

USAID REDUCING DEMAND FOR WILDLIFE GENDER EQUALITY AND SOCIAL INCLUSION ANALYSIS

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Cover Photo Caption: Ms. Chotika Arintchai, Senior Customs Inspector/Liaison Officer on Wildlife Enforcement, demonstrating knowledge management tools that depict the type of wildlife products that are caught during customs inspection.

Photo Credit: USAID Wildlife Asia

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ABBREVIATIONS

A-D-I-R	Actors-Drivers-Impacts-Response
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CWT	Countering Wildlife Trafficking
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GESI	Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Analysis
GIDAP	Gender and Inclusive Development Action Plan
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
IUCN SULi	International Union for Conservation of Nature Sustainable Use and Livelihoods
IWT	Illegal Wildlife Trade
KII	Key Informant Interviews
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
RDCS	Regional Development Cooperation Strategy
RDMA	Regional Development Mission for Asia
RDW	Reducing Demand for Wildlife
SBCC	Social and Behavior Change Communication
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

I INTRODUCTION

The 18-month United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Reducing Demand for Wildlife (RDW) Activity was launched on August 25, 2021, with the goal of “reducing transnational wildlife trade in Southeast Asia and China.” The Activity aligns with USAID Regional Development Mission for Asia’s Regional Development Cooperation Strategy (RDCS) Development Objective 3, “Regional Environmental and Energy Systems Strengthened,” IR 3.2, “Transnational Environmental Crime Reduced” (USAID 2020b).

Understanding that prevalent social, cultural, and gender norms influence and interact with individual and community demand for illegal and endangered wildlife and associated products, this Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) study provides a systematic overview of the state of knowledge about gender and social dynamics, including the roles and rights of women and traditionally underrepresented groups, including youth and indigenous populations, that influence illegal wildlife trafficking; the GESI further outlines the gender and social inclusion context in relation to opportunities for reduction of wildlife consumption. This GESI is built on a foundation of a review of the current literature, a survey of relevant legislation and policies in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region and China, and information from key informant interviews (KII). The GESI Analysis concludes with identification of knowledge gaps and opportunities for further research and advancement of USAID gender and social inclusion goals and objectives within the USAID RDW activity. This report will inform the development of the Gender and Inclusive Development Action Plan (GIDAP) and will help point to research pathways that enable RDW to serve as an ongoing learning mechanism for gender equality and social inclusion in the counter wildlife trafficking (CWT) space. While this report aims to treat the subjects of “gender” and “social inclusion” equally, there is a greater body of knowledge and analysis on the subject of “gender” and therefore this report has a more extensive exploration of issues surrounding gender than of social inclusion.

Annex I provides key definitions of core terminology such as “gender equality” and “gender integration”.

I.1 REDUCING DEMAND FOR WILDLIFE (RDW): DESCRIPTION, OBJECTIVES, AND ACTIVITIES

USAID Regional Development Mission for Asia (RDMA) has been actively supporting countering wildlife trafficking efforts in the region for decades. The most recent program, the USAID Wildlife Asia Activity (2016-2022, \$24.5 million), ended in January 2022. USAID/RDMA initiated the USAID Reducing Demand for Wildlife Activity to build on the successes of USAID Wildlife Asia, deepen learning, and further identify gaps in combating wildlife trafficking (CWT) for adaptive and sustainable solutions moving forward.

RDW aims to create an enabling environment towards two key objectives:

- **Reduce demand through Social and Behavior Change Communication (SBCC) campaigns.** The Activity will deploy SBCC campaigns developed under USAID Wildlife Asia and develop and test a new campaign for Chinese travelers’ intent on buying illegal wildlife in other countries. It will apply or establish messages and principles for maximizing the potential for SBCC techniques to reduce demand for wild meat and wildlife products, thereby curbing a significant pathway for exposure to zoonotic pathogens and spillover. Further, the Activity will demonstrate lessons and tools for others to emulate and promote SBCC as a pillar of CWT.

- Reduce supply through rational, comprehensive regulatory and enforcement systems.** The Activity will convene policymakers, legislators, enforcement officials, prosecutors, and judges to review the region's wildlife law regulatory and enforcement systems. This will primarily be done through regional bodies, such as the working groups of the ASEAN Secretariat, the ASEAN Inter-Parliamentary Assembly, and the ASEAN Chiefs of National Police. This will be a start to harmonizing and linking the different policy, legislative, and enforcement frameworks present in the different countries of the region and support the leadership of these regional institutions in developing plans and priorities. It will promote the government of Thailand as a regional leader in CWT through its role as lead shepherd of the Plan of Action for the ASEAN Cooperation on Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) and Wildlife Enforcement (2021-2025). Further, it will work to strengthen international and U.S. Government interagency cooperation, data sharing, and coordination.

In addition, the Activity will serve as a learning platform to inform USAID activities in the region as well as contribute to knowledge and thought leadership in the CWT space by undertaking key research and assessments. Through a Political Economy Assessment, the Activity will investigate the interplay of political and economic processes involved between CWT stakeholders to identify opportunities to create transformational change. The Activity will also assess regional efforts towards One Health in response to coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) to identify opportunities and priorities as related to pandemic prevention and conservation through the convergence of environmental, animal, and human health. These research opportunities will seek to advance the understanding of gender and social inclusion in the illegal wildlife trade (IWT) and the opportunities for increased engagement amongst civil society, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and private sector actors. A Social Inclusion Assessment will assess current roles and involvement of civil society organizations (CSOs) in counter wildlife trafficking interventions including women, youth, indigenous, and other traditionally underrepresented groups, and propose ways to proactively amplify the voices and participation of these groups in the CWT space within the geographic scope of RDW and for inclusion in subsequent USAID activities.

The RDW Activity will focus on illegal wildlife products derived from elephants, rhinoceroses, pangolins, and tigers; however, will not limit itself to these species. The Activity's geographic scope is defined as regional in nature, covering all ASEAN member states as well as China. Given the short timeframe of this Activity, and ongoing travel restrictions due to COVID-19, there will be a primary focus on Thailand, emphasizing Thailand as a regional leader, and on China, including Chinese infrastructure investments, Chinese travelers, and the Chinese diaspora.

1.2 SITUATIONAL CONTEXT: ENVIRONMENTAL AND IWT REGIONAL SUMMARY

Southeast Asia is a biodiversity hotspot, holding approximately 20 percent of global plant, animal, and marine species (Gasparatos et al. 2011). Globally, international wildlife trafficking is the second biggest threat to biodiversity, after habitat destruction, and the fourth most lucrative illegal activity following narcotics, human trafficking, and arms. Southeast Asia and China are global hotspots for the illegal consumption and trade of wildlife, accounting for up to 25 percent of global demand for illegal wildlife products (OECD 2019); within Asia, China, Thailand, and Vietnam are the primary destination countries for illegal wildlife (WWF 2012; UNODC 2021).

Multiple and intersecting factors drive the persistent, and by many accounts, growing, levels of IWT in Southeast Asia (USAID 2017b; UNODC 2021; Krishnasamy and Zavagli 2020), including weaknesses in the legislation, judicial, and enforcement chain to combat the illegal wildlife trade (OECD 2019); the ability of criminal networks to continue to provide supply (UNODC 2021;

Krishnasamy and Zavagli 2020); rapid economic and human development growth across the region that have created increased demand for illegal natural resources including wildlife and wildlife products – much of the emerging wildlife demand reflects elite high-end consumption of wildlife, for social affirmation and wealth display, or for beauty amplification, or (presumed) medicinal purposes. The combination of high levels of rural poverty and inequality in this region, combined with rapid and intensifying economic development and escalating movement of people and goods, accelerates the risk factors for IWT (Cooney et al. 2016a).

The illicit nature of illegal wildlife trafficking creates significant difficulty for data collection. Overall, at global and regional levels, knowledge of the gender dynamics that factor into both the demand and supply side of IWT is spotty at best, and for other underrepresented groups like youth and indigenous populations data is scarcer still. Further, research that delves into intersectionality is practically non-existent. The strongest corpus of gender-differentiated research for the Southeast Asia region is on consumer demand dynamics. On the supply side, research tends to be narrowly focused on law enforcement and front-line communities engaged in poaching. The review of the literature in Section 3 maps the broad outlines of gender and social inclusion analysis in relation to IWT and RDW.

2 GESI METHODOLOGY

The Activity in general, and its GESI in particular, reflect three conceptual and programmatic frameworks that, synergistically, set the parameters for gender integration in IWT. (While the conceptual frameworks outlined below are couched in terms of gender, these frameworks also can be viewed from the lens of any traditionally underrepresented populations, such as indigenous peoples, or youth.)

1) USAID's framework for gender equality and female empowerment (2020a) details five domains that are foundational to gender analysis in program cycles:

- Laws, policies, regulations, and institutional practices that influence the context in which men and women act and make decisions;
- Cultural norms and beliefs;
- Gender roles, responsibilities, and time use;
- Access to and control over assets and resources; and
- Patterns of power and decision-making.

