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Women's Representation in Local Government in Asia-Pacific Status Report 2010

Going beyond National Targets in Monitoring Status for MDG 3 on Women's Political Empowerment









FOREWORD

The 4th World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995 resulted in global consensus on the need to take concrete action to improve the position of, and opportunities for, women across society and in every sphere of government.

Local governments are in a unique position to contribute to the global struggle for gender equality by improving the status of women around the world. Local Governments are the level of governance closest to the citizens and as service providers and employers have an important role in creating the conditions that encourage women's political participation. In November 1998 a worldwide association of local governments declared the commitment of local governments across the globe in making equal the number of women and men in decision-making bodies at all levels and in all policy areas. Without an equal representation of women and men, true democratic local government will not be realised.

This commitment came to fruition at Beijing +10 (the ten-year review and appraisal of the Beijing Platform for Acton carried out in 2005), where many of the statements delivered by governments and United Nations agencies highlighted achievements at the local level. Importantly for gender equality, women's role in politics was prioritized and it was recommended that women's political participation at the local level becomes an indicator in measuring achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

It is indeed our pleasure to share with you this first ever status report on Women's Representation in Local Government in the Asia Pacific which aims to deepen the understanding of progress made towards the Millenium Development Goal 3, *Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women*, by introducing a sub-national measure of women's political representation.

This status report will form a baseline measure of women's representation in local government in Asia Pacific on a country by country basis, and it is planned to be updated every year until 2015 to support the national, regional and global status assessment and dialogue on the achievement of MDG 3.

This status report is a product of the partnership of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM, part of UN Women), United Cities and Local Government Asia Pacific (UCLG ASPAC) and the Commonwealth Local Government Forum (CLGF). The partnership of participating institutions aims to effectively put the Millennium Declaration commitment on women's representation in sub-national government on the national, regional and global agenda.

It is our hope that this status report will be found as informative and useful document, and would support the achivement of MDG Goal 3, *Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women*, within the Asia Pacific region.



Dr. Fauzi Bowo President United Cities and Local Governments Asia Pacific (UCLG ASPAC), Governor of Jakarta Capital City Government

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HOW TO USE THIS STATUS REPORT

The first ever status report on Women's Representation in Local Government in the Asia Pacific has one basic objective:

To deepen the understanding of progress made towards the Millennium Development Goal 3, Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women, by introducing a subnational measure of women's political representation

To this end, the Status Report will form a baseline measure of women's representation in sub-national government in the Asia Pacific on a country by country basis. It uses horizontal bar charts and tables to illustrate a snapshot of this data as of October 2010 and it is planned that the Status Report will be updated every year until 2015 to support the national, regional and global status assessment and dialogue on the achievement of MDG 3. The Status Report is **not** intended to distil the wider lessons on women's subnational political empowerment and what societal, institutional and individual factors limit or empower women's representation in local government.

It is hoped that the Status Report on Women's Representation in Local Government

will be utilized by senior policy-makers, local governments and their associations, advocates, UN agencies and other government and non-government partners to promote women's political participation in achieving the MDGs and other national and international commitments on gender equality.

All data was collected through the United Nations Development Programe (UNDP) Country Offices, the Commenwealth Local Government Forum (CLGF) and the United Cities and Local Governments Asia Pacific (UCLG ASPAC). It represents broader efforts by UNDP, the United Nations Development Fund for Women, now part of UN Women (UNIFEM), CLGF and UCLG ASPAC to support policy makers and non-state partners in the Asia Pacific in identifying the links between representation and accountability. In particular it draws on information from the First and Second Edition's of the Local Democracy Practitioners Guide 'Designing Inclusive and Accountable Local Democratic Institutions (UNDP 2008 and 2010), which present thematic issues on the frameworks for representation in the Asia Pacific with local electoral processes and representation arrangements for councils detailed for 22 countries.

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ABBREVIATIONS

APHDR Asia Pacific Human Development Report

BPfA Beijing Platform for Action

CLGF Commonwealth Local Government Forum

FPTP First past the post

ICCPR International Covenant on Civil and Poltical Rights

LG Local Government

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

PR Proportional Representation

UCLG ASPAC. United Cities and Local Governments Asia Pacific

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNIFEM _____United Nations Development Fund for Women

INTRODUCTION

More Asia Pacific countries than ever before have elected local governments and national parliaments. Despite the progress made in establishing democratic institutions in the Asia Pacific, women continue to participate unequally both as voters and as candidates. Equality of opportunity in politics is a human right. Despite international efforts to strengthen the conduct of free and fair elections throughout the world, insufficient attention and resources have been devoted to addressing the gap between male and female political participation.

This is despite the UN Millennium Declaration that in 2000 (reiterated at the September Summit 2010) commited nations to a global partnership in achieving eight time-bound targets called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, including a specific goal (MDG3) on promoting gender equality and empowering women. MDG 3 supports the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) which in 1995 also commited governments to advance the goals of equality, development and peace for all women around the world, and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Agaisnt Women (CEDAW) which states in Article 7 that:

"States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right: (a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies; (b) To participate in

the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government; (c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country"¹

It is CEDAW that provides the norms and standards for MDG 3's time-bound and measurable targets which are accompanied by indicators for monitoring progress and informing national development strategies. For this goal the indicator with direct relevance to ensuring equitable political participation is indictaor 3.3 which monitors progress through the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.

While the MDGs are necessarily limited in scope, the focus for this indicator at the national level ignores three major aspects of the quest to ensure that women have, on equal terms, the right to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies:

(1) The barriers to women's participation and the patterns of actual representation at sub-national government tiers are in most countries very different from those surrounding national parliaments. In addition the barriers across different levels of sub-national government can vary depending on whether they are urban, rural, intermediary or provincial.

¹ Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/ cedaw.htm

- (2) For most people in Asia and the Pacific, local governments are far more important arenas for matters having a direct impact on their livelihoods than national parliaments, especially when local governments are responsible for the delivery of key services;
- (3) Depending on the country, sub-national governments are the political arenas where the majority of women are likely to have greater numerical opportunities to compete. For example, if you combine these positions across the Pacific only (excluding the French Territories) there are over 7000 positions.

By not measuring the percentage of women represented in sub-national governments with any MDG target, national strategies risk ignoring one of the most important arenas for women's political participation. As part of the Millennium Project, the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality has identified increasing women's share of seats in national and local government bodies, as one of the seven strategic priorities needed to achieve MDG 3 on gender equality². To this end, the Task Force proposed the inclusion of an indicator (additional to the numbers of women in national parliament) on the percentage of seats held by women in local government bodies.

The local governments, through their national associations and global umbrella body, have expressed their commitment to the development, promotion and support of gender equality. The International Union of Local Authorities (IULA) sets out its Worldwide Declaration on Women in Local Government³

It is on this basis that the first ever status report on Women's Representation in Local Government in the Asia Pacific⁴ has been developed. This will contribute to the monitoring of the achievement of MDG 3 with the objective of deepening the understanding of the progress made towards goals set within the Millennium Declaration at all levels of government and all other commitments on gender equality, including international human rights obligations under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) CEDAW and BPfA.

² http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/reports/tf_gender. htm

³ http://www.iula-int.org/iula/policies/women.asp

⁴ Whereas the first will capture all sub-national levels (i.e. both local and regional/provincial/state government) the reference to 'local government' will be used.

What shapes women's political participation and representation?

ender differences in representation Jcan be roughly broken down into institutional and societal constraints. While each effects the eventual representation of women in councils and parliaments in many countries these effects are likely to be intertwined. This is because the societal environment that helps to define the political system usually has a direct bearing on the type of institutional design adopted and implemented (eq. political decisions made on the type of electoral system or the adoption of affirmative action policies). The role both institutional and societal factors play in influencing women's political representation is outlined briefly below.

Institutional constraints

Institutional factors refer to the laws and various formal arrangements that guide the mechanics of governance and political participation. Institutional factors that limit representative participation include the type of electoral system and how women's representation is outlined in a country's or political party's constitution or legal framework. This includes the rules and procedures through which candidates are selected or votes are cast in an election, and in turn helps to determine the extent to which local decision-making bodies are genuinely democratic, inclusive and gender-sensitive. Several elements of the institutitonal design have a major impact on women's opportunities to stand for election and to be elected.

Electoral System

Comparative research on electoral systems has established that a critical factor for women's representation is often whether the electoral system has single member constituencies where only one candidate is elected from an electoral unit, or multi member constituencies where several candidates are elected per electoral unit. This distinction corresponds quite well although not perfectly with the distinction between First Past the Post (FPTP)/ simple majority systems of elections and Proportional Representation (PR) systems. Briefly, in FPTP/simple majority systems the winner is the candidate or party with the most votes and typically there is only a single winner in each electoral unit. In proportional systems the electoral unit is generally larger and the system is designed to ensure that the overall votes for a party or coalition are translated into a corresponding proportion of seats in the legislature. If a party wins 20% of votes, it should get approx 20% of the seats in that electoral unit. All PR systems use multi member districts⁵.

