

Taking Stock of
**Gender Equality
in Colombia:**
An Overview



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Angelika Rettberg | Aaron Acosta | María del Pilar López-Urbe | Paula Neira
Luisa Salazar Escalante | Camilo Sánchez León | María Gabriela Vargas

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Made in Bogotá D.C., Colombia

genero_justicia_paz@uniandes.edu.co
www.thegenderhub.com

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Executive Summary

This document provides an overview of the situation of women and gender in Colombian society; politics and the economy amidst armed conflict and peacebuilding. It is based on official statistics as well as on data collected by the authors. The document is designed to serve as a point of reference for scholars, policymakers and civil society leaders seeking a broad description of how the situation of women has evolved over the past years in the country. The document finds that, while access to education for women has improved significantly over the past years, women are often at a disadvantage in terms of access to formal labour markets, land and leadership positions. Similarly, while women have played a role in formal politics for several decades and gender quotas have been introduced to foster women's participation in the formal political arena, there are still significant gaps in the extent to which women are included in political processes and their needs addressed in public policymaking.

Much of the progress benefiting women has come from courts that have been progressive, which have protected women's rights and promoted action to protect women from different sorts of violence. In relation to conflict and peacebuilding, women have been part of illegal organisations at different levels, from low-rank fighters to commanders. At the same time, women figure prominently among the millions of Colombian victims. As a result, gender played an important role in peace negotiations among the former FARC-EP guerrillas and the Colombian state, which was finalised with an agreement in 2016, as well as in the implementation phase. Details of women in the Armed Forces, in illegal organisations and among the population of victims serves to illustrate these points.

The document ends with a discussion of how Colombian institutions have approached the task of developing a National Action Plan (NAP) and to what extent the country has been seeking to comply with the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda (WPS), and with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in relation to peace and gender. In sum, the document shows that full gender equality remains an aspiration in Colombia. However, important steps have been taken to improve women's access to health and education as well as to roles of leadership in politics and in the judiciary. In the future, these milestones are likely to form a firm base for the continued consolidation of formal and informal institutions fostering women's empowerment.

Introduction

Introduction

This document provides an overview of the situation of women and gender in Colombian society, politics and the economy amidst armed conflict and peacebuilding. The document intends to support researchers, policymakers and social activists in their understanding of the place gender and women have occupied in Colombia's economy, society and politics since the 1980s; identify gaps both in our knowledge and in public policy related to these issues; and, specifically, to illustrate how the needs and interests of women and a gendered lens have been affected by armed conflict and addressed in the course of peacebuilding processes.

Data presented in this document was pulled from publicly available sources and existing material from international and domestic governmental and non-governmental organisations, as well as academic publications.

This document first provides data on the economy and society, including education, labour market, care economy, leadership positions in business and management and rural women's access to land. Second, it presents data on women's political participation and representation in electoral bodies, gender quotas and the legislative gender-related agenda. Third, it addresses justice and the judiciary, including gender policy in the judicial branch, statistics on appointments of women to judicial positions, and milestone judicial decisions on gender. Fourth, it describes women's role in armed conflict and peacebuilding. We pay attention to gender issues and dimensions in Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR) processes, and in the composition of public forces, civil society-led peace initiatives, peace negotiations, the institutional framework of peace, victims, reparations, the assassination of human rights defenders and ex-combatants and women and the drug trade.

The document continues with a look at violence against women and girls (femicide). Then, it presents official data on indicators and statistics measured by civil society organisations related to the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda and the Colombian government on the 2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) No. 5 on Gender Equality and No. 16 on Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions. It also presents information on how the country has approached the task of developing a National Action Plan as well as the components of the WPS Agenda in Colombia. The document ends with a list of authors and references for follow-up research.

01

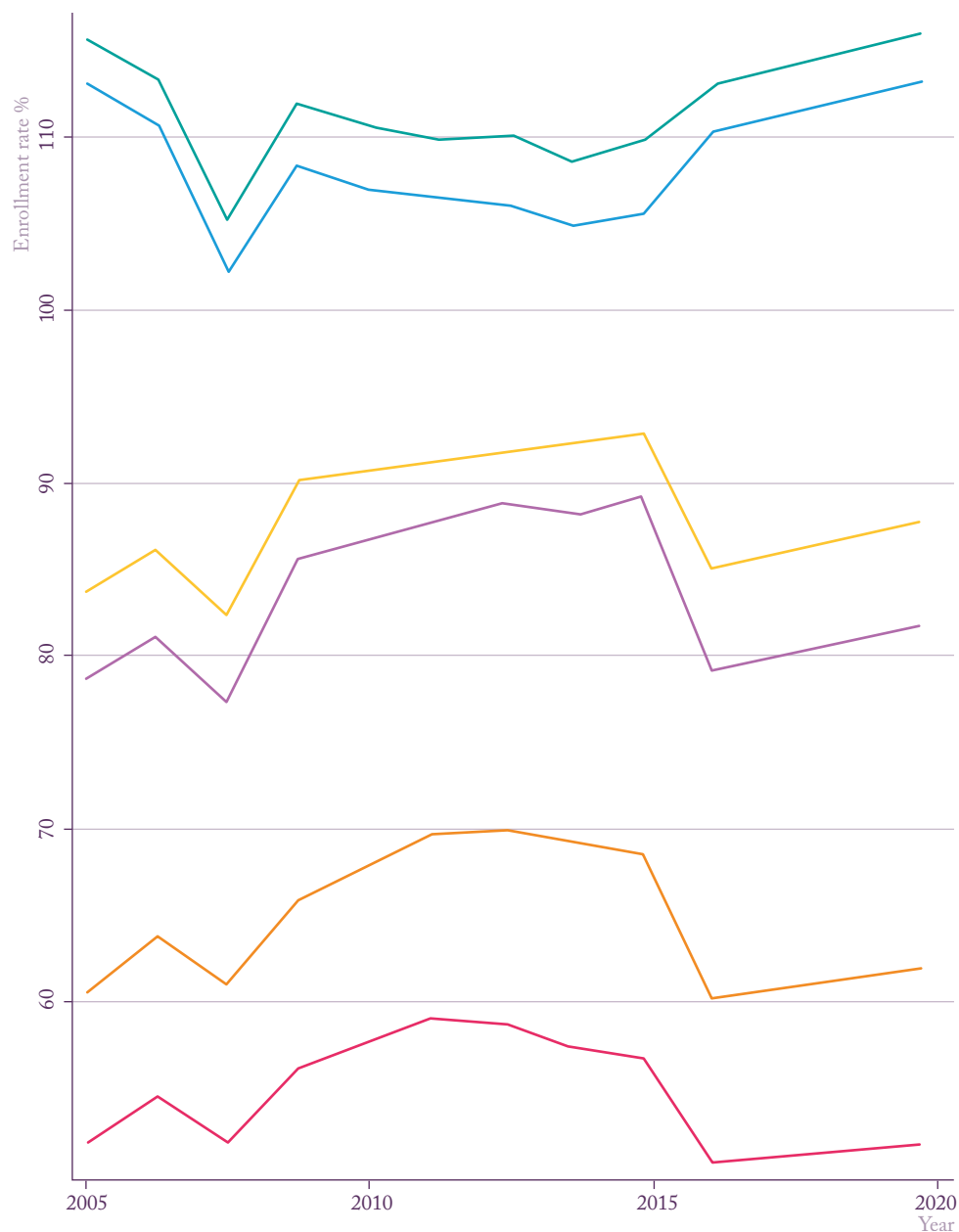
Economy and Society

1.1. Education

The following section describes the education sphere in Colombia during the last 20 years, incorporating a gender perspective. Primary, secondary and tertiary education enrolment rates are analysed within the country for male and female students. These results are compared with another group of countries in Latin America and other regions. Also, the Colombian national exam “Saber 11” results are compared by gender at the aggregate and the regional level, showing important differences between male and female students’ performance. Finally, this section shows the significant differences in enrolment between male and female students in STEM programmes in tertiary education throughout the period of analysis.

The most significant changes in terms of access and enrolment of women into primary and higher education in Colombia took place from the late 1800s until the 1950s. There are no radical transitions regarding these two levels of education in the second part of the 20th century. Despite the important progress on equality achieved during the 20th century, gender gaps persist in many areas of the education sphere, especially in the most advanced levels (tertiary education). It is essential to recognise that, given that Colombia is an unequal country in terms of wealth, to make a more precise analysis, it would be necessary to take into account the differences between urban and rural data and also between private and public educational institutions.

Figure 1 shows the enrolment rate in primary, secondary, and high school education for boys and girls in Colombia from 2005 to 2016. These results indicate that in secondary and high school education, the enrolment rate is higher for girls by an insignificant difference. Only for primary education, the enrolment rate is higher for boys. The percentage is higher than 100 because it includes students whose age exceeds the official age group. Also, it shows that the evolution and gap of the enrolment rate for each level of education has been the same for girls and boys in the period of analysis.



Students age in primary school: 6-10
 Students age in secondary school: 11-14
 Students age in high school : 15-16

Primary education BOYS	Secondary education BOYS	High school education BOYS
Primary education GIRLS	Secondary education GIRLS	High school education GIRLS

Figure 1. Enrolment rate for primary, secondary and high school education by sex.

Source: Based on data from Panel de Educación. Panel Municipal del CEDE. Universidad de Los Andes, 2019

These results are achieved by using population estimates and should be understood as an approximation of the real enrolment rate. Nevertheless, the data shows no significant differences in terms of enrolment for boys and girls, and the variables of interest for both groups show a very similar evolution over time. These facts suggest that girls are accessing these levels of education equally, and are not being discriminated against or left behind, at least in primary, secondary and high school education.

To compare the education enrolment of Colombia to other Latin American countries, Figure 2 and Figure 3 show the gross enrolment rate in primary and secondary education for male and female students. Colombia is compared to countries with similar wealth conditions - Argentina, Mexico, Brazil, Ecuador, and Peru- according to the World Bank databases. Figure 2 shows that the gross enrolment rates in primary education for all these countries are higher than 100 per cent, similar to what is found in Colombia.

Regarding the dynamics, Figure 2 indicates that rates for male and female students have similar behaviour in each country. All the countries experienced rates between 110 per cent and 120 per cent, except Brazil between 2000 and 2010. These rates had a small decrease during the second decade of the 21st century. As shown, Colombia had higher rates for female and male students than all the countries except Brazil. However, the decreases in Colombian enrolment rates have been less drastic than Brazil's.

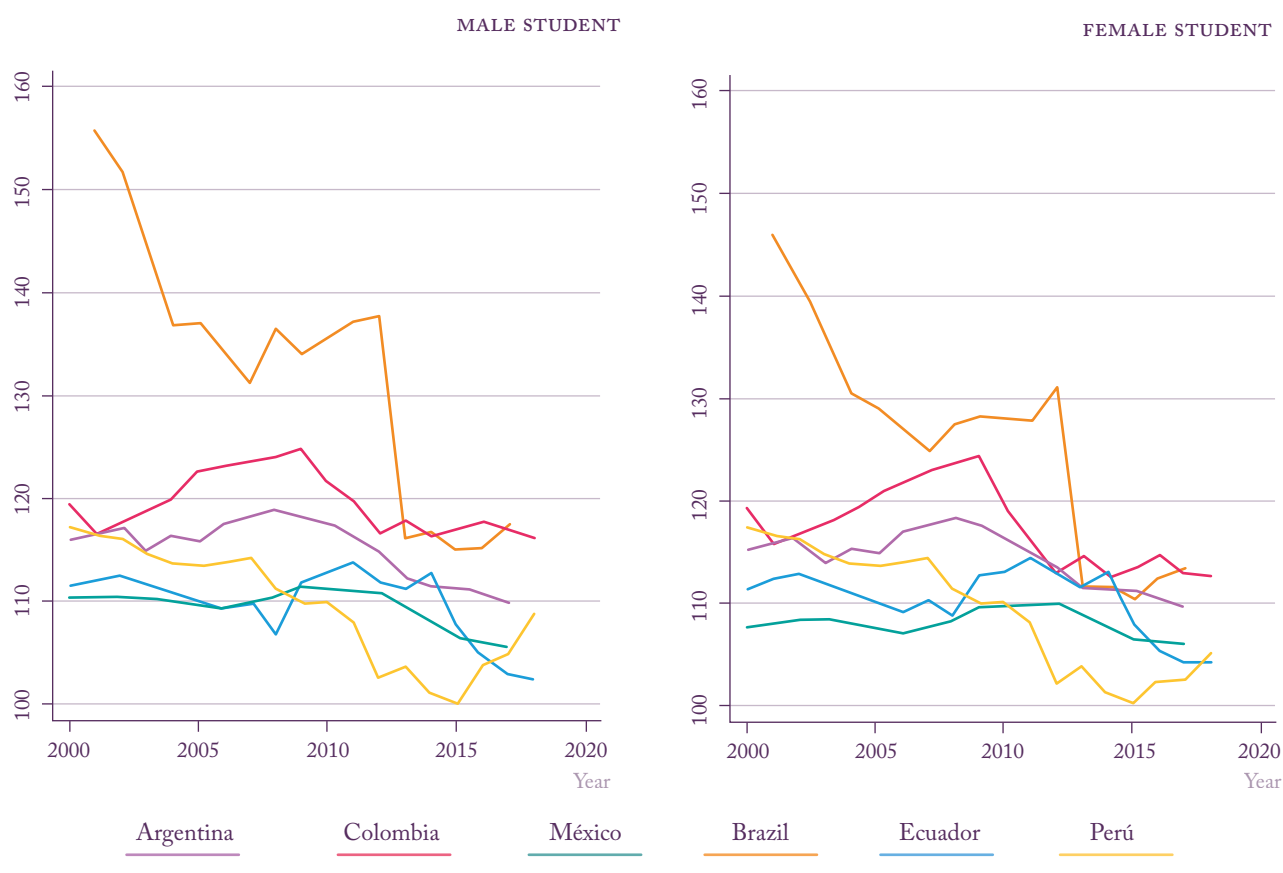


Figure 2. Gross enrolment rate in primary education by country (Latin America)

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 3 shows the gross enrolment rate for secondary education for female and male students. Rates do not reach 100 per cent, suggesting that access to secondary education in Latin American countries is more complicated than access to primary education for male and female students. The male students' panel shows that all the countries have reached enrolment rates of 100 per cent except Colombia. Ecuador had the highest growth rates between 2000–2020: it had the lowest enrolment rate at the start of the millennium and reached 100 per cent in 2018. Colombia had the second-lowest enrolment rates for secondary education for male students at the beginning of the millennium and is the only country that today has not reached 100 per cent enrolment in the sample.

The situation is different for female students' enrolment rates in secondary education. The female students' panel shows that all countries have, at some point, surpassed the 100 per cent enrolment rate. However, Colombia is the only country in which the rate declined after reaching this figure. At the moment, all the countries have an enrolment of 100 per cent or higher. It is worth noting that Mexico had lower enrolment rates for female students than Colombia at the beginning of the millennium. However, now Mexico's rates surpass Colombia's.



Figure 3. Gross enrolment rate in secondary education by country (Latin America)

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

For a more in-depth study, Figure 3.1 shows the gender gap between male and female enrolment for primary and secondary education. The gap is calculated by subtracting the female student's enrolment from the male student's enrolment. The gender gap's positive values mean that the enrolment is higher for male than for female students. As seen from Figure 3.1, for primary education, the gap is negative only for Ecuador, and it was negative for Peru for most of the period of analysis. For the rest of the countries, the gap has positive values, which means that enrolment is higher for male students in primary education. Brazil is the only country that has had a higher gender gap than Colombia since 2010, and recently Peru.

On the other hand, Figure 3.1 shows a negative gender gap for secondary education enrolment for all countries, except for Peru. This means that secondary education enrolment is significantly higher for female students throughout many Latin American countries. Colombia shares similar gender gaps at this level of education to Argentina and Brazil.



Figure 3.1: Gender gap in primary and secondary education enrolment by country (Latin America)

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

To have an international overlook, Figure 4 and 5 show the gross enrolment rate for primary and secondary education for female and male students in many countries around the world. The countries selected for the comparison are Canada, China, Germany, India, Mozambique, Pakistan, and the United States of America. Countries with different wealth and development conditions. Figure 4 shows the gross enrolment rate for primary education: the most basic level of education, and which rate is generally higher than 100 per cent. Colombia has the highest enrolment rate in primary education for male students and the second-highest enrolment rate for female students. Nevertheless, The United States, Germany, China, India, and Colombia have rates of around 100 per cent throughout the period of analysis. Only Mozambique and Pakistan show lower rates, and Pakistan nowadays has not reached 100 per cent of enrolment for female students.



Figure 4: Gross enrolment rate in primary education by sex and country (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

The data is significantly different for secondary education enrolment rates. Figure 5 shows that enrolment for male students only reaches 100 per cent in Germany and Canada, followed by the United States and Colombia. On the other hand, the female students' enrolment rate in secondary education is 100 per cent or higher in Germany, Canada, the United States and Colombia, followed by China and India, which are around 75 per cent. Mozambique and Pakistan have rates under 50 per cent for male and female students in this level of education.

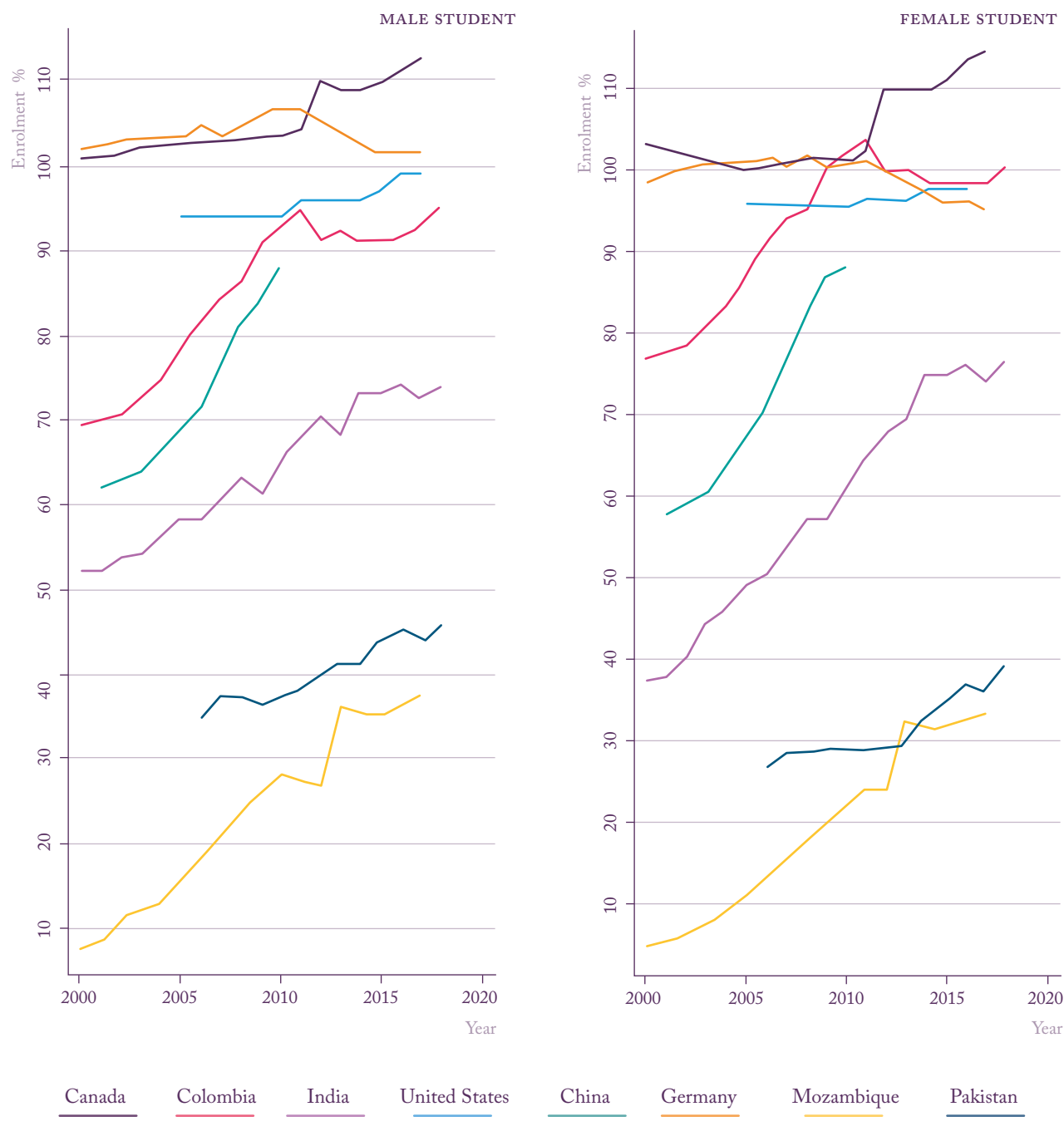


Figure 5: Gross enrolment rate in secondary education by sex and country (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 5.1 analyses the gender gap in primary and secondary education for different countries in the world. In primary education, Colombia, Canada, Germany, China and the United States, have a gender gap of approximately zero: there is no difference between female and male enrolment in primary education. In contrast, Mozambique and Pakistan have very high and positive gender gaps.

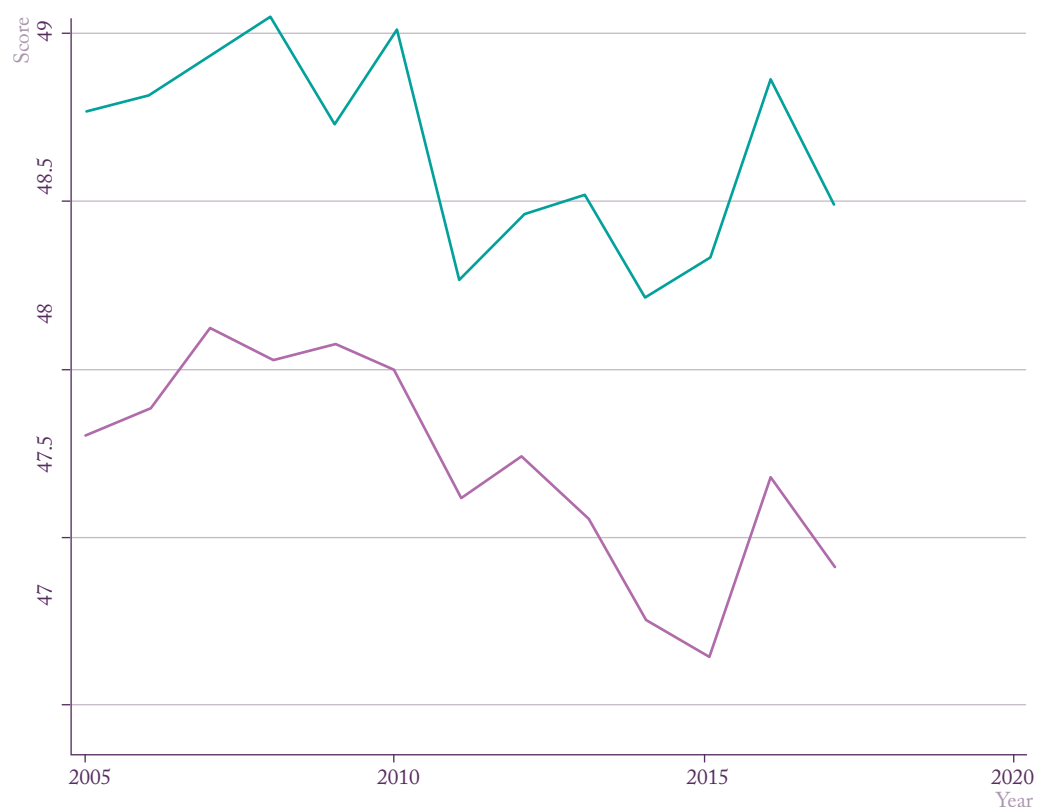
The figure for the gender gap for secondary education enrolment shows that Colombia has the highest gender gap during the period of analysis. The next negative gender gaps are from India, which has shown a considerable fall in the gender gap, and Canada.



Figure 5.1: Gender gap in primary and secondary education enrolment by country (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank, World Bank Open Data.

In Colombia, before graduation, all students must present an exam called “Saber 11”. This exam is provided by the Colombian Institute for the Promotion of Higher Education (ICFES). This exam is divided into five areas: critical reading, mathematics, social and citizenship sciences, natural sciences and English; most questions are multiple-choice. Each area is graded from 1 to 100, although the English section has a lower weight in the overall score. The Saber 11 test is a mechanism to test students’ abilities, given that the score is crucial to apply to tertiary education institutions and scholarships. In contrast to what happens with other standardised tests, students have incentives to perform well and do their best. Figure 6 shows the mean score for the whole exam that includes all the areas by sex.



Areas:

1. Critical reading
2. Mathematics
3. Social and citizenship Sciences
4. Natural sciences
5. English

Average age for boys and girls: 17



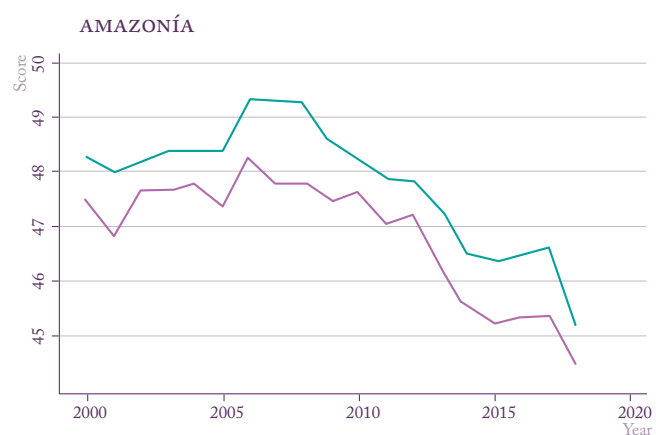
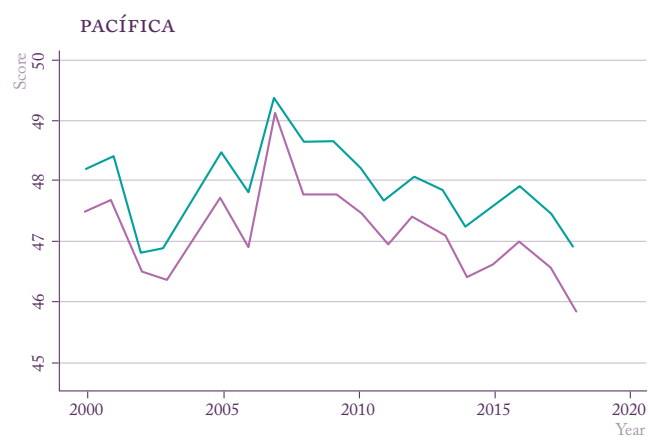
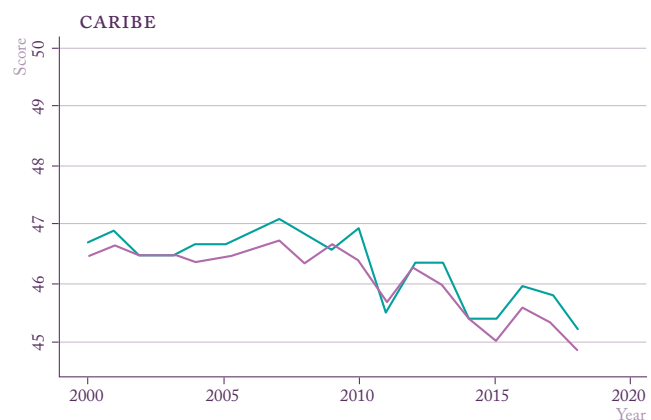
Figure 6. Saber 11 score by sex (mean).

Source: Based on data from Panel de Educación. Panel Municipal del CEDE. Universidad de Los Andes. 2019

Boys have outperformed girls during the period of analysis. The mean score for boys is 48.61, and the mean score for girls is 47.72. The mean scores are not far from each other, but the figure shows that the evolution of the variable of interest has varied for each sex differently, maintaining a gap between them. As mentioned before, this estimate does not consider any other factors that can affect the score apart from sex. On the one hand, educational results may be highly related to wealth variables and parents' educational levels. However, this comparison reveals that at the aggregate level, there is a persistent gender gap between male and female students.

Given the elevated levels of inequality in Colombia, it is essential to observe this data at the sub-national level. Figure 7 shows the Saber 11 mean score by sex for the five regions in Colombia. The analysis for the aggregated data is consistent with what is shown in each region. The only region that shows a smaller gap between male and female students results is the Caribbean region (northern Colombia). Although this region has the smallest gender gap, it also has the lowest performance for male and female students. The Pacific region (west) is the second region with the smallest gender gap, followed by the Amazon region (south). It is worth noting that the regions with the higher scores have the highest gender gaps too, which are the Andean (centre) and Orinoquía (south-east) regions. The students from these two regions have maintained the scores level through time, in contrast to the students in other regions, whose mean scores have declined.





Areas:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Critical reading | 4. Natural sciences |
| 2. Mathematics | 5. English |
| 3. Social and citizenship Sciences | |

Average age for boys and girls: 17

Boys

Girls

Figure 7. Saber 11 score by sex and region (mean).

Source: Based on data from Panel de Educación. Panel Municipal del CEDE. Universidad de Los Andes. 2019

ICFES compares gender differences in language (reading and writing) and mathematics tests for Colombian students using the PISA test results from 2006 to 2009 and the Saber 11 results from 2005 to 2009. The PISA tests are an international standardised test to evaluate students in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. The main findings are a gender gap in favour of boys in mathematics results and a gender gap in favour of girls in the language results. Boys outperform girls in mathematic skills by 28-30 points, and girls outperform boys in language skills by 9 points. The gender gap in mathematics is robust to the students' characteristics, such as the socioeconomic composition. However, differences in language skills disappear when variables such as age and grade in school are considered (ICFES 2013). Abadía's (2014) analysis of the PISA results in 2012 for Colombia corroborates these results. When personal, family and educational characteristics are taken into account the gender gap in mathematics increases and the gender gap in language skills decreases.

Abadía and Bernal (2016) study the Saber 11 test scores for the second semester in 2014, comparing the differences between Colombia's 32 departments.¹ At the aggregate level, they find that the gender gap in mathematics increases and the gender gap in critical reading disappears and reverses at the highest scores or the scores in the upper tail of the distribution. This means that there are fewer girls with high scores in the mathematics area and that, if only the higher scores in critical reading are considered, there is no gender gap in this area. On the other hand, they find that the gender gaps vary in each department and, consequently, stress the importance of considering social, cultural, and regional variables when studying gender gaps.

They show that aspects such as parents' education and occupation, social class, school type, place of residence, and other observable variables do not explain the gender gaps. These findings, and the spatial variation in gender gaps, lead them to link the results to environmental variables. Baker et al. (1993), Riegle-Crumb (2005), Güiso et al. (2008), Hyde & Mertz (2009), Fryer & Levitt (2010) and Gonzáles et al. (2012) suggest that girls perform better in more egalitarian gender-wise societies. As girls have the same opportunities, they have the same aspirations and incentives to acquire the same abilities as boys. Colombia is a country with significant gender inequalities in many dimensions, such as labour market, wages, political representation and participation. This fact might be preventing girls from attaining the same results as boys and creating gender gaps in education.

This analysis raises the question of whether these gender gaps are negatively affecting women's enrolment in postgraduate education. In Colombia, there are different options for postgraduate education, and some require previous postgraduate studies. There are technical, technological, and professional levels, and masters, specialist and doctoral degrees. Figure 8 shows the aggregate number of enrolled and graduated students in higher education for each year.

¹ Colombian departments function as administrative and political units very much like the states of the United States of America.

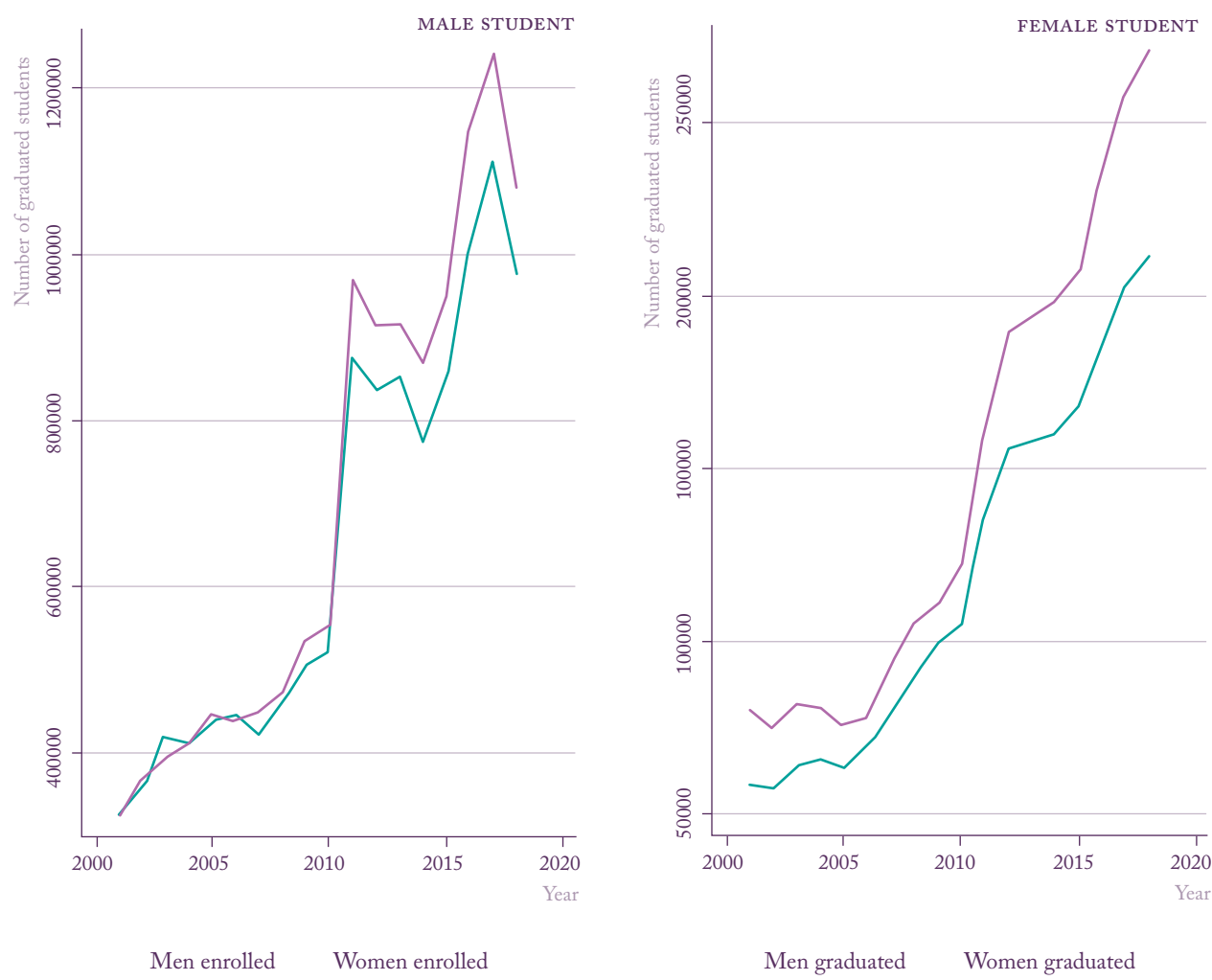


Figure 8: Enrolled and graduated students in tertiary education by sex

Source: Data from Panel de Educación. Panel Municipal del CEDE. Universidad de Los Andes. 2019

Figure 8 indicates that the number of enrolled students shows similar trends for men and women until 2012. From that year on, the gender gap widened significantly in favour of women. In contrast, there has always been a gender gap in the number of graduated students in favour of women. It narrowed until 2006 but started to widen again after 2010. Figure 10 presents the evolution of enrolled and graduated women as a percentage of the total enrolled and graduated students in higher education. This figure corroborates the widening of both gaps in recent years. Although the percentage of graduated women in higher education had been falling before 2006, it has continuously been higher than the percentage of men. Note that the red line that represents enrolment is always higher than 50 per cent. On the other hand, the figure of enrolled women as a percentage of the total of enrolled students has been growing, and since 2006 it has been higher than 50 per cent. In 2018, the percentage of enrolled and graduated women from the total of both groups was 52.5 per cent and 56.2 per cent, respectively.

Although getting information about the number of graduate students from other countries is difficult, the enrolment rate in tertiary education is a well-measured vari-

able available for comparisons. Figure 9 shows the gross enrolment rate in tertiary education for female and male students in Latin American countries. As evident, the rates for both groups of students have been increasing significantly over time. Regarding male students' enrolment, Colombia has the third highest rate of enrolment in tertiary education, with a rate of approximately 50 per cent today; this is only surpassed by Ecuador and Argentina, which reach a rate of almost 70 per cent.

Figure 9 shows that the enrolment rates for female students are higher than the rates for male students in most countries. As with the male student's enrolment rate, Colombia today occupies the third position, along with Brazil. While male students' enrolment rate reaches 50 per cent, the female student's enrolment rate is at 60 per cent. Nevertheless, at the beginning of the millennium, the rates were near the same level, at a rate of 25 per cent for both.

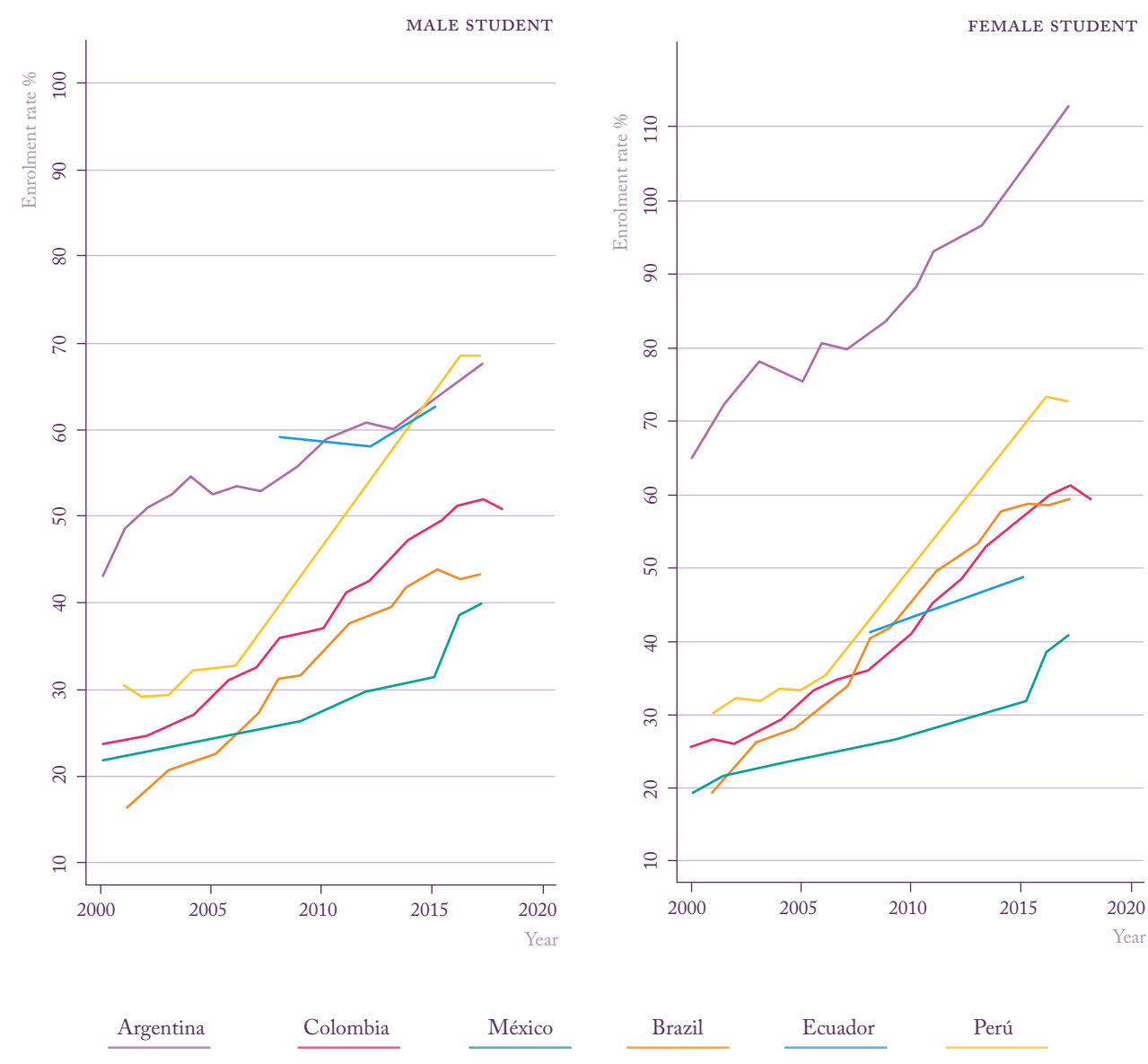


Figure 9. Gross enrolment rate in tertiary education by country (Latin America).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

As it is essential to compare the rates with countries of different regions, Figure 9.1 shows the gross enrolment rate in tertiary education for female and male students worldwide. Even though the data is not as complete as the data shown above, from the information available, there are significant gaps between each country's rates, meaning very different enrolment levels for male and female students in the world. Nevertheless, the rates in each country are very similar. Colombia has the fourth highest enrolment rate for both groups of students. The countries with the highest enrolment rates for male and female students are Germany, Canada and the United States.



Figure 9.1. Gross enrolment rate in tertiary education by country (worldwide)

Source: Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 9.2 shows the gender gap between male and female enrolment in tertiary education. As mentioned above, the positive values mean that enrolment is higher for men, and negative values mean that the enrolment rate is higher for women. Colombia has negative values for the gender gap and it has been widening in the last few years in favour of women. Brazil has shown a similar tendency in its gap, and the United States and Canada's gender gaps show very negative values throughout the period.



Figure 9.2. Gender gap in tertiary education enrolment (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

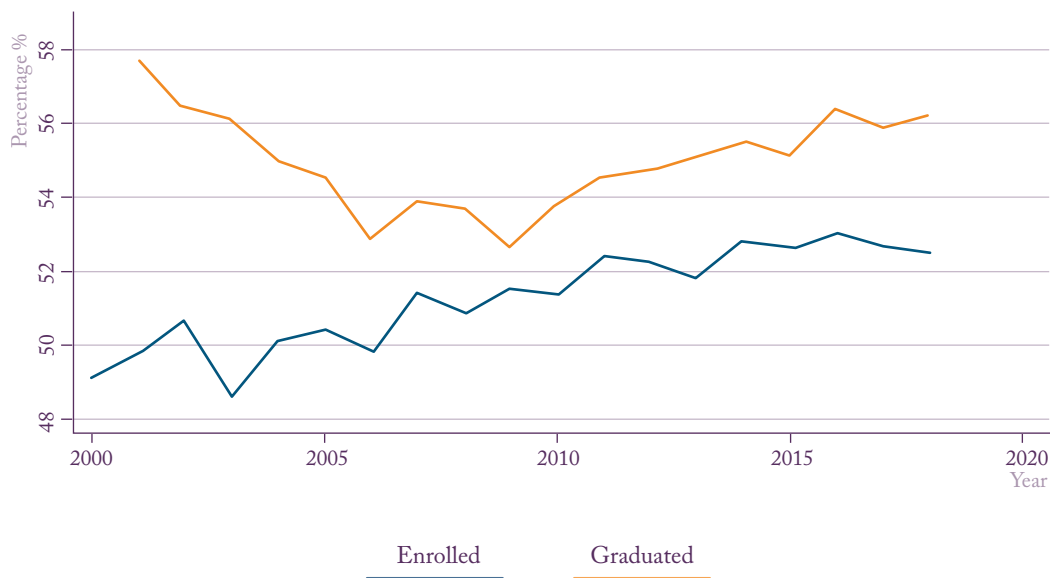


Figure 10. Enrolled and graduated women in higher education as a percentage of total enrolled and graduated students

Source: Data from Panel de Educación. Panel Municipal del CEDE. Universidad de Los Andes. 2019

In terms of enrolment or graduation in higher education, at the aggregate level, women are not at a disadvantage compared to men. It is essential to note that this figure does not discriminate between levels, degrees, or careers in higher education. However, it is crucial to consider these variables because they are determinants of men's and women's future wealth conditions. It is well known that studying Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) careers produce higher returns to education and higher employability levels. Figure 11 reports the total number of graduate students in STEM careers for technical, technological and professional levels of higher education.



Figure 11. Students graduated from STEM programmes by sex, 2000-2019.