2) These broad USAID gender mandates are not developed with IWT in mind, but can be effectively mapped onto the IWT-specific four-pillar framework developed by TRAFFIC and the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) to curb IWT (Parry-Jones and Allan 2017):

- Stop the poaching: increasing wildlife stewardship e.g., by local communities and strengthening field protection.
- Stop the trafficking: promoting action to expose and suppress trafficking.
- Stop the buying: encouraging initiatives to reduce consumer demand.
- International policy: mobilizing policy response at the international level to ensure that an enabling environment is created to facilitate and sustain the fight against wildlife crime.

3) The analytical framework that specifically integrates gender equality and women's empowerment into these four pillars is established by Seager (2021a) in her Actors-Drivers-Impacts-Response (A-D-I-R) conceptual model for IWT. This model is discussed in Section 3.1.

The research agenda we outline in this GESI (Section 4) flows directly from the pathways established by these three conceptual and programmatic models.

2.1 APPROACH AND TIMELINE

The RDW team conducted the following tasks (see Table 1) as part of the GESI analysis methodology. A series of meetings and communications between the RDW team and USAID/RDMA have served to guide the development of the GESI including a virtual conference with the RDW Senior Management Team and USAID/RDMA Gender Specialists on September 2, 2021; the October 29, 2021, Work Planning Meeting with USAID/RDMA; as well as the RDW Kick-off meetings on November 7-8, 2021. These meetings helped inform the GESI research questions located in Annex 2, the RDW approach for the GESI and GIDAP, and the expectations for RDW to serve as a learning platform over the life of Activity with ongoing GESI data collection and analysis. The Activity leveraged RTI's in-house gender expert to develop RDW's GESI research plan methodology and research questions.

TABLE 1: GESI METHODOLOGY GANTT CHART

Description	October				November	
	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 1	Week 2
RDW Kick-off Meetings	X					
Review the current literature and conduct a brief literature review of what CWT gender research gaps existed.		X	X	X	X	X
Hold work planning session with USAID/RDMA to understand their GESI research priorities.				X		
Conduct of Key Informant Interviews (KII) of staff, subcontract partners, and external stakeholders.				X	X	
Analysis of Desk Review and KIIs: Review the RDW Theory of Change and Situation Model using the Conservation Standards and develop GESI-specific questions per RDW objective.					X	X
Analysis of Desk Review and KIIs: Review how our GESI research plan will link to the major research requirements under this contract					X	X

Due to limitations in time and the inability to do field research in the current pandemic context, the scope of this GESI analysis was limited to desk research reviews and key informant interviews. The GESI analysis was conducted between October 2021 and February 2022.

3 STATE OF ANALYSIS AND KNOWLEDGE

3.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

An extensive review of the literature makes clear that there is very little research on the involvement of youth and indigenous peoples in IWT or combatting wildlife trafficking in Southeast Asia. Gender-lens research is an emerging field, but overall, the coverage in the literature is inconsistent and incomplete. Intersectionality is not explicitly addressed in the existing literature. The limited literature on indigenous peoples and IWT is seldom intersectional; gender within indigeneity is largely unaddressed.

Research, field study, and programmatic assessments of IWT until very recently have paid almost no attention to gender and social dynamics that may shape and define IWT activities. Gender-differentiated roles – the ways in which men and women may have distinct relationships to IWT – have, similarly, been largely unexplored. Focusing on trafficking, researchers Agu and Gore (2020) note that “Women comprise approximately half of the earth’s population and thus have the potential to be at least half of the problem causing, and solutions resolving, wildlife trafficking risks. The role of ... women in wildlife trafficking remains mostly unknown and under-addressed by conservation science and policy (p.1).” In a broader-sweep assessment of the entire gender-differentiated domain of IWT, Seager (2021a) notes that to the extent there is an existing evidence base, it typically relies on one or two studies, and that “considerably more gender research and analysis is needed across all the domains of anti-IWT work.”

Further, according to TRAFFIC (2016), despite “high-level recognition of the problem, the emphasis in solutions to date has been largely on strengthening law enforcement efforts and reducing consumer demand for illicitly sourced wildlife commodities. Considerably less emphasis has been placed on the role of the Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities who live with wildlife.”

Despite these overall lacunae, an existing corpus of gender-lens IWT research and field investigation lays the groundwork for robust future integration. In addition, there is growing evidence that the importance of indigenous people and local communities, as well as youth and other underrepresented groups, is being recognized and expanding the conceptual space for tackling IWT and other environmental challenges. Due to limitations in the literature, however, the following sections primarily review issues of gender.

SPECIFIC COMMUNITY-BASED AND COMMODITY-BASED STUDIES

Much of the existing literature on gender and IWT focuses on documenting gender roles in single communities, ecosystems, or commodities, such as Nijman et al. (2016) on gender roles in the pangolin trade in Myanmar; East et al. (2005) on women and men’s roles in urban bushmeat in Equatorial Guinea; Lunstrum and Giva’s 2020 study of male hunters in Mozambique; or the Sundstrom et al. study of gender-differentiated poaching attitudes in southern Africa (2019).

Hunting is almost everywhere a male activity, sometimes by choice and sometimes by coercion; it is not unusual to find that masculinity shaming by women or older men is used to bully men into poaching (McElwee 2012; Seager 2021a). Young men in rural (and indigenous) communities are targeted to participate in IWT, often with promises of money from the lucrative trade in areas with few other economic opportunities (People Not Poaching 2018). In many indigenous groups in Southeast Asia, hunting is deeply tied to ideas of masculinity and is involved in ceremonies and rites of passage from youth to manhood (McElwee 2012). Most law enforcement agencies do not keep

sex-disaggregated data on IWT interdictions, but available data from Norway and East Africa indicate that 90-96 percent of (intercepted) poachers are men (Seager 2021a; Sollund 2020).

Situation-specific individual studies – too many to fully enumerate here – establish the evidence that while it is broadly true that gender dynamics in IWT and men’s and women’s differentiated roles are largely unknown, they are not unknowable. These targeted studies set not only a critical evidence base, but also provide methodological examples for bringing gender into IWT research. Most of them deploy multiple methods, including participant-observer reports, data collection, and gender-specific interviews.

BIG-PICTURE GENDER FRAMEWORKS

Stepping back from the patchwork of individual studies, there are two overarching frameworks for analyzing gender in IWT that influence this GESI and Activity.

1) Multifaceted gender-differentiated participation in trafficking

The available literature indicates that women are found less in front-line capture of wildlife or at higher levels of criminal syndicates, though they might commonly participate in transit, smuggling, and sales roles in IWT supply chains (Seager 2021a). The most comprehensive framework for understanding gender in trafficking is provided by Agu and Gore (2020). Their pivotal research study, “Women in wildlife trafficking in Africa: A synthesis of Literature” identifies a set of six primary and secondary roles that women (and men) play in IWT. As explicated by Agu and Gore, these roles are not necessarily mutually exclusive; Figure 1 illustrates their overlapping and continuous nature. Agu and Gore’s assessment is based on evidence from Africa; there is no equivalent assessment for other regions, but their findings are, if not universal, at least broadly applicable.



Figure 1: Roles of women in IWT (based on Agu and Gore 2020)

- **Offender:** Offender roles include poaching, transiting, selling, and enabling. Hunting is most typically a male activity, although often enabled by women. Women might play administrative roles in IWT, participating in the sale, use, and processing of illegal wildlife products (e.g., to create medicines or balms) in local markets.

- **Defender:** This role comprises individuals or groups in formal or informal positions to guard or protect people and animals across the wildlife trafficking supply chain. This includes roles such as community guardian, criminal justice professional, customs official, military personnel, and NGO staff. Many women-led groups are leading anti-poaching initiatives, such as the Black Mambas in South Africa. Women who are defenders might also play roles in awareness raising and outreach.
- **Influencer:** Women can play multiple roles in enabling or influencing community activities and individual behaviors for or against IWT as parents, aunts, religious and spiritual leaders, siblings, teachers/educators, and partners.
- **Observer:** Observers are the individuals or groups who are eyewitnesses to the activities of, and actors involved in, wildlife trafficking, either intentionally or unintentionally. Observers can play a role in collecting data that may help inform policymakers.
- **Person(s) Harmed:** The individuals or groups victimized and/or made vulnerable by wildlife trafficking. One of the common indirect harms is that women and families will bear the burden when their husbands or sons are killed or arrested due to illegal poaching.
- **Beneficiary:** Individuals or groups that derive indirect or direct benefits from wildlife trafficking. Women and families receive economic benefits from the profits or a sense of empowerment of IWT.

Seager (2021a) suggests that transnational and syndicate-based trafficking activities are led and carried out almost entirely by men, in part because of perceptions of danger in these activities, and in part because it is networks of male power that “facilitate, protect and drive transnational trafficking.” Moreover, transnational IWT requires substantial capital, which men are more likely to have or be able to access (Seager 2021a). Corruption is integral to the networks of trafficking – from local to global. The ease of men in separate networks dealing with one another through corrupt practices is essential to trafficking. This is not to say that women do not participate in corruption, bribery, or coercion. They do. But they do so in different ways and, the research suggests, at lower rates (Seager 2021a; Kramer et al. 2020).

