



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft  
Confédération suisse  
Confederazione Svizzera  
Confederaziun svizra

**IRIM** **ONGOLIA**  
Independent Research Institute

# **GENDER OVERVIEW – MONGOLIA**

## **A DESK STUDY**

Project: *“Attitudes toward Gender Equality: A Survey Experiment in Mongolia”*  
funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation

*Written and compiled by: Tsolmon Begzsuren and Dolgion Aldar*

## Research team

The Independent Research Institute of Mongolia (IRIM) conducted the “Gender Overview - Mongolia” desk study as part of the “*Attitudes toward Gender Equality: A Survey Experiment in Mongolia*” comparative survey from 5 April, 2013, and 28 April, 2014, as commissioned by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC). This report expresses only the research team’s position.

### Research Team:

DOLGION Aldar	Team leader, Executive Director at IRIM
MANLAIBAATAR Zagdbazar	Consultant, Deputy Director at IRIM
TSOLMON Begzsuren	Gender Consultant at IRIM
TSELMEGSAIKHAN Lkhagva	Researcher, External Relations Director at IRIM
YANJINPAGMA Nyamsuren	Researcher, Research Manager at IRIM
BOLD Tsevegdorj	Research Consultant, Board Member at IRIM

## Table of Contents

Research team .....	2
Acknowledgements .....	4
List of Abbreviations .....	5
List of Tables .....	6
List of Figures .....	6
1. Introduction.....	7
1.1. Objectives of the Desk Review .....	7
1.2. Methodology and Approach.....	7
1.3. Limitations of the Desk Study .....	7
2. Legal and Policy Review .....	8
2.1. International Commitments of Mongolia.....	8
2.2. National Law and Legislation .....	9
Laws containing provisions to promote gender equality in Mongolia.....	9
Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (2011).....	12
Mid-term Strategy and Action Plan for Implementation of the Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (2013-2016) .....	13
2.3. Key Policy Documents.....	14
2.4. National Mechanism to Implement Gender Equality.....	16
3. Gendered Situation Analysis - Mongolia.....	19
3.1. Gender Equality in the Economic Sphere .....	20
3.2. Access to Political Decision making.....	26
3.3. Gender and Education.....	30
3.4. Gender Issues in Health sector.....	34
3.5. Media and Gender Sensitive Journalism.....	38
4. Gender-based Violence in Mongolia .....	41
4.1. Trafficking in Persons: Current Overview .....	41
4.2. Domestic Violence Issues Mongolia Faces Today .....	43
4.3. Emerging Concerns of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace .....	45
5. Overview of Selected International Organisations' Gender Policies in Mongolia .....	46
6. Conclusions and Recommendations .....	55
6.1. Conclusions.....	55
6.2. Recommendations.....	57

Works Cited .....	59
Appendix 1. Women’s Legal Rights Database: Mongolia.....	66
Appendix 2. List of Research Related to Gender in Mongolia .....	76
Appendix 3. Matrix for Mainstreaming Gender into Sectoral Policy and Programmes in Mongolia ..	86

## Acknowledgements

The Independent Research Institute of Mongolia (IRIM) has completed the “Gender Overview -Mongolia” desk study as part of the “*Attitudes toward Gender Equality: A Survey Experiment in Mongolia*” project.

The report was developed in collaboration and consultation with the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation in Mongolia (SDC Mongolia). The IRIM team would like to express our special gratitude to SDC Mongolia’s Deputy Director Mr Diepak Elmer, National Programme Officer Mrs Zolzaya Lkhagvasuren, and Ms Mandukhai Altankhuyag and the Governance and Decentralisation Programme team for their contribution to this study.

We would also like to thank Dr Steven Fish, Professor of Political Science at the University of California Berkeley, Dr Rose McDermott, Professor of Political Science at Brown University, and Dr Danielle Lussier, Assistant Professor of Political Science at Grinnell College, for their invaluable assistance and contribution at all phases of the project.

We would also like to thank the National Committee on Gender Equality for their assistance and for providing the research team with available documents.

## List of Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AIDS/HIV Virus	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome/Human Immunodeficiency Virus
AMSHS	Association for Mongolian Society and Health Specialists
ALAGAC	Authority of Land Administration, Geodesy and Cartography
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CHD	Center for Health Development
FHSS	Family Health Science Society
GASI	General Authority for Specialised Inspection
GASR	General Authority for State Registration
GCSD	Gender Center for Sustainable Development
GGI	Gender Gap Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GoM	Government of Mongolia
ILO	International Labour Organization
IRIM	Independent Research Institute of Mongolia
LPGE	Law on Promotion of Gender Equality
MCA-Mongolia	Millennium Challenge Account - Mongolia
MCC	Millennium Challenge Corporation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MCUD	Ministry of Construction and Urban Development
MED	Ministry of Economic Development
MES	Ministry of Education and Science
MEGD	Ministry of Environment and Green Development
MOH	Ministry of Health
MIA	Ministry of Industry and Agriculture
MJ	Ministry of Justice
ML	Ministry of Labour
MPDSP	Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection
MRT	Ministry of Road and Transportation
MNB	Mongolian National Broadcasting
NCMSH	National Centre for Mongolian Society and Health
NCGE	National Committee on Gender Equality
NSO	National Statistical Office
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
SGKh	State Great Khural
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
TAF	The Asia Foundation
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organization
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WA	Water Authority
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organization

## List of Tables

Table 1 Summary of National Laws Containing Gender-Equality Provisions .....	9
Table 2 Gender Gap Index of Mongolia .....	19
Table 3 Gender Gap Sub-index – Economic Participation and Opportunity .....	20
Table 4 Trade Categories, by Gender .....	22
Table 5 Distribution of the labour force in Mongolia.....	24
Table 6 Informal Sector Workers, by Sex and Residential Areas.....	24
Table 7 Mongolia’s Progress Toward Achieving MDGs: Targets #1, 3 .....	25
Table 8 Gender Gap Sub-index - Political Empowerment.....	27
Table 9 Women’s Representation in Parliament to Date .....	27
Table 10 What Should be the Appropriate Gender Ratio in the Following Positions?.....	29
Table 11 Gender Gap Sub-index – Educational Attainment.....	31
Table 12 Girls and boys ratio.....	31
Table 13 Net Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, By Region and Gender, 2010, Percentage .....	32
Table 14 Two leading causes of population mortality in Mongolia, 2010 .....	36

## List of Figures

Figure 1 Structure of NCGE .....	17
Figure 2 Top Male and Female Concentrated Occupations.....	21
Figure 3 Assessing the competency of female candidates running for local Citizens’ Representative Khurals.....	29
Figure 4 Assessing the competency of female candidates running for local Citizens’ Representative Khural .....	29
Figure 5 Causes of mortality for men .....	35
Figure 6 Injury, poisoning and other consequences of external causes, per 10.000 population, 2010 .	36
Figure 7 Frequency of men and women represented in different sectors by media.....	39

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Objectives of the Desk Review

The key objective of the desk review is to provide an overview of the current gender-equality situation, identifying gender gaps in different sectors of Mongolia. As well as an overall gendered situation analysis, the desk review focuses on the legal and policy frameworks with respect to the promotion of gender equality in Mongolia.

The desk study also aims to provide a highlight summary of gender-relevant surveys and projects undertaken in Mongolia in the past five years. It is also expected that this desk study will complement the existing literature on the current socio-economic, political and cultural context of Mongolia through its gender-lens approach.

For the purpose of this desk study, *gender equality* is defined (Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality, 2011, Clause 4.1.2) “*as an absence of discrimination on the basis of sex achieved through equal participation of men and women in political, economic, social, cultural and family relations and their equal opportunities to contribute to and access the benefits of economic, social and cultural development*”.

### 1.2. Methodology and Approach

The key methodology employed in the study is a review of existing literature – both quantitative and qualitative sources such as statistics, legal and policy frameworks, research and surveys, the majority of which were conducted in the past five years. The desk study contains findings that emerge from the data that are publicly available in both English and Mongolian. An approach taken for this review is the summarisation of highlights to date and the identification of existing gender gaps and constraints.

### 1.3. Limitations of the Desk Study

Due to practical constraints, there are several limitations of the desk study that the reader should bear in mind.

- First, it does not provide a comprehensive situational analysis from a gender perspective and hence does not use a specific analytical framework.
- Second, it contains a summary of findings that emerge from the data and reports that are publicly available. As such, those areas in which there was a lack of available information were not fully included.
- Third, it should be noted that it was beyond the scope of this study to provide an inventory of all gender surveys and projects funded by international organisations/donor agencies in the past five years.

## 2. Legal and Policy Review

This chapter consists of four sections. The first section lays out Mongolia's commitment to international standards and conventions concerning gender equality. Section two provides a summary of important national laws that include provisions to promote gender equality in various sectors, such as labour participation, political participation, family, health, education and social welfare. The third section outlines key Mongolian policy documents. Finally, section four gives a brief summary of the national mechanism to implement gender equality, including the organisational structure and responsibilities of the National Committee on Gender equality (NCGE).

### 2.1. International Commitments of Mongolia

Mongolia fully supports international human rights standards and is a signatory to all major international instruments pertaining to women's rights and gender equality, including the following:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Convention on the Political Rights of Women
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- Convention on Improvement of the Situation of Women in Rural Areas
- Convention on the Rights of the Child
- United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children
- ILO conventions on equal remuneration and discrimination with respect to employment and occupation
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- Convention Against Discrimination in Education
- Maternity Protection of ILO Convention 103
- Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention 182 and Recommendation 190
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography
- Equal Remuneration Convention

Although Mongolia has been a signatory to major international conventions on the rights of women and children (ADB; SDC; NCGE 2010) since 1990, the level of compliance of Mongolian legislation with the international treaties Mongolia has ratified was evaluated as medium and requiring further compliance by the Expert Evaluation of Conformity of Mongolian Legislation with International Human Rights Treaties. According to the report, *“it is essential that Mongolia acceded to a treaty affirming the rights of vulnerable groups, however, the domestic legal framework lacks regulations for respecting dignity and*

*vulnerability of these people, which results in complications in implementation of the international treaty” (UNDP and National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia, 2011, 9).*

## 2.2. National Law and Legislation

### Laws containing provisions to promote gender equality in Mongolia

The summary heavily relies on secondary data and a review of relevant laws executed by different organisations and scholars rather than the laws themselves. A good source for a summary checklist of Mongolia’s laws pertaining to such issues as workplace conditions and protections, property rights, the rights of married and unmarried women and men, childcare, domestic violence and sexual harassment is IFC’s Women, Business and the Law 2014 report (see Appendix 1) (IFC-World Bank 2013).

**Table 1 Summary of National Laws Containing Gender-Equality Provisions<sup>1</sup>**

#	Name of legislation	How it addresses gender issues
1	Constitution of Mongolia (1992)	<p>Social reforms underway since 1990 have consolidated the rights of women, enshrined in the 1992 Constitution (MCA–Mongolia; ESOC 2011, 6). Article 16 of the Constitution of Mongolia institutes gender equality, stating:</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Men and women have equal rights in the political, economic, social, cultural life and family relations.</i></p> <p>And it is stipulated in Article 14 that:</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Everyone shall be free from any types of discrimination based on his/her ethnicity, language, race, age, sex, social status, wealth, employment, position, religious belief, viewpoints and education level.</i></p>
2	Law on Promotion of Gender Equality (2011)	This law specifically ensures gender equality in political, legal, economic, social, cultural and family relations, and regulates relations related to their implementation. It spells out the responsibilities of specific public agencies to ensure gender equality (Khan and Aslam 2013).
3	Criminal Code (as amended in 2008)	The Criminal Code contains several provisions to prevent crimes violating women’s rights. The Code’s “amendment which included a full definition of trafficking according to international standards is another milestone in the area of gender equality and protection of women’s rights” (Purevjav 2010, 203). Article 126 of the Code states that rape is illegal in Mongolia (The Advocates for Human Rights 2013).
4	Civil Code (2002)	Civil law contains a concentration of legal principles concerned with the regulation of civil life -affairs between private individuals and transactions undertaken between a public body and an individual are governed by civil law (Tseven and Ganbold 2006). It specifies that the “Citizens of Mongolia shall equally enjoy a civil law capacity equally, i.e. capacity to have the rights and duties of citizens” (Civil Code of Mongolia 2006). To illustrate, the law ensures that:

<sup>1</sup>See Appendix 1 for the checklist of national frameworks for ensuring gender equality.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights to property - Civil Code, Art. 520</li> <li>• Female and male surviving spouses have equal inheritance rights to property - Civil Code, Art. 520</li> <li>• Unmarried men and unmarried women have equal ownership rights to property - Civil Code, Arts. 101.1 and 127.2</li> <li>• Married men and married women have equal ownership rights to property - Civil Code, Arts. 127.2 and 128.1</li> <li>• The law provides for the valuation of non-monetary contributions during marriage - Civil Code, Art. 126.4</li> </ul>
5	Labour Law (1999)	<p>The Law prohibits gender-based discrimination in employment and contains some sections protecting the rights of pregnant and nursing women. For instance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sections 7.4 and 7.5 - It is illegal for an employer to ask about family status during a job interview,</li> <li>• Section 100 –Penalises and prevents the dismissal of pregnant women.</li> <li>• Section 106 - Employers must give employees an equivalent position when they return from maternity leave.</li> <li>• Section 103 – Employers are required to provide break times for nursing mothers.</li> </ul> <p>However, the law does not allow non-pregnant and non-nursing women to undertake the same jobs as men (Labour Law, Sections 101 and 108), and does not mandate equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value (Labour Law, Section 49).</p>
6	Law on Domestic Violence (2005)	<p>“The purpose of the law is to regulate all matters pertaining to protection against human rights violations, ensuring victims’ safety, holding perpetrators accountable, and regulating the participation of government and NGOs, citizens, economic entities and authorities in combating and preventing domestic violence” (Law on Domestic Violence 2005).</p> <p>The enactment of the law was a significant step forward in strengthening women’s rights and efforts to reduce violence against women (Purevjav 2010). However, “human rights activists and organisations in Mongolia are concerned that the law needs to be further strengthened to provide adequate protection to victims of domestic violence. Since the law was enacted, only 41 protective restraining orders have been issued, and none have been enforced by a court” (Chuluunbaatar 2013).</p>
7	Law on Health (2011)	<p>The Health Law provides the right to primary health care, maternal and child care and some public health services regardless of socio-economic status and health insurance coverage.</p>
8	Law on Education (2002, amended 2006)	<p>The law reflects the principle of equality in education: Every citizen has an equal right to receive an education regardless of race, ethnicity, nationality, sex, religion, disability, social status and economic condition (UNESCO 2008). The amendment of the law in 2006 introduced such changes as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Educational settings will be free from discrimination and any form of emotional or physical punishment.</li> </ul>

		- All forms of abuse, violence and corporal punishment will be prohibited in education settings (CRIN 2006).
9	Law on Combating Trafficking in Persons (2012)	<p>The law was passed in 2012 by the Parliament of Mongolia; it stipulates “the duties of law-enforcement organisations in relation to combating human trafficking - a crime which predominantly involves women and children. The law also stipulates measures for the protection of victims’ rights and the upholding of their dignity” (SDC-Mongolia 2012). For example, Article 113 of the law articulates prosecuting internal trafficking, child prostitution cases and sexual exploitation.</p> <p>Although the Law on Trafficking in Persons is relatively new in Mongolia (Avkhia, Munkhbat and Theunissen 2014), a recent report reiterates the need for the government to recognise forced labour as a problem (US Department of State 2013, 267).</p>
10	Law on Social Welfare (2012)	The law defines the age at which a woman can retire and receive full benefits as 55 and for man as 60 (Article 12.1.1). It also specifies that women aged below 45 and men aged below 50 who have more than four children under the age of 18 and who are the “single head of household” <sup>2</sup> are entitled to social welfare payments(Article 12.1.5).
11	Law on Allocation of Land to Mongolian Citizens for Ownership	The Government of Mongolia attaches particular importance to ensuring gender equality, in particular in relation to improving both men and women’s access to land and promoting the land-ownership process to implement the Law on Privatising Land for every citizen. An historic decision to privatise land only for citizens of Mongolia was made in 2002. A lot has been achieved in advancing the land ownership rights of women since the adoption of the aforementioned law. However, the rapid and intensive changes taking place in the country require amendments and improvements in the legislative framework (MCA-Mongolia 2013d).
12	Law on Parliament Election	<p>The Law on Parliamentary Election enacted in 2011, following Provision 7.2.2 of the Gender Equality Law states: “... <i>determining the number of seats or implementing other such quotas aimed at equalising the representation of men or women at political and decision-making levels</i>”.</p> <p>However, there are still a number of areas that need to be addressed. There are a few clauses that have not yet been enforced and hence require a greater effort to ensure the law is fully realised, including: “7.2.3. <i>Special measures to eliminate gender imbalances in certain sectors or setting up discounts, incentives or benefits to improve imbalanced gender representation in a trade or occupation; 11.4.1. Incorporate in organisation’s internal procedures specific norms for prevention of sexual harassment in a workplace and the redress of such complaints; 14.6. The value of unpaid labour for household work, family business, childcare or care for elderly devoted by a spouse since marriage shall be considered as his or her contribution to social wealth and family economy.</i>”</p>
13	Law on Family (1999)	The purpose of the law is to regulate domestic law related to marriage, divorce, divorce settlement procedures, property and non-property relations of family members, adoption and child custody, and granting the same responsibilities and rights in marriage to both husbands and wives. In the article covering divorce, it stipulates that if the wife is pregnant and a child is under one year of age, it is forbidden to dissolve the marriage. During the dissolution process, spouses can agree on child custody and maintenance

<sup>2</sup>Өрх толгойлсон

		(MCA–Mongolia; ESOC 2011, 7).
<b>14</b>	Law on political parties (2005)	The purpose of this law is the regulation of the registration of political parties, setting out the legal basis for their establishment, structures, and the conditions under which party activities may be suspended. This law used to have an article stipulating that 30 percent of total party members must be women (MCA–Mongolia; ESOC 2011, 7).

As the Country Gender Assessment Report (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010, 50) states, “the regulatory framework for gender equality is relatively strong in Mongolia”. Gender equality, protection from any violation of rights, equal and fair participation, and social justice for women, men, girls and boys have been enshrined in the laws cited above.

### **Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (2011)**

To regulate the responsibilities of specific public agencies in ensuring gender equality in various spheres - such as politics, the economy, employment, culture and education, health, family relationships and across the public sector in particular - the Mongolian Parliament passed a Law on Promotion of Gender Equality on 2 February, 2011. The purpose of the law is to establish the legal basis for the creation of conditions to ensure gender equality in political, legal, economic, social, cultural and family relations, and to regulate relations related to their implementation (Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality 2011, Article 1).

An Opinion report produced by OSCE/ODIHR and commissioned by the National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia provides a comprehensive assessment of the implementation of the law. It specifically focuses on the law’s compliance with international gender equality standards and OSCE commitments. To summarise the Opinion’s main conclusions (OSCE/ODIHR 2013, 3-4):

- *Mongolia is making efforts to ensure and enhance gender equality in all sectors of society.*
- *The law represents a genuine attempt to mainstream gender equality into all private and public spheres.*
- *The wide scope of the law, the sets of special measures introduced to foster gender balance in different sectors, are welcome, as are the detailed provisions aimed at guaranteeing gender equality in employment and labour relations, education and culture, and health care.*
- *Provisions on quotas in the civil service and some of the provisions relating to the complaints system and sanctions need some revision.*

Before 2011, Mongolia lacked a specific law on gender and hence the ratification of the law was a significant step forward in the promotion of gender equality (IFC-World Bank 2013). Nonetheless, many reports highlight the need to strengthen the implementation of the law (e.g. Khan and Aslam 2013, IFC 2013, MCA-Mongolia 2013a).

## Mid-term Strategy and Action Plan for Implementation of the Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (2013-2016)

A Mid-term Strategy and Action Plan for Implementation of the Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (LPGE) was adopted on 26 January, 2013. The goals of the strategy are to:

*Strengthen the national mechanism on implementation of the LPGE; develop law-enforcement capacity at sectoral and local levels; mainstream gender equality concepts at all level policies and in all processes; ensure the multilateral engagement of civil society, media and the private sector in law enforcement; establish resource and funding stability; and ensure the coordination of international cooperation (GoM, Resolution #34, 26 January, 2013).*

The mid-term strategy has six overarching objectives, listed in the box below. As well as the expected outcomes specified for each objective, there are action items planned for the period 2013-2016 in which the lead organisers and co-implementers are determined (NCGE; UNFPA 2013).

*Objective 1.* To create national capacity by identifying sample methods and lead players for LPGE implementation, and human resources training;

*Objective 2.* To develop gender statistics, establish an integrated database and ensure its use at all levels of policy development;

*Objective 3.* To create an integrated legal environment by amending relevant legal acts in conformity with the principles and standards of the LPGE;

*Objective 4.* To create and develop formal and informal education systems that support public gender education and culture, and conduct national-level campaign and awareness-raising activities;

*Objective 5.* To create an environment to reduce and prevent direct and indirect gender discrimination and a law-enforcement mechanism to settle complaints related to gender-equality violations;

*Objective 6.* To introduce gender-sensitive budget methodologies in integrated national and local budgeting processes.

In accordance with the Mid-term Strategy for Implementation of the Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (Clause 1.2), national-level gender experts are currently undergoing a selection process. One of roles<sup>3</sup> of these gender experts (nine in total) is to review the level of gender equality in socio-economic, legal, political and cultural and family spheres, as well as to identify good practices and existing constraints. For the first time in Mongolia, these gender experts will evaluate and audit different sectoral aspects and provide policy recommendations. The review covers nine areas: The economy, society, traditional culture and customs, education, health, human rights, equal gender participation in political decision-making, nature and the environment, and media. The time frame for gender auditing is three years, and 70 percent of the experts can be re-selected for an additional three years. The experts have the right to provide technical advice nationwide and carry out their duties independently.

<sup>3</sup>Cited from the Terms of Reference for national-level gender experts, advertised on 3 February, 2014.