Source: Data from Ministerio de Educación, facilitated by El Tiempo (2020).

Figure 11 shows a large gap between the number of male and female students in higher education enrolled in STEM programmes. For 2018, the number of male and female students who graduated from STEM programmes was 77,394 and 40,366, respectively. The number of male students almost doubled the number of female students. Figure 12 reveals the percentage of women enrolled in STEM programmes out of the number of students enrolled in STEM programmes. Female students represent less than half of the students in STEM programmes, a percentage that has been decreasing over time. As shown, the percentage of women in STEM programmes has been falling since 2008 and has not returned to levels like the ones at the beginning of the millennium.



Figure 12. Percentage of women enrolled in STEM programmes relative to the total students enrolled in these programmes

Source: Data from Ministerio de Educación, facilitated by El Tiempo. (2020)

Figure 13 shows the percentage of female students enrolled in multiple engineering and technology-related programmes, which are considered STEM programmes in Colombia in 2018. As can be seen, women are the majority in only two STEM programmes: environmental and chemical engineering, representing 59.1 per cent and 51 per cent of the students in each of the programmes, respectively. On the other hand, the STEM programmes with fewer female students are mechanical and electronic engineering, in which women represent 8.4 per cent, and 16.4 per cent of the total number of students. In the rest of the programmes, female students represent approximately 30 per cent of the total students. This fact is particularly worrying because it reflects the gender inequality in STEM programmes in Colombia.

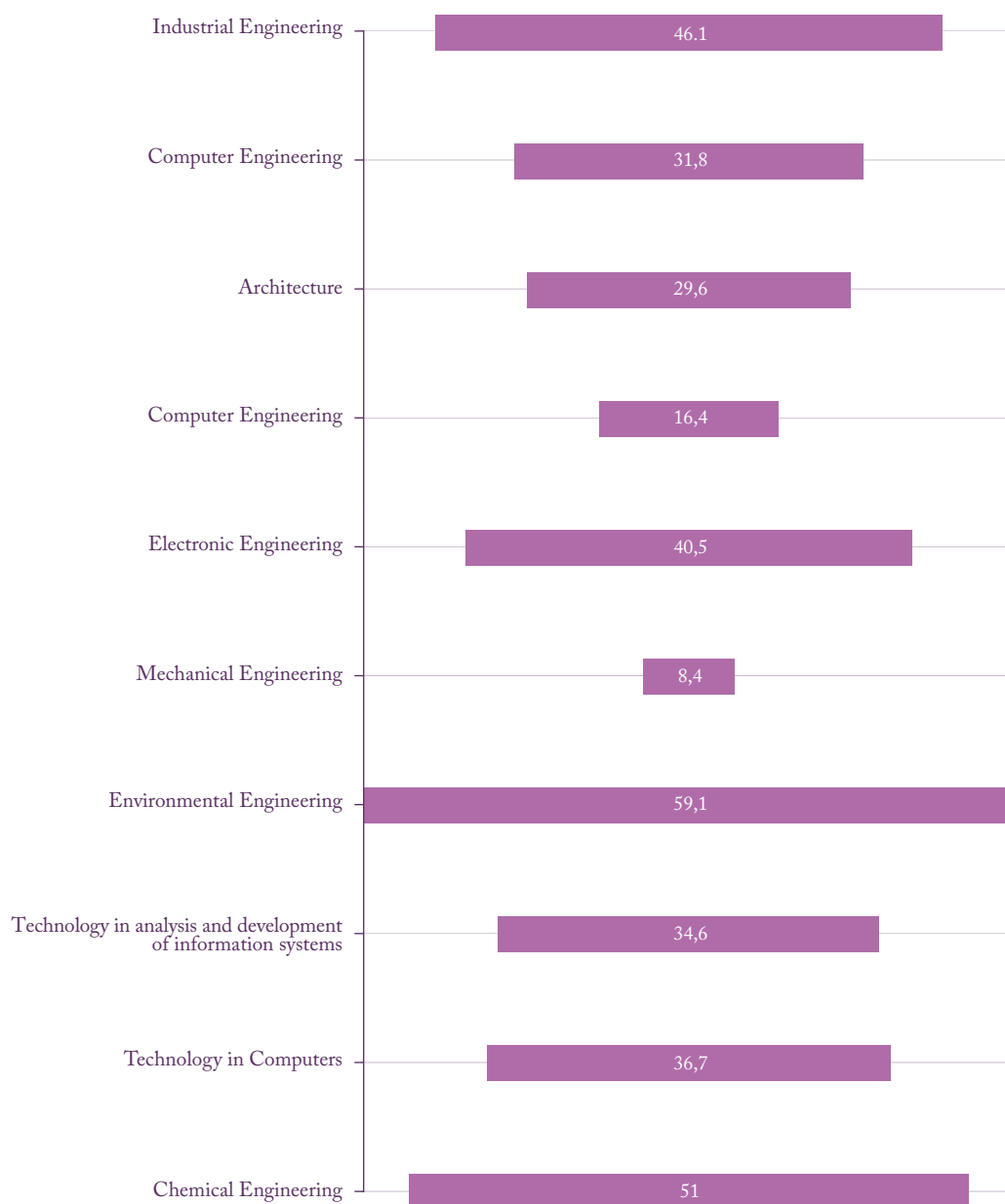


Figure 13. Percentage of female participation in STEM programmes 2018

Source: Data from Ministerio de Educación, facilitated by El Tiempo. (2020)

There are severe consequences of having fewer graduated female students in STEM programmes. Pollitzer & Schrauder (2015) and Loury (2017) point out that insufficient representation of women in STEM fields implies significant economic losses and leads to salary gaps and occupational segregation. Besides, lower salaries might lead to obstacles in the pursuit of economic independence by women. When women are unable to achieve economic independence, they become dependent on someone with a greater income, which is usually a man. Economic dependence diminishes their capability to leave a problematic relationship and increases their probabilities of suffering domestic violence (Fundación Microfinanza BBVA, 2017). These consequences are likely to be particularly harmful in an unequal society with gender-based violence like Colombia.

1.2. Labour Market

This section analyses the Colombian labour market through the following variables: the labour force participation rate, the unemployment rate, the informality rate and the wage gap. The first three indices are compared to data from Latin America and other countries. For Colombia, the indices are analysed under specific categories, such as age group, educational level, economic sector, urban and rural areas, and decile of income. Additionally, there is a subsection dedicated to analysis of the care economy in Colombia, which evidences the differences between the time that women and men spend in care activities, according to the National Accounting System.

Since the creation of the Global Gender Gap Index, designed by the World Economic Forum in 2006, Colombia has not improved in the economic participation and labour opportunities indicators. Unfortunately, it has maintained its place as 39th for 12 years. These indicators are presented by sex, age group, educational level, economic sector and occupation.

The first indicator is the labour market participation rate, defined as the ratio between economically active people and the people of working age. Economically active people are those who have a job or are looking for a job. The working age begins at 10 years old, although it starts earlier in the rural sector. Figure 14 illustrates the evolution of labour market participation rates from 2001 to 2018 for men, women and overall. Although the gender gap in labour-market participation has been narrowing in the last 17 years, women still have significantly lower labour market participation rates. This fact is undesirable and particularly harmful in terms of inequality, given that if women do not receive income from a job, they become dependent on someone who does, which is usually a man. As already mentioned in the previous section, being economically dependent increases women's probabilities of being victims of domestic violence (Fundación Microfinanza BBVA, 2017).



Figure 14. Labour Market Participation rates by sex, 2001-2018

Source: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE).

To compare Colombia's labour market participation to other countries, Figure 15 shows the labour force participation rate for Latin American countries with very similar wealth conditions. There is a significant difference between male and female rates. In Latin American countries, the average participation rate along the period of interest is 79 per cent for males and 53 per cent for females, which is more than 20 percentage points lower relative to males. Colombia's figures are above the regional average, with a rate of 80.6 per cent for males and 55.3 per cent for females. Since 2010, it has the second-highest labour force participation rates for males and females, only below Peru.



Figure 15. Labour force participation rate % (Latin America)

Source: The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 16 shows the gender gap in the labour force participation rate for Latin American countries. The gap is defined as the difference between male and female rates, which means that lower values in the gender gap mean more egalitarian rates. Colombia has a higher labour force participation rate for men and women throughout the period, while Brazil has a lower gender gap. Peru, besides having the highest labour force participation rate, also has the lowest gender gap.

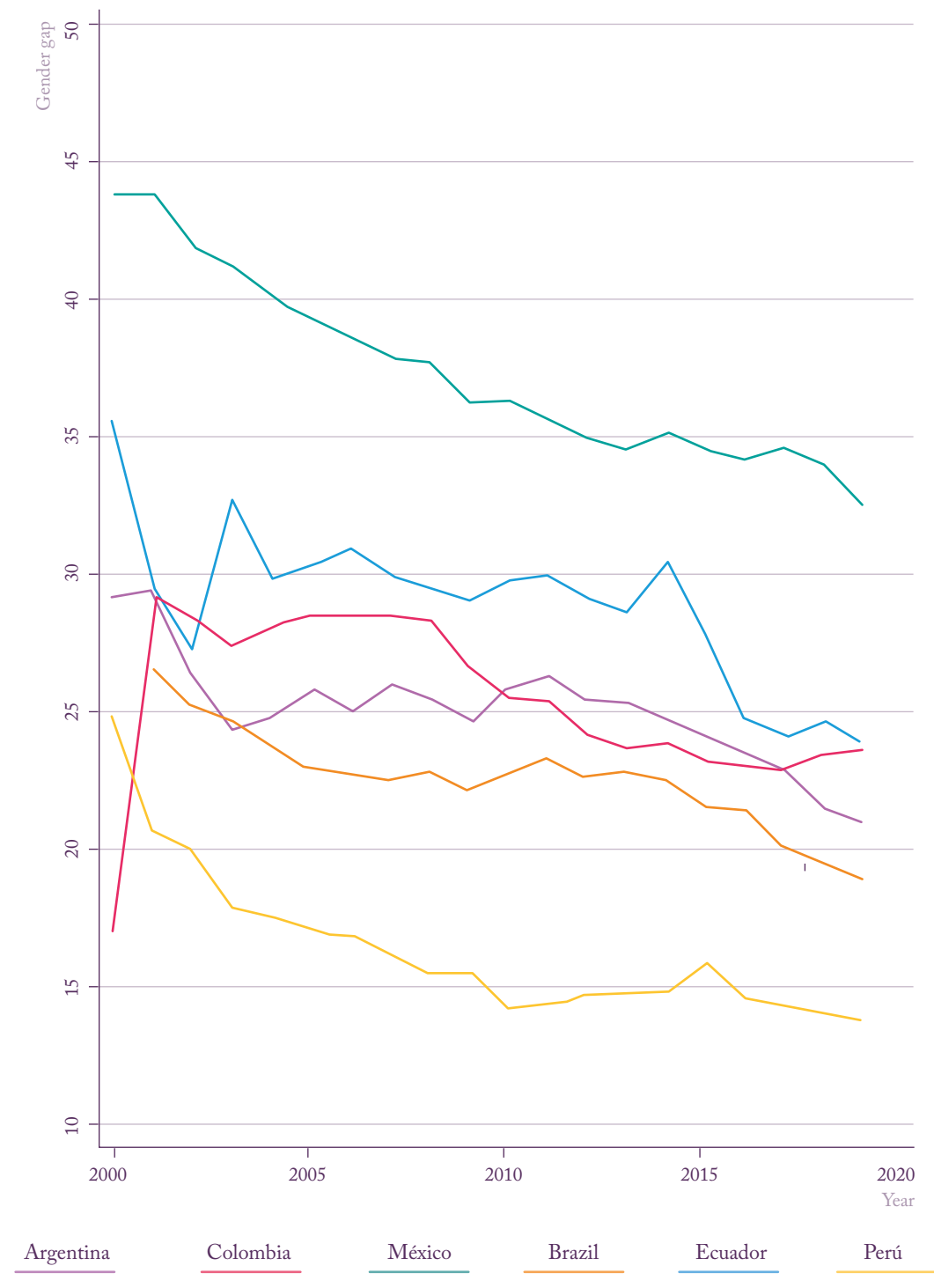


Figure 16. Gender gap in the labour force participation rate (Latin America).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 17 shows the labour force participation rate for countries in other regions from 2000 to 2019. The mean labour participation rate throughout the period for men is 74.1 per cent, and for women is 51.1 per cent. Colombia's figures for this index are higher than the mean of these countries. India and Pakistan have low rates for female labour market participation; the scale for the comparison of Latin American countries ranged from 40 per cent to 90 per cent, but the numbers of these two countries go from 10 per cent to 90 per cent.

In the last five years, the female labour force participation rate for Colombia has been very similar to that of developed countries, such as Germany and the United States. However, the male labour force participation rate for Colombia is similar to less developed countries, such as Pakistan and India.

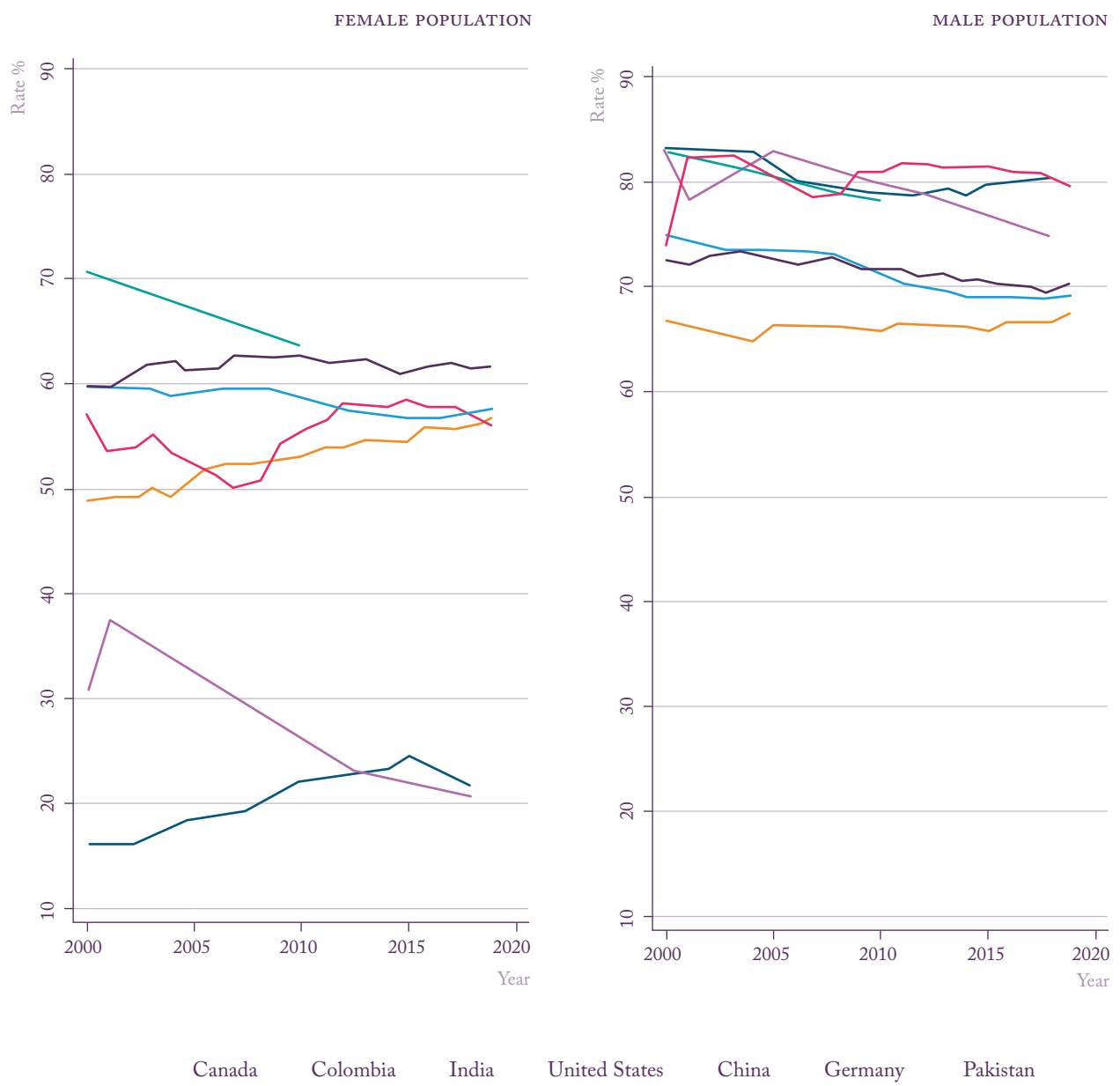


Figure 17. Labour force participation rate % (worldwide)

Source: Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Labour force participation rate for women in Colombia is similar to that in developed countries, and the rate for men is similar to that in less developed countries. Therefore, the gender gap is between the gaps of both groups of countries. The rates of labour force participation in the United States, Germany and Argentina are below Colombia's gender gap, but Pakistan and India's rates are above. Colombia has a gender gap of nearly 25 percentage points. In comparison, developed countries have a gender gap lower than 10 percentage points, and developing countries have a gender gap of approximately 55 percentage points.

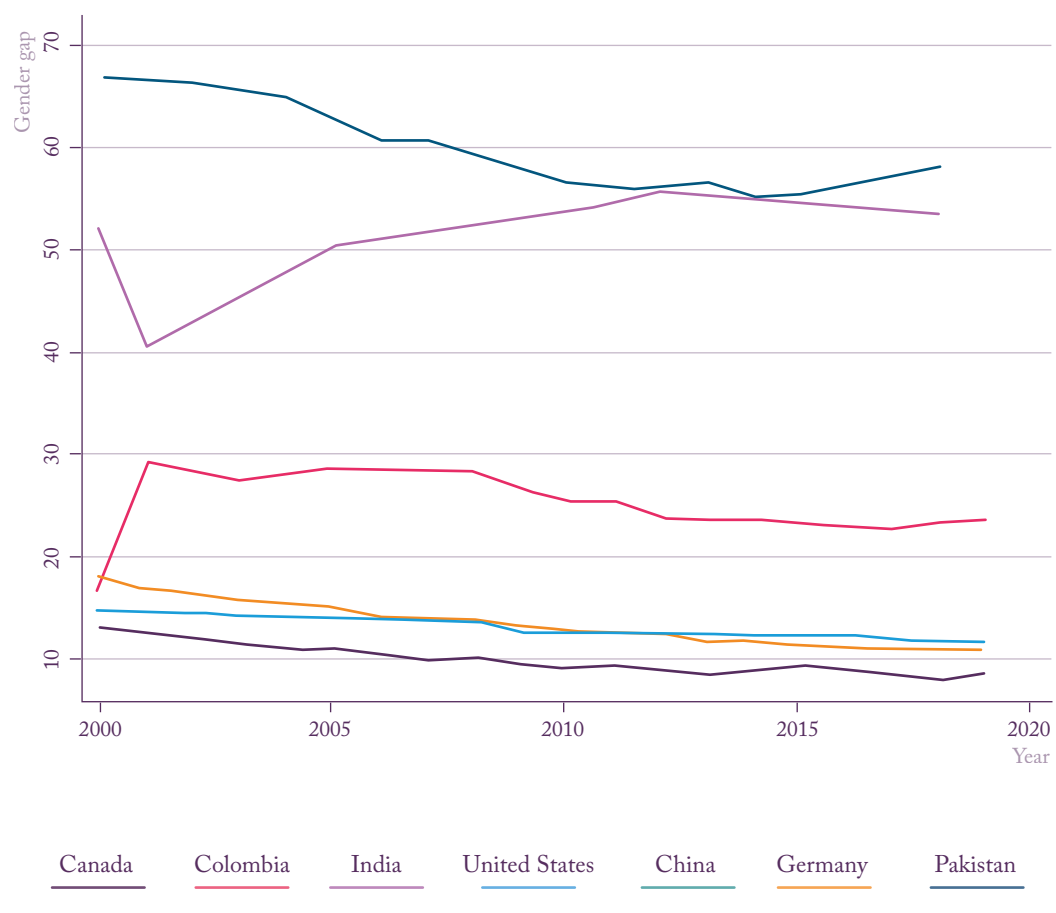


Figure 18. Gender gap in the labour force participation rate % (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

In 2017 Colombia had 19.6 million women and 18.8 million men of working age, and only 10.7 million women and 14 million men were economically active. The participation rate for women was 55 per cent and for men 75 per cent. Figure 20 shows labour market participation rates by sex and by age group in 2017. The participation rate for men is higher for each age group, and the gap widens for the oldest groups. For example, the gender gap in participation for the last three age groups is 20.3, 23.7 and 31.2 percentage points, in favour of men. The most notable fact is the difference between participation rates in the age group of 55 and older. For this group, the rate for men is 31.2 per cent higher than that for women.

Low labour market participation rates in middle-aged people, and especially women, are unwanted because it is unlikely that people have finished paying for retirement before this age. However, it is essential to clarify that, due to the size of the informal economy in Colombia, the percentage of retirees is low. In 2019, 65 per cent of the population of retirement age did not have access to any type of pension. Also, from the total of people contributing to pay for their retirement, 80 per cent are not able to claim their retirement funding as they have not finished paying for it.

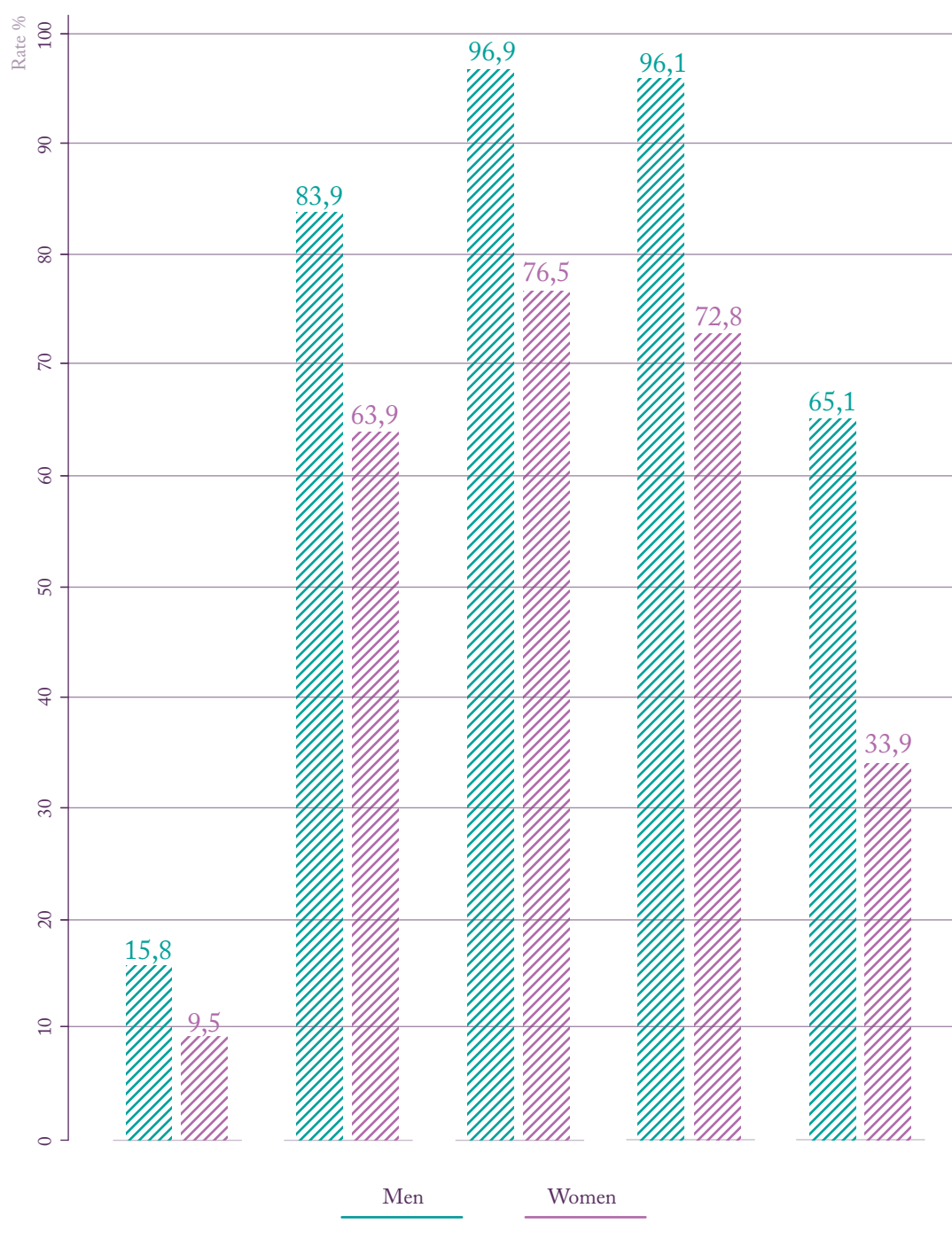


Figure 19. Labour market participation rate by age group and sex, 2017.

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

The gender gap in labour market participation varies when it is analysed by educational level, area and income decile. The labour market participation rate by educational level is presented in Table 1. For professional levels of education, the gender gap is only seven percentage points lower for women, while for secondary and primary, the gap is 20 and 33 percentage points lower. These figures mean that women with lower levels of education are less likely to participate in the labour market.

Table 1. The labour market participation rate by educational attainment

Labour market participation rate % by educational attainment		
Educational attainment	Women	Men
Primary	42	75
Secondary	51	71
Higher education	76	83

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

When analysed by income levels, the participation rate is lower for impoverished people and even lower for impoverished women. In the lowest decile of income, men's participation rate is 60.2 per cent, while the women's participation rate is 41 per cent. This means that half of the female population is not receiving any income from a job or looking to get hired. On the other hand, the participation rate for the highest decile of income is 65 per cent and 79 per cent for women and men, respectively. The gender gap decreases as income increases. Moreover, the participation rate for men in urban and rural areas is very similar (74 per cent and 76 per cent) while women's is lower in rural areas; in rural areas, the labour market participation rate is 81.1 percentage points higher for men.

As demonstrated, women have lower participation in the labour market. However, it is crucial to note that the participation rate is higher for poorer, older and less educated women who live in rural areas.

The second indicator is the unemployment rate, defined as the ratio between people that have not been hired in a determined period, despite having been looking for a job, and economically active people. Figure 20 shows the unemployment rate by educational level and sex from 2001 to 2018. The unemployment rate has decreased in the last 17 years for men and women. However, while men's unemployment rate fell to a new low of 10 per cent in 2004, women's unemployment rate has never been below 12 per cent.

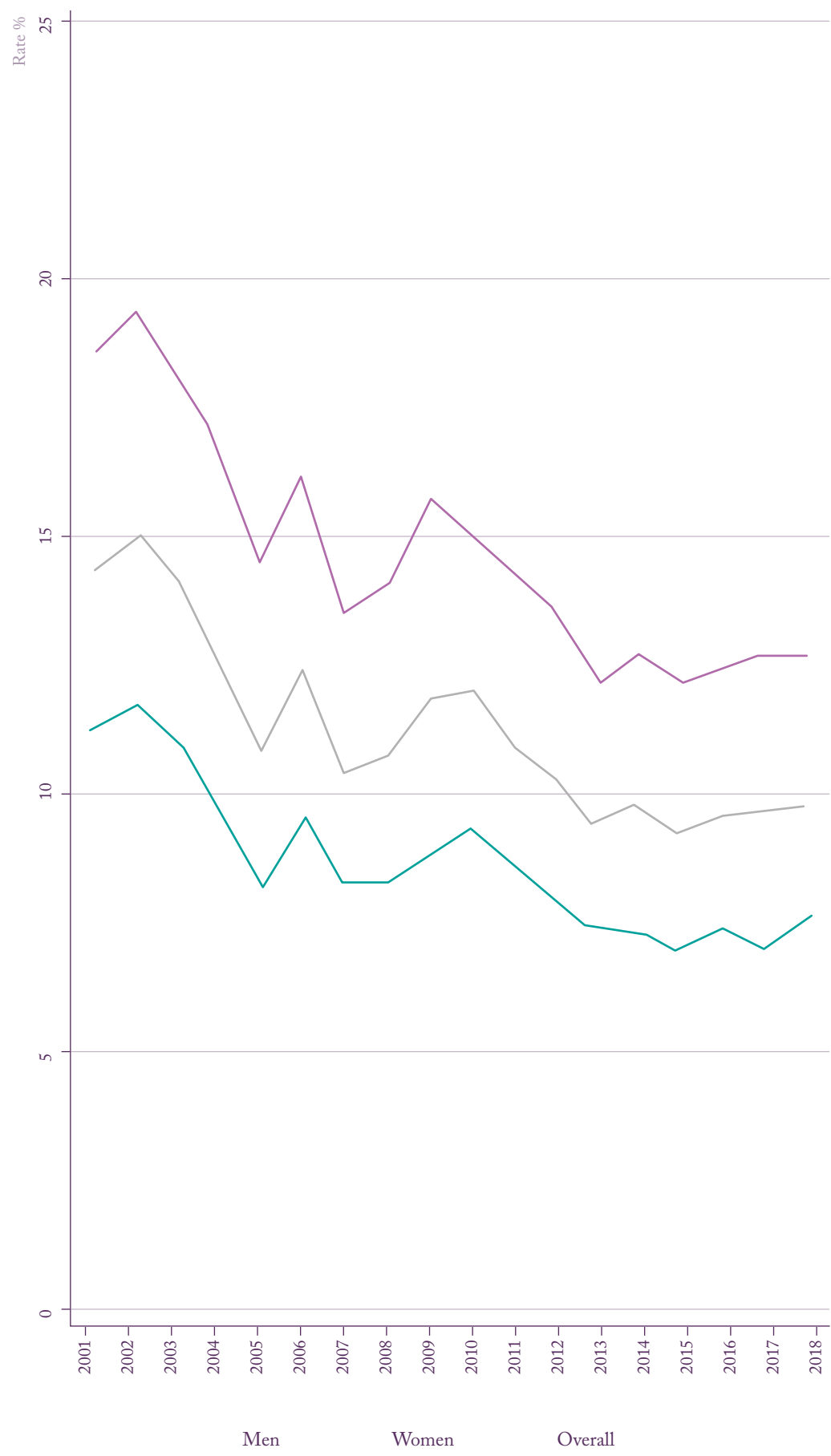


Figure 20. Unemployment rate by sex, 2001-2018

Source: Source: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE).

Figure 21 shows that, relative to other Latin American countries, Colombia's unemployment rate is particularly high for men as well as for women. For most of the period, Colombia had the highest unemployment rate for women, only superseded by Brazil in 2015. The unemployment rate for men shows a similar pattern, although Argentina's unemployment rate for men is higher than that of Colombia at certain points. Mexico, Peru and Ecuador show significantly lower unemployment rates than these three countries.



Figure 21. Unemployment rate % (Latin America).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

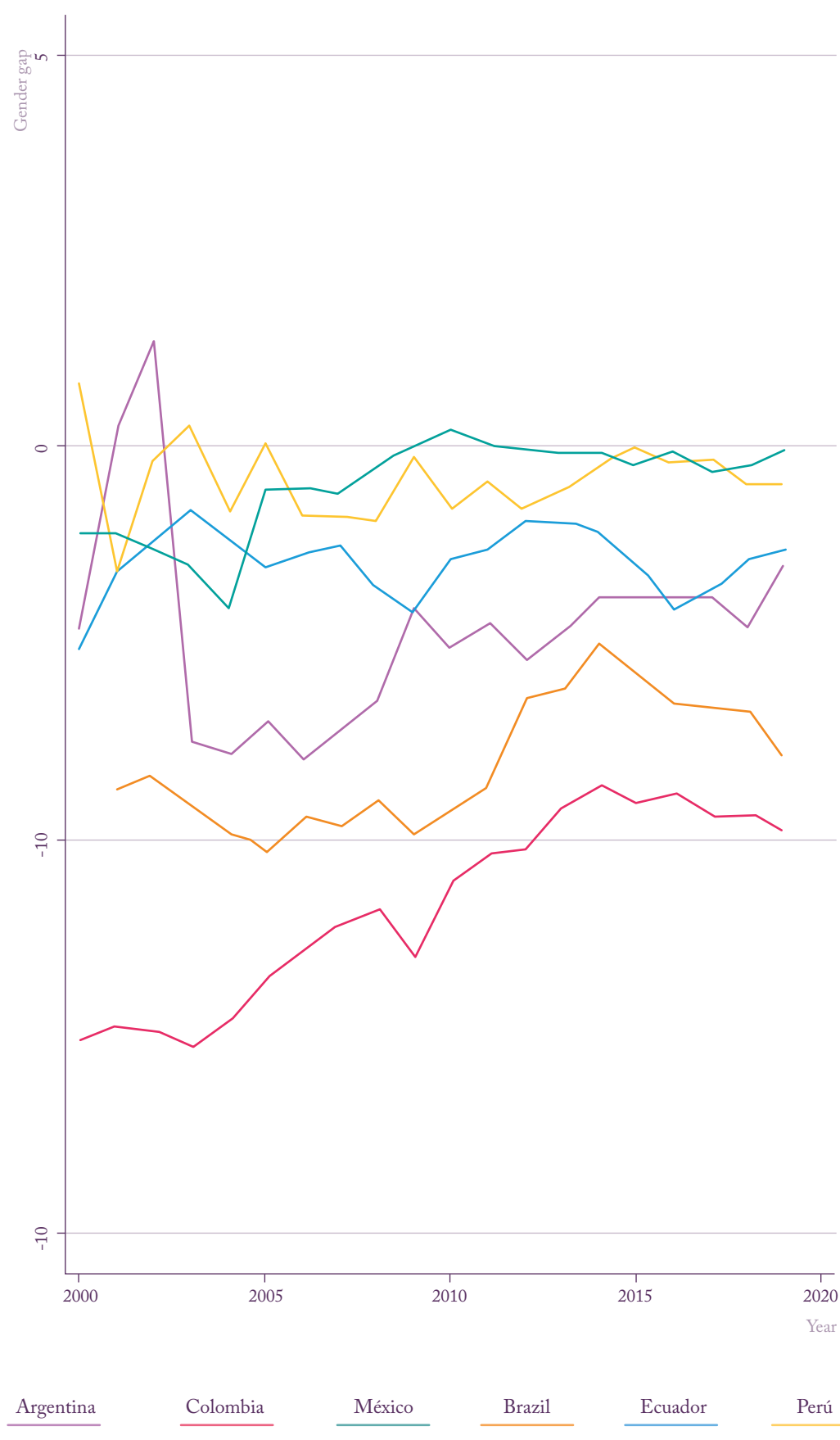


Figure 22. Gender gap in the unemployment rate % (Latin America).
Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 23 shows the unemployment rate for countries outside the region. The female unemployment rate is alarmingly high. While the mean female unemployment rate for the pool of countries in 2019 was 6 per cent, Colombia's female unemployment rate was 14.7 per cent. In contrast, while the mean male unemployment rate for the pool of countries in 2019 was 5.3 per cent, Colombia's male unemployment rate was 9 per cent. The difference for female unemployment rates is 8.7 percentage points, while the difference for male unemployment rates is only 3.7 percentage points.



Figure 23. Unemployment rate % (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 24 shows that, while most of the countries studied have a gender gap in the unemployment rate close to zero, Colombia's gender gap is approximately five percentage points. These results show that not only does Colombia have very high unemployment rates, but also that the gap between male and female unemployment is greater compared to other countries around the world.

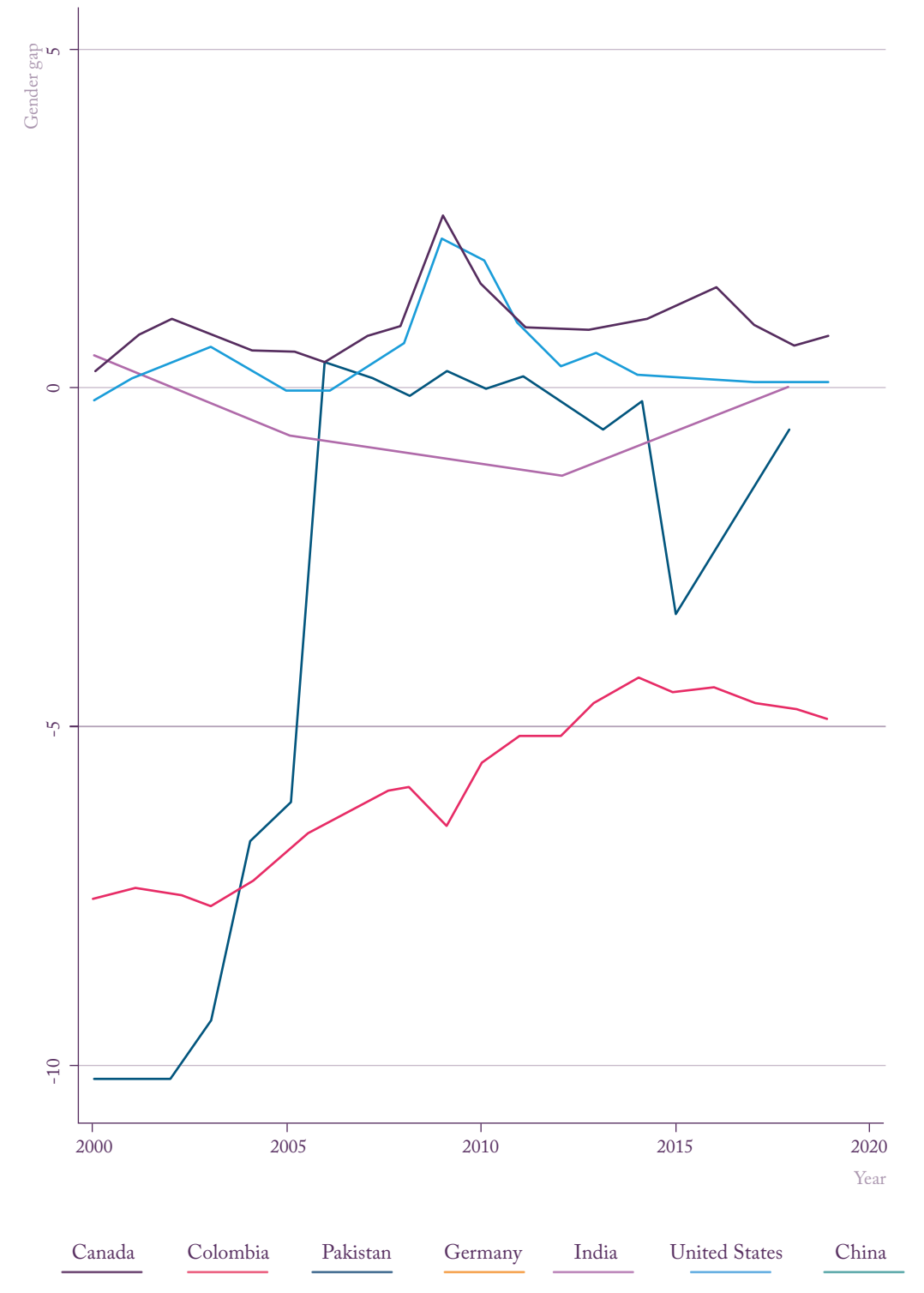


Figure 24. Gender gap in the unemployment rate % (worldwide).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

In Colombia, out of 24.6 million economically active people, 2.3 million are unemployed; 1.3 million women and 1 million men. According to these figures, not only do women participate less in the job market, but when they do, they have greater difficulties getting hired. Figure 25 presents the unemployment rate by educational level and sex in 2017. As expected, after looking at Figure 20, the unemployment rate is higher for women at each educational level. Even though the most significant gap exists in secondary education, where the unemployment rate is 5.9 percentage points higher for women, for primary education, the unemployment rate is 3.3 percentage points higher for women. The gap and the differences in rates decrease but do not disappear for higher educational level.

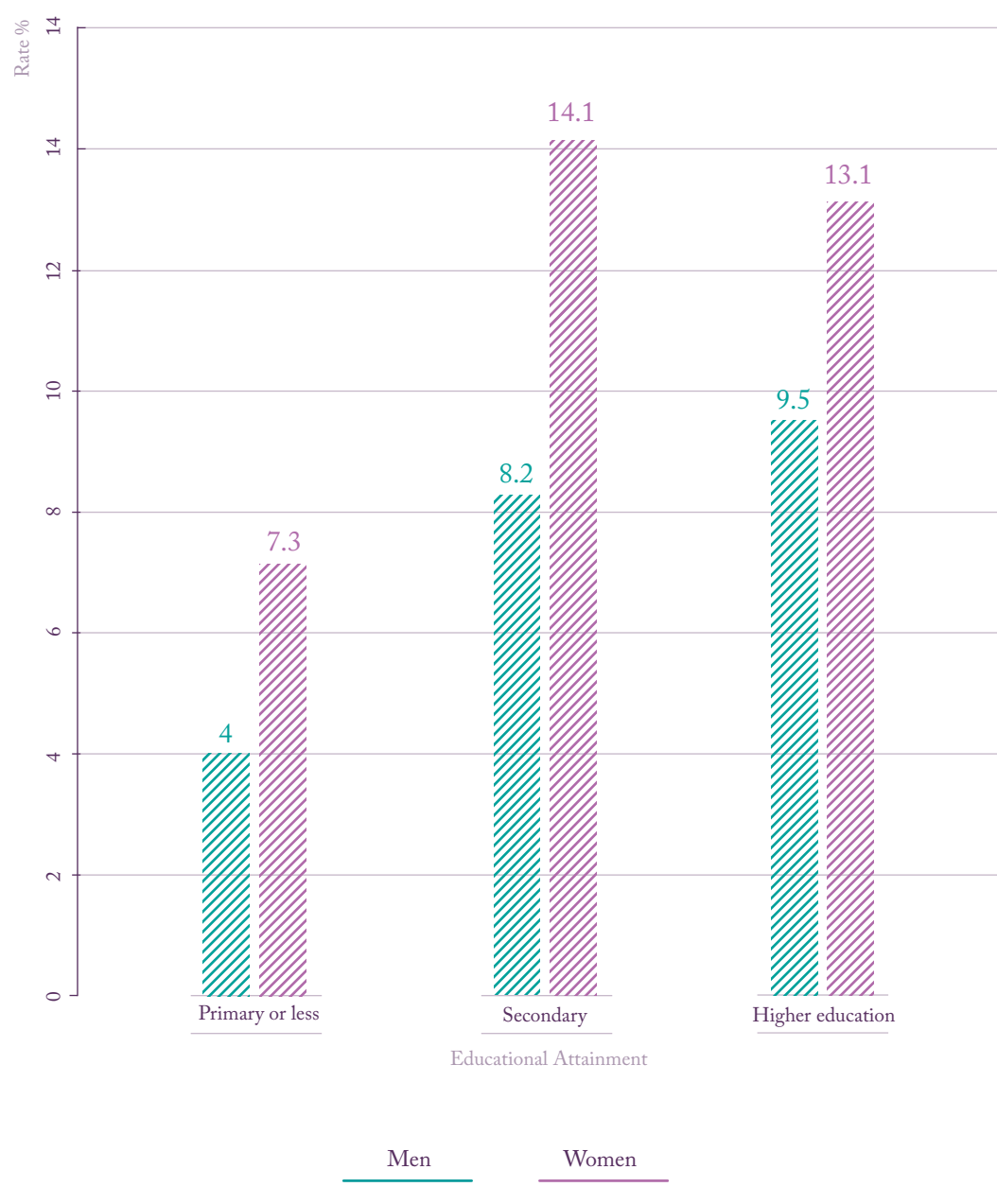


Figure 25. Unemployment rate by educational attainment and sex, 2017.

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

For each age group, women's unemployment rates are higher. The unemployment rate by age group is shown in Table 2. For the age group of 18-28, the rate is 73.8 per cent higher; for the age group 29-35, 97.1 per cent higher; and for the age group 36-54, 78 per cent higher. However, the most significant gap is in the first group, where women's unemployment rate is 9.1 percentage points higher than men's. Inversely to the participation rate, the unemployment rates decrease for both men and women for higher income deciles. However, for the lowest decile of income, the unemployment rate for women is 22.9 per cent and is 53.4 per cent higher than men's. This figure means that more than half of the most impoverished female population do not have a job despite having been looking for one. The difference between urban and rural rates is even larger. In rural areas women's unemployment rate is 9.8 per cent and is 245.5 per cent higher than men's, and the urban area is 12.7 per cent and is 47.7 per cent higher than that of men.