2) Actors-drivers-impacts-responses (A-D-I-R)

Seager’s overarching analysis of gender in IWT, “Gender in Illegal Wildlife Trade: Overlooked and Underestimated” (2021a), develops a framework for “mapping” the role of gender throughout IWT. The A-D-I-R framework enables systematic analysis of gender across all IWT domains by probing the gendered dimensions of each:

- **Actors:** Gender differentiation is most immediately obvious when examining the actors in IWT – men and women play different roles as offenders, protectors, enforcers, informers, influencers, facilitators, bystanders, and consumers. Men and women are positioned differently as actors in relation to the environment, conservation, and wildlife. Gender inquiry is the most straightforward to bring to bear on actors: Who’s doing what? Who plays what roles? Do women and men occupy different spaces in those roles?
- **Drivers:** The drivers are the forces, incentives, and circumstances that propel IWT activities, from poaching to policymaking. The most established understanding in the IWT space is that drivers slide between “need and greed”. These economic underpinnings are themselves gendered. Moreover, as the evidence presented in the previous sections reveals, expectations of “performing” gender norms and roles of masculinity and femininity are operationalized as drivers of the trade – and in some ways they predetermine both need and

desire. Sexual violence and gender inequality are evident as facilitating forces of IWT along the entire value chain as outlined on pg. 11.

- **Impacts:** Because of the differentiated “positionality” of men and women in relation to conservation and environment, and to IWT itself, the impacts of the trade and of curbing it are seldom the same for women and men. If most enforcement actors are male, this has an impact on the effectiveness of that enforcement; if men and women use resources and species differently, the impacts of putting them off-limits in protected areas, or of IWT-related ecosystem degradation, will be gender-differentiated.
- **Responses:** Current programs and policies developed to mitigate the effects of IWT or to stop it entirely are mostly gender-blind – and in some measure because of that, they often exacerbate gender inequalities. The presumptions and knowledge that inform programs and policies flow from gendered – or not gendered – understanding.

CONSUMER BEHAVIOR AND DEMAND REDUCTION

Data collection for consumption and consumer behavior tends to follow marketing research principles which focus on a subset of common demographic characteristics to the neglect of others. For example, SBCC research data typically focuses on demographic data for gender (limited to male and female); age; income levels; former consumption patterns; employment status; geographic location (urban vs rural); travel history; and similar. While this usually provides a critical mass of information enabling the development of effective demand reduction campaigns, the lack of nuance and neglect of other social dimensions (e.g., ethnicity, non-binary and other gender orientations, religious affiliations, etc.) potentially misses out on other key influencing variables and creates little space for nuance.

Further, inconsistent data collection parameters make cross-comparison challenging. This is particularly the case for data capture by age groupings and attempts to make generalizations and comparisons for “youth”. While “youth” have been highlighted as a critical category for engagement and underrepresented group by governments and development counterparts alike, there is no universally agreed international definition of youth as an age group. Although the United Nations (UN) defines youth as persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years (UN no date), it recognizes that member states and even other UN entities have alternate definitions. For example, the UN Habitat (Youth Fund) defines youth as ages 15-32; the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) defines adolescents as 10-19, young people 10-24 and youth as 15-24 (2016); and the African Youth Chart uses ages 15-35 (2006), ASEAN Member States have agreed to a definition of youth as spanning the age of 15-35 (ASEAN 2017a).

With regards to gender, the literature on the consumption of wildlife products makes clear that consumption is highly gendered and driven in large part by conceptions of masculinity and femininity. Social roles assigned to men and women define the roles that each play in IWT value chains, resulting in higher participation of men in hunting and transnational trafficking, with women tending to be involved more in the local transport, processing, marketing, and sales of wildlife products.

Consumer demand for IWT products is infused throughout with gender roles and “performance” of masculinities and femininities (Seager 2021a). Some of the dominant gender norms that drive consumption include male bonding and network-building through sharing of illicit consumption; women enacting normative beauty standards; and, women’s roles as primary household provisioners. There are a few studies that reveal that women’s purchases of certain IWT products reflect not necessarily their own personal consumption preferences, but their efforts to fulfill their roles as

Wildlife Asia 2021a). Section 3.3 and Annex 5 detail the gender dimensions of consumption revealed by USAID investigations.

The key informant interviews conducted for this GESI (see Annexes 3 and 4) support many of the findings of TRAFFIC and USAID reviewed above. Several of the interviewees repeated the perception that women in Southeast Asia and China play a substantial role in the buying and selling of wildlife products in Southeast Asia either 1) in the processing of wildlife products (e.g., for medicinal uses) and transportation to market or 2) as middle buyers who formally sell these products in their shops. Unfortunately, there is no formative research study that looks specifically at products derived from elephants, rhinoceroses, pangolins, and tigers sold by female business owners in Southeast Asia.

The recognition of youth as a population that can be influenced in terms of future consumption and as influencers themselves has been recognized in the conservation sphere through public awareness campaigns, youth-targeted events, competitions, and similar activities (USAID 2017b). While environmental education is seldom a priority in schools, the growing trend for youth conservation movements and clubs reflects growing public awareness at all levels of the importance of good environmental stewardship. Further, despite greater emphasis by governments, educators, development partners and others on the need to consider youth as an important group for engagement, that state of research for youth in terms of messaging, impacts, best practices, etc. is abysmal.

Consumption trends for demand reduction do allow for some observations, though the lack of common definitions and parameters for youth again makes comparisons difficult. From USAID research undertaken for SBCC campaigns, several findings are below:

- A significant proportion of the youth surveyed intend to buy wildlife products in the future, particularly those who currently own or have wanted wildlife products. In Thailand, 38 percent of survey respondents 18-29 years old intend to buy ivory products. For tiger products, it is 30 percent (USAID Wildlife Asia 2020).
- In China (Guangdong province), among survey respondents 18-30 years old, 23 percent intend to buy elephant ivory, compared to 21 percent for rhino products, 15 percent for pangolin, and 14 percent for tiger products (USAID Wildlife Asia 2021c).
- A significant proportion of the youth think buying or owning wildlife products is socially acceptable. In China (Guangdong province), of those 18-30 years old, 26 percent agree that owning ivory is socially acceptable, compared to 21 percent for rhino, 20 percent for pangolin, and 23 percent for tiger products.
- A significant proportion of youth are not knowledgeable about the legality of wildlife products. In Thailand, of those aged 18-29 years old, 23 percent disagree or are unsure that some ivory products are illegal in Thailand, while 27 percent disagree or are unsure regarding tiger products.

Other consumer research shows that youth tend to consume some wildlife products more than other age groups. A survey on wild meat consumption in Thailand found that the typical wild meat eater is significantly more likely to be aged 18-30 years old (Bergin et al. 2021).

POLICY

Section 3.4 of this GESI, below, discusses specific regional and local policies in relation to IWT and CWT. The literature on specific governance structures (for example, Mekong for the Future 2021; UNODC 2020) with a focus on gender differences in CWT rarely if at all addresses social inclusion issues related to youth or indigenous people.

In terms of gender dynamics within policymaking, it is clear that men dominate in most of the major organizations that play key roles in international IWT policy: governments, NGOs, research institutions, and academic sectors. CWT policy is made by national and local governments and implemented by protected area managers, law enforcement agencies, and NGOs that tend to be heavily dominated by men at the leadership level (Castañeda 2020). The dominance of men and exclusion of women is a self-reinforcing system, but it can also be reversed and the inclusion of women at “critical mass” levels can create a virtuous cycle of further inclusion. The effect of the lack of women in policy circles is hard to measure, although there are sweeping assertions that women are more likely to “raise issues that others overlook, to support ideas that others oppose, and to seek an end to abuses that others accept” (Madeleine Albright, former US Secretary of State, cited in Seager 2021a, p35). There is some evidence that governments with higher proportions of women produce more gender-equality legislation and more “environment-friendly” legislation (Noorgard and York 2005; Ramstetter and Haberstack 2020; Seager 2021a). There are no specific studies of correlations between demographics of policymakers and policies (proposed or legislated) of IWT.

The literature review for this GESI also explored two emerging areas of research that are often overlooked in IWT programs: gender-based violence and enforcement.

GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

The entire IWT domain is infused with violence, especially gender-based violence (GBV). Sexual violence and gender inequality are facilitators of IWT along the value chain. Sexual exploitation, prostitution of women, and sex trafficking facilitate personal and commercial IWT transactions on local to global scales. The endemicity of GBV in IWT is partly a result of the fact that power relations throughout the IWT “chain” are mostly dominated by men (Seager 2021a). The sexual-exploitation political economy of IWT is understudied, but some available evidence paints the contours. The most comprehensive assessment of GBV in conservation is the 2020 report on GBV and the environment – an International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) report that brings to the foreground the understanding that gender-based violence is both a symptom of gender inequality and a tool to reinforce it; GBV is often deployed to maintain male control over natural resources, further entrenching gender inequality in a cyclical manner (Castañeda Camey et al. 2020).

The key understanding of studies of GBV in conservation and IWT is that GBV is not just an individualized or singular experience that happens sometimes to some women in some IWT settings. Rather, interconnected webs of power, gender inequality and sexual violence – some of which is organized by formal networks – converge in certain IWT sites and settings (Seager 2021a).