### 2.3. Key Policy Documents

Key policy documents and programmes that promote gender equality include the Action Program of the Government (2012-2016), the National Programme on Fighting Against Domestic Violence (2007), the Health Sector Master Plan (2005-2015), and the third Reproductive Health Program (2007). The Population Policy (2004-2015) is the leading document covering population and development. Relevant policy documents include:

- Comprehensive National Development Strategy (2008-2012)
- National Program on Gender Equality (2002-2015)
- National Program on Combating Domestic Violence (2005-2015)
- National Program on Commercial Sexual Exploitation and Trafficking of Children and Women (2005-2014)
- Action Program of the Government (2012-2016)
- Health Sector Master Plan (2005-2015)
- Third Reproductive Health Program (2007-2011)
- Population Policy (2004-2015)
- National Strategy for Men's Health (2014-2018)
- Poverty Alleviation and Employment Policy (2010-2014)
- Family Development and Demographic Policy (2011-2015)
- Education Development Policy (2009-2013)
- Healthcare Sector Development Policy (2012-2016)
- Social Welfare and Labour Policy (2011-2015)
- Economic Growth and Development Policy, State Budget Policy (2013-2014)
- City Planning and Construction Development Policy (2013-2014)
- Regional and Rural Development Policy
- Environmental Policy

#### *Comprehensive National Development Strategy*

In adopting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2005, the Mongolian Parliament set concrete gender-related targets in employment, education, political participation and health. The MDGs-based Comprehensive National Development Strategy (2008-2021) reaffirms these commitments and serves as an overarching policy designed to ensure the achievement of MDG targets. The gender-equality policy embedded in the National Development Strategy is aimed at ensuring “*human rights-based gender development through universal gender education and provision of gender equality in the labour market*”, and contains provisions to increase the number of female candidates in parliamentary elections. It also includes additional strategic objectives for the adoption of a separate law on gender equality, the integration of gender equality content at all levels of education, and ensuring women have equal rights to property.

Additionally, the strategy “draws on population growth as a necessary condition for optimal economic growth and advocates generous social welfare for families with many children”(UNICEF 2009 cited in ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010). However, better integration of women’s protection and development is required in the strategy, including the introduction of other gender-equality policies, such as an assessment of the gendered impacts of policy interventions (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010).

### ***National Programme on Gender Equality***

Following the fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, the Mongolian Government adopted a National Programme on the Advancement of Women in 1996 based on consultations with women’s NGOs as part of its efforts to implement the Beijing Platform for Action. The Programme was revised in 2002 as the National Programme on Gender Equality. As defined in the programme, the aim is “*removing barriers to equal participation of men and women in economic and social development, achieving development goals through the active involvement of both men and women, as well as at promoting the family as a basic unit of the society. It also seeks gender equality as a priority at all levels of decision-making*” (NCGE 2002).

The programme has 15 objectives across the following areas:

- Gender equality in family welfare and development
- Gender equality in economic relations
- Gender equality in the context of rural development
- Gender equality in power and decision-making
- The establishment of a national mechanism on gender equality and the participation of civil society

Following the National Programme on Gender Equality, the Government disseminated nationally information on gender equality and women’s participation. Nevertheless, as reported in the Country Gender Assessment report, “the budget for the implementation of the NPGE is very limited and therefore its effectiveness is modest and [...] overall, implementation of the NPGE remains on paper” (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010).

### ***Other programmes***

National MDG progress reports providing an overview of the implementation of the MDGs have been compiled annually by the government since 2007. In relation to national programmes, the government’s social welfare programme, effective since 2012, is focused on the provision of a monthly child allowance for all children following the “human development” fund. Social security benefits are also provided for the elderly, the disabled and mothers with four or more children. There are a number of national pro-poor programmes and initiatives underway by corresponding ministries that are targeted at specific groups such as youth and the elderly.

A “*National Program on the Promotion of Adolescents and Youth Development*” has been implemented since 2006. Within this framework, a series of activities are currently being planned by the Ministry for Population Development and Social Protection to ensure the participation of adolescents and youth in reform of the policymaking process to support their development (MPDSP 2014). “*The National Program on the Promotion of Employment of People aged 40 and above*” has been effective since 2013, and comprises three sub-projects: 1) The planting of vegetables and fruits; 2) The creation of citizens’ associations for nature conservation and restoration, and prevention from injuries; and 3) School patrols. In the first year of its implementation, 4304 people aged over 40 years have benefited; 2250 people have been employed and 639 people’s income has increased (Ministry of Labour 2014).

#### **2.4. National Mechanism to Implement Gender Equality**

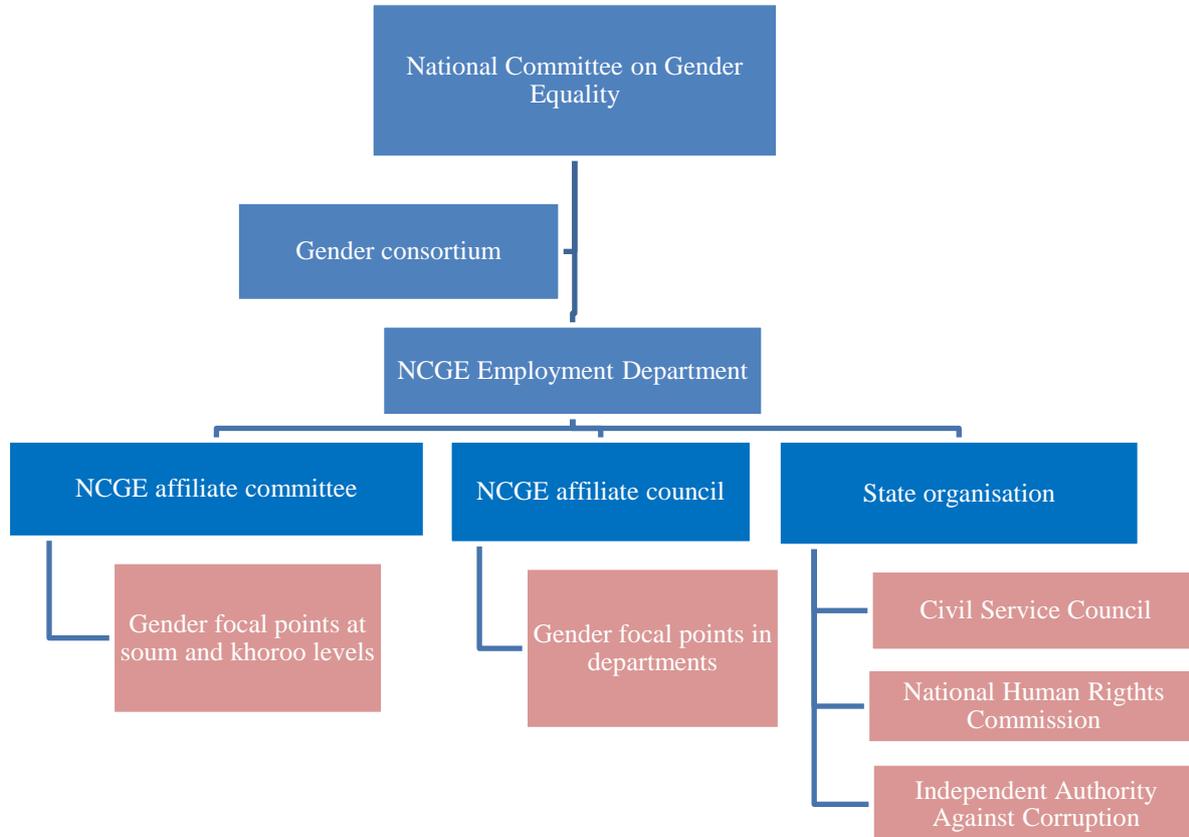
The Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality highlights the roles and responsibilities of the Civil Service Council to promote gender equality within its hiring practices and gives the National Human Rights Commission independent oversight of the enforcement of gender equality-related components of the Constitution and other laws. It stipulates the power of the Parliament, the Cabinet, the Prime Minister and local self-governing bodies that shall be exercised in promoting gender equality. The law also highlights the roles and responsibilities of the National Committee on Gender Equality (NCGE), the State Central Administrative Authority and local administrative bodies in ensuring gender equality. The engagement of civil society and NGOs is emphasised in the law in such a way that it provides broad scope for them to:

- Be involved in development, implementation and oversight of the implementation of any legislation, state policy and resolution on the promotion of gender equality, and in the protection of civil rights.
- Receive information on the promotion of gender equality, as well as financial and methodological support from public agencies.
- Raise their voice and air their opinions on gender equality.

## National Committee on Gender Equality

Institutionally, there has been major reform with the establishment of the NCGE<sup>4</sup> in 2005. The NCGE is comprised of 33 members, including key Ministers, the private sector and civil society representatives. The NCGE has 22 sub-committees in the capital city, nine districts, and 21 aimags (provinces), as well as 25 sub-councils in all of the 16 Ministries and nine districts' Governors' Administrative Offices, where gender focal points have been appointed.

Figure 1 Structure of NCGE



The vision of the NCGE is to develop social justice and ensure equal gender opportunity for the formation of a humane and democratic civil society. Its mission is to create a transparent state by defining gender-based development policies on equal rights and equal opportunities for everyone. The NCGE's primary function is to ensure consultation, coordination and monitoring on the implementation of the National Programme on Gender Equality<sup>5</sup>.

Although human resources are available through gender focal points at Ministries and district levels, most of 25 sub-councils are not proactive in integrating gender elements into their sectoral policies and programmes, largely due to a poor understanding and awareness of the relevance and importance of gender integration at the managerial level in particular. Furthermore, as gender focal points are more likely to be non-professionals, and as they take

<sup>4</sup>The Secretariat of the NCGE was established by Government Resolution # 25 dated 2 February, 2005.

<sup>5</sup><http://www.gender.gov.mn/>

over gender duties in addition to their main tasks<sup>6</sup>, weak capacity remains a key concern. According to the ADB, SDC and NCGE (2010) report, “the Secretariat lacks technical and professional capacity to functionalise its nationwide structure. Local representatives tend to be low-ranking officials, such as social sector officers in aimag administrations, and have minimal, if any, substantive training on gender supplemented by minimal guidance on their roles in implementation of the National Programme on Gender Equality”.

However, in order to facilitate the implementation of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality, attempts have been made to increase knowledge and understanding of gender concepts through capacity-building sessions conducted among public servants and other stakeholders in the past two years in particular (Gender Center for Sustainable Development 2012).

### **Gender sensitive policy**

According to a UNIFEM assessment conducted in 2006, the Ministries that do not disaggregate their sectoral data by gender included the then Ministry of Environment and Nature<sup>7</sup>, the Ministry of Infrastructure, the Ministry of Finance and Economics, the Ministry of Industry and Trade, and the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, resulting in gender-blind policy formulation. This situation continues up to now in such sectors as food and agriculture, finance, energy, and roads and transportation. Gender dimensions are primarily overlooked in the area of infrastructure, both in the public and private sectors. This is associated not only with the inadequate capacity of sectoral policymakers, but also with the absence of institutional support and a policy framework. For instance, it would be helpful if there was a government incentive mechanism for the fulfilment of certain actions following gender-specific legal provisions in the private sector (such as road construction companies)<sup>8</sup>.

Although sex-disaggregated data is collected and reported by the National Statistical Office (NSO) in its yearbook, making use of that data at all levels - from policy planning through to service provision - is still not adequate. Gender-based analysis and gender-impact assessments thus cannot be properly conducted in any sectors, resulting in ignorance of the existing gender gaps and constraints at the policymaking level. This has resulted in gender-blind interventions and an absence of gender-sensitive budgeting. Consequently, one of key challenges Mongolia currently faces in mainstreaming gender into national policy and programmes is gender-sensitive budgeting.

To ensure gender integration into government policy, action plans and sector-specific budget line items, it is critical to strengthen the capacity of institutions as a whole<sup>9</sup>. Furthermore, the conducting of a gender analysis across sectors is crucial in ensuring broad and substantive inputs to address gender inequality in a particular sector or context. One of the lessons

---

<sup>6</sup>With an additional 30 percent of their salary added to their base remuneration

<sup>7</sup>The current Ministry of Environment and Green Development

<sup>8</sup>For details on areas that require improvement as per recommendations by stakeholders in the area of gender, please see a sub-section on infrastructure/road sector in Appendix 3

<sup>9</sup>For specific actions suggested by key stakeholders, refer to Appendix 3 on general areas of concern

learnt<sup>10</sup> is that gender analysis does not only reveal the ways in which women and men are, or are not, affected; it also indicates that particular measures may be necessary to improve the participation and access of males or disadvantaged groups such as the disabled.

### 3. Gendered Situation Analysis - Mongolia

This chapter is a compilation of analyses of Mongolia’s gender equality status in the areas of economic, political, education, health and culture using the findings of various international and national studies.

According to the World Economic Forum’s Global Gender Gap Report 2013, Mongolia ranks 33 out of 136 countries and has an index of 0.720 (0.00- inequality and 1.00- equality). The Gender Gap Index (GGI) measures gender-based gaps related to economic, political, education and health criteria<sup>11</sup>. As can be seen from the report, Mongolia has been making gradual progress in all areas since 2006 (when the index was 0.682). While the scores for “educational attainment” and “health and survival ”have remained relatively high and stagnant for the past eight years, there has been some progress in “economic participation” (from 0.704 to 0.834) and in “political empowerment” (from 0.046 to 0.073).

**Table 2 Gender Gap Index of Mongolia**

	OVERALL		ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION		EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT		HEALTH AND SURVIVAL		POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT	
	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score
Gender Gap Index 2013 (out of 136 countries)	33	0.720	2	0.834	49	0.995	1	0.980	108	0.073
Gender Gap Index 2012 (out of 135 countries)	44	0.711	1	0.839	50	0.994	1	0.980	127	0.032
Gender Gap Index 2011 (out of 135 countries)	36	0.714	3	0.850	47	0.995	1	0.980	125	0.032
Gender Gap Index 2010 (out of 134 countries)	27	0.719	2	0.875	59	0.992	1	0.980	124	0.032
Gender Gap Index 2009 (out of 134 countries)	22	0.722	1	0.833	1	1.000	1	0.980	100	0.075
Gender Gap Index 2008 (out of 130 countries)	40	0.705	10	0.756	1	1.000	1	0.980	95	0.084
Gender Gap Index 2007 (out of 128 countries)	62	0.673	47	0.668	23	0.999	1	0.980	113	0.046
Gender Gap Index 2006 (out of 115 countries)	42	0.682	21	0.704	20	0.999	1	0.980	101	0.046

Source: *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013, page 285*

Conversely to the GGI, according to the 2012 UNDP Gender Inequality Index (GII)<sup>12</sup> which captures the loss of achievement in reproductive health, empowerment, and labour participation, “Mongolia with gender equality has actually dropped inside the region from 2000-2010” (UNDP 2013)<sup>13</sup>. Nonetheless, since 2005, when Mongolia’s GII was 0.401, in 2010 it was 0.411, and in 2012 it had a GII value of 0.328 (UNDP 2013).

<sup>10</sup>Mongolia Compact Gender Summary Report: Best Practices and Lessons Learned, MCA-Mongolia (Tsolmon Begzsuren, co-author), 2013

<sup>11</sup> The Index is designed to measure gender-based gaps in access to resources and opportunities in individual countries rather than the actual levels of the available resources and opportunities in those countries. In other words, the Index is constructed to rank countries on their gender gaps not on their development level (WEF 2013, p.3)

<sup>12</sup>The GII differs from GGI as it takes into consideration a country’s overall level of development, and the dimensions and indicators used for GGI and GII are different (hdr.undp.org/en/faq-page/gender-inequality-index)

<sup>13</sup>A higher GII values indicate lower achievement

### 3.1. Gender Equality in the Economic Sphere

As the Ministry of Economic Development of Mongolia states in its fifth national progress report in 2013, “Achieving the MDGs”, the programme “*Employed Mongolian Citizen with Income*” is underway. Specific interventions to improve access and the quality of basic services for the aged and people with disabilities were introduced. Gender disparities were addressed in multi-sectoral policies (Government of Mongolia 2013a).

According to the Global Gender Gap Report, Mongolia’s overall economic participation and opportunity index, which takes into account the labour participation gap, the remuneration gap and the advancement gap, was 0.834; it ranks second out of 136 countries, after Norway and before Burundi (WEF 2013, 18). The breakdown for each indicator is illustrated in Table 3 below.

**Table 3 Gender Gap Sub-index – Economic Participation and Opportunity**

	Rank	Score	Sample average	Female	Male	Female-to-male ratio
Economic Participation and Opportunity .....	2	0.834	0.601			
Labour force participation .....	50	0.85	0.68	57	67	0.85
Wage equality for similar work (survey) .....	6	0.78	0.64	—	—	0.78
Estimated earned income (PPP US\$).....	18	0.77	0.53	4,753	6,184	0.77
Legislators, senior officials and managers .....	8	0.90	0.26	47	53	0.90
Professional and technical workers .....	1	1.00	0.64	55	45	1.20

Source: *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013*, p. 285

Nonetheless, gender-equality outcomes are significantly inconsistent in terms of age and rural versus urban location of residence. There are also still considerable inequalities between men and women in labour markets in terms of participation, wages and occupational roles (Khan and Aslam 2013, 26).

#### ***Labour force participation gap and gender differences in occupations***

To summarise the overall situation of labour force participation in Mongolia, the World Bank’s policy report (Khan and Aslam 2013, 11) states that “women in Mongolia participate less than men in the labour force” and “Mongolian labour markets are highly occupationally segmented by gender”.

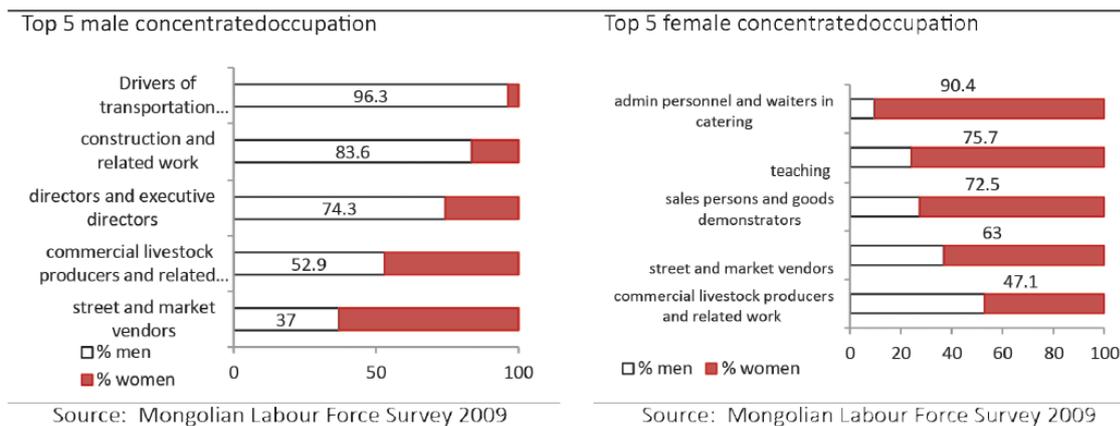
In 2012, the labour force participation rate was 69 percent for men and 58.4 percent for women; in 2013 it was 67 percent for men and 57 percent for women. Lower labour force participation rates are found in the easternmost and westernmost soums as well as in many northern areas; soums located in the centre of the country and in the south have much higher rates. This might be associated with the demographic dependency rate given the highest dependency rates in the three western aimags (45.9 percent) (Coulombe and Altankhuyag 2012).

A recent study on gender equality shows that this gap is influenced by such factors as high enrolment rates of female students in tertiary education, the larger number of women engaged in household activities and childcare, and by the fact that women retire earlier than men (UNDP 2014) (i.e. at the age of 55<sup>14</sup> in contrast to 60 for men). Another factor contributing to the labour force participation gap is the differences in self-employment opportunities for men and women. According to Khan and Aslam (2013, 11), “the only alternative occupation open to women is wage work”, whereas “men are twice as likely to take advantage of self-employment (outside the agriculture sector)”.

As illustrated in Table 3, in terms of the world ranking, Mongolia ranks 50 out of 136 countries with a labour force participation gap index of 0.85 out of 1.00. The strongest indicator for Mongolia in terms of economic participation was advancement, which captures the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers (an index of 0.90) and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers (an index of 1.20) (World Economic Forum 2013, 89 and 284).

Although Mongolia ranks relatively high in terms of the general advancement gap indicator, pronounced gender bias exists in the division of labour between men and women by sector (see Figure 2 below).

**Figure 2 Top Male and Female Concentrated Occupations**



Source: Labour Force Survey 2009 cited in Khan and Aslam 2013, 12

The Labour Force Survey (Fourth Quarter 2013, 2014) found that men predominate in mining, transportation, defence, energy, construction and, to a lesser degree, agriculture, while women are predominantly employed in education and the health and tourism industries (although less often at senior levels). Women are concentrated in a relatively narrow set of occupations, and are noticeably absent from transportation and construction but heavily concentrated in support positions in retail and catering and in teaching (Figure 2, Khan and Aslam 2013, 12). The most feminised employment sectors are those that are typically paid through state budgets and have the lowest salaries; “women in Mongolia have a limited

<sup>14</sup>For women with four or more children, the retirement age is 50 in accordance with the Social Insurance Law

presence in higher level managerial positions and in entrepreneurial work” (Khan and Aslam 2013, 26).

Gender-wise, the data also indicates that of 99,100 people (46.7 percent), the majority of the workforce is employed in commercial and service businesses; the majority of female workers -60,100 (69.4 percent)- are also involved in this field. In terms of the male workforce, the majority (33.6 percent or 42,300) are employed as equipment and heavy machinery operators and repairmen. Men make up 14.1 percent of the industry and construction sector, whereas the figure for women is 6.1 percent. Men comprise 15.8 percent of the workforce in the heavy machinery and operator sector, while women represent only 1.2 percent (National Statistics Office 2014a). Table 4 below details the breakdown.

**Table 4 Trade Categories, by Gender**

Trades	National average	Men	Women
	%	%	%
Manager	6.3	6.5	6.1
Specialist	14.7	9.8	20.3
Office worker, service provider	2.9	1.7	4.3
Commercial service provider	17.3	11.3	24.0
Agriculture, forestry, fishery worker	28.7	29.7	27.5
Industry, construction worker	10.3	14.1	6.1
Heavy machinery, operator	9.0	15.8	1.2
Military service	0.9	1.3	0.4

Source: *Labour Force Survey, fourth quarter 2013, NSO*

It is worth pointing out that those sectors predominantly employing men were also those identified in Mongolia’s official poverty reduction strategy for economic growth, with a tendency to be more lucrative (Government of Mongolia 2006).

### ***Gender remuneration gap***

According to an annual sample survey on wages conducted by the NSO in 2010, the national average wage for men was 14.3 percent higher than that of women (GCSD 2012). According to the World Bank (Khan and Aslam 2013, 17-19), “large and increasing raw gender-earnings gaps exist across almost all industry sectors that women are concentrated in, the main exceptions being wholesale and retail trade and public administration”.

The World Bank report analysed raw data gathered through a 2009 Labour Market Survey and drew the conclusions: Firstly, there are “substantial differences in treatment of women and men by employers in Mongolia’s labour market”; and secondly, the reasons for this gap are heavily reliant on differential treatment or discrimination rather than endowments and observed characteristics (Khan and Aslam 2013, 17-19).