Table 2. The unemployment rate by age group

Unemployment rate % by age group		
Age group	Women	Men
10 - 17	13.8	9.5
18 - 28	21.4	12.3
29 - 35	12.3	6.2
36 - 54	8.4	4.7
55 or over	4.5	5.1

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

It is important to analyse the informal sector. The Colombian labour market has high levels of informality. The informality rate is the ratio between the people who have a job but are not paying for retirement nor saving for old age, and the overall population who has a job. Figure 26 presents the informality rate for urban areas from 2013 to 2018 by sex. The urban areas include 23 cities and metropolitan areas. The informality rate is persistently higher for women than for men. From 2014 to 2016, the informality rate grew slowly for men, but the informality rate for women increased and then decreased significantly, maintaining itself at over 50 per cent. This gap has decreased two percent-age points when compared to the rate in 2013 and 2019.

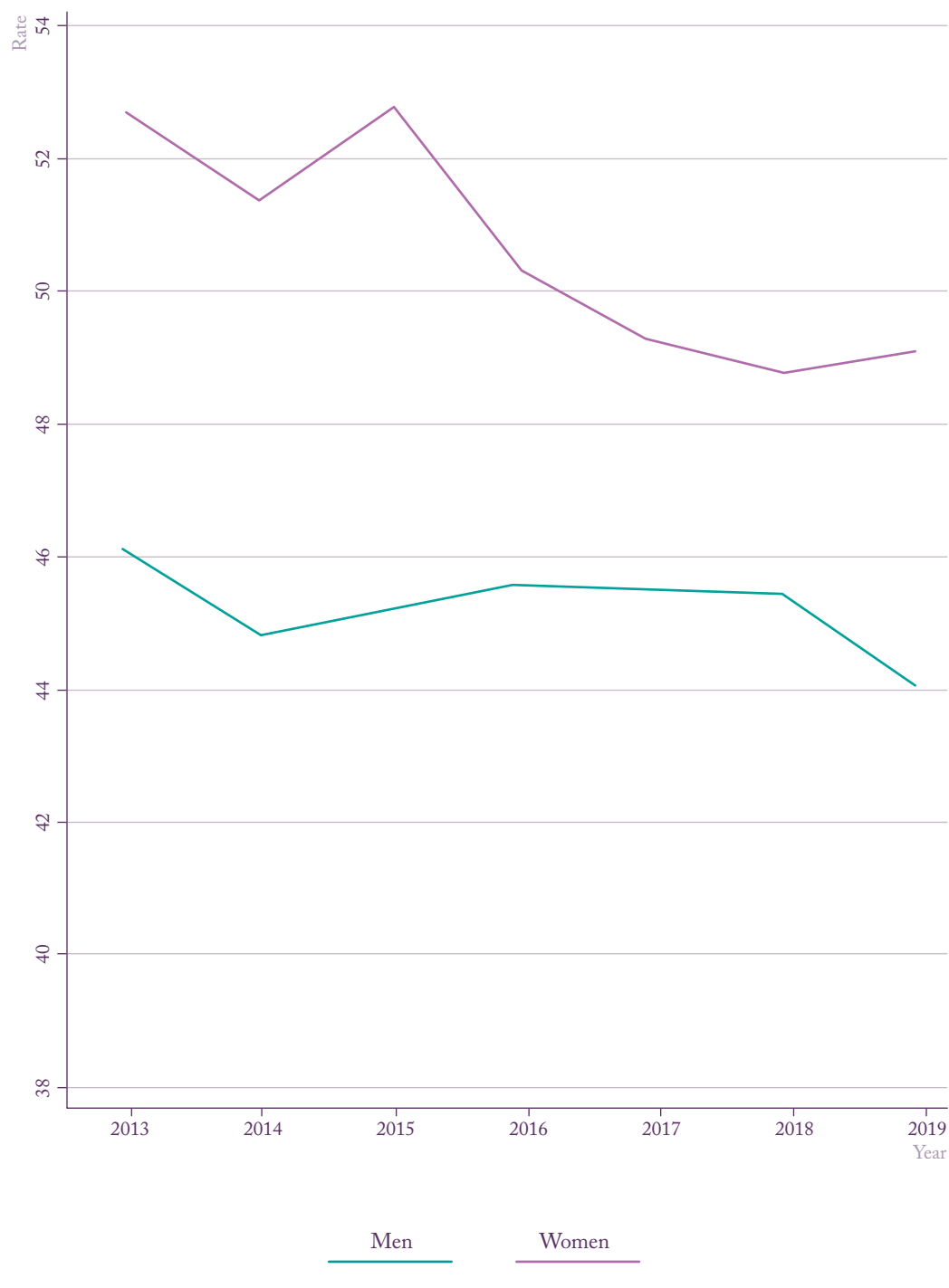


Figure 26. Informality rate by sex for urban areas, 2013-2018.

Source: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE).

Figure 26 shows the informality rate for Colombia and other Latin American countries. Measuring informality is complicated, especially when informal activities are also illegal. In developed and wealthy countries, the informality rates are low, but in developing countries, the informal sector is so large that it cannot be measured appropriately. This is the reason why these figures must be understood as approximations of the real data and why only Latin American countries are selected for international comparisons.

Figure 27 shows that Colombia's female informality rate is between Peru and Ecuador's rates, and Argentina and Brazil's rates. However, Colombia's female informality rate is closer to Ecuador and Peru's, with the highest rates. The figure for the rates in these three countries is between 60 per cent and 70 per cent, which is high by international standards. In contrast, although male informality rates are lower than female informality rates, Colombia has the second-highest male informality rate in the pool of Latin American countries. This result is explained by the fact that Peru's female informality rate was very high, but their male informality rate is lower than the Colombian rate.

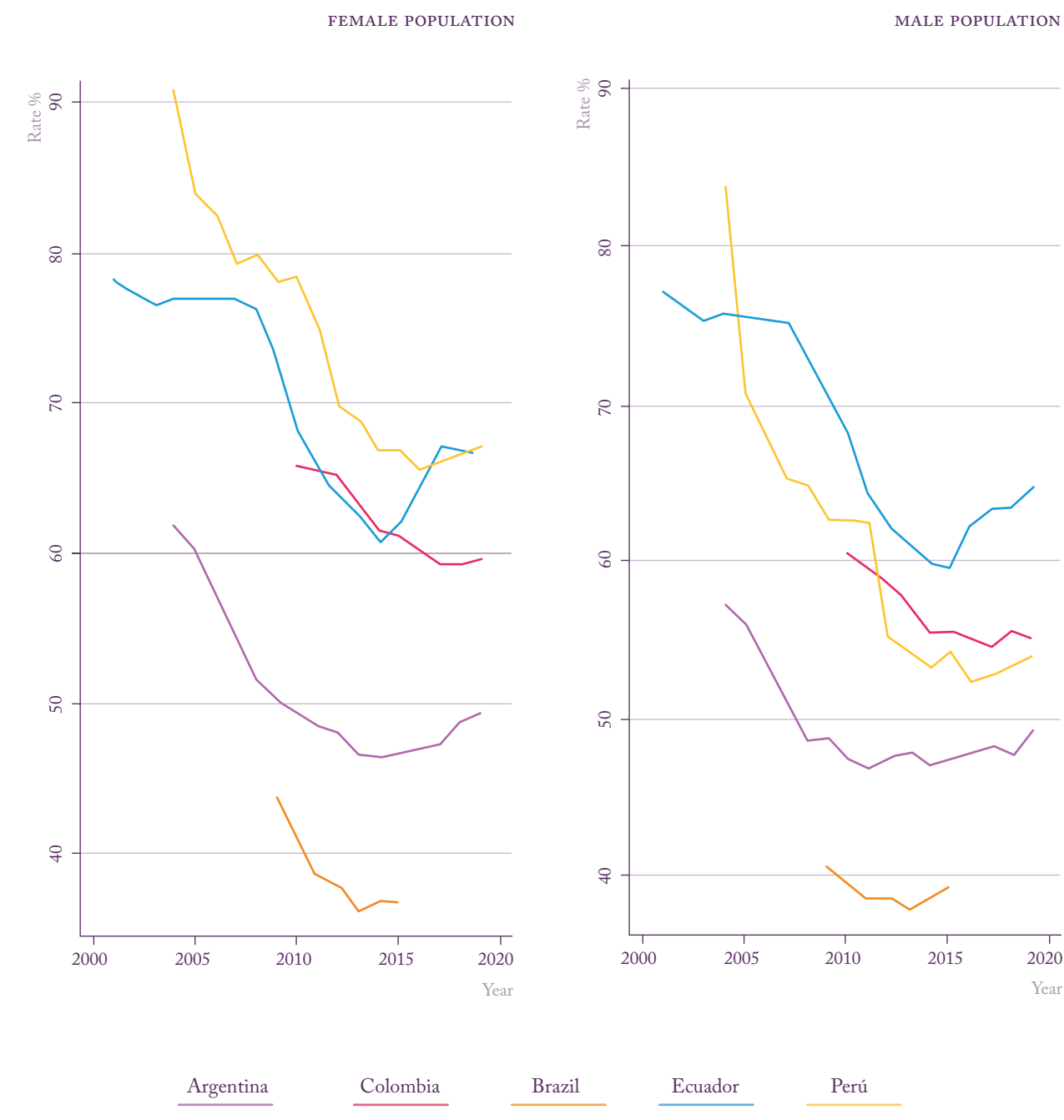


Figure 27. Informality rate % (Latin America).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

Figure 28 presents the gender gap for this index. As analysed previously, Peru has the largest gender gap in the pool of the countries analysed. Nevertheless, Colombia has the second-largest gap, the difference being almost 10 percentage points. Colombia's gender gap in informality rates is very similar to Ecuador's, while in Argentina, the gender gap is close to zero.

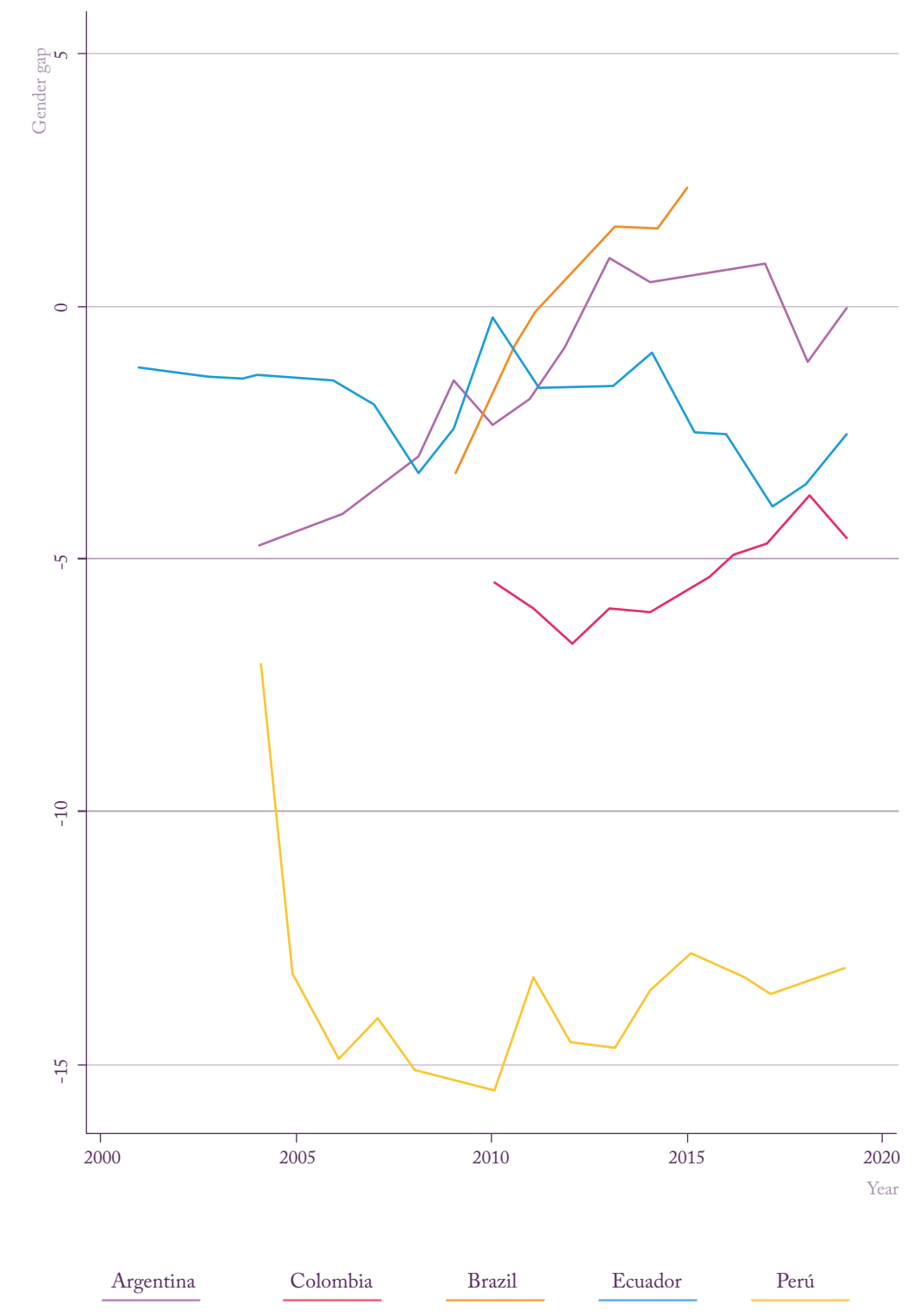


Figure 28. Gender gap in informality rate % (Latin America).

Source: Based on data from The World Bank. World Bank Open Data.

The informality rate by age groups in Colombia is presented in Table 3. The informality rate is higher for women only for age groups 36-54 and 55 and over; the first one is higher by 4.5 per cent, and the second one by 6.6 per cent compared to the rate for men. However, for lower age groups, the informality rate is higher for men in age groups 18-28 and 29-39; the first one is 5.1 per cent higher, and the second is 0.2 per cent higher.

Table 3. The informality rate % by age groups

Age groups	Women	Men
10 - 17	64.6	71.1
18 - 28	58.1	61.1
29 - 35	52.4	52.6
36 - 54	60.8	58.2
55 or over	75.8	71.1

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

By educational level, the differences are more significant (see Table 4). For secondary education, women's informality rate is 61.4 per cent higher, and the gap for the same educational level is 26.5 percentage points. Nevertheless, at higher education level, the informality rate is slightly higher for men.

Table 4. The informality rate by educational attainment

Education Level	Women	Men
Primary	89.8	82.4
Secondary	69.6	43.1
Higher education	29.8	30.4

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firm.

In urban areas, the informality rate for men and women is 53.2 per cent and 56.4 per cent, while in rural areas, the informality rates are 81.5 and 84.7 per cent. Similarly, for the lowest decile of income, the informality rate for men and women is 80.6 per cent and 80.9 per cent, while for the highest decile of income, the informality rate is 27.5 per cent and 26 per cent.

Besides educational level, age group, area, and income decile, it is crucial to determine which economic sectors have the highest rates of informality. Figure 29 shows this indicator for 10 different sectors: the real estate sector; agriculture, cattle, fishing, and forestry sectors; the commercial sector; the construction sector; mining and quarrying;

manufacturing, financial intermediation; social services; provision of public goods; and the transport sector. In six sectors, the informality rate is higher for women: social services; manufacturing; mining and quarrying; the commercial sector; agriculture, cattle, fishing, and forestry; and real estate.

The most significant gender gaps in informality are in the real estate sector, with 23 percentage points and the social services sector, with 18 percentage points. However, the most considerable gap is found in the construction sector, where the informality rate is higher for men with a gap of 46 percentage points.

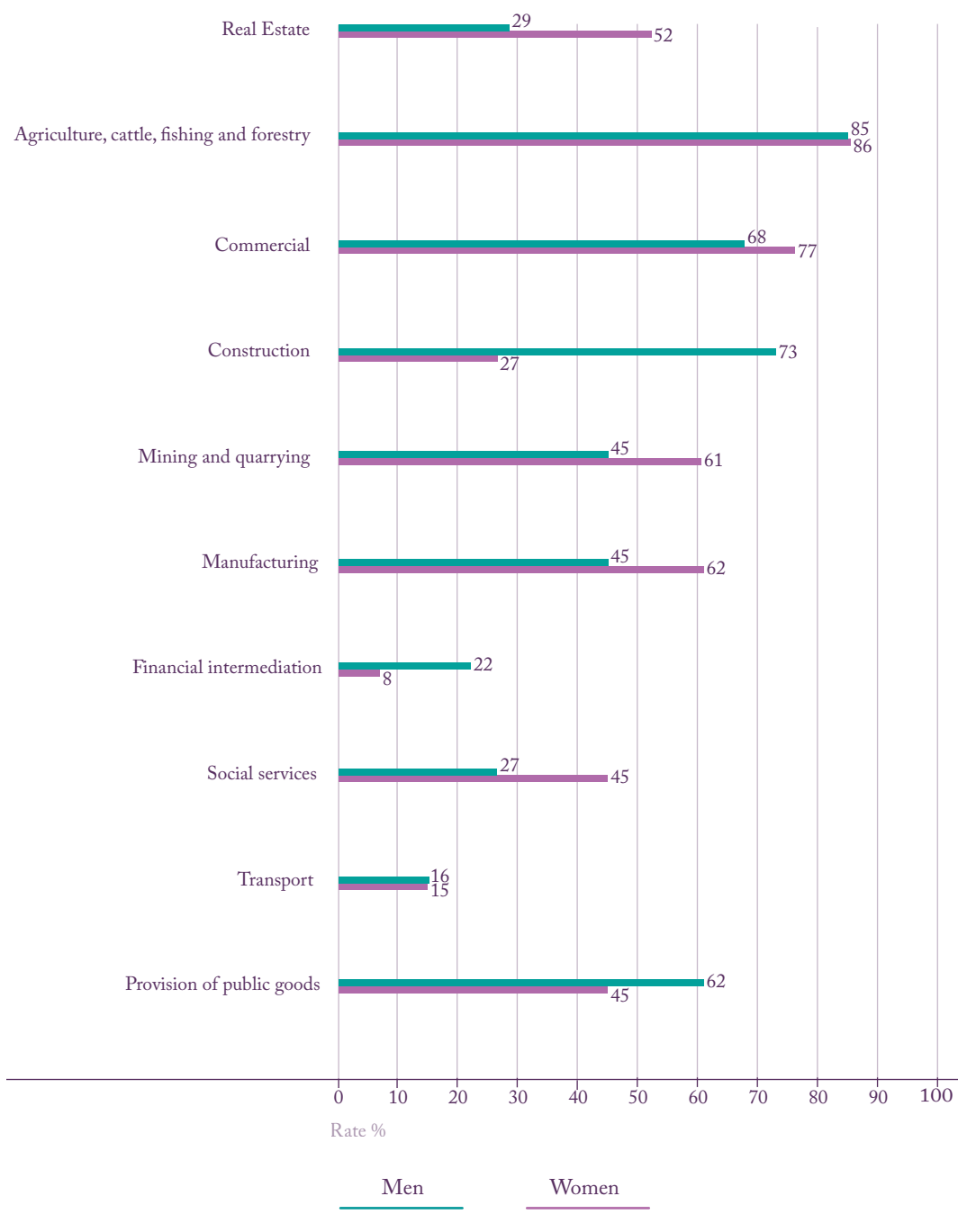


Figure 29. Informality rate by economic sector and sex, 2017

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

Figure 30 shows the informality rate by labour market status in 2017. Unlike the differentiation by sector, the informality rate is higher for men in every occupation. However, the gaps between men and women in these occupations are minimal. The most significant informality rates for women are found in self-employed people, with a rate of 87.1 per cent, bosses or employers, with a rate of 72.8 per cent, and day labourers, with a rate of 72.6 per cent. The gaps for these occupations are 0.1, 2.2, and 14.8 percentage points.

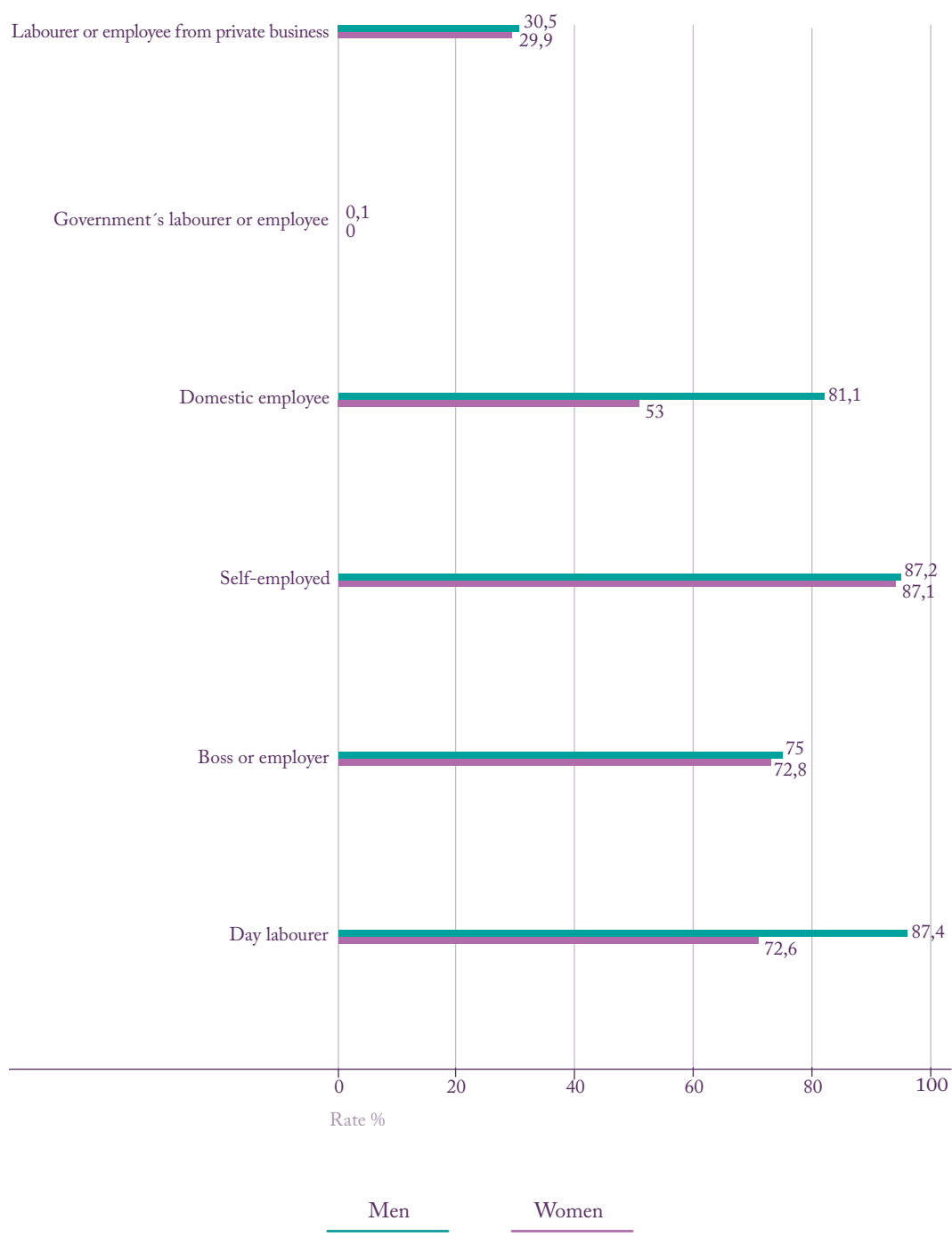


Figure 30. Informality rate by occupation and sex, 2017

Source: Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequal consulting firms.

1.3. Care Economy

The care economy is defined as the unpaid work linked to home maintenance activities, care for other people in the household, and the sustaining of the paid labour force. Given that these activities take place inside the household and are consumed or enjoyed by the same household, they do not have direct monetary retribution. However, these activities are the base of a prosperous economy and are of great economic importance (Ministerio de Salud y Protección Social, 2020). The inclusion of the care economy in the national accounts is established in the Colombian law in the second article of Law 1413 of 2010. The establishment of this law was fundamental to recognising the unpaid work done mostly by women in Colombian society and their contribution to the national accounts and the economy.

The Administrative Department of National Statistics (DANE) measured the care economy through The National Survey on the Use of Time (ENUT). Although two states out of 32 are excluded from the sample, the survey is representative of the population that is 10-years or older at a national level. The ENUT divides the activities into three main groups: work included in the national accounts, work not included in the national accounts, and personal activities. Table 1 presents the activities included in each group.

Table 5. ENUT Activity groups

Work included in the National Accounting System	Activities related to the production of goods and services for the market, production of goods and services generated by the government and non-profit institutions that are useful for homes.
	Primary production activities for self-consumption, self-construction, water carrying, firewood collecting, clothing production.
	Related activities such as job searching and transfers (such as taking someone or something from one place to another—taking kids to school or taking the elderly to the hospital for check-ups) related to work activities carried out in the National accounting system.
Work not included in the National Accounting System	Unpaid domestic service activities at home
	Unpaid care service activities at home
	Volunteer work
	Direct: unpaid domestic and care services for other homes and the community
	Indirect: services provided through non-profit institutions that benefit homes
Personal activities	Related activities such as transfers related to work activities not carried out in the National Accounting System
	Study, social, cultural and sports activities
	Related activities such as transfer related to personal activities

Source: DANE (2018). Boletín técnico. Encuesta nacional del uso del tiempo (2016-2017)

Figure 31 shows the percentage of people that dedicated time to the three activities in 2012- 2013 and 2016-2017. In 2012-2013, 57 per cent of men stated that they spent time doing National Accounting System activities, and only 34.6 per cent of women stated spending time on these activities. The figures for the second period are similar: 55.8 per cent of men and 34.8 per cent of women spent their time on activities included in the National Accounting System. Men spend more time on these activities than women.

The activities that are not included in the National Accounting System are unpaid or non-profit. Figure 31 shows that in 2012-2013, while 89.4 per cent of women reported spending time on these activities, only 63.1 per cent of men did. These results were very similar in 2016-2017: while 89 per cent of women reported spending time on these activities, only 62 per cent of men did the same.

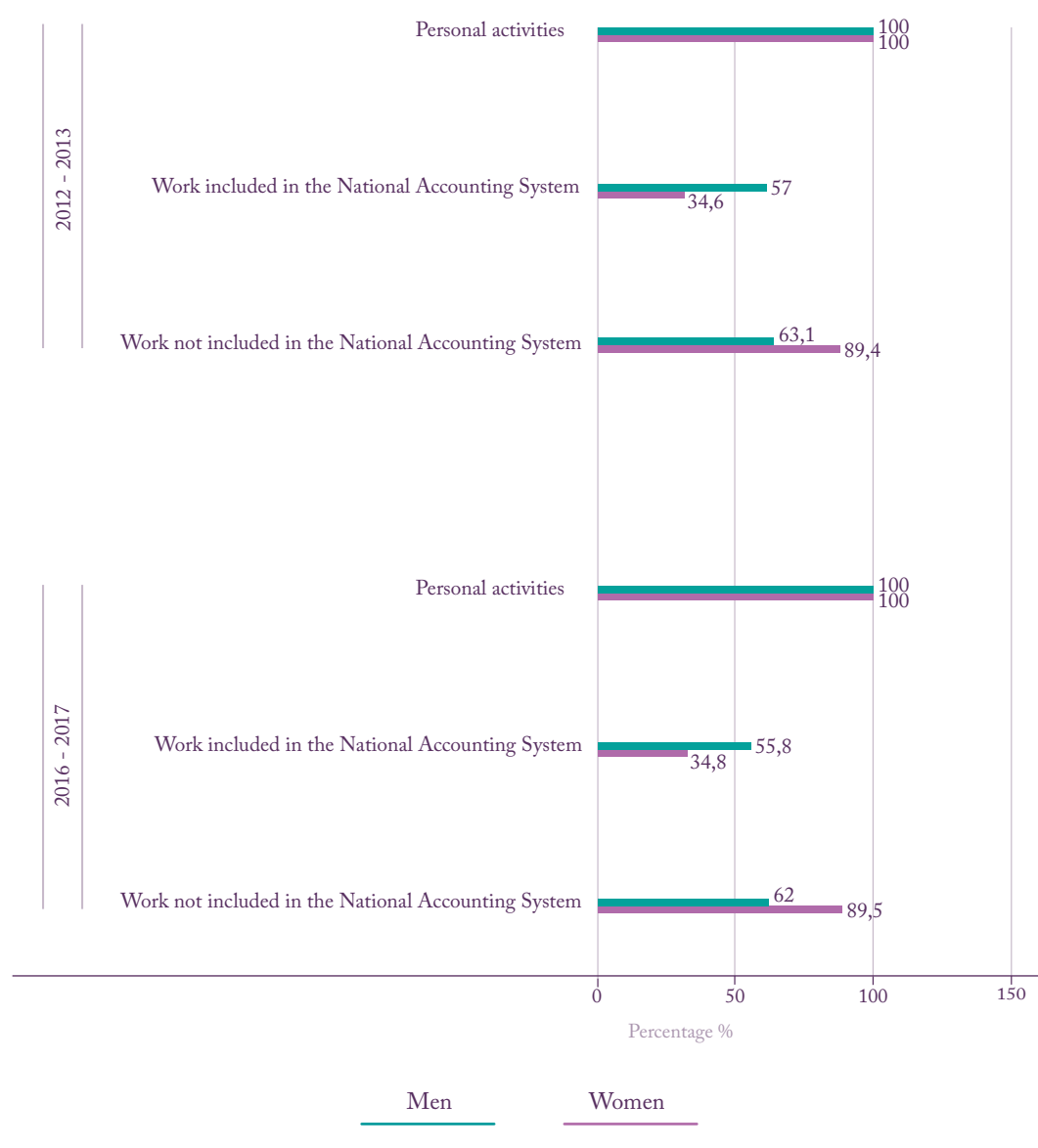


Figure 31. Time on personal activities and work included and not included in the National Accounting System 2012-2013 and 2016-2017 (in %)

Source: DANE (2018). Boletín técnico. Encuesta nacional del uso del tiempo (2016-2017)

The gap between the percentage of men and women who reported spending time in activities included in the National Accounting System is lower than the gap between the percentage of men and women who reported spending time in activities not included in the National Accounting System for both periods. The gaps for activities included in the National Accounting System are 22.4 percentage points and 21 percentage points for each period, while the gap for activities not included in the National Accounting System is 26.3 and 27.5 percentage points. This means that fewer men are doing activities not included in the National Accounting System than women. Furthermore, the percentage of men who stated spending time on activities not included in the National Accounting System decreased by 1.1 percentage points from the first period to the second, while the percentage of women who stated spending time on activities included in the National Accounting System increased by 0.1 percentage points.

Figures 32 and 33 show the percentage of women and men who spend their time on activities not included in the National Accounting System. Some of the activities included in this category are transfers, passive care, volunteering, physical care, care activities, home shopping and administration, cleaning, maintaining and repairing the home, and food supply. Figures 32 and 33 show that for no period or activity men dedicated more time than women. For 2012-2013, the highest gender gaps in care activities are in household food supply and cleaning, maintenance and repairing activities, followed by wardrobe maintenance and passive care. While 72.4 per cent of women spend time on food supply activities, only 22.1 per cent of men do the same.

These figures mean that the percentage of women doing this activity is 227.6 per cent higher than the percentage of men. Similarly, as shown in Figure 33 below, while 68.5 per cent of women spend time on cleaning, maintenance and repairing activities, only 33.4 per cent of men do the same. In the same way, this means that the percentage of women doing this activity is 105.1 per cent higher than the percentage of men. The gender gaps in these four activities are 50.3 percentage points, 35.1 percentage points, 31.1 percentage points, and 20.1 percentage points, respectively. On the other hand, the lowest gender gaps are in home shopping and administration activities, transfers and volunteering, with gaps of 4.6 percentage points, 3.3 percentage points and 1.5 percentage points.

² Transfer includes activities that involve taking someone or something from one place to another; it could be taking kids to school or taking the elderly to the hospital for checkups. Passive care is looking after someone, and it is common when the person that needs to be looked after is vulnerable because of a condition or age. Volunteering is a non-profit activity that intends to benefit society, a group of people, or even a person. Support to household members could be listening or giving advice to someone in the household who needs it. Physical care can involve giving affection or taking care of someone's health. Care activities with children under five years old can include preparing their food, feeding, changing diapers, putting them to sleep and supplying their needs. Home shopping and administration can refer to going grocery shopping or the action of going to buy electronic appliances. Cleaning, maintaining and repairing activities for the home involves doing the dishes, sweeping, ironing, or fixing, something that is broken. Wardrobe maintenance could be going to buy clothes for household members or repairing ripped clothes. Finally, food supply can mean cooking for the household.

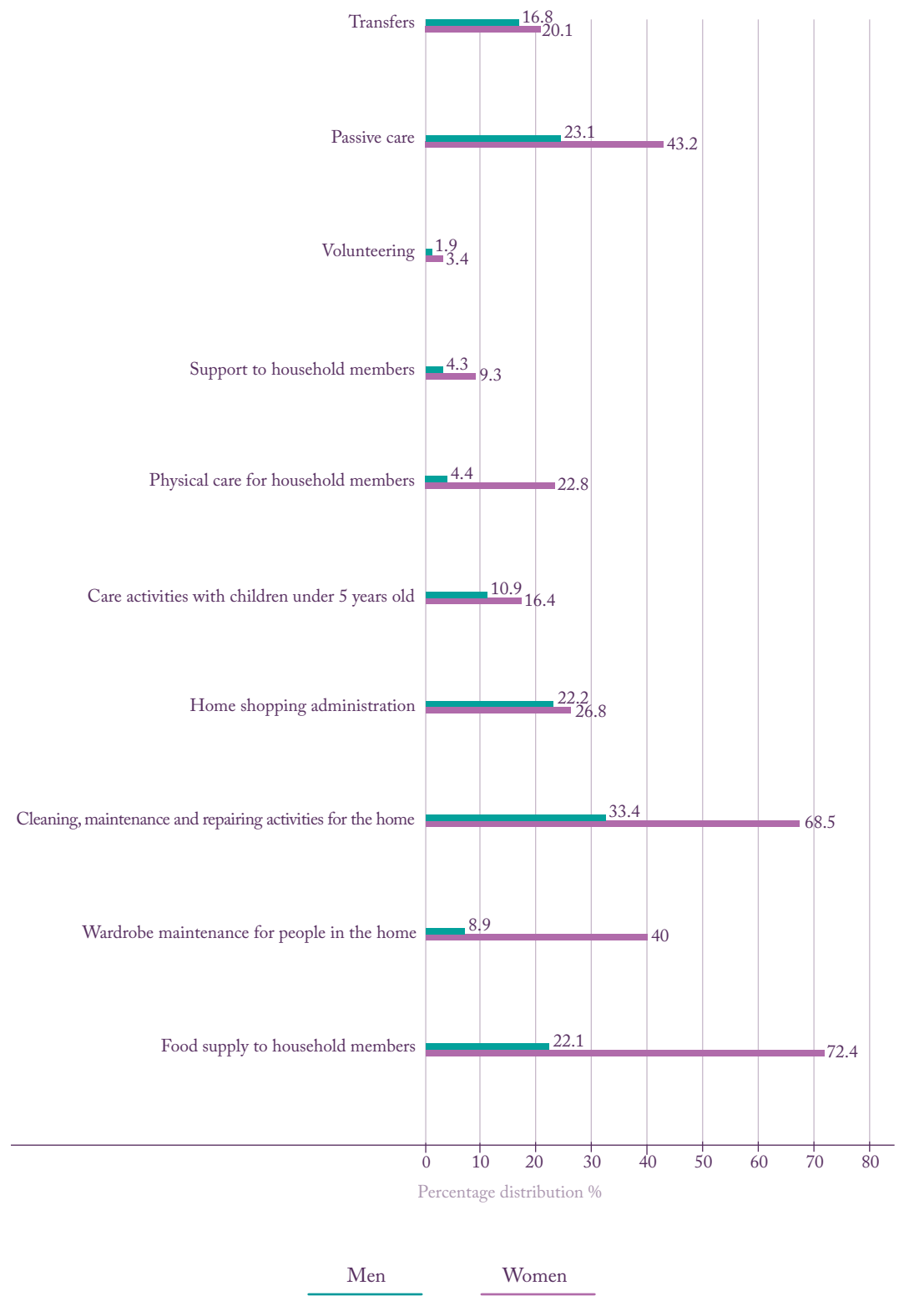


Figure 32. Time spent on activities not included in the National Accounting System, by activity (%), 2012-2013
Source: DANE (2018). Boletín técnico. Encuesta nacional del uso del tiempo (2016-2017)

In 2016-2017 the highest gender gaps remained in the same activities, but the gaps lowered slightly. 74.4 per cent of women spent time in food supply activities, and only 24.9 per cent of men did the same; and while 68.9 per cent of women spent time

in cleaning, maintenance, and repairing activities for the home, only 34.2 per cent of men did so. In activities where the gaps are not that large, there are still significant inequalities. For example, in passive care and physical care for household members, the percentage of women that spent time doing these activities was 119.9 per cent and 550 per cent higher than the percentage of men.

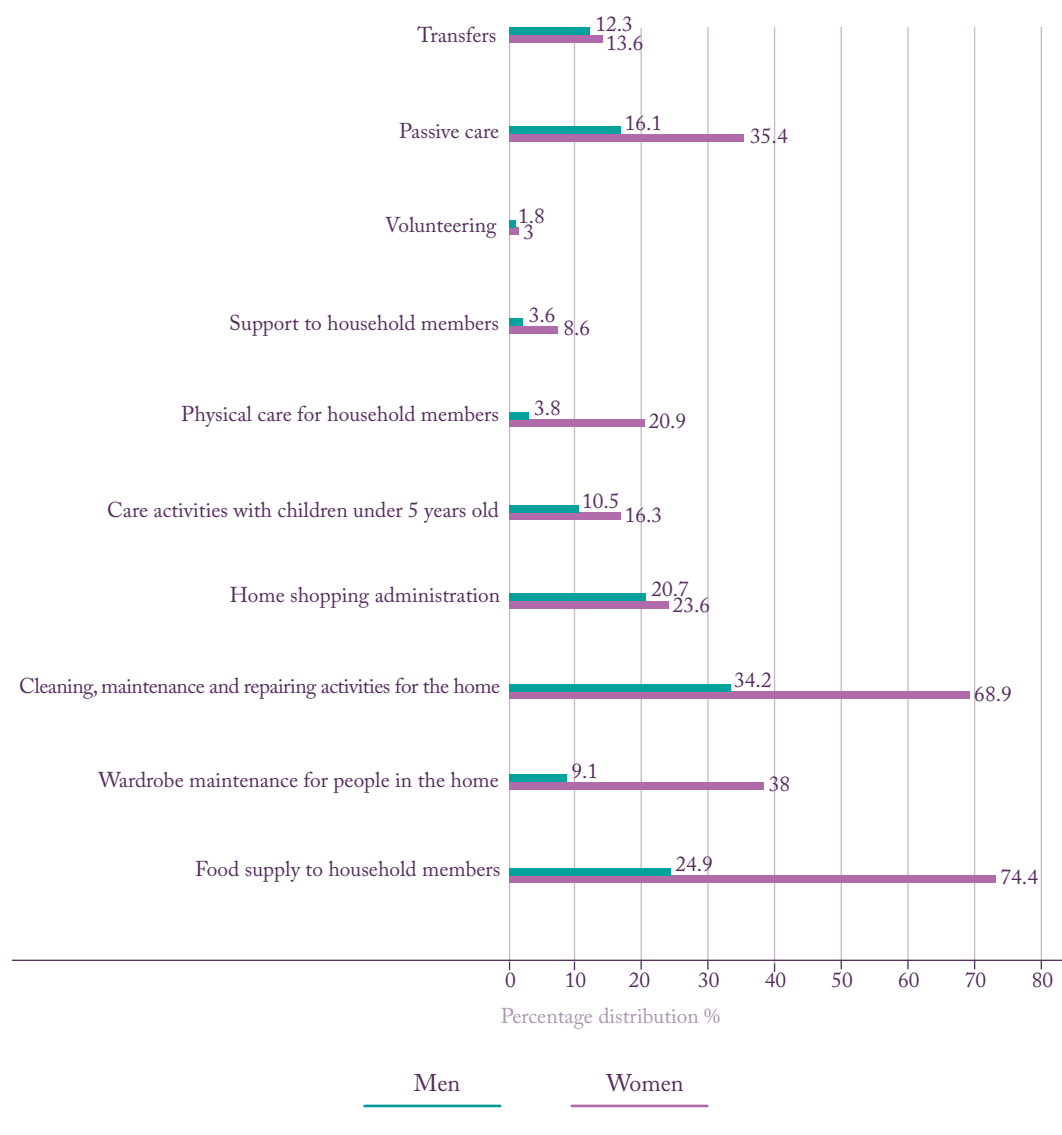


Figure 33. Time spent on activities not included in the National Accounting System, by activity (%), 2016-2017
Source: Based on information from DANE (2018). Boletín técnico. Encuesta nacional del uso del tiempo (2016-2017)

The figures describe the care economy in Colombia. As shown, most of it is done by women, and the changes between the two periods studied are insignificant. Although Law 1413 of 2010 is essential in recognising unpaid work as a contribution made by women to the economy, it is insufficient for achieving equality in terms of opportunity cost—time that women spend working in unpaid activities is time they are not investing in working in paid jobs in the labour market. The problem is not that

women are doing unpaid work; the problem is that most of the unpaid activities are done mostly by women. Because these activities cannot be postponed, women cannot spend time doing something that is monetarily beneficial. Besides being unfair and making women less competitive in the labour market or even impeding their participation in it, these circumstances threaten women's economic independence and their decisions over time. Moreover, even though multilateral and statistical institutions make the effort to highlight the importance of unpaid work, a cultural change is necessary to change this clear disadvantage women suffer.

The last indicator is the wage gap, defined as the difference between male and female labour income measured hourly or monthly. EconEstudio (2018) affirms that when factors such as a higher level of education, more experience, or a higher number of weekly hours worked are considered, the part of the wage gap explained by social discrimination or stereotypes is small. However, these observable variables are also a result of an unequal system and an unequal society.

Figure 34 shows the monthly and hourly labour income by sex in 2017. Differentiating only by hours worked, men earned COP\$193,000 more than women. That means that women earned 17 per cent less money than men monthly. The hours worked refers to hours worked in paid employment or in remunerated work. In contrast, according to hourly labour income by sex, the difference was only 2 per cent higher for men. This section also studies this indicator in light of the various categories considered in the previous indicators studied.

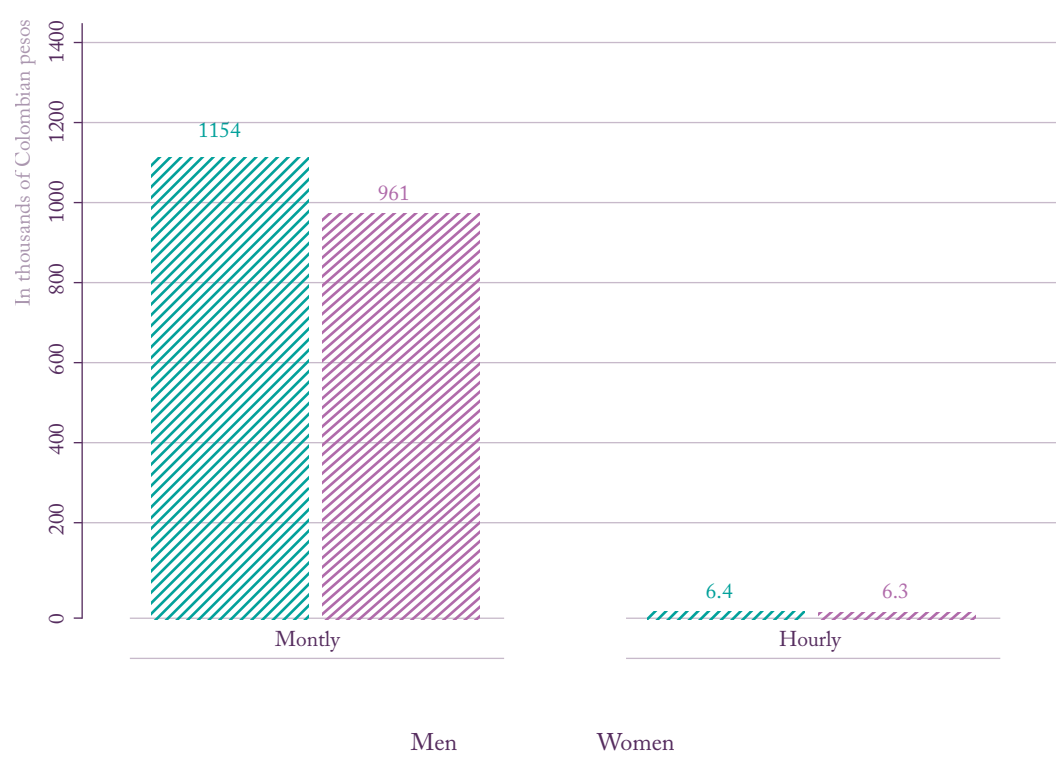


Figure 34. Monthly and hourly labour income by sex, 2017

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

Figure 35 shows the hourly wage gap by educational level. It suggests that, with a primary educational level, men earned 22.9 per cent more than women; with a secondary education level, men earned 18.6 per cent more than women did; and with a higher education level, men earned 16.9 per cent more than women.

