

MAKING THE MDGs WORK BETTER FOR WOMEN

Implementing Gender-Responsive
National Development Plans
and Programmes

United Nations
Development Fund for Women
UNIFEM



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304 East 45th Street, 15th floor
New York, NY 10017 USA
Tel: +1 (212) 906-6400
Fax: +1 (212) 906-6705
www.unifem.org



One United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017 USA
Tel: +1 (212) 906-5000
Fax: +1 (212) 906-5001
www.undp.org

Contents

Foreword2

Preface.....3

Introduction:
Context and Background4

**1. The MDGs and Gender Equality:
Progress and Challenges6**

MDG3 Progress.....7

Progress and Challenges Across the Goals11

2. Engendering Local and National MDG Policy Processes13
Strategic Priorities14

3. Good Practices: Gender and the MDGs Project.....16
Selected Approaches.....18

4. Scaling Up Progress on MDG3: Investing in Gender Equality for Development...24
Gender in the Financing for Development and Aid Effectiveness Agendas25
Challenges27

5. Making the MDGs Work Better for Women: Recommendations30

Acronyms38

References38

Notes40

Boxes

Box 1. The Millennium Development Goals4

Box 2. MDG3 target and indicators7

Box 3. Tracking, monitoring and reporting instruments.....15

Box 4. A seven-step harmonization process in Kyrgyzstan.....20

Box 5. The Paris Declaration principles to promote aid effectiveness26

Box 6. Capacity development to incorporate gender perspectives in the aid effectiveness agenda31

Box 7. Indispensable steps for producing gender statistics35

Tables

Table 1. Enrolment and attendance rates, primary education (2000-2007)9

Table 2. Enrolment and attendance rates, secondary education (2000-2007)9

Table 3. Summary of good practices17

Table 4. Harmonizing indicators in Kyrgyzstan.....19

Foreword

Recent decades have seen great advances in gender equality at national and global levels, particularly since the 4th World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. Today, issues of gender equality and women's empowerment have been taken into account in many national planning systems and gender equality priorities are being included in national and local programming and budgeting processes. They have been embraced in the Millennium Declaration and recognized both as important goals in themselves and as central to achieving all of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) agreed in 2000. UNDP and UNIFEM have played a key role in assisting Governments and other stakeholders in many countries achieve progress and in developing and implementing programmes that support legislative and policy changes aiming at gender equality, promote women's human rights and establish close partnerships with governments, gender equality advocates, the private sector and other agencies of the UN system.

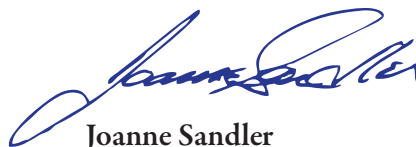
Despite important progress made, much work remains to be done to achieve gender equality. We are now almost 15 years after the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action and 10 years since the adoption of the Millennium Declaration. New challenges have emerged in the form of food, economic or energy crisis and climate change, combined with unmet ODA commitments, which make it unlikely that the MDGs shall be met. Furthermore, UN and other reports have found that in many if not most countries, women are likely to be disproportionately impacted by these crises, further retarding progress on achieving reproductive health, reducing maternal mortality and making it more difficult for women to share in progress in such areas as the reduction of poverty and hunger, gains in productive and decent work and the elimination of chronic diseases, including HIV and AIDS.

Important commitments have been made by Governments in the past years and the pivotal role of gender equality for development and poverty reduction has been recognized at all levels. However, a major challenge today is turning these commitments into actions. Many national development plans still lack a gender perspective; governments and aid agencies still lack gender expertise; policies still lack appropriate gender sensitive targets and indicators; documents and studies still lack accurate data disaggregated by sex and gender statistics; and overall, commitments to gender equality lack provisions for financing and implementation.

Making the MDGs Work Better for Women draws on good practices to elaborate key strategies for accelerating the pace for reaching the MDGs. Women's empowerment and progress towards gender equality drives all of the MDGs. Making the MDGs work better for women implies that they work better for all.



Winnie Byanyima
Director, Gender Team
UNDP



Joanne Sandler
Deputy Executive Director
UNIFEM

Preface

Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015 hinges on making tangible progress with regards to gender equality across the developing world. Innumerable studies have demonstrated that gender equality is a precondition for sustainable growth and poverty reduction. Where women are empowered we observe better health and education outcomes for their children as well as a more sustainable use of natural resources. Where women are meaningfully integrated into the labour force we have seen impressive advances in social well-being.

Maintaining and scaling up investments in gender equality is especially important in the context of the current global economic crisis. Projections of sharply reduced economic growth, rising unemployment, tightening credit conditions, falling remittances, and compressed aid flows will likely deepen deprivation around the world and seriously impede, if not reverse, progress towards the attainment of the MDGs. Although it is difficult to assess the likely magnitude of the setback, evidence from past crises demonstrates that growth collapses are costly for human development outcomes because the rate of deterioration is more rapid during growth decelerations than the rate of improvement during accelerations. This has the potential to irreversibly deplete the human capital stock in developing countries.