According to worldwide data women have a slightly greater advantage under PR systems rather than under FPTP/simple majority systems. A cross comparative study of 24 established democracies conducted by International IDEA shows that there has been substantial and consistent divergence

Matland, R.E. (2005) "Enhancing Women's Political Participation: Legislative Recruitment and Electoral Systems" in Women in Parliament: Beyond Numbers, 2nd edition (ed.) Azza Karam and Julie Ballington, Stockholm, Sweden: IDEA Publishing.

in women's representation across electoral systems since the 1970s. According to this study, by 2004, the percentage of women in national legislatures in countries using a simple majority system was 18.24%, whereas in countries using a PR system it was 27.49%. Although this status report does not specifically investigate this issue at a subnational level it is assumed that the processes associated with PR and FPTP electoral systems result in similar results at a sub-national level. Annex 6 details electoral systems in place in the Asia Pacific.

Direct vs. Indirect Elections

A direct election is a term describing a system of choosing political office holders in which the voters directly cast ballots for the person, persons or political party that they desire to see elected. An indirect election is a process in which voters in an election do not actually choose between candidates for an office but rather elect persons who will then make the choice.

Members of councils above the lowest tier can be directly elected or indirectly elected from among the ranks of members at lower levels. Whether or not direct elections are held for all levels of Local Government (LG) varies from country to country. In South Asia they are held in India, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh (direct election of *Upazila Parishads* re-enacted in January 2009). In Pakistan the higher levels of local administration are indirectly elected through an Electoral College system, with lower-level council members constituting the Electoral College. Indirect systems are in many countries regarded as an extension of the traditional interface between village leaders and government at higher levels. In societies where men have traditionally dominated local council's indirect elections for higher level councils would likely perpetuate the same pattern of gender-biased political participation.

In Southeast Asia upper-level LG councils are generally made up of directly elected members. Such is the case for both Indonesia and Viet Nam. In the Philippines however, upper-level LG councils comprise both directly and indirectly elected members, the latter usually being the representatives of lower-level councils. Cambodia held its first upper level LG council indirect elections in 2009. Annex 7 details examples of the types of direct and indirect elections held in the Asia Pacific

Political Parties

Many women, especially in developing countries, when asked if they would consider entering politics answer in the negative. Foremost among their reasons is that politics is reputed to be dirty, where methods employed include the illegal and the unethical to win in elections and assume power, and where the corruption of public service for personal and narrow group interests has been the accepted norm. They say that they are intimidated and threatened by these dark sides of politics which they are likely to be pressured to join as their entrance fee into mainstream politics.⁶

In line with this, one of the main obstacles to women's representation is found in the process of candidate selection in political parties. Women find it more difficult to be nominated as candidates in political parties

⁶ Miranda, R.L.T. (2005) Impact of Women's Participation in Decision-making http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/ egm/eql-men/docs/EP.7_rev.pdf

that are traditionally dominated by men. Without special measures to encourage women candidates the number of women enlisted as candidates by political parties is likely to be smaller than the number of men. This can be seen in Indonesia, where despite the requirement by law for political parties to nominate 30 percent of their candidates as women, lack of enforcement means many political parties do not fulfill their obligation. It also explains that while a PR electoral system can in many cases result in higher representation of women, it will depend on the position of women within the political parties.

In addition women's caucus or secretariats are one form of organization within political parties that can work to advocate for increased representation of women in politics. Political parties that have an internal organization of women that is well coordinated, and which are able to mobilize resources, should be better equipped to respond to women's demands and promote women's political participation and representation.

Ouotas

Quota's for women entail that women must constitute a certain number or percentage of the members of a body whether it is a candidate list, a parliamentary assembly, committee or government. Quotas aim at increasing women's representation in publicly elected or appointed institutions such as governments, parliaments and local councils. Quotas change the structure of representation by placing the onus on those who control the election/recruitment process to fast-track women's entry into politics.

The two most common types of electoral gender quotas are candidate quotas and reserved seats. Candidate quotas specify the minimum percentage of candidates for election that must be women. They can be a legal requirement as outlined in the constitution or electoral laws or they can be voluntarily adopted by political parties. Reserved seats set aside a certain number of seats for women among representatives in a legislature. Reserved seats can be further demarcated by whether women are elected to the reserved seat, or whether they are appointed. Thus we delineate between three types of quota systems:⁷

- Reserved seats (constitutional and/or legislative)
- 2. Legal candidate quotas (constitutional and/or legislative)
- 3. Political party quotas (voluntary)

In general, research shows that the countries that have the highest number of women in governments are the ones that implemented some kind of affirmative action measures, such as gender guotas (e.g. in India 33% of all seats in local bodies are reserved for women). Only about a third of Asia-Pacific countries have some kind of gender quota system for women's political representation. In countries without quotas, women's representation in national parliaments is around 14 percent, rising to 20.4 percent in countries with quota systems in place.8 This Status Report further illustrates that the same pattern occurs in sub-national governments. Countries with sub-national quotas such as Bangladesh, Paksitan and India all have higher women's political participation than countries without

⁷ See also www.quotaproject.org

⁸ UNDP (2010) 'Power, Voice and Rights: A Turning Point for Gender Equality in Asia and the Pacific'. Asia Pacific Human Development Report 2010, http://www2.undprcc.lk/ext/pvr/.

quotas. Annex 8 illustrates a number of quota systems that are used by countries in the Asia Pacific.

Societal constraints

Societal constraints relate to informal institutions such as values, norms, conventions that shape attitudes and behaviours. As an example these can refer to gender roles in the family, community and society at large such as expectations that women belong to the private domain of home. This then means women are expected to primarily take care of household needs, look after their husbands and children and thus do not have the time and skill to become involved in public life. Prevailing traditional gender norms, for example in terms of women's mobility, reinforce patterns of discrimination, can limit women's participation and protect men's dominance of politics. Even in countries with high levels of women's labor force participation women are still not expected to take part in decision making processes.

In the Pacific, which has one of the lowest percentages of women in national politics in the world, customary notions about women's role in society may be the biggest impediment to their political participation. In some patriarchal societies, for example in Fiji, women are still considered the property of their fathers and husbands and they do not have access to customary title, chiefly or noble systems which are entry points for political participation.⁹ In Sri Lankia the disappointing proportion of women elected to provincial councils in 2008 and 2009 (4.1 percent)

reflects the negative attitudes toward female candidates that limit their capacity to raise sufficient resources or support from within their parties. Gender stereotypes in the media also contribute to the deteriorating status of women. Some women's organizations are addressing this issue as part of an overall drive to increase women's involvement in decision making by providing voters education, capacity building of women's candidates and advocating the value of different leadership styles and behavior in politics.

Development leads to a number of societal changes that empower women. For example, development generally leads to greater education and labour force participation for women, better health, decreased fertility rates, increased urbanization, and attitudinal changes in perceptions regarding the appropriate role for women. All these factors increase women's political resources and reduce existing barriers to political activity. But while development is an important factor especially in terms of the economic empowerment of women, it is no guarantee for women's political equality as evident in some of the most developed countries in the region where women's representation lags far behind. For example in Japan 7.56 percent of town and village mayors and councillors and 8.09 percent of prefectural assemblies and governers are women¹⁰.

⁹ UNDP (2010) 'Power, Voice and Rights: A Turning Point for Gender Equality in Asia and the Pacific'. Asia Pacific Human Development Report 2010, http://www2.undprcc.lk/ext/pvr/.

¹⁰ Ibid.

REPRESENTATION AT DIFFERENT TIERS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In the Asia Pacific Region the following countries all have elected sub-national government at one or more levels: Afgha nistan; Australia; Bangladesh; Cambodia; Cook Islands; China; India, Indonesia; Iran, Japan; Kiribati; Mongolia; New Zealand; Pakistan; Papua New Guinea; the Philippines; Republic of Korea; Solomon Islands; Thailand; Tonga; Tuvalu; Vanuatu; and Vietnam. As can be seen by this list not every country in the region has elected sub-national governments. In the Asia Pacific Region Bhutan, Laos PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Nepal, Samoa and Timor-Leste either do not have formal elected subnational representatives or are in the process of establishing local governments. In addition Fiji has a mandate for locally elected representatives but elected local councils were suspended by the current government in 2009 and replaced by a government administrator. The Status Report does not include data on the Provincial Assemblies in Pakistan and the State Governments in India – the highest tier of sub-national government within the federal structure in those two countries. For a full description of the state of affairs of elected local governments in the Asia Pacific please see the Second Edition's of the Local Democracy Practitioners Guide (UNDP 2010). In addition reliable disaggregated data was not able to be sourced for Iran and Papua New Guinea. These countries have thus been left out of the Status Report.