Hotspots of IWT trade and extraction depots are also hotspots of GBV (Seager 2021a). Mirroring the business exchange of wildlife products, women too are often used by men as business currency. It is not uncommon for businessmen to provide sex workers to one another as a currency of mutual male regard and to consolidate business relationships (Osburg 2013, 2018; Uretsky 2016).

ENFORCEMENT

The GESI analysis also reviewed literature that explores the social inclusion dimensions of enforcement, particularly the role of women as front-line participants in CWT, either as part of law enforcement in CWT or as players in the IWT supply chain. Ranger groups and enforcement agencies tend to lack gender and ethnic diversity. The low level of participation of indigenous populations in enforcement activities can lead to increased levels of violence against indigenous peoples (i.e., at the hands of rangers, just as low participation of women in ranger groups can lead to an increased likelihood of GBV).

The CWT community is already engaged in understanding the inequality, socio-political realities, gender dynamics, and existing power structures within which women rangers and/or law enforcement officers operate (World Wildlife Fund 2020; Belecky et al. 2019; Seager 2021b).

The militarization and hyper-masculinization of CWT enforcement activities, escalating in many regions in response to well-funded and organized IWT syndicates, provokes a further feedback loop of escalating violence (Castañeda et al. 2020; Seager 2021b). Research suggests that women law enforcement officers can play an important role in de-escalating situations through non-violent, negotiation-based approaches to conflict resolution, and are often perceived as more trustworthy and accountable to communities when compared with male rangers (Seager 2021b). Male-dominant enforcement actors, particularly at the ranger-community level, are less likely to have the full confidence of female community members (Belecky et al. 2019, Seager 2021a). The assumption that men are best suited for often dangerous and increasingly armed ranger work puts them at considerable risk. Highly masculinized enforcement can sour relationships with community members who might otherwise be allies; it also heightens the risk of enforcement through violent means, potentially extending to criminal acts involving sexual abuse.

All-women or mixed-gender ranger teams have met with success in some regions, such as the unarmed, all-women Black Mambas ranger group operating in South Africa's Balule Nature Reserve (Dixon 2020). Other well-known groups include Team Lioness (Kenya), the Seed Women (mostly indigenous rangers, Western Australia), an all-women team within the Dongning Forestry Bureau (China), and the Akashinga in Zimbabwe (Seager 2021b). However, women-only or mixed-gender groups are still not the norm, and women continue to be excluded from frontline law-enforcement positions, making up only an estimated 3-11 percent of the global ranger workforce (Seager 2021b).

In terms of policy and enforcement, one of the entrenched challenges to women taking on formal enforcement roles is the discrimination they face, which is exacerbated in units that are male-dominated, along with extraordinary levels of violence and the impunity and silence that allow it to continue. These factors keep ranger and law enforcement ranks mostly male (Castañeda, et al. 2020; Matulis and Moyer 2016; Tallis and Lubchenco 2014; Jones and Solomon 2019a, 2019b; Seager 2021a)

There is limited literature but growing interest in the social inclusion of youth and indigenous peoples in IWT monitoring and enforcement (Cooney et al. 2016b; Escape Foundation 2019). Heavy-handed and indiscriminate enforcement of hunting bans can have unintended negative impacts that are different for indigenous communities, men, and women. Women and vulnerable communities both offer "soft targets" for enforcement. Financial penalties for participation in IWT can force the sale of land to pay fees, and incarceration can result in loss of income for households. Strong responses to wildlife crime disproportionately affect indigenous populations, especially if there is little distinction made between subsistence hunting and profit-driven hunting. Indigenous populations are often perceived as soft targets when compared with more powerful traders

(Cooney et al. 2016a). The resulting stress on communities erodes trust and can undermine motivation to support anti-poaching (Cooney et al. 2016a). Trust can be further eroded if State enforcement to stop poaching by outsiders is not effective or timely, leaving indigenous peoples and local communities (IPLC) rights/stewardship vulnerable (Cooney et al. 2016a). In many cases, indigenous populations distrust and resent conservation authorities (due to the legacy of dispossession of ancestral lands for protected areas, loss of hunting rights, etc.) and have little incentive to protect wildlife (Cooney et al. 2016a).

3.2 FINDINGS FROM KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

The RDW team led KIs with prominent stakeholders in the CWT space. Of the 18 experts the research team reached out to, nine CWT practitioners working on conservation efforts in Southeast Asia responded to requests to be interviewed including five women and four men (see Annex 3 for a list of interviewees and Annex 4 for interview questions).

Some of the dominant themes that emerged from the KIs include the following:

- **There is a need for sex-disaggregated data and/or reporting on sex and traditionally underrepresented groups disaggregated data:** Neither sex nor gender-disaggregated data are consistently collected in research, nor consistently reported on even when it is collected. For example, although the SBCC approach and research data collection methodology indicate the need for sex-disaggregated data capture, it is not consistently applied. Further, even when data is collected it is frequently not then published in reports or presentations.
- **Lack of information on the role of women, men, youth, and indigenous peoples in the supply chain:** Key informants made the point that there is insufficient information regarding the role of actors in the IWT supply chain including men, women, indigenous populations, and other traditionally underrepresented groups. Several informants suggested that it would be important to map where women and men are present in the supply chain, in particular, in retail spaces and the grey economy. For example, women are often couriers in the supply chain, or sometimes listed as “owners” of companies serving as mid-level buyers.
- **Gender and underrepresented groups in laws, policies, and regulations:** There are opportunities to promote gender-specific language in laws and policies, in particular the Chiang Mai statement (see Section 3.4), and to streamline gender and underrepresented groups in government and other stakeholder budgets and activities.
- **Alternative livelihoods to stem supply:** There is insufficient data to analyze the dependence of women on men in IWT and what alternative livelihoods exist to stem supply. Further information is needed on the degree to which IWT consumption is for traditional community use vs. external/ commercial exploitation.
- **Gender in law enforcement:** Key interview informants indicated that female law enforcement officers have become prevalent in Thailand and Indonesia as front-line workers (e.g., customs agents actively intercepting and interrogating suspects) but there is not enough data to understand the gender dynamics of law enforcement by country, nor is there enough research that investigates what specific roles (e.g., intelligence gathering) a country could invest in to support women in this field.
- **The involvement of local NGOs:** Local NGOs are often at the front line of addressing IWT for local species (e.g., various bird species, dugong tusks, and the hornbill bird, which are now being used as replacements for ivory in amulets for example). There is insufficient

research that investigates the role of local organizations and their impact on localized CWT and the role of men, women, youth, and indigenous peoples leading those local organizations.

- **The promotion of women and members of other underrepresented populations in leadership positions:** There is insufficient data on local CWT champions and how to include women and other underrepresented groups into the fold. There is no research focused on the presence or potential for these populations in CWT to change consumer demand or policies. Despite the significant evidence of growing female leadership in the field (e.g., environmental CSOs and NGOs led by women; greater representation in higher level management and technical positions by women in ASEAN and ASEAN member states, etc.). Key Informant Interviews identified a gap in women mentors in the IWT space pointing to the opportunity to leverage existing mechanisms like the Coral Triangle Initiative Women’s Leadership Forum.
- **The role of women as household purchasers:** Key informants emphasized that women often play a significant role in IWT because of their roles as household provisioners; for example, women may be the primary buyers of (wildlife-based) medications. Qualitative research further suggests women make decisions on meat consumption for their families.
- **Appealing to youth:** Some countries, such as Thailand, have a burgeoning youth conservation activism network but there is no research to identify the ways in which youth and youth groups do or could influence policy or consumption, and no evidence of the extent to which male and female “youth” might have different opportunities and challenges in making their voices heard and influence felt.

3.3 GENDER DATA FROM THE USAID WILDLIFE ASIA PROJECT

The USAID Wildlife Asia project implemented activities focused on disrupting international wildlife trafficking by strengthening the regional movement for change (USAID Wildlife Asia 2021a). Since 2016, the project garnered a wealth of data on consumer preferences disaggregated by sex, age, education, and income. USAID Wildlife Asia rolled out three comprehensive research studies on consumer demand in China, Thailand, and Vietnam that shed light on the role of women in the IWT supply chain as economic drivers for this market: *What Drives Demand for Wildlife? A Situation Analysis of Consumer Demand for Wildlife Parts and Products in China, Thailand, and Vietnam based on a Literature Review* (2017); *Consumer Demand for Wildlife Products in Thailand: A Mixed Methods Research Study* (2018); and *Research Study on Consumer Demand for Elephant, Pangolin, Rhino, and Tiger Parts and Products in China* (2018).

These comprehensive and groundbreaking consumer research studies on the demand for ivory, pangolin, rhino, and tiger products in China, Thailand, and Vietnam identify the socio-demographic characteristics of current and potential consumers of each of these products including age, gender, household profile, socio-economic status, along with the drivers underlying consumer demand, and perceived or potential disincentives for their use.