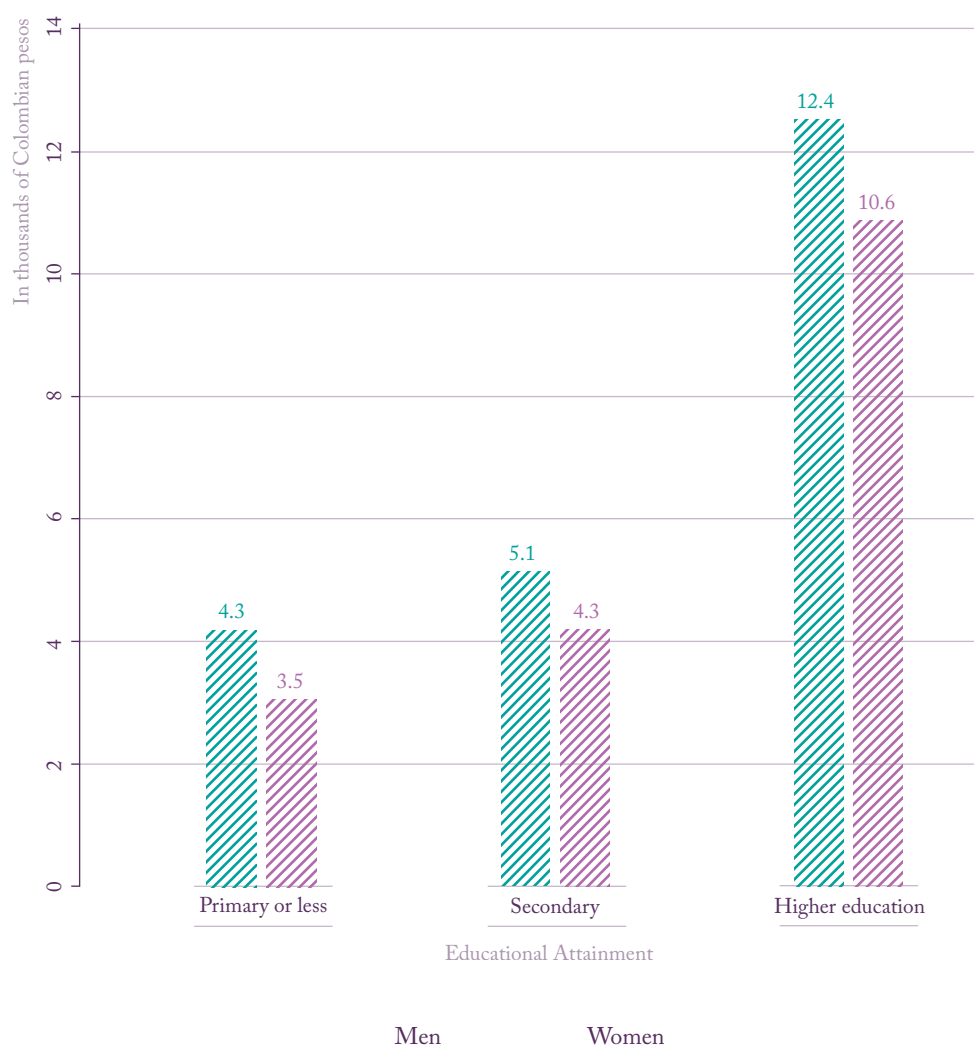


Figure 35. Hourly wage by educational attainment and sex, 2017

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

Separating the population by age, men earned 5.9 per cent and 10.2 per cent more than women for the age groups of 36-54 and 55 and older. They earned COP \$7.200 and COP \$6.500, while women of the same age group earn \$6.8 and 5.9 thousand pesos. However, in the age group of 29-35, women and men both earned 6.9 thousand pesos, and at the age of 18-28, women earned 5.3 thousand pesos hourly while men earned 5.2 thousand pesos hourly.

In both rural and urban areas, men earned more than women. However, this gap was larger in rural areas. In urban areas, men earned on average COP 6.900 hourly, and women earned COP \$6.600 thousand pesos hourly, while in rural areas, men earned

COP \$5.200 hourly, and women earned COP \$4.200 pesos hourly. These figures show that the wage gap was higher in rural areas. Alternatively, when wage gaps are studied by decile income, the most impoverished women earned 20 per cent more than the most impoverished men; women earned COP \$1.800 pesos hourly, and men earned COP \$1.500 pesos hourly. This result is inversed in the wealthier population, where men earned 9.6 per cent more than women: COP \$18.100 hourly, while women earned COP \$16.500 hourly.

Figure 36 shows the hourly wage by sector. The considered sectors are the same studied in the informality rate section. As shown, the sectors where the wage gap is higher coincided with the sectors in which men earned significantly more than women. These sectors are the provision of public goods where men earned 31.3 per cent more than women, and the construction sector where men earned 69.8 per cent more than women. However, in the social services sector, women earned 44.4 per cent more than men, and the wage gap in favour of women was 3.6 thousand pesos per hour. Similarly, in the real estate sector, women earned 31.1 per cent more than men, but the wage gap was not as high as the others mentioned above.

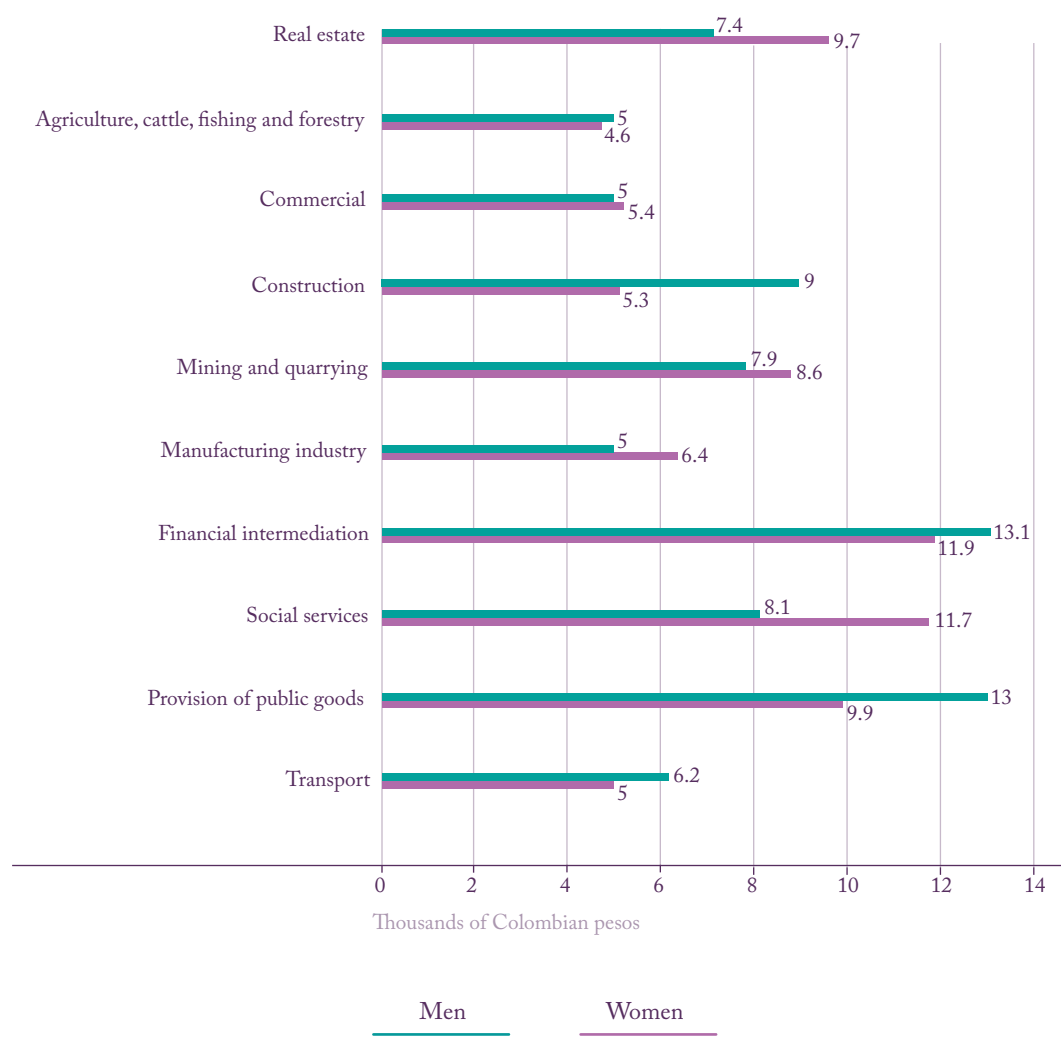


Figure 36. Hourly wage by sector and sex, 2017

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequal consulting firm.

Figure 37 shows the hourly wage by labour market role and sex in 2017. The results are like the study by sectors. The occupation for which the wage gap was higher for men was also the one in which men earned more. This was the case for the government's employees, where men earned 12.6 per cent more than women, and the wage gap was 2 thousand pesos hourly. In roles such as day labourers, boss or employer, self-employed, and domestic employees, women earned 19.4 per cent, 4.7 per cent, 10.6 per cent, and 27.5 per cent more than men, but the wage gap was lower than 1.2 thousand pesos hourly.

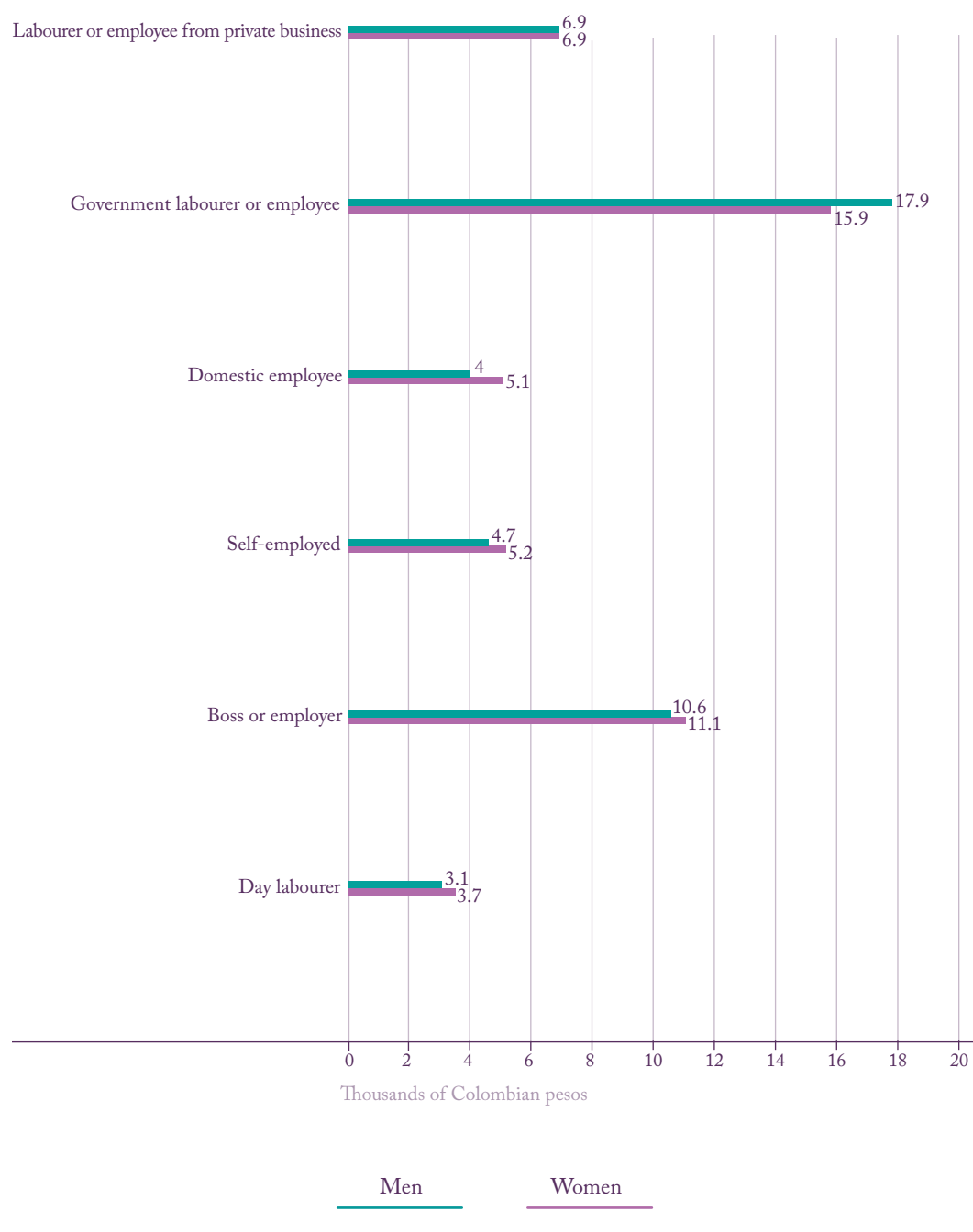


Figure 37. Hourly wage by occupation and sex, 2017.

Source: Iniciativa Público- Privada para Reducir las Brechas Económicas de Género en Colombia (2019) by EconEstudio and Aequales consulting firms.

1.4. Rural Women's Access to Land

In Latin America and the Caribbean there is insufficient up-to-date information on the rural population. Nevertheless, recent reports by UN Women (2018) based on the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO) Gender and Land Rights Database, present an approximate statistic on the historical gap between men and women in the rural world. According to this, only 12.8 per cent of rural women worldwide are landowners. The following table describes data on regional average land tenure among rural women. It shows that the Latin American and Caribbean region presents a higher number than the global and developing regions' averages (18.2 per cent).

Table 6. Regional averages of agricultural holders by sex

Regions	Pct Female holders	# Countries
Sub-Saharan Africa	15.4%	20
North America	15.4%	2
Latin America and the Caribbean	18.2%	20
Middle East/North Africa	4.9%	8
Central, East and South Asia	10.9%	14
Europe	27.8%	34
Oceania	9.6%	6
Global	12.8%	104
Developing regions only	12.1%	68

Source: FAO's Gender and Land Rights Database (2015)

In Colombia, according to DANE projections, it is estimated that 21.3 per cent of the female population lives in rural areas, and the rural population represents around 23.4 per cent, of which women make up 47.14 per cent. Of those women, according to data from the Directorate of Rural Women of the Ministry of Agriculture, 53.1 per cent are Indigenous, 46.4 per cent are Afro-descendants, 0.2 per cent are Palenqueras³, 0.1 per cent are Raizales⁴ and 0.1 per cent are Romani descendants (ROM). In addition, a high percentage of rural women (37.4 per cent) live in a condition of poverty, compared to a much lower percentage (12 per cent) of women who live in the cities in the same condition (Semana Rural, 2018).

According to the 2014 Agricultural National Census from DANE, only 38.6 per cent of rural women make production decisions individually or jointly, and only 21.9

³ Originally from San Basilio de Palenque, an ancient rural community founded by black slaves who fled Cartagena in the 16th century.

⁴ Afro-Caribbean ethnic group originating from the Archipelago of San Andrés, Providencia and Santa Catalina. The members of the community speak San Andrés Creole, a Creole language based on English.

per cent report land tenure (Semana Rural, 2018). It is worth noting that the Colombian armed conflict has had repercussions on the rural population, especially on rural women who, due to forced displacement, have lost their land and/or have taken on household leadership (FAO, 2020).

A persistent debate in the country is related to the laws, policies and institutions responsible for compensating inequalities that rural women have suffered historically. Some of the most relevant reforms are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Main rural reforms and their impacts in relation to rural women in Colombia

The 1961 agrarian reform law	Proposed a process of land redistribution, including expropriations of unexploited possessions and its re-assignment to family agricultural units first, and then to community enterprises. In 1970, a provision was made for the delivery of vacant land titles to settlers who occupied them, re-establishing family farming units. Until 1986, only 11.2 per cent of the successful bidders were women.
The 1988 agrarian reform law	Recognised for the first-time women's right to land. Since 1994, a land redistribution programme through the market, emphasises peasants' individual access to the land and on the joint titling of couples, prioritising the female head of household. People displaced by the armed conflict are granted subsidies of up to 70 per cent of the property value. The allocation of land to couples in the period 1995 to 1998 was 57.1 per cent of the total beneficiaries, women represented 13.4 per cent of the beneficiaries, while 29.5 per cent were men.
The 2007 Rural Development Statute	Recognises special land access rights for peasant women and men, Indigenous, afro-communities, and ethnic minorities, prioritising people with limited resources and rural women who are heads of household. It also makes special provision for joint titling on behalf of spouses or permanent partners. However, and despite its importance, the Law by itself has not been able to guarantee effective access to land ownership for women. Its impact has been very limited by deep-rooted cultural patterns that benefit men in inheritance practices, in the land market, and in access to credit and technical assistance.

Source: Based on Deere, D.C. y León, M. (2000). Género, propiedad y empoderamiento. Tierra, Estado y Mercado en América Latina and FAO's Gender and Land Rights Database – Colombia (2020)

Recent reports from the Government show that between January and May 2019, 832 women had benefited from land allocation and formalisation processes. The 2022 goal is for 12,142 women to benefit from land tenure rights (DNP, 2020).

1.5. Leadership Positions in Business and Management

The Global Gender Gap Report 2020 prepared by the World Economic Forum considers economic participation and opportunity as one important area of concern about gender parity, since this dimension has regressed. The Forum reported an average gap of 57.8 per cent, which in time represents 257 years to achieve gender parity, compared to 202 years in the 2019 report (WEC, 2020).

One of the manifestations of this gap is the low participation of women in management and decision-making positions. According to Aequales (2019) quoting Deloitte (2018) in the Latin American context, women occupy only 7 per cent of management positions. In this section, we will present the results from the “Ranking Par” measurement from 2016 until 2019 developed by the consulting firm Aequales. According to this index for 2019 the gender composition of companies in Colombia was 44.9 per cent women and 55.1 per cent men, nevertheless, women’s position in leadership roles in the private sector continues to be lower. For 2019, women on boards represented 24.6 per cent and at the first level (CEO or company equivalent) 35.4 per cent (see Table 1).

Table 8. Positions occupied by men and women in the private sector

2019	F	M
Boards	24.6%	75.4%
First Level (CEO or highest level in the company)	35.4%	64.6%
Second Level (Manager and similar)	41.2%	58.8%
Third Level (Headquarters, sub manager and similar)	47.5%	52.5%
Fourth Level (Coordinators, analysts and similar)	50.5%	49.5%
Fifth Level (Administrative staff under forth level positions)	49.9%	50.1%
2018	F	M
Boards	30.4%	69.6%
First Level (CEO or highest level in the company)	19.7%	80.3%
Second Level (Manager and similar)	44.8%	55.2%
Third Level (Headquarters, sub manager and similar)	47.7%	52.3%
Fourth Level (Coordinators, analysts and similar)	45.1%	54.9%
Fifth Level (Administrative staff under forth level positions)	47.8%	52.2%
2017	F	M
Boards	35.4%	64.6%
First Level (CEO or highest level in the company)	36.2%	63.8%
Second Level (Manager and similar)	43.0%	57.0%
Third Level (Headquarters, sub manager and similar)	43.8%	56.2%
Fourth Level (Coordinators, analysts and similar)	49.5%	50.5%
Fifth Level (Administrative staff under forth level positions)	56.5%	43.5%
2016*	F	M
First Level (CEO or highest level in the company)	35.2%	64.8%
Second Level (Manager and similar)	42.0%	58.0%
Third Level (Headquarters, sub manager and similar)	42.5%	57.5%
Fourth Level (Coordinators, analysts and similar)	45.2%	54.8%

*For this year there is no data on fifth level.

Source: Aequales “Ranking Par” Reports 2019, 2018, 2017 and 2016

02

Politics

2.1. Participation and Representation in Electoral Bodies

Figure 38 compares the electoral potential by states in Colombia. It shows that parity between men and women exists regarding the number of people who can potentially vote in each department. It is important to note that the term “electoral potential” does not correspond to the total number of people who exercise their right to vote but to the total number of people who are eligible to cast a vote according to the Constitution of 1991.



Figure 38. Electoral potential by sex, 2019

Source: Based on Registraduría Nacional del Estado Civil (2018) and DANE (2018).

Women make up most of the Colombian population. This is reflected by the fact that the electoral potential is larger for women than for men. However, it is important to distinguish between effective and potential votes when studying democratic participation, as not all potential voters vote. The information obtained from the Congressional elections of 2018 shows that even though there were 18,606,307 women eligible to vote, only 9,619,175 exercised their rights (51.7 per cent of the total number of registered women). Similarly, of 17,419,011 men eligible to vote, only 7,825,954 men voted (44.9 per cent of the total number of registered men). These numbers show that within each group of potential voters, women vote more than men. This information is illustrated in Figure 39.

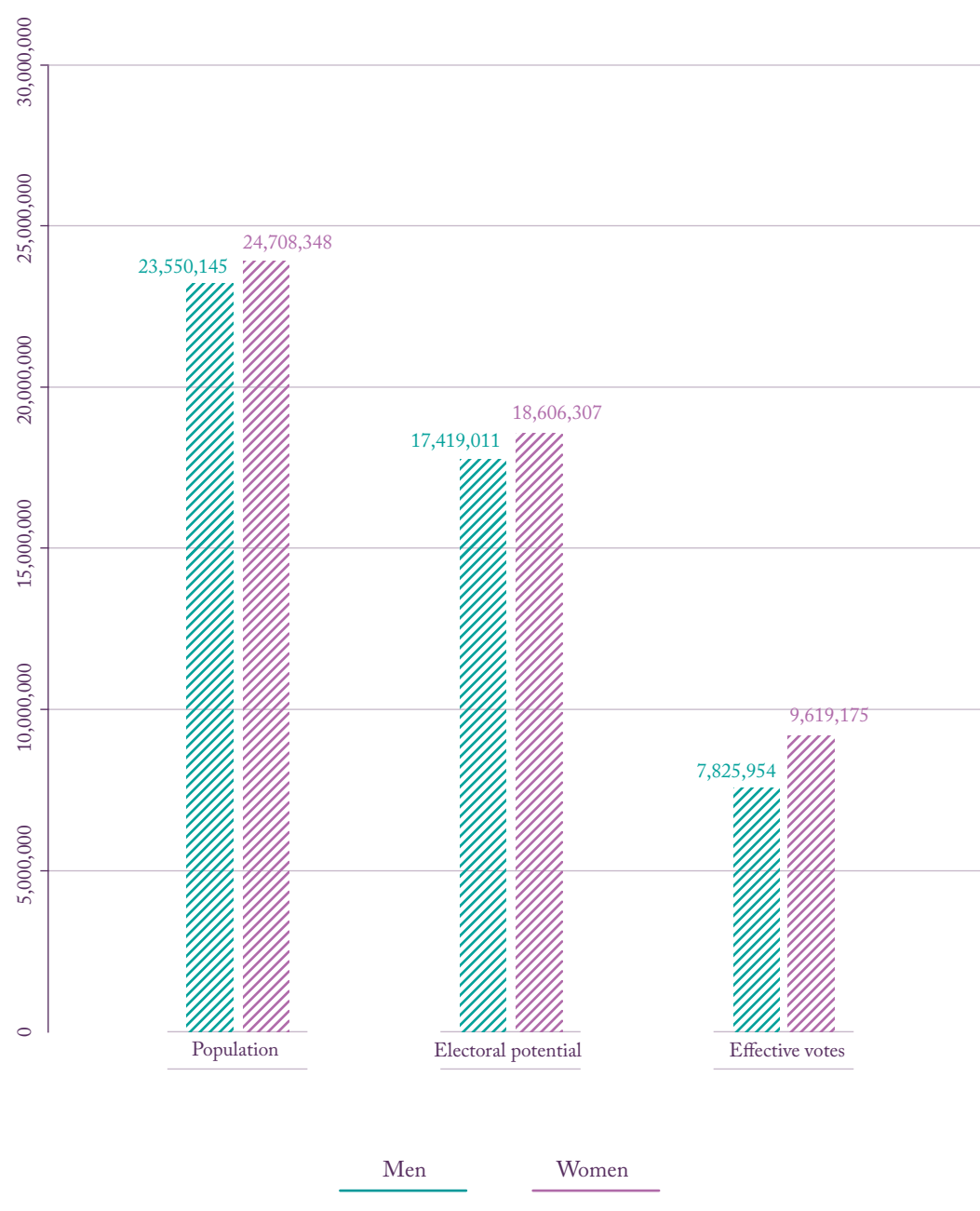


Figure 39. Congressional elections, 2018.

Source: Based on the information from Registraduría Nacional del Estado Civil (2018) and DANE (2018)

Despite the larger number of women voters relative to men, women’s political representation is considerably lower. Figure 40 presents the number of candidates and elected members of Congress.

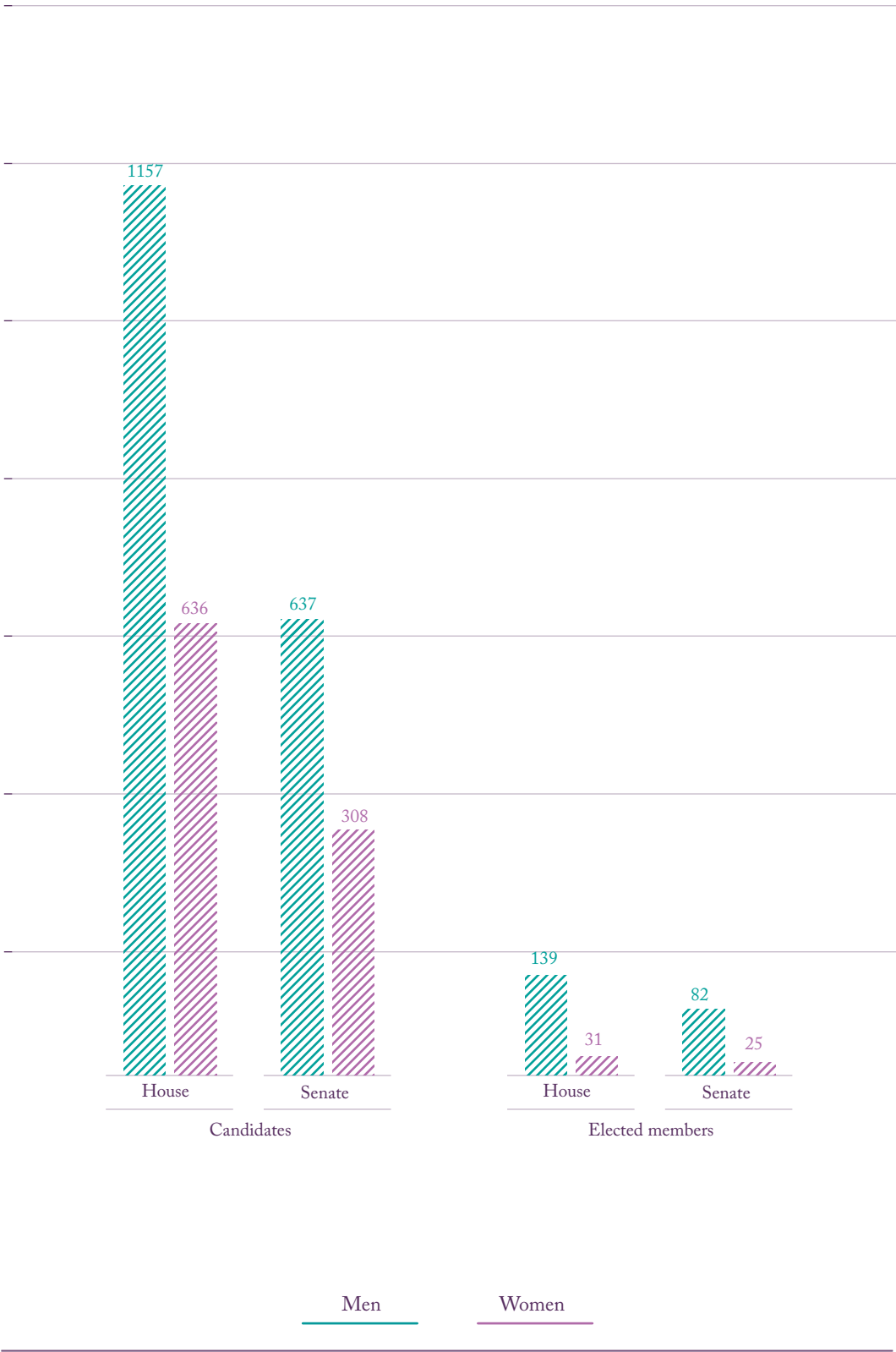


Figure 40. Number of candidates and elected members for House of Representatives and Senate by sex, 2018. Source: Transparencia por Colombia. Análisis de Cuentas Claras. (2014).

For the House of Representatives, in the 2018 elections the number of male candidates was almost two times higher than the number of female candidates: there were 1,157 male candidates and 636 female candidates. Likewise, for the Senate, there were 637 male candidates and 308 female candidates. Consequently, in the House of Representatives only 31 women were elected versus 139 men, and in the Senate 25 were elected against 82 men.

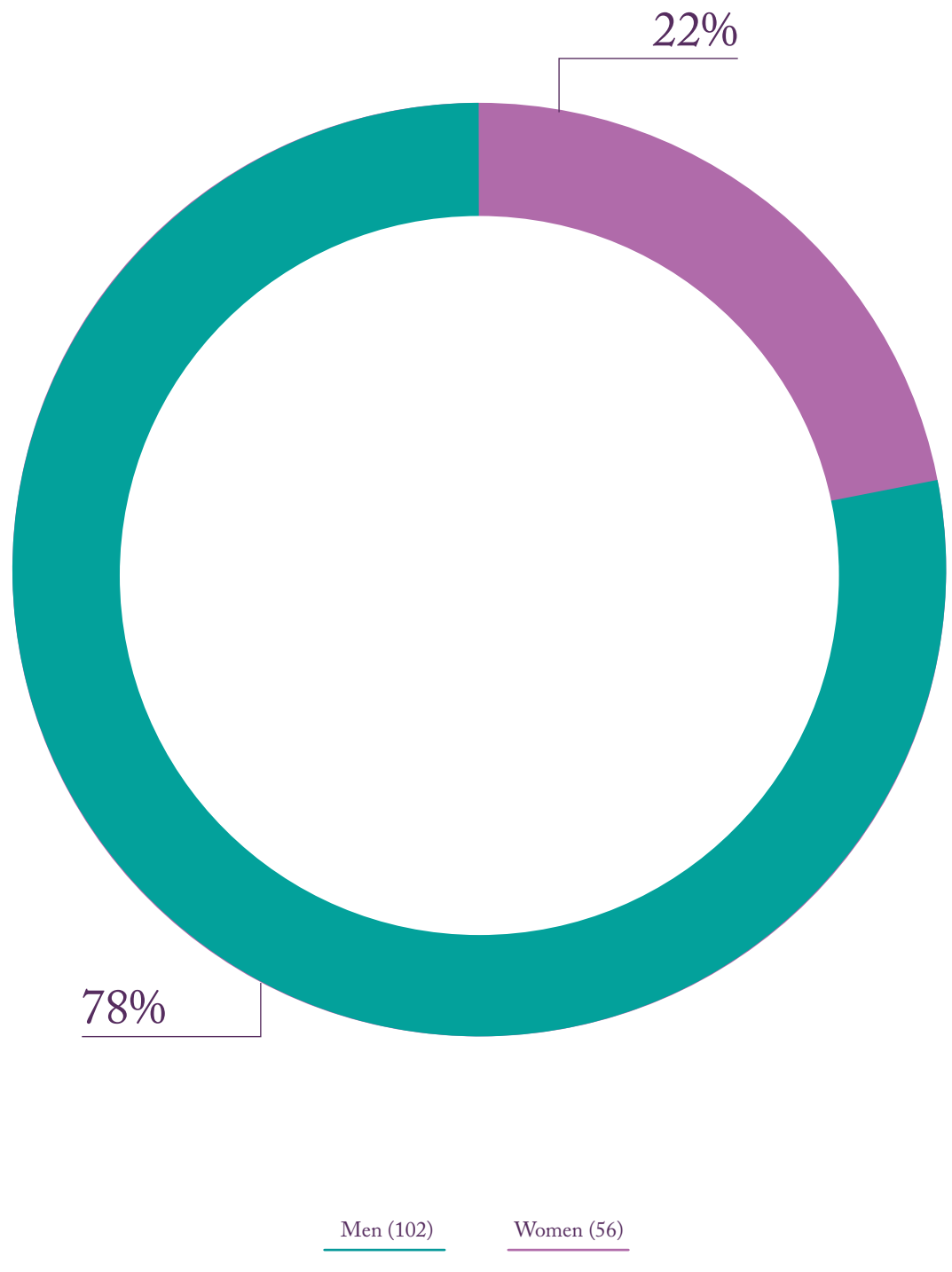


Figure 41. Congress composition by sex, 2018

Source: Transparencia por Colombia. Análisis de Cuentas Claras. (2014).

Figure 41 shows that, although the majority of potential and effective voters are women, only 22 per cent of the Congress seats were taken by women. These results reflect the disproportionately low representation of women in Congress.

This is a pattern that has persisted over time. In the 2014 electoral results for Congress, only 30 per cent of the candidates running for office were women (Figure 42). The number of male candidates was two times the number of female candidates for both chambers.

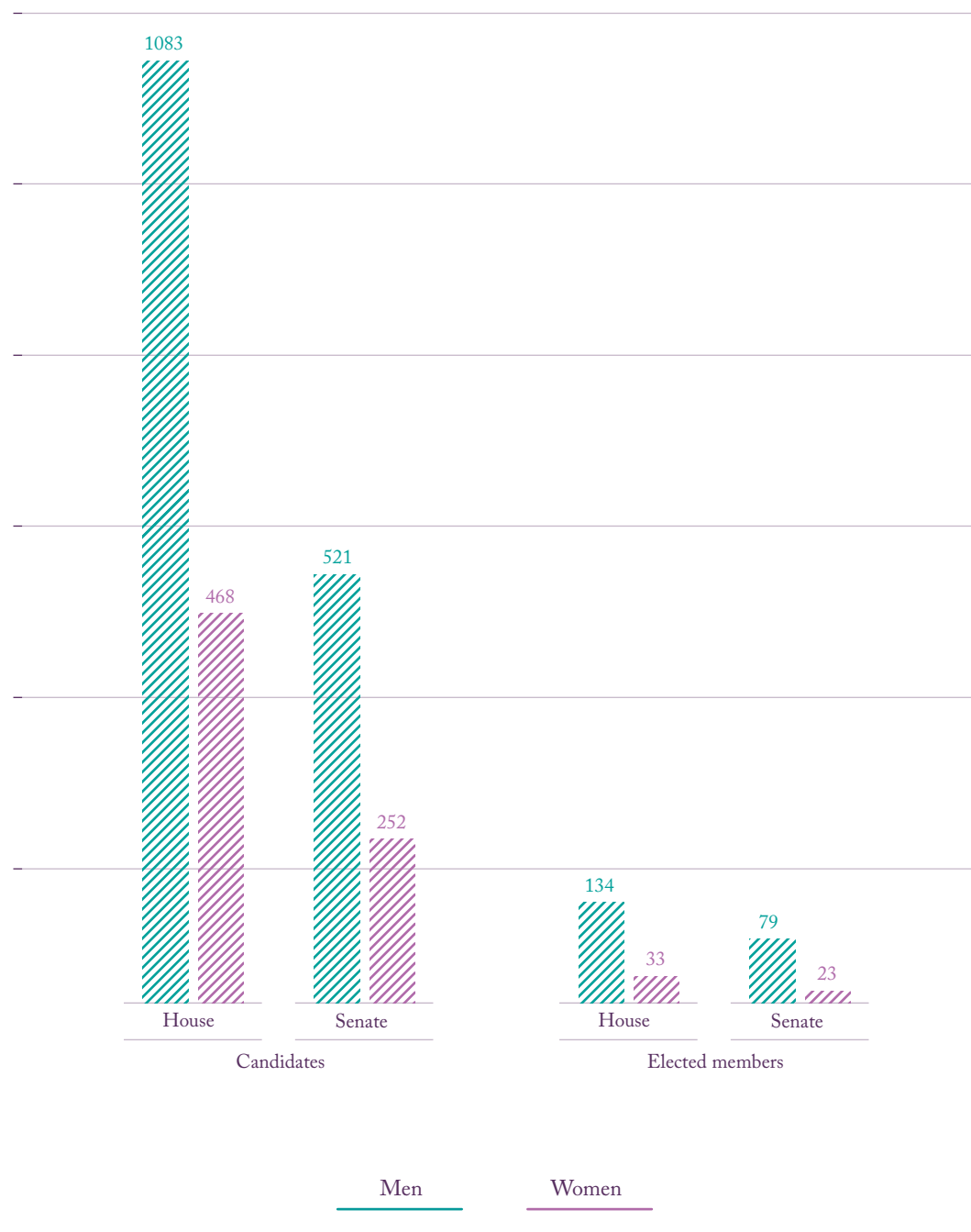


Figure 42. Number of candidates and elected members for House of Representatives and Senate by Sex, 2014
Source: Transparencia por Colombia. Análisis de Cuentas Claras. (2014).

In terms of political representation, the number of women elected for the House of Representatives was 33 against 134 men, and for the Senate 23 women elected against 79 men. The composition of Congress in 2014 is shown in Figure 43.

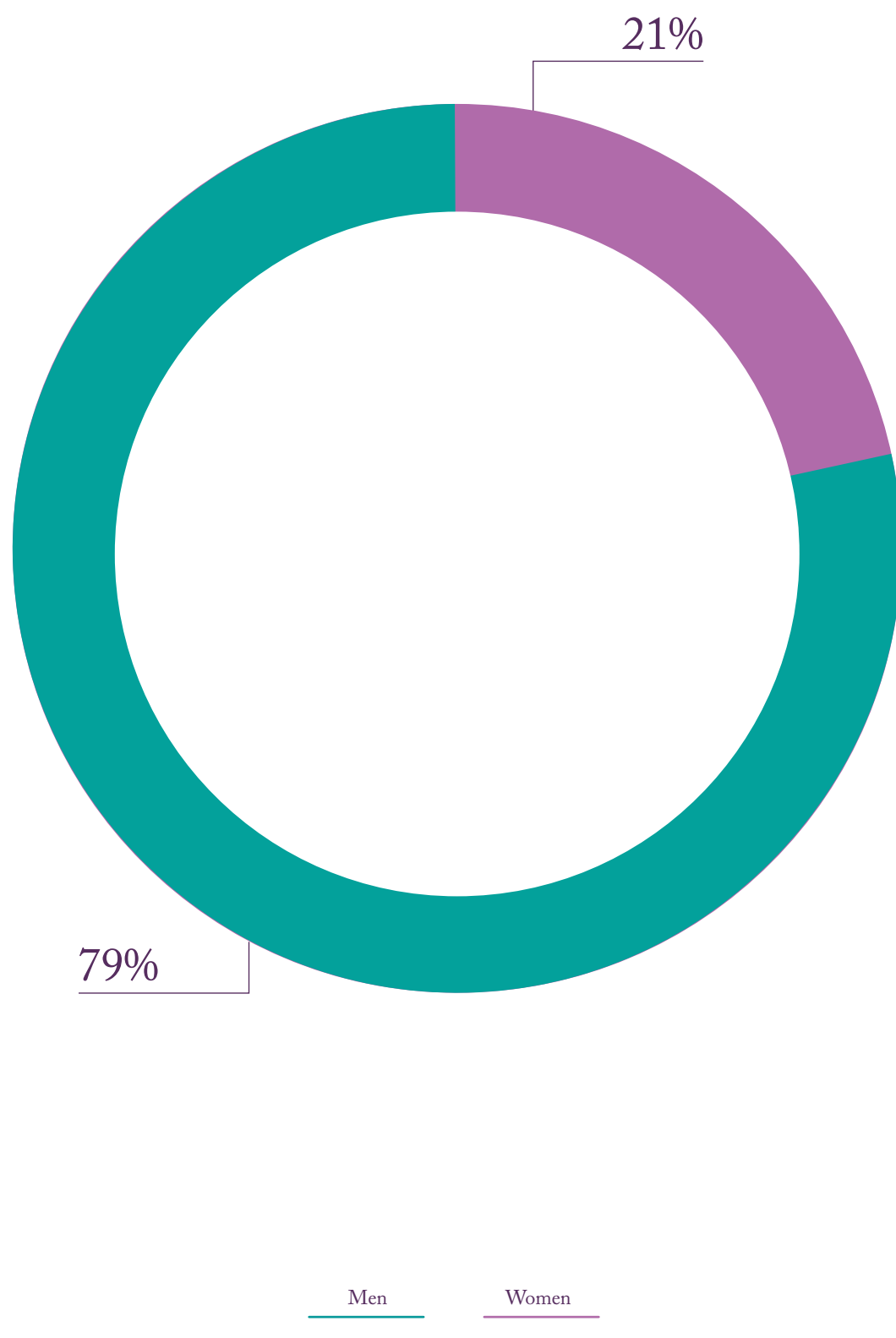


Figure 43. Number of candidates and elected members for House of Representatives and Senate by Sex, 2014
Source: Transparencia por Colombia. Análisis de Cuentas Claras. (2014).

In the congressional elections of 2014 and 2018, women were underrepresented in Congress. However, in terms of parity, this is the best that has been achieved in Colombia's history. Figure 44 shows the percentage of female congress members for the Senate and the House of Representatives from 2002 to 2018. During the first decade of the 21st century, women represented, on average, 10 per cent of Congress. This participation has doubled in the last two elections, reaching almost 20 per cent. Still, this is very low considering that women make-up 50 per cent of potential voters and the population.

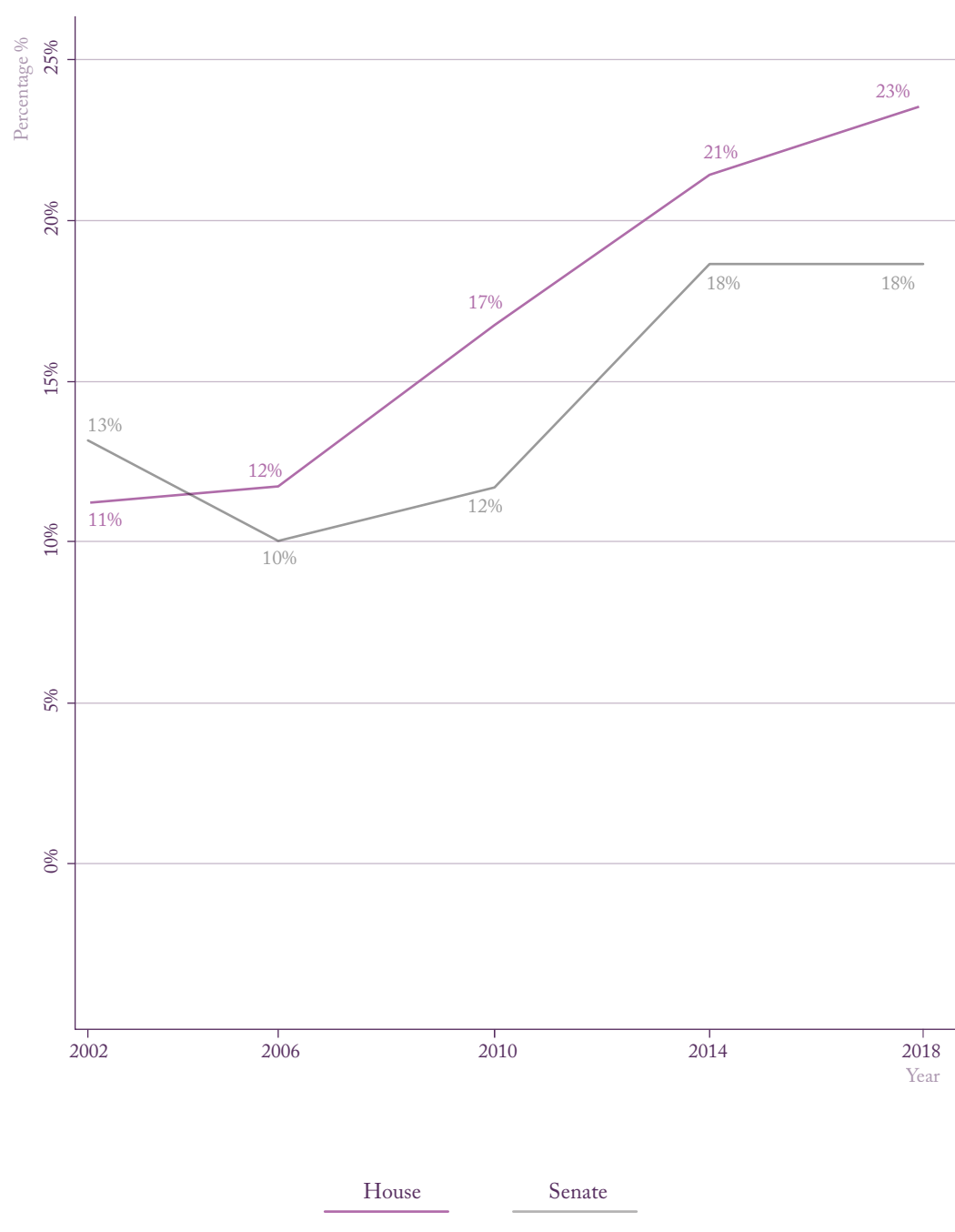


Figure 44. Elected women in Congress, 2002-2018 (%)

Source: “Mujeres en el Congreso Colombiano: un análisis a partir de la primera implementación de la ley de cuota de género en las elecciones de 2014”. Battle, M. 2016.