Women's Overall Representation

Representation of women in politics at the national level has made slight progress since commitments were made by most governments at the Fourth World Conference on Women at Beijing in 1995 to achieve an international target of 30 percent. Then only global representation of women in parliament was around 11 percent, while in 2009 that number had shifted to 18.4 percent. In Asia and the Pacific the picture is even worse, with Asia (18.2 percent) and the Pacific (15.2 percent) ranking as the second and third worst regions for women representation in parliament in the world¹¹.

And while representation of women in national parliaments is quite a clear cut concept, with each nation having only one national parliament, once you move to representation at the local level you start to deal with a variety of different types and tiers of government (e.g. provincial, regional, district, urban, rural, village). For the purpose of this guide we have demarcated sub-national governments into four categories. The first is rural councils, which are typically the lowest form of sub-national representation. In Asia many of these would either constitute a village or cluster of villages/communities. In the Pacific they typically represent islands. The second is urban councils, as the constraints facing women's representation between for example a village council in rural Mongolia

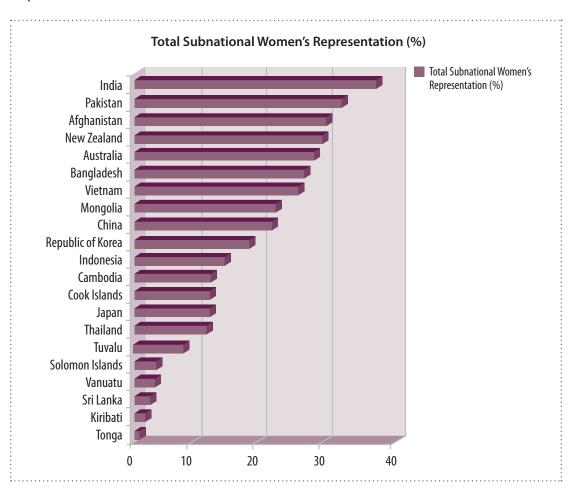
¹¹ See interparliamentary union database at: www.ipu.org

and the municipality of Ulan Bataar or other urban areas are likely to be very different. The third is district or other intermediary councils. These councils represent midtier representation, with lower sub-national councils beneath them and sub-national level councils above them. While these councils can be directly elected, there are also many examples (eg Cambodia) where they are indirectly elected by the lower tiers of sub-national government. The final category is provincial or regional councils. These are

the largest geographically and in terms or constituents out of the four categories. They can also have similar modes of direct/indirect elections as is the case with intermediary/ district councils.

Graph 1 illustrates the average of the sub-national level percentage of women represented in local government for countries in the Asia Pacific. Analysis of these results is broken down according to the sub-national council categorization outlined above.

Graph 1: Women's Seats in Sub-National Governments in Asia Pacific as of October 2010 *



^{*} Total sub-national representation calculated by averaging the percentage of women represented across the different levels of sub-national government. Only countries that supplied data for sub-national representation were included in this graph.

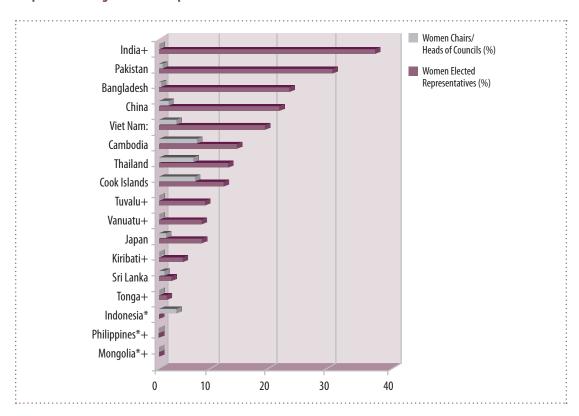
Women's Representation in Rural Councils

Graph 2 below shows data from 19 countries in Asia Pacific with elected local governments at the lowest tier. Afghanistan, New Zealand and the Solomon Islands do not have rural councils, and for Australia and the Republic of Korea data is included under urban local councils because disaggregated data for urban and rural councils was not available.

The percentage of women being elected to rural councils across Asia and the Pacific shows that where countries have quotas (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh) we see much higher

rates of women's political representation. In fact, China is the only country out of the top five performers without any official affirmative action policy. There are some encouraging progress in Cambodia, Mongolia, Vietnam, Thailand and Cook Islands all bringing them to two-digit figure. However, without this type of affirmative action the picture for women is overall quite dismal. While many Pacific Countries have measure for one appointed woman position in a local council, this does not translate into increased elected positions. Tuvalu, Kiribati, Vanuatu and Tonga all have less than 10 percent of women elected as representatives at this level, while Sri Lanka

Graph 2: Percentage of women representatives and heads/chairs of councils in rural councils as of October 2010



^{*} Data not available for Women Elected Representatives %

N.B. Although no data was provided for India one-third of the total number of offices of chairperson in the Panchayats are for women

⁺ Data not available for Women Chairs/Heads of Councils %

which has no quotas has the second lowest representation recorded at 1.6 percent. Indonesia, the Philippines and Mongolia were not able to collect data for the percentage of women elected representatives.

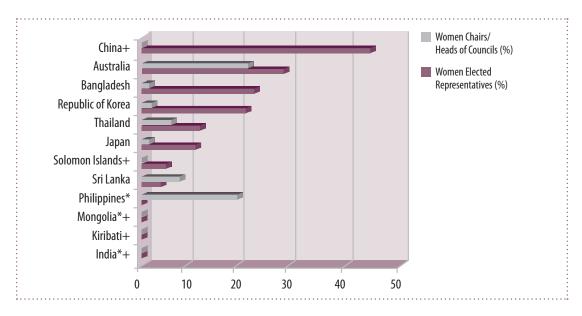
While the percentage of women elected to rural councils has a wide distribution, the percentage of women elected as heads or chairs of these councils is consistently below 10 percent. Even where quotas exist for elected representation it seems that this does not translate into women being elected into leadership positions. For example Bangladesh (0.17 percent) and Pakistan (0.36 percent) record some of the lowest percentages for heads of rural councils (all Pacific countries with the exception of Cook Islands were unable to provide data on women head/ chairs of councils), while Cambodia (6.99)

percent) and Thailand (6.4 percent), both countries without quotas, have more women elected to these positions.

While the overall picture of the data is that more emphasis needs to be placed on having women elected to local representative and leadership positions, the noticeable lack of data from a number of countries also illustrate that more accurate disaggregated data needs to be collected for women's local political representation.

Women's Representation in Urban Councils

Graph 3 below shows women's seats in countries with elected urban councils. Afghanistan, Cook Islands, New Zealand, Tuvalu and Vanuatu do not have elected urban councils. Cambodia, Indonesia; Pakistan and



Graph 3: Percentage of women representatives and heads/chairs of councils in urban councils as of October 2010

- * Data not available for Women Elected Representatives %
- + Data not available for Women Chairs/Heads of Councils %

N.B. Although no data was prvoded for India one-third of the total number of offices of chairperson in Panchayats in some States are reserved for women

Tonga are not included because they do not have disaggregated data and their statistics can be found under Rural Councils, while data for the 85 regional, city and district councils in New Zealand can be found under Regional and Provincial Assemblies. In Viet Nam cities are identical to provinces, and so they are recorded with the Regional and Provincial Assembly data.

A quick analysis of the countries with the highest levels of women's representation in urban councils (China 48.2 percent, Australia 24.65 percent, Bangladesh 28.4 percent and the Republic of Korea 21.78 percent) reveals a mix of affirmative action policies and level of development, with the Republic of Korea and Australia both listed as high-income countires according to the World Bank's list of economies as of September 2010. While Bangladesh has guotas, in the Republic of Korea political parties have to submit a list of candidates to the electoral commission with more than half of the candidates being female. Additionally the Australian Labor Party imposes a voluntary quota of 40 percent women and 40 percent men on candidate lists. Aside from replicating the positive affect of affirmative action policies illustrated in the data on rural councils, the overall picture on urban councils illustrates that developed countries appear more likely to have higher women's representation in urban councils regardless of official quotas. Aside from Bangladesh the six countries with the highest levels of women's representation in urban councils are either high or middleincome countries with a mixture of quota/ non-quota systems.

In relation to women heads and chairs of urban councils, apart from Australia (21.6 percent) and the Philippines (20.5 percent) women are unlikely of being elected into

these leadership positions. Bangladesh has only 1.37 percent of women elected to these positions while non-quota countries such as Japan (1.24 percent) and Thailand (6.7 percent) also have low proportions of women leaders at this level of government.

