining power. The case studies have identified many examples of how involvement in DGM has contributed to women's capacity to speak up, be heard and be present to shape and share in discussions, and decisions that affect them (raising their voice). The study has noted references to women's enhanced ability to make decisions about one's own life and act on them, individually or collectively to achieve a desired outcome (increasing their agency). "At the local level, certainly women have had far more voice than before the project" (key expert).

The country case studies provide clear evidence of increased voice and agency.

The Ghana case study details how DGM interventions in one community have given women more voice and agency within their own homes and within the community at large, with multiple reports from both women and men that this is a clear, and desirable outcome of the DGM. The ability of women to attend meetings alone (without spouses) and being able to respond confidently to questions has "broken long existing barriers of low confidence." At the same time, DGM Ghana has provided several new avenues or platforms for leadership (e.g., water management committees or the project's grievance committee), and women have taken advantage of these, as well as being more likely to step into existing leadership positions (such as on the CBO). The Indonesia case study suggests how women's participation in DGM activities

supported them to be more informed and feel qualified to give their opinions in public. A woman reported in the trainings that "they teach us how to talk with dignity and straight forward, they teach us how to talk assertively." In Peru, while there was likely some missed opportunity for greater voice and agency due to the project being designed without their participation, the women reported feeling empowered.

At the NSC level, an expanded role for women enhanced their legitimacy and leadership skills before new, larger audiences and widened access to new technical training and learning opportunities. The value of NSC membership can also be viewed as an important venue for women to expand their network and influence beyond the DGM, opening up new professional opportunities. In addition, the NSC role provided an opportunity for women leaders to better serve their community in a new and more visible way. When asked to describe how the DGM influenced and empowered women, key experts in the desk review consistently pointed to women's participation in NSCs as a tangible example of this empowerment. The project's ability to elevate and legitimize women's voices and agency at a national level, and at international exchange events, has been an important contribution. The case study on the NSC focused specifically on this issue, pulling on interviews with female and male NSC members across seven DGM countries to understand how women's roles on the NSCs influenced their own voice and agency, as well as influenced broader societal shifts. All women interviewed and most men agreed that NSC participation had positive impacts on women's leadership in DGM decision-making. One female NSC member observed:

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With my community there to support me, it is their voices that speak through me, and I am their spokesperson. Transmitting my knowledge, the knowledge that comes from those behind me, this is part of what I have transcended from what I have worked on as a person, as a woman, because it is not just in any place that they allow you (a woman) to give your opinion or give your assertion, your criticism of something, without you being judged. I have been fortunate, my community has allowed me to take this leadership role, that you can give your opinion without being threatened by the factors that have influence. Sometimes, I am told not to give an opinion because something bad could happen, in this case in my communities this does not happen.

"

However, the assessment of improvements in women's voice and agency in decision-making spaces must go beyond number counting.

For example, across the DGM country projects, some have observed that despite women's presence in meetings, agenda-setting remains largely the prerogative of men, resulting in missed opportunities for women's inputs and for ensuring their concerns are included. Facilitation of meetings is also an area where women's authority has only begun to be recognized in many DGM countries. While

the GSC and the Brazil NSC have had joint coordination by man and women leaders since their establishment, this is by far the exception. The procedural norms of managing decision-making spaces to ensure gender equality, even when fewer women leaders are present, represents a potential area of innovation for the DGM. The NSC case study provides many examples of women testing the water in a relatively new decision-making space. As one female NSC representative stated,

We are only 2 women among a majority of men on the NSC. As all of them are experts in negotiations, so I observed them personally, I noted the tone in which they spoke, but I fixed my position in saying, 'Yes I agree but nevertheless I would like to include this other part as well. I had to assert myself, also and above all, to carry the voice that had been delegated to me from the people of my community who have placed their confidence in me. It was a little intimidating because there were so many men. But I took a little bit of courage from the fact that some of NEA are women, this also supported me in that they joined in the conversation on the parts that I could not explain well, they helped me to explain it, this is fundamental, it made me feel welcome. Most of the NEA team are women. It helps not to feel exposed in front of men. They absolutely supported me.

5.3. Stage 3 - Success in economic achievements leading to increasing voice & agency has started to influence community-level norms.