The studies identified that consumption patterns varied among socio-demographic characteristics across countries. The entrenchment of beliefs and attitudes can also vary by gender and wildlife product. For example, the study *Consumer Demand for Ivory and Tiger Products in Thailand* (USAID Wildlife Asia 2018b) shows that women buy ivory products to enhance their beauty, while men buy ivory and tiger products for spiritual reasons. The study further shows that more women than men buying elephant products are considered “diehard buyers” (those for whom attitudes and purchasing intent are deeply entrenched). Spiritual beliefs tied to good luck are a key driver of the ivory and

tiger amulet trade amongst men in Thailand. More males buy/own rhino, pangolin, and tiger products and tend to be diehard buyers of these.

The association of rhino horn with health and virility are key drivers of consumption among men in Vietnam (USAID Wildlife Asia 2017b). In China, gender differences in wildlife consumption are driven by the types of use – whether for gifting, ornamentation, or medicinal purposes, among others (USAID Wildlife Asia 2018c). The study *Research Study on Consumer Demand for Elephant, Pangolin, Rhino, and Tiger Parts and Products in China* provides data on consumer demand and perceptions of social acceptability for elephant ivory, pangolin, rhino, and tiger parts and products by sex age, education and income in China (USAID Wildlife Asia 2018c). Socio-economic differences can influence the desirability of wildlife products and the intention to purchase. Those items that are seen as signifiers of wealth such as ivory jewelry, can drive consumption upwards in demographic groups with greater disposable income. In Thailand, the youth (aged 18-29 years) are less aware of issues surrounding the tiger trade, for example, that products from tiger parts (such as tiger bone wine) can be a source of illness and infection (USAID Wildlife Asia 2018b). In China, those aged 18-30 years use the greatest number of channels when buying ivory products (online, travel for leisure or business, and retail) compared to the other age groups. For this age group, the most important reason for buying ivory products is to cultivate a relationship.

Annex 5 provides details of some of the USAID findings about gender-disaggregated wildlife consumer patterns.

3.4 REVIEW OF GENDER AND SOCIAL INCLUSION IN POLICIES AND GOVERNANCE RELATED TO IWT

ASEAN Member States have undertaken several key steps to acknowledge the importance of the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and gender and social inclusion. All ASEAN Member States have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Member states have declared their commitment to the regional gender-responsive implementation of the ASEAN Community Vision 2025 and Sustainable Development Goals through the 31st ASEAN summit. Per the ASEAN Community Vision 2025, the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community was created, which houses the ASEAN Committee on Women. The committee focuses on the promotion of women's leadership; non-gender stereotyping and social norms change; gender mainstreaming across the three pillars of ASEAN; elimination of violence against women; empowerment of women; and protection and empowerment of women in vulnerable situations (ASEAN 2020). In addition, ASEAN has developed the *ASEAN Gender Outlook*, a report that reviews, among other things, progress towards SDG gender-relevant goals (ASEAN and UN Women 2021).

In addition, the ASEAN Senior Officials on the Environment also made a commitment to adopt gender-related policies. These policies include the ASEAN Community Vision 2025; the three ASEAN Blueprints; the ASEAN Declaration on the Gender Responsive Implementation of the ASEAN Community Vision 2025; and the ASEAN Ministers Meeting on Agriculture and Forestry Approach to Gender Mainstreaming in the Food, Agriculture and Forestry Sectors 2018.

However, although ASEAN countries have committed to promoting gender equality through legislation and policy reform, there often is no direct link between the gender inequality and natural resource governance. At the national governance level, women are underrepresented in public decision-making bodies across the Mekong region. Only 20 percent of parliamentary seats are

occupied by women across ASEAN countries (ASEAN 2021b). Parliamentary policy-making decisions on natural resource management are mostly made without diverse representation.

Gender generally has not yet been integrated into natural resource governance laws and policies across ASEAN. The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), which is almost universally ratified, including by all ASEAN countries, became the first multilateral environmental agreement to have a Gender Plan of Action. The CBD Gender Plan expects each country to develop an Environment and Gender Information platform analysis; a review of the Sixth National Reports of the CBD (a set of documents reporting progress covering the period of 2014-2018) for each ASEAN country and China¹ shows that gender references are generally lacking. While gender was referenced more frequently in the Sixth Report than in prior Reports, it is still the case that gender across countries is not systematically prioritized and, in many cases, barely addressed.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has noted an increased focus on the vulnerabilities of legal and regulatory frameworks in Southeast Asia and the need for multi-agency and multi-country coordination for law enforcement to share information, strengthen courts, and identify and address corruption entry points (OECD 2019). Moreover, through annual wildlife crime reporting by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC 2021), there is good data that comprehensively analyzes the flow of illegal wildlife trafficking by product, country destination, price, and seizures. However, UNODC acknowledges “very little is known about the specific roles of women and men in wildlife crime and more research efforts should be placed on understanding the gender dynamics of the illegal wildlife trade. If enforcement agents are making assumptions about gendered aspects of wildlife crime, they could be missing opportunities for seizures and arrests, and the policy and programming communities could be missing opportunities to design tailored interventions that would foster sustainable success.” (UNODC 2021, p. 24)

There is a notable absence of women’s voices, experience, and knowledge in natural resource governance. The capacity of women to participate in decision-making related to natural resource governance is restricted by institutional and societal barriers (e.g., gender discrimination in hiring practices for positions perceived as “male” such as law enforcement officers) that limit gender-inclusive access to training, employment, and leadership positions. This may be made worse by the common lived experiences of many women that limit their role to household and domestic labor with only informal or insecure roles in resource value chains (Mekong for the Future 2021).

At the global level, there is new progress in integrating gender into IWT policies: on July 23, 2021, the United Nations General Assembly adopted *Resolution 75/311: Tackling Illicit Trafficking in Wildlife*, which focuses on the importance of transforming the illegal wildlife trade to meet the UN’s 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This pivotal resolution also recognizes the universal importance of incorporating gender as part of CWT programming and calls out the full and effective participation and equal opportunities for the leadership of women in this space (UN General Assembly 2021). This call to

Gender and Social Inclusion references in *United Nations General Assembly Resolution 75/311, Tackling Illicit Trafficking in Wildlife (2021)*

23. Calls upon Member States to ensure **the full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership of women** in the development and implementation of relevant policies and programs addressing illicit wildlife trafficking, and further calls upon United Nations agencies to **continue ensuring systematic gender mainstreaming** into all policies and programs of the United Nations system.
24. Encourages Member States to increase the **capacity of local communities** to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities, including from their local wildlife resources, and eradicate poverty, by promoting, inter alia, innovative partnerships for conserving wildlife through shared management responsibilities, including community conservancies, public-private partnerships, sustainable tourism, revenue-sharing agreements, and other income sources, such as sustainable agriculture.

¹ ASEAN Centre For Biodiversity, <https://asean.chm-cbd.net/implementation/reports>

action highlights the importance of bringing women to the forefront of transforming this sector, which underpins the UN's SDG focused on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls (Goal 5), and the SDG to protect, restore, and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss (Goal 15).

Many of the relevant global and regional IWT mandates do not mention gender nor are they fully responsive to the evolving gender considerations in this field. Through the key informant interviews, stakeholders have also identified the need for a gender analysis to further understand the gender gaps in UN, ASEAN, and country policies. Regional IWT policy mandates are listed below:

- ASEAN Statement on CITES, 2004
- Formation of ASEAN Wildlife Enforcement Network, 2005
- 33rd ASEAN Inter-Parliamentary Assembly General Assembly in Lombok, Indonesia
- UN Economic and Social Council, 2013
- East Asia Declaration, 2013
- 22nd Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Economic Leaders' Meeting, 2014
- National Police Organization for the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2014
- London Declaration on IWT 2014
- Senior Officials Meeting on Transnational Crime, 2015
- Hanoi Declaration on IWT, 2016
- ASEAN Inter-Parliamentary Assembly, 2017
- Special ASEAN Ministerial Meeting on IWT, Chiang Mai Statement, 2019

As the Mekong for the Future's *GESI Analysis of Natural Resource Governance in the Greater Mekong Region* (2021) indicates, "At the regional level, ASEAN bodies that promote women's rights and gender-responsive policies are active, but ASEAN principles of non-interference and lack of legally binding obligations make enforcement weak" (p. 9). It further reflects that "Laws and policies do not challenge or change patriarchal structures that prevent women and other marginalized groups from effectively enjoying their rights, within natural resource governance or otherwise" (p. 9). Even though at the national level, countries may have relevant laws protecting women's rights and policies to promote gender equality and social inclusion including non-discrimination laws, the structures that impede their implementation and enforcement continue to be in place. Across the region, bureaucratic resistance, lack of budgetary allocations, limited human resources, the deficiency of monitoring systems, and lack of enforcement mechanisms result in gender integration practices that are often inconsistently applied and superficial. For example, in ASEAN Member States, data is available for only 41 percent of gender-related SDG indicators (ASEAN 2021b).