The main purpose for analysing data at this level of sub-national government separately is to understand if the proportion of representation differed to that of rural councils where there might be more barriers to women's political political participation. In other words if women fare marked better competing for seats in an urban setting. However a lack of accurate disaggregated data where local councils exist means it is difficult to get an overall picture of the differences in representation between urban and rural councils. Only eight countries report statistics on women's representation in urban councils, while only seven report statistics for the number of women elected as chairs or heads of the councils. Further work needs to be conducted to ensure that where locally elected urban and rural councils exist; accurate data is kept so women's low political representation at the local level can be more adequately addressed.

Women's Representation in Districts/ Intermediary Councils

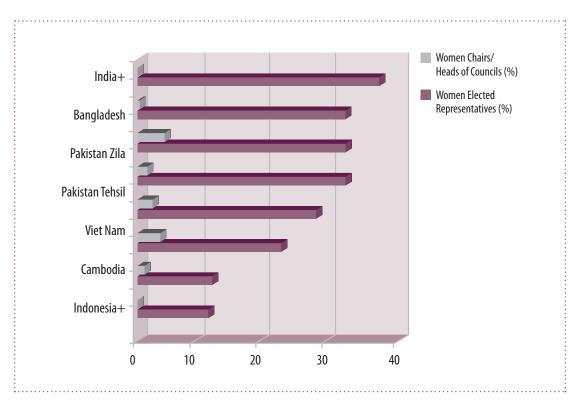
Graph 4 below shows women's representation in district councils or other forms of intermediary elected bodies. For this category the following countries are not included because they do not have elected intermediary/district councils: Afghanistan, Australia, China, Cook Islands, Japan, Kiribati, Republic of Korea, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Tonga, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu. The 85 regional, city and district councils in New

Zealand can be found under Regional and Provincial Assemblies.

Moving from the lowest levels of sub-national government at the rural and urban level to the intermediary/district level we see a similar picture in terms of a lack of data. But where countries do have this level of sub-national government and data is provided there is overall a better rate of women's representation than in rural and urban councils. We also see again the strong effect of quotas on women's political representation. Bangladesh, India

and Pakistan all have women's representation of over 30 percent with quotas, while Viet Nam has affirmative action policies in place and a women's representation rate of 23.01 percent. The exception is Mongolia, which despite a lack of quotas and a national women's representation in Parliament rate of 3.9 percent has elected 28.4 percent of its intermediary/district representatives as women. As the same system is used for national and subnational elections it is also difficult to highlight any institutional factors that might shed light on this discrepancy.

Graph 4: Percentage of women representatives and heads/chairs of councils in intermediary/district councils as of October 2010



^{*} Data not available for Women Elected Representatives %

N.B. Although no data was prvoded for India one-third of the total number of offices of chairperson in the Panchayats in some States are reserved for women

⁺ Data not available for Women Chairs/Heads of Councils %

And while the choice between direct and indirect elections for higher tier sub-national governments can have a significant impact on women's representation, out of the countries that supplied data for intermediary/ district councils only Pakistan and Cambodia have indirectly elected representatives. As Pakistan has quotas it is unwise to make broader implications from Cambodia's (12.65 percent) system for electing intermediary/ district councillors and its impact on women's representation even if significantly below most other countries.

However women's representation as chairs or heads of councils is even worse than at rural and urban levels. Pakistan has the highest rate at 4.5 percent while the lowest recorded rate of just 0.42 percent can be attributed to Bangladesh. In Cambodia council chiefs are elected on the basis of being the top candidate for that party placing and are thus not directly elected. The chairs and heads in Pakistan and Mongolia are also indirectly elected by council members or representatives. However simply introducing a direct system of election for chairs and heads may not improve the overall level of representation as Bangladesh has directly elected positions and also the lowest level of women's representation for these positions.

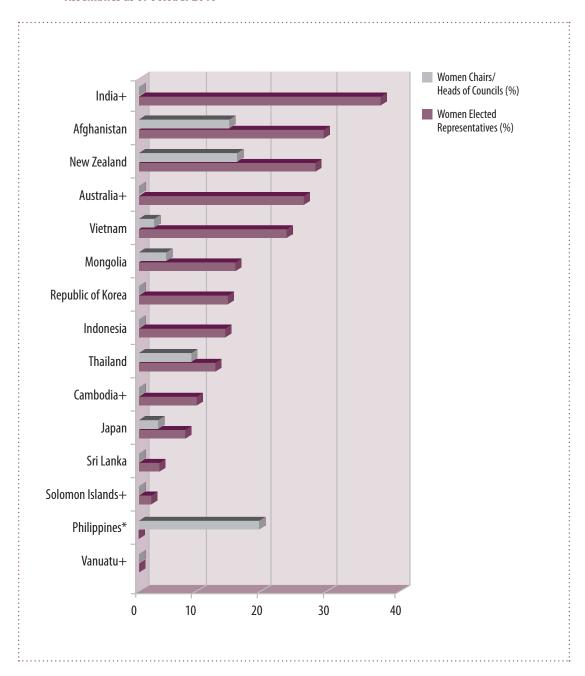
Women's Representation in Provincial and Regional Assemblies

Graph 5 below shows women's represention at provincial, regional or state level. For this category the following countries are not included since they do not have elected assemblies at this tier: Bangladesh; China; Cook Islands; Kiribati; Pakistan; Tonga; and Tuvalu.

Provincial and Regional Assemblies are the highest tier of sub-national government, and out of the countries in the Asia Pacific with this level of representation Afghanistan (30 percent), Australia (27.8 percent), India (37 percent), New Zealand (29.4 percent) and Vietnam (23.88 percent) have the highest level of women's representation. All five have directly elected representatives but Afghanistan and India are the only two countries out of the five with a legislated quota for women's representation. Other countries with directly elected provincial and regional assemblies such as Thailand, the Republic of Korea, Japan, Sri Lanka, Mongolia and Indonesia all have varying rates of women's representation. Vanuatu has the lowest level of women's representation with no women elected.

Compared to the other levels of subnational government, provincial and regional assemblies have more examples of heads and chairs of the elected bodies being women. Afghanistan has 15 percent, with the elected councillors (of which a quarter must be women) voting for the chair. However, apart from the Philippines (19.8 percent) and New Zealand (16 percent) women leadership positions in elected sub-national bodies still languishes below 10 percent with the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Indonesia having zero women being elected as heads of chairs of provincial and regional assemblies. Consistent with the data from the other levels of sub-national representation. while women are able to achieve some level of representation in elected bodies their chances of being selected as a chair or head of one of these bodies is much slimmer

Graph 5: Percentage of women representatives and heads/chairs of councils in Provincial and Regional Assemblies as of October 2010



^{*} Data not available for Women Elected Representatives %

N.B. Although no data was provided for India one-third of the total number of offices of chairperson in the Panchayats in some States are reserved for women

⁺ Data not available for Women Chairs/Heads of Councils %

Comparison of Women's Sub-national and National Political Representation

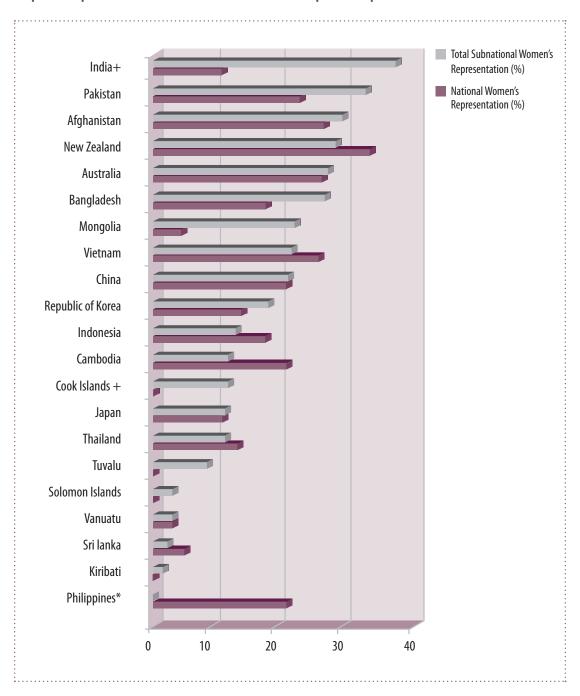
Graph 6 illustrates a comparison of the average total number of women represented in local government against the national level percentage of women represented in parliament for countries in the Asia Pacific. Total sub-national representation was calculated by averaging the percentage of women represented across the different levels of sub-national government. Only countries that supplied data for sub-national representation were included in this graph

What we see in the graph are a number of different patterns. The first is that there are a number of countries that do not have a significant difference between their level of women's representation at the national and the average sub-national levels (eg Japan, Australia, Thailand and China). This is despite the different electoral systems and accountability networks that citizens are likely to have with representatives at the local level. Generally it seems that despite the differences between national and sub-national elected bodies other factors are contributing to a

stable representation of women across all levels of government. However, while the average figures in these countries compare, each level of local government does not necessarily.