Another possible explanation for the gender gap in remuneration is the fact that men predominate in more highly paid sectors, including those prioritised for growth, such as mining. A pilot survey on the wage structure carried out jointly by the NSO, MPDSP and

ILO in 2010 found that the wage gap existed in all types of trades; specifically, men's average wage was 48 percent higher in machinery and equipment operations, and 36 percent higher in agriculture and fishery (NSO, MPDSP and ILO 2010). Furthermore, male specialists earned 15.5 percent higher wages than women engaged in the same type of job, and there was a 14 percent difference for male lawyers and managers working in both government and NGOs (GCSD 2012). In relation to vocational education and training, there is gender disparity in the earnings of males and females upon graduation from vocational schools, with the average monthly earnings for females about MNT 680,667.6 compared with MNT 1.255,798 for males, according to the pilot study of the Graduate Follow-Up Survey conducted by MCA-Mongolia (MCA-Mongolia 2011).<sup>15</sup>

According to the Global Gender Gap report, Mongolia's **remuneration gap indicator**—the ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income for the same job—scored 0.77 and ranked at 18, whereas the WEF's Executive Opinion Survey on wage equality scored Mongolia at 0.78 with a rank of six (World Economic Forum 2013, 50-51).

### ***Workplace protection***

Women's responsibilities in unpaid care work, a lack of childcare facilities and other social rights may play a significant role in women's non-participation in the labour force and in their employment patterns. Free or affordable childcare is limited in Mongolia given an insufficient number of state-owned kindergartens nationwide. To some extent, this limits women's opportunities to re-enter the labour market after having children. Another factor is the lack of legal support for paternity leave. According to IFC's review of the legal environment, there is no legislation in Mongolia that allows for paternity leave and requires employers to pay wages for paternity leave (IFC-World Bank 2013).

While jobs in mining and construction are high-paying, the lack of enforcement of labour standards and safety measures has resulted in high levels of workplace deaths and accidents, increasing the number of males who are long-term unemployed due to disability. This has increased the number of female-headed households and women's economic burden, compelling both women and children to accept exploitative and high-risk forms of employment, such as artisanal and small-scale mining and semi-voluntary prostitution (Purevjav 2010).

### ***Gender differences in the informal sector***

In Mongolia, a large portion of men and women work in the informal sector. In 2009, 68 percent of male and 63.9 percent of the female labour force worked in the informal sector. Despite recent strong economic growth, inequalities are increasing, particularly between urban and rural areas. Table 5 details the statistics of the informal sector in Mongolia.

---

<sup>15</sup> Some caution may be warranted with these figures as the survey included just 10 schools. The total number of respondents who participated in the survey was 248, of whom 113 were males and 135 were females

**Table 5 Distribution of the labour force in Mongolia<sup>16</sup>**

	National average	Men	Women
<b>Formal</b>			
National	24.0	21.9	25.7
Rural	10.5	9.2	12.0
Urban	35.9	33.8	38.1
<b>Informal</b>			
National	66.2	68.3	63.9
Rural	83.4	84.5	82.2
Urban	50.3	53.1	47.3

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009 cited in Khan and Aslam 2013, 34

At the end of 2013, a total of 212,300 people were estimated to be working in the informal sector, of whom 125,700 thousand (59.2 percent) were male and 86,600 (40.8 percent) were female.

As Table 6 illustrates, the majority of men and women working in the informal sector are generating their primary or sole source of income through employment in informal sector in urban areas (National Statistics Office 2014a).

**Table 6 Informal Sector Workers, by Sex and Residential Areas**

Men	Urban	Rural
<b>Total number of workers</b>	<b>94 391</b>	<b>31 354</b>
Primary income source	93 576	28 855
Extra income source	815	2 499
Women	Urban	Rural
<b>Total number of workers</b>	<b>61 651</b>	<b>24 964</b>
Primary income source	60 928	24 010
Extra income source	723	954

The concentration of rural women in the informal sector (including artisanal and small-scale mining) implies that, firstly, women are mostly unremunerated or unpaid workers (Khan and Aslam 2013), and secondly, that they are working in a sector that offers a lower degree of social protection and lower wages than the formal sector (The Asia Foundation; Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation February 2014).

<sup>16</sup>The figures did not add up to 100 percent because the statistics did not include unemployment

### *Poverty and unemployment*

Macro-level factors have influenced gender roles, and to an extent have placed different pressures on men and women in Mongolia. After the collapse of the socialist regime, Mongolia faced transition to a market economy and a democratic society, the loss of safety nets, high unemployment and massive internal migration, prompting widespread economic and social insecurity. Both women and men bore the brunt of many of these changes. Women bore the brunt at the household level, being the first to lose their jobs while simultaneously losing access to a range of state-sponsored child benefits (National Statistics Office 2012). For men, their roles and responsibilities within the household were affected by high levels of unemployment and alcoholism.

Unemployment has risen due to increased internal migration to urban areas. As of December 2013, the total number of registered unemployed was 42,800 - a 19.6 percent (7,000) increase on the preceding year (National Statistics Office 2013). Of the number of registered unemployed, women number 23,500 (54.9 percent), a 2.4 point increase compared with 2012 (National Statistics Office 2013). Youth aged 15-34 number 27,000 (63 percent) of the registered unemployed; the figure is 0.3-10.0 points higher than the national average in eastern and western regions as well as in the capital city, Ulaanbaatar (National Statistics Office 2013). Women's access to paid employment is an indication of their integration into the market economy.

With regard to Mongolia's progress on achieving MDGs, poverty in Mongolia has been steadily decreasing nationwide since 1995, as the targets listed in Table 7 below indicate (Government of Mongolia 2013a).

**Table 7 Mongolia's Progress Toward Achieving MDGs: Targets #1, 3**

<b>Targets/Indicators</b>	<b>Baseline</b>	<b>2012 Progress</b>	<b>2015 Target</b>
<b>Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is below the minimum living standard</b>			
1. Poverty headcount ratio (percent)	36.3 (1995)	27.4	18.0
2. Poverty gap ratio (percent)	10.9 (1995)	7.1	6.0
3. Share of the poorest quintile in national consumption	-	7.7	11.0
<b>Target 3: Increase employment rate, reduce youth unemployment rate who are newly entering to the labour market</b>			
1. Labour force participation rate (percent)	-	63.5	70.0
2. Unemployment rate of 15-24 year-old (percent)	6.5 (1998)	14.0	2.5

Despite a booming economy, Mongolia's poverty rate remains high in rural areas, and income inequality within communities and between regions is widening. People living in rural areas, where the poverty rate is estimated at 35.5 percent (specifically in the Khangai and western regions), men in rural areas, and women in urban areas are more likely to be poor. Children are the most vulnerable members of poor households, and have been severely affected by intra-family disparities (Government of Mongolia 2013a).

Given the main characteristics of poor people and poor households- unemployed, single, female household heads living in aimag and soum centres; herders in rural areas who lost livestock in “dzuds”; households with many children and with children who are students - it can be concluded that women and children are more vulnerable to poverty (Government of Mongolia 2013a). As of 2011, 48 percent of households with uneducated heads are poor, and about 35 percent of households with heads who are engaged in the agricultural sector are poor (National Statistics Office 2011). These figures indicate that the poor and middle-income population are not adequately benefiting from higher economic growth, resulting in non-inclusive economic growth. The Asian Development Bank (2010) has warned that: *“These fundamental inequalities are likely to result in long-term, gender-specific vulnerabilities unless they are pro-actively addressed”* (ADB; SDC; NCGE 2010).

### ***Child labour***

Child labour is a problem for both genders. Younger children and girls are paid in kind (mainly food), while older male children are paid in cash, indicating that gender disparities in pay begin early on in life (Purevjav 2010).

Child labour in artisanal and small-scale mining can be seen as a gendered issue in so far as it reflects the increasing rates of poor, female headed-households and male bread-winners who are disabled or killed. It has been recommended to revise the national legal framework to comply with ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour; for example, Section 4 of the Labour Code, which does not protect self-employed children or children working in the informal sector (ADB; SDC; NCGE 2010).

## **3.2. Access to Political Decision making**

As stated in the Fourth World Conference on Women<sup>17</sup>, women's empowerment and their full and equal participation in all spheres of society, including their participation in decision-making process and access to power, are fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace.

Mongolia ranked 108 (out of 207 countries worldwide) in the Human Development Index 2013, making it a medium human development country (HDI value 0.675) (UNDP 2013).

---

<sup>17</sup>Beijing Declaration, 1995

The country’s 2012 Gender Inequality Index rank was 56<sup>18</sup>; and similarly, according to the GGI’s sub-index, Political Empowerment, which measures different indicators such as the ratio of women to men at the highest level of political decision-making, Mongolia ranked 108 out of 136 countries with an index of 0.211.

**Table 8 Gender Gap Sub-index - Political Empowerment**

	Rank	Score	Sample average	Female	Male	Female-to-male ratio
Political Empowerment .....	108	0.073	0.211			
Women in parliament.....	88	0.18	0.24	15	85	0.18
Women in ministerial positions.....	109	0.08	0.19	7	93	0.08
Years with female head of state (last 50).....	57	0.00	0.20	0	50	0.00

Source: *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013*, p. 285

***Women’s representation in Parliament, local representative khural and civil service***

Women in Mongolia were given the right to run for elections and to vote in 1924. However, Mongolian women continue to be disproportionately represented at political decision-making levels, particularly in Parliament. Concerned with the low representation of women in politics—just 3.9 percent of elected members of Parliament in 2008—the government in Mongolia recently changed its electoral system through the amended election law of 2012 (True, et al. 2012).

**Table 9 Women’s Representation in Parliament to Date**

nr	Approach for assessing Mongolia’s MDGs targets	1990	2000	2004	2008	2012
3.5	Rate of women elected in Parliament	24.9	11.8	6.6	3.9	14.47
3.6	Rate of female candidates in Parliament	7.7(1992)	10.9	13.7	18.5	32.0

Source: NCGE and UNDP, *Women’s Participation and Representation in Political Decision Making Level, 2012*

As a result of the 2012 Parliamentary elections, women occupy 14.47 percent of seats (11 out of 76 seats) in Parliament, which is largely due to the amendment to the Law on Parliamentary Election in 2011 which (Clause 27.2) stipulates that “at least 20 percent of candidates from parties and coalitions, among others shall be women”. That quota resulted in 84 female candidates running for elections, and 90 women listed in their respective parties’ list quotas of the total 544 candidates registered for the 2012 elections.

These gender quotas and reservations have significantly improved women’s political representation at national level and serves as an example of how ‘fast-track’ gains can be made (True, et al. 2012, 2). Other international sources suggest that, in addition to this fast-track policy, “increasing disillusionment with corruption associated with male-dominated

<sup>18</sup> This is an experimental composite measure of inequality in achievement between women and men in three dimensions: *reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market*

leadership and the perception that women are more trustworthy and principled” also contributed to this result (Narangoa 2012 and Dierkes 2012 cited in True, et al. 2012, 17).

As of 2011, about 16 percent of all chairpersons of local-level citizens’ khurals at bagh, soum and aimag levels were women.

In Mongolia the number of women in office plummeted from 25% to 4% during the process of democratization after the end of the Communist one-party rule in 1990 (True, et al. 2012, 12). As of 2011, out of the 13,000 civil servants nationwide, close to 7,200 were women. However, women tend to occupy many lower-level positions. Among the 500 highest-level positions of leading officers and principal officers, 154 (or about 30 percent) were women (UNDP 2011). It is assumed that as a result of a provision (10.1.1.) of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality that “Representation of any one sex among politically appointed civil servants shall not be less than 15 percent on national, aimag and the capital city levels, 20 percent on district, 25 percent on soum and 30 percent on khoroo levels.” (Parliament of Mongolia February 2, 2011) The provision has been effective since 1 January, 2013, and there have been some improvements in some of the issues mentioned above. That said, there is still progress to be made in ensuring that decision-making processes at all levels are inclusive and are genuinely representative of the population they are serving.

The significant gender disparity at the political decision-making level has been brought to the attention of the Government of Mongolia by the UN Human Rights Commission (National Human Rights Commission):

*“In order to increase women’s participation at the highest decision-making levels of public and private sectors, and further in the Parliament, and to eliminate gender discrimination among women, especially rural women and vulnerable groups of society, there is a need to take appropriate responsive measures.”*

### ***Public opinion about female candidates of general elections and local elections***

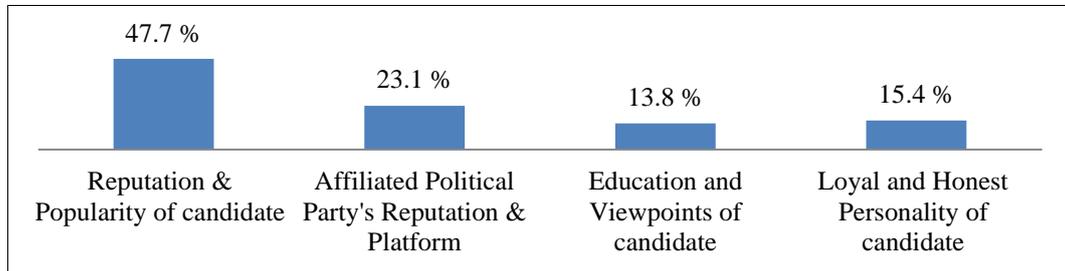
A public survey conducted by MONFEMNET and IRIM in 2008 in Mongolia found that for more than half (59 percent) of the survey participants, a candidate’s gender was an important factor in their voting decisions, whereas for 38 percent of the participants, it was not an issue. The findings from another public perception survey indicated that a key reason for women’s low representation in Parliament was associated with a male-dominated political structure rather than with women’s capacity and experience (NCGE and UNDP 2012).

The survey has also found that the younger people were, the more supportive were their attitudes towards gender equity, whereas pro-male attitudes increased among older age groups. It is worth noting that there has been no major difference in the survey findings of 2010 and 2011 covering both capital city and aimags when attitudinal difference of various age groups were assessed (NCGE and UNDP 2012).

In terms of contributing factors for women elected to local government office, a Mongolian Women’s Fund’s survey found that an estimated 48 percent of female respondents believed

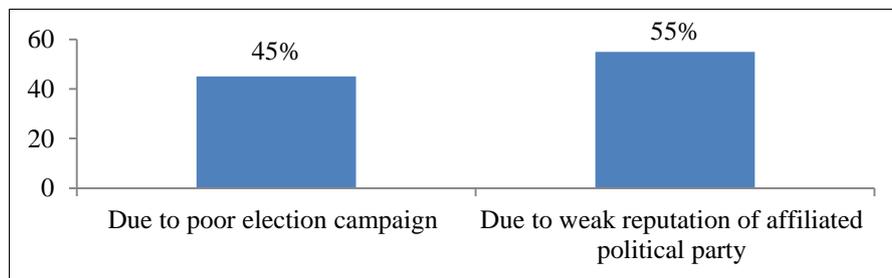
their reputation and popularity enabled them to win. The second reason (23.1 percent) was associated with the political party's reputation and platform. Other factors included the education level and viewpoint of the candidate (13.8 percent), followed by the candidate's loyalty and honesty (15.4 percent) (see Figure3 below).

**Figure 3 Assessing the competency of female candidates running for local Citizens' Representative Khurals**



When female candidates who had failed in their bid to be elected to Citizens' Representative Khurals were asked about the reasons they were unsuccessful, two key factors were cited (Mongolian Women's Fund 2012) (see Figure 4 below).

**Figure 4 Assessing the competency of female candidates running for local Citizens' Representative Khural**



Another interesting finding from the survey was that it was commonly perceived among the Mongolian public that the higher the policy-making level, the more gender disparity should exist. This attitude was also evident among female candidates, as the survey results demonstrate in Table 10 below. Moreover, it was made clear that the higher the management level in the local party's structure, the lower the proportion of women.

**Table 10 What Should be the Appropriate Gender Ratio in the Following Positions?**

Positions	Male	Female
Citizens' Representative Khural at aimag and capital city	60	40
Citizens' Representative Khural at soum and district levels	50	50

Source: Mongolian Women's Fund, *Assessing Competency of Female Candidates Running for Local Citizens' Representative Khural*

The key constraint factors that serve as barriers to women's active political participation include a lack of financial resources (19.7 percent), a non-proactive attitude among women (18.8 percent), a lack of political knowledge (18.3 percent), and negative social attitudes (16.6 percent) (Mongolian Women's Fund 2012).

It is worth pointing out that the gender gap exists not only at the highest decision-making level, but also at the grassroots level. Male preference is still common among herders, strongly influencing their behaviour, as revealed in a small-scale gender assessment conducted by MCA-Mongolia. According to the qualitative study findings, when it comes to the selection of group leaders<sup>19</sup>, it was common among both male and female herders to believe that men were stronger than women both mentally and physically, and that men had a greater capacity to improve people's livelihoods than women. The most common beliefs held by herders in the selection of group leader were as follows: Male leaders were selected because it was believed that when it came to travel, irrespective of distance and weather conditions, men were more capable as they drove cars or rode motorbikes; men were the heads of households and thus could function as political leaders; both male and female herders believed that men were better mentally suited and possessed more knowledge than women; and being a leader was a job better suited to man (MCA-Mongolia; Begzsuren, Tsolmon 2013d).

It can be thus be concluded that be it in the public or private sphere, from the highest government decision-making levels to households, both rural and urban women continue to be denied equal opportunities to participate in the decisions that affect their lives (United Nations 2013). This is particularly the case for rural women as they tend to be more engaged in household chores, including animal husbandry, which affords them less time for community work. This leads to lower female participation in political and social spheres in rural areas. It is therefore necessary to empower rural women by increasing their involvement in the public space. However, because men are still predominant in all spheres ranging from family planning through to government policymaking in Mongolia, it is crucial to effect changes in the knowledge, attitudes and practices of both men and women in order to realise equal relations and gender equality (NCGE 2013). Given the progress made so far in regard to MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women, it has been concluded by the GoM that Mongolia needs to continue its endeavours to promote gender equality and ensure women's participation in decision-making beyond 2015 (Government of Mongolia 2013a).

### 3.3. Gender and Education

Gender equality in education attainment is the country's highest indicator. According to the latest gender gap index report, Mongolia's index for women's and men's access to education was 0.995. (World Economic Forum 2013, 285). Contrary to other countries in Asia, girls in Mongolia are far more likely to attend school, particularly among older age groups (Coulombe and Altankhuyag 2012).

---

<sup>19</sup> Herder groups formulated under MCA-Mongolia project

However, there are considerable differences related to educational attainment and quality depending on the level of education (primary, secondary, tertiary), age group, geographical location, and social group (such as people with disabilities, herders, minorities). Tables 11 and 12 illustrate the female-to-male ratio in primary, secondary and tertiary education, as well as the percentage of school attendance among different age groups.

**Table 11 Gender Gap Sub-index – Educational Attainment**

	Rank	Score	Sample average	Female	Male	Female-to-male ratio
Educational Attainment .....	49	0.995	0.934			
Literacy rate .....	1	1.00	0.87	98	97	1.01
Enrolment in primary education.....	89	0.99	0.92	98	99	0.99
Enrolment in secondary education.....	1	1.00	0.60	79	74	1.06
Enrolment in tertiary education.....	1	1.00	0.87	69	46	1.49

Source: *The Global Gender Gap Report 2013*, p. 285

**Table 12 Girls and boys ratio**

Indicator	National Average		
	Male	Female	Total
School Attendance among the 6 to 9 age group (in %)	97.0	97.6	97.3
School Attendance among the 10 to 14 age group (in %)	96.0	97.7	96.8
School Attendance among the 15 to 19 age group (in %)	75.3	83.6	79.3
School Attendance among the 20 to 29 age group (in %)	14.3	17.3	15.8

Source: (Coulombe and Altankhuyag 2012)

As summarised in the 2008 Global Monitoring Report, these differences are characterised by several challenges related to equity and quality of education. The most severe challenges include (Steiner-Khamsi and Gerelmaa 2009, 409):

- Poverty;
- Internal migration from rural to urban areas;
- Neglect of students with special needs;
- Inverse gender gap (since 1995, more girls than boys are enrolled at all educational levels);
- Swift decline of vocational and technical education; and
- Rapid expansion of higher education.

**Primary level education**

By 2000, an almost equal number of girls and boys were enrolled at the primary level, but since that time girls’ enrolment has slowly declined. By 2010, boys’ enrolment in schools, particularly in the western region, was seen to require targeted attention (see Table 13)

(Population and Housing Census 2010 cited in GoM 2013a). The government has projected that with additional efforts, the target for 100 percent net enrolment ratio in primary education in accordance with MDG Target 5 can be fully achieved (Government of Mongolia 2013a).

**Table 13 Net Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, By Region and Gender, 2010, Percentage**

	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
National Average	97.4	97.1	97.7
Western region	95.4	94.8	96.0
Khangai region	97.1	96.6	97.6
Central region	98.0	97.7	98.3
Eastern	98.1	97.8	98.4
Ulaanbaatar	98.1	98.0	98.3

Source: NSC, *Thematic report, Indicators of MDG targets, 2010 Population and Housing Census*, page 15 cited in GoM 2013a

By 2012, the girls-to-boys enrolment ratio at the primary school level was 0.95. Disparity in the ratio of girls to boys at the primary school level varies by region and across rural and urban areas. In the eastern region, there are only 94 girls to 100 boys, whereas in western and Khangai regions, the ratio of girls to boys is relatively equal (Government of Mongolia 2013a, 71). It should be noted that girls account for 39.0 percent of out-of-school children; specifically, 34.4 percent of primary school drop-outs and 33.5 percent of secondary school drop-outs are girls, demonstrating the reverse gender gap Mongolia faces in the education sector (National Women's Forum; NCGE; UNDP 2010). The high drop-out rate of boys is considered to be the leading cause for the low net enrolment ratio of boys in primary school.

### ***Secondary level education***

Even though more girls than boys are enrolled in secondary and tertiary levels, the ratios are gradually declining. By 2012, the ratio of girls to boys completing secondary education was 1.07 (administrative records of the MoES cited by the GoM 2013a). A greater desire on the part of boys to enter the labour market without completing secondary education seems to be the likely reason for this imbalance. In addition, the sons of poor herder families continue to be frequently used as child labour (animal husbandry). According to statistics, they represent the most educationally disadvantaged group among the rural poor and make up 60 percent of all dropouts in the 8-15 age group (Steiner-Khamsi and Gerelmaa 2009, 410).