Whether, and how, the examples of economic benefits and increased voice and agency among women beneficiaries translate into shifts in community-level change in gender norms is a critical step in gendertransformative change. This element is also one of the hardest to document, measure, and assess because it is largely based on personal perceptions and beliefs and may happen over a long period of time. Unsurprisingly, there is very little in project documents that relates to this level of influence given that the project's M&E frameworks were not designed to capture this type of qualitative social data. The case studies that accompany this report are intended to fill this gap.

The accompanying case studies describe tangible examples of how the DGM investments have contributed to influencing community-level gender norms. In Ghana, for example, both female and male community members describe how women have a greater voice and influence at the household level

(with reports of men taking on more household responsibilities) and at the community level where women, both native and migrant, are more likely to engage in discussion and decision-making. Furthermore, male interviewees expressed support and satisfaction with these changes at the household and community level. In the Indonesia case study, community perceptions of the appropriate role of women in forestry have reportedly shifted as a result of the DGM subproject. One woman recalled how men would see her entering the forest to tend her crops and collect forest products and call out to her as "andi" (man), given their perception that only men were suited for forestry work. After seeing the success and gains in income of women forest farmers through their participation with the DGM subproject, men now admit that they "have much to learn" from the women about the forests and forest farming.

By comparison, the Peru subproject did not register a profound influence on community-

A fundamental part is that women can give their opinion without expecting violence at home, by their husbands, that their husbands are also community members. Because sometimes they give their opinion and later it results in a conflictive discussion at home. That for me is a very big achievement, maybe not economically, it is that women can give their opinion without being threatened or abused when they get home.

level gender norms. Rather, the changes were more nascent in nature. The opportunity for women to lead the fish farm subproject seemed to be more an exception than the general rule, and it was limited to this particular initiative. Women noted that the men's support for their leadership in this case stemmed, in part, from machismo and the men's perception that the subproject was a minor and unprofitable activity. Nonetheless, there are hints that larger changes may be underway, spurred by the development of a respected women's association and suggested by the election of a female leader. But further evaluation is needed to understand the impacts of these developments on decision-making and women's rights.

The ascension of women to NSC leadership roles is an indication of changing community-level norms. The fact that these women have been elected to this position in and of itself is an indication that change may be happening. Importantly, simply by being successful and effective in these positions, women may also be influencing further gender norm change as role models as the quote below from a male NSC member explains. This notion is explored in detail in the NSC case study.

Despite the views of most interviewees (female and male) consistently pointing to promising signs of change in attitudes towards women's leadership in the forest sector, the evidence presented in the case study is mixed. Most observed that the NSCs could have done more to recognize women's leadership, support a greater number of them, and put them front and center in project implementation. While some reported efforts by female NSC members to open space for other women, this role model effect for emerging women leaders was largely aspirational or ongoing prior to the DGM.

In some cases, it was unclear whether the DGM was benefitting from a larger enabling environment that was already empowering and uplifting IPLC women into influential spaces, or whether the DGM was making independent contributions to it. For example, by the time DGM Indonesia began there were already many examples of IPLC women who had attained high leadership positions within the governance structures of Indigenous Peoples Organizations (e.g., Rukka Sombolinggi being elected as the first woman secretary general of AMAN in 2017, with similar recent shifts in FECOFUN in Nepal).

Because of the culture, most women have a perception that they don't want to engage in political spaces. So, seeing women in leadership positions [like the NSC] is important. It provides good role models, motivating younger women and girls. Especially when they see women in male-dominated areas... When the NSC goes on a community monitoring trip we make sure to engage [a woman member] to be in our midst, so when we go to the community and she is presented as part of NSC, they are surprised to see a woman in this space. She can also talk more easily to the women in the community. She can motivate them. If we had more [women on the NSC] it would be better, we'd have better success.



Longstanding beliefs and perceptions about gender norms are a clear barrier to advancing gender-transformative change. Across the study's many interviews there were some shared undercurrents of resistance to women's leadership and gender norm change that were both subtle and pointed. Many of the interviewees noted the gender discrepancies of the NSCs and provided examples of the challenging gender environment in which NSCs were created (e.g., patriarchal societies, time burdens on women, educational and literacy gaps, previous leadership requirements, etc.). In the feedback related to women's role in NSCs and as exchange participants, a tension is evident between ensuring that the most 'legitimate' representatives are selected (those with community support, leadership experience, knowledge and skills to effectively engage) and ensuring gender parity. In Peru, there had been pushback from