The second is that there are another set of countries where there is higher sub-national women's representation than national. In Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Mongolia there is a higher representation of women in politics at the sub-national level. In India the guota of 30 percent of seats reserved for women at the sub-national level seems to have had a strong effect in increasing women's representation at the sub-national level (37 percent compared to 10.8 percent at the national). Similar affirmative action measures at the sub-national level in Pakistan and Bangladesh (at the Pourashava/ Municipality and City Corporation) clearly illustrate the benefits to women's political representation of this approach. Interestingly Mongolia has no affirmative action measures in place, but clearly there appears to be more political space for women at the sub-national level (22.3 percent) compared to the national (3.9 percent).

Graph 6: Comparison of women's sub-national and national political representation as of October 2010



^{*} Data not available for Sub-national Women Elected Representatives %

⁺ Data not available for National Women Elected Representatives % N.B. National figures taken from: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

This pattern is replicated in the Pacific where sub-national governments on average have a higher representation of women in elected and appointed decision making positions than at the national level in the Pacific. For example in Tuvalu, women constituted 8.3 percent of elected members at the Kaupule or council level whereas there were no women elected at the national level in 2008. In the Pacific elections at the local level offer a greater number of opportunities for women simply because of the greater number of elected bodies and positions. If you combine these positions across the region (excluding the French Territories) there are over 7000 positions (or over 900 excluding PNG).

And third, Cambodia is one of only a handful of countries (New Zealand, Vietnam, Indonesia and Sri Lanka) with higher representation at the national (21.1 percent) compared to the sub-national level (12.37 percent). While national level representatives are directly elected, the only form of the three levels of sub-national representation elected directly is the lowest level (commune). From there indirect elections elect the next two tiers of sub-national government and woman representatives are lowest at these two levels.

Conclusions and Way Forward

This Status Report illustrates how an understanding of how women's political representation plays out in terms of numbers at the sub-national level is fundamentally important in realizing the human right of gender equality. While national level figures play an important role in the realization of MDG 3, broadening the scope of women in politics to include "all levels of government" provides a more comprehensive analysis of what needs to be done to guarantee women

have equal opportunities to participate in politics. This report also feeds into a regional and global understanding of how to expand the monitoring of targets in the spirit of Millennium Declaration.

The overall picture that this status report presents is that more emphasis needs to be placed on having women elected into leadership positions. Across the different levels of sub-national government it is the countries with quotas such as Bangladesh, India and Pakistan, or other affirmative action policies such as Vietnam where the largest rates of women's representation are witnessed. However this does not translate into women being elected to leadership positions such as council chairs or heads. Other countries with proportionally high levels of women's representation such as Australia, New Zealand or China are either developed countries or in China's going undergoing rapid economic development. Further work should investigate the affect of development and in particular urbanization on women's participation.

While this report attempted to illustrate the difference between urban and rural councils there was a noticeable lack of data from a number of countries that made the task difficult. Greater efforts need to be made by all countries, especially those identified in this status report as not having sub-national sex disaggregated data, to ensure accurate statistics are recorded to inform policy makers on where specific attention needs to be paid to boost women's political participation. All of this also points at the important role of political parties as actors that can ensure progress; in some countries (e.g. Cambodia) political parties are actively exploring options for increasing both the numbers and rank of women

In terms of future Status Reports there are two further sets of data that could help strengthen the understanding of what is needed to increase women's political participation at the sub-national level. This Status Report originally set out to capture the number and percentages of women candidates at the sub-national level but not enough data was collected to warrant inclusion in this report. Collection and analysis of this information would be useful in identifying how the number of women candidates plays out in actual seats. Additionally the report aimed to collect data on the breakdown of women elected through affirmative action measures and those elected without affirmative action assistance. Again a lack of data meant this could not be included in this Status Report, but building on the finding that quota's appear to be the number one way to increase women's political representation at the sub-national level future analysis of this would help to give a deeper understanding.

Finally, this report did not cover local councils which are not formal local governments (e.g. the Suco councils in Timor Lese and local councils in Bhutan). Future studies could look further at women's representation in these bodies, and how informal systems /structures of local decision making are used, and could be used, for greater women's participation in local government.

This Status Report will hopefully take important steps in enabling countries in Asia Pacific to monitor progress, better advocate for greater representation and decide on the action needed for women to be at the table when decisions are made in local governments.

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Annex 1: Data for Women Elected Representatives in Rural Councils as of October 2010:

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	es		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Women Elected Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Chairs/-Heads of Of Which Women Chairs/Heads Women Chairs/-Heads Council (#) of Council (#)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
Bangladesh: Union Parishad –	54,899	12,782	23.28	12,669	22	0.17
Cambodia: Commune/Sangkat Councils -	11,353	1,656	14.58	4,863	340	6:99
China:	2,337,659	507,272	21.7	N/A	N/A	2.7
Cook Islands: Outer Island Local Governments –	49	9	12.2	15	-	6.67
India: Gram Panchayat -	2,678,183	984,273	37	N/A	N/A	N/A
Indonesia: Village (desa) –	N/A	N/A	N/A	73,842	2,888	3.91
Japan: Town/Village: Mayors and Councillors-	13,870	1,051	7.56	286	21	2.12
Kiribati: Island Councils –	199	7	3.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Mongolia:	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Pakistan: Union Councils –	79,651	24,508	30.77	6,125	22	0.36
Philippines:	13,345	403	30	13,345	3,336	20
Sri Lanka:	3243	51	1.6	236	2	0.84
Thailand: Tambon Administrative Organization –	122,656	16,047	13.0	4,869	316	6.4

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	es		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	entatives Of Which Total Women Elected Chairs/-Heads of person (#) Elected Women (#) Representatives (%) Council Total (#)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Women Elected Chairs/-Heads of Of Which Women Chairs/Heads Women Chairs/-Heads epresentatives (%) Council Total (#) of Councils (%)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
Tonga: Town and District Offices -	179	-	0.6	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tuvalu: Kaupule Councils –	48	4	8.3	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vanuatu: Municipalities –	26	2	7.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
Viet Nam: Commune People's Councils –	N/A	N/A	19.53	N/A	N/A	4.09

Annex 2: Data for Women Elected Representatives in Urban Councils as of October 2010:

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	es		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Of Which Total Women Elected Elected Women (#) Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Of Which Women Chairs/ Heads of Council (#)	Women Chairs/- Heads of Councils (%)
Australia: Local Councils –	5070	1440	28.40	551	119	21.6
Bangladesh: Paurashava and City Cooperation's -	1,635	403	24.65	380	5	1.32
China:	443,060	213,555	48.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A
India:	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Japan: Cities and Special Wards: Mayors and councillors—	21,321	2771	12.0	806	10	1.24
Kiribati:	31	0	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
Mongolia:	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Papua New Guinea:	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	se		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Of Which Total Women Elected Chairs/-Heads of Total, incl. chair person (#) Elected Women (#) Representatives (%) Council Total (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Women Elected Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Of Which Women Chairs/ Heads of Council (#)	Women Chairs/- Heads of Councils (%)
Philippines: City Mayors—	N/A	N/A	N/A	25	122	20.5
Republic of Korea: Gu/Si/Gun Councils -	2,888	626	21.78	2,888	8	2.7
Solomon Islands: Honiara City Councils –	19	-	5.3	N/A	N/A	N/A
Sri Lanka: Urban and Municipal Councils –	379	13	3.4	09	9	10
Thailand: Municipality and Special Zones of Bangkok & Pattaya -	25,905	3,577	13.0	2,009	136	6.7

Annex 3: Data for Women Elected Representatives in Intermediary/District Councils as of October 2010

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	es		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Of Which Total Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Women Elected Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Chairs/-Heads of Of Which Women Chairs/ Council Total (#) Heads of Council (#)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
Bangladesh: Upazila Parishad –	1,425	477	33.47	475	2	0.42
Cambodia: Municipal, district & Khan councils -	2861	362	12.65	193	2	1.0
India: Panchayat Samitis -	157,973	58,112	37	N/A	N/A	N/A
Indonesia: Kota and kabupaten-	15,427	1,818	11.79	491	N/A	N/A
Mongolia: Soum –	5099	1880	28.4%	336	0	2.9%