In light of this, in 2006, the MoES issued Resolution No. 486, which stated that at least 80 percent of 9th Grade graduates had to be enrolled in 10th grade during the 2006-2007 academic year while maintaining a girl-to-boy ratio of 48 percent. Since 2008, this decision has had a positive effect on reducing the disparity at all educational levels (GoM 2013a).

Additionally, among the recommendations targeted at accelerating progress in regard to MDG 3, it states that “to achieve the appropriate sex ratio in primary and secondary education, a review of the gender ratio at vocational education centres needs to be undertaken and measures promoted to equalise this ratio. The MoES, educational organizations at aimag centres and the capital city should design and implement policy interventions to promote gender equality among the boys and girls studying in primary and secondary schools” (GoM 2013a).

### ***Tertiary level education***

The gender imbalance in favour of girls persists at the tertiary level. However, the trend is steadily moving towards balance as indicated by a sizeable decline in the girls-to-boys ratio from 1.72 to 1.40 between 2000 and 2012 (the ratio for 2012 is 140 females to 100 males) (GoMongolia 2013a). However, 64.3 percent of tertiary school graduates are still women (NSO 2013) - an increase on 2010, when the figure was 61.1 percent. In a breakdown of the top three trades, 38.3 percent of all graduates majored in social science, followed by 16.5 percent in education and 12.7 percent in techniques and technology (NSO 2013). In light of this, the government in its fifth report “Achieving the MDGs” that “imposing a quota for male students admitted to universities and colleges will help reduce the gender disparity at the tertiary educational level”. However, this measure has not yet been undertaken.

Although girls outnumber boys in every higher education discipline except for art, architecture, natural science, technology and engineering (MESC 2007), they tend to be particularly at a disadvantage in converting their higher levels of education into higher levels of income, which is demonstrated by persistently higher unemployment among women with higher education and lower wages than men. Stereotypes of suitable jobs for women and men coupled with a lack of employment choices are major contributing factors to this disparity (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010).

### ***Vocational education and training***

In the area of technical and vocational education and training, foreign languages and service industries are equally preferred by both male and female vocational school students. However, a greater number of male students prefer construction, mining, machinery and equipment, and vehicle repair, while a greater number of female students major in food technology, textiles and computers (MCA-Mongolia 2013a). Given the booming mining industry with its high-paying jobs, 15.4 percent of male students are studying mining and heavy machinery; the figure for females is 9.4 percent<sup>20</sup>. The rapid growth of the mining sector, with its predominantly male workforce, has already had a negative impact on gender parity (Coulombe and Altankhuyag 2012).

Gender-based segregation in employment further expands gender gaps through unequal power relations, skills, income generation and job opportunities. As well as illustrating unmet

---

<sup>20</sup>As per survey conducted among 2,500 households, of which 1000 in rural areas and 1500 in Ulaanbaatar

demand in relation to labour market supply needs, it also demonstrates the need for career counselling for adolescent girls and boys; a conclusion supported by the qualitative, which found that career counselling was not equally beneficial for every student. Pursuant to this issue, specific recommendations have been made by MCA-Mongolia for the Vocational Education and Training Sector Strategic Plan, for example on the coaching of social workers in educating girls and their parents about career prospects and the earning prospects of different fields, and the training of social workers using a gender-sensitive planning approach to school admissions (MCA-Mongolia 2013b). This is aimed at enabling females to study in those areas that will lead to occupations in economic sectors with the most promising and highly paid job prospects. In addition, civil society representatives working in the field of gender have suggested that there is a need to develop a specific gender strategy that should be embedded into the policy of Ministry of Labour.

As noted in the CEDAW Country Report (2011), some of key challenges in ensuring gender equality in the education sector include: Gender stereotypes are reinforced in school textbooks; gender education has yet to be introduced into the school curricula, and gender differences and the specific needs of boys and girls are not taken into account in the building and equipping of schools. In general, the available education-related data tends to be disaggregated by gender in Mongolia; however, the quality of data, its utilisation, analysis and dissemination do not meet the needs of gender-sensitive policy formulation (Gender Center for Sustainable Development 2008).

The aforementioned concerns demonstrate that gender analysis should be prioritised in the education sector. The analysis not only identifies the gender-related challenges facing the sector, but also allows for a study of the gender differentiated constraints and contributing factors in relation to social norms and special gender needs. Only with that in place will it be possible to address the gender-specific concerns that Mongolian boys and girls face today.

### **3.4. Gender Issues in Health sector**

Mongolia has achieved several of the health-related MDGs (GoM and UNDP 2009). Despite a relatively low per-capita income, Mongolia has fairly strong health indicators (ADB 2008, 5). However, there are lingering problems in access to and quality of health care, and inefficiency and inadequate implementation of reform and improvement strategies (ADB 2007 cited in ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010, 26). Furthermore, health care utilisation and outcomes are increasingly characterised by large inequalities, both geographic and socio-economic. The groups who often face particular difficulty in accessing health services are the poor, men and rural women (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010, 26).

***Non-communicable diseases and men’s health issues***

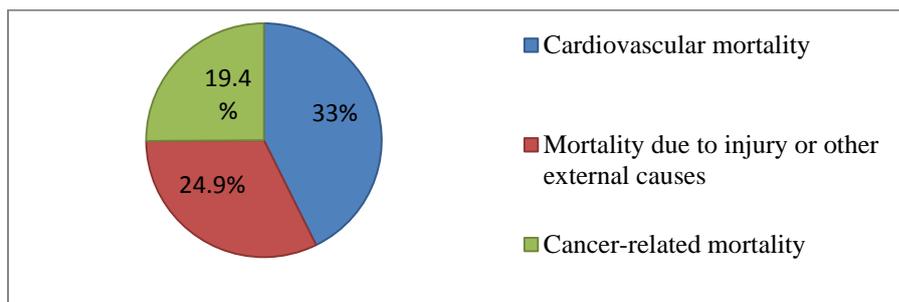
As stated in the World Health Organisation’s Country Strategy (WHO 2013), “Mongolia is experiencing an epidemiological and demographic transition with a decline in morbidity and mortality from communicable diseases and an increase in burden due to chronic and non-communicable diseases”. There are wide disparities across the country in maternal mortality and child health (World Bank 2013); adult mortality rates are on the rise, driven by a rising incidence of non-communicable diseases (MCA-Mongolia 2009); and the gender gap in life expectancy is also widening due to a worrying increase in adult male mortality.

The NSO estimates that male life expectancy is 64.91 and for women 74.3 (NSO 2013). Men’s health issues have become an alarming concern for Mongolia in the past five years given the increasingly high morbidity and mortality rates among men. As stated in the MoH strategy on “Men’s Health” for the period 2014-2018:

*“Continued weak integration of male health issues and associated healthcare services that meet the special needs of men into the national health policy, and a lack of human resources and user-friendly environments have provoked a number of critical health concerns for men.”*

The MoH has estimated that on average there are 17,000 deaths nationally per year, of which males account for 62 percent. As Figure 5 illustrates, the leading causes of male mortality are associated with cardiovascular diseases (33 percent) followed by injury and/or other external causes (24.9 percent) and cancer (19.4 percent)(Ministry of Health 2014).

**Figure 5 Causes of mortality for men**



*Source: Ministry of Health Men’s Health Strategy 2014-2018*

A closer look at the health statistics indicates that non-communicable diseases are considered to be the leading cause of mortality among men (see Table 14 below).

**Table 14 Two leading causes of population mortality in Mongolia, 2010**

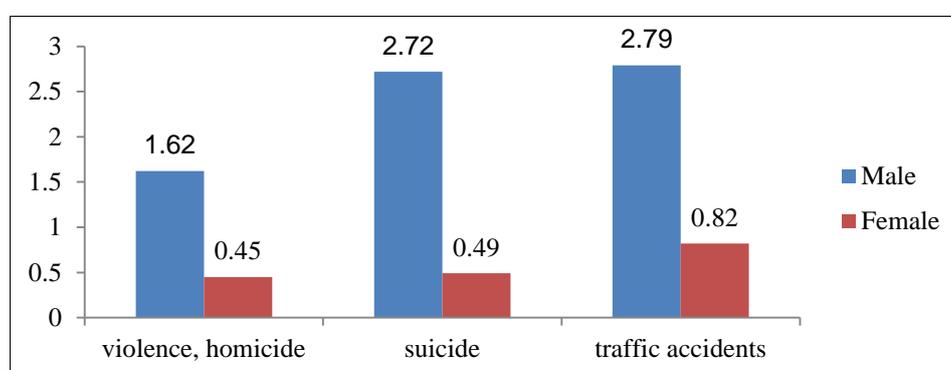
	<b>Cardiovascular mortality rates per 10,000 persons</b>	<b>Cancer-related mortality rates per 10,000 persons (second leading cause of mortality)</b>
<b>Male</b>	27.12%	14.99%
<b>Female</b>	20.27%	11.14%

Source: (MoH, Health Indicators 2010)

The baseline STEPS Survey (MCA-Mongolia 2009) in Mongolia found that the behavioural risk factors for non-communicable diseases were prevalent among the Mongolian population. Males aged 15-34 had a twofold higher risk of developing non-communicable diseases compared to women in the same age group. Several studies contend that the main contributing factors are:

- Men's poor lifestyles, such as high rates of smoking and alcohol consumption (ADB 2008, 5);
- "Men are reportedly five times more likely than women to die from murder and traffic accidents, and the incidence of suicide is seven times higher among men, mainly among 15-44 year-olds" (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010, 27);
- Men are predominantly engaged in such hard labour activities as infrastructure, construction, mining, heavy industry, and roads and transportation; they are more likely to lose capacity at an early ages and live shorter lives than women, and are at a higher risk of occupational disease (MCA-Mongolia 2009).

The main causes of the age-specific mortality rate (12.52 percent) for males aged from 20-44 were injuries and other consequences of externally contracted diseases. In comparison with women (per 10,000 people), the suicide rate is 5.5 times higher for men, violence and homicide 3.6 times higher, and traffic accident 3.4 times higher (MoH 2010).

**Figure 6 Injury, poisoning and other consequences of external causes, per 10.000 population, 2010**


Source: Ministry of Health, Health indicators 2010

### *Communicable diseases and STIs*

Overall, communicable diseases have decreased over the years in Mongolia (WHO 2013). However, tuberculosis is a major concern. The incidence rate of tuberculosis rose from 79 to 185 per 100,000 people between 1990 and 2006 (ADB 2008, 5). Tuberculosis in Mongolia is prevalent among the urban poor, the homeless and unemployed (Ministry of Health 2008).

Another major health concern is the increasing incidence of sexually transmitted infections (STIs), particularly among youth and vulnerable groups, as well as a lack of access to reproductive health information and services, particularly among rural populations. Although HIV prevalence remains low, as of 2008, STI prevalence continues to rise, comprising 40 percent of infectious diseases. Incidences of syphilis and congenital syphilis more than doubled in the period from 2004-2008 (MoH and NCHD 2007 cited in ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010, 27). This is reflected in IRIM's recent studies on reproductive health (ADB and IRIM 2012; ADB and IRIM 2013; and UNFPA and IRIM 2013) which found that there are high-risk behaviours that can lead to increased STIs exposure through non-sexual means in rural areas among the mobile male population and youth. When disaggregated by gender, male respondents tended to have less awareness of and practice in preventing the transmission of STIs than female respondents (UNFPA and IRIM 2013). According to the MoH, the prevalence of communicable diseases is two times higher among young men aged 15-34 than for women of the same age group. However, it has been observed that the number of males seeking outpatient care is 2.3 times lower than that of women (MoH 2014).

### *People with disabilities*

There were an estimated 96,300 people with disabilities in Mongolia at the end of 2013, an increase of 4.4 percent or 4062 people compared with 2012. Of this number, women account for 43.6 percent and 11.3 percent (10,900) are children (NSO 2013). As the data indicates, 35.5 percent of people with disabilities had congenital disabilities; the remainder were associated with such external causes as illness, occupational diseases, and industrial and household accidents. Poor compliance with occupational health and safety standards is a key contributing factor for such accidents. It is predominantly men who work in such high-risk sectors as construction. Continued non-compliance with occupational safety standards resulted in several deaths in 2013 alone.

Another area of concern associated with gender in the Mongolian health sector is inadequate healthcare services for people with disabilities. This is compounded by the lack of adequate infrastructure to enable freedom of mobility, which is evidence of indirect gender discrimination (NCGE, UNFPA and Citizens' Center for Alliance 2008). People with disabilities, particularly women, face far more challenges in accessing health services and are often met with non-supportive attitudes from medical practitioners, as was determined in a qualitative study (FGDs by Tsolmon Begzsuren 2013).

Compared with their able-bodied counterparts, women with disabilities have a significantly restricted social life. There is a lack of institutional support and interventions to socialise disabled women that take into consideration their special gender needs in all sectors of

society (GCSD 2010). This results in ignorance of their rights to access to quality health services and education.

### ***Awareness-raising and health education***

As mentioned above, the high rates of lifestyle-related diseases and mortality point to the need for more prevention and health education (ADB 2008, 5). One of the contributing factors for the poor health status of men is associated with a low level of awareness about the importance of prevention and early detection of both communicable and non-communicable diseases. This demonstrates an urgent need for attitudinal and behavioural changes among men. In light of the emerging concerns about men's health and following a provision of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality (13.1) that "the State shall implement measures to create services designed to cater to the specific health needs of women and men", a Men's Health Strategy for 2014-2018 was developed by the MoH and was ratified in 2014.

It has been suggested that gender-sensitive trainings or awareness raising activities related to risks and lifestyle behaviours that lead to cardiovascular diseases, as well as prevention approaches, should be organised with a special focus on men (MCA-Mongolia 2009). This should be developed with different curricula based on age, education level, workplace and residential area to support a change of attitudes and behaviours among men related to cardiovascular diseases. Accordingly, gender-specific approaches such as the development of campaigns and TV spots targeted specifically at men and based on gender-specific messages and content were carried out by MCA-Mongolia's Health project. Workplace trainings for male-dominant workplaces such as construction and mining companies have proved to be an effective approach in reaching out to men.

### **3.5. Media and Gender Sensitive Journalism**

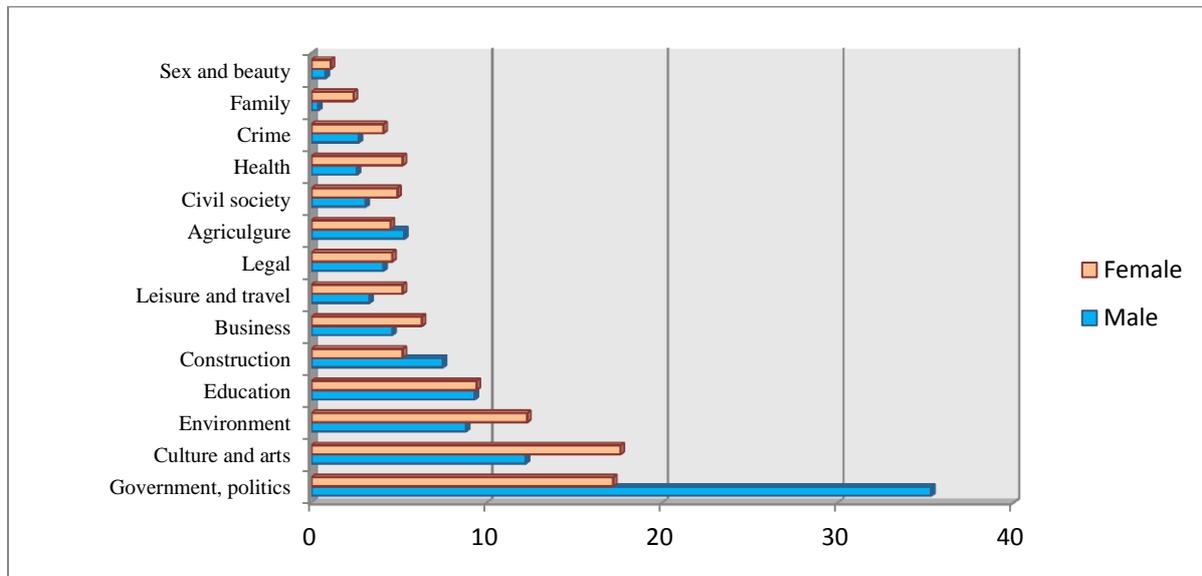
As stipulated in the Law on Public Radio and Television (2005, Provision 8.2.7), "*the mass media is accountable for ensuring a balance between the needs of the general public and those of special groups and segments of the society like minorities, women, children and people with disabilities*". However, one of the most common ethical mistakes journalists make is using words either unconsciously or deliberately that insult women. Some of the sayings shared by respondents of a qualitative study include: "*Even a bad man is better than women*", "*He behaves like a woman*", "*A woman has long hair yet is short-minded*" (IRIM 2010).

A content analysis study conducted by IRIM in 2009 of three daily newspapers, five magazines and three TV channels over a period of two months revealed some interesting findings on how the media reflects gender roles. The study examined how the media in Mongolia portrayed men and women and identified the main differences in these representations.

The study found that the content of TV stations, newspapers and journals related to such topics as holidays, leisure time and culture were related with femininity, while politics,

economy, legislation and sports were related with masculinity, which reinforces stereotypes among the public.

**Figure 7** Frequency of men and women represented in different sectors by media



The traditional way of respect for men in Mongolia (including such characteristics as being serious and respecting national identity) also has a role to play. This indicates that the traditional Mongolian value of patriarchy is still being reflected in male images featured in TV news, newspapers and journals (IRIM and NCGE 2009).

It is also worth highlighting what the activist/coordinator of local NGO “Young Women for Change” said: “Women are usually featured by local media as sexual objects, and there is also a tendency among the public, including especially a few members of the Parliament, in support of men’s versus women’s empowerment and bargaining power, which is as they say in line with traditional culture and customs. This further advances pro-patriarchal attitudes in Mongolia and increases the vulnerability of girls and young women, resulting in gender inequality in the society”. The repetitive use of gender stereotypes (such as portraying women solely as carers of the family or as sexual objects) affects the public’s perception of reality. The use of stereotypes reflects a mental block not only in terms of what society may expect from women, but also - more seriously - in terms of what women may expect from themselves (UNESCO 2009).

In accordance with the Yogyakarta Principles<sup>21</sup> stipulating people’s rights to equality and non-discrimination, “the states shall take all appropriate action, including programmes of education and training, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudicial or discriminatory attitudes or behaviours which are related to the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of any sexual orientation or gender identity or gender expression”. By integrating gender parity into the education system and the school curriculum, it would be possible to

<sup>21</sup>Principles on the application of international human rights law in relation to sexual orientation and gender identity, 2007

provide children with non-biased information and knowledge, and change prevalent public stereotypes. The mass media can also play a key role in eliminating gender stereotypes.

## 4. Gender-based Violence in Mongolia

Since Mongolia's transition, widening socio-economic disparity has resulted in a number of “unintended” consequences which have manifested in various forms of gender-based violence<sup>22</sup>, including trafficking in persons (i.e. the sexual exploitation of women and girls, labour exploitation and forced labour of women and men), domestic violence, workplace sexual harassment and prostitution (ADB, SDC and NCGE 2010). Young women and girls in Mongolia, where there is policy support for population growth, face various challenges today in terms of sexual and reproductive rights and health. Specifically, they often fall victim to sexual violence, including “date rape”<sup>23</sup> and rape committed by close relatives, sexual harassment at schools and in workplaces, as well as sexual abuse in public spaces (MONFEMNET 2013). Because of their physical weakness and the lack of a protective institutional framework, girls and young women are more at risk of sexual exploitation and being used for prostitution and pornography.

Ending gender-based violence requires comprehensive policies and legal reform. It also requires attention and training to ensure the legal duty-bearers (who are predominantly men) effectively implement the laws (UNFPA 2013). Although Mongolia has a well-established legal framework to address different types of gender-based violence, the issues of trafficking in persons, domestic violence and workplace sexual harassment remain serious concerns for Mongolia.

### 4.1. Trafficking in Persons: Current Overview

Mongolia is a source, transit and destination country for men, women and children who are subjected to sex trafficking and forced labour. Mongolian men, women and children are found in forced labour and forced prostitution in China, Malaysia, the Philippines, Macau, and Singapore. Mongolian men are found in forced labour in Turkey, Kazakhstan and the Czech Republic. Mongolian women and girls are subjected to forced prostitution in Macau, Hong Kong, and South Korea. Mongolian women, some of whom have disabilities, are subjected to involuntary servitude or forced prostitution after entering into commercially brokered marriages, often to South Korean or Chinese men. Women and girls are subjected to forced prostitution in massage parlours, and girls remain vulnerable to commercial sexual exploitation in hotels, bars and karaoke clubs in Mongolia (US Department of State 2013).

One survey found that 95.6 percent of sexually exploited girls became victims when they were 16 years old (ILO; National Statistics Office 2010). However, children who were sexually exploited were unaware that they were victims of human trafficking. About 80 percent of those children said they would accept an offer to work or study overseas, hence there was a high risk that they would fall victim to human trafficking across borders (ILO; National Statistics Office 2010).

---

<sup>22</sup>“Gender-based violence” is defined in the LPGE (4.1.8) as any action or inaction prompted by the victim’s gender that inflicts or has the potential to inflict physical, sexual, emotional and economic damage to a victim

<sup>23</sup>A type of rape committed by someone a person is dating

In terms of child labour, some Mongolian children are forced to beg, steal or work in the informal construction, mining and industrial sectors. Nonetheless, the government still lacks a law or policy on victim-witness protection and does not provide long-term resources for victims of trafficking (US Department of State 2013).

### *National legislation*

The National Plan of Action on Trafficking and Protection of Children and Women from Commercial Sexual Exploitation 2006-2014 creates a legal environment to help prevent trafficking in persons and sexual exploitation, as well as to raise awareness within communities and among parents and youth, and improve the protection and rehabilitation of victims. Additionally, a Law on Combating Trafficking in Persons was adopted on 19 January, 2012. However, no discernible effort to prevent trafficking was made by the GoM throughout 2013 and no public education campaigns were conducted. Following an assessment made by US Department of State in its 2013 Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Report, provincial and district governments independently conducted their own community-oriented public awareness campaigns for children, schools, and employers. Moreover, the GoM failed to implement two national action plans focused on anti-trafficking efforts and no coordinating body or resources have been dedicated to implement these plans. The government did not take any measures in 2013 to reduce the demand for commercial sex acts or to address child sex tourism in the country (US Department of State 2013).