local leaders emphasizing respect for the local culture (regarding women and men's roles). Some male leaders reflected that customary rule should be respected, that women are too busy to get more involved in the DGM, or that women may not speak at the meetings but at home they exercise greater authority. In contrast, another male NSC leader simply explained that efforts by his organization to promote gender parity were largely ignored by indigenous male leaders at the local level and the DGM had done little to change that reality. Similarly, some community-level male interviewees in Ghana said that women shouldn't get 'too much' power as it would cause conflict. Key informants also advised that pushing too hard for gender transformation objectives in Peru risked diluting the more difficult and primary objective defined by the Indigenous leaders of securing legal recognition and land title for as

many communities as possible. Despite all of this, it is possible that this observed resistance to women's empowerment is an indication that social norms are in a moment of fluctuation, and the fact that they're being questioned could be considered a nascent step towards changing gender norms.

The myriad obstacles that women face in entering leadership positions are not necessarily well understood or appreciated.

As described in more detail in the NSC case study, this discussion extends to women's influence over the definition of gender strategy within the DGM. NSC members reported the challenges in advocating for affirmative actions for women in the DGM allocation of subprojects, the customization of capacity building opportunities, or focus of DGM attention to the structural barriers that women face. As relayed in one interview, Ghanaian NSC members, reacting to a question about low participation by women on the DGM NSC, replied that "we invited them, but they are not coming or showing up."7 Another female NSC leader acknowledged the barriers for women to serve in elected positions within the DGM, but argued that low representation of women was more a matter of personal choice than male prerogative. However accurate these replies, both hint at the need to support the development of more emerging women leaders who can successfully fill the spaces of legitimate representatives. If those underlying contexts are not transformed, men and women will forever be starting from unequal places. The evidence underscores how gen der norms are at play in the opening or closing of space for women in the DGM and more broadly within a community setting. However, given the uneven starting points for DGM countries related to gender, the variability among the views expressed by women NSC leaders about the meaning of change may not be

surprising. Yet we conclude that this variability underscores a mixed record of evidence of change in attitudes toward gender norms.

Most expert interviewees expressed confidence that the DGM definitely has the potential to influence larger and sustained societal change. As one key informant reported, when projects like the DGM come in with a specific focus on encouraging women to be leaders "there are some mind-set changes that happen." While the case studies captured some early changes, sustained and systematic changes typically become evident in the longer term, which requires a sustained focus beyond the standard project term.

5.4. Stage 4 - DGM influence on formal rules & policies to make them more equal is still relatively unclear.

Transformative change is a long, ongoing, and complex process of encouraging a transformation of people's beliefs and actions and embedding them in systemic changes in policies, rules, laws, and practices. Making REDD+ gender-transformative depends on how REDD+ actors can be more effective in manipulating the existing socio-cultural norms (Samnd- ong & Kjosavik 2017). The DGM projects—lasting up to 5 years—can only provide steppingstones in the larger change process, but these should not be discounted as critical steps in the right direction. It should be recognized that many other factors (political, economic, cultural) are also at play, which both help and hinder gender goals. Here, the evidence of DGM's impact is highly suggestive and contingent on the influence of these other factors.

While most interviewees highlighted examples of individual or household/ community-level change, fewer were willing or able to assert that DGM activities would lead to gender-transformational change at the larger political, societal, or institutional level. In Nepal, one expert expressed belief that the DGM could bend toward transformational change through the unique ability in Nepal to scale up the DGM subprojects through other larger funding sources (e.g., the FIP Forests for Prosperity project and REDD+ Carbon Finance). By shifting greater resources to sustain the growth of women-led DGM enterprises at a larger scale, it is more feasible to influence societal norms about women's aptitude to participate in forest-related enterprise. Likewise, key informants recognized the potential that the DGM and other social forestry initiatives in Indonesia could "open up

more gender sensitive and gender equitable approaches to land use."

As significant as the DGM was for IPLCs as a pilot experience, the size of the DGM was raised as a limiting factor. As a GEA member explained, "if the transformational change you seek is at the societal level, the DGM is probably not big enough to change the paradigm. But that shouldn't deprive us of being optimistic—we're pioneering and testing waters." As one key informant stated, "[t]ransformational change — it's hard to do with [this] kind of money. Is it change? Yes. But transformational is a strong, big word."