	Women	Jomen Elected Representative	Se		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Presentatives Of Which Total Women Elected Chairs/-Heads of chair person (#) Elected Women (#) Representatives (%) Council Total (#)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Chairs/-Heads of Of Which Women Chairs/ Women Chairs/-Heads Council Total (#) Heads of Council (#) of Councils (%)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
Pakistan:						
Zila -	6,127	2,044	33.36	110	90	4.5
Tehsil Council –	6,127	2,027	33.08	396	90	1.3
Viet Nam: District People's Councils –	N/A	N/A	23.01	N/A	N/A	3.92

Annex 4: Women's Representation in Provincial and Regional Assemblies as of October 2010

			٠			
	Women	Women Elected Representatives	es		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Women Elected Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Of Which Women Chairs/ Women Chairs/-Heads Heads of Council (#) of Councils (%)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
Afghanistan: Provincial—	420	125	30	34	5	15
Australia: State and Territory—	428	165	27.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cambodia: Capital and Provincial Councils -	374	37	9.89	24	N/A	N/A
India: Zilla Parishad –	15,583	5,763	37	N/A	N/A	N/A
Indonesia: Provinces-	2,008	288	14.34	33	0	0
Japan: Prefectural Assemblies and Governors –	2,755	223	8.09	47	-	2.13
Mongolia: Aimaa –	529	98	16.2	21	-	4.7

	Women	Women Elected Representatives	res		Women Chairs	
Country	Elected Representatives Total, incl. chair person (#)	Of Which Total Elected Women (#)	Women Elected Representatives (%)	Chairs/-Heads of Council Total (#)	Of Which Women Chairs/ Heads of Council (#)	Women Chairs/-Heads of Councils (%)
New Zealand: <i>Regional, city and district councils</i> –	666	294	29.4	85	14	16
Philippines:	N/A	N/A	N/A	81	16	19.8
Republic of Korea: Si/Do Councils -	761	113	14.85	761	0	0
Solomon Islands*:	39	1	2.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Sri Lanka:	417	17	4.1	8	0	0
Thailand: Provincial Administration Organisation –	1,901	240	12.6	75	7	9.3
Vanuatu:	66	0	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
Viet Nam: Provincial People's Council –	N/A	N/A	23.88	N/A	N/A	1.56

* Elections not held in Northern Province

Annex 5: Comparison of National vs. sub-national Women's Political Representation as of October 2010

Country	National Women's Representation (%)*	Total Subnational Women's Representation (%)**	
Afghanistan:	27.3	30.00	
Australia:	27.3	28.10	
Bangladesh:	18.6	26.60	
Bhutan:	8.5	No locally elected governments	
Cambodia:	21.1	12.37	
Cook Islands:	N/A	12.2	
China:	21.3	21.70	
Fiji:	N/A	N/A	
India:	10.8	37.00	
Indonesia:	18	14.34	
Iran:	2.8	N/A	
Japan:	11.3	11.96	
Kiribati:	4.3	1.75	
Laos PDR:	25.2	No locally elected governments	
Malaysia:	9.9	No locally elected governments	
Maldives:	6.5	No locally elected governments	
Mongolia:	3.9	22.30	
Nepal:	33.2	No locally elected governments	
New Zealand:	33.6	No locally elected governments 29.40	
Pakistan:	22.2	32.40	
Papua New Guinea:	0.9	N/A	
Philippines:	21.4	N/A	
Republic of Korea:	14.7	18.32	
Samoa:	8.2	No locally elected governments	
Solomon Islands:	0.0	3.9	
Sri Lanka:	5.3	3.03	
Thailand:	13.3	11.73	
Timor-Leste:	29.2	No locally elected governments	
Tonga:	0.0	0.6	
Tuvalu:	0.0	8.3	
Vanuatu:	3.8	3.85	
Vietnam:	25.8	22.14	

^{*} National figures taken from: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

^{**} Total subnational representation calculated by averaging the percentage of women represented across the different levels of subnational government.

Annex 6: Summary of Local Electoral Systems for Councils in the Asia-Pacific Region

C	Electoral syste	m
Country	Directly elected lower-tier LG Councils	Directly elected upper-tier LG Councils
Afghanistan	Provincial Councils: Mixed — SNTV	
Bangladesh	UPs: P-M, FPTP, single-member ward constituencies	N/A
Bhutan	GTs: P-M, FPTP	N/A
Cambodia	Commune Councils: PR-List	N/A
China	Villagers' Committees: P-M, elements of TRS and Block Vote	N/A
Fiji	All Municipal and City Councils: P-M, FPTP, multi-member wa	rd constituencies
India	All LG Councils (rural and urban, all tiers): P-M, FPTP, single-m	nember ward constituencies
Indonesia	All DPRDs (provincial, regency and city): PR Open List	
Iran	Village Councils: P-M, multi- member ward constituency	N/A
Malaysia	No local elections	
Maldives ¹²	N/A	N/A
Mongolia	Citizens' Representatives <i>Hurals (aimag</i> and <i>soum):</i> P-M, FPTP in single-member districts	N/A
Nepal	Village Councils: P-M, FPTP, multi-member ward constituencies	N/A
Pakistan	UCs: P-M, FPTP, using the entire UC as a multi-member constituency	N/A
Philippines	Barangay Councils: P-M, Block Vote	Municipal and City Councils, Provincial Boards: P-M, FPTP, single-member district constituencies
PNG	LLG Councils: P-M, limited PV, single-member ward constituencies	N/A
Republic of Korea	Lower-level Councils: P-M, FPTP	Upper-level Councils: 9 of 10 by P-M, FPTP; 10th by PR
Solomon Islands	All Councils (provincial, city, town): P-M, FPTP, single- member	er ward constituencies
Sri Lanka	Pradeshi Sabhas, Urban and Municipal Councils: PR-List	N/A
Thailand	TAO: Multi-member ward constituency, P-M, FPTP	PAO: Single-member ward constituency, FPTP
Timor-Leste	Suco Councils: P-M, FPTP, single member aldeia (ward) constituencies for aldeia representatives and multi-member suco constituency for other members	
Viet Nam	All People's Councils (commune, district and province): P-M, F	PTP using multi-member electoral units

Notes: P-M = Plurality-Majoritarian; FPTP = First-Past-The-Post; PV = Preferential Voting; TRS = Two-Round System; SNTV = Single Non-Transferable Vote; PR = Proportional Representation; BV = Block Vote

¹² Law on Local Governance has not been passed by parliament as of February 2010. Previously the now dissolved Island Development Committees were elected by FPTP, Block Vote.

Annex 7: Direct/Indirect Methods of Representation

A second	Appointments	A/A	MPs act as advisors of their respective UPs and their advices are to be treated as mandatory as ascribed in the original Upazila Act 1998	Thromde level – National Assembly members (ex officio) + Government staff (non-voting members)	None
LG heads	Indirect elections	Provincial Councils indirectly elect their chairpersons	N/A	Dzongkhag Thromde chairperson is elected by Dzongkhag Thromde members	Council chief for all levels are the top candidate of winning party. Commune/Sangkhat also have 1st and 2nd deputy chiefs which are leaders of second and third parties.
91	Direct elections	The Constitution makes provisions for direct election of mayors.	UP and Upazila chairperson and <i>Pourashava</i> mayors – directly elected	Gewog gup is directly elected	N/A
Upper-level elected bodies	Indirect elections	N/A	N/A	Dzongkhag Tshogdu composed of members from Gewog and Thromde representatives and municipalities	Municipalities, Districts, Khan, Provinces and Capital Councils are all indirectly elected
Upper-level e	Direct elections	Provincial Council members — directly elected. The Constitution makes provisions for direct election of district, municipal and village councils.	<i>Upazila Parishads</i> — directly elected	N/A	N/A
Lowest-level elected	bodies	No constitutionally elected bodies exist at the level below provincial. The Constitution makes provisions for election of district, municipal and village councils	Union <i>Parishads,</i> <i>Pourashavas</i> and City Corporations – directly elected	<i>Gewog Tshogdu</i> directly elected	Commune and Sangkhat Council members – directly elected
	country	Afghanistan	Bangladesh	Bhutan	Cambodia

Appointments		N/A	Advisers to City and Town Councils can be appointed by the Minister of LG	
LG heads	Indirect elections	N/A	City and Town mayors indirectly elected by councils	Samiti and Zilla chairpersons are elected by their respective panchayats
	Direct elections	Village Committee comprising chairperson, vice chairperson and members, directly elected	N/A	(i) Gram Panchayat chairpersons are elected according to individual state legislatures — can be direct or indirect (ii) Nagar Panchayat, Municipal and Municipal Corporation chairpersons are elected according to individual state legislatures — can be direct or indirect
Upper-level elected bodies	Indirect elections	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Direct elections	Urban Residents Committee—directly elected	Direct election of City Council members suspended by government in early 2009	(i) Samiti and Zilla Panchayat members — directly elected (ii) Municipal and Municipal Corporation Council members — directly elected
Lowest-level elected bodies		Village Committees, Village Representative Committee -directly elected	Direct election of Town Council members suspended by government in early 2009.	<i>Gram</i> and <i>Naga</i> r (urban) <i>Panchayat</i> members – directly elected
Country		China	iĒ	India