Gender-equal land tenure policies and laws are critical for engaging women in managing conservation resources, including their participation in IWT (Seager 2021a). Clear land tenure and use rights are important to reassure indigenous peoples /communities that forests won't be given away to powerful people through economic and land concessions and incentivizes participation in CWT. In Cambodia, a movement to create Indigenous and Community Conserved Areas that legally recognize indigenous land claims and engage indigenous peoples in voluntary ecosystem protection provides a model for indigenous peoples' engagement (IUCN Sustainable Use and Livelihoods Specialist Group (SULi) 2017; People Not Poaching 2018).

The *ASEAN Gender Mainstreaming Strategic Framework 2021-2025 (2021)* is a significant step forward in systematically addressing gender considerations across all sectoral bodies and the three ASEAN pillars (ASEAN 2021a). It is rooted in the *ASEAN Declaration on the Gender-Responsive Implementation of the ASEAN Community Vision 2025 and Sustainable Development Goals (2017a)*. While the environment, conservation, and natural resources management are not explicitly discussed, the broadly encompassing scope of both documents calls for integration in all sectors and levels which includes the IWT space. The Framework recognizes, “Inequality is a growing issue in the ASEAN region and the COVID-19 pandemic and the climate and ecological emergency has further marginalized already poor groups, with the brunt of the economic and environmental impacts disproportionately felt by women and girls” (p. 5).

Although policies are increasingly referencing indigenous peoples as critical stakeholders, basic data on such groups is not systematically collected and formal recognition of these groups is mixed at best making tangible action challenging. According to the International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs, “Two-thirds of the approximately 370 million indigenous peoples in the world live in Asia but no accurate data is available on the population of indigenous peoples in the ASEAN region as few Member States consider their indigenous identities, which are, therefore, not taken into account in national censuses” (IWGIA website).

As a result of a lack of definition and population data for indigenous peoples, explicit reference to indigenous groups in environmental policy in ASEAN is limited. For example, the ASEAN Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights (AICHR) is the core human rights mechanism of ASEAN. Created in 2009, its primary function is to interpret provisions and ensure the implementation of the ASEAN Human Rights Declaration (AHRD), which was adopted in 2012. The AHRD, however, does not make any direct reference to “Indigenous Peoples” (IWGIA 2018).

However, the 40th ASEAN Ministerial Meeting on Agriculture and Forestry (AMAF) bucks the trend in its *Guidelines on Promoting Responsible Investment in Food, Agriculture and Forestry*, adopted in October 2018. The Guidelines explicitly reference the roles and rights of indigenous peoples throughout and reflect key elements of other international conventions and policies. This includes the *International Labor Organization Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention No. 169 (1989)*, which calls for “Governments shall ensure that, whenever appropriate, studies are carried out, in co-operation with the peoples concerned, to assess the social, spiritual, cultural and environmental impact on them of planned development activities. The results of these studies shall be considered as fundamental criteria for the implementation of these activities.” The Guidelines further reflect the *United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP) (2007)* which recognizes the role of indigenous peoples in environmental management and rights to protection of their lands, territories, and resources. The Guide also highlights the importance for member states to uphold indigenous peoples’ right to free, prior, and informed consent.

National-level laws and policies targeting youth across the ASEAN region are widespread reflecting the recognition of the importance of youth as a demographic and their agency. All ASEAN countries have youth-related legislation and policies; however, data on the impacts of policies is limited as are specific references to youth and matters of environmental conservation, resources, and management.

The ASEAN Senior Officials Meeting on Youth led the process of the development of the *First ASEAN Youth Development Index* which was published in 2017. The Index (ASEAN 2017b) includes a scoring system for ASEAN countries on multiple dimensions including education; health and wellbeing; employment and opportunity; and participation and engagement. It takes the further step

of addressing the dimension of the environment specifically through the goal, “Promote cooperation on environmental management towards sustainable use of ecosystems and natural resources through environmental education, community engagement, and public outreach, which systematically involve and targeted the youth (p. 74). The *ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Blueprint 2025* (ASEAN 2016) outlines Strategic Measures to “Enhance regional platforms to promote equitable opportunities, participation and effective engagement of women, children, youths, the elderly/older persons, persons with disabilities, people living in remote and border areas, and vulnerable groups in the development and implementation of ASEAN policies and programmes” (p. 7). Interestingly neither document makes reference to indigenous peoples.

As highlighted, reference to women, youth, indigenous peoples, and other traditionally unrepresented groups in legislation and policies across ASEAN, though growing, is inconsistent, poorly defined, and continues to exclude key populations. References to these groups with regard to environmental and conservation legislation and policies are very limited. Reference with relation to IWT is almost non-existent as are considerations of intersectionality.

4 KNOWLEDGE GAPS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 GAPS AND NEEDS

Analysis of the current data reflects several specific information and knowledge gaps on gender and social inclusion in the CWT space that provide opportunities for further research and action. These include:

DEMAND REDUCTION

- Analysis of family and community dynamics to understand how roles and norms (gender, age, socio-economic status, etc. and their intersectionality) influence trafficking or consumption of wildlife products including for livelihoods, health, spiritual beliefs, etc.

ILLEGAL WILDLIFE TRAFFICKING SUPPLY

- Supply chain analysis to determine where and how individuals with different identities (gender, age, ethnicity) are actors in the illegal wildlife trafficking supply chain including serving as middle-men and grey-washing roles.
- Further understand the specific roles played by men and women, and how the economic and social practices that constitute the supply chain are gendered.
- Analysis of front-line and indigenous community drivers in IWT supply including opportunities for alternative livelihoods.

ADJUDICATION/ENFORCEMENT CHAIN

- Analysis of environmental, conservation, and other related legislation and policies addressing gender and social inclusion that are relevant to CWT efforts that can be referenced or applied as models.
- Analysis of implementation and enforcement gaps for existing policy and legislation related to gender and social inclusion in environment/conservation and corrective measures.
- Analysis of gaps and opportunities in CWT policy and legislation and opportunities to incorporate gender and social inclusion considerations.
- Analysis of involvement and engagement of women and minority groups along the justice chain including legislators, policymakers, the judiciary, and law enforcement.

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

- Research on how women and traditionally underrepresented populations including youth and indigenous peoples are involved and engaged with environmental, conservation, and CWT NGOs/CSOs in Southeast Asia.
- Research on women's roles in the private sector including leadership roles to influence environmental and conservation efforts.
- Southeast Asia's CWT program has not tapped into the potential for civic participation by CSOs, formal business networks, youth groups, environmental activism, and community-led conservation. Research is needed to identify how women, youth, and front-line workers (e.g., park rangers, customs agents, etc.) can affirm their roles as agents of change and help

elevate Southeast Asia's CWT agenda into a thriving regional movement that aligns with its regional coordination efforts and adjudication efforts

4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GIDAP CONSIDERATION

The primary goal of this GESI analysis is to identify key gender and social inclusion dimensions of IWT in the ASEAN region including knowledge and information gaps to enable the development of a Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan (GIDAP) for USAID RDW. While the potential gender and social inclusion findings and considerations are many as are the knowledge gaps, the researchers have identified several opportunities to advance gender and social inclusion goals towards the activity's two main objectives: reducing demand for wildlife products through social and behavior change communication campaigns, and reducing supply through rational, comprehensive regulatory and enforcement systems.

Interventions for consideration and incorporation in the RDW GIDAP include the following:

- Undertake consistent reporting and presentation of demographic data. Although data is regularly collected as part of consumer research to inform SBCC campaigns, it is not consistently presented and reported on. Regular and consistent presentation of data by RDW in reports, debriefs, etc. would promote the practice as a norm among CWT practitioners.
- Highlight gender analysis as part of the SBCC situation analysis process. Gender and demographic analysis are an integral part of the SBCC methodology; however, their importance and implications can be elevated as part of the process to advance SBCC as a pillar of CWT.
- Challenge gender norms, roles, and stereotypes as part of SBCC campaigns. Campaigns and communications materials present an opportunity to promote gender equity and equality by increasing the visibility of women, youth, minorities, and vulnerable groups as well as challenging norms and assumptions. The rise of social media and other alternative media platforms provides an immense opportunity to engage youth in knowledge sharing and capacity development activities.
- Raise awareness of gender and social inclusion with counterparts. There is significant opportunity to raise awareness of the need for gender and social inclusion with the range of stakeholders in the demand reduction and policy-enforcement-adjudication space. Consistent messaging will elevate the importance of the issue and increase opportunities to mobilize resources and action. Effective engagement of indigenous peoples means giving them a voice and a seat at the planning and decision-making table, and takes time and one-on-one relationship building to overcome a history of distrust (Cooney et al. 2016a).
- Advance data collection on the roles and opportunities for engagement of women, youth, indigenous peoples, and other underrepresented groups in the CWT space as a function of RDW's planned research activities.
- Promote gender and social inclusion as a standard practice across all program planning and implementation of activities.
- Promote gender and social inclusion as part of monitoring, evaluation, and learning. Consistent presentation of data and reporting on gender and minority/other demographic will enable RDW to serve as a model and promote the practice as standard in the CWT community.