This study uncovered an important discussion about the ability of country projects to address the proximate versus ultimate drivers of gender inequality and the provision of differentiated benefits. While several DGM country projects were able to nominally increase women's economic benefit, and many succeeded in building knowledge and providing leadership opportunities, there are underlying structural issues that remain and will continue to marginalize women by preventing them from truly benefitting from more substantial and sustainable benefits that would lead to gender-transformative change. This would require supporting communities to address inequities in land tenure, access to education, household burden, and other underlying constraints. Several DGM projects (e.g., Ghana, Brazil, Mexico) were innovative in seeking to identify and understand the barriers and constraints that IPLC women face generally and in relation to accessing project benefits. However, their approaches seemed to focus mostly on the proximate factors affecting

women. For example, the Ghana DGM held separate meetings to provide a safe space for women to engage and adjusted subproject options to include gardening for women unable to access long-term lease agreements for land controlled by men. In Ghana, the fact that women, and particularly women migrants, do not often own land meant that they could not engage in longer-term, perhaps more lucrative projects like tree planting. However, progress on addressing the tree and land tenure system in Ghana that will continue to exclude women is unknown. Similarly, in Mexico, where land tenure laws restrict the pool of eligible women leaders for NSC or subprojects, the project declined to tackle these legal and customary barriers; instead it resolved only to do "what can be done" within the context, including informal nudging for greater women's NSC participation, design of the subproject windows, scoring procedure and support process for potential women proponents.

While the DGM has contributed to gendertransformative change, more explicit planning and guidance could have improved outcomes. As discussed in above sections, while gender was visible in the original design of DGM, there was no systematic approach to gender mainstreaming across all country projects. The lack of clear guidance on gender presents a potential missed opportunity for moving the needle closer toward gendertransformative change more holistically and with greater accountability. The review has revealed few attempts to suggest or encourage a systematic gender approach across projects, and as a result, reporting on gender was not systematic or set up to capture transformative gender change.



6. RECOMMENDATIONS

Broad Lessons Learned Across DGM that can Help Inform FCPF and REDD+

The complex environments in which the DGM operates, combined with country-driven priorities, led to a great variety of approaches and results in influencing gender-transformative change. Lessons learned and good practices from the DGM can provide clear recommendations for future similar initiatives. Here, we highlight the top recommendations for designing efforts that result in explicit gender-transformative outcomes.

- 1. Define an explicit gender strategy that doesn't rule out a focus on structural issues. An explicit and robust gender strategy is the only way to overcome the barriers preventing women from fully and effectively participating and benefiting from efforts to improve livelihoods and protect nature. Most projects focus on proximate and relatively feasible challenges, such as eased access to information or funding, but avoid the deeprooted structural, cultural, political, and legal challenges that continue to keep women from realizing their full rights. Clarity about a project's gender ambitions should be based on a full understanding of the range of barriers and challenges in a project location, the commitment at the outset to put resources and effort toward both the proximate and structural gaps, and to ensure accountability with consistent terminology, targets and monitoring frameworks.
 - Include fully Trust Funded projects in the World Bank's Gender Tag. A clear opportunity to support a robust gender strategy from the start is through the World Bank's Gender Tag. The Gender Tag in the Operations Portal prompts TTLs from the outset to assess the extent to which a project identifies gender gaps, addresses the gaps through specific actions, and links those actions to specific indicators in the results framework to ensure continual monitoring and

- evaluation. This gives an incentive for the TTL to have dedicated gender expertise within the team as well as in the country. However, projects that are fully Trust Funded like the DGM do not now fall within the remit of the Gender Tag, so critical opportunities to advance gender transformative change and the World Bank gender strategy are not realized.
- 2. Learn from, replicate, and build on the DGM's most innovative and effective gender strategy components. Despite lacking explicit and complete gender strategies, most DGM projects nevertheless piloted innovative components that resulted in modest steps toward gender-transformative change. These include:
 - Ensure gender expertise on the project team and adequate budget for activities. A gender specialist sitting within the NEA, NSC or World Bank support team would help ensure that an adequate gender strategy is developed to guide the project design and implementation. This would include the design of the social and gender assessment, responding more closely to specific, diverse needs of IPLC women and requiring proposals have strong gender components. The gender specialists should be permanent members of the team, supported by skilled team members that share responsibility for promoting gender considerations across the project.
 - Make customized training available to women and women's organizations to increase their engagement in project benefits. The DGM has accumulated significant experience in designing tailored learning opportunities and project benefits that respond to women's specific interests, needs and priorities. DGM experience designing capacity-