Amointe	Appointments	Provincial, regency and kota secretariats: (i) regional secretaries appointed by the President on the recommendation of the regional head from amongst the civil servants (ii) the DPRD secretariat — headed by the DPRD secretary (appointed by the regional heads with the approval of the DPRD)	Mayors of municipalities are appointed by the City Council, vetted by the Ministry of Interior	District Councils, City Councils and Municipal Councils — members appointed by the state government from nominees recommended by ruling political parties. Presidents of District and Municipal Councils and mayor of City Council all appointed by the state government	N/A
LG heads	Indirect elections	N/A	Mayors and village managers are indirectly elected	nt from nominees recommenc rernment	Indirectly elected from among the members of each council
49T	Direct elections	Heads and deputy heads of regencies, <i>kotas</i> and provinces are elected through direct and general elections and on the basis of a joint ticket		ncils and Municipal Councils — members appointed by the state government from no Municipal Councils and mayor of City Council all appointed by the state government	N/A
Upper-level elected bodies	Indirect elections	N/A	Provincial Councils, Rural District Council and Urban District Councils—indirect election by majority vote by urban, cities and rural district councillors respectively	ncils – members appoir mayor of City Council al	
Upper-level	Direct elections	Provincial DPRD members – directly elected from electoral districts		ıncils and Municipal Cou I Municipal Councils and	Atoll Office members directly elected by their respective communities
Lowest-level elected	bodies	Regency and <i>kota</i> DPRD members — directly elected from electoral districts	Village and City Councils-directly elected	District Councils, City Coul Presidents of District and	Island Office members directly elected by their respective communities
materio	Country	Indonesia	Iran	Malaysia	Maldives ¹³

13 As envisaged with the draft Law on Local Governance is currently being debated and enshrined in the 2008 Constitution. Currently there are no formal sub-national governments in the Maldives.

		CRH	the 'C'
	Appointments	Aimag/soum/capital governor nominated by CRH and appointed by Prime Minister	(i) District Council: Local members of National Assembly and House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 6 members nominated by the District Council from the general public (including at least 1 woman and DAG representatives) (ii) DDC: local members of the National Assembly and the House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 2 members nominated by DDC from District Council (including at
	Appoir	Aimag/soum/capital governor nominated and appointed by Pr Minister	(i) District Council: Local members of National Assembly and House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 6 members nominated by District Council from the general public (including at least 1 woman and Direpresentatives) (ii) DDC: local members of the National Assembly and the House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 2 members), and 2 members of the National Assembly and the House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 2 members of the National Assembly and the House of Representatives (ex officio members), and 2 members of members), and 2 members of memb
	Indirect elections	<i>Aimag/soum/</i> capital chairpersons and presidiums elected by Citizens Representative <i>Hural</i> members	DDC chairpersons, vice chairpersons and area or Ilaka reps are indirectly elected by Village and Municipal Council members
s	Indirect	Aimag/soum/capital chairpersons and presidiums elected by Citizens Representativ Hural members	DDC chairpersons, vice chairpersons and area or and and and and and area or an
LG heads		Aim cha pre Citi	
	Direct elections	N/A	s and rrsons are tred by the s
	Direct	2	VDC and Municipal chairpersons and vice chairpersons are directly elected by their constituents
	ions		> =
oodies	Indirect elections	N/A	District Council members — indirectly elected by members of Village and Municipal Councils; leaders of lower-level LGs are members
elected l	밀		District membrane percte electre of Vills Munic leader LGs arc
Upper-level elected bodies	ections	s- ns' ive <i>Hurals</i> cted	ਰ
ų	Direct elections	Rural <i>aimags-</i> <i>Aimag</i> Citizens' Representative <i>Hurals</i> -directly elected	N/A
pa		٠٠ له	
Lowest-level elected	bodies	tricts, Sou presenta ctly elect es Gitizen itive Hura	I Municip embers – ected
Lowest-Ic	þ	Soums/districts, Soum Rural aimags- Citizens' Representative Aimag Gtizens' Hural-directly elected; Representative Capital cities Citizens' -directly electe Representative Hural-	Village and Municipal Council members — directly elected
	Country	Mongolia	
	3	Mon	Nepal ¹⁴

14 Since 2002 interim local bodies have replaced the elected VDCs, DDCs and Municipalities.

Annointe	Appointments	None
LG heads	Indirect elections	Elected union councillors are not permitted to stand for election as nazim of any tehsil/town or district/city. Tehsil/district nazims are elected by all the UC members in their respective jurisdictions. Naib nazims at tehsil and district levels are chosen by their respective councils from amongst their own membership
01	Direct elections	Union <i>nazim and naib</i> nazim are directly elected on a joint ticket
Upper-level elected bodies	Indirect elections	(i) District/City District Councils — composed of UC nazims and others (district nazim and district naib nazim + others — women, peasant/ worker, minority representatives) elected by all UC councillors in the district/city (ii) Tehsil/Town Councils — composed of UC naib nazims and other members (tehsil nazim and tehsil naib nazim, and others— women, peasant/ worker, minority representatives) elected by all UC councillors in the
Upper-level	Direct elections	N/A
Lowest-level elected	bodies	Union Coundl members – directly elected
Country	Country	Pakistan

A series of the constitution of the constituti	Appointments		N/A	
LG heads	Indirectelections	(i) Barangay Council: Barangay Youth Council chairperson is a member. Elected by 15- to 21-year- old barangay electorate (ii) Municipal and Provincial Councils — appoint sectional representatives (women, workers and disadvantaged groups) (iii) Municipal and Provincial Councils— constituent Youth Councils are represented	LLG heads can be indirectly elected by their councils Provincial Assembly head is the provincial MP	Chairperson of councils elected by local council representatives
91	Direct elections	N/A	LLG heads can be directly elected	
Upper-level elected bodies	Indirect elections	Barangay captain — directly elected Municipal mayor and vice mayor — directly elected Provincial governor and vice governor directly elected	Provincial Assembly members — indirectly elected (LLG representatives, MPs) except for woman representative and traditional chiefs	N/A
Upper-level	Direct elections	(i) Municipal and City Councils comprising both directly elected members and president of the municipal/city chapter of barangay captains (ii) Provincial Board composed of both directly elected members and indirectly elected members (president of the provincial chapter of barangay captains, etc.)		<i>SI/Do</i> councils directly elected
Lowest-level elected	bodies	Barangay Council members – directly elected except for Youth Council representative	LLG Council members — directly elected except for TUC, Employers' Federation and women representatives	<i>Gun/Gu/Si</i> Councils, -directly elected
	Country	Philippines	PNG	Republic of Korea

,	Lowest-level elected	Upper-level elected bodies	lected bodies	91	LG heads	V
Country	bodies	Direct elections	Indirect elections	Direct elections	Indirect elections	Appointments
Solomon Islands	Provincial, City and Town Council members – all directly elected	N/A	N/A	N/A	Provincial premiers and city/town mayors — indirectly elected by their respective councils	N/A
Sri Lanka	Pradeshiya Sabha, Urban and Municipal Council members — directly elected	Provincial Council members directly elected from district constituencies	N/A	N/A	(i) Provincial Council has a chairperson and a vice chairperson elected from amongst its members by majority vote (ii) <i>Pradeshiya Sabha</i> , Urban and Municipal Council led by a full-time chairperson, nominated by the majority party or group, who holds office for a four-year term	Provincial Executive: governor appointed by the President responsible for executing the policies of the Provincial Council through a board of ministers headed by a chief minister and no more than four other ministers. The governor appoints the chief minister, and the other ministers on the advice of the chief minister
Thailand	Tambon Administrative Organization-directly elected	Provincial Administrative Organization -members directly elected Municipality— members directly	N/A	TAO executive -directly elected PAO head -directly elected Municipal mayors-directly elected	N/A	None
Timor-Leste	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

:	Appointments	N/A
LG heads	Indirect elections	(i) Chairperson, vice chairperson and other members of the People's Councils' Standing Committees – indirectly elected by People's Councils (ii) Chairpersons of all People's Committees (Commune, District and Provincial) are elected by People's Councils's
	Direct elections	N/A
ected bodies	Indirect elections	N/A
Upper-level elected bodies	Direct elections	District and Provincial People's Council members — directly elected (following screening process)
Lowest-level elected	bodies	Commune People's Council members – directly elected (following screening process)
	Country	Viet Nam

15 The President of the People's Committee is a member of the People's Council. The other members of the People's Committee are not necessarily members of the People's Council.