Internationally women's representation in political decision-making processes continues to increase slowly according to data presented in the 2020 edition of the Inter-Parliamentary Union-UN mapping of women in politics. The map "Women in Politics: 2020", presents the world ranking of women in the executive and parliamentary branches of government as of 1 January 2020. The map shows progress towards gender equality in areas at the regional and national levels. According to data on women's participation in parliaments, both in the lower or single house and in the upper house, Colombia ranks 119th out of 191, with 18.3 per cent participation in the House of Representatives and 21.7 per cent in Congress. At the same time, Paraguay is ranked 129th in the region. Cuba and Bolivia have the highest participation in the Americas, in positions two and three respectively, with women's participation exceeding 50 per cent, followed by Mexico and Nicaragua in positions five and six.

Women's representation in local elections

Elected bodies at the local level are categorised by two main functions: the single elected local mandataries and the collegiate bodies. The principal local mandataries are the mayors at the municipality level and the governors at the departmental level. For the collegiate bodies, there are municipal councils and departmental assemblies.

Women are underrepresented in these positions, a trend that appears likely to remain constant. Figure 45 shows a very low number of women elected as mayor and governors. In the last four elections, women represent between 3 per cent and 16 per cent (a percentage only achieved in the 2015 election). In fact, the election of women has recently decreased by 10 per cent, when comparing the 2015 governor elections to the 2019 electoral process. It is worth mentioning that in this same year, for the first time, a female candidate was elected as mayor of the country's capital (Bogotá).

Regarding the collegiate bodies, the figure 46 reveals low variation between all the four elections, for the departmental assemblies, on average, women have represented only 18 per cent of the total elected members and for municipal councils 17 per cent. It is important to highlight that the gender quota established in the Law 1475 from 2011 (see below), is only mandatory for assemblies and councils positions, which makes a positive impact in the representation of women in these elected bodies, compared to mayors and governors that present a lower number of women in office.



Figure 45. Mayors and governors elected 2007 - 2019

Source: Based on the information from Registraduría Nacional del Estado Civil (2020) and Misión de Observación Electoral (2019) en “Los obstáculos a la participación como riesgos para la representación política de las mujeres: con miras a una democracia local paritaria en el 2019” (2019).

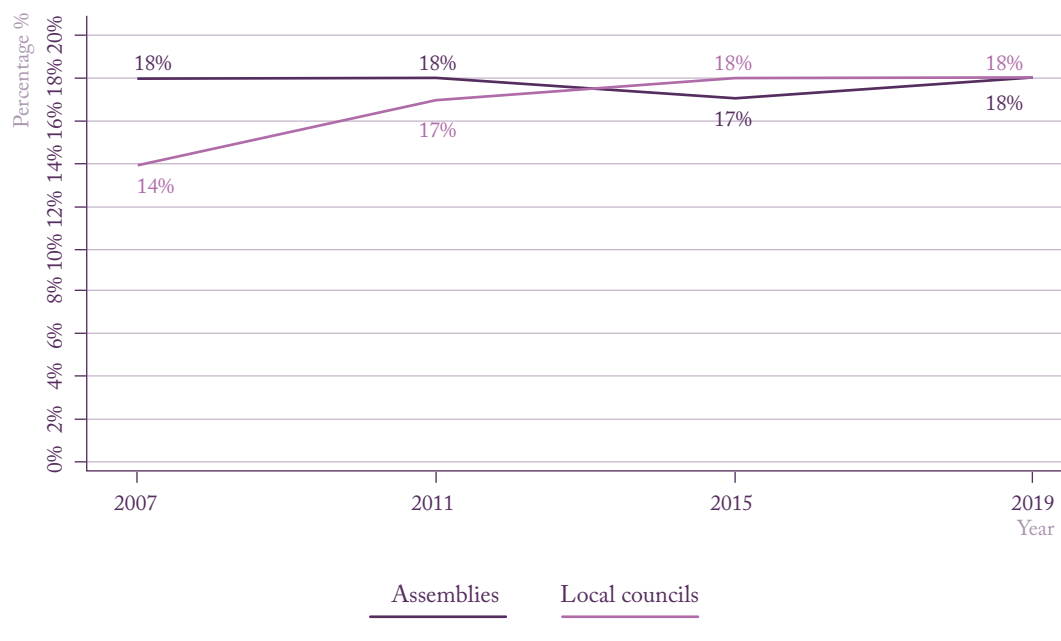


Figure 46. Assemblies and local councils elected 2007 – 2019

Source: Based on Registraduría Nacional del Estado Civil (2020) and Misión de Observación Electoral en “Los obstáculos a la participación como riesgos para la representación política de las mujeres: con miras a una democracia local paritaria en el 2019” (2019).

2.2. Gender Quotas in Colombia

Gender quotas are an institutional design that has been implemented in different countries to increase women's representation in public office. In Colombia, the first law regarding gender quotas was established in 2000 (law number 581). It stipulated that at least 30 per cent of the positions at the decision-making levels in the different branches and organs of power, as well as freely appointed and removable posts, must be occupied by women. This law mandated women's representation in administrative positions but did not regulate nor promote women's leadership from an electoral-democratic point of view (MOE, 2018).

Only in 2011 statutory Law 1475 established gender quotas for Congress. This law included gender quotas for popularly elected posts, monetary incentives for political parties with elected female members, and incentives for creating gender-inclusive schools. Specifically, the law established that the lists of candidates aspiring to hold a seat in Congress must constitute 30 per cent of one of the genders (men or women) if there were five or more seats to be taken. This norm also applied to internal selection processes of political parties. In addition to this, the law made it compulsory for political groups to ensure gender equality and equity for men, women, and other gender identities regarding participation in political activities, political party leadership, and access to electoral debates (MOE, 2018).

The law was implemented for the first time at a local level in October of that same year and at a national level in the congressional elections of 2014. The congressional elections showed a significant increase in the number of women in the party lists from 2010 to 2014. However, the congressional elections of 2018 did not show any difference relative to the achievements in 2014. This fact suggests that the 30 per cent quota might have been taken or understood as ceiling value instead of a minimum value and could be limiting women's participation. Figure 47 presents a comparison between 2010, 2014 and 2018 of the percentage of women included in lists of political parties for the House of Representatives and the Senate.

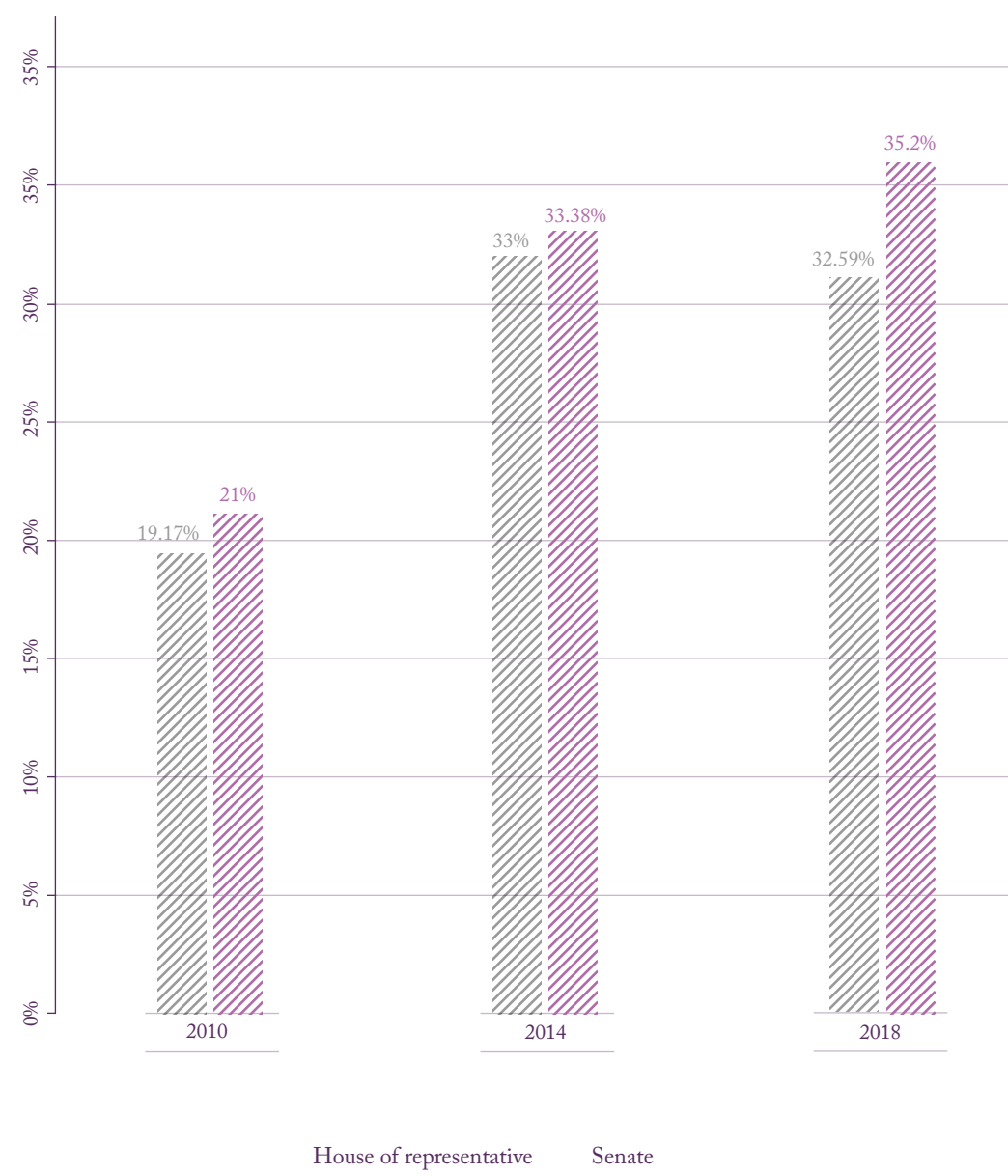


Figure 47. Women in political party lists, congressional elections, 2010-2018 (%)

Source: “Mujeres en el Congreso Colombiano: un análisis a partir de la primera implementación de la ley de cuota de género en las elecciones de 2014”. Battle, M. 2016.

As the figure shows, the political party lists did achieve 30 per cent of women, as the legislation required. However, 30 per cent of women in each list in Congress does not warrant that the same percentage of the elected members will be women. Figures 41 and 43 show that since the gender quotas law was established, 80 per cent of Congress people have been men. These results illustrate the limited effect of gender quotas in Colombia; they guarantee the inclusion of female candidates but do not guarantee more women being elected nor increased female political representation. The failure has to do with the characteristics of the lists. If all the lists are not closed and do not meet the principles of universality, parity, and alternation, it is impossible to hope for a shift in terms of effective female representation in the short term without a radical cultural change.

2.3. Gender-Related Legislative Agenda

The most recent Survey of Political Culture from the National Department of Statistics (DANE) published in November 2019, reveals that 29.2 per cent of women considered that women's rights are protected and guaranteed, the male perception is not drastically different from this, as 31.8 per cent agree with that statement. Now, only 16.3 per cent of Colombians have a high level of trust in Congress, with the political parties being the least trustable institutions with only 12.2 per cent of trust.

Considering such low perception levels of the protection of women's rights among Colombians and the previous statistics on women's participation and representation in politics, this section presents data on the subject and status of bills related to gender discussed during the legislative periods of 2014 and 2018. The gender analysis includes women's rights and the gender/sexual diversity agenda proposed by both female and male Congress members.

Figures 48 and 49 show data on legislative initiatives gender related during 2014 in Congress. Figures 50 and 51 refer to the Congress elected in 2018, which will be in office until 2022.

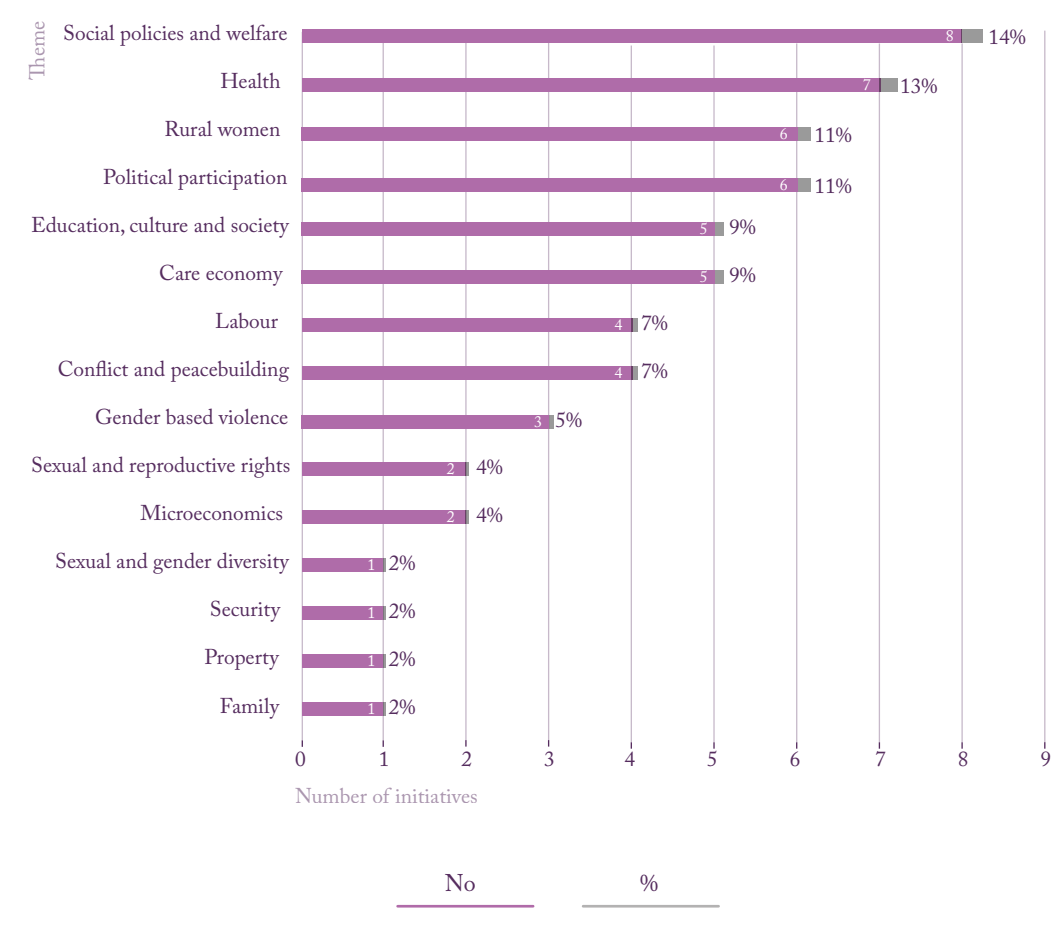


Figure 48. Themes of gender related bills from the 2014 Congress

Source: Based on the information from Congreso Visible – Universidad de los Andes (2020)

Figures 49 and 50 show the status of the bills after entering the legislative process. Bills can either be approved by a majority in Congress, or voted down if they are archived, withdrawn or met with presidential objections. If the bills are under debate it means they are in process. Also, some initiatives are accumulated, if they are similar to others being discussed.

For the 2014-2018 Congress, 46 initiatives were related to gender. Only 9 per cent of gender initiatives have become a law and most of them are archived (78 per cent), as the following figure illustrates.

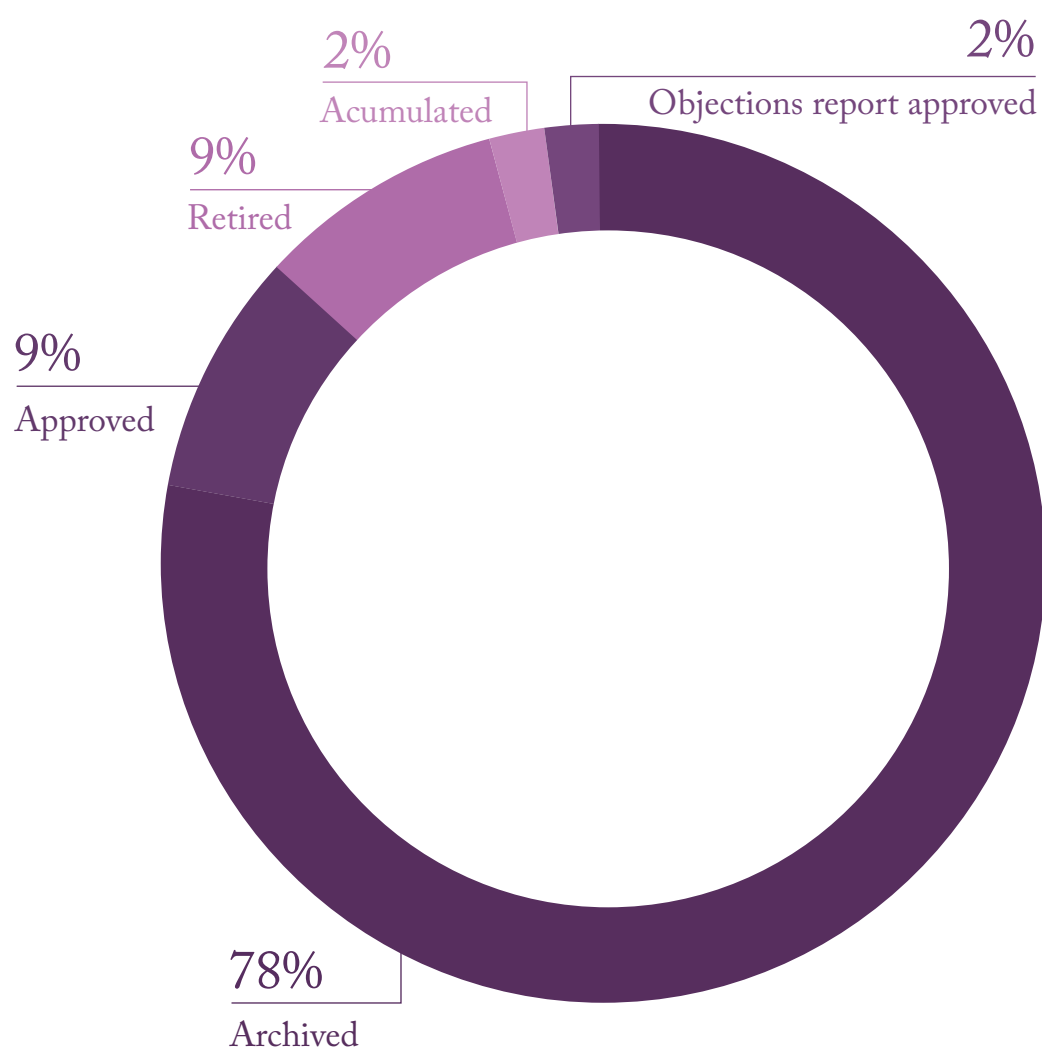


Figure 49. 2014 Congress gender related bills and their status

Source: Based on the information from Congreso Visible – Universidad de los Andes (2020)

Figure 49 and 51 show the gender bills status in Congress as of July 2020. So far, 56 initiatives had been presented, which is an increase compared to the previous legislature.

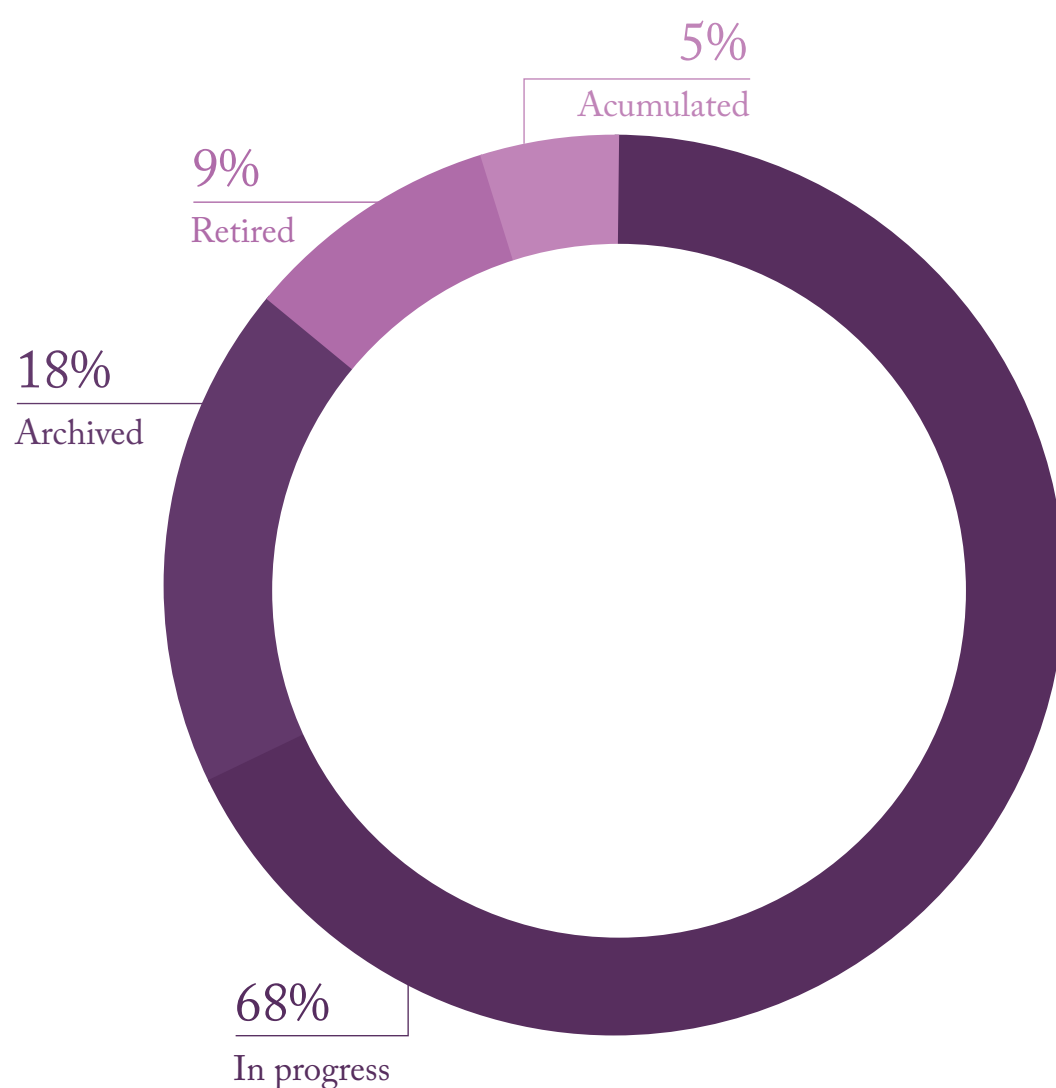


Figure 50. 2018 Congress related gender bills and their status.

Source: Based on the information from Congreso Visible – Universidad de los Andes (2020).

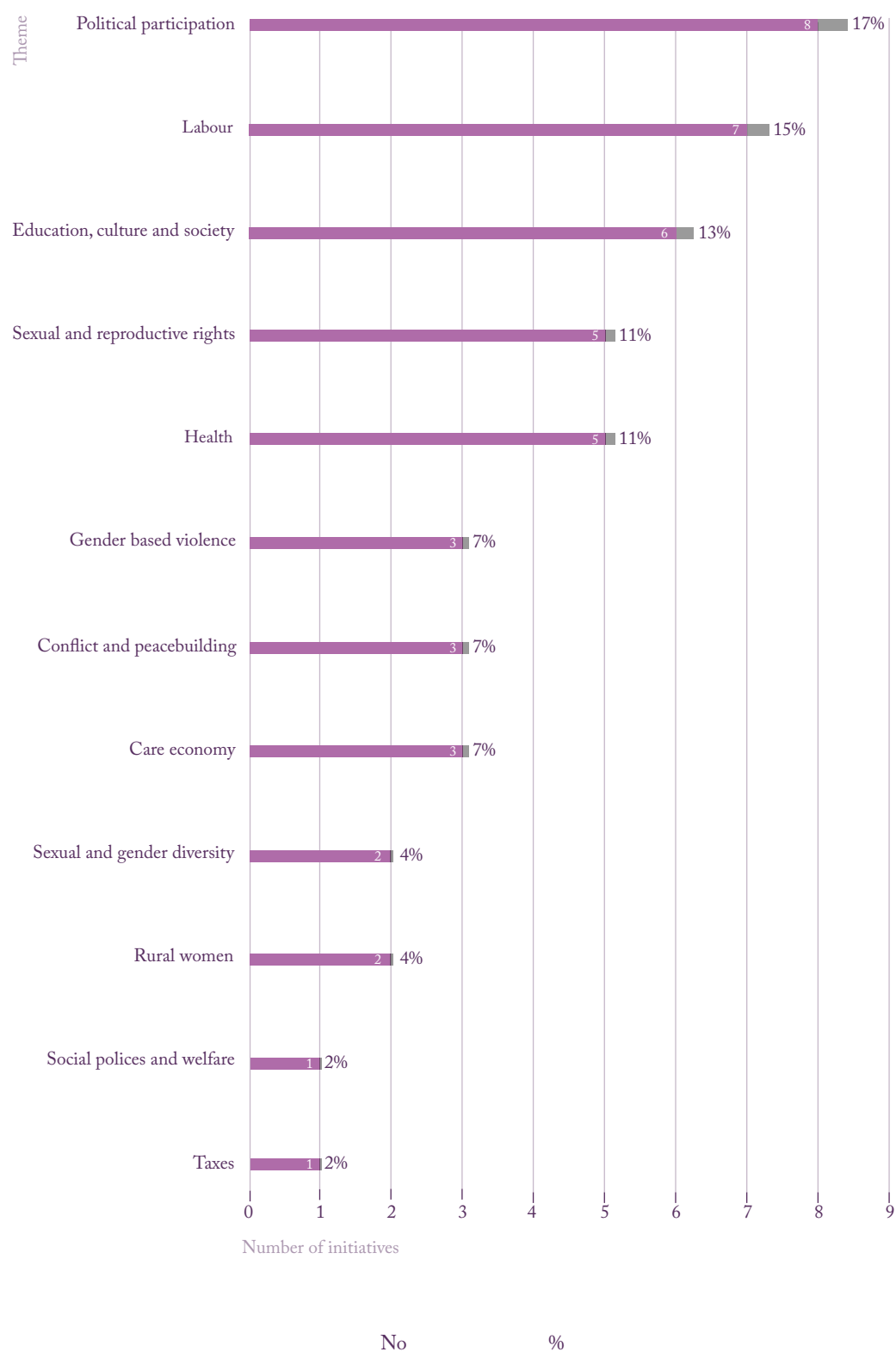


Figure 51. Themes of gender related bills from the 2018 Congress.

Source: Based on the information from Congreso Visible – Universidad de los Andes (2020)⁵

⁵ For a historical analysis on the gender agenda in Congress, we recommend the following document: DeJusticia on “Legislative work from Women's Bench in the National Congress”. Link: https://www.dejusticia.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/fi_name_recurso_627.pdf

03

Justice and Judiciary

3.1. Gender Policy in the Judicial Branch

Colombia has undergone significant changes at the normative level in terms of special protection for women, especially after the proclamation of the 1991 Constitution. However, in order to guarantee equality and non-discrimination in practice, educational and administrative measures are needed to make gender equity a reality.

For the administration of justice to be aligned with this purpose, the Administrative Chamber of the High Council of the Judiciary of Colombia created the National Commission on Gender in the Judicial Branch, through Agreement 4552 of 2008, which was inaugurated on 9 June 2008, to promote the incorporation and institutionalisation of the gender perspective in the work of the judiciary.

This Commission seeks to promote effective equality of opportunity between men and women and non-discrimination based on gender in judicial decisions, in the public service of the administration of justice and, of course, in the internal workings of the judicial branch. It also seeks to integrate a gender perspective and the principle of non-discrimination based on gender into the institutional mission, vision and objectives, strategic planning processes and annual operational plans. This responds to international and national requirements for combating gender discrimination and the advancement of women, and to the commitment made with the signing of the National Agreement on Gender Equity (2003). The Administrative Chamber of the Higher Council of the Judiciary has been advising the National Gender Commission of the Judicial Branch since its establishment in 2008.

Participation of women in judicial bodies

In the Judicial Branch, the percentage of women's participation in senior positions is varied, but is above 30 per cent, according to the law, in the following bodies: the Superior Council of the Judiciary (45 per cent), the Constitutional Court (40 per cent), the Council of State (32 per cent) and the Attorney General's Office (41 per cent). The Supreme Court has the lowest level of participation by women in senior positions in the judicial branch (13 per cent). In total, in 2018, the Judicial Branch had 33 per cent women, increasing the percentage level from 2017 by five points.

Table 9. Participation of women in government decision-making judicial bodies

	2017				2018			
Judicial Body	Women	Men	Total	% Women	Women	Men	Total	% Women
Supreme Court	3	19	22	14%	3	20	23	13%
Superior Council of the Judiciary	6	7	13	46%	6	7	13	45%
Council of State	7	23	30	23%	10	21	31	32%
Constitutional Court	3	6	9	33%	4	6	10	40%
Attorney General's Office	8	15	23	35%	11	16	27	41%
Total positions	70	27	97	28%	34	70	104	33%

Source: Based on data from the Superior Council of the Judiciary - Executive Directorate of Judicial Administration

3.2. Milestone Judicial Decisions on Gender

Colombia's progress towards gender equality and women's rights is also expressed by judicial decisions that have had a significant impact on the protection and guarantee of their rights and access to justice. This section presents data on the most representative judicial decisions produced after the Constitution of 1991 (the current Constitution) that have contributed to women's and LGBTQI+ rights.

The following analysis has a special focus on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (CEDAW) and the commitment to women's rights, as well as 91 Constitutional principles around gender equality. The main topics presented are equality and non-discrimination principles, gender-based violence and violence against women, sexual and reproductive rights, political participation, labour regulations, gender perspectives in relation to the armed conflict and victims' law, access to property amongst others. More information can be found in the project [“Monitoring for Empowerment: Latin American Women's Rights in the Media and the Courts of Law”](#).

Table 10. Historical judicial decision on gender in Colombia since 1991

No.	Year	Justice Body	Decision	Reference
1	1992	Constitutional Court	Non-discrimination principles and equality interpretation under the 91 Constitution.	C-588-92
2	1992	Constitutional Court	Non-discrimination principle on heritage law and family regulations.	C-588-92
3	1996	Constitutional Court	Violence against women and girls.	T-494-92
4	1997	Constitutional Court	Domestic violence against women.	C-408-96
5	1998	Supreme Court of Justice	Violence against women by military forces.	C-285-97
6	1999	Constitutional Court	Non-discrimination principle in civil law on family and marriage.	No. 11907
7	2000	Constitutional Court	Participation and quotas in public positions.	C-082-99
8	2000	Supreme Court of Justice	Violence against girls.	C-371-00
9	2001	Constitutional Court	Non-discrimination principle on pension conditions.	No. 13466
10	2002	Constitutional Court	Violence against women in armed conflict.	T-165-01
11	2002	Constitutional Court	Sexual and reproductive rights. Health system must cover fertility treatments.	C-578-02
12	2003	Constitutional Court	Sexual and reproductive rights in prison population protecting sexual and gender diversity.	T-746-02

No.	Year	Justice Body	Decision	Reference
13	2004	Constitutional Court	Sexual and reproductive rights. Health system must cover fertility treatments.	T-242-04
14	2006	Constitutional Court	Inclusive language in the legal system (interpretation of terms like men, person, child, adult, women, girl etc).	C-804-06
15	2006	Constitutional Court	Decriminalisation of abortion in three cases: rape, when the mother's health is under threat and in the case of serious abnormalities or serious health problems of the fetus.	C-355-06
16	2007	Constitutional Court	Reaffirms abortion rights in the case of rape for a disabled woman (unable to express her will).	T- 988-07
17	2007	Constitutional Court	Reaffirms the legal duty of judicial bodies and health institutions to protect abortion rights.	T-171-07
18	2007	Constitutional Court	Patrimonial consequences of unions are extended to same-sex couples.	C-075-07
19	2008	Constitutional Court	Conscientious objection regulations in abortion.	T-209-08
20	2008	Constitutional Court	Public policy on the protection of women and their family members as victims of the armed conflict, ordering the creation and implementation of 13 different programmes for displaced girls, adolescents and women.	Auto 092
21	2008	Constitutional Court	Declaration of non-compliance of Auto 92 about the integral attention to women victims.	Auto 237
22	2008	Constitutional Court	Elimination of institutional barriers to access abortion. The only requirement to have access to the procedure is the formal complaint of the women.	T-946-08
23	2009	Constitutional Court	Abortion decriminalisation includes not only cases of physical health risk for the mother, but also mental health concerns.	T-388-09
24	2010	Constitutional Court	Employment protection and maternity leave.	T-069-10
25	2010	Constitutional Court	Access to property for displaced rural women.	T-068-10
26	2010	Constitutional Court	Non-discrimination concerning pension regulations of police forces.	C-121-10
27	2010	Constitutional Court	Sexual and reproductive rights (abortion included) are interpreted as fundamental rights under the 91 Constitution.	T-585-10
28	2011	Constitutional Court	Recognises the right to marriage and civil unions for same-sex couples, ordering Congress to legislate on same-sex marriage.	C-577-11
29	2012	Constitutional Court	Inclusion of the drug misoprostol, as part of the mandatory health plan (POS), as an essential drug for abortion.	T-627-12
30	2013	Constitutional Court	Reaffirms the obligation to prioritise crimes, including sexual violence against women in the context of the armed conflict when they are related to the plan or policy of an attack on the civilian population (such as war crimes) or are committed in a systematic and generalised manner (as crimes against humanity).	C-570-13
31	2014	Constitutional Court	Recognition of the adoption rights of same-sex couples.	SU-617 -14
32	2015	Supreme Court of Justice	Criminal description of femicide.	No. 41457
33	2015	Constitutional Court	Recognition of the special risk that female human rights defenders face and the importance of incorporating a gender perspective into the Human Rights Defence protocols.	T-124-15
34	2015	Constitutional Court	Health providers have the obligation to provide all the necessary services for the physical and mental recovery of victims of sexual violence (including abortion).	C-754 -15

No.	Year	Justice Body	Decision	Reference
35	2015	Constitutional Court	Adoption rights for same-sex couples.	C-683-15
36	2016	Constitutional Court	Legal approval of same-sex marriage and unions.	SU-214 -16
37	2016	Constitutional Court	Reinforcement of femicide as criminal conduct under the Colombian legal system.	C-539-16
38	2016	Constitutional Court	Labour protection for ICBF “communitarian mothers” (“madres comunitarias”) ¹ .	T-480-16
39	2018	Constitutional Court	Special protection for rural and poor women to have access to abortion. Establishes sanctions for health institutions that deny the procedure on time.	SU-096 -18
40	2020	Constitutional Court	Maintains abortion regulation as it was prescribed in Sentence C-355-2006.	C-088-20

Source: Based on data from the Judicial Observatory on Gender from Corporación Humanas and the Constitutional Court official data.

⁶ Social workers responsible for the care of early childhood children of the Community Welfare Homes program.

04

Conflict and Peacebuilding

The Colombian armed conflict has a long and complex history, with important historic precedents such as the bloody 10-year period fought between the Liberal and Conservative parties (called *La Violencia*) in the 1940s and 1950s, and the subsequent exclusion from formal politics of the rural and left-leaning groups and populations. As a response to the exclusion of rural and Marxist-aligned groups, the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC-EP) and the National Liberation Army (ELN) guerrilla groups were founded in 1964 to fight for political change and rural reform. Since then, the internal armed conflict has evolved and intensified. Beginning in the 1970s and 1980s Rightist self-defence groups—often in alliance with the Colombian armed forces—emerged to provide protection against guerrillas. As a result of this struggle for territorial expansion, the 1990s and early 2000s saw the greatest peaks in humanitarian emergencies. In total, 200,000 people died during the conflict, while over eight million were victims of forced displacement, kidnappings, forced disappearance and recruitment and sexual violence (Centro Nacional de Memoria Histórica 2016).

In 1990 and 1991, the Colombian government reached peace agreements with three guerrilla groups (M-19, the Popular Liberation Army (EPL) and the Quintín Lame Movement) and, with broad support from Colombian citizens, enacted the Colombian Constitution of 1991, which is still in force.

Despite the demobilisation of guerrilla groups and a new constitution, the armed conflict raged on and intensified with the establishment of the United Self-Defence Forces of Colombia (AUC) paramilitary forces in 1997 (a right-leaning armed group whose origins can be traced to the emergence of self-defence groups created to confront the guerrilla and a state-sanctioned programme which created community self-defence groups). The armed conflict reached its climax in the 1990s and early 2000s as armed guerrilla groups, paramilitaries and state forces competed for territorial control. The illegal actors were able to derive funding from the drug trade, which has flourished ever since. All parties committed massive human rights abuses, such as attacks on civilian populations, recruitment of minors and forced displacement. In 2003, the Colombian government reached a peace agreement with the AUC, which resulted in their demobilisation by the year 2006. The Justice and Peace Law (Law 975 of 2005) - which was developed in the context of the AUC demobilisation in order to provide the tools for victims' reparations, truth and historical memory - developed the underpinnings for the current Colombian transitional justice infrastructure.

In 2012, the Colombian government initiated formal peace negotiations with FARC-EP. Peace negotiations took place in Havana, Cuba, and included a comprehensive agenda involving rural reform, guarantees for political participation, confronting the illicit drug problem and providing redress for the millions of victims, while at the same time including a transversal gender perspective. After almost four years of negotiations, both parties signed a peace agreement in September 2016 and agreed that the agreement's ratification would take place through a national referendum. After a politically charged campaign, Colombia held a national referendum on 2 October 2016. Unexpectedly for supporters of the peace agreement, "no" to the peace agreement won, with 50.2 per cent of the votes. Subsequently, the Colombian government and FARC-EP went back to the negotiating table to introduce modifications to the peace agreement, which were finalised on 24 November 2016. This time, the parties agreed that ratifica-

tion would take place through Congress. On 30 November 2016, the Final Agreement to End the Armed Conflict and Build a Stable and Lasting Peace was approved by Congress. Since then, FARC-EP has demobilised in camps around the country, handed in over 8,500 weapons and turned into a political party with 10 guaranteed seats in Congress (for two consecutive legislatures).

Most recently, in 2017, the Colombian government began peace negotiations with the ELN, the country's oldest and most powerful active guerrilla group. However, peace talks were indefinitely suspended in January 2019, after the ELN bombed a police academy in Bogotá, which left 22 dead and another 68 injured. Despite the ELN's recent requests to resume peace negotiations, the Colombian government has called the ELN a terrorist organisation and refused to resume talks until the ELN has released all of its hostages and ceased all its criminal acts.

4.1. Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration

The office responsible for Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR) is the Agency for Reincorporation and Normalisation (ARN), established in 2017 building on the Colombian Agency for Reintegration (2011) and the Program for the Reincorporation into Civilian Life (PRVC) 2003.

What is the difference between reincorporation and reintegration?

- **Reintegration:** 6.5 year offer in which the Colombian State offers demobilised persons reintegration into social and economic life, if they have not committed crimes against humanity or violations of international humanitarian law. Ex-combatants who qualify are those who demobilised after 24 January 2003 (excluding FARC-EP combatants who demobilised under the framework of the Final Peace Agreement of 2016). ([link](#))
- **Reincorporation:** Process of socio-economic stabilisation for ex-FARC-EP combatants who handed in their weapons following the Final Peace Agreement. The biggest difference between reintegration and reincorporation is that, concerning the latter, all actions and policies related to reincorporation are jointly decided upon through the National Council for Reincorporation, which is composed of two members of the Colombian government and two members of the FARC-EP. However, the difference between the two terms is largely semantic; the FARC-EP wanted to distinguish themselves from other demobilised combatants throughout the years, who they considered to be traitors or enemies. ([link](#))

Between 2001 and May 2020, **75,214** individuals have demobilised from the different armed groups that have fought on Colombian ground (**64,014** men and **11,200** women).

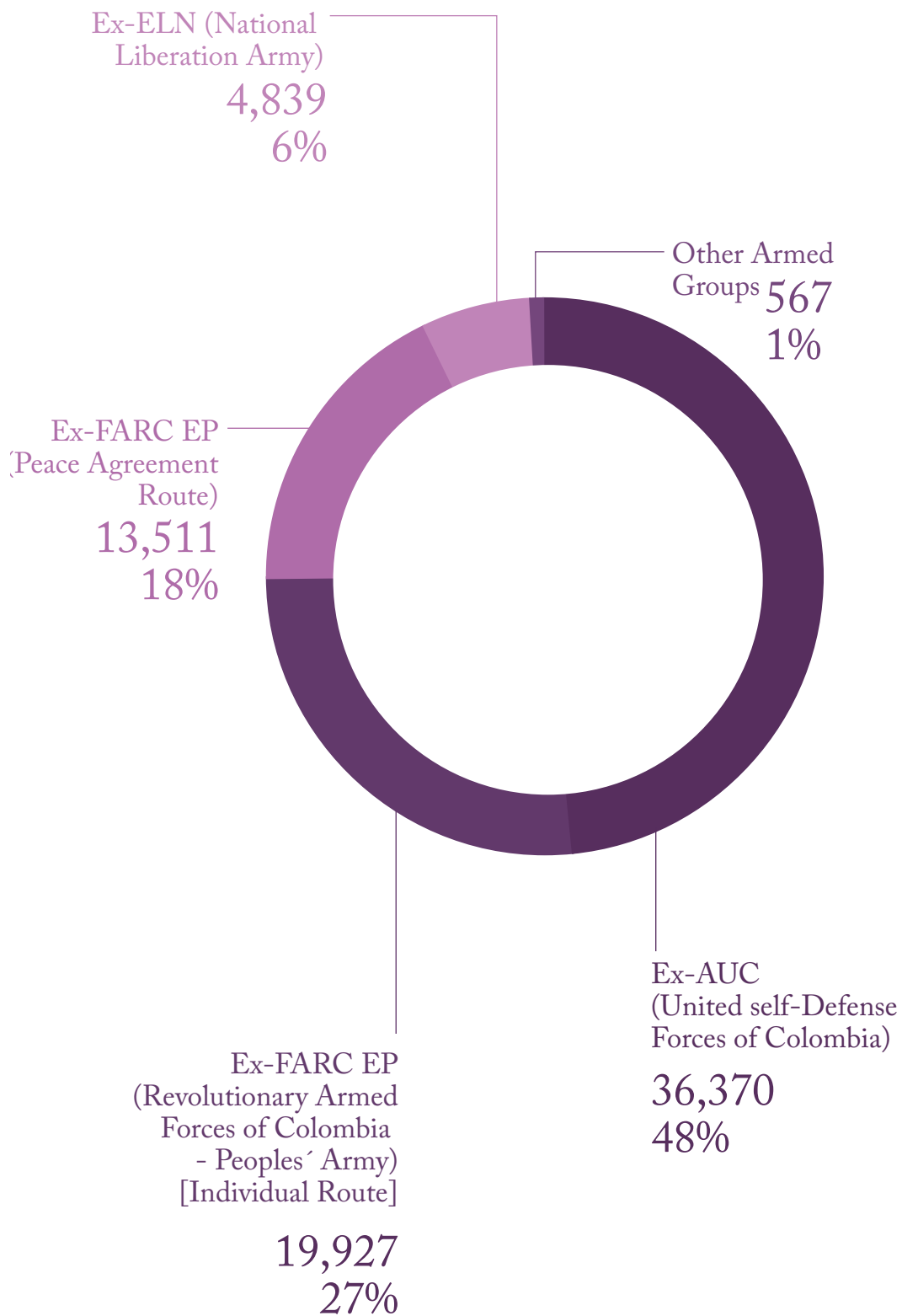


Figure 52. Demobilisations by armed group.