- strengthening tools and methods for reaching IPLCs includes innovative technology tactics used during the pandemic. Projects like the DGM can go further to ensure such approaches are the norm and are mainstreamed as guidance for future projects. Projects should ensure that customized training for women and men is delivered in culturally appropriate ways, aims to achieve women's active engagement through access to training, information, and project benefits, and is transformational in shifting gender norms and eroding inequalities. Training should separate women and men where necessary (e.g., in places where this provides a more comfortable setting for women), and also identify, include, and cultivate men as allies through joint training activities with a gender lens for both men and women. Any training should apply an intersectional approach that considers the interaction between gender and other categories of difference, such as race, ethnicity, religion, or class, as well as other social practices or cultural ideologies.
- Consistently reflect project-specific gender ambitions in all project documents. Gender commitments were unevenly integrated in key DGM project documents, and in some cases, were missing altogether. Accountability for meeting gender-transformative design objectives and a commitment to an explicit gender strategy should be clearly and adequately reflected in all project documentation, from the terms of reference for the participatory social/gender assessments to a separate chapter in the Operations Manual and expanded guidance in an M&E Plan (see below).
- Ensure that gender strategies specify with adequate precision the procedural and outcome requirements for moving toward gender-transformative change. As a pilot, significant discretion was provided to design DGM procedure. Experience now indicates how such procedure can be strengthened to fully include women. This includes clarifying key elements including by-law standards for NSCs, contract language for implementing partners, and due diligence /supervision and reporting standards for NEAs. Minimum standards should be considered for quorum and voting requirements, meeting facilitation, and grant proposal calls and review processes, to ensure effective participation of women even if they are in the minority. Rules should be included that account for those women and men who may be disenfranchised by social norms or legal barriers, as in the customary tenure
- · Provide guidance for defining gendertransformative change through high quality baselines. Gender-responsive baselines are a necessary step for defining targets that are ambitious, yet realistic, and tailored for the project context. These assessments and targets should reflect a substantive focus on understanding and addressing the risks and opportunities presented by structural issues, including the prevalence of GBV. There should be consultation with women on the terms of reference to ensure that the scope and tools of assessment are suited to their needs and interests. Women and women's groups should be included in the assessment process to ensure ownership and accountability.

system.

- Create monitoring and reporting frameworks at the program and country project levels that can better capture all aspects of gender-transformative change. If gender-transformative change is a desired outcome, a 50% target for women as beneficiaries is an insufficient result by itself. Guidance on an expanded sample of ambitious performance targets informed by key findings in this report is necessary to ensure women have equal opportunity to shape and benefit from all aspects of the DGM project. Targets should be context-specific and include qualitative evidence but also consider common minimum benchmarks that were achieved so far (25% minimum representation on NSCs, 25% minimum support to womenled or women-focused subprojects). Explicit requirements for monitoring, reporting and communication about gender achievements are needed to facilitate greater accountability, faster adjustment and program cross learning about gender strategy and results. Guidance for structured participatory monitoring of qualitative evidence of gender-transformative change for IPLC women and men to measure changes in perceptions or beliefs among project participants can itself be a transformative process.
- Develop a gender-sensitive Grievance Redress Mechanism at the global and national levels that is easily accessed by all project beneficiaries. Few examples were provided to indicate that project grievance mechanisms were genderresponsive (see Burkina Faso). Grievances were not sex-disaggregated and little effort was made to assess accessibility

- to IPLC women. GBV concerns are paramount to any efforts related to empowerment of IPLC women or shifting gender norms. GRM design should build on lessons learned by the DGM to ensure provisions for confidentiality and that responding entities are well trained in gender-sensitive communication, gender-based violence, and sexual abuse, exploitation and harassment (SEAH). Further research into the performance of GRMs within the DGM is needed to understand how women view these measures and their efficacy in addressing complex risks, such as GBV.
- 3. Be specific and holistic about building the next generation of formal and informal IPLC women leaders. Many of the challenges noted in this study stem from a lack of prepared and effective women leaders ready to claim a leadership role within the NSC or propose and lead a subproject. Evidence indicates how previous leadership experience was critical to the success of women leaders being chosen to the NSC. To overcome the challenge, projects like the DGM should not only draw from existing leaders but support a pipeline for future projects to build on. This would entail defining a goal of promoting emerging leaders (both women and men, but with differentiated supports given differing needs). Such an approach must be holistic, recognizing the multiple interconnected constraints and challenges that IPLC women face. Until these basic needs are met, and targeted training is provided, IPLC women will struggle to gain enough collective voice to influence meaningful change. Project design should consider a cross-sectoral focus that can address key enabling factors for women, such as access to clean water, electricity, basic education, and healthcare.