### *Foreign workers in Mongolia*

In terms of labour exploitation, there is continued evidence of Chinese labourers working in the mining and construction industries being expelled from Mongolia for visa violations without being compensated for their work. A growing area of concern as the country becomes wealthier is the recruitment of undocumented domestic workers from the Philippines into Mongolia. About 2,500 to 5,000 North Koreans are employed in Mongolia as contract labourers. North Korean workers, present in Mongolia through a memorandum of understanding, do not appear to have freedom of movement or choice of employment, and receive only a fraction of the money paid to the North Korean government for their work (US Department of State 2013). According to statistical data, an estimated 8,900 foreigners from 101 countries were working in Mongolia at the end of December 2013. In terms of contractual labour, of the total number of contract labourers, Chinese workers comprise 32.1 percent, followed by North Korean workers at 24.0 percent (NSO 2013).

### *Possible measures*

In view of the existing TIP concerns, key recommendations brought to the attention of the GoM by the U.S. Department of State are: Implement the 2012 anti-trafficking legislation and establish a government anti-trafficking coordinating body; undertake serious efforts to investigate and prosecute labour trafficking cases, including those involving foreign workers; establish formal procedures to guide government officials in victim identification and the referral of victims to protective services; train law enforcement officials, judges and members

of the government on trafficking and how to effectively implement the 2012 law, decrease the employment of North Korean labourers; reduce the demand for commercial sex; and protect children who are being exploited by those who engage in child sex tourism in Mongolia. Additionally, as the ILO survey on sex workers and sexually exploited children found, the scope of commercial sex work extends beyond the capital city to rural areas, necessitating the conducting of target surveys in other populated areas in the country. It was concluded as a result of the survey that despite Mongolia's ratification of the UN Palermo Protocol, the legislation in Mongolia remains not fully compliant with the Protocol (ILO and NSO 2010).

#### **4.2. Domestic Violence Issues Mongolia Faces Today**

Domestic violence is a serious problem for women in Mongolia. The National Center against Violence estimated in 2010 that one in three women in Mongolia was a victim of domestic violence, and one in 10 was a victim of battering. In 2010-2011, 640 domestic violence victims used shelter houses provided by the National Center against Violence. Of this, 50.3 percent were children, while 49.7 percent were women (National Centre against Violence 2011). As of 2012, 386 criminal cases associated with domestic violence were registered by the Police Department, an increase 134 cases (53.2 percent) from 2011. A total of 72.5 percent of reported domestic violence crimes were in urban areas, while the remaining 27.5 percent were in rural areas. And 84.8 percent of all victims of domestic violence registered by police were women. As time goes by, the extent and magnitude of this issue appears to be escalating. In 2014 January alone, 73 crimes associated with domestic violence were recorded, which represents an increase of 44 incidences or 2.5 percent compared with 2013 January (National Statistics Office 2014b).

A study conducted in 2012 by the Police Department and the National Commission on Human Rights found the number of crimes against women was increasing and that there was a slight increase in reporting. Nevertheless, the figures are still small and suggest that only a very small proportion of domestic violence cases are successfully referred to police. Victims of domestic abuse are reluctant to discuss incidents as they are regarded as a private family matter. In addition, social and cultural norms continue to discourage victims from reporting such crimes (Freedom House 2009). Victims seeking assistance from the police or shelter houses tend to approach those organisations only when domestic violence becomes very dangerous or as a last resort. There is no measure of the number of women experiencing domestic violence who do not seek help though.

Research reports suggest that women from low-income rural families are particularly vulnerable, and some studies cite alcoholism as a major contributing factor. According to a UNIFEM survey on the contributing factors of violence against women, the older the age of respondent, the more likely they were to cite poverty, unemployment and alcoholism as the main contributing factors. There was also a tendency among older age group respondents to blame women themselves as being the ones who provoked the incidents. However,

respondents in younger age brackets cited the low education level of men and the tendency of men to show off their power (L.Bayarmaa and D.Ayurbuni 2009).

As the 2012 statistics indicate, the majority of reported offenders were men aged between 25 and 29 years of age. Most had some degree of education; 26.5 percent had higher education, 16 percent had some secondary education, 47.9 percent completed secondary education and 3.2 percent were technical and vocational school graduates (State Police Department 2012).

While restraining orders are available to women suffering from abuse, they are often poorly enforced. Factors other than a lack of legal support and poor implementation also contribute to the problem of domestic violence in Mongolia. The prevalent use of alcohol is tied to domestic violence, as is severe unemployment. Strict stereotypical gender expectations pressure Mongolian men to be physically “strong”, “hard” and invulnerable, leaving them with few avenues of recourse if they are in need of serious help, such as addiction to alcohol, unemployment or anger management. As elsewhere, victims of domestic violence are usually, but not always, women and children. Surveys and studies conducted by professional agencies and NGOs show that the percentage of men as victims of domestic violence is not high; even if they are victims of domestic violence, they prefer not to let others know. Therefore, only a relatively very small number of male victims of domestic violence seek assistance from the National Center against Violence.

*There are fewer men approaching us. They are more concerned about their psychological problems rather than property ownership-related issue. Mostly elder men tend to be victims of domestic violence. Their children, wife or husband of their children, sister or brother of the victim threatens him to transfer his home or land to offender`s name since he is old and might pass away any time.*

Expert interview, attorney, National Center against Violence, A, 46 years old

*Source: MCA-Mongolia 2013e*

Although the law on domestic violence was adopted in 2004, its regular occurrence remains a serious concern. There is a lack of awareness about the Law on Fight against Domestic Violence among the public, particularly among public officials, namely members of the judiciary, law enforcement officers, social workers and health-care workers (UN 2008). Since the adoption of the law, little effort has been made towards sensitisation, according to the United Nations Development Fund for Women in its publication (Gerelmaa 2008). Law enforcement officials are seen as having little knowledge of the application of the law, viewing domestic violence as a private matter rather than a crime, and usually do not intervene unless alcohol is involved (UN 2008). The level of assistance required by law is rarely met by the police as they lack funds as well as knowledge (US Department of State 2010). Women’s low employment in law enforcement agencies, particularly in the police, also has implications in the investigation of domestic violence incidents.

Women in domestic violence situations lack power in their homes and their communities. During qualitative studies conducted by MCA-Mongolia (MCA-Mongolia 2013e), it was

observed that women who owned no land or hashaa plot were more vulnerable than those who did. Because these women have been kept from having any sort of power in their everyday lives, when violence becomes physical they have no way to escape the abuse. The survey also showed that secure rights to assets could give women more bargaining power in their homes and communities, and therefore could make them less vulnerable to violence. Owning property made a bigger difference in reducing domestic violence than being the main income-generator of the household. There is therefore a need for continued education for women on the value of registering land in their own names and on the value of passing on land to girls as an inheritance. Although Mongolian law stipulates that a domestic violence offender's property rights should be suspended within 24 hours, this provision is essentially not implemented.

Due to an increased level of domestic violence, of which the majority of victims tend to be women, the divorce rate has increased in the past decade. This has resulted in a high number of female-headed households. There were 81,700 single mothers<sup>24</sup> nationwide as of 2013, an increase of 184 persons (0.2 percent) on the previous year (NSO 2013). As the 2003 Law on Fighting Domestic Violence cannot address the current challenges faced by different groups of victims such as women, children, men and the elderly, a holistic approach is currently being adopted by the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Population Development and Social Welfare to revise both the Family Law and the Law on Fighting Domestic Violence. In addition, for the first time, state-run shelter houses have been established under district police offices<sup>25</sup>.

### 4.3. Emerging Concerns of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace

Sexual harassment threatens the safety of human beings and leads to inequality in the workplace (ILO1958). The general public in Mongolia does not recognise that although sexual harassment may seem to be a private matter, it is actually a social concern. The bottleneck of this emerging concern is that the public understanding of sexual harassment is extremely poor. People tend to understand rape under sexual harassment (L.Bayarmaa and D.Ayurbuni 2009). The Law on Promotion of Gender Equality defines sexual harassment (Clause 4.1.7.) as:

*“an unwelcome sexual advance made in verbal, physical and/or other forms, intimidation, threat and/or other forms of coercion that makes sexual intercourse an unavoidable option for the victim or that creates an unbearable hostile environment and/or causes damage in terms of the person's employment, professional, economic, psychological and/or any other form of wellbeing.”*

Only a few studies or surveys have been carried out on sexual harassment, its magnitude and consequences. The latest survey on workplace sexual harassment conducted by the Mongolian Women's Fund in 2010 found that 86.3 percent of all respondents recognised an incidence of sexual harassment in the workplace (GCSD 2012). People do know that in the

---

<sup>24</sup>It should be noted, however, that this estimation might not have counted those who do not have a marriage certificate or are formally divorced

<sup>25</sup>Cited from a TV interview with the Minister for Justice, 7 March, 2014

employment sphere, sexual harassment is commonly committed by higher-ranking officials, employers and teachers; however, such incidents are only discussed in narrow circles among close relatives and friends and are never openly raised. This enables sexual harassment to spread widely without being known, hence it is difficult to determine the scope, negative impact and consequences of these acts (MoH, WHO and National Centre against Violence 2007). Victims of workplace sexual harassment silently suffer as a result of many factors, including fear of losing their job and having their reputation damaged. Internationally, sectors such as roads, construction, the army, police and education have a high risk of sexual harassment. The same risk also exists in Mongolia.

For the first time in Mongolia, a comprehensive set of measures aimed at addressing and preventing sexual harassment in the workplace was enshrined in the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality (the issue had been generally but inadequately addressed in the Criminal Code). The current legislation stipulates the duties of an employer in enforcing zero tolerance of sexual harassment; an employee's rights are also detailed (Provisions 11.4-11.5). According to the law, the National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia shall receive and resolve complaints on violations of gender equality-related legislation (Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality, 2011). Under Objective #5 of the mid-term strategy, one of the key activities (Clause 5.1.13) includes *“to take measures to ensure the implementation and monitoring of compliance of internal corporate procedures focused on prevention from, elimination of sexual harassment at workplace and settling complaints related to it”*. The activity target states that by 2016, this will be reflected in agencies' internal policies (NCGE and UNFPA 2013). Nonetheless, given that women tend to be silent about sexual harassment, there is a critical need to sensitise the Mongolian public about the issue as a matter of gender discrimination.

As stated, sexual harassment is also prevalent in the education sector; however, like workplace sexual harassment, not many studies are available on this issue. Research by the Citizens' Alliance Center and the Lector Center found that female students at universities, colleges and high schools tended to broadly encounter the sexual harassment (L.Bayarmaa and D.Ayurbuni 2009). Out of the questionnaire participants 42 percent said they “know someone who was sexually harassed” and 75 percent said they were sexually harassed in some form. The research concluded that the majority of female students at universities had experienced sexual harassment. The researchers recommended including a subject on violence against women in the secondary school curricula and utilising mass media to help sensitise the public. In addition, support, counselling and rehabilitation services for victims of sexual harassment are at present insufficient (L.Bayarmaa and D.Ayurbuni 2009).

## **5. Overview of Selected International Organisations' Gender Policies in Mongolia**

This section provides a brief overview of gender consideration in the organisational policies and programming of the major development agencies and actors in Mongolia.

### ***Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation***

The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) has the strategic goal (2013-2016) of contributing to equitable and sustainable social and economic development in Mongolia (Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation 2013). Through its interventions in three complementary priority domains -Agriculture and Food Security, Vocational Education and Training, and State Reform, Local Governance and Civic Participation- SDC aims to mainstream gender as a transversal theme into projects and programmes. As shown in the Domain Results Framework, gender elements are integrated into intervention outcomes of the Swiss Programme (i.e. facilitating the development of socially inclusive/equitable marketing cooperatives; VET schools provide demand-driven training for women and men in selected occupations as a pilot for replication).

The collection of gender-disaggregated data is an integral part of the indicators under the Swiss portfolio outcomes (such as changes in farmers' income: female/male; the employment rate of graduates of TVET schools: female/male). At the same time, gender has been mainstreamed throughout the activities of the Sustainable Artisanal Mining Project by recognising the participation of women in artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) and the link between the sustainability of ASM and gender roles and relations in ASM communities. With regard to gender-related research and studies conducted in the past five years by SDC, a literature review shows the following: Country Gender Assessment, ADB, SDC and the National Committee on Gender Equality, 2010; Purevjav, Bolormaa, "Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining: Gender and Sustainable Livelihoods in Mongolia" 2010; "Gender Assessment of Small-Scale Mining in Mongolia", The Asia Foundation and SDC, February 2014.

### ***The World Bank***

In the area of gender, the World Bank is a member of the in-country UN Gender Thematic Group. The UNDP, UNICEF and UNFPA have a comparative advantage in advancing women's political representation and fighting against gender-based violence, while the World Bank works more on the gender dimensions of economic development (such as labour restrictions, pension reform). The World Bank's Country Portfolio Performance Review undertaken in 2011 provided a range of recommendations to improve portfolio performance (World Bank 2013). Key findings were that the Bank could have a much greater impact through better mainstreaming of gender considerations, particularly in key sectors such as mining, rural livelihoods, urban infrastructure and social protection.

While the Bank recently undertook analytical work specific to gender (such as women and the labour market) and systematically monitors the benefits for women of certain projects (such as enhanced access to justice, the microfinance component of the Sustainable Livelihood Program), it could do so more consistently. Following the Performance Review findings, the Bank should at the concept stage of each project or analytical work consider if there are gender dimensions that could be addressed, and monitor these throughout implementation (World Bank 2013).

### ***The Asian Development Bank***

ADB's strategy is built on two pillars, both of which are designed to generate sustained and diversified employment: (i) Competitive, sustainable and regionally integrated growth; and (ii) Inclusive social development. As highlighted in ADB's Country Partnership Strategy (2012-2016), one of thematic drivers of development change for ADB is gender equity. ADB assistance for gender equality will be mainstreamed in all relevant operations in ways that promote: (i) Equal capabilities in women, men, girls and boys; (ii) Equal access to resources and opportunities; (iii) Policy formulation for gender equality; and (iv) Equality in decision-making and rights. It further notes that gender mainstreaming in ADB projects will address critical gender issues regarding access to and affordability of services, involving civil society in project design and implementation and supporting the collection of sex-disaggregated data for use in sector and investment planning (ADB March 2012). However, it appears that gender could not be integrated into its Country Partnership Strategy Results Framework given a lack of gender-responsive sector outcomes and associated indicators.

The "Gender and Development Plan of Action (2008–2012): 2011 Performance Summary" conducted by ADB headquarter shows the extent to which ADB projects are addressing gender concerns and mainstreaming gender by sectors; however, a Gender Action Plan has not yet been developed for the ADB Mongolia Programme. It should be noted that in order to improve implementation of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality, a project funded by ADB began in March 2014. The project is being implemented by the National Committee on Gender Equality and focuses on institutional capacity building to ensure better implementation of the gender law. In terms of ADB research and publications, the following have been undertaken: Gender checklists for different sectors (2008); Gender equality results in ADB projects *Mongolia Country Report*, 2010; "Gender Equality Results in ADB Projects", *Regional Synthesis of Rapid Gender Assessments in Indonesia, Mongolia, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam*, 2010; Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2013.

### ***Millennium Challenge Corporation***

The Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), a US Government agency, recognises that gender inequality can be a significant constraint to economic growth and poverty reduction. The Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) has primary responsibility for integrating gender into the development, design, implementation, and monitoring of a Compact program. Each country is responsible for implementing the Compact, including any components designed to address gender inequalities that limit women's or men's opportunities to participate in or benefit from projects. MCA country monitoring and evaluation plans include provisions to track the impacts on specific beneficiary groups, ensuring that sex-disaggregated data is analysed. MCC incorporates gender into the assessment of a programme's feasibility and assesses the extent to which the proposed programme design addresses gender differences and inequalities that limit economic growth and poverty reduction (Millennium Challenge Corporation 2006).

MCC Due Diligence regarding "*Gender and Underrepresented Groups*" requires consideration of three questions: What are the expected impacts on women and other underrepresented groups and what mitigation measures are considered? Is there a place or is there a need for a specific participation plan to include women and other underrepresented groups (ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples, youth, etc.) in project implementation? How has project design factored in the concerns of women and other underrepresented groups (ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples, youth, etc.)?

Some of key accomplishments of MCA-Mongolia - which implements the Compact Program between the governments of Mongolia and US for the period 2008-2013 -are summarised below:

- Baseline and midline monitoring and evaluation surveys have integrated a focus on gender, allowing for the learning of lessons on these issues across projects.
- The Property Rights Project led to an increase in women registering land in their own names. Another step forward is the sex disaggregation of data on land registration through an electronic property registration system at eight regional centres.
- Energy and Environment Project beneficiaries have noted, and initial data from project surveys has confirmed, that energy-efficient products resulted in time saving for women as the stoves needed less refuelling and resulted in fuel savings. Female-headed households were strongly represented among the beneficiaries of the stove subsidies.

There were two major surveys carried out in 2013 by MCA-Mongolia: 1) A small-scale Gender Assessment for the Peri-Urban Rangeland Project "*Herder Women and Men Speak Out*" 2) "*Strengthening Women's Land Ownership in Mongolia: A Survey of Impacts on Women's Voice, Bargaining Power and Household Wellbeing*".

### ***United Nations (UN)***

For the period 2012-2016, the United Nations Country Team is focusing on four strategic priorities (UN and GoM 2011):

1. Economic development is inclusive and equitable contributing to poverty alleviation.
2. Equitable access to, and utilisation of, quality basic social services and sustainable social protection.
3. Improved sustainability of natural resources management and resilience of ecosystems and vulnerable populations to the changing climate.
4. Strengthened governance for the protection of human rights and a reduction in disparities.

### ***United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)***

UNFPA's gender framework incorporates four strategies that address critical factors behind inequalities and rights violations: Girls' education, women's economic empowerment, women's political participation and balancing reproductive and productive roles (UNFPA 2014). The UNFPA Strategic Plan 2014-2017 sets out a vision for changes in the lives of women, adolescents and youth that UNFPA seeks to bring about based on an extensive analytical and consultative process.

As a key player in the field of gender, UNFPA has been providing significant support to the NCGE with the purpose of ensuring implementation of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality. UNFPA-funded interventions include capacity-building trainings of gender focal points nationwide; training was held in Bayankhongor, Govi-Altai and Zavkhan aimags targeting gender focal points, as well as social workers from 20 soums in Bayankhongor aimag in March 2013 (NCGE March 2013). UNFPA also regularly supports the NCGE in conducting national-level conferences and consultative meetings on different emerging topics, such as attitudinal changes among men in relation to combating gender-based violence, in particular domestic violence.

### ***United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Mongolia***

UNDP's contributions were most notable in policy support, which has led to the incorporation of a human development perspective into the country's broad policy framework. Analysis from a human development perspective has been undertaken through a series of National Human Development Reports. The UNDP also contributed to human development through its programmatic activities in areas such as access to justice, awareness of domestic violence and enterprise development (UNDP 2011).

UNDP Mongolia undertakes projects in the following focus areas:

- Human development and poverty reduction
- Democratic governance and human rights
- Sustainable natural resource management

In terms of gender equality, UNDP focuses on “strengthening the oversight functions and representative role of the Parliament and its independent research capabilities, capacity-building for the Parliamentary Standing Committees to develop pro-poor and gender-sensitive policies. UNDP provides support to strengthening the electoral processes with a special emphasis on voter’s education and increasing women’s political participation and the number of women candidates for Parliament and local elections”(UNDP Mongolia n.d.).

The prevention of domestic violence and other forms of gender-based violence is an important priority for UNDP support and supports implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). In partnership with other UN agencies in Mongolia, UNDP facilitates the efforts of government and civil society in preventing and combating violence against women and children by addressing the causes and effects of power relations between men and women and the psycho-social implications, including domestic violence (the Facilitating CEDAW Implementation Towards the Realization of Women’s Human Rights in Mongolia Project was implemented from 2004 to 2007).

### ***UNICEF***

UNICEF integrates gender and social inclusion issues as cross-cutting themes into all of its programmes and interventions. Its main focus areas cover child-friendly communities, education, child protection, and child health and nutrition, among others. UNICEF, in collaboration with the GoM is implementing an HIV/ AIDS programme which supports the National Strategy and the National Sub-Programme on HIV/AIDS.

### ***UNESCO***

In UNESCO’s Medium-Term Strategy for 2008-2013, gender equality has been designated as one of the organisation’s two global priorities. This priority is supported by a dual approach which consists of gender mainstreaming and gender-specific programming (UNESCO 2013). UNESCO takes a holistic, comprehensive approach to the six Education for All (EFA) goals. Each one ensures quality education throughout life: Strong foundations in early childhood, universal primary education, gender equality, life skills, literacy and quality learning at all stages, in both formal and non-formal settings. The standard index is currently focused on four quantifiable goals: *Universal primary education, adult literacy, quality of education* and *gender parity and equality*. According to the 2011 EFA Development Index, Mongolia is ranked at 47 out of 115 countries with a gender-specific EFA Index (GEI) of 0.971 (UNESCO 2012).

### ***International Labour Organization (ILO)***

The overarching goal of the ILO is to achieve decent work for all so everyone can work under conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. The ILO vision of gender equality - which coincides with the organization’s four strategic goals - recognizes this goal not only as a basic human right, but intrinsic to the global aim of Decent Work for All Women and Men. The ILO Policy on Gender Equality and Mainstreaming, which is made

operational through the ILO Gender Equality Action Plan 2010-15, supports a two-pronged approach of gender mainstreaming: Systematically analysing and addressing in all initiatives the specific needs of both women and men, and targeted interventions to enable women and men to participate in - and benefit equally from - development efforts.

The ILO programme in Mongolia reflects the tripartite constituents' priorities in pursuance of the Decent Work Agenda, which includes (ILO 2014):

- Employment promotion strategies to address issues of sustainable livelihoods and poverty alleviation in the formal and informal economy;
- Strengthening tripartism to support social and economic policy development and implementation; and
- Better application of rights and security for targeted groups focusing on child labour, disabled persons and forced labour.

### ***World Health Organization (WHO)***

The WHO, the main UN agency involved in the health sector, has been supporting the GoM since 1962. In Mongolia, WHO is currently chairing the UN thematic group on HIV/AIDS, is an active member of the maternal and reproductive health task force, and of thematic working groups on water and sanitation, MDG monitoring and evaluation, and gender (WHO and GoM 2010).

The WHO office in Mongolia works to improve the health and wellbeing of Mongolians, particularly those who are poor and vulnerable and live in rural and remote areas of the country (WHO 2011). In relation to gender-specific areas of work, the WHO focuses on maternal and child health, non-communicable diseases, and HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted infections. As defined in the strategic objectives of the WHO Country Cooperation Strategy for 2010-2015, two of the five priority areas are relevant to gender: 1) Scaling up the prevention and control of non-communicable disease, injuries, violence and their determinants; 2) Sustaining and accelerating the achievement of health-related MDG targets (WHO and GoM 2010).