Source: ARN en Cifras – 31 May 2020.

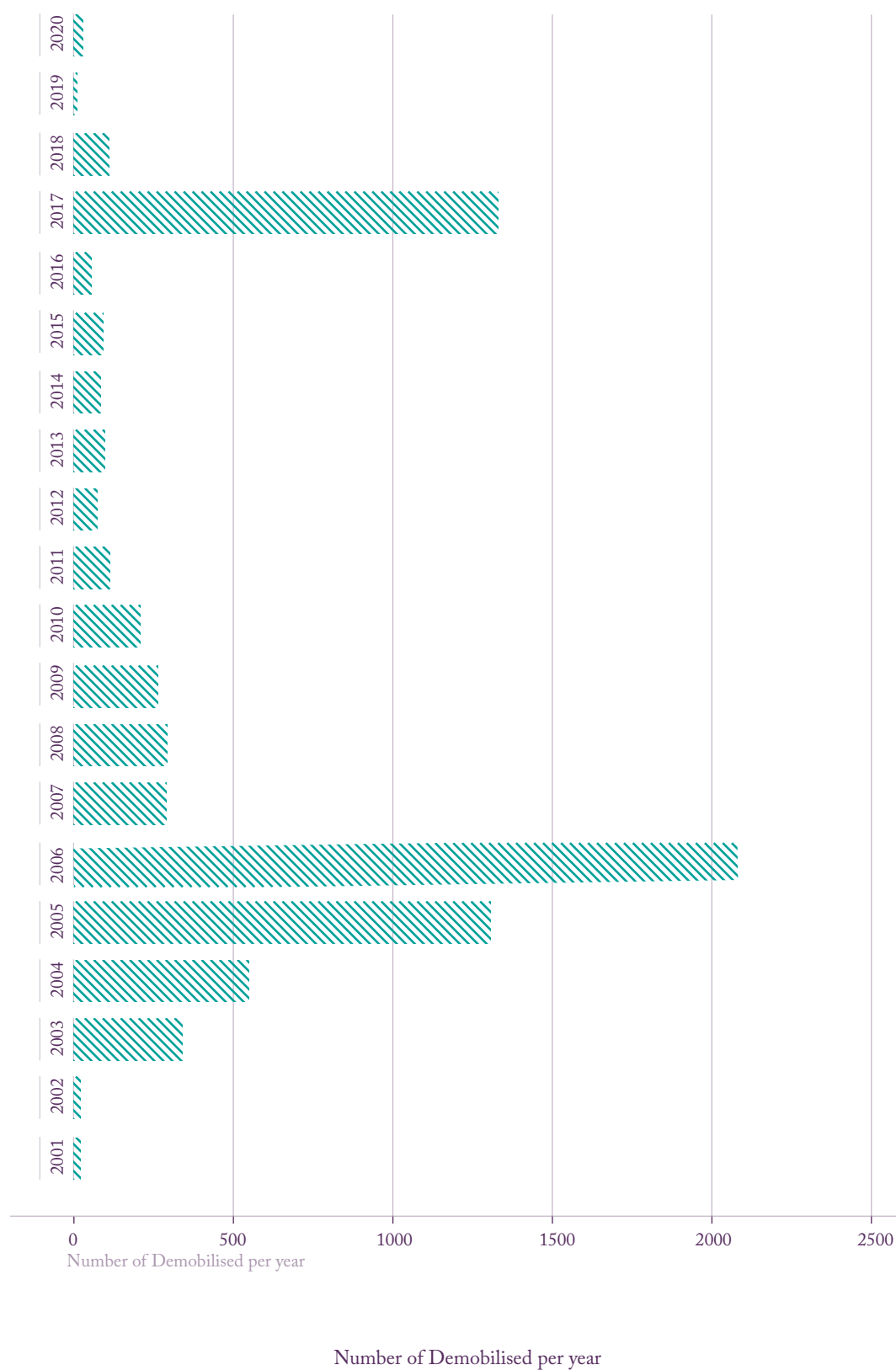


Figure 53. Number of demobilised persons per year.

Source: [Histórico de personas desmovilizadas](#) – 25 June 2020; [Report of the Secretary-General on the United Nations Verification Mission in Colombia](#); ARN en Cifras [31 December 2018](#), [31 December 2019](#), [30 June 2020](#)

The following table presents descriptive data based on the 2017 Socioeconomic Census made by the National University of Colombia.

Table 11. 2017 Census of Demobilised FARC-EP members

2017 census of 10,015 demobilised FARC-EP members	77% were men and 23% were women
	66% came from rural areas, 19% from urban areas and 15% from urban-rural areas
	31.5% identified as part of an ethnic group (18% Indigenous and 12% Afro-Colombian)
	90% were literate 57% only had a primary education 3% had a university education
	46% had children and 54% had no children
	7.2% of the 2,267 women were pregnant 32.9% were between 23 and 27 27.4 were between 18 and 22 2.4% were 17
	77% did not have a place to live

Source: [Censo Socioeconómico para los miembros de las FARC – EP, 2017– Universidad Nacional de Colombia](#)

Territorial Spaces of Training and Reincorporation (ETCR)

Following demobilisation, FARC-EP fighters moved to 24 designated zones in which many still live and participate in training and reincorporation activities to integrate back into civilian life while interacting with the local communities. The ETCR's two-year mandate ended in August 2019. Despite the government implementing a plan to phase out the zones, many are still operating in 2020 ([link](#)). In November 2020, [presidential decree 1543](#) regulated former combatants' formal access to land.

Of the 13,511 demobilised ex FARC-EP combatants, 12,773 are currently in the reincorporation process. Of these, 9,279 live outside of ETCRs, 2,832 reside in ETCRs, and 662 are awaiting placement ([link](#)).

4.2. Public Forces of Colombia

In Colombia, the Public Forces are divided into the National Police (which has a civilian nature) and the Military Forces (comprised of the Army, the Navy and the Air Force). The National Police is composed of 150,945 members, and the Military Forces of 60,611 members. All Public Forces operate under Ministry of Defence authority.

In regards to gender, the Public Forces have a transversal gender focus policy, which implies effective policies related to gender, such as the development of affirmative actions that promote gender equity at all levels and branches of the Public Forces, the reduction of inequality gaps, and the eradication of gender-based violence and discrimination both in the Public Forces and in society.

Women have participated in the Public Forces since 1953, when the National Police allowed women to join. Subsequently, women entered the Army in 1976, the Air Force in 1979, and finally, the Navy in 1984. Most recently, women made up 5.5 per cent of Military Forces and 8.7 per cent of the National Police. Concerning the Military Forces, the Air Force has the highest level of female participation, with 16.3 per cent of its force being women.

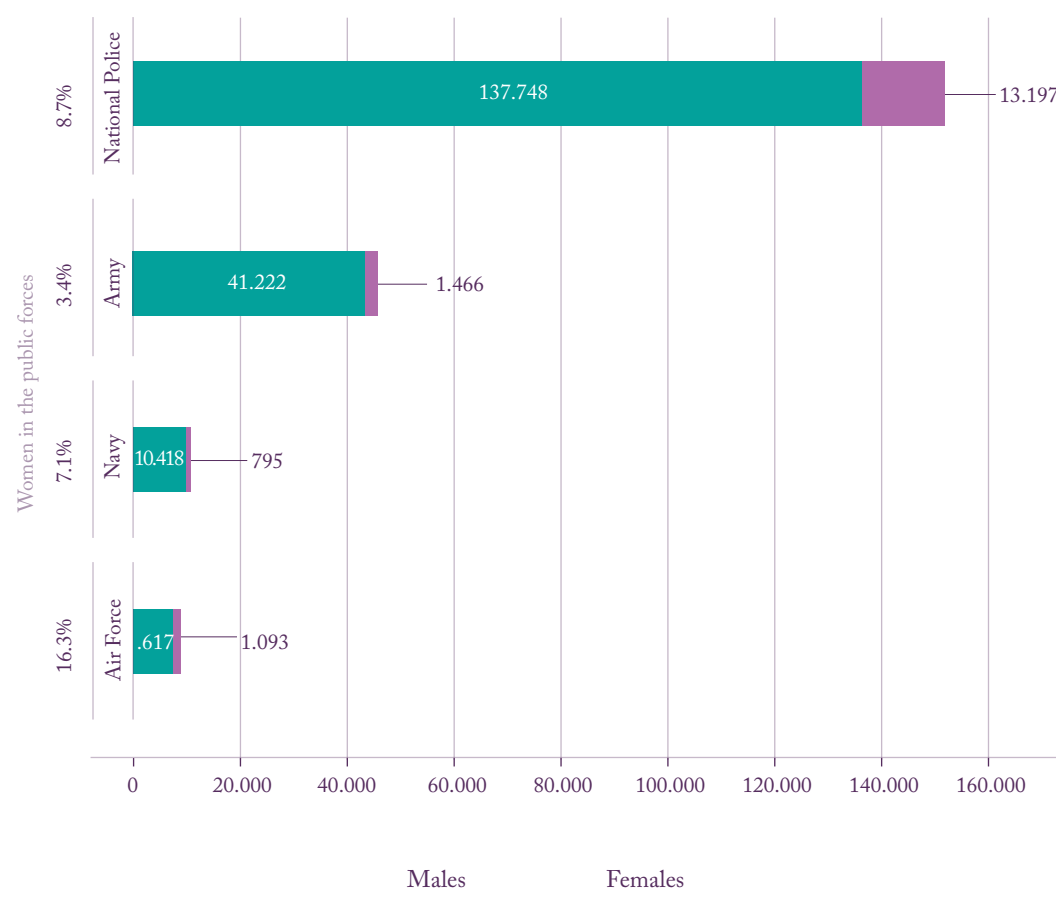


Figure 54. Women in Public Forces

Source: Política Pública Sectorial de Transversalización del Enfoque de Género para el Personal Uniformado de la Fuerza Pública – 2018-2027

In terms of leadership positions, only two women (1.6 per cent) have reached the highest echelon of the Military Forces', of which there are 129 top positions (General, Major General and Brigadier General). In the National Police, there are no women in top positions. According to the distinction between high-ranking versus low-ranking officers, 61 per cent of women in the Air Force, 59 per cent of women in the Navy and 53 per cent of women in the Army are in high-ranking positions. In the National Police, however, only 10 per cent of women police officers are in high-ranking positions.

Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law Training

Regarding human rights and international human rights training, members of the Public Forces have been receiving specialised training since 1992, when the General Command of the Military Forces implemented the Permanent Plan for the Integration of Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law. Subsequently, in 1995, the Ministry of Defence implemented Permanent Directive 024, which, among other things, increased the training of members in human rights and international humanitarian law. Currently, the Comprehensive Policy of Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law 2017-2020 lays out the framework related to training.

Gendered perception of security and institutions

According to the special sample of public opinion collected by the Observatorio de la Democracia (Democracy Observatory) based at the Universidad de los Andes, there are significant differences in the confidence of respondents in the police and the armed forces. Women (49.3 per cent) have the highest confidence in the police compared to men (39.1 per cent). In contrast, 61.7 per cent of men trust the armed forces compared to 42.7 per cent of women who trust this institution. However, if a comparison is made between the 2018 National Sample and the 2019 Special Sample, it is possible to establish that the gap in trust in the armed forces, between men and women, is widening.

At this point, according to the Observatory, it is striking that men trust the armed forces more than women, while the opposite is true for the police. 43.3 per cent of women believe that the National Police respects human rights, while only 34.4 per cent of men share this perception. In contrast, men (46.1 per cent) believe the armed forces respect human rights more than women (38.9 per cent).

The analysis of the data carried out by the Observatory suggests that women's confidence in the police is due to special support for the prevention and care of gender-based violence, which is not the case with the armed forces. On the other hand, women state that they are less likely to be victims of common crime than men, and they may perceive greater efficiency in guaranteeing security on the part of the police, a situation which may translate into greater confidence in that institution.

4.3. Women and Peace Initiatives

In Colombia, women and gender have been part of the peacebuilding agenda since the 1950s. This is shown by a study published in 2017 with support from the One Earth Future Foundation (OEF) and its Sustainable Peace for Colombia programme (PASO Colombia). The study sought to document the emergence and evolution of peace initiatives from civil society in Colombia and collected more than 1,800 records. Overall, it shows that in the midst of conflict and despite adversity, Colombian civil society engaged in peacebuilding activities. When looking at gender the study reveals that initiatives emerged across the country, supported by international cooperation and the public and private sector and reached a peak of creation in 2005, during one of the most critical moments of the armed confrontation. The figures and map below illustrate this and other characteristics of these initiatives.

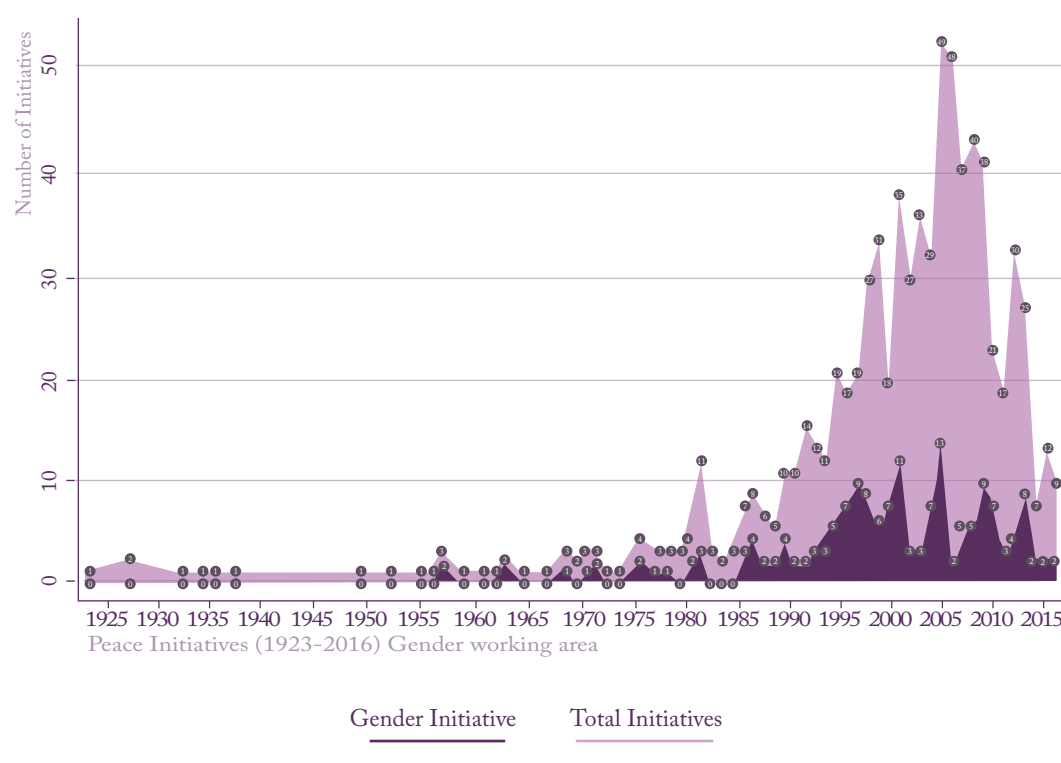
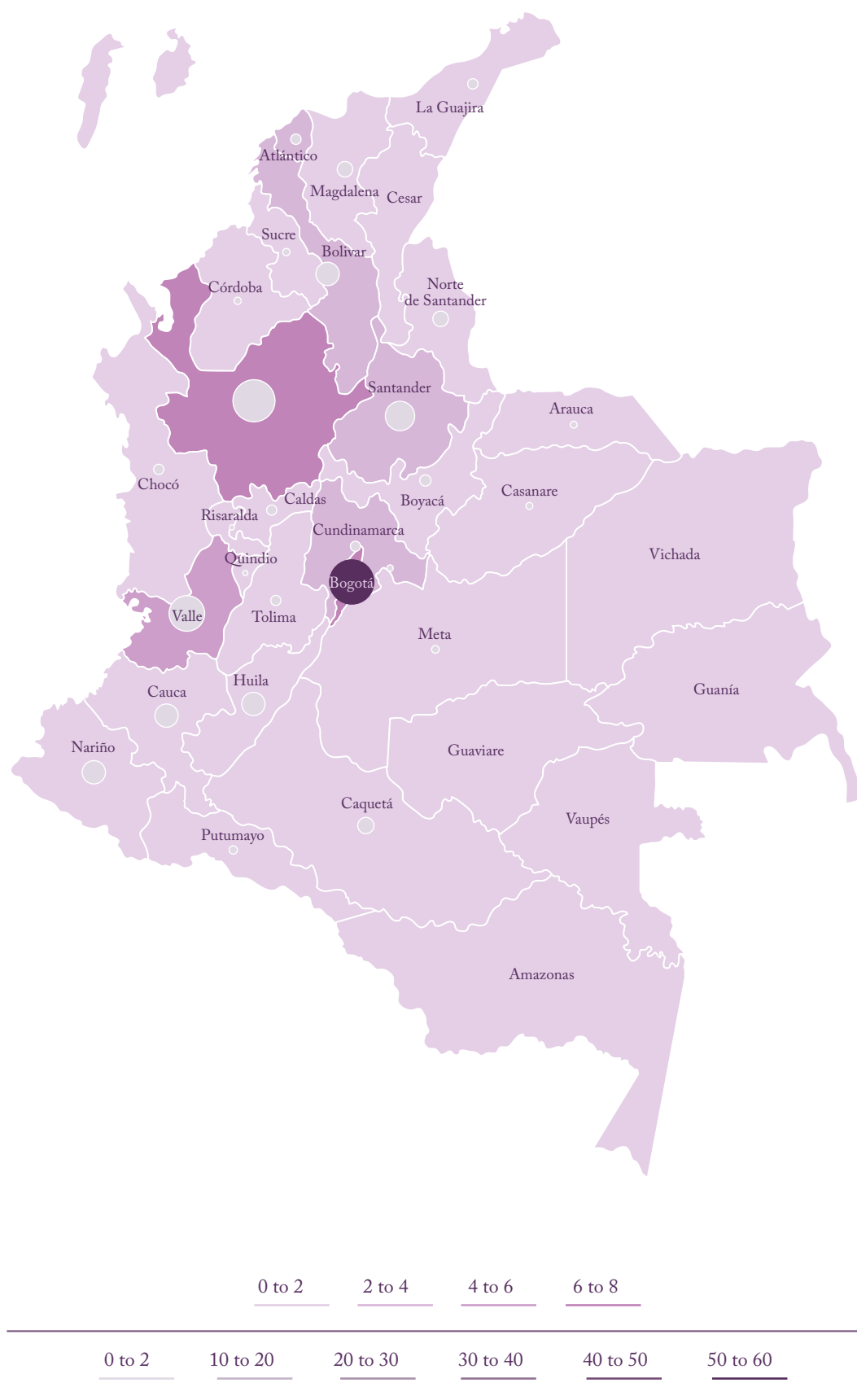


Figure 55. Peace initiatives, with a gender focus (n = 170), by year of creation, in contrast to the total number of peace initiatives created each year

22.3 per cent of the initiatives founded each year have gender as a working area. In 1957, the first gender-related peace initiatives were registered. The highest number of gender-related peace initiatives were recorded (13 initiatives) in 2005.

As shown in Map 1, gender-related peace initiatives have emerged in 27 of the 32 departments of Colombia (see footnote above for an explanation of Colombian departments). Bogotá, Antioquia, Valle and Santander have had the greatest number of initiatives. The size and colour of the sphere indicate the number of peace initiatives created in that department. As shown in Figure 56 the most important source of funding for peace initiatives is international cooperation, followed by the Colombian state and the private sector.



Map 1. Peace initiatives in Colombia with a gender focus (n = 312), by departments

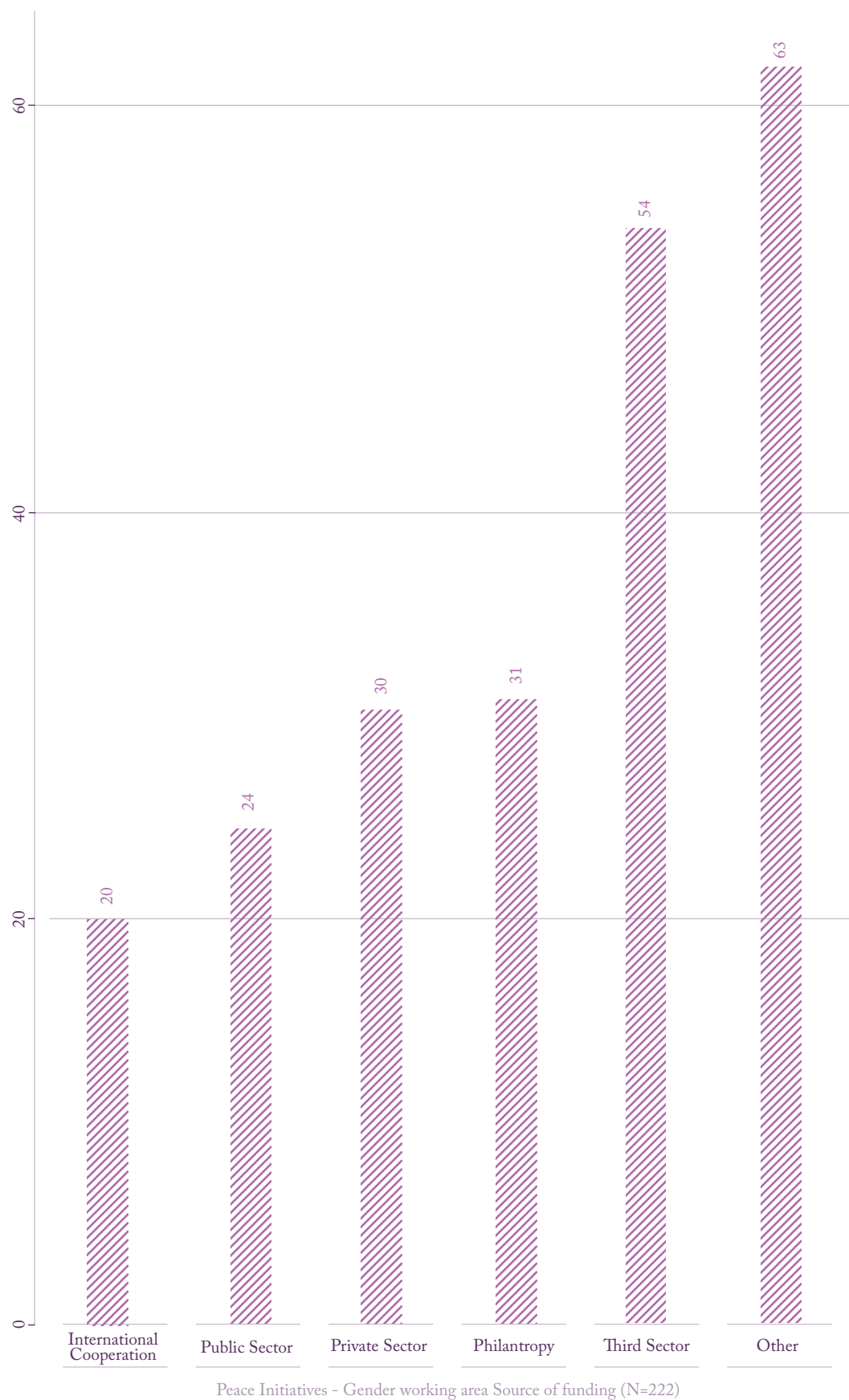


Figure 56. Peace initiatives with a gender focus (n = 222), by source of funding

Source: Based on data from [One Earth Future](#) (OEF) and its programme Sustainable Peace for Colombia ([PASO Colombia](#)), see also Rettberg & Chaux (in editorial review)

4.4. Peace Negotiations

Since 1990, the Colombian government has conducted at least 20 peace negotiations with different armed groups (Table 12). Of these peace negotiations, six have failed and seven have resulted in agreements and demobilisation.

Table 12. Colombia peace negotiations timeline

1990	Colombia Peace Agreement with M-19
1991	Colombian Constitution promulgated
1991	Colombia Peace Agreement with EPL and Quintín Lame
1992	Peace talks between Colombia and the FARC-EP and ELN failed
1994	Individual demobilisation framework. Decree 1385 of 1994
1998	Peace talks between Colombia and the FARC-EP initiated. Demilitarised Zone creation
2002	Peace talks fail between Colombia and the FARC-EP
2002	AUC declares unilateral ceasefire
2003	AUC Demobilisation Agreement with Colombia – Santa Fe de Ralito Agreement
2005	Justice and Peace Law enacted – Law 975 of 2005
2006	AUC Demobilisation concludes
2011	Victims and Land Restitution Law enacted – Law 1448 of 2011
2011	Exploratory meetings between Colombia and the FARC-EP begin
2012	Initiation of Peace Negotiations between Colombia and the FARC-EP
2013	Colombia and the FARC-EP reach first agreement on Integral Rural Reform
2014	Gender sub-committee created
2016	June: Colombia and the FARC-EP sign Definite Ceasefire and Disarmament Agreement
2016	Aug: Colombia and the FARC-EP reach Peace Agreement
2016	Oct: Peace Agreement rejected in National Referendum
2016	Oct-Nov: Peace Agreement renegotiated and agreed upon
2016	Nov: Peace Agreement approved by the Congress
2017	The FARC-EP concludes disarmament

Source: Pares: Proceso de Paz en Colombia; Datos Abiertos: Demovilizaciones por régimen legal, 3 March, 2020

In 2019, the Observatorio de la Democracia from Universidad de los Andes carried out a special sample presenting the percentage of respondents according to gender who support now the Peace Agreement signed between the government of former president Juan Manuel Santos and FARC-EP in 2016. Although most respondents said they supported this Agreement (approximately 54 per cent), there was variation between men and women. In fact, the proportion of women who said they supported the Peace Agreement was significantly lower than the proportion of men. Specifically, 56.9 per cent of the men surveyed expressed support compared to only 51.6 per cent of women ([Observatorio de la Democracia, 2019](#))

4.4.1. Gender Focus in the Peace Negotiations with FARC-EP

The negotiation leading to a peace agreement between the government and FARC-EP in 2016 included a gender focus, both in the composition of the negotiating teams as well as in the content of the agreement.

Table 13. Timeline of the inclusion of a gender focus in peace negotiations with FARC-EP

2012	September: Formal negotiations between the Colombian government and the FARC-EP begin. All male negotiators with a few female staff.
2012	October: The FARC-EP appoints Tanja Nijmeijer to be one of its negotiators.
2013	Colombian government appoints two female representatives to their team, in response to pressure from feminist and women's organisations.
2014	August: Victims of the armed conflict share their testimonies with the negotiating parties. 36 female victims participated (60 per cent of the victims that participated).
2014	September: Gender Sub-Commission ("GSB") is created by negotiating parties to ensure a gender focus will be included in all stages of negotiation and all points of the agreement.
2015	August: Gender Sub-Commission holds the last meeting with women's and LGBTI organisations and national experts. The GSB previously held meetings in December 2014 and March 2015.

Source: [Negotiating from the Margins: Women's Participation in Colombian Peace Processes \(1982–2016\)](#), Chaparro and Martínez; [Vivencias, aportes y reconocimiento: las mujeres en el proceso de paz en La Habana](#); [Women take the reins to build peace in Colombia](#): UN Women; Oettler, Anika, "The Struggle for Gendered Peace and LGBT Rights in Colombia", Violence, Security, and Peace Working Papers, No.2, July 2019, http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/101624/1/Oettler_the_struggle_for_gendered_peace_and_lgbt_rights_in_colombia_published.pdf

4.4.2. Gender Focus in the Peace Agreement

Colombia's 2016 peace agreement has been acknowledged for its attention to gender issues. In fact, a perceived excess of "gender ideology" was one of the causes motivating opposition to the agreement as well as the victory of the "no" in the October 2016 referendum. As will be shown below in the table, gender cuts through many aspects of the agreement.

Chapter	Gender Provisions
1 Comprehensive Rural Reform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognition that structural transformation requires greater access to land for rural women (preamble) • Recognition of the productive and reproductive role of women and their fundamental contribution to the rural economy and development (preamble) • Inclusion of gender-based perspective in all listed plans and programmes, which considers women's needs throughout their life cycles (preamble) • Promotion of vocational training for women in disciplines that are not the traditional preserve of women (1.3.2.1) • Promotion of schemes for protection during pregnancy, childbirth, breast-feeding and health services for new-borns, by progressively extending the coverage and enhancing the quality of family health and subsidy systems (1.3.3.5)
2 Political Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of affirmative measures that will safeguard women's participation in the various areas of political and social representation (preamble) • Assurance of female representation in political opposition groups and organisations (2.1.1.1) • Creation of a comprehensive security system to ensure the exercise of political rights with specific information as to risks and threats concerning the participation and the political, social and community representation of women (2.1.2.1 d) • Use of media in the development and promotion of a culture of participation, which incorporates non-discriminatory values and respect for the rights of women to a life free from violence (2.2.3)
3 End of the Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusion of equity-based approach in every component of the re-incorporation process, with a particular emphasis on women's rights (3.2) • Implementation of a gender-based approach which considers the specific risks faced by women against their life, freedom, integrity and safety and is appropriate for those risks (3.4) • Creation of a special investigative unit for the dismantling of criminal organisations and criminal acts, which will implement specialised investigation methodological plans in relation to the most serious acts of victimisation undertaken against women (3.4.4)

Chapter	Gender Provisions
4 Solution to Illicit Drugs Problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognition that the production and sale of illicit drugs and criminal economies have a severe influence on specific forms of violence that particularly affect women, victims of human trafficking, sexual exploitation and violence and requirement of the training of women in the planning and monitoring of action to combat this kind of violence (preamble) • Requirement that women be involved as active subjects in the agreement processes in relation to voluntary substitution, recognising their active role in the processes of rural development (4.1.2) • Requirement that women be involved in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the comprehensive plans for the substitution of crops used for illicit purposes (PNIS) and alternative agrarian development, and that women receive training to prevent gender-based violence associated with drugs (4.1.3)
5 Victims and the Comprehensive System for Truth, Justice, Reparations and Non-Repetition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assurance that the gender-based approach runs through each aspect of the Truth Commission, by creating a gender-based task force in charge of specific technical tasks, investigation, holding of hearings and liaising with women's and LGBTI organisations (5.1.1.4) • Inclusion in the Special Jurisdiction for Peace of an emphasis on the needs of women and child victims, who suffer the disproportionate and differentiated effects of serious breaches and violations committed because of and during the conflict and a reparations framework in line with the United Nations' call for all peace agreements to adopt a gender focus, recognising reparative and restorative measures, the special suffering of women, and the importance of their active and fair participation (5.1.2.8) • Creation of an Investigation and Prosecution Unit in the Special Jurisdiction for Peace, which will have a special investigation team for cases of sexual violence and will include special provisions on handling evidence related to acts of sexual violence (5.1.2.67) • Inclusion in the Special Jurisdiction for Peace of special sanctions related to harm or injury caused to minors, women and other affected parties (5.1.2(I))
6 Implementation and Verification Mechanisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requirement that differential action must be taken to enable women to access the plans and programmes contained in the Agreement on equal terms and that the gender-based approach must be understood and applied in a cross-cutting manner in implementing the whole of the Agreement (preamble) • Creation of a special forum (Instancia Especial) comprising representatives from six national and regional Colombian women's organisations, to maintain a permanent dialogue with the Commission for Monitoring, Promoting and Verifying the Implementation of the Final Agreement (CMPVI) (6.1(d)) • Implementation of an educational and communication strategy will be agreed for the dissemination of the principles of non-racial and ethnic discrimination against women, youngsters and girls demobilised from the conflict (6.2.3(e))

Source: Forjando Paz: Gender Focus of Peace Agreement

4.5. Institutional Framework of Peace in Colombia

Many aspects of the institutional framework that resulted from the Final Peace Agreement were developed long before the Agreement was signed in 2016. In 2005, Law 975 (or the Justice and Peace Law) promoted the need for historical memory, truth, and victims' reparations. In 2011, the Victims and Land Restitution Law was enacted (Law 1448), creating a comprehensive system of attention and reparations for the victims of the armed conflict. After the signing of the Final Peace Agreement, additional institutions were created to fulfil the various commitments in the Agreement. Table 14 lists some of the main agencies that make up the Colombian peacebuilding infrastructure.

Table 14. Main Colombian peacebuilding institutions.

Institution	Year of Creation	Purpose
Centro Nacional de Memoria Histórica (National Centre of Historical Memory)	2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To receive, collect, compile and analyse all documentary material, oral testimonies or other sources related to the violations that took place in the internal armed conflict • To perform investigations, museum activities, teachings and other related activities that contribute to the establishment and clarification of the conflicts' causes, to uncover the truth and to avoid future repetition of such acts
Unidad para la Atención y Reparación Integral a las Víctimas (Unit for the Integral Attention and Reparation of Victims)	2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To manage the Victims and Land Restitution Law's framework and the coordination and oversight of the multiple entities charged with the implementation of attention and reparation measures
Unidad Administrativa Especial de Gestión de Restitución de Tierras Despojadas (Special Administrative Unit for the Management of the Restitution of Dispossessed Lands)	2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To carry out the process for land restitution and formalisation for victims of land dispossession and forced abandonment that has taken place since January 1991 in the context of the internal armed conflict
Sistema Nacional para la Atención y Reparación Integral a las Víctimas (National System for the Integral Attention and Reparation of the Victims)	2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To formulate and execute plans, programmes, projects and specific actions which are aimed at the comprehensive attention to and reparations for victims
Sistema Nacional de Derechos Humanos y DIH (National System of Human Rights and IHL)	2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To coordinate the actions of national and local entities, in order to promote the respect and guarantee of human rights and international humanitarian law, through the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the Integral Policy of Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law
Oficina del Alto Comisionado para la Paz (Office of the High Commissioner for Peace)	2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To advise the President in the structuring and development of the peace policy and to verify the real will for peace and reinsertion for those who have disarmed • To determine and finalise peace negotiations and the celebration of peace agreements
Consejería Presidencial para los Derechos Humanos (Presidential Council for Human Rights)	2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To advise the President and the national government regarding the promotion, coordination and direction of the comprehensive policy of human rights from a peace-building perspective • To promote actions directed at guaranteeing the protection of human rights and international humanitarian law, as essential to consolidate peace

Institution	Year of Creation	Purpose
Agencia de Desarrollo Rural (Rural Development Agency)	2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To execute the rural and agricultural development policy with a territorial focus • To contribute to the improvement of living conditions for rural populations
Agencia Nacional de Tierras (National Land Agency)	2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To execute the policy of social ordering of rural property by guaranteeing access to land and legal security of land • To administer and distribute rural property owned by the government
Agencia de Renovación del Territorio (Territorial Renovation Agency)	2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To coordinate the interventions of national and territorial entities in the rural regions affected by the armed conflict and prioritised by the government • To execute the plans and projects for the renovation of these territories, which permit the reactivation of economies and institutional strengthening in a sustainable manner
Comisión de Seguimiento, Impulso y Verificación a la Implementación del Acuerdo Final (Commission for the Monitoring, Promotion and Verification of the Implementation of the Final Agreement)	2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To monitor, promote and verify jointly (with members of the Colombian government and ex FARC-EP members), the implementation of the Final Peace Agreement
Comisión Nacional de Garantías de Seguridad (National Commission for Security Guarantees)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To design and monitor the public and criminal policy related to the dismantling of criminal organisations and other groups responsible for violence against human rights defenders, social movements and former FARC-EP members
Jurisdicción Especial para la Paz (Special Peace Jurisdiction)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To administer justice under a transitional justice framework for crimes committed during the internal armed conflict • To satisfy the rights of the victims to justice, offer the truth to Colombian society and contribute to a lasting and stable peace in Colombia • To offer legal security and special sanctions for those who participated in the armed conflict
Unidad de Búsqueda de Personas Desaparecidas en el contexto y razón del conflicto armado (Unit for the Search for Disappeared Persons in the Context of and Due to the Conflict)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To direct, coordinate and contribute to the implementation of humanitarian actions related to the search for missing persons due to the armed conflict • To identify, collect and deliver the remains of the dead
Comisión para el Esclarecimiento de la Verdad, la Convivencia y la No repetición (Truth, Coexistence and Non Recurrence Commission)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To contribute to the clarification of what happened in the armed conflict • To offer a broad explanation of the complexities of the armed conflict, in order to promote a shared societal understanding
Dirección para la Acción Integral contra Minas Antipersonal - Descontamina Colombia (Office for the Integral Action Against Anti-person Mines – Decontaminate Colombia)	2019	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To formulate and help execute the public policy related to the integral action against anti-person mines • To establish technical guidance and regulation mechanisms, as well as programmes and projects related to the integral action against antipersonnel mines policy
Fondo Colombia en Paz (Colombia in Peace Fund)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To function as the administrative organisation for the administration, coordination, articulation, focalisation and execution of the different sources of resources in order to implement the Peace Agreement
Consejo Nacional de Paz, Reconciliación y Convivencia (National Council for Peace, Reconciliation and Coexistence)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To strive for the achievement and maintenance of peace • To generate a culture of reconciliation, tolerance, coexistence and non-stigmatisation to ensure a permanent and integral peace

Institution	Year of Creation	Purpose
Programa Integral de Sustitución de Cultivos de Uso Ilícito (Comprehensive Programme for the Substitution of Illicit Use Crops)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To promote the voluntary substitution of illicit use crops through the implementation of development programmes, in order to contribute to the overcoming of poverty and marginalisation of rural families
Agencia para la Reincorporación y la Normalización (Agency for the Reincorporation and Normalisation)	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To manage, implement, coordinate and evaluate the policies, plans, programmes and projects related to the reincorporation and reintegration of ex FARC-EP members

The Special Peace Jurisdiction (JEP)

The Special Peace Jurisdiction (JEP) was created in the chapter on transitional justice of the Final Peace Agreement to serve as the justice component of the Integral System for Truth, Justice, Reparations, and Non-Repetition. The JEP is tasked with investigating crimes committed within the armed conflict by the FARC-EP and Colombian forces. Additionally, the JEP has the unique capacity to investigate crimes committed by third party actors, although it can only exercise jurisdiction over such actors if they voluntarily submit to the JEP's jurisdiction. The JEP has a 15-year mandate, which may be extended for a maximum of five additional years.

Structurally, the JEP is composed of three Justice Chambers and a Peace Tribunal. The Chamber of the Recognition of Truth, Responsibility and the Determination of Acts and Conduct (SRVR) is the point of entry to the JEP and determines whether the acts in question remit under the JEP's competency. The SRVR group, prioritise and remit the different cases to the respective Chambers and Tribunal. The SRVR is also carrying out seven macro cases (listed below), in order to identify and send to the Tribunal, those who bear the greatest responsibility for crimes committed in the armed conflict. Individuals may be referred to the Amnesty and Pardon Chamber (SAI), which has the task of deciding whether the crimes in question should receive amnesty or not. Crimes not subject to amnesty are the following: crimes against humanity, genocide, grave war crimes, kidnapping, torture, extrajudicial killing, enforced disappearance, sexual violence, abduction of minors, forced displacement and recruitment of minors. Finally, the Chamber of the Definition of Legal Situations (SDSJ) is in charge of determining when an alleged perpetrator's conduct was not related to the armed conflict (in which case, the case should be referred to the ordinary jurisdiction) or when such person's crimes were not as grave or they did not bear the greatest responsibility. If the SDSJ determines the person in question did not bear the greatest responsibility or did not commit grave crimes, the Chamber can renounce judicial prosecution for such person, which also shields the person from criminal prosecution in the ordinary criminal jurisdiction.

Cases in which the accused is not granted amnesty, nor has there been a renouncement of judicial prosecution, are ultimately referred to the Peace Tribunal. If the accused has already recognised their responsibility and given a full version of the truth, they will be brought to the Peace Tribunal's Section with Recognition, in which the Tribunal will verify the information and order a "propia" sanction. "Propia" sanctions range

from five to eight years and do not include imprisonment but require the sentenced to participate in restorative and reparative activities.

If the accused denies their participation in crimes, they will be sent to the Peace Tribunal's Section without Recognition, in which something akin to a full criminal trial will take place. If the accused, after the trial starts but before the verdict is given, recognises their responsibility and provides a full version of the truth, the Tribunal will order an "alternative" sanction, which is five to eight years' imprisonment. If the final ruling results in a finding of guilt, the Tribunal will order an "ordinary" sanction, which is 15 to 20 years of imprisonment. On the other hand, if the Tribunal finds the accused to be innocent, it will pronounce its judgment of innocence, thereby putting an end to all criminal prosecution. The JEP has been successful in attracting combatants, public officials, and civilians to its jurisdiction, as shown by table 15 below. Instead of pursuing all possible Human Rights violations, JEP has prioritised analysing seven macro cases, referring to the most frequent and most reprehensible Human Rights violations in the context of the Colombian armed conflict (table 14). The JEP is due to produce its first sentencing in late 2020.

Table 15. Number of individuals under JEP processes

Role	Number of people under JEP Jurisdiction JEP	Number of people awaiting acceptance of JEP Jurisdiction	Amnesties
Ex-FARC-EP	9,742		1,645 decisions
Public Forces	2,686	1,840	239 amnesties granted
Other State Agents	100	175	1,406 amnesties denied
Third Party Actors		766	
Total	12,528	2,781	

Source: [JEP en Cifras](#) – cut-off date of 8 July 2020; * 25 March 2020

Table 16. Macro cases under JEP investigation

Seven Macro case	
Case 001	Illegal retentions of persons (kidnappings) by the FARC-EP
Case 002	Situation of the municipalities of Ricaurte, Tumaco and Barbacoas in the department of Nariño
Case 003	Deaths illegitimately presented as killed in combat (false positives) by state agents
Case 004	Territorial situation in the region of Urabá
Case 005	Territorial situation of North Cauca and southern Valle del Cauca
Case 006	Victimisation of members of the Unión Patriótica party
Case 007	Recruitment of children in the armed conflict

Source: [JEP en Cifras](#) – cut-off date of 8 July 2020; * 10 July 2020

4.6. Victims of the Armed Conflict

In 2011, Colombia took the unprecedented step of recognising the Colombian armed conflict for the first time by enacting the Victims and Land Restitution Law (Law 1448 of 2011). The Law put in place measures to address the needs and promote the reparation of victims of the armed conflict from 1 January 1985 onwards. Among other things, the Law created the Unit for the Integral Attention and Reparation of Victims (Victims Unit), which is tasked with the management of the Law's framework and the coordination and oversight of the multiple entities charged with the implementation of attention and reparation measures. The Law also created the Victims Registry, in which individuals must be officially registered as victims before they can receive support and reparation. One of the most prominent challenges has been the nexus requirement, which states that the law only recognises as victims those who have suffered damage or harm which occurred in the specific context of the internal armed conflict. As such, some victims (for example, those who were victims of crimes committed by non-political criminal organisations) have not been able to access the support system created by the law. Table 17 summarises crucial aspects of Law 1448.

Table 17. Victims of the armed conflict under Law 1448 (2011)

Who is considered a victim?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Those who have been harmed by grave violations of human rights or international humanitarian law (IHL) related to the armed conflict, starting from 1 January 1985 • Members of armed groups are not considered to be victims (except children forcibly recruited)
How does a victim access support and reparation measures?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To access support and reparation measures, a victim needs to be included in the Victims' Registry by presenting a declaration and subsequently being approved
Which victims can benefit from the law?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Those victims registered in the Victims' Registry and who can effectively access support and reparation measures • Victims not subject to support include those who have died, who have been forcibly disappeared, who do not have valid documentation, or who do not reside in Colombia.
Which types of reparations are available?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Restitution, compensation, rehabilitation, measures of satisfaction and guarantees of non-repetition.