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Conflict of interest statement

There are both advantages and potential disadvantages to CI's role in conducting this study and having a central executing role in the DGM Project. CI serves as the Global Executing Agency (GEA) of the DGM, which is led by a team that reports to CI's Global Programs Division. The CI study team that led this study sits within the Project Delivery + Monitoring (PDM) team within CI's Field Programs Division. Therefore, the primary advantage includes a deep familiarity with the DGM design and implementation, and key stakeholders, including FIP stakeholders, World Bank staff and some in country implementing agencies and partners. Cl's senior gender advisor (co-lead on this study) has collaborated with the GEA in the past to design several highlevel gender factsheets about the DGM. The other co-lead for the study team also served as the interim DGM GEA project lead for a year before the current Managing Director for the DGM Global Project assumed full project management responsibility in 2016. This existing relationship between PDM and the GEA allows for a clear understanding of the history and evolution of the DGM Program.

The primary disadvantage involves a potential conflict of interest that, if not mitigated, could influence an objective approach to collection, assessment, and reporting of the evidence on which this study is based. The PDM-based study team has taken steps to ensure a separation of responsibilities in the execution of the study. These steps include: a) ensuring Division Heads for the reporting lines of PDM and GEA teams are aware of the consultancy, and intended basis for preserving independence of both parties; b) formally requesting all interviews through the World Bank Task Team Leaders (TTLs) that are directly managing the consultancy, rather than through the GEA; c) clarification with interviewees regarding the separation between the GEA and the PDM teams; d) formal request for review and approval of the proposed research by CI's research ethics review panel. Because PDM and the GEA teams have clear, separate reporting lines within CI no one on the study team has direct funding from the DGM Global Project, practicing transparency in noting the potential risks and the actions taken to eliminate these risks, the study team declares no conflict of interest.

Stakeholder interviews

Andrea Kutter, TTL Nepal

Date interviewed: 2/22/21. Lead interviewer: Alli Cruz

Loic Braune, TTL DRC Grace Muhimpundu

Date interviewed: 2/23/21

Lead interviewer: Kame Westerman

Ana Luisa Gomes Lima, TTL Peru

Date interviewed: 2/24/21

Lead interviewer: Lydia Cardona

Nyaneba E. Nkrumah, TTL Ghana

Date interviewed: 2/25/21

Lead interviewer: Kame Westerman

Alberto Coelho Gomes Costa, TTL Brazil Daniela Ziller Arruda Karagiannis

Date interviewed: 2/26/21

Lead interviewer: Vince McElhinny

Katharina Siegmann – TTL Mexico

Date interviewed: 3/1/21

Lead interviewer: Vince McElhinny

Meerim Shakirova - co-TTL Côte d'Ivoire

Date interviewed: 3/2/21 Lead interviewer: Alli Cruz

Dianna Pizarro - TTL Guatemala

Date interviewed: 3/2/21

Lead interviewer: Vince McElhinny

Dianna Pizarro - TTL Guatemala/WB IP lead

Enrique Pantoja

Manual Contreras Urbina

Date interviewed: 4/21/21

Lead interviewer: Vince McElhinny

Iwan Gunawan - TTL Indonesia Tini Gumartini - Co-TTL Indonesia

Monti Pramono - Senior Local Community

and Social Development Specialist

Date interviewed: 3/3/21 Lead interviewer: Alli Cruz

Celine Lim - TTL Mozambique

Arnela Da Celma Constantino Mausse Consul

Date interviewed: 3/4/21

Lead interviewer: Lydia Cardona

Winston Adams Asante - Solidaridad, Ghana

NEA

Bossman Owusu Edward Kyere

Date interviewed: 3/5/21

Lead interviewer: Kame Westerman

Johnson Cerda – Global Executing Agency

team

Luis Barquin

Chloe Hans-Barrientos

Nathalia Penton

Date interviewed : 2/22/21, 3/5/21 Lead interviewer: Kame Westerman

Seynou Oumarou – NEA Burkina Faso (IUCN)

Jacques Somda

Date interviewed: 3/11/21

Lead interviewer: Kame Westerman

Grace Muhimpundu - TTL Republic of Congo

Sibani Karki

Date interviewed: 3/12/21 Lead interviewer: Lydia Cardona

ECO-AUDIT

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