In this context, it is especially important to optimize the use of scarce aid funds and protect and scale up recent achievements towards the attainment of gender equality. This publication seeks to distil knowledge on successful practices developed through the “Gender and the Millennium Development Goals” project to highlight approaches that governments, donors and civil society can take to make the MDGs work better for women. It does so by bringing together the knowledge and experience of these stakeholders in promoting gender-responsive MDG processes.

Section I, “The MDGs and Gender Equality: Progress and Challenges”, looks at successes and road blocks in meeting MDG targets and the extent to which national reports have addressed gender in reporting on each goal. Section II, “Engendering Local and National MDG Policy Processes”, focuses on strategic priorities and actions. Section III, “Good Practices: Gender and the MDGs Project”, highlights processes and activities that work, while Section IV, “Scaling Up Progress on MDG3: Investing in Gender Equality for Development”, sets forth the challenges. Section V summarizes the key recommendations put forward in sections I-IV.

This publication draws on a range of monitoring reports, analytical assessments, action guides and training modules developed and published by various stakeholders including UN agencies and task forces, the World Bank and other donors, women’s networks and individual gender experts. These materials, listed under References, serve to support, strengthen and expand the pilot project outcomes and observations. They will be invaluable to users of this guide who wish to read more about using a gender-sensitive lens to assess and advance the MDGs so that they work better for women.

Introduction: Context and Background

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are increasingly being used to frame national development strategies and the flow of aid resources. The eight goals (see Box 1), with their 21 time-bound targets

and 60 indicators, aim to improve living conditions and remedy global imbalances by 2015 in the areas of development and poverty, peace and security, the environment, and human rights and democracy.

Box 1: The Millennium Development Goals

- 1.** Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- 2.** Achieve universal primary education
- 3.** Promote gender equality and empower women
- 4.** Reduce child mortality
- 5.** Improve maternal health
- 6.** Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- 7.** Ensure environmental sustainability
- 8.** Develop a global partnership for development

Source: End Poverty 2015: A gateway to the UN system's work on the MDGs www.un.org/millenniumgoals/bkgd

Drawing on the outcomes of the major UN conferences and summits on development held in the 1990s, the MDGs are a road map for implementing the Millennium Declaration agreed by 189 governments at the September 2000 UN Millennium Summit in New York. The Declaration commits governments “to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women as effective ways to combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable.” It also addresses “the equal rights and opportunities of women and men” and pledges “to combat all forms of violence against women and to implement the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)” (UN 2000).

The UN Secretary-General commissioned an expert advisory group, the UN Millennium Project, which set up a number of task forces to identify the policy measures and interventions needed to achieve each of the goals. The Task Force on Education and Gender Equality emphasized the importance of putting gender equality and women's empowerment at the center of development planning, adding that achieving MDG3 “depends on the extent to which each of the other goals addresses gender-based constraints and issues” (Grown et al. 2005:2).

A human right

Gender equality has been recognized as a human right since the establishment of the United Nations. The 1948

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and the 1976 international covenants on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), signed by the majority of UN Member States, all contain clear statements on women's right to be free from discrimination. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which was adopted by the General Assembly in 1979 and came into force in 1981, obliges signatories to undertake actions to ensure gender equality in both the private and public spheres and to eliminate traditional stereotyped ideas on the roles of the sexes.

Governments have also formally committed to upholding the rights of women at a number of UN international conferences held in the 1990s. These include the World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993), which emphasized the rights of women and girls as "an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of human rights" and classified violence against women, sexual harassment, sexual exploitation and trafficking in women as human rights abuses, and the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), which, for the first time, formally recognized women's sexual and reproductive rights. Perhaps most importantly, governments at the Fourth UN World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995) laid out specific actions to attain the equality and empowerment standards set by CEDAW.

How has this support for women's human rights been manifested in the MDGs? MDG3 calls for the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment, and several other goals address aspects of the Beijing Platform for Action adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women, namely poverty and employment (MDG1), education (MDG2), health and reproductive health (MDGs 4, 5 and 6) and environmental sustainability (MDG7). The global targets and indicators mentioned above do not fully convey the central importance of gender equality to achieving all the goals, as expressed by governments in the Millennium Declaration. However, there is a growing recognition of the centrality of gender equality among development partners (governments, the

UN system and international financial institutions), who have placed a high priority on making the MDGs work.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is working with a wide range of partners to create coalitions for change to support the MDGs at global, regional and national levels, and to monitor progress. UNDP also helps countries to build institutional capacity, and put in place the policies and programmes needed to achieve the MDGs. National reports were originally the primary instrument for tracking progress at the country level—although, more recently, the World Bank's Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) have begun to incorporate MDG targets to measure results. UNDP views country-level MDG processes (preparing reports, advocacy, implementation, monitoring) as significant opportunities for mainstreaming gender equality perspectives into the broader human development agenda. These processes also offer a chance to reaffirm and advance CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) and other globally and regionally agreed documents on gender equality and women's empowerment.

A UNDP (2003) review of MDG country reports indicated gender equality received very little attention. There was insufficient data disaggregated by sex across all the goals, and not enough consultation with civil society organizations, especially with women's organizations, to enable them to highlight gender equality issues. Thus opportunities had been lost and the potential existed for further erosion of the ability of countries to address poverty in a meaningful way.