The results of the election of the members of the People's Committee must be approved by the President of the People's Committee of the immediate higher level; the results of the election of the members of the People's Committee at provincial level must be approved by the Prime Minister

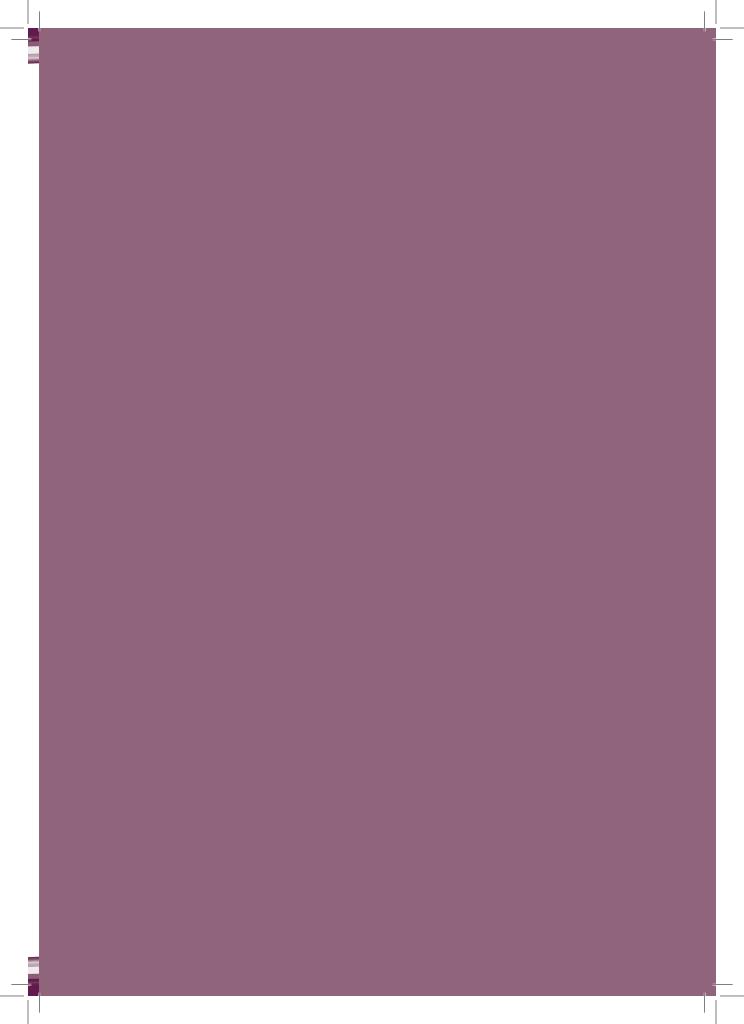
Annex 8: Examples of Measures for Quotas in the Asia Pacific

	Measures focusing on candidates	Measures focusing on institutions (i.e., reserved seats)	ions (i.e., reserved seats)
Country	(party list quotas)	Directly elected	Indirectly elected/appointed
Afghanistan	NA	According to the Electoral Law, at least one quarter of seats in each Provincial Council shall be reserved for female candidates (Article 29)	NA
Bangladesh	NA	For the Union <i>Parishad</i> 3 seats are reserved for women	
Bhutan	NA	NA	NA
Cambodia	NA	NA	NA
China	NA	There are no provisions to ensure representation of women in the Organic Law, but some provinces have passed a law that all village committees have to include at least 1 woman. The Organic Law makes provisions for the representation of minorities whereby 1 member of the minority should be included in the Village Committee/Urban Residents Committee	NA
Fiji	NA	NA	NA
India		Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) have reserved seats in the same proportion as the population of SC and ST bears to the total population Not less than one-third (including seats reserved for SC and ST women) of seats and chairs reserved for women, however 50% seats are now reserved for women in 5 States and there are moves to standardize this nationally. Seats are allotted by rotation to the different constituencies in a panchayat	

		I				I	ν p Δ ο
utions (i.e., reserved seats)	Indirectly elected/appointed	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	For the Village Council (VC) and District Council (DC), 6 persons, including 1 woman, are nominated by the VC and the DC respectively from amongst workers, socially and economically backward tribes and ethnic communities, downtrodden and indigenous people belonging to the class who are not represented in the VC and DC respectively For the Village Development Committee (VDC) and District Development Committee (DDC) 2 persons, including 1 woman, are nominated by the VDC and DDC respectively from amongst the nominated members of the VC and DC respectively For the Municipal Council (MC) no less than 6 and no more than 20 persons, including women from the same groups as above, are nominated by the MC For the municipality, the municipality nominates 2 persons, including 1 woman, from amongst the nominated members of the MC
Measures focusing on institutions (i.e., reserved seats)	Directly elected	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	₽N
	(party list quotas)	While there is no sub-national quota system, according to article 55 in the Electoral Law 10/2008 regarding elections to the House of Representatives: "at least one in every three candidates included on a political party list should be women".	NA	NA	NA	NA	₽
	Country	Indonesia	Iran	Malaysia	Maldives	Mongolia	Nepal

	Measures focusing on candidates	Measures focusing on institutions (i.e., reserved seats)	itions (i.e., reserved seats)
Country	(party list quotas)	Directly elected	Indirectly elected/appointed
Pakistan	ΥN	For Village/Neighbourhood Councils 1 seat is reserved for women and 1 for peasants and workers For the Union Councils 4 seats are reserved for Muslim women; 6 seats (of which 2 are for women) for workers and peasants; and 1 seat for minority communities	For the Zilla, Tehsil and Town Councils, such number of women to represent 33 percent; peasants and workers to represent 5 percent; and minorities to represent 5 percent from minority communities of the unions in the respective LGU. The Electoral college for filling these seats comprises the members of the Union Councils in each LGU
Papua New Guinea	NA	NA	2 women are appointed to be members of LLG Councils in rural areas, and 1 woman is appointed to be a member of LLG Councils in urban areas 1 woman representative is appointed to be a member of each Provincial Assembly
Philippines		For each LGU there are 3 sectoral representatives, i.e., 1 woman, 1 agricultural or industrial worker; and 1 representative for the urban poor, indigenous cultural communities, disabled persons, or any other sector as may be determined by the Sanggunian concerned. The Commission on Elections promulgate the rules and regulations for effectively providing for the election of such sectoral representatives. Presidents of the Youth Councils also are ex officio members	1 woman, 1 agricultural or industrial worker; and 1 communities, disabled persons, or any other sector The Commission on Elections promulgate the rules on of such sectoral representatives. Presidents of
Republic of Korea	Political parties have to submit a list of candidates to the electoral commission, with more than half of the candidates being female and every second candidate female in order of the ranking of candidates on the list. No affirmative action exists for specific ethnic or occupational groups		
Solomon Islands	NA	NA	NA

	Measures focusing on candidates	Measures focusing on institutions (i.e., reserved seats)	ions (i.e., reserved seats)
Country	(party list quotas)	Directly elected	Indirectly elected/appointed
Sri Lanka	NA	Although no direct measures are made for affirmative action, the Sri Lankan Constitution states that provisions are to be made for the representation of women, persons younger than 35 and major communities ordinarily resident within the respective LGU	NA
Timor-Leste		For the Suco Council, 2 seats are reserved for women; 2 seats, of which 1 is to be filled by a woman, for persons aged 17 to 35; and 1 elder, i.e. a person older than 50	
Thailand	MA	NA	NA
Viet Nam	The standing bodies of provincial - and district-level People's Councils (PC), after consulting with the Standing Board of the Viet Nam Fatherland Front Central Committee and the People's Committees of the same level, propose the proportion, number and composition of PC deputies to be elected — ensuring that an appropriate number of women and, in localities with many ethnic minority groups, ethnic minorities are elected to the PC. The same applies for commune-level PC, but no consultations with the Viet Nam Fatherland Front or People's Committees are required.	NA	NA





United Nations Development Programme

Asia Pacific Regional Centre United Nations Building, Rajdamnoen Nok Avenue Bangkok 10200, Thailand http://asia-pacific.undp.org



Commonwealth Local Government Forum

Craven House, 16A Northumberland Avenue London WC2N 5AP, UK http://www.clgf.org.uk



United Nations Development Fund for Women (part of UN Women)

East and Southeast Asia Sub-Regional Office United Nations Building, 5th Floor, Rajdamnoen Nok Avenue Bangkok 10200, Thailand http://www.unifem-eseasia.org



United Cities and Local Governments Asia Pacific

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