### ***United States Agency for International Development (USAID)***

USAID recognises gender equality as fundamental for the realisation of human rights and the key to effective and sustainable development outcomes. Hence it positions female empowerment at the core of its development objectives. As part of its policy, USAID investments aim to achieve three overarching outcomes (USAID 2014):

- **Reduce gender disparities** in access to, control over and benefit from resources, wealth, opportunities and services - economic, social, political, and cultural
- **Reduce gender-based violence** and mitigate its harmful effects on individuals
- **Increase the capability of women** and girls to realise their rights, determine their life outcomes, and influence decision-making in households, communities and societies.

### ***Australian Agency for International Development – Australian Aid (AusAID)***

The goal of Australia’s gender-equality policy is to reduce poverty by advancing gender equality and empowering women. Gender equitable and disability-inclusive development approaches are integrated across its aid programme (AusAID 2014).

Violence against women is an issue that transcends borders; the Gender Consortium at Flinders University completed a 10-week programme funded through AusAID’s Australian Leadership Awards (ALA) Fellowship programme which focused on preventing and responding to violence against women for 18 Fellows from Vietnam and Mongolia. The programme involved eight ALA Fellows from Mongolia nominated by the Mongolian National Committee on Gender Equality, and 10 from Vietnam nominated by the Vietnamese Women’s Union. The Fellows were drawn from both government and non-government agencies (AusAID 2014).

### ***The Asia Foundation***

The Asia Foundation (TAF) “pursues gender equality through a two-pronged strategy consisting of and implementing stand-alone women’s empowerment projects and mainstreaming gender across all sectors” (Mercy Corps and TAF 2013, 16).

In Mongolia, gender as a cross-cutting issue is mainstreamed into all of TAF’s programmes, including Reducing Corruption, Improving the Governance of Cities and Citizen Engagement at the Local Level, Increasing Access to Justice through Community-Based Mediation, Increasing Gender Equality, and Advancing Responsible Resource Use and Promoting Environmental Conservation (Mercy Corps and TAF 2013, 16). Gender-disaggregated data is collected as part of all projects and is used to inform gender-sensitive programming.

As part of TAF’s Women's Empowerment Program, the following projects are being undertaken in Mongolia (The Asia Foundation 2013):

- Combating trafficking in persons: Provided support for Mongolia’s only anti-trafficking hotline, and conducted nationwide multimedia and public-awareness campaigns and training programmes to combat human trafficking.
- Empowering disadvantaged families through small-scale farming: Provided support for female heads of households and unemployed youth in ger areas, increasing their household incomes, as well as promoting the economic participation of women and their families through vegetable gardening.
- TAF, in partnership with UNFPA, initiated a comprehensive study of gender-based violence in Mongolia.

### *Mercy Corps Mongolia*

The majority of the activities implemented by Mercy Corps Mongolia target rural areas and concentrate on the following areas:

- **Inclusive growth:** Increased local availability of business development services and improved productivity and income with maximum “institutionalisation” of key programme concepts and services within the local economy.
- **Good Governance:** Enhanced ability of rural communities to make informed economic and social decisions and to participate in public sector decision-making.
- **Environmental Stewardship** - Enhanced disaster risk reduction through improved use of, and access to, appropriate information and new technologies (Mercy Corps 2014).

In implementing these projects, country offices adopt Mercy Corps’ general Gender Policy (2011) which serves to establish goals and principles for ensuring that gender equity is consistently addressed in Mercy Corps’ programmes and organisational culture (Mercy Corps 2011).

Within this framework, Mercy Corps Mongolia conducted a country gender assessment in 2012. The assessment analysed “how [Mercy Corps Mongolia] concentrated on gender issues in its project process and output” (Mercy Corps, The Asia Foundation 2013).

Mercy Corps Mongolia focuses on promoting economic opportunities in rural areas - the areas where there are the most pronounced gender gaps and levels of inequality.

## 6. Conclusions and Recommendations

This desk study primarily serves as an overview or reference point that summarises publicly available information on gender legislation and gender-related issues in Mongolia.

### 6.1. Conclusions

The desk study has demonstrated that the gender situation in Mongolia is not straightforward and varies from sector to sector and among different socio-economic groups, thus making it hard to generalise. As Bieri and Sancar (2009, 18) state in their report, “gender issues are debated intensively in Mongolia, partly due to the high educational level of women who are addressed by programmes as special groups in most cases”. However, the following general conclusions can be made based on the desk study:

***Mongolia’s regulatory framework for gender equality is relatively strong.*** Mongolia fully supports international human rights standards and is a signatory to all major international instruments pertaining to women’s rights and gender equality. National legislation is comparatively comprehensive, and a Law on Promotion of Gender Equality was recently ratified. Gender issues are taken into account in major national and sectoral policies and programmes.

***Pronounced gender bias exists in the division of labour between men and women, and the labour market is highly occupationally segmented by gender.*** Although women play a major role in the economy, they continue to lag behind in labour relations. The sectors predominantly employing men were identified in Mongolia’s official poverty reduction strategy<sup>26</sup> for economic growth and tend to be more financially lucrative -industry, construction, transport, natural resource extraction, and energy. In contrast, the most feminised employment sectors are those that are typically paid through state budgets and have the lowest salaries. Female employees are concentrated in sectors that are economically static and low paid, such as education, health care, social services and culture.

***There are gender remuneration gaps in Mongolia.*** There are persistent patterns of direct and indirect discriminatory practices against women in regard to recruitment and equal pay. There are large and increasing gender wage gaps which exist across almost all industry sectors in which women are concentrated.

***Political empowerment remains one of the weakest indices of Mongolia in terms of gender equality.*** Women continue to be underrepresented at political decision-making levels. In 2014, only 14.47 percent of parliamentary seats are held by women. The gaps are particularly pronounced when it comes to female leadership. Gender stereotypes are common among the general public in Mongolia. The survey findings show that a supportive attitude towards gender equity is prevalent among younger age

---

<sup>26</sup>December 2006 Economic Growth Support and Poverty Reduction Strategy, EGSPRS

groups; pro-male support increases with age. According to the Global Gender Gap Report (2013) Mongolia's lowest score was for the political empowerment index (0.0734) compared with such other indices as educational attainment (0.9946).

***There is an inverse gender gap in the education sector in Mongolia, particularly in tertiary education.*** Educational attainment is highly gender differentiated in Mongolia. The available data demonstrate that women are, on average, better educated than their male counterparts. As of 2013, 64.3 percent of tertiary school graduates were women.<sup>27</sup> The inverse gender gap in education, particularly in tertiary education, has resulted in many socio-economic concerns. At the same time, the school drop-out rate is high among boys and herder families. However, the GoM has launched several initiatives to address these issues.

***There are a number of concerns associated with the deteriorating health condition of men.*** The Ministry of Health estimates that, on average, there are 17,000 deaths each year in Mongolia, of which males make up 62 percent (MoH 2014). Given the high prevalence of communicable and non-communicable diseases among men, there is an urgent need to address male health issues by raising awareness of preventative approaches, as well as promoting attitudinal and behavioural changes.

***Domestic violence is a serious problem for women in Mongolia.*** The National Center against Violence estimated in 2010 that one in three women in Mongolia was a victim of domestic violence and one in 10 was a victim of battery. Research reports suggest that women from low-income rural families are particularly vulnerable; some studies cite alcoholism and severe unemployment as major contributing factors.

***There is insufficient gender-disaggregated data at the national level in various sectors.*** According to a UNIFEM assessment conducted in 2006, Ministries do not disaggregate sectoral data by gender. In addition, gender dimensions are overlooked in the area of infrastructure in both the public and private sectors. Although sex-disaggregated data is collected and reported by the NSO in its yearbook, inadequate use of that data is made at all levels, from policy planning through to service provision. Gender-based analysis and gender-impact assessments thus cannot be properly conducted in any sectors, resulting in ignorance of the gender gaps and constraints at the policy-making level.

It can be concluded that there have been, to some extent, achievements made in improving the legislative and regulatory environment related to gender issues in Mongolia. However, the aforementioned concerns and challenges faced by Mongolian women and men, as well as girls and boys, indicate a weak law-enforcement mechanism at sectoral and local levels, implying inadequate compliance with the international human rights treaties and conventions to which Mongolia is a party.

---

<sup>27</sup>Mongolian Statistical Yearbook 2013, NSO 2013

Lastly, the findings from the desk study suggest that the existing gender issues appear to correlate with lingering social problems such as access to health and education, internal migration, poverty and alcoholism rather than embedded social attitudes and norms, hence there are many possibilities to reduce gender gaps through effective public policies which mainstream gender needs into the national policy and legal frameworks.

## 6.2. Recommendations

Given the overall gender-equality situation in different spheres within Mongolia, the following recommendations should be brought to the attention of policymakers and practitioners:

- Although the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality has only relatively recently been introduced (February 2011), as has its mid-term strategy (January 2013), it would be beneficial to conduct an assessment of the implementation status of the law in order to address constraints and ensure a strengthened legal framework.
- To ensure full enforcement of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality, it is recommended that the public be sensitised through advocacy and awareness-raising initiatives. Emphasis should be placed on gender-based violence and gender discrimination as the public have a poor understanding of these issues and their consequences.
- There appears to be a continual lack of financial resources allocated for the implementation of an adequate legal and policy framework - the gender law, mid-term strategy and its action plan - at all sectoral and local levels. There is hence a need for stakeholders and key actors working in the gender field (such as donor agencies) to mobilise resources.
- In order to being the mainstreaming of gender in sectoral policy and strategic planning, it would be beneficial to first develop an Action Plan for Gender Integration for specific sectors. Gendered impact assessments and gender analyses should be an integral part of policy and programme formulation throughout all phases of activities. There is also a need to build capacity among gender focal points at Ministries and Governors' Administrative Offices in aimags and districts.
- The adoption of procedures to prevent sexual harassment in the workplace and address victims' complaints should be targeted at both the public and private sectors by 2016. In addition, there should be regular monitoring of compliance with the legislation.
- The creation of supportive legal and policy frameworks via the introduction of an incentive system would leverage the private sector in the fulfilment of gender-specific provisions. For example, a campaign could be organised among private companies related to the promotion of social responsibility and gender equality, as well as for the prevention of gender discrimination, gender-based violence and sexual harassment.

- To address gender distortions in the labour market, employment and skills training should encourage women's participation in economic growth sectors and non-traditional employment areas, thereby challenging gender stereotypes.
- More efforts are needed to endorse results-based and gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation instruments at national policymaking levels as monitoring and evaluation is a relatively new concept in Mongolia. As a result of such evidence-based approaches, the different needs of men and women in accessing services can be addressed.

## Works Cited

ADB: “ADB-Mongolia Country Partnership Strategy (2012-2016)”, March 2012.

ADB: “Mongolia: Health and Social Protection: An Evaluation Study”, Rapid Sector Assessment, 2008.

ADB, IRIM: “Baseline and Follow-Up Surveys of 'HIV/AIDS Prevention in ADB Infrastructure Projects and the Mining Sector' ”, unpublished survey report, 2009-2013.

ADB, SDC, NCGE: “Country Gender Assessment”, 2010.

ADB, World Bank: *Gender Assessment - Mongolia*, 2005.

AusAID Mongolia, 2007.

[http://www.addc.org.au/documents/resources/ausaidgender\\_policy\\_1038.pdf](http://www.addc.org.au/documents/resources/ausaidgender_policy_1038.pdf) (accessed 05/01/2014).

AusAID, 2014. <http://aid.dfat.gov.au/aidissues/gender/Pages/home.aspx> (accessed 05/01/2014).

AusAID, 2014. <http://aid.dfat.gov.au/aidissues/gender/Pages/home.aspx> (accessed 05/01/2014).

Avkhia, Jargalan, Munkhbat, Theunissen: “Mongolia Strengthens Efforts to Prevent and Combat Trafficking in Persons”, The Asia Foundation, 2014: <http://asiafoundation.org/in-asia/2014/03/12/mongolia-strengthens-efforts-to-prevent-and-combat-trafficking-in-persons/> (accessed 04/15/2014).

B.Togtokhbayar: “Gender Equity Theory and the Ways Mongolian Culture and Tradition Affect Media Policy”, 2006.

Bieri, Sabin, Sancar: “Power and Poverty: Reducing Gender Inequality by Way of Rural Employment?”, 2009.

CEDAW, *Concluding Observations of the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, United Nations, 2008.

Child Rights International Network: *Mongolia Passes Widespread Changes to its Law on Education*, 2006: <http://www.crin.org/en/library/news-archive/mongolia-passes-widespread-changes-its-law-education> (accessed 04/14/2014).

Chuluunbaatar, Enkhtungalag: “Mongolian Women Urge Amendments to Domestic Violence Law”, The Asia Foundation, 2013: <http://asiafoundation.org/in-asia/2013/12/18/mongolian-women-urge-amendments-to-domestic-violence-law/> (accessed 04/20/2014).

*Civil Code of Mongolia*, 2006.

“Comprehensive National Development Strategy (2008-2021).”

“Comprehensive National Development Strategy.”

“Constitution of Mongolia”, 1992.

Coulombe, Harold, Altankhuyag: “Millennium Development Goals and Poverty Map-2011”, 2012.

*Criminal Code of Mongolia*, 2008.

“Focus group discussion findings by Tsolmon Begzsuren, as part of non-communicable diseases screening campaign”, 2013.

Freedom House: “Mongolia: Freedom in the World 2009”, 2009.

Gender Center for Sustainable Development: *Gender Issues Bulletin*, 2010.

Gender Center for Sustainable Development: *Gender Issues Bulletin*, 2008.

Gender Center for Sustainable Development: *Gender Issues Bulletin*, 2012.

Gender Center for Sustainable Development, UNIFEM, “Gender Mainstreaming Strategy”, 2006.

Gerelmaa, Ch: “*Needs of Domestic Violence Victims: Strengthen the Implementation of Laws on VAW in Mongolia: Research Summary*”, UNIFEM, 2008.

Government of Mongolia: “Achieving the MDGs: Fifth National Progress Report”, 2013.

Government of Mongolia: “Economic Growth Support and Poverty Reduction Strategy”, 2006.

Government of Mongolia “*Mid-term Strategy and Action Plan for Implementation of the Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality (2013-2016)*”, Government Resolution #34, 26 January, 2013.

Government of Mongolia, UNDP: “Third National Report: The Millennium Development Goals Implementation”, Ulaanbaatar, 2009.

IFC, World Bank: *Women, Business and the Law 2014: Removing Restrictions to Enhance Gender Equality*, 2013.

ILO, NSO: “Survey Report on Sex Workers and Sexually Exploited Children”, 2010.

ILO: “Areas of Work”, 2014: <http://www.ilo.org/beijing/areas-of-work/lang--en/index.htm> (accessed 04/05/2014).

ILO, “ILO Convention No, 111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention”, 1958.

IRIM: “A Manual for Journalists: Gender-Sensitivity Criteria for Mass Media”, 2010.

IRIM, NCGE: “Gender-Sensitive Journalism in Mongolia”, Research Report, 2009.

Batjargal, “Family and Men”, in *Compilation of Gender Issues* by UNIFEM, 2006.

Khan, Tehmina and Aslam: *Mongolia: Gender Disparities in Labor Markets and Policy Suggestions*, Policy Note, World Bank, 2013.

L.Bayarmaa, and D.Ayurbuni: *Sexual Harassment in the Educational Sector*”, Project Annual Report, UNIFEM, 2009.

*Labour Law of Mongolia*, 1999.

“Law of Mongolia on Promotion of Gender Equality”, 2011 .

“Law on Combating Trafficking in Persons”, 2012.

“Law on Domestic Violence”, 2005.

MCA-Mongolia: “Baseline Survey STEPS on the Prevalence of Non-communicable Disease and Injury Risk Factors”, 2009.

MCA-Mongolia: “Graduate Follow-Up Survey”, 2011.

MCA-Mongolia: “Mongolia Compact Gender Summary Report: Best Practices and Lessons Learned,” 2013.

MCA-Mongolia: “National-Level Follow-up Study on Knowledge, Attitudes and Practice (KAP) for General Population 2013 on Non-Communicable Diseases”, 2013.

MCA-Mongolia: “Public Perception and Attitude Survey of the Technical and Vocational Education and Training, Wave 2”, 2013.

MCA-Mongolia: “Strengthening Women’s Land Ownership in Mongolia: A Survey of Impacts on Women’s Voice, Bargaining Power and Household Wellbeing”, 2013.

MCA-Mongolia, Begzsuren, Tsolmon: “Small-scale Gender Assessment for Peri-Urban Rangeland Project ‘Herder Women and Men Speak Out’ ”, 2013.

MCA–Mongolia, ESOC:*Program-wide Gender Review and Integration Plan*, Ulaanbaatar, 2011.

Mercy Corps:*Gender Procedures: Policy in Action*, 2011.

Mercy Corps Mongolia, 2014: <http://mercy Corps.org.mn/beta/index.php/en/about-mcm/our-mission> (accessed 04/07/2014).

Mercy Corps, The Asia Foundation: “Gender Desk Review”, project report, Ulaanbaatar, 2013.

MESC: “Statistical Bulletin”, 2007.

Millennium Challenge Corporation: “U.S. Millennium Challenge Corporation’s Gender Policy”, 2006.

Ministry of Health: “Health Indicators 2010”, 2010.

Ministry of Health: “Men's Health Strategy 2014-2018”, 2014.

Ministry of Health: “TB in Mongolia”, 2008.

Ministry of Labour, 2014. <http://www.mol.gov.mn/nodes/view/type:news/> (accessed 04/10/2014).

MoH, WHO, National Center against Violence: “The Status of Gender-based Violence and Violence against Children in Mongolia”, research report, 2007.

MONFEMNET: “Briefing of the National Forum on ‘Young Women’s Voice’ Organised by National Network”, 2013.

MONFEMNET, IRIM: “Women’s Opportunities to Access Political Decision-Making Positions”, survey report, 2008.

Mongolian Women's Fund: "Assessing the Competency of Female Candidates Running for Local Citizens' Representative Khural", survey report, 2012.

MPDSP: "Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection", 2014: <http://www.khun.gov.mn/index.php/mn/newnews/> (accessed 03/21/2014).

National Centre Against Violence: "2010-2011 Annual Report", 2011.

National Human Rights Commission: "12th National Report on Human Rights and Freedom in Mongolia", 2013.

NSO: "2011 Labor Force Survey", 2012.

NSO: "Household Socio-Economic Survey Results", 2011.

NSO: "Labour Force Survey for Fourth Quarter 2013", 2014.

NSO: "Mongolian Statistical Yearbook 2013", 2013.

NSO: "Socio-Economic Status of Mongolia", 2014.

NSO, MPDSP, ILO, 2010.

National Women's Forum, NCGE, UNDP: "Compilation 'Women - Human Development' ", 2010.

NCGE: "Capacity Building Training Held for Gender Focal Points", 2013. <http://gender.gov.mn/en/?p=560> (accessed 03/15/2014).

NCGE: "Gender Terms, Definitions and Glossary of Key Concepts", 2013.

NCGE: "National Programme on Gender Equality 2002-2015", 2002.

NCGE, UNDP: "Women's Participation and Representation in Political Decision-Making Level", 2012.

NCGE, UNFPA: *National Policy Issues for Promoting Gender Equality*, 2007.

NCGE, UNFPA: "Result Matrix of Md-term Strategy on the Implementation of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality", 2013.

NCGE, UNFPA, Citizens' Center for Alliance: "Implementation Status of CEDAW Convention in Mongolia", 2008.

OSCE/ODIHR: "Opinion on the Law of Mongolia on the Promotion of Gender Equality", Warsaw, 2013.

Parliament of Mongolia: "Decree by Parliament Speaker on Enforcement of Certain Provisions of the Law on Promotion of Gender Equality", 2011.

Purevjav, Bolormaa: "Artisanal and Small-Scale Mining: Gender and Sustainable Livelihoods in Mongolia", 2010.

SDC-Mongolia: “New Law Strengthens Efforts to Combat Human Trafficking”, 2012: [http://www.swiss-cooperation.admin.ch/mongolia/en/Home/News/News\\_Detail?itemID=208596](http://www.swiss-cooperation.admin.ch/mongolia/en/Home/News/News_Detail?itemID=208596) (accessed 04/05/2014).

Shrestha, Ava, Undarya: *Country Gender Assessment of Mongolia*, Asian Development Bank, 2009.

State Police Department: “Statistics Bulletin of State Police Department Submitted to the National Committee on Gender Equality”, 2012.

Steiner-Khamsi, Gita, Amgaabazar Gerelmaa: “Quality and Equity in the Mongolian Education Sector”, in *Case Studies of Progress and Challenges in Quality and Equity*, pp. 409-414, UNESCO, 2009.

Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation: “Swiss Cooperation Strategy Mongolia 2013-2016”, 2013.

The Advocates for Human Rights: “Violence Against Women in Mongolia”, *Stop Violence Against Women Project*, 2013: <http://www.stopvaw.org/mongolia> (03/25/2014).

The Asia Foundation, 2013: <http://www.asiafoundation.org/resources/pdfs/MongoliaWEPFactSheet.pdf> (accessed 05/01/2014).

The Asia Foundation, SDC: “Gender Assessment of Small-Scale Mining in Mongolia”, 2014.

True, Jacqui, Sara Niner, Swati Parashar, and Nicole George. Women’s Political Participation Report Asia-Pacific. SSRIC, 2012.

Tseveen, Odgerel, Ganbold: “The Mongolian Legal System and Laws: A Brief Overview”, *New York University School of Law*, 2006: <http://www.nyulawglobal.org/globalex/mongolia.htm> (accessed 03/10/2014).

UNDP: “2012 HDI”, 2013.

UNDP: “Assessment of Development Results - Evaluation of UNDP Contribution - Mongolia”, 2011.

UNDP: “From Vulnerability to Sustainability: Environment and Human Development”, Human Development Report, 2011.

GII: Gender Inequality Index, 2013: <https://data.undp.org/dataset/GII-Gender-Inequality-Index-value/bh77-rzbn> (accessed 04/14/2014).

UNDP: “Human Development Report Mongolia 1997”, Ulaanbaatar, 1997.

UNDP Mongolia: *Democratic Governance*: <http://www.undp.mn/dghr.html> (accessed 04/11/2014).

UNDP: *Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women*, www.undp.mn, 2014.

UNDP, National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia: “Expert Evaluation of Conformity of Mongolian Legislation with International Human Rights Treaties, Summary Report”, 2011.

UNESCO: “EFA Global Monitoring Report Calculations and The Institute for Statistics Database”, 2012: <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/efareport/statistics/efa-development-index/> (accessed 03/10/2014).

UNESCO: “Getting the Right: Gender Equality in Journalism”, 2009.