Source: Registro Único de Víctimas – 31 May 2020,

⁷ For a discussion of the Victims' Law see Sikkink, Kathryn, Peter Dixon, Phuong N. Pham, Douglas A. Johnson, Bridget Marchesi, and Patrick Vinck (2015) "An Evaluation of Comprehensive Reparations Measures in Colombia: Accomplishments and Challenges." Cambridge: Carr Center for Human Rights Policy, Harvard Humanitarian Initiative.

The next table shows the number of victims registered in the Victims' registry.

Table 18. Number of victims registered by types of victimisation and gender

Victims of the Colombian Armed Conflict Registered in the Victims' Registry						
Type of Violent Act*	Total	Males	Females	Intersex	LGBTI	No information
All Types**	10,167,175	4,994,523	5,165,790	484	6,115	263
Forced Displacement	8,036,014	3,890,962	4,140,852	391	3,711	98
Homicide	1,038,073	548,871	488,769	48	275	110
Threats	500,622	240,384	258,953	19	1,250	16
Enforced Disappearance	180,747	95,578	85,093	4	55	17
Loss of Property	119,857	61,647	58,142	2	54	12
Acts of Terrorism, Attacks, Armed Confrontations	85,700	47,090	38,512	4	93	1
Confinement	38,632	19,643	18,974	4	11	
Kidnapping	37,398	28,051	9,307	2	37	1
Crimes Against Sexual Liberty and Integrity	32,220	2,419	29,309	2	488	2
Land Dispossession or Forced Abandonment	23,275	11,609	11,650	4	10	2
Psychological Injuries	15,917	10,505	5,405		7	
Injuries from Mines, Unexploded Ammunition or Improvised Explosive Devices	11,720	10,566	1,153		1	
Torture	10,804	6,162	4,583	2	57	
Physical Injuries	9,670	6,528	3,093		49	
Recruitment of Children by Armed Groups	8,353	5,540	2,796	1	14	2
Without Information	18,173	8,968	9,199	1	3	2

Source: [Registro Único de Víctimas](#) - 31 May 2020, *all violent acts recorded are related to the armed conflict;

**The Victims Unit states that there are 9,014,766 victims of the armed conflict. The numbers in this row may include victims who were counted multiple times under different violent acts. As such, the numbers in this row serve as a general estimate of the victims.

As illustrated in the following figure, most victims of sexual crimes are female.

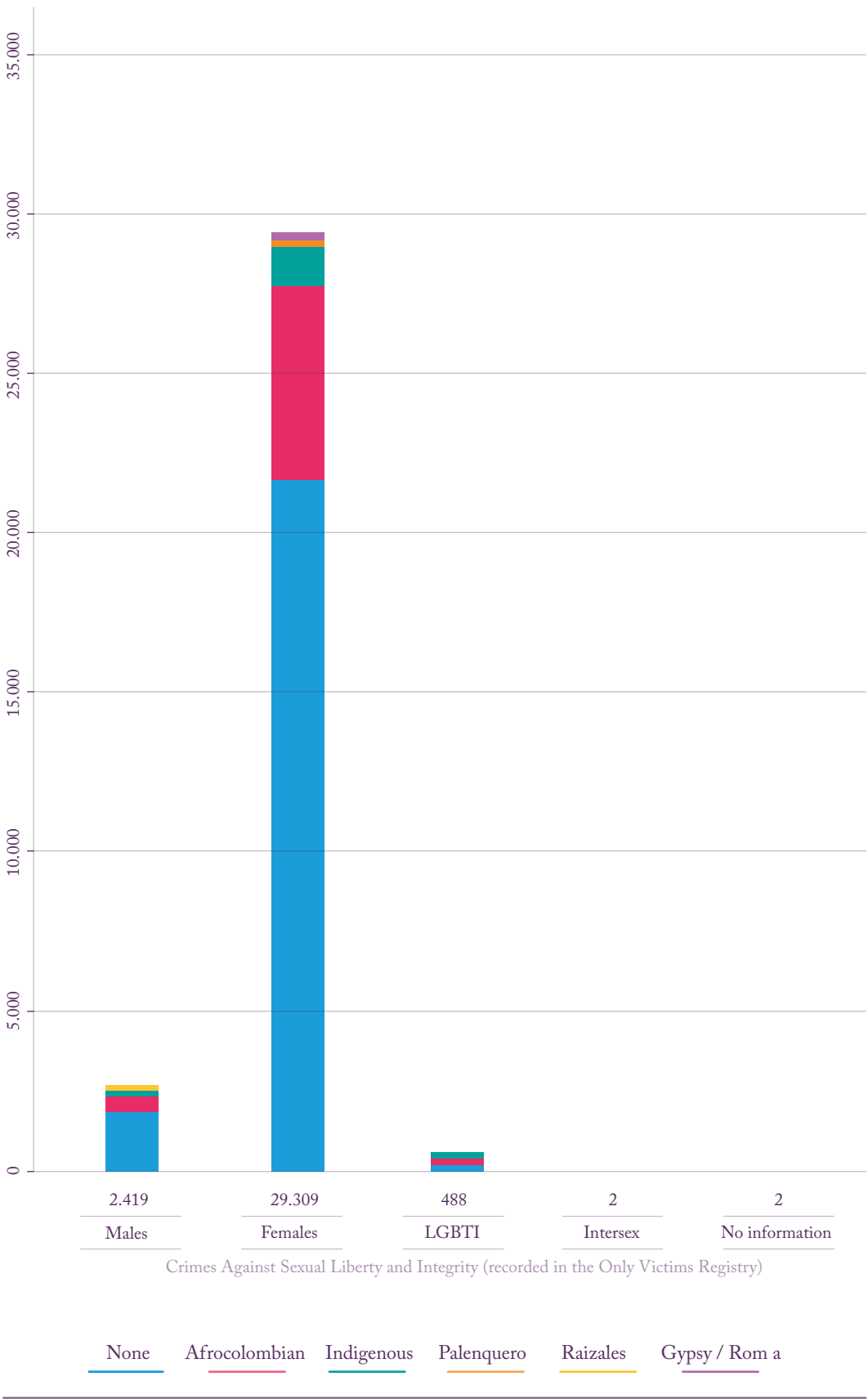


Figure 57. Crimes Against Sexual Liberty and Integrity

Source: [Registro Único de Víctimas](#) - 31 May 2020, *all violent acts recorded are related to the armed conflict

4.7. Reparations

Table 19 provides an overview of reparation in Colombia.

Table 19. Reparations Statistics

<i>Numbers</i>
Out of the 9,014,766 victims of the armed conflict (17.9 per cent of the Colombian population), 7,287,610 are entitled to support under the law
<i>Reparation Fund</i>
The Reparation Fund is composed of COP\$11,340,173,000,000 COP (approximately USD\$3,036,575,134)
<i>Compensation</i>
Since 2009, 1,128,985 payments have been made for a total of COP\$7,294,514,000,000 (approximately USD\$1,953,262,956). 42 per cent of these compensations have been awarded to victims of forced displacement
<i>Collective Reparations</i>
Out of 335 identified cases of groups entitled to collective reparations, 13 groups have received collective reparations (none have been awarded to ethnic groups, so far)

Source: [Red Nacional de Información](#): 31 May 2020; Currency exchange rate used from 26 June 2020

By December 2020, the [Unit for the Attention and Integral Reparation of Victims \(UARIV\)](#) reported that 9,099,358 victims had been included in the Single Registry of Victims (RUV), of which 7,340,456 are subject to attention, i.e. those victims who can access the reparation measures provided for in the law. In addition, 1,107,952 persons had been compensated, which is equivalent to 15.1% of the victims subject to attention.

4.7.1. Land Restitution

The Victims and Land Restitution Law also provides land restitution for landowners, land possessors, and land occupants whose lands were dispossessed or who were forced to abandon their lands due to the armed conflict from January 1991. The land restitution process has both an administrative and a judicial component, the former being a prerequisite to the latter. Regarding the administrative step, the Special Administrative Unit for the Management of Dispossessed Land Restitution (URT) was created as part of the Law to be the gatekeeper for the land restitution process. Once the threshold requirements are met, the URT begins its formal case study, in which it collects evidence and testimony from the applicant (and from the person or entity opposing the land restitution, if one exists) and makes a final determination regarding whether or not

the land should be included in the Single Registry of Abandoned Property and Land (RUPTA). Only when the property is registered in the RUPTA can an applicant advance to the judicial step, in which a land restitution judge will make a final determination related to land restitution. In 2019, the president and the Constitutional Court prolonged the validity of the Victims' Law for 10 more years, extending its duration until 2031. Table 20 summarises several key land restitution statistics.

Table 20. Land Restitution Statistics as of May 2020

125,500 land restitution applications
98,679 applications meet threshold requirements
81,802 applications fully processed
32,086 people benefitted with 380,832 hectares of land
28,622 applications included in the registry
20,909 applications presented to land restitution judges
11,207 applications with a final decision
4,581 restituted properties

Source: Estadísticas de Restitución - 31 May 2020

4.8. Violence Against Human Rights Defenders and Ex-Combatants

Violence and targeted killings of human rights defenders and ex FARC-EP combatants continues to be a serious concern for the implementation of the Peace Agreement. In fact, in his 14 July 2020 statement to the UN Security Council, Special Representative and head of the UN Verification Mission in Colombia (UNVM), Carlos Ruiz Mas-sieu, said that the continued violence against ex FARC-EP members and human rights defenders remains “the gravest threat to the consolidation of peace in Colombia.” As killings persist, and the government fails to take effective action, the implementation remains stalled in certain regions, and communities and ex FARC-EP members are in risk of losing faith in the peace that was promised to them.

Table 21. Targeted Killings of Human Rights Defenders and ex FARC-EP Combatants

Year	2017	2018	2019	2020 (until 26 March)	Total
Number of ex FARC-EP Killed since the Peace Agreement*	31	65	78	18	192 (3 of whom were women)
Year	2017	2018	2019	2020 (until 31 March)	Total
Number of Human Rights Defenders Killed since the Peace Agreement**	126 (108 men and 18 women)	178 (166 men and 12 women)	134 (115 men and 19 women)	47 (42 men and 5 women)	485 (54 of whom were women)

*Source: Informe trimestral del Secretario General. Misión de Verificación de las Naciones Unidas en Colombia;

**Sources: Office of the Ombudsman of Colombia: [article 1](#), [article 2](#), [article 3](#); for data on murders in 2020, Programa Somos Defensores: [Trimestral Bulletin](#) - estimations from Programa *Somos Defensores* have generally been slightly lower than those of the Ombudsman

4.9. Women and Drug Trafficking

Illicit crops and the resulting violence have marred Colombia for decades. The country is responsible for seven out of every 10 grams of cocaine produced in the world according to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and, according to UNODC, 80 per cent of the victims of homicides, in the framework of the armed conflict in 2018, lived in municipalities affected by the presence of coca crops.

According to the report *Women and Drugs in the Americas* (2014), the media and the limited data available suggest that over the past two decades, women have become increasingly and significantly involved in the illicit drug trade. However, while this involvement is visible in the media, it has been largely absent from the activities and studies on the subject conducted by most governmental and intergovernmental agencies. In general, we know relatively little about the people involved in the production of illicit drugs— whether they are men or women.

This report also notes that information on women's involvement in cultivation diverted to illicit markets and illicit drug production is not readily available because studies focus more narrowly on two aspects: 1: women who have been imprisoned for drug trafficking and distribution offences; and 2: women who use drugs and who access and respond to different types of harm reduction and drug dependence treatment programmes.

As acknowledged by Caicedo (2017), most women who enter the world of illicit drugs do so at the lowest level, as human carriers and small-scale traffickers, and therefore do not take a leadership role in the marketing process. While men are known to dominate in this field, the consequences of criminal sanctions impact differently on women and often have a greater impact on their children and families. Penal mechanisms, such as harsh prison sentences for women often result in the separation of families or the abandonment of imprisoned women by family members (women receive fewer visits than men). Despite the prevalence of this type of crime and the impact of its sentencing, the gender dimensions of current drug policies and legislation have not yet been comprehensively evaluated.

The figure 58 below shows the data regarding detention in the female population registered by the National Police in 2020. Trafficking, manufacture and carrying of narcotic drugs is the crime with the highest incidence among women with 28 per cent. This means that in 2020 one in three women who are in jail have been accused of trafficking, manufacturing or carrying drugs.

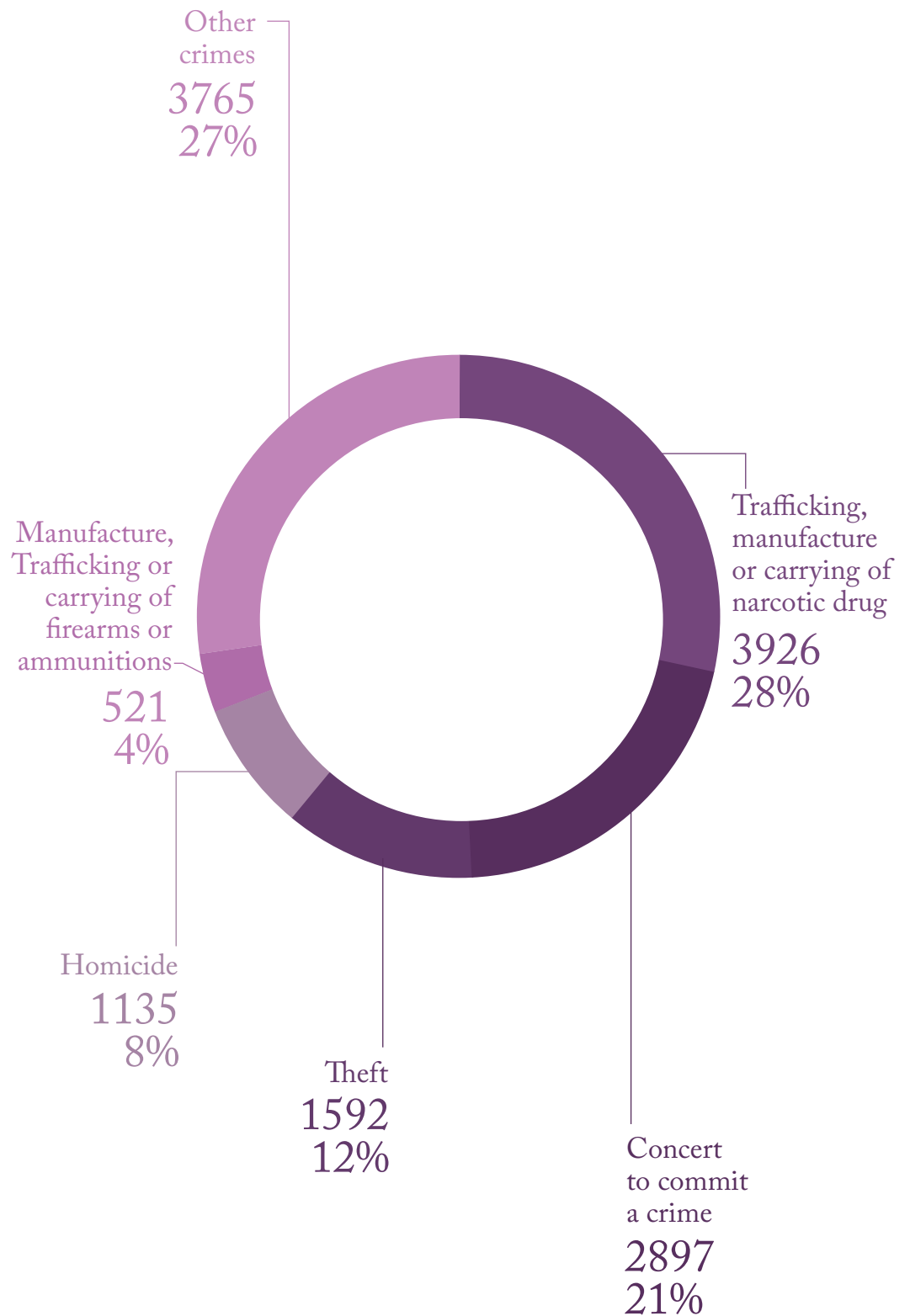


Figure 58. Female prison population - Most common crimes. March 2020

Source: [Colombian Drug Observatory, 2020](#).⁸

⁸ More information: *Mujeres y drogas en las Américas: Un diagnóstico de política en construcción*. (2014) <http://www.odc.gov.co/Portals/1/publicaciones/pdf/4.%20MUJERES%20Y%20DROGAS%20EN%20LAS%20AMÉRICAS.pdf>

05

Violence Against Women and Girls: Femicide

Femicide is recognised as the ultimate manifestation of violence against women and girls (Vives-Cases et. Al, 2016). Most Latin American and Caribbean countries have sanctioned femicide under criminal law, except Cuba and Haiti. In Colombia, Congress approved in 2015 the Law 1761, known as the “Rosa Elvira Cely Law”, which defines femicide. The legal definition is: “causing the death of a woman due to her condition as a woman or for reasons of her gender identity”. Punishment ranges from 20 to 41 years in prison. These are some of the circumstances where the murder of a woman can be categorised as femicide:

- Have or had a family or intimate relationship with the victim and being a perpetrator of a cycle of violence.
- Exercise gender or sexual instrumentalisation of the body and life of a woman.
- Exercise power over her life decisions.
- Take advantage of power relations. Understood as personal, economic, sexual, military, political or sociocultural hierarchy.
- Committing the crime to generate terror or humiliation on an enemy.
- History of violence from the perpetrator towards the victim.
- Deprivation of the victim’s freedom of movement

There are diverse methodologies to collect data on femicide, such as population-based studies; analysis of service records; homicide, police, hospital, court and mortuary statistics; domestic fatality reviews; reviews of newspapers and the media and so on (PATH et al, 2008). Data can be controversial, and it is not easy to find a unified number. Official data on “femicide” publicised by the National General Attorney report on cases from 2010 until 2020 that have been categorised as femicide under Colombian criminal law (Art. 104A Criminal Code). So far, 803 complaints have been presented. The figure shows the case progress; most of them (61 per cent) are still active in the judicial system.

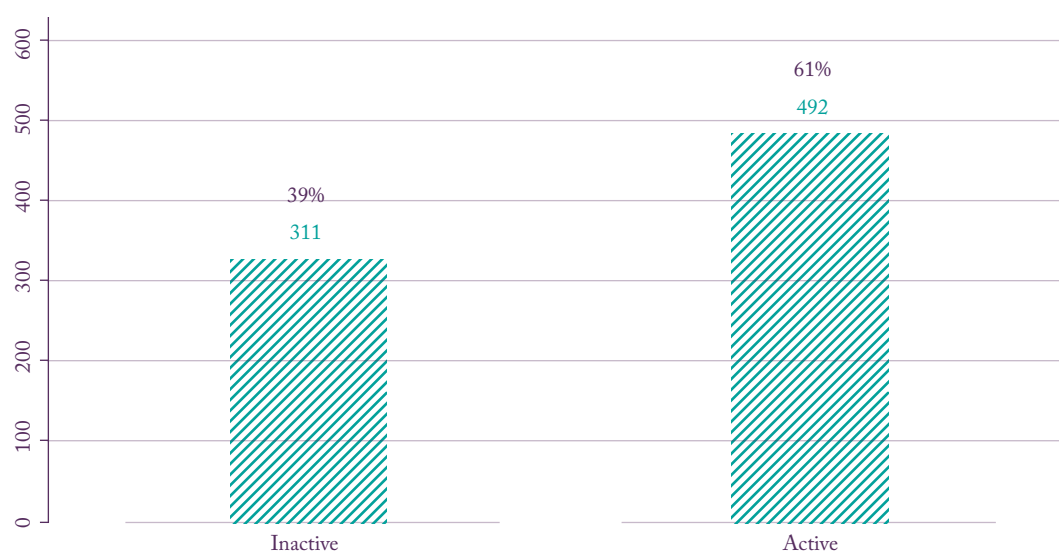


Figure 59. Case progress of femicide prosecutions

Source: National General Attorney – July 2020

The ECLAC Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean presents a report on 2,018 women who have been victims of femicide by gathering official information for 15 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. This report shows that at least 4,647 women have been victims. Colombia is not at the top of the highest rates of femicide per 100,000 women, as the following figure shows. Instead, the Latin American and Caribbean countries with the highest rates are Honduras (6.2), Saint Lucia (4.4), El Salvador (3.3), Trinidad y Tobago (2.9) and the Dominican Republic (2.7).

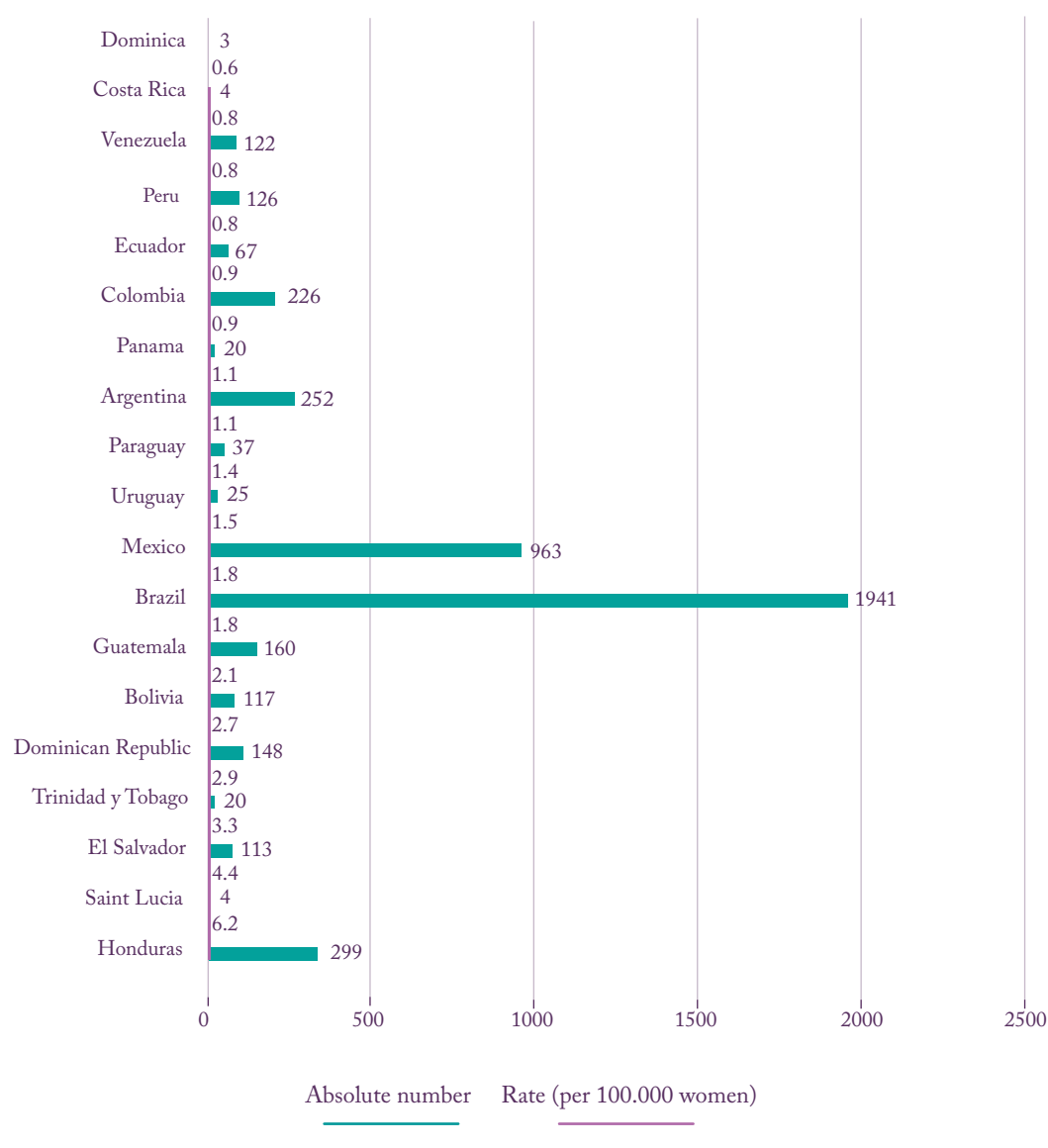


Figure 60. Latin America, the Caribbean and Spain (19 countries): Femicide, most recent data available (in absolute numbers and rates per 100,000 women)

Source: ECLAC Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean (2018).⁹

⁹ More data on feminicide can be found at: <https://badac.uniandes.edu.co/feminicidio-colombia/> and <https://oig.cepal.org/en/indicators/femicide-or-feminicide-> Also for more information on violence in Latin America consult: Rettberg, A. (2020) "Violencia en América Latina hoy: manifestaciones e impactos". Revista de Estudios Sociales, n.o 73: 2-17. <https://doi.org/10.7440/res73.2020.01>

06

UN Security Council Resolution 1325 – the Women, Peace and Security Agenda

Since 2011, the organisation Coalition 1325 has been monitoring the implementation of Resolution 1325 in Colombia. Coalition 1325 is currently made up of the following women's organisations at the national and regional level: National Conference of Afro-Colombian Organisations (CNOA), National Council of Indigenous Women of Colombia (CONAMIC), Research and Social and Economic Action Corporation (CIASE), DeJusticia, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF) Colombia and the National Women's Network.

The organisations that are part of Coalition 1325 carry out monitoring reports and promote the development of a Colombian National Action Plan (NAP) for the implementation of Resolution 1325.

Resolution 1325 compliance indicators¹⁰

In April 2010, a proposal was presented to the United Nations Security Council to establish a series of indicators to monitor the implementation of Resolution 1325 in the Member States. According to Dora Díaz, Susana Ortega, Patricia Prieto and Sonia Zabala, in October of the same year, 26 indicators were approved to “determine how the expected results are being achieved in relation to the issues involved in the resolutions on women, peace and security” (2012, p. 46). The indicators were grouped into four components:

- 1. Participation:** Seeks to measure the incorporation of women and their interests at the decision-making levels of the processes of conflict management, as well as to evaluate the extent to which women participate in peace agreements. It also calls for greater participation in national and local government, as citizens, elected officials, and decision-makers.

The following table 22 and figure 61 show data regarding compliance with Law 581 of 2000, or the Quota Law, which stipulates that 30 per cent of public positions at the highest decision-making and other executive levels must be held by women.

¹⁰ More information: [Humanas Colombia: Monitoring reports to Resolution 1325 in Colombia – National Women's Network Res 1325 Coalition – Women's International League for Peace and Freedom – LIMPAL Colombia](#)

a. Table 22. Participation of women in leadership positions in the national order of the Colombian State by branches and bodies of public authority

	Highest decision-making level			Other decision-making levels		
	2017	2018	2019	2017	2018	2019
Executive Branch	36%	40%	41%	40%	42%	44%
Legislative Branch	56%	58%	40%	58%	35%	48%
Judicial Branch	36%	38%	43%	38%	42%	33%
Control Agencies	40%	43%	42%	43%	39%	36%
Electoral Organisation	0%	0%	24%	0%	31%	36%
Autonomous Bodies	34%	36%	37%	36%	43%	42%

Source: Based on data from the Administrative Department of the Civil Service, 2019

Participation of women in leadership positions in the national order of the Colombian State by branches and bodies of public authority



Figure 61. Participation of women in leadership positions

Source: Based on data from the Administrative Department of the Civil Service, 2019

b. **Participation in government decision-making bodies: positions by appointment**

Sections 2.1 and 3.1 of this document present a broader analysis about elected officials (both in the Executive and Legislative) and the Judicial Branch, which is also part of indicator No. 12 of Resolution 1325, “Political participation of women in parliament and in ministerial and other senior decision-making positions in the National Government”, which indirectly states that “gender equality issues are represented in decision-making bodies”.

2. **Prevention:** Seeks to measure the state’s provisions to prevent any form of violence or violation of the rights of women and girls, by highlighting issues related to sexual and gender-based violence. It also assesses the institutional response to address violations of women’s and girls’ rights during the conflict in ceasefire processes, peace negotiations and post-conflict situations.
3. **Protection:** By emphasising the need to ensure the protection of the life, integrity and security of all persons without excluding or discriminating based on gender, the United Nations calls on the Member States to provide for the safety, physical and mental health of women and girls, and full respect for their human rights. This requires States to create and implement laws that respect the political, economic, social and cultural rights of women and girls, under international standards. Similarly, States must have mechanisms and operational structures to strengthen the control of small arms and light weapons that put people’s safety and integrity at risk. Finally, the UN calls on States to provide support services and access to justice for women whose rights have been violated.
4. **Relief and recovery:** Relief and recovery focuses on the needs of women and girls, especially those related to access to health, education and care services, as armed conflict can exacerbate violence and hinder full enjoyment of these services. According to the United Nations, this component assesses relief and recovery programmes for women and girls, especially vulnerable groups (internally displaced persons, victims of sexual or gender-based violence, ex-combatants, refugees and returning women). It assesses the degree of gender mainstreaming in post-conflict institutions and processes of justice, transition, reconciliation and reconstruction. It also assesses whether disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR) programmes consider the needs of female security agents, ex-combatants, women and girls associated with armed groups.

07

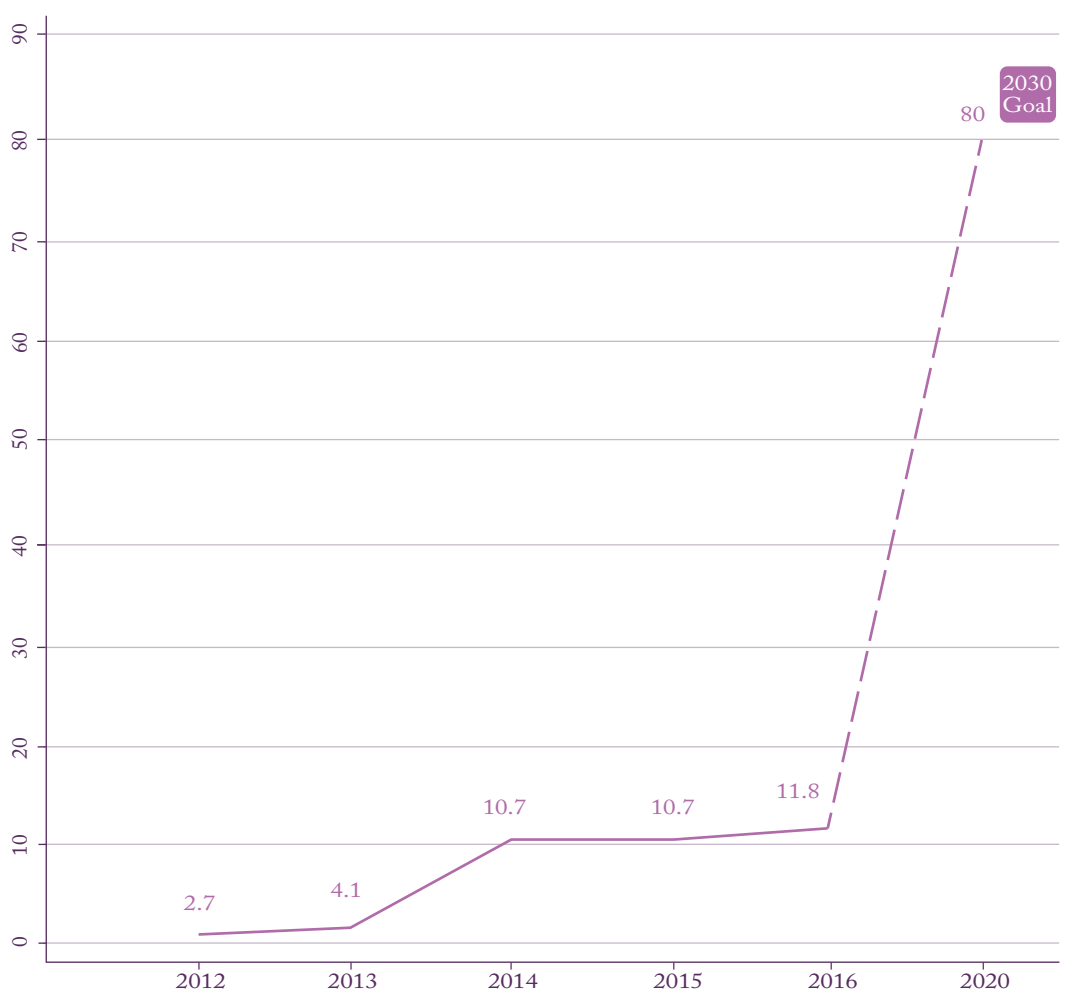
Sustainable Development Goals – 2030 Agenda

The National Planning Department (DNP) is the government entity that measures Colombia’s performance on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals. For this purpose, the Colombian government created the High-Level Commission for the enlistment and effective implementation of this Agenda (through Decree 280) in February 2015. The following paragraphs present the most recent data on the SDG indicators measured by the Commission on Colombia’s performance in relation to Goal 5 on Gender Equality and 16 on Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions. These indicators have been established by the DNP.

Gender Equality (SDG 5)

SDG 5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

Indicator 5.1.1.



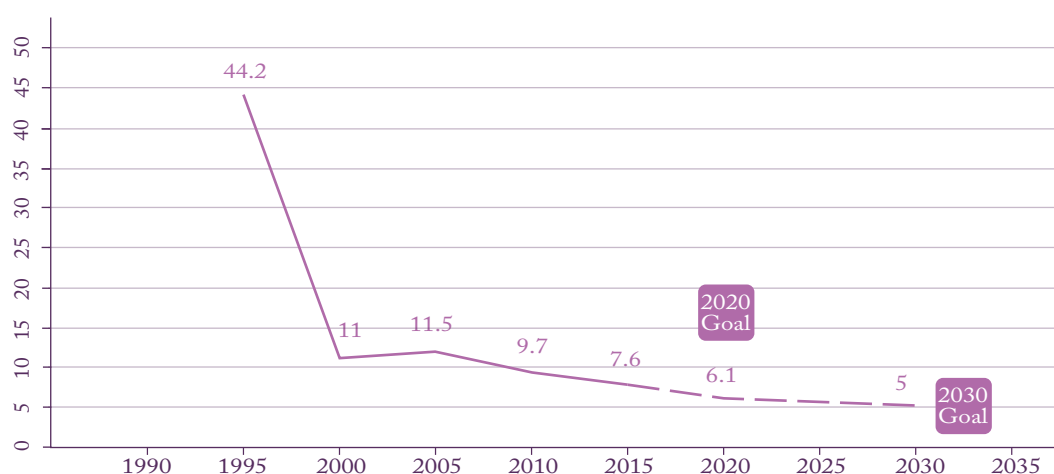
(Figure 62). Percentage of municipalities (local territories) that have an intersectoral mechanism to address gender-based violence

Source: MinSalud - Gender Violence Line. (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.1.1 (Figure 62) measures the percentage of municipalities that have an intersectoral articulation mechanism for the comprehensive approach to gender violence, created by an administrative act (decree or agreement).

SDG 5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including sexual trafficking and other types of exploitation

Indicator 5.2.1.

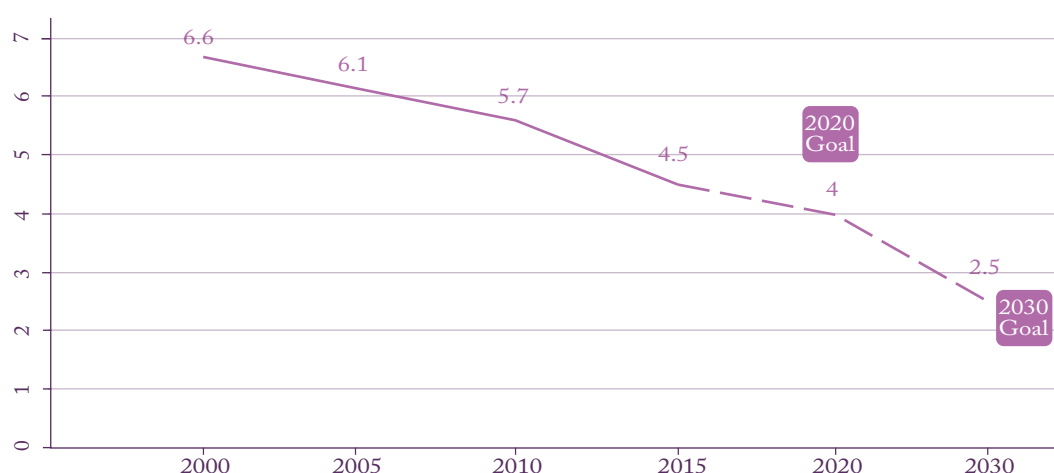


(Figure 63) Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.1 measures the percentage of women between the ages 13 and 49 who have ever experienced sexual violence by their intimate partner to have sexual relations or carry out sexual acts.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator 5.2.2.

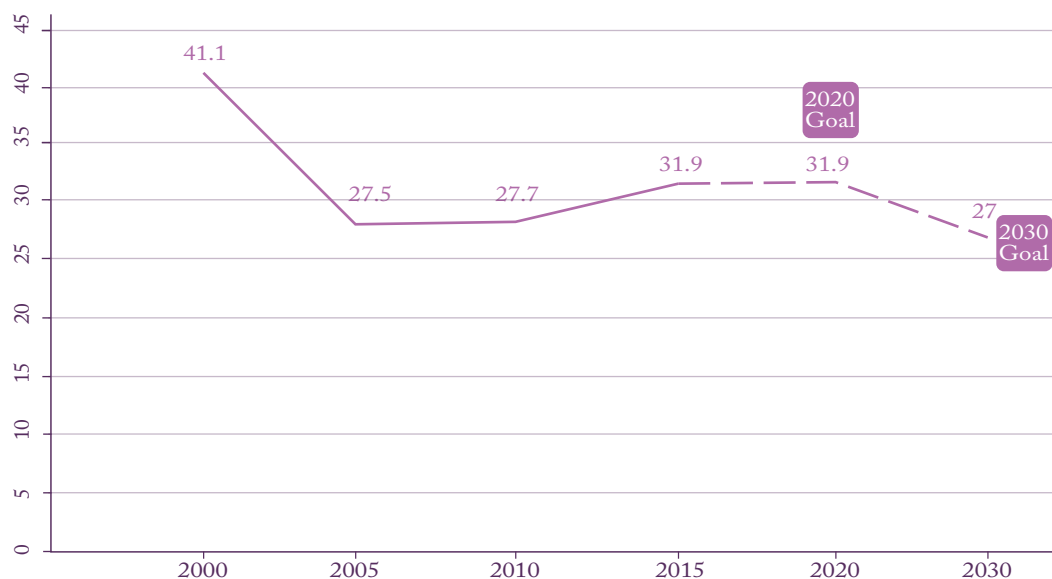


(Figure 64) Percentage of women who have been subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.2 measures the percentage of women and girls between the ages 13 and 49 who have ever experienced physical sexual violence by someone other than their intimate partner.

Indicator 5.2.3.

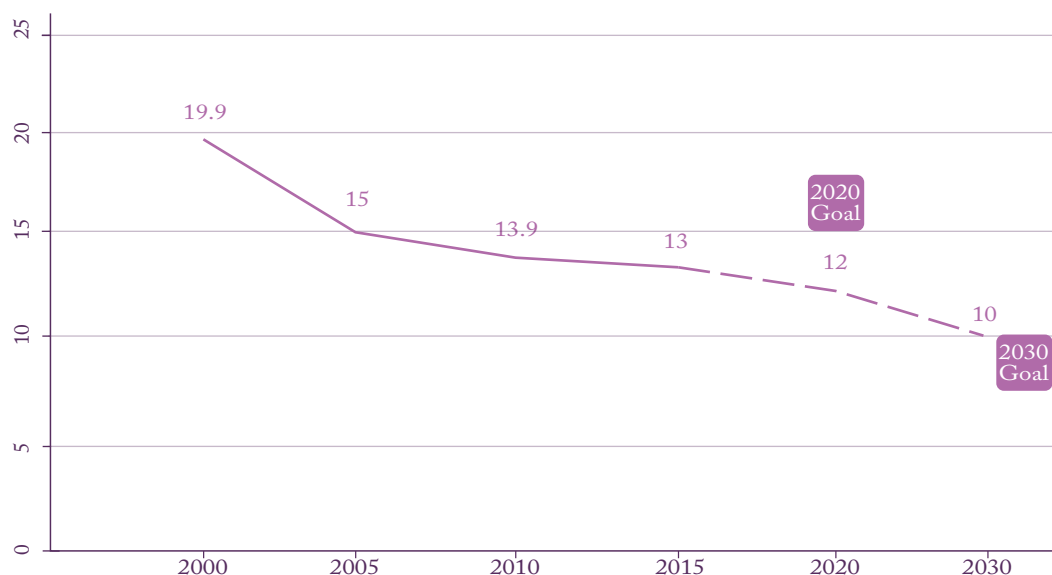


(Figure 65) Percentage of women who have experienced some physical violence by their intimate partner.

Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.3 measures the percentage of women and girls between the ages 13 and 49 who have experienced some physical violence by their husband or partner.

Indicator 5.2.4.

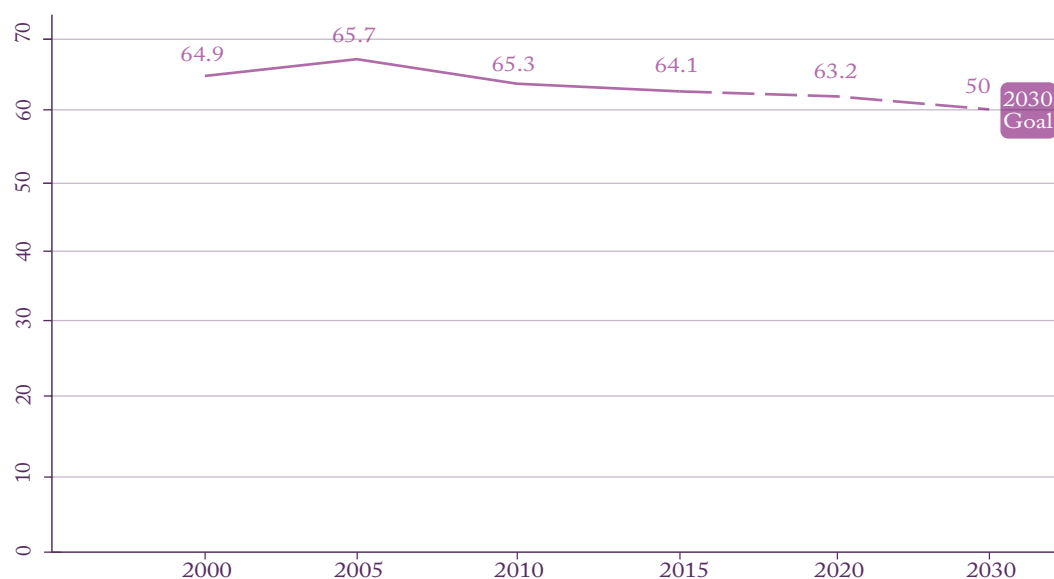


(Figure 66) Percentage of women who have experienced some physical violence by a person other than the intimate partner.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.4 measures the percentage of women and girls between the ages 13 and 49, who have ever experienced physical sexual violence by someone other than their husband or partner.

Indicator 5.2.5.



(Figure 67) Percentage of women who reported psychological violence by their intimate partner.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.5 measures the percentage of women and girls between the ages 13 and 49 who have experienced psychological violence by their husband or partner.

Indicator 5.2.6.



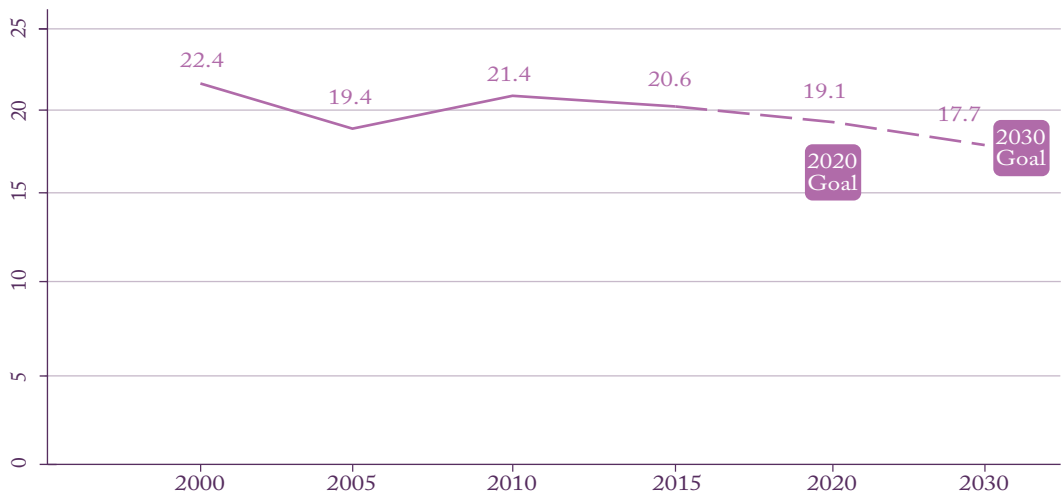
(Figure 68) Female homicide rate (per 100,000 women).