ANNEX I: KEY DEFINITIONS

Gender Analysis is a socio-economic analysis of available or gathered quantitative and qualitative information to identify, understand, and explain gaps between women and men, which typically involves examining:

- differences in the status of women and men and their differential access to and control over assets, resources, education, opportunities, and services;
- the influence of gender roles, structural barriers, and norms on the division of time between paid employment, unpaid work (including subsistence production and care for family members), and volunteer activities;
- the influence of gender roles, structural barriers, and norms on leadership roles and decision-making; constraints, opportunities, and entry points for narrowing gender gaps and empowering women; and
- differential impacts of development policies and programs on men and women, including unintended or negative consequences.

Gender Analysis also includes conclusions and recommendations to enable development policies and programs to narrow gender gaps and improve the lives of women and girls (USAID 2020a).

Gender Equality is the state in which women, girls, men, and boys have equal access to opportunities, resources, benefits, and legal protections, and which recognizes their equal, inherent human dignity, worth, and unalienable rights (USAID 2020a).

Gender Equity: means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different, but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations, and opportunities (UNICEF 2017). Gender equity is the means to achieve gender equality.

Women's Empowerment refers to activities toward achieving a state in which women have the ability to act freely in society, exercise their rights equally to those of men, and fulfill their potential as equal members of society, such as in determining their life outcomes, assuming leadership roles, and influencing decision-making in their households, communities, and societies (USAID 2020a).

Gender Integration: The process of identifying and addressing inequalities between women and men during the creation of USAID's strategies, the design of all projects and activities, and their implementation, monitoring, and evaluation (USAID 2020a).

Gender Integration Continuum. A continuum exists for gender integration and mainstreaming, which includes the following:

- *Gender Blind.* Gender-blind policies and programs are designed without a prior analysis of the culturally defined set of economic, social, and political roles, responsibilities, rights, entitlements, obligations, and power relations associated with being female and male and the dynamics between and among men and women, boys and girls. For example, a gender-blind project ignores gender considerations altogether.
- *Gender Aware.* Gender-aware policies and programs examine and address the set of economic, social, and political roles, responsibilities, rights, entitlements, obligations, and power relations associated with being female and male and the dynamics between and among men and women, boys and girls.

- *Exploitative Gender Programming.* Gender-exploitative policies and programs are those that intentionally or unintentionally reinforce or take advantage of gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of project outcomes or those whose approach exacerbates inequalities. Such an approach is harmful and can undermine the objectives of a program in the long run.
- *Accommodating Gender Program.* These are policies and programs that acknowledge but work around gender differences and inequalities to achieve project objectives. Although this approach may result in short-term benefits and the realization of outcomes, it does not attempt to reduce gender inequality or address the gender systems that contribute to differences and inequalities.
- *Transformative Gender Programming.* Transformative policies and programs seek to transform gender relations to promote equality and achieve program objectives. Such an approach attempts to promote gender equality by:
 - fostering critical examination of inequalities and gender roles, norms, and dynamics;
 - recognizing and strengthening positive norms that support equality and an enabling environment;
 - promoting the relative position of women, girls, and marginalized groups; and
 - transforming the underlying social structures, policies, and broadly held social norms that perpetuate gender inequalities (USAID Bureau for Global Health’s Interagency Gender Working Group 2017, The Gender Integration Continuum).

Gender Discrimination is any exclusion or restriction made on the basis of gender roles and relations that prevents a person from enjoying full human rights.

Sex-Disaggregated Data pertains to data that is broken down by sex. These data are collected and analyzed separately for men and women. Disaggregation typically involves asking “who” questions: who provides labor, who makes the decisions, and who owns and controls the land and other resources.

Gender-Disaggregated Data means asking survey respondents for information on their gender identity in a multinomial, rather than binary way (Colaço and Watson-Grant 2020). Some gender categories researchers can collect, in addition to cisgender male and cisgender female, include:

- Transgender female/trans female/male-to-female
- Transgender male/trans male/female-to-male
- Nonbinary/genderqueer/gender nonconforming
- Other

“For societies to thrive, women and girls must have equitable and safe access to resources, such as education, health care, capital, technology, land, markets, and justice. They also must have equal rights and opportunities as business owners, peacebuilders, and leaders. Equality between women, girls, men, and boys improves the overall quality of life for all people across their lifespans.”

USAID’s Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment Policy 2020

ANNEX 2: GUIDING RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Discussions with USAID/RDMA, study of the literature, and review of RDW objectives and expected results led to the formation of a set of guiding research questions that RDW will seek to collect data on and address as part of its ongoing research efforts.

1. What is the current understanding of the differentiated nature of participation along the dimensions of gender, youth, indigenous populations, and other traditionally underrepresented groups in the illegal wildlife trade particularly in Southeast Asia? What are existing knowledge gaps?
2. What are the key considerations that CWT should address in demand reduction along the dimensions of gender, youth, indigenous populations, and other traditionally underrepresented groups?
3. What are the key considerations that CWT should address in supply chain and policy-enforcement-adjudication chain along the dimensions of gender, youth, indigenous populations, and other traditionally underrepresented groups?
4. What are the key research gaps and opportunities for in CWT and for RDW in particular along the dimensions of gender, youth, indigenous populations, and other traditionally underrepresented groups?
5. What are actions that RDW could undertake to promote gender equality and social inclusion during the life of the activity?

ANNEX 3: LIST OF KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWEES

The following is a list of individuals the GESI Analysis team reached out to for interviews. Nine people were available for interviews.

	NAME	POSITION	ORGANIZATION	INTERVIEWED
1	Eleanora De Guzman	Team Lead, SBCC/Demand Reduction	USAID Reducing Demand for Wildlife	Yes
2	Grace Gabriel	Asia Regional Director	International Fund for Animal Welfare	Yes
3	Steve Galster	Chairman	Freeland	
4	Kanitha Krishnasamy	Director for Southeast Asia	TRAFFIC	
5	Dr. Theresa Mundita S. Lim	Executive Director	ASEAN Center for Biodiversity	
6	Georgina Lloyd	Regional Coordinator Asia and the Pacific of Environmental Law and Governance	UNEP	
7	Rabia Mushtaq	Communications Specialist	WildAid	Yes
8	Natalie Phaholyothin	CEO	WWF Thailand	
9	Dr. Klairoong Poonpon	Director of CITES Implementation and Monitoring	Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation	Yes
10	Dian Sukmajaya	Senior Officer	ASEAN Secretariat	
11	Dhannan Sunoto	Deputy Chief of Party	USAID PROSPECT	Yes
12	Jedsada Taweekan	Regional Illegal Wildlife Trade Program Manager	WWF Thailand	
13	Sallie Yang	Policy Lead	USAID Reducing Demand for Wildlife	Yes
14	Dararat Weerapong	Senior Project Manager	TRAFFIC	
15	Bui Thi Ha	Vice Director and Head of Policy and Legislation Department, ENV Vietnam	ENV Vietnam	
16	Chotika Arintchai	Senior Customs Inspector/Liaison Officer on Wildlife Enforcement	Customs, Thailand	Yes
17	Peter Collier	Chief of Party, USAID Wildlife Asia	RTI International	Yes
18	Sulma Warne	Senior Technical Advisor, USAID Wildlife Asia	RTI International	Yes

ANNEX 4: KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

During the interviews with nine key informants, the GESI team asked the following questions:

1. How can gender stereotypes and norms contribute to procurement of illegal wildlife products (e.g., procurement of rhino horn for virility)?
2. What are the opportunities to counter these stereotypes and norms in campaigns?
3. What role do women and traditionally underrepresented groups play in the trafficking chain, and where are they most present?
4. At the intersection where illegal wildlife products enter the market, where are women and other traditionally underrepresented groups most present? Examples of these entry points include: restaurants serving wildlife; pet trade vendors; pharmacies; souvenirs shops; jewelry stores; online shops
5. Do current laws, policies, and agreements address gender and social inclusion considerations?
6. Regarding reducing demand for wildlife, what are the barriers to a thriving regional movement of women-led, youth-led, indigenous-led organizations that hold an equal place in decision-making on natural resource governance, an equal place to government, an equal place to the private sector?
7. How can we address these barriers?

ANNEX 5: USAID DATA FINDINGS

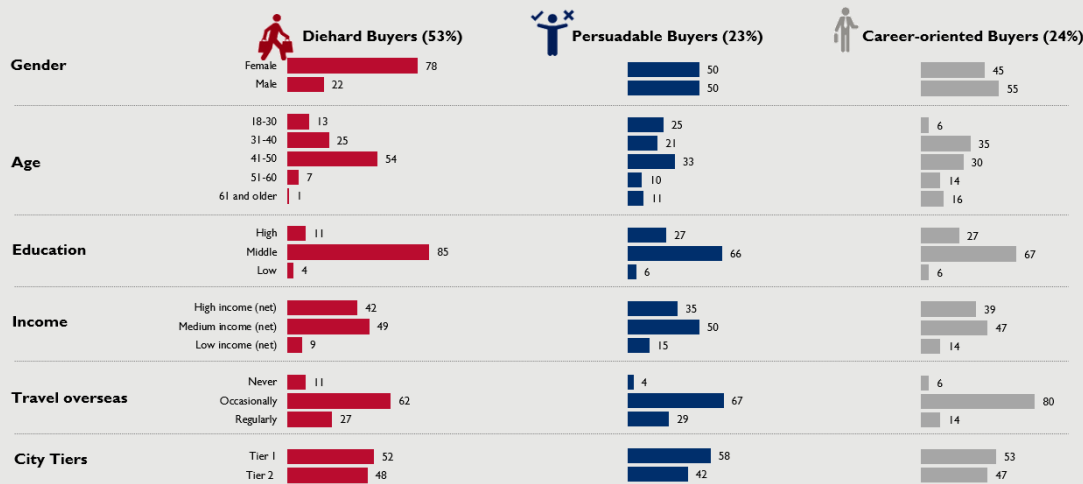
CONSUMER DEMAND PROFILES FOR WILDLIFE PRODUCTS IN CHINA

The figures below show consumer demand by demographic segments, including gender, for ivory, rhino horn, pangolin, and tiger products in China in 2018.