UNESCO: “Priority Gender Equality Action Plan for 2008-2013”, 2013: <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/themes/gender-equality/about-us/> (accessed 03/10/2014).

UNESCO: “UNESCO National Education Support Strategy”, 2008.

UNFPA: 2014: <http://unfpa.org/public/home/about> (accessed 03/15/2014).

UNFPA: “Engaging Men, Changing Gender Norms: Directions for Gender-Transformative Action”, 2013.

UNFPA, IRIM: *Formative Research with Youth Aged 15-24 on Matters Related to Their Sexual and Reproductive Health in Mongolia*, unpublished study report, 2013.

UNFPA, MoSWL: “Current Situation of Mongolian Family Relations”, research report, 2010.

UNICEF: “Situation Analysis of Women and Children in Mongolia”, 2009.

UNIFEM: *Compilation of Gender Studies*, 2006.

United Nations: “Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW): Concluding Observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women”, 2008.

United Nations: “The Millennium Development Goals Report 2013”, 2013.

United Nations, Government of Mongolia: “United Nations Development Assistance Framework for 2012-2016”, 2011.

US Department of State: “Mongolia Country Report on Human Rights Practices for 2009”, 2010.

US Department of State: “2013 Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Report”, 2013.

US Department of State: “Human Rights Status Report of Mongolia”, 2010.

USAID, 2014: <http://www.usaid.gov/what-we-do/gender-equality-and-womens-empowerment> (accessed 05/01/2014).

WHO: “Cooperation Strategy at a Glance”, 2013.

WHO: “WHO Mongolia Annual Report 2011”, 2011.

WHO, Government of Mongolia: “WHO Country Cooperation Strategy for Mongolia 2010-2015”, 2010.

World Bank: “World Bank Country Partnership Strategy for Mongolia for the Period FY 2013-2017”, 2013: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2012/01/16244913/mongolia-country-partnership-strategy-period-fy2013-2017#> (accessed 02/15/2014).

World Bank: “World Development Report”, 2012.

World Economic Forum: “The Global Gender Gap Report”, 2013.



**Appendix 1. Women's Legal Rights Database: Mongolia<sup>28</sup>**

Year	Question	Answer	Law
2013	Is there a non-discrimination clause in the Constitution?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 14
2009	If there is a non-discrimination clause in the Constitution, does it explicitly mention gender?	Yes	
2011	If there is a non-discrimination clause in the Constitution, does it explicitly mention gender?	Yes	
2013	If there is a non-discrimination clause in the Constitution, does it explicitly mention gender?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 14
2009	Does the Constitution guarantee equality before the law?	Yes	
2011	Does the Constitution guarantee equality before the law?	Yes	
2013	Does the Constitution guarantee equality before the law?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 14
2013	Is customary law recognised as a valid source of law under the Constitution?	No	Constitution of Mongolia
2013	If customary law is a valid source of law, is it considered invalid if it violates constitutional provisions on non-discrimination or equality?	N/A	
2013	Is personal law recognised as a valid source of law under the Constitution?	No	Constitution of Mongolia
2013	If personal law is a valid source of law, is it considered invalid if it violates constitutional provisions on non-discrimination or equality?	N/A	
2009	Can a married woman convey citizenship to her non-national spouse in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman convey citizenship to her non-national spouse in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman convey citizenship to her non-national spouse in the same way as a man?	Yes	Law on Citizenship, Art. 9
2009	Are married women required by law to obey their husbands?	No	
2011	Are married women required by law to obey their husbands?	No	
2013	Are married women required by law to obey their husbands?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Do married couples jointly share legal responsibility for financially maintaining family expenses?	Yes	
2011	Do married couples jointly share legal responsibility for financially maintaining family expenses?	Yes	
2013	Do married couples jointly share legal responsibility for financially maintaining family expenses?	Yes	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	What are the legal quotas for women on corporate boards?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	What are the legal quotas for women in Parliament?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	What are the legal quotas for women in local government?	40%	Promotion of Gender Equality Art. 10
2009	Can an unmarried woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	

<sup>28</sup>IFC-World Bank, "Women, Business and the Law 2014: Removing Restrictions To Enhance Gender Equality", 2013, <http://wbl.worldbank.org/data/exploreconomies/mongolia/2013?topic=using-property#getting-a-job>

Year	Question	Answer	Law
2013	Can an unmarried woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can a married woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	Can an unmarried woman apply for a national ID card in the same way as a man?	Yes	ID application procedures
2013	Can a married woman apply for a national ID card in the same way as a man?	Yes	ID application procedures
2009	Can an unmarried woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can a married woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(18)
2009	Can an unmarried woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(18)
2009	Can a married woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(18)
2009	Can an unmarried woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(4)
2009	Can a married woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(4)
2009	Can an unmarried woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can a married woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	

Year	Question	Answer	Law
	as a man?		
2013	Can a married woman sign a contract in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can an unmarried woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can a married woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman register a business in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can an unmarried woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can a married woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman open a bank account in the same way as a man?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can an unmarried woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(18)
2009	Can a married woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?	Yes	Constitution of Mongolia, Art. 16(18)
2009	Can an unmarried woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	Law of Mongolia on Citizenship, Art. 7
2009	Can a married woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman confer citizenship to her children in the same way as a man?	Yes	Law of Mongolia on Citizenship, Art. 7
2009	Can an unmarried woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can an unmarried woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can an unmarried woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	N/A	No restrictions could be located

Year	Question	Answer	Law
2009	Can a married woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2011	Can a married woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	Yes	
2013	Can a married woman be head of household or head of family in the same way as a man?	N/A	No restrictions could be located
2009	Do sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	
2011	Do sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	
2013	Do sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	Civil Code, Art. 520
2009	Do female and male surviving spouses have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	
2011	Do female and male surviving spouses have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	
2013	Do female and male surviving spouses have equal inheritance rights to property?	Yes	Civil Code, Art. 520
2009	What is the default marital property regime?	Other	
2011	What is the default marital property regime?	Other	
2013	What is the default marital property regime?	Other	Civil Code, Arts. 125-131
2013	Who legally administers property during marriage?	Other	Civil Code, Art. 128
2009	Do unmarried men and unmarried women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	
2011	Do unmarried men and unmarried women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	
2013	Do unmarried men and unmarried women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	Civil Code, Arts. 101.1 and 127.2
2009	Do married men and married women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	
2011	Do married men and married women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	
2013	Do married men and married women have equal ownership rights to property?	Yes	Civil Code, Arts. 127.2 and 128.1
2013	If the husband legally administers property during marriage, does he need his wife's consent for major transactions?	N/A	
2013	Are there special provisions governing the marital home?	No	Civil Code, Art. 128
2013	Does the law provide for valuation of nonmonetary contributions during marriage?	Yes	Civil Code, Art. 126.4
2009	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	Yes	
2011	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	Yes	
2013	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	Yes	Labor Code, Sec. 104
2009	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid paternity leave?	No	
2011	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid paternity leave?	No	
2013	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid paternity leave?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid parental leave?	No	
2011	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid parental leave?	No	
2013	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid parental leave?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	120	
2011	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	120	

Year	Question	Answer	Law
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	120	Labor Code, Sec. 104
2009	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	0	
2011	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid parental leave (in calendar days)?	0	
2011	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid parental leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of paid parental leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	0	
2011	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	0	
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid maternity leave (in calendar days)?	0	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	0	
2011	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid paternity leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	What is the mandatory minimum length of unpaid parental leave (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Who pays maternity benefits?	Government	
2011	Who pays maternity benefits?	Government	
2013	Who pays maternity benefits?	Government 100%	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Arts. 1 and 2
2009	Who pays paternity benefits?	N/A	
2011	Who pays paternity benefits?	N/A	
2013	Who pays paternity benefits?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Who pays parental benefits?	N/A	
2011	Who pays parental benefits?	N/A	
2013	Who pays parental benefits?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What percentage of wages are paid during maternity leave?	70%	
2011	What percentage of wages are paid during maternity leave?	70%	
2013	What percentage of wages are paid during maternity leave?	70%	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Art. 19(2)
2009	What percentage of wages are paid during paternity leave?	0%	
2011	What percentage of wages are paid during paternity leave?	N/A	
2013	What percentage of wages are paid during paternity leave?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What percentage of wages are paid during parental	0%	

Year	Question	Answer	Law
	leave?		
2011	What percentage of wages are paid during parental leave?	N/A	
2013	What percentage of wages are paid during parental leave?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the mother must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2011	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the mother must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2013	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the mother must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the father must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2011	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the father must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	
2013	Where paid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the father must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Where unpaid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the mother must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Where unpaid parental leave exists, what is the minimum amount which only the father must take (in calendar days)?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive full benefits?	55	
2011	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive full benefits?	55	
2013	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive full benefits?	55	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Art. 4.1
2009	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive full benefits?	60	
2011	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive full benefits?	60	
2013	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive full benefits?	60	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Art. 4.1
2009	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive partial benefits?	55	
2011	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive partial benefits?	55	
2013	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive partial benefits?	55	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Art. 4.1
2009	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive partial benefits?	60	
2011	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive partial benefits?	60	

Year	Question	Answer	Law
2013	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive partial benefits?	60	Act on Pensions and Benefits Payable from the Social Insurance Fund, Art. 4.1
2013	What is the mandatory retirement age for women?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	What is the mandatory retirement age for men?	N/A	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women do the same jobs as men?	No	
2011	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women do the same jobs as men?	No	
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women do the same jobs as men?	No	Labor Code, Secs. 101 and 108
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in mining in the same way as men?	No	Order of the Minister for Health and Social Welfare establishing lists of the jobs prohibited to women and minors (No. A/204 of 1999) Art.1
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in construction in the same way as men?	No	Order of the Minister for Health and Social Welfare establishing lists of the jobs prohibited to women and minors (No. A/204 of 1999) Art. 9
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in metalworking in the same way as men?	No	Order of the Minister for Health and Social Welfare establishing lists of the jobs prohibited to women and minors (No. A/204 of 1999) Art. 4
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in factories in the same way as men?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in jobs requiring lifting weights above a threshold in the same way as men?	No	Labor Code Sec. 108
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in jobs deemed hazardous in the same way as men?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work in jobs deemed arduous in the same way as men?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women do jobs deemed morally or socially inappropriate in the same way as men?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2009	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work the same night hours as men?	Yes	
2011	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work the same night hours as men?	Yes	
2013	Can non-pregnant and non-nursing women work the same night hours as men?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	Does the law mandate equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value?	No	Labor Code, Sec. 49
2009	Are there laws mandating non-discrimination based on gender in hiring?	No	
2011	Are there laws mandating non-discrimination based on gender in hiring?	No	
2013	Are there laws mandating non-discrimination based on	No	No applicable provisions

Year	Question	Answer	Law
	gender in hiring?		could be located
2013	Is it illegal for an employer to ask about family status during a job interview?	Yes	Labor Code, Secs. 7.4 and 7.5
2009	Are there laws penalising or preventing the dismissal of pregnant women?	Yes	
2011	Are there laws penalising or preventing the dismissal of pregnant women?	Yes	
2013	Are there laws penalising or preventing the dismissal of pregnant women?	Yes	Labor Code, Sec. 100
2009	Must employers give employees an equivalent position when they return from maternity leave?	Yes	
2011	Must employers give employees an equivalent position when they return from maternity leave?	Yes	
2013	Must employers give employees an equivalent position when they return from maternity leave?	Yes	Labor Code, Sec. 106
2009	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Yes	
2011	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Yes	
2013	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Yes	Labor Code, Sec. 103
2009	Do employees with minor children have rights to a flexible/part-time schedule?	No	
2011	Do employees with minor children have rights to a flexible/part-time schedule?	No	
2013	Do employees with minor children have rights to a flexible/part-time schedule?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Are payments for childcare tax deductible?	No	
2011	Are payments for childcare tax deductible?	No	
2013	Are payments for childcare tax deductible?	No	No applicable provisions could be located.
2009	Is there public provision of childcare for children under the age of primary education?	Yes	
2011	Is there public provision of childcare for children under the age of primary education?	Yes	
2013	Is there public provision of childcare for children under the age of primary education?	Yes	Law on Education, Art. 7
2009	Does the law mandate free and compulsory primary education?	Yes	
2011	Does the law mandate free and compulsory primary education?	Yes	
2013	Does the law mandate free and compulsory primary education?	Yes	Constitution, Art. 16(7)
2009	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to women?	No	
2011	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to women?	No	
2013	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to women?	No	No applicable provisions could be located.
2009	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to men?	No	
2011	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to men?	No	
2013	Are there specific tax deductions or credits that are applicable only to men?	No	No applicable provisions could be located.
2009	What is the minimum loan amount covered in the private credit bureau or public credit registry (as a	44%	

Year	Question	Answer	Law
	percentage of income per capita)?		
2011	What is the minimum loan amount covered in the private credit bureau or public credit registry (as a percentage of income per capita)?	0%	
2013	What is the minimum loan amount covered in the private credit bureau or public credit registry (as a percentage of income per capita)?	0%	
2009	Do microfinance institutions provide information to private credit bureaus or public credit registries?	Yes	
2011	Do microfinance institutions provide information to private credit bureaus or public credit registries?	Yes	
2013	Do microfinance institutions provide information to private credit bureaus or public credit registries?	Yes	
2013	Do retailers provide information to private credit bureaus or public credit registries?	No	
2013	Do utility companies provide information to private credit bureaus or public credit registries?	No	
2009	Is there a small claims court or a fast track procedure for small claims?	No	
2011	Is there a small claims court or a fast track procedure for small claims?	No	
2013	Is there a small claims court or a fast track procedure for small claims?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2011	If there is a small claims court or a fast track procedure for small claims, what is the maximum amount for a small claim (as a percentage of income per capita)?	N/A	
2013	If there is a small claims court or a fast track procedure for small claims, what is the maximum amount for a small claim (as a percentage of income per capita)?	N/A	
2013	Does the law recognise customary courts?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Does the law recognise personal law courts?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2009	Does a woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as a man's?	Yes	
2011	Does a woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as a man's?	Yes	
2013	Does a woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as a man's?	Yes	No restrictions could be located
2013	How many justices are on the Constitutional Court?	9	Constitution of the Republic of Mongolia, Arts. 64-65
2013	How many of justices on the Constitutional Court are women?	2	official website of the Constitutional Court (accessed on 08-06-2013)
2013	Is the Chief Justice a woman?	No	official website of the Constitutional Court (accessed on 08-6-2013)
2013	Is there legislation that specifically addresses domestic violence?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence
2013	Is there a specialised court or procedure for cases of domestic violence?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence, Art. 17
2013	Does domestic violence legislation protect women in unmarried intimate relationships?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence, Art.3
2013	Does domestic violence legislation include emotional abuse?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence, Art.6
2013	Does domestic violence legislation include financial	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic

Year	Question	Answer	Law
	abuse?		Violence, Art.6
2013	Does domestic violence legislation include physical abuse?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence, Art.6
2013	Does domestic violence legislation include sexual abuse?	Yes	Law to Combat Domestic Violence, Art.6
2013	Is there legislation that specifically addresses sexual harassment?	Yes	Law on Promotion of Gender Equality, Art.4.1.7
2013	Are there criminal sanctions for sexual harassment?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Is there a governmental office tasked with addressing sexual harassment?	Yes	Human Rights Commission
2013	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in education?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Yes	Law on Promotion of Gender Equality, Art.11
2013	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in public spaces?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in service provision?	No	No applicable provisions could be located
2013	Are there criminal sanctions for sexual harassment in employment?	No	No applicable provisions could be located

## Appendix 2. List of Research Related to Gender in Mongolia

An outline of the research conducted on various topics is listed below, including violence against women, women's issues in education, artisanal mining, media, health, political decision-making, elections, the labour market, agriculture, *vulnerability and combating trafficking*, and women's land ownership.

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
1	<i>Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific</i>	Asian Development Bank	The Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2013 (Key Indicators), the 44th edition of this series, includes the latest available economic, financial, social, environmental, and Millennium Development Goal (MDG) indicators for the 48 regional members of the Asian Development Bank (ADB). This publication presents the latest key statistics on development issues concerning the economies of Asia and the Pacific to a wide audience, including policymakers, development practitioners, government officials, researchers, students, and the general public.	2013
2	<i>"Strengthening Women's Land Ownership in Mongolia: A Survey of Impacts on Women's Voice, Bargaining Power and Household Well-being."</i>	MCA-Mongolia	The survey complements larger impact-evaluation efforts and focuses in more depth on <b>gender dynamics</b> , in particular on issues of how <b>women's increased land ownership impacts on intra-household dynamics, women's bargaining power</b> within the household and in the community, and levels of domestic violence.	2013
3	<i>Mongolia Compact Gender Summary Report: Best Practices and Lesson Learned</i>	MCA-Mongolia	The purpose of the report is to summarise gender-integration practices, efforts and impacts of the MCA-Mongolia Compact, highlighting key achievements, impacts on beneficiaries and lessons learned since the MCA-Mongolia undertook efforts to integrate a <b>focus on social and gender inequalities in Compact activities</b> . This report also intends to <b>share best practices of gender integration</b> and lessons learned with other parties, including government and non-government stakeholders, and donor agencies. The report includes stakeholders' views on project impacts and effectiveness, based on a series of focus group discussions carried out in the course of writing this report.	2013
4	<i>"Gender Desk Review", Project report</i>	Mercy Corps, The Asia Foundation	In March 2012, USAID released the Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy. In line with the USAID Policy and as per Request for Application for both the APPEAL and STAGE programs, Mercy Corps Mongolia and TAF with this Gender Desk Review have sought to provide an overview of the	2013

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
			<p>current gender situation in Mongolia.</p> <p>This review seeks to <b>demonstrate the efforts made towards effective gender mainstreaming</b> in the APPEAL and STAGE programs to ensure that women and men benefit equally from governance reforms that focus on reducing corruption and increasing opportunities to participate in public decision-making. In addition, this review aims to encourage programme staff, stakeholders and implementing partners to <b>mainstream gender into their daily work and seeks to provide guidance in this process.</b></p>	
5	<i>World Report on Child Labour: Economic Vulnerability, Social Protection and the Fight against Child Labour</i>	International Labour Organization	<p>This report is the first in the series of World Reports on Child Labour called for in the outcome document, the Roadmap, emerging from The Hague Global Child Labour Conference of 2010. The report argues that child labour is driven in part by household vulnerabilities associated with poverty, risk and shocks, and that social security is critical to mitigating these vulnerabilities. Following on from this, the overall aims of the report are, first, to highlight the relevance of social security as part of a broader strategy for eliminating child labour; and, second, to help advance understanding of the specific ways in which social security systems can support efforts against child labour.</p>	2013
6	<i>"Gender Assessment of Small-scale Mining in Mongolia"</i>	The Asia Foundation	<p>The main objective of the gender assessment is to provide a comprehensive analysis of the <b>gender dimensions of artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM)</b> in Mongolia and develop a gender-mainstreaming strategy for the ESEC II Project. The gender assessment will provide the basis for gender-responsive actions, which will be addressed within the scope of the ESEC II Project by identifying needs, labour division, participation, access to resources and development, control of assets, and decision-making powers between <b>women and men in their assigned gender roles.</b></p>	2013
7	<i>The Global Gender Gap Report</i>	World Economic Forum	<p>The Global Gender Gap Index, introduced by the World Economic Forum in 2006, is a framework for capturing the magnitude and scope of <b>gender-based disparities and tracking their progress.</b> The Index benchmarks national gender gaps in economic, political, education and health criteria, and provides country rankings that allow for effective comparisons across regions and income groups, and over time. The rankings are designed to create greater awareness among a global audience of the challenges posed by gender gaps and the opportunities created by reducing them.</p>	2013
8	<i>"Lessons Learned From</i>	The United Nations	<p>UNDP's support for a media campaign that reached out to voters and the training of journalists on <b>gender-</b></p>	2013

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
	<i>Electoral Support To Mongolia 2008-2012", Research report</i>	Development Programme	<b>sensitive reporting</b> has improved media coverage, but more needs to be done in this area. Support for women MPs, particularly through the new women's caucus, will help raise issues, but there should also be an emphasis on gender awareness among male MPs in order to help gender-sensitive legislation, committees, procedures and budgeting.	
9	<i>Poverty and MDGs Monitoring, Terminal report</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This report introduces projects MON/05/201 that support to poverty eradication and the MDGs monitoring and assessment system.	2013
10	<i>"Gender and Development Plan of Action (2008–2012)", 2011, Performance summary</i>	Asian Development Bank	This summary shows the extent to which ADB projects are addressing gender concerns and mainstreaming gender by sectors. However, a Gender Action Plan has not been yet been developed for the ADB Mongolia Programme.	2012
11	Women's participation in political decision-making: Public perception survey	National Committee on Gender Equality and UNFPA	The objective of this repeat study is to monitor if public attitudes about women's political participation have changed since last year and validate the findings of the 2010 baseline study. The findings were to inform future efforts focused on the promotion of gender equality, women's empowerment and equal political participation.	2012
12	<i>Millennium Development Goals and Poverty Map for 2011</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This report presents the main results of a poverty map of Mongolia based on the 2010 Population and Housing Census and the 2011 Household Socio-economic Survey. Monetary and non-monetary poverty indicators are presented at four different administrative levels: Regional, aimag, soum and district. The non-monetary poverty indicators - closely related to the MDGs - were calculated directly from census databases.	2012
13	<i>"Gender Equality in Elected Office in Asia Pacific: Six Actions to Expand Women's Empowerment"</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This UNDP publication provides an overview of women's political representation in Asia-Pacific member states, and reviews the impact of a series of six fast-track institutional reforms which can contribute to the attainment of <b>gender equality in elected office</b> . These six "windows of opportunity" include an examination of legally binding quotas, constitutional rights, political party recruitment, capacity building initiatives, parliamentary reform and political party recruitment. The six-step action plan is structured so national policymakers and practitioners working to increase <b>women's political involvement</b> can select one window of opportunity to expand women's political participation in a manner most relevant to their specific context.	2012
14	<i>"The Implications of</i>	The United Nations	The report looks at the main <b>demographic trends in Mongolia in the past</b>	2012