Source: MinDefensa - Statistical, Criminal, Contraventional and Operational Information System (SIEDCO). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.2.6 measures the number of homicides of women that occur in Colombia per year, for every 100,000 female inhabitants.

SDG 5.3 Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.

Indicator 5.3.1.



(Figure 69) Percentage of women between the ages of 20 and 24 who were married or in a stable union before turning 18.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.3.1 measures the percentage of women between the ages of 20 and 24 who were married or in a stable union before reaching the age of 18.

Indicator 5.3.2.



(Figure 70) Percentage of women between the ages of 20 and 24 who were married or in a stable union before reaching the age of 15.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.3.2 measures the percentage of women between the ages of 20 and 24 who were married or maintained a stable union before reaching the age of 15.

SDG 5.4 Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

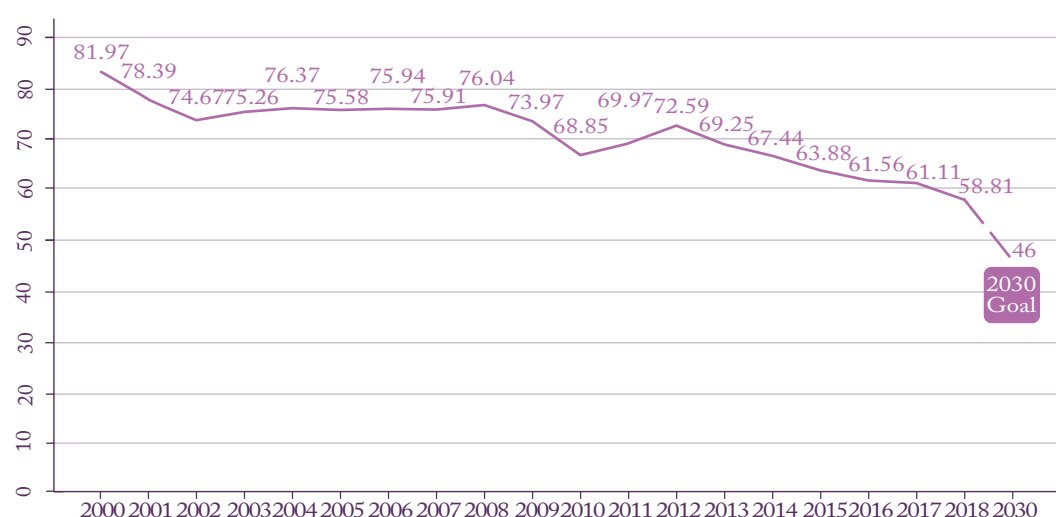
- Some data on this goal can be found in section 1.3 (*Care Economy*).

SDG 5.5 Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision making in political, economic and public life.

- Some data on this goal can be found on the previous section on Women, Peace, and Security (Participation of women in leadership positions in the national order of the Colombian State by branches and bodies of public authority), section 1.4. (Leadership positions in business and management) and section 2.1 (Political participation and representation in elected bodies).

SDG 5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.

Indicator 5.6.1.

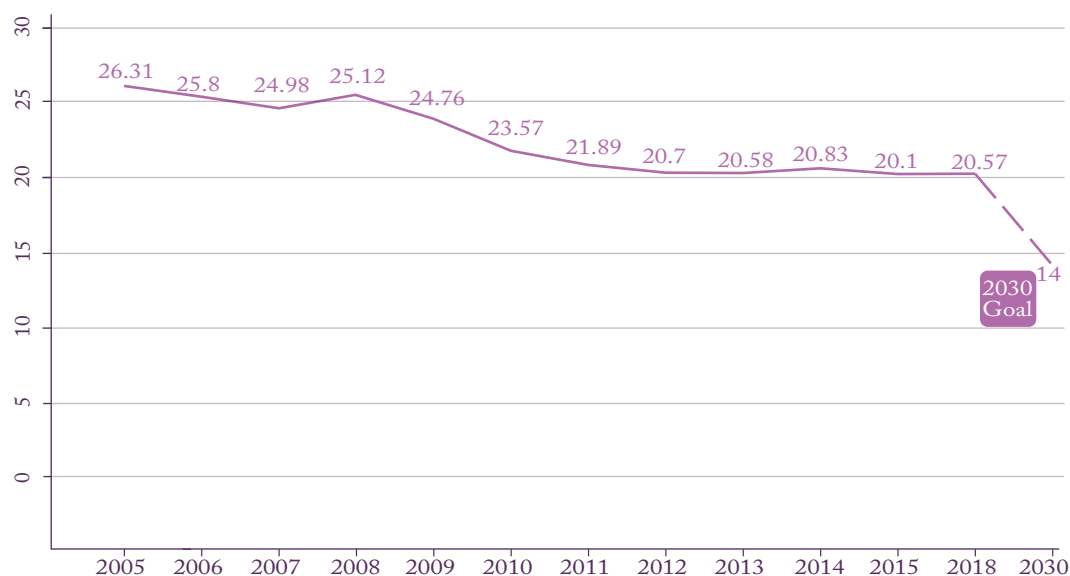


(Figure 71) Fertility rate in adolescent women aged 15 to 19 years (For every 1,000 women ages 15-19)

Source: DANE – Vital Statistics (EEVV). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.6.1 measures the annual number of births for women between the ages of 15 and 19, for every 1,000 women in that age group.

Indicator 5.6.2.

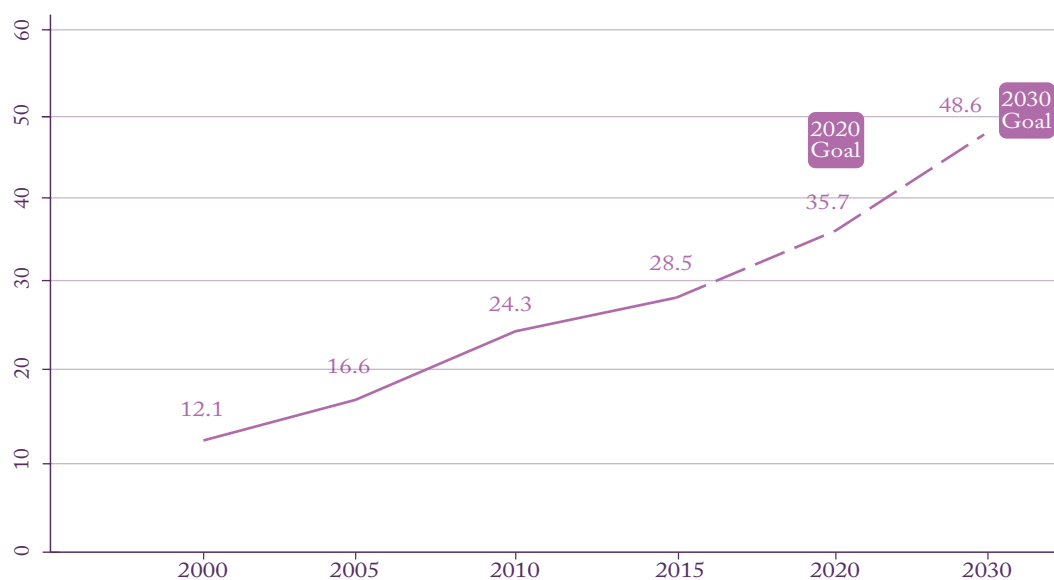


(Figure 72) Percentage of women aged 15 to 19 with a subsequent pregnancy.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.6.2 measures the percentage of women between 15 and 19 years old with two or more pregnancies, including those in process, for the total of women between 15 and 19 years old who report pregnancies for the corresponding year.

Indicator 5.6.3.

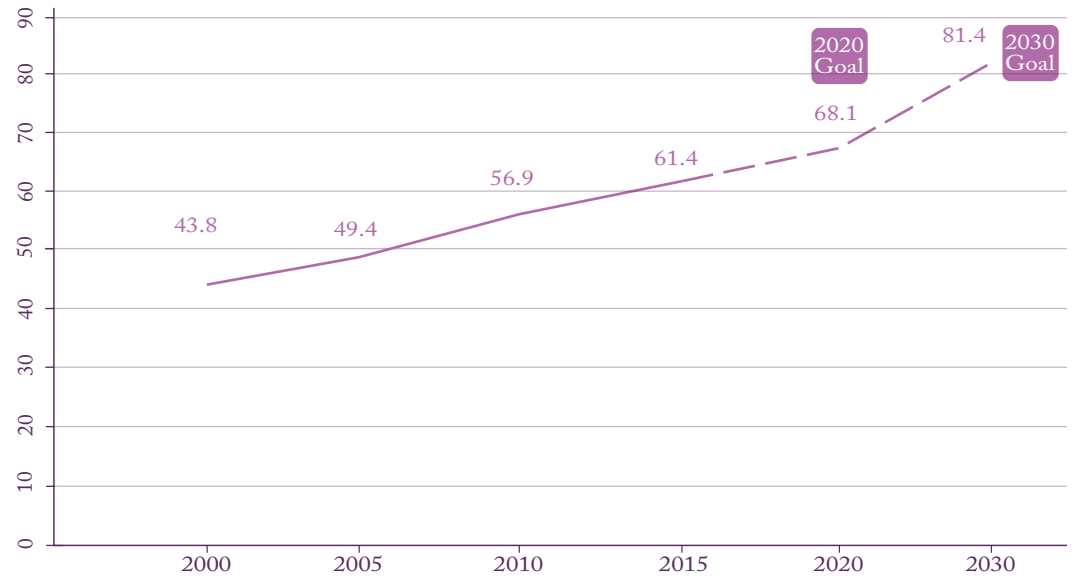


(Figure 73) Percentage of women aged 15-19 years with recent sexual activity using modern contraceptive methods.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.6.3 measures the percentage of current use of modern contraceptive methods in sexually active women between the ages of 15 and 19 (married and unmarried with recent sexual activity), compared to the total of sexually active women in the same age group surveyed nationwide.

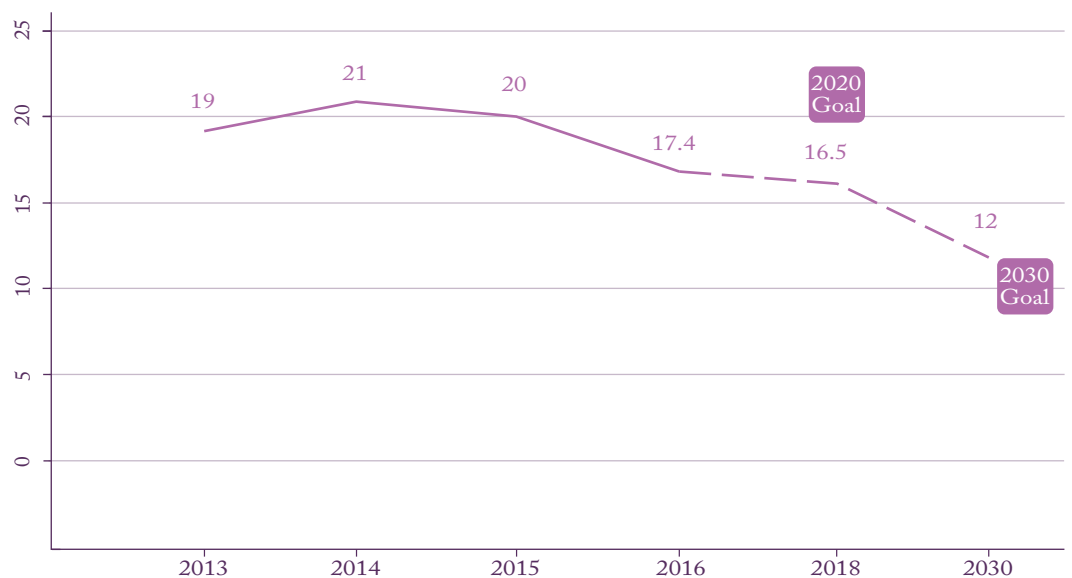
Indicator 5.6.4.



(Figure 74) Percentage of women aged 15-49 years with recent sexual activity using modern contraceptive methods.
Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.6.4 measures the percentage of women between 15 and 49 years of age who are married and unmarried with recent sexual activity who use any modern contraceptive method, compared to the total of women between 15 and 49 years of age who are sexually active that are surveyed at the national level.

Indicator 5.6.5.



(Figure 75) Percentage of women aged 15-19 who are mothers or pregnant with their first child.

Source: Profamilia - National Survey of Demography and Health (ENDS). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

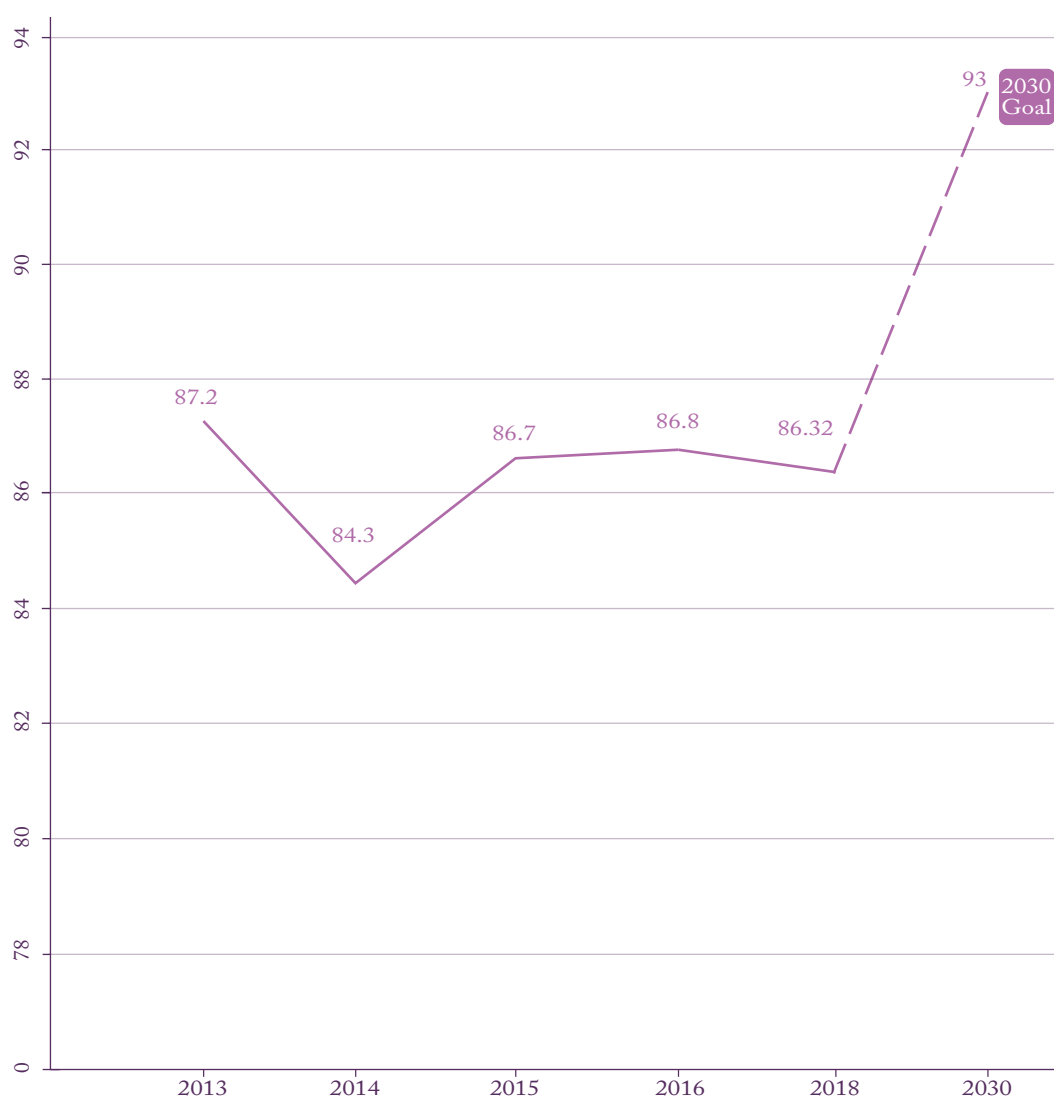
Indicator definition: Indicator 5.6.5 measures the percentage of women between the ages of 15 and 19 who are mothers or are pregnant at the time of the survey.

5.A Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.

- The data on this goal can be found in sections 1.2 (Labour market) and 1.5. (Rural women's access to land).

5.B Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.

Indicator 5.B.1.

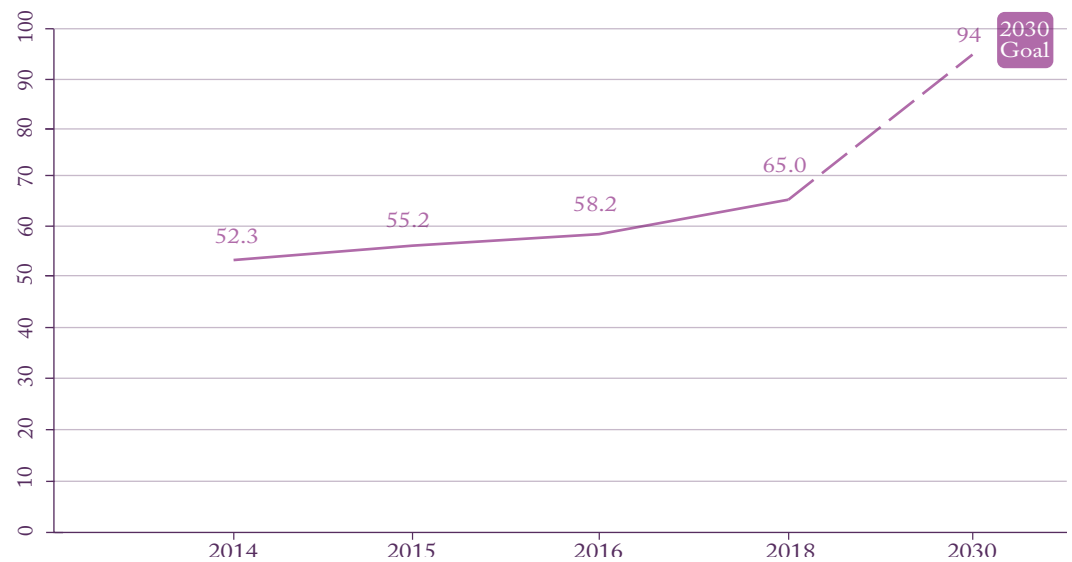


(Figure 76) Percentage of women who use cell phones.

Source: DANE - National Quality of Life Survey (ECV). (DNP - 2030 SDGs Agenda - Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.B.1 measures the percentage of women and girls over five years old who use a mobile, compared to the total of women and girls over five years old.

Indicator 5.B.2.

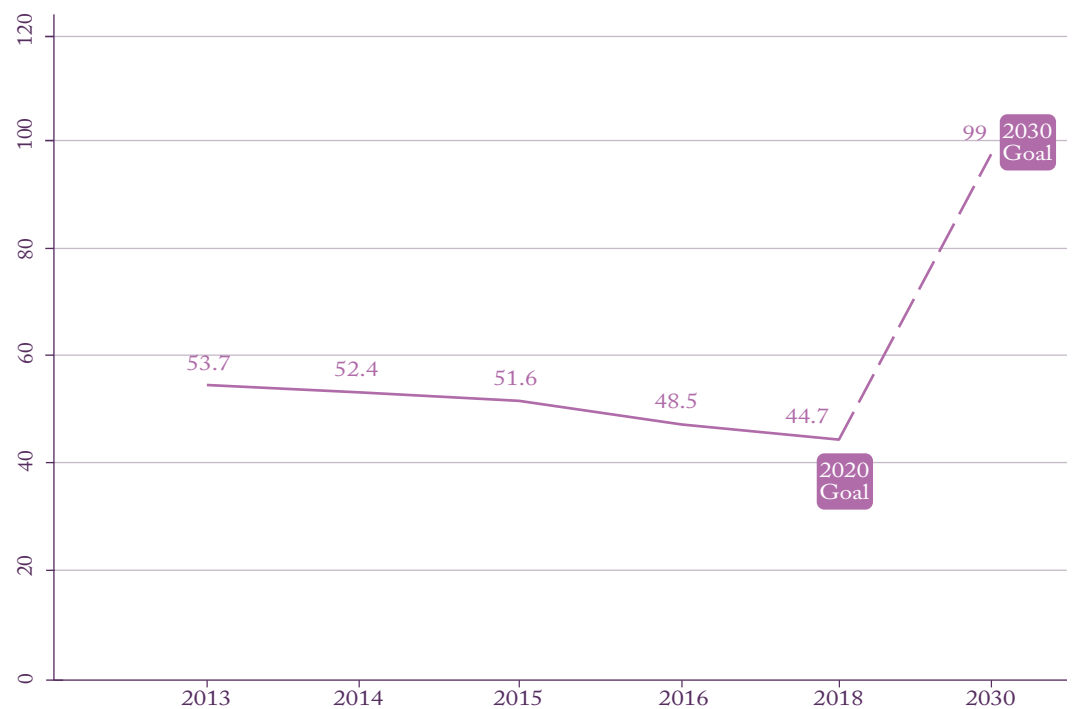


(Figure 77) Percentage of women who use the internet.

Source: DANE - National Quality of Life Survey (ECV). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 5.B.2 measures the percentage of women and girls over five years old who use the Internet, compared to the total of women and girls over five years old.

Indicator 5.B.3.



(Figure 78) Percentage of women who use internet connected devices.

Source: DANE - National Quality of Life Survey (ECV). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

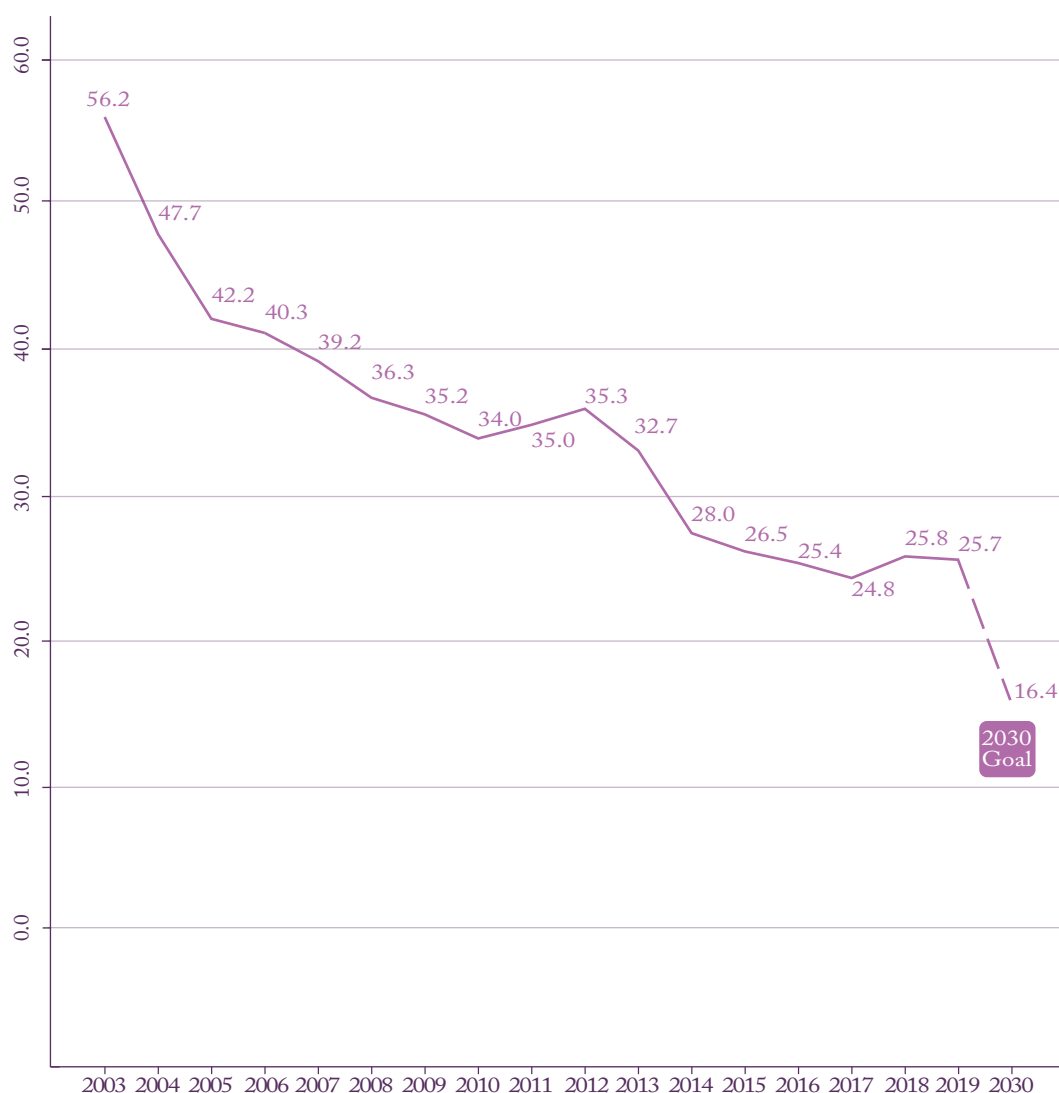
Indicator definition: Indicator 5.B.3 measures the percentage of women and girl over five years old who use terminals (laptop or desktop computer, tablet or Smartphone), compared to the total of women and girls over five years old. Note: The Smartphone measurement begins in 2017.

5.C Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

- There is no published data on the DNP website, nevertheless, in section (National Institutions for a National Action Plan and wps Agenda in Colombia) there is associated data.

Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions (SDG 16)

16.1. Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere



(Figure 79) Homicide rate (per 100,000 inhabitants)

Source: MinDefensa - Statistical, Criminal, Contraventional and Operational Information System (SIEDCO).

(DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 16.1.1 measures the number of homicides that occur in Colombia per year per 100,000 inhabitants.

Indicator 16.1.2. Registered Victims of the armed conflict. This data is in section 4.6.

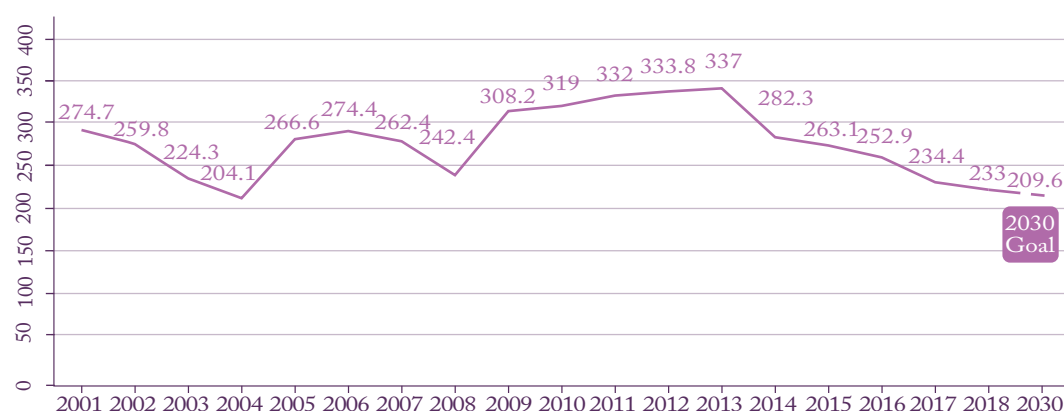
Indicator 16.1.3.



(Figure 80) Larceny/theft victimisation rate (per 100,000 inhabitants)

Source: DANE - Survey of coexistence and citizen security (ECSC). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 16.1.3 measures the number of people who have been victims of thefts/ larceny, for the total population aged 15 years and over, per 100,000 inhabitants.



(Figure 81) Interpersonal and domestic violence rate (per 100,000 inhabitants)

Source: National Institute of Legal Medicine and Forensic Sciences (INMLCF). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 16.1.4 measures the number of people injured by interpersonal and domestic violence, per 100,000 inhabitants.

16.2 End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children

- There is no published data on the DNP website relating to this goal.

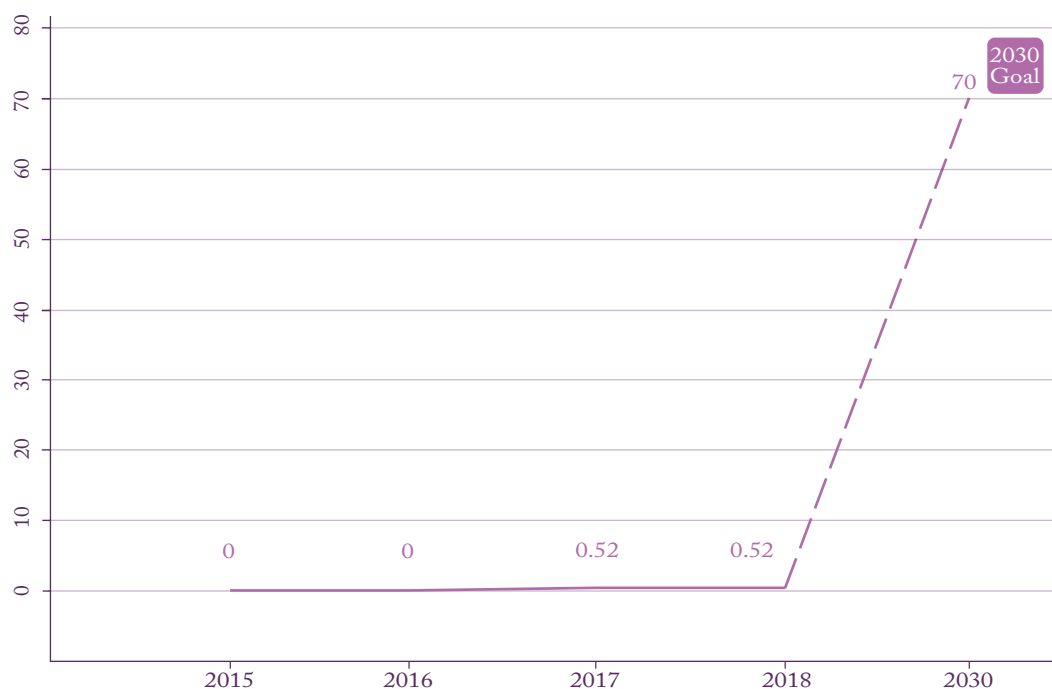
16.3 Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all

- This data in section 4.6 (*Victims of the armed conflict*)

DNP has not published data on the following goals: 16.4 By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organised crime; 16.5 Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms; 16.6 Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels; 16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels; 16.8 Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance; 16.9 By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration.

16.10 Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements.

Indicator 16.10.1



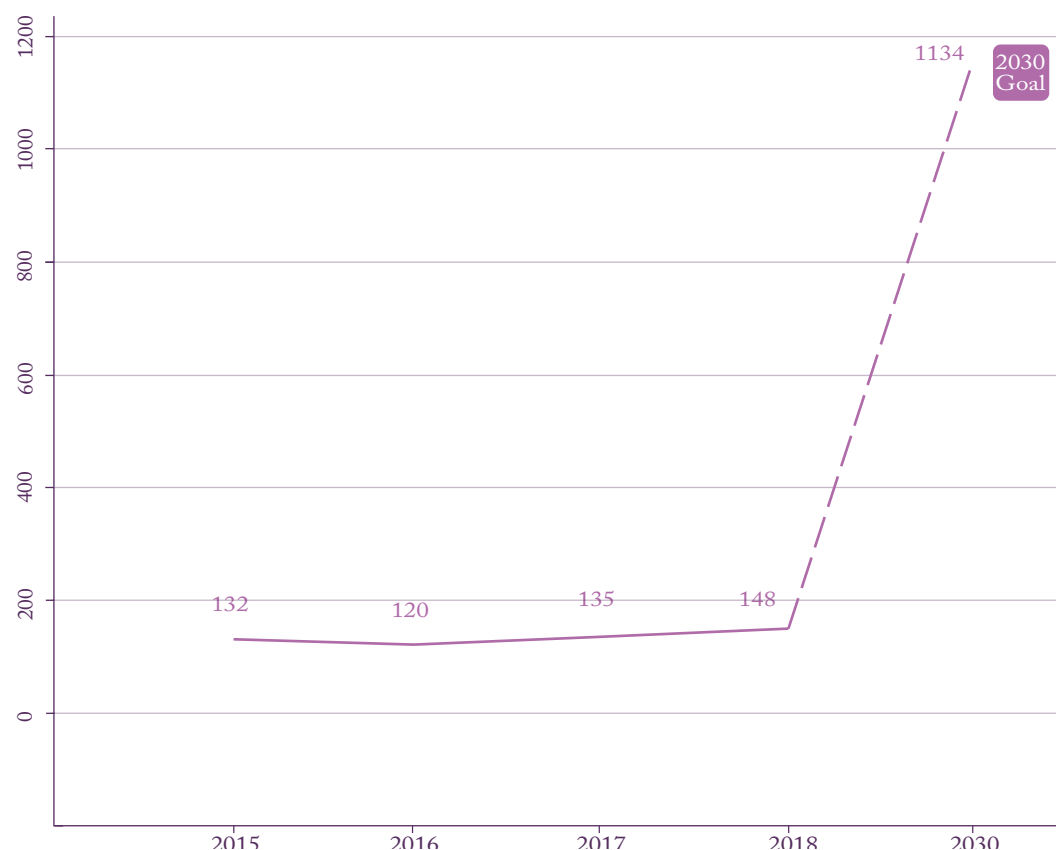
(Figure 82) Percentage of institutions included in the Unique Management Progress Report Form (FURAG) that advances the implementation of the Law on Transparency and Access to Public Information.

Source: Administrative Department of Public Function (DAFP) - Unique Form for Management Progress Report (FURAG). (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 16.10.1 measures the percentage of institutions, measured by the Unique Form of Management Progress Report (FURAG) or a related measuring instrument, who have achieved compliance greater than or equal to 60 per cent of the requirements established in Law 1712 of 2014 (Law on Transparency and Access to Public Information).

16.A Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime

Indicator 16.A.1.



(Figure 83) Territorial entities providing technical assistance in design, implementation and monitoring of plans, programmes and projects in Human Rights.

Source: MinInterior. (DNP – 2030 SDGs Agenda – Colombia)

Indicator definition: Indicator 16.A.1 measures the number of territorial entities (departmental and municipal administrations) that have theoretical and methodological tools for the design, implementation and monitoring of plans, programmes and projects complying with state obligations to generate conditions for the exercise of rights, covering the components of prevention, protection, guarantee, dissemination and promotion of human rights.

16.B Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development

- There is no published data on the DNP website relating to this goal.

More information on SDGs in Colombia can be found at <https://www.ods.gov.co/> and on Latin America and the Caribbean Region in the following reports: a) [2019 CEPAL Report](#); and b) [2019 Report on SDGs from Universidad de los Andes \(Colombia\)](#).

08

National Institutions for the Development of a National Action Plan and the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Colombia

In 2014, the Presidential Advisory Office for Women's Equity (CPEM) was created, which marked a great advance in the protection of women's rights as a state policy. The following chart shows the institutional evolution and scope of functions of the Presidential Counsellor's Office for Women's Equity, 1990-2014:

Advice, implementation supervision, policy monitoring, studies for decision making, dissemination, promotion, management of cooperation resources.	Promotion of actions, promotion of gender mainstreaming, formulation and execution of programmes, strengthening of women's organisations, support and advice, channelling of cooperation resources, coordination of spaces and activities						Advisory services, incorporation of a gender perspective, monitoring of compliance with international obligations, promotion of gender studies, legislative initiatives, strengthening of women's organisations, channelling of cooperation resources, support for policy design.			
César Gaviria (1990–1994)	Ernesto Samper (1994–1998)			Andrés Pastrana (1998–2002)			Álvaro Uribe (2002–2010)	Juan Manuel Santos (2010–2018)		
Decree N° 1878 of 1990	Decree N° 2055 of 1994	Law 188 of 1995	Decree N° 1440 of 1995	Decree N° 1182 of 1999	Decree N° 2200 of 1999	Decree N° 127 of 2001	Decree N° 519 of 2003	Decree N° 3445 of 2010	Decree N° 1930 of 2013	Decree N° 1649 of 2014
Presidential Advisory Office for Youth, Women and Families	Advisory Commission for Equity and Women's Participation	National Directorate for Women's Equity	National Directorate for Women's Equity	Presidential Advisory Office for Women's Equity	Extension of the functions of Decree 1182 of 1999	Presidential Advisory Office for Women	Presidential Advisory Office for Women	High Presidential Advisory Office for Women's Equity	Adopts the National Gender Equity Policy and creates the Intersectoral Commission for its implementation	Presidential Advisory Office for Women's Equity

Source: Lugo Upegui & Herrera Kit, 2017.

What do the National Development Plans propose in terms of gender?

- National Development Plan (NDP) 2014 -2018, “Todos por un nuevo país” (“All for a new country”), Juan Manuel Santos

The NDP provides for articles 67, 107, 129 and 232 specifically for women, as a result of proposals drawn up by the National Planning Council for the Women's Sector, the Women's Movement and Rural Women. In summary, the National Development Plan 2014 – 2018 includes women's rights as follows:

Table 22. National Development Plan 2014-2018

Public Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 129. Evaluation of the National Public Policy on Gender Equality for Women and the Public Policy for Female Victims of the Armed Conflict. Formal monitoring mechanism by women's organisations for territorial harmonisation. • Budgeting and planning with a gender perspective. Design of a mechanism that allows the entities of the National Government to include a differential gender approach in their planning and budgeting processes.
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduction of the female unemployment rate and promotion of more skilled and professional employment for women. Implementation of temporary rural and urban employment programmes with a differential approach for vulnerable youth and female populations. • Preferential access in the training processes of the National Training Service (Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje – SENA).
Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 84. Strategy for the prevention of adolescent pregnancy. • Art.215. Construction of the Policy for the Prevention of Maternal Mortality.
Rural Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 107. Rural Women's Directorate in the Ministry of Agriculture. • Art. 232. Rural Women's Policy. Participatory formulation of "Comprehensive Rural Women's Programme" with an ethnic, age and territorial focus.
Political Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of women's participation in elected office.
Indigenous Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art.117. Formulation of public policy for the protection of the rights of families, women, children, young people and older Indigenous people. Follow-up of female genital mutilation cases. Strengthening of the National Commission on Indigenous Women.
Violence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 67. Care measures for female victims of violence. • Transfer of resources from the general health system to the territorial entities for measures of care for female victims of violence: room, food and transport. • Implementation of routes for comprehensive care for victims of gender-based violence in the health, justice and protection sectors.
Care Economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of the National Care System. • Defining a Care Economy Agenda.

Source: [UN Women, 2015](#)

a. **National Development Plan (NDP) 2018–2022, “Pacto por Colombia. Pacto por la Equidad” (“Pact for Colombia. Pact for Equity”) Iván Duque**

For the first time, there is a specific chapter under the Equity Pact for Women which, through eight policy lines, addresses aspects to guarantee the rights and interests of women in various sectors. The advocacy work was led in part by women’s representatives on the National Planning Council (CNP), women’s social organisations and the rural women’s platform, the Presidential Advisory Office on Equality for Women, the NDP’s Sub-Directorate for Gender and the Congressional Women’s Caucus.

Table 23. Policy Dimensions National Development Plan 2018-2022

Dimensions	Policy Lines
Economic	Strengthening gender institutions in Colombia
	Education and “empowerment” to close the gaps in the world of work
Political	Care, a commitment to co-responsibility
	Participation in power and decision-making scenarios
Physical	Promoting sexual health and reproductive rights for children and adolescents
	Right to a life free of violence
Educational	Rural women as agents of rural transformation
	Equity in Peacebuilding

Source: [UN Women, 2019](#)

Table 24. National Development Plan 2018-2022

Public Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 222. Updating of the National Public Policy on Gender Equity • Art. 222. A Public Policy of Care • Art. 222. A Public Policy of Care • Art. 155. Women count, all statistics shall be disaggregated by sex <p>Consolidate the Presidential Advisory Office for Women’s Equity (CPEM) through actions such as the redesign of the Gender Affairs Observatory (OAG).</p>
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 164. Business development with women. <p>Comprehensive State public policy for the promotion, strengthening and development of entrepreneurship.</p> <p>More inclusion of women in the labour market through the Public Employment Service.</p>
Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guarantee access to truthful, timely and quality information for children and adolescents. The strategy that the NDP mentions on this point is sex education to eliminate Early Unions (EUs).

Rural Women	<p>Art. 222. Emphasis on rural women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guarantee the inclusion of rural women in social and productive planning processes. • Promote income generation for rural women through improved agricultural extension services, access to financial instruments and conditions of employability and entrepreneurship. • Promote the participation of rural women in decision-making spaces in the agricultural sector.
Political Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan for the Promotion of Women's Political Participation Training schools and actions for the prevention and punishment of violence and political harassment.
Indigenous Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art. 228. Indigenous women will benefit from the Fund for Good Living and Equity for Indigenous Peoples.
Violence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthening the institutions responsible for preventing, caring for and protecting women who are victims of any kind of gender-based violence, for example, the institutions dealing with family welfare known as “comisarias de familia”. National and territorial intersectoral mechanism for the comprehensive approach to gender violence. A policy for the elimination of child marriage. Protection of women leaders who defend human rights. A policy for the eradication of teenage pregnancy.
Care Economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulate a national policy that promotes the recognition, reduction and redistribution of care work
Peacebuilding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow-up measures for mainstreaming the gender perspective for women in the plans and programmes established in the Peace Agreement. • Targets for measuring progress on women's rights.

Source: Table created by author based on UN Women 2019 data of [UN Women 2019](#)

09

Conclusion

Conclusion

This document has presented data to support research and the policy debate, adding perspective and evidence to our discussion of the state of gender in Colombia. The document shows that full gender equality remains an aspiration in Colombia. Significant hurdles persist that will need to be addressed for women's full empowerment to take place. However, in recent decades there have been important changes that have improved women's access to essential services and public roles. In this sense, the Colombian state has begun the unfinished task of promoting equal opportunities for women by taking gender into account in the policy-design, a duty we expect to be continued and strengthened.

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About the Authors

Aaron Acosta

Is a lawyer from University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) and specialises in human rights with an international and comparative perspective. He is currently a researcher at DeJusticia (aacosta@dejusticia.org).

María del Pilar López-Uribe

Is an economist and historian, with a PhD in Economic Development from the London School of Economics and Political Science. She is a Professor of Economics at the Universidad de los Andes and a Co-Investigator on the Gender, Justice and Security Hub (m.lopezu@uniandes.edu.co).

Paula Neira

Is an undergraduate student of Economics at the Universidad de los Andes and works as an undergraduate research assistant (mp.neiraa@uniandes.edu.co).

Luisa Salazar Escalante

Is a Human Rights lawyer from Universidad del Rosario. She holds a Master of Science in Social Policy (Research) from the London School of Economics and Political Science. She is the Regional Coordinator of the Gender, Justice and Security Hub based in the Universidad de los Andes (l.salazare@uniandes.edu.co).

Angelika Rettberg

Is a professor in the Political Science Department at Universidad de los Andes, a co-director in the Transformation and Empowerment stream, and a Co-Investigator on the Political Economy of Reconciliation project for the Gender, Justice and Security Hub (rettberg@uniandes.edu.co).

Camilo Sánchez León

Is director of research in Transitional Justice and associate professor at the Faculty of Law of the National University of Colombia in Bogotá. He holds a law degree from the Universidad Nacional de Colombia and a Master of Laws (LL.M.) in international law from Harvard University. He is a Co-Director on the Livelihood, Land and Rights Stream on the Gender, Justice and Security Hub (csanchez@dejusticia.org).

María Gabriela Vargas

Is a political scientist with a minor in Sociology and Development Studies. She is the Regional Administrator of the Gender, Justice and Security Hub based in the Universidad de los Andes (mg.vargas10@uniandes.edu.co).

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Taking Stock of
Gender Equality
in Colombia:
An Overview



This document has presented data to support research and the policy debate, adding perspective and evidence to our discussion of the state of gender in Colombia. The document shows that full gender equality remains an aspiration in Colombia. Significant hurdles persist that will need to be addressed for women's full empowerment to take place. However, in recent decades there have been important changes that have improved women's access to essential services and public roles. In this sense, the Colombian state has begun the unfinished task of promoting equal opportunities for women by taking gender into account in the policy design, a duty we expect to be continued and strengthened.