Segmentation – Profile of Elephant Buyers’ Segments in China Among those who have ever bought elephant parts and/or products



There are distinct segments of buyers of elephant parts and/or products. The Diehard Buyers are skewed toward females aged 41-50, while Career-oriented Buyers are skewed toward younger males.

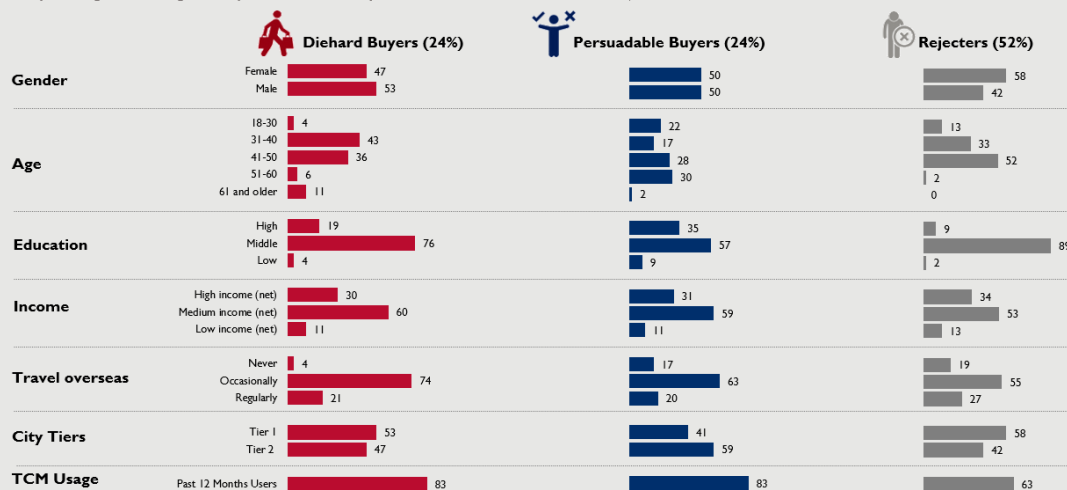


S1. City, S2. Age, S3. Gender, S4. Income, S5. Education, Q27. Travel behavior – **Weighted data**
Base: Ever Elephant Buyers and Past 12 Months Elephant Buyers, n=207 in six selected cities

Segmentation – Profile of Rhino Buyers’ Segments in China Among those who have ever bought rhino parts and/or products



Rhino buyers’ segments are gender-specific; Diehard Buyers tend to be more male, while Rejecters are more females.



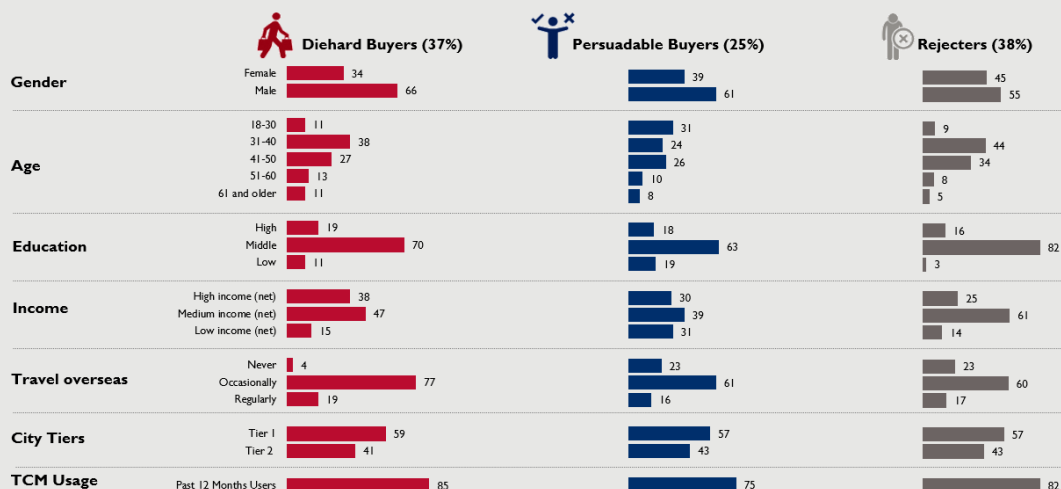
S1. City, S2. Age, S3. Gender, S4. Income, S5. Education, Q27. Travel behavior – **Weighted data**
Base: Ever Rhino Buyers and Past 12 Months Rhino Buyers, n=189 in six selected cities

Segmentation – Profile of Pangolin Buyers' Segments in China

Among those who have ever bought pangolin parts and/or products



Diehard Buyers are skewed toward male and the 31-50 age group, while the Persuadable Buyers are younger, with one in three of them being a millennial.



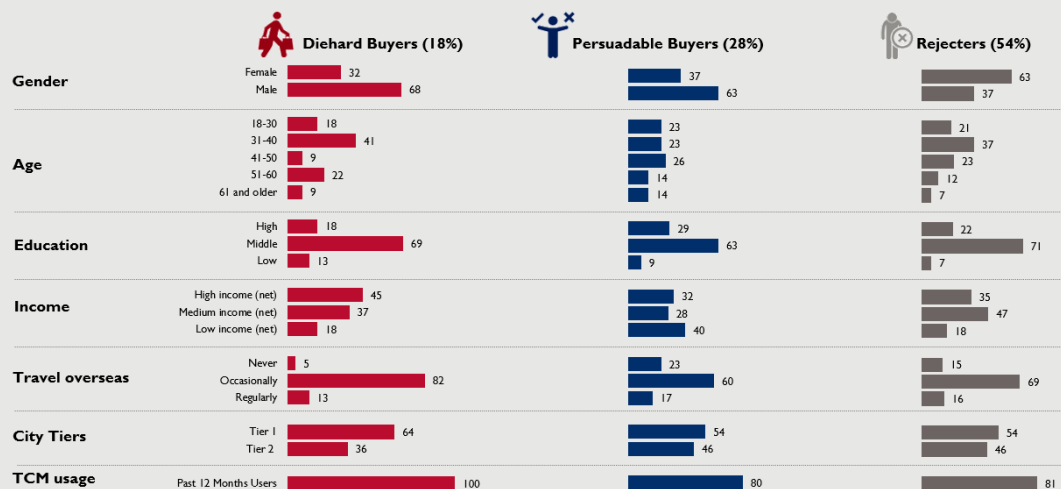
S1. City, S2. Age, S3. Gender, S4. Income, S5. Education, Q27. Travel behavior – **Weighted data**
 Base: Ever Pangolin Buyers and Past 12 Months Pangolin Buyers, n=195 in six selected cities

Segmentation – Profile of Tiger Buyers' Segments

Among those who have ever bought tiger parts and/or products



Tiger buyers' segments are gender-specific. Diehard Buyers tend to be more male, aged 31-40, while Rejecters are more females.



S1. City, S2. Age, S3. Gender, S4. Income, S5. Education, Q27. Travel behavior – **Weighted data**
 Base: Ever Tiger Buyers and Past 12 Months Tiger Buyers, n=122 in six selected cities

CONSUMER DEMAND PROFILES FOR WILDLIFE PRODUCTS IN THAILAND

The figures below show consumer demand by demographic segments, including gender, for ivory and tiger products in Thailand in 2018.

USER PROFILES - THAILAND

The users/intenders are skewed towards middle-to-older age segment and the affluent. Ivory receivers and purchase intenders are skewed towards females while tiger purchasers/users are skewed towards males.

	Non-Users	Ivory Purchasers	Ivory Receivers	Ivory Purchase Intenders	Tiger Purchaser/users
Base:	923	179	55	488	116
Region					
Bangkok	38	33	54	32	41
North	10	16	15	17	13
North East	19	16	13	16	14
Central	19	17	12	18	14
South	14	18	5	17	17
Gender					
Male	50	51	44	48	76
Female	50	49	56	52	24

	Non-Users	Ivory Purchasers	Ivory Receivers	Ivory Purchase Intenders	Tiger Purchaser/users
Base:	923	179	55	488	116
Age					
18-24	17	1	2	2	3
25-29	25	12	20	15	14
30-39	25	41	31	39	34
40-49	20	33	36	31	35
50-64	12	13	11	12	14
Income					
A	20	52	58	53	57
B	14	25	27	22	17
C	66	23	15	25	26

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