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
	<i>Demographic Trends for Socio-economic Development and Public Policy in Mongolia</i>	Population Fund	<b>few decades</b> and analyses the impact of these trends on socio-economic development. In particular, it analyses the impact of population on the labour force, health and education, urbanisation, poverty, and the urban environment. The study sought to explicate the policy implications of current demographic trends as well as likely future patterns.	
15	<i>"Mongolia: Gender Disparities in Labor Markets and Policy Suggestions", Research report</i>	World Bank	This policy note is structured as follows: It starts by comparing <b>gender outcomes in Mongolia</b> with other countries and then looks more closely at gender differences in labour markets within the country. It concludes with a set of strategies, policies and practices that could help improve economic participation and labour market outcomes for women.	2012
16	<i>Mongolian Human Development Report: Gender and Human Development</i>	Amgalan, T.	The study was completed as supplementary paper for the 2011 National Human Development Report (UNDP) and considers gender issues in relation to the environment in Mongolia. The study concludes that although Mongolia is making progress in various human development and gender indices, the issue of gender inequality is still prevalent in terms of opportunities. It also reports that there is a lack of systematic studies that measure the impact on women's and men's lives of the rapid socio-economic changes occurring in Mongolia.	2011
17	<i>"Expert Evaluation of Conformity of Mongolian Legislation with International Human Rights Treaties", Research report</i>	MDG-9 Project, UNDP	This survey is conducted within the scope of the Support in Achieving MDG 9 on Human Rights and Democratic Governance Project jointly implemented by the Institute of Philosophy, Sociological and Law of the Mongolian Academy of Sciences, the United Nations Development Programme and the Oslo Governance Center. Researchers from the National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia gathered initial data for the survey and a team of experts prepared the survey report.	2011
18	<i>Gender-based Violence in Mongolia</i>	NCGE, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNDP	The research provided methodological assessment of all surveys previously conducted under topics related to gender-based violence. It studied the policy environment, public perception, services and organisational institutions of gender-based violence.	2011
19	<i>"Assessment of Development Results: Evaluation of UNDP Contribution-Mongolia", Project report</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This report presents an independent country-level evaluation conducted by the UNDP Evaluation Office in 2010. The evaluation examines the strategic relevance and positioning of UNDP support and contributions to the development of Mongolia from 2002 to early 2010. The report assesses UNDP interventions under various thematic areas of the country programme, with a view to providing recommendations for the next country programme for the period 2012-2017.	2011

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
20	<i>The World Bank's Country Portfolio Performance Review</i>	World Bank	Key findings were that the Bank could have a much greater impact through better mainstreaming of <b>gender considerations</b> , particularly in key sectors such as <b>mining, rural livelihoods, urban infrastructure and social protection</b> .	2011
21	<i>Gender Equality Results in ADB Projects: Mongolia Country Report</i>	Asian Development Bank	This report is one of a series of four country reports and one synthesis report <b>presenting the findings of rapid gender assessments (RGAs)</b> of selected ADB-financed loan projects in four developing member countries: Indonesia, Mongolia, Sri Lanka, and Viet Nam. The series follows an earlier round of RGAs that were carried out in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, and Pakistan in 2004 and 2005. The aims were to assess the extent to which project-specific Gender Action Plans (GAPs), gender strategies or gender provisions in ADB loans contributed to gender-equality results and overall project outcomes, and to share knowledge on the key features of GAPs and gender provisions that contributed to these results.	2010
22	<i>Role of Public Policy for Women's Equality in Politics: Comparative Analysis of Mongolia, Russian Federation and The United Nations Framework</i>	Galindev, Sarnai. MA thesis, Budapest, Hungary: Central European University	This thesis compared the jurisprudences of Mongolia, the Russian Federation and the United Nations framework for <b>women's equality</b> . The author compared the equality situation, particularly <b>women's ratio of participation in education and health sectors</b> . The main finding was that substantive gender equality can be achieved at decision-making levels, particularly politically.	2010
23	<i>Mongolia – 15 Years After the International Conference on Population and Development (1994-2009)</i>	The United Nations Population Fund	In 1994, delegates from 179 countries, including Mongolia, attended the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo. In this brief report Mongolia presents the progress made, the major achievements, and the challenges faced in implementing the POA in three key areas outlined in the ICPD Further Actions, approved in 1999.	2009
24	<i>“Gender and Journalism”</i>	IRIM	The goal of the research was to <b>evaluate the gender sensitivity of the Mongolian media</b> , to raise awareness among journalists, and to change their attitudes and behaviors in regard to gender inequality.	2010
25	<i>“Gender-Sensitive Criteria for Mass Media: TV Broadcasting”</i>	IRIM	The report aimed to develop <b>“gender-sensitivity criteria for media content”</b> based on results from other gender studies, opinions from women’s right experts and media professionals, and international practices related to gender sensitivity in the media.	2010
26	<i>“For A Better Economic and Social</i>	The United Nations Development	This report builds on UNDP Mongolia/MSWL’s ongoing capacity-building initiatives to increase the educational opportunities of persons with disabilities	2010



#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
	<i>Mongolia</i>		context, the impact of the global financial crisis and the status of the MDGs as of 2008.	
31	<i>Project on Intensifying Implementation of Law and Regulations on Fighting Violence against Women, Project report. Ulaanbaatar</i> <sup>30</sup>	The United Nations Development Fund for Women	This is a report of the project implemented by the Civil Alliance Centre, the Human Rights Development Centre and the National Center against Violence from 2006-2009 with support from the UN Women's Fund. It was elaborated within the framework of a research team report and examined advocacy, a training and extension team report, documentation on best practices, and the coordination of activities.	2009
32	<i>Violence against Women is a Human Rights Violation, Ulaanbaatar</i> <sup>31</sup>	The United Nations Development Fund for Women	This report is a compilation of essays and paintings selected from a competition held among university students and schoolchildren as part of the Project on Intensifying Implementation of Law and Regulations on Fighting Violence against Women commissioned by Women's Development Fund.	2009
33	<i>"Millennium Development Goals and Geographical Targeting in Mongolia", Research report</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This report presents MDG-based geographical targeting indicators for each of the five regions, 21 aimags, the capital city and 340 soums in Mongolia. Monetary poverty indicators are based on a census poverty map; employment, education and infrastructure indicators were calculated from the census database. Together, the results form a unique database that should help policymakers and planners identify areas in need. Having such multi-dimensional geographical database focusing on the many aspects of poverty should help tailor more efficient and cost-effective interventions.	2009
34	<i>Gender Analysis of Disaster Vulnerability in Targeted Locations and the Development of a Project Gender-Mainstreaming Strategy</i>	The United Nations Development Programme	This analysis was carried out in line with the objectives and expected results of the "Strengthening the Disaster Mitigation and Management System in Mongolia" Phase III Project. <b>The analysis identified gender-specific factors and disaster vulnerability-linked gender relations.</b> It proposed methodological support in resolving the issues through gender-sensitive policy recommendations.	2009
35	<i>"Quality and Equity in the Mongolian Education Sector in Case Studies of Progress and Challenges in</i>	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	This case study identifies four targets groups that are specific to the achievement of the EFA Millennium Development Goals in Mongolia: <b>Boys, out-of-school children, vulnerable children and minorities, and the children of herders.</b> Boys from herder families in remote rural areas are at the greatest risk of dropping out or non-enrolment. The case study focuses on	2009

<sup>30</sup> *Эмэгтэйчүүдийн эсрэг хүчирхийлэлтэй тэмцэх хуулийн хэрэгжилтийг эрчимжүүлэх төсөл Төслийн тайлан. Улаанбаатар.*

<sup>31</sup> *Эмэгтэйчүүдийн эсрэг хүчирхийлэл бол хүний эрхий зөрчил мөн. Улаанбаатар.*

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
	<i>Quality and Equity”</i>		problems with access to education for boys from nomadic herder families. The inverse gender gap in the Mongolian education sector is a well-explored topic in educational policy research. What is lacking, however, is a more comprehensive look at how and why the combination of gender, household income and location of school-urban, semi-urban and rural-affects access to education in Mongolia.	
36	<i>Toward Gender Equality in East Asia and the Pacific</i>	World Bank	The main message of this report is that policymakers in the region need to understand why progress in closing gender gaps has been mixed and why there is a need to implement corrective policies where gaps remain persistent. The report examines the gender dimensions of several emerging trends in the region: Increased global economic integration, the growing use of information and communication technologies, migration, urbanisation, and rapid population ageing, all of which are generating new opportunities as well as new risks in the promotion of gender equality. The report also contributes to the development of new data and evidence on gender and development, significantly strengthening the ability of countries to formulate evidence-based policy in this area.	2009
37	<i>Gender checklists for different sectors, such as agriculture</i>	Asian Development Bank	ADB staff reviewed indicators for determining gender issues in primary social assessments. It shares practices on considering gender in projects to be implemented in the agricultural sector.	2008
38	<i>Gender Analysis and Education</i>	Amgalan, T. Onon, B.	This report studied the legal environment of Mongolia’s education sector, the implementing framework, and the availability of gender-equality data and information. It focused on determining solutions using official and unofficial data.	2008
39	<i>“Women’s rights and Mass Media”</i>	MONFEMNET, Mongolian Women’s Fund (MWF) and AusAID	The report states that the image of women in mass media serves as a form of social identification and is influencing decisions in society.	2008
40	<i>“Gender Stereotypes and Politics”</i>	MONFEMNET, SDC	The major purpose of this questionnaire-based survey was to assess how public attitudes impact on women’s career growth at the national decision-making level or micro level. It was aimed at determining if a politicians’ gender had any influence on public perception, and the level of social support for female politicians, and provided recommendations on how to overcome patriarchal attitudes.	2008
	<i>International Migration and Women In Home Country</i>	IRIM and MONFEMNET (commissioned by SDC)	This study identified the impact of immigration backlogs on women left behind, women’s lack of equal economic opportunities, including access to higher education and wage parity, the drivers of immigration and future trends. It elaborated on	2008

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
			various mechanisms by which women affected by immigration are exposed to further exploitation, disadvantage and burden. It called for comprehensive reform that took into consideration protection issues and the creation of favourable environments for women left behind, and focused attention on the often silenced voices of women.	
	Welfare Programs' Costs for Women, Case study report	IRIM and MONFEMNET (commissioned by SDC and ADB)	This research examined the implementation, impact and transaction costs of public policies for women and children using qualitative research methodologies. The types of implementing mechanisms and expenditures related to social welfare policies directed at women and children were identified. Statistical information about social welfare services and the benefits coverage of women and children in Mongolia were also analysed. A comparative analysis of the transaction costs of social welfare programs in urban and rural areas was also undertaken.	2008
41	<i>School-to-work Transitions in Mongolia</i>	International Labour Organization	The ILO, with financial support from the Republic of Korea, assisted the Government of Mongolia in implementing this survey. It sought to measure the quality of the transition to decent work. It captured the labour market status of young people and the different types of transitions leading to work, and provided information on both the quantity and quality of employment. The study also incorporated the results of an employers' survey.	2008
42	<i>"Current Situation on Promoting Pornography through Mass Media"</i>	MWF, School of Social Science, National University of Mongolia	This report examined the issue of the promotion of pornography via case studies and analysed media content in relation to the broadcasting of pornography.	2007
43	<i>In-depth Survey on all Types of Violence against Women</i> <sup>32</sup>	National Human Rights Commission, UNDP	This survey focused on the existing situation of violence against women in Mongolia.	2007
44	<i>NGO Involvement in Combating Traffic in Women in and from Mongolia</i>	Naran Munkhbat, MA thesis, Budapest, Hungary: Central European University	This paper focuses on Mongolian NGO Khunii Erkh Khugjliin Tuv (Centre for Human Rights and Development), which works to combat trafficking women in and from Mongolia. It looks at the extent to which NGO's anti-trafficking activities have been successful, and explains its successes and failures.	2007
45	<i>National Progress Reports on the Millennium Development</i>	Government of Mongolia	The reports provide an overview of the progress of implementation of the MDGs in Mongolia. In relation to national programmes, the government's social welfare program, effective since 2012, is focused on the provision of a monthly child allowance for all	since 2007

<sup>32</sup> *Эмэгтэйчүүдийн эсрэг хучирхийллийн бүх хэлбэрийн талаарх гүнзгийрүүлсэн судалгаа*

#	Name of the research	Implementer	Main content	Year
	<i>Goals</i>		children in line with “Human Development Fund”. Social security benefits are also provided to the elderly, people with disabilities and mothers with four or more children.	

### Appendix 3. Matrix for Mainstreaming Gender into Sectoral Policy and Programmes in Mongolia

Matrix for mainstreaming gender into sectoral policy and programmes of Mongolia <sup>33</sup>				
Priorities	Polymaking and Planning	Implementing Body	Proposed Actions	Monitoring and evaluation
<b>INFRASTRUCTURE / ROAD SECTOR</b>				
To develop national social and gender policy documents and guidance for the roads sector	The GoM <sup>1</sup> will issue a resolution and impose obligations on the Ministry of Roads and Transportation (MRT) <sup>2</sup> . The NCGE <sup>2</sup> will empower social and gender specialists in the roads sector.	Road project implementers (including the Mongolian Employers' Federation), donor agencies, sectoral agencies, CSOs, the Road Trade Union (RTU).	To adopt a gender-responsive programme and budget. To develop human resources. To allocate Ministerial funding for monitoring and evaluation purposes.	MRT, trade unions/federation, CSOs, a team specialised in monitoring gender aspects.
Capacity building of policy-implementing body	NCGE <sup>1</sup> , MRT <sup>2</sup> .	A gender specialist team of CSOs.	Adoption of the programme with funding.	NCGE.
To introduce a quota for women in the workplace	NCGE <sup>1</sup> , MRT <sup>2</sup> .	Road project implementers (including the Mongolian Employers' Federation), donors, sectoral agencies, CSOs specialised in the road sector, RTU.	Adoption of a programme/system that promotes female employment in the roads sector.	NGOs, CSOs, third party oversight/watchdogs, citizens.
Awareness about and prevention of HIV/AIDS and STIs	GoM <sup>1</sup> , MoH <sup>1</sup> , MRT <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>2</sup> .	MRT, relevant institutions, the private sector, donor agencies.	Adoption of a programme targeted at awareness-raising and prevention of HIV/AIDS and STIs.	MRT, focus area population

<sup>33</sup> Thematrix shown below covers six different spheres, including agriculture and animal husbandry; infrastructure and roads; land and property rights; vocational education and training; health; and the environmental sector, under which Mongolia's gender priorities and the areas where improvements are needed have been determined along with a proposed number of actions. It demonstrates existing institutional arrangements not only for policy planning purposes but also for monitoring of the implementation.

Prevention of gender-based violence: Workplace sexual harassment, trafficking in persons, labour exploitation, domestic violence, etc.	GoM <sup>1</sup> , MRT <sup>1</sup> , MoH <sup>2</sup> , NCGE <sup>2</sup> .	MRT, specialised NGOs, trade unions, donor agencies, the private sector.	Advocacy activities to influence the development of a national policy document and government resolutions Dissemination of the good practices of the Road Project on how to include regulations preventing gender-based violence and sexual harassment into the human resource policies of organisations.	Citizens, council, monitoring team.
To reflect the social issues of female road workers in policy, particularly issues related to the availability of schools, kindergartens and medical services	MES <sup>1</sup> , Ministry of Population Development and Social Population (MPDSP) <sup>1</sup> , MoH <sup>2</sup> .	Government implementing agencies, CSOs, NGOs.	Mobile medical services (ger kindergartens, skilled teachers).	MPDSP <sup>1</sup> , MRT <sup>2</sup> .
<b>AGRICULTURE/ANIMAL HUSBANDRY SECTOR</b>				
To create a relevant legal environment. For example, adding pastureland issues to the Law on Land; amending the Partnership Law, the Brokerage Law and the Competition Law; organising land into regions and zones; and regulating pasture-use relations	State Great Khural (SGKh) <sup>1</sup> ; Ministry of Industry and Agriculture (MIA) <sup>2</sup> ; MRT <sup>2</sup> ; Ministry of Construction and Urban Development (MCUD) <sup>2</sup> .	MIA <sup>1</sup> ; Water Authority <sup>2</sup> ; Governor's Offices in aimags and soums <sup>2</sup> .	To enact a new law. To amend relevant laws. To develop programmes. To establish a mechanism that will ensure continued implementation.	CSOs.
To establish an effective flow of information and a system of cooperation taking into consideration stakeholders' understanding of gender in projects	MIA <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>1</sup> .	MIA, local authorities, donor agencies.	To develop criteria. To effectively use survey results for policy planning and interventions. To build stakeholders' capacity.	Professional organisation.
To supply equipment that creates job opportunities. To introduce soft loans.	MIA <sup>1</sup> .	MIA, relevant local authorities.	To market animal products To produce end products. The implementing party should improve the methodology.	MIA

Complaint resolution with respect to pastureland disputes.	MIA <sup>1</sup> , local authorities <sup>1</sup> .	Governors' Administrative Offices in relevant soums	To resolve in accordance with the Law on Land. To apply the main principles of the MCA-Mongolia Complaint Resolution Procedure as relevant.	Governors' Administrative Offices in relevant soums
<b>LAND AND PROPERTY RIGHTS</b>				
To improve women's property ownership rights	Ministry of Justice (MoJ) <sup>1</sup> , Ministry of Economic Development (MED) <sup>1</sup> .	General Authority for State Registration (GASR), Authority of Land Administration, Geodesy and Cartography (ALAGAC).	To advocate for and promote awareness among women. To develop guidance and manuals To raise awareness among the parents of property inheritance among their children regardless of sex.	GASR, relevant NGOs, NCGE, Property Brokerage Association.  ALAGAC, CSOs, relevant agencies of the General Authority for Specialised Inspection (GASI)
To introduce an e-property registration system into all remaining aimags and districts (about 70 percent have not yet been included)	MoJ <sup>1</sup> , MED <sup>1</sup> (equal budget allocation).	GASR.	To advocate for and promote awareness among women. To develop guidance and manuals To raise awareness among the parents of property inheritance among their children regardless of sex.	
To create a satellite digital programme for land office cadastre (to register possession status and male and female ownership)	MCUD <sup>1</sup> , MED <sup>2</sup> , MoJ <sup>2</sup> .	ALAGC.	To advocate for and promote awareness among women. To develop guidance and manuals To raise awareness among the parents of property inheritance among their children regardless of sex.	
To ensure citizens have opportunities to own land To ensure and monitor land ownership equality	MJ, MED, MCUD.	Internal unit in charge of gender issues at MoJ, MED, MCUD, relevant agencies of GASI.	To advocate for and promote awareness among women. To develop guidance and manuals To raise awareness among the parents of property inheritance among their children regardless of sex.	

<b>VOCATIONAL TRAINING</b>				
To include a gender programme in the training curriculum of the Center for Vocational Education, Training and Industry (CVETI)	Department for Vocational Education and Training of the Ministry of Labour <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>2</sup> , NGOs working in this field <sup>2</sup> .	To organise trainings under the authority of directors of the CVETI, training manager.	The Ministry should provide policy direction to approve a training curriculum. CVETI directors direct training managers to introduce gender classes. In order to have gender classes, there is a need for a teaching methodology and training handouts To educate and train social workers.	Department for Monitoring, Evaluation and Internal Audit of the Ministry of Labour, NGOs working in this field.
To advertise and provide information on potential training on mining and roads, etc., in which girls can study at CVETI To consider gender during entry registration To provide with opportunities To publicise To allocate funding	CVETI <sup>1</sup> .	CVETI.	To inform and advertise through public media.	NCGE, NGOs working in this field, local communities.
To establish a gender-disaggregated database of students, graduates and graduates at work of CVETI To conduct study and registration	Department for Vocational Education and Training of the Ministry of Labour (MoL) <sup>1</sup> , CVETI <sup>2</sup> .	CVETI, Institute for Labor study.	To create a CVETI gender-disaggregated database at the MoL. To issue recommendations for further application.	Monitoring Unit of the MoL, NGOs, NCGE, NSO
To develop a MoL gender strategy	ML <sup>1</sup> , VETC <sup>2</sup> .	ML, VETC.	To develop a strategy.	ML, NCGE, NGOs
<b>HEALTH SECTOR</b>				
To include gender-sensitive lifestyles in the Public Health Strategy To develop a gender-responsive national strategy	MoH <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>1</sup> .	MoH <sup>1</sup> , Health Development Center (HDC) <sup>2</sup> National Center for Mongolian Society and Health (NCMSH) <sup>2</sup> , study institutes <sup>2</sup> .	To develop a comprehensive action plan that enables the participation of different stakeholders (integrated with aimag and capital city plans). To allocate funding. Activities consistent with the needs of targeted groups.	Independent oversight by NGOs

To integrate gender issues into the national health policy	MoH <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>1</sup> .	MoH <sup>1</sup> , Association for Mongolian Society and Health specialists (AMSHS) <sup>2</sup> .	A working group to develop strategy, advocacy, criteria. To train human resources. To use the experience of specialised teams or receive technical input.	National Center for Society and Health, Social development section (SDS).
To improve the capacity of human resources (at each stage)	MoH <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>1</sup> .	NGOs <sup>1</sup> , AMSHS <sup>1</sup> , Mongolian National Broadcaster (MNB) <sup>2</sup> , Family Health Science Society (FHSS) <sup>2</sup> .	To establish a specialised methodology unit, and research and training centre. Build capacity on gender integration.	NCMSH, Monitoring and Evaluation Department of the MoH.
<b>ENVIRONMENTAL SECTOR</b>				
To make a difference for female-headed households when determining subsidy levels of energy-efficient products	Ministry of Environment and Green Development (MEGD) "Clean Air" Fund, World Bank "Clean Air" Project for Ulaanbaatar.	"Clean Air" Fund <sup>1</sup> , "Clean Air" Project, World Bank <sup>2</sup> .	To include in the criteria for subsidised products.	NGOs, officers at the Ministries in charge of this work.
Soft loans to be provided for female-headed households	"Xac" Bank <sup>1</sup> "Eco" unit (Eco loan).	"Xac"Bank <sup>1</sup> .	To issue new loan product (except stoves).	NGOs, CSOs, Ministry experts.
<b>GENERAL AREAS OF CONCERN</b>				
Capacity building at the tertiary education level: Strengthen the knowledge and capacity of social workers on gender	MES <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>2</sup> .	National University of Mongolia, Educational University of Mongolia.	To develop training for social workers who are tasked with gender analysis and assessing the potential negative impacts on society and the population.	MES, tertiary education institutions.
To integrate issues related to Social and Gender Assessment into national programs, projects and core policy documents	GoM <sup>1</sup> , NCGE <sup>1</sup> .	All Ministries and relevant agencies.	Capacity building. Awareness-raising and gender sensitisation. Committed policy planning and implementation with sufficient funding allocated.	NCGE.
To sensitise gender issues among project implementing bodies	Project implementers <sup>1</sup> , donors <sup>1</sup> , stakeholders <sup>2</sup> .	Project implementers <sup>1</sup> , donors <sup>1</sup> , stakeholders <sup>2</sup> .	Capacity building. Awareness-raising and gender sensitisation.	NCGE.