It was in this context that UNDP and UNIFEM initiated the "Gender and the Millennium Development Goals" pilot project, to be executed by UNIFEM in five countries. The pilot project brought together government, civil society and UN Country Teams (UNCTs) to advocate among policymakers and programme planners for the mainstreaming of gender equality in all of the MDGs, and to strengthen gender-sensitive monitoring and reporting on progress in achieving them.



The MDGs and Gender Equality: Progress and Challenges

In 2005, the UN Millennium Project Task Force on Gender Equality identified seven strategic priorities to achieve MDG3, a subset of those outlined at the Cairo and Beijing meetings, as the minimum necessary to empower women. These priorities, together with specific actions recommended to achieve them, are explored in Section V below.

More than halfway to the 2015 deadline for achieving the MDGs, so where do we stand in terms of achieving

gender equality and women's empowerment? Below we highlight some successes and challenges related to the target and indicators of MDG3 (see Box 2) and the integration of gender issues into the other goals. The section reflects recent reports and assessments by the UN (2008, 2009), UNDP (2008a), UNIFEM (2008), UNESCAP (2006), UNAIDS (2008), International Parliamentary Union (IPU 2009), World Bank (2007) and MDG Africa Steering Group (2008).

Box 2: **MDG3 target and indicators**

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

Target: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015

Indicators

- 9.** Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
- 10.** Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old
- 11.** Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
- 12.** Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament

See the complete list of MDG targets and indicators at www.unmillenniumproject.org.

MDG3 Progress

Progress on MDG3, like all of the goals, must now be seen in the context of the global economic and financial crisis. This crisis, which comes on top of the ongoing crisis in food and energy security, is seriously threatening advances towards achieving all of the MDGs, including reducing poverty and hunger (MDG1); achieving universal education (MDG2); gender equality and women's empowerment (MDG3); reducing child and maternal

mortality (MDGs 4 and 5); reducing the incidence of HIV/AIDS and other chronic diseases (MDG6); ensuring environmental sustainability (MDG7) and the various aspects of a global partnership for development (MDG8), including a more equitable and rule-based trading system, a reduction in developing country debt, the transfer of new technologies to developing countries, and meeting commitments regarding official development assistance (ODA).

As the economic crisis continues, developing countries are caught in a cycle of declining trade, shrinking foreign investment and falling remittances. In terms of trade, the collapse of demand in developed countries has hit developing country export manufacturing and services, especially tourism and domestic work. Government revenues have declined as foreign direct investment dries up and ODA declines. All of these factors impact differently on women and men, owing to restrictions on women's labour market participation; women's unpaid access to financial resources and other productive assets, higher burden of unpaid care work and heavier reliance on social spending and safety nets.

The World Bank has estimated that as many as 53 million more people have been pushed into poverty as economic growth decreases around the world. The International Labour Organization (ILO) has warned that the number of unemployed women could increase by 22 million in 2009. Major concerns have also been raised about the increasing number of girls dropping out of school, levels of violence against women and girls (including domestic violence, human trafficking and sexual exploitation), HIV/AIDS prevalence rates, criminal activities and security risks.

Education and literacy

Progress on MDG3 has been most pronounced in education (indicator 9) and literacy (indicator 10), with all regions except Sub-Saharan Africa broadly on track for 2015. However, there are still large gender gaps in rural areas, among minority groups and in lower-income households, as revealed when average national gender parity ratios are disaggregated by income, location, race, ethnicity, disability and so on.



- In terms of primary school enrolment, the global net rate increased from 85 per cent in 2000 to 89 per cent in 2007 (UN 2009: 14), although results vary across regions and according to the factors above. For example:
- In developing regions as a whole, 95 girls were enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys in 2007 (UN 2009:18).
- Four regions—Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Asia, South-eastern Asia and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)—have reached gender parity at primary level (UN 2009:18).
 - Significant progress in primary school enrolment has been seen in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, with rates increasing from 58 per cent to 74 per cent from 2000 to 2005 in the former and from 79 per cent to 90 per cent over the same period in the latter (UN 2009: 14-15).
 - However, the gender gap in secondary school enrolment remains wide. In 2007, only 53 of the 171 countries for which data is available had achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary education. Indeed, gender gaps have widened in CIS, Sub-Saharan Africa and the Pacific (UN 2009:19).

Much still needs to be done to bring more non-enrolled girls into school and to encourage attendance. Of the estimated 72 million primary age children who were not in school in 2007, 54 per cent were girls (UN 2009: 16). The knock-on effect is a decline in gender parity; for example, in Sub-Saharan Africa where girls in particular drop out of school to assist families affected by poverty, food shortages, armed conflict, and HIV and AIDS (UN 2008).

These trends in the rates of girls' enrolment and attendance in primary and secondary education are demonstrated in Tables 1 and 2 to the right.

Table 1: Enrolment and attendance rates, primary education (2000-2007)

Geographic Regions	Gross Enrolment rate (%)			Net (%)			Gross Attendance rate (%)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Sub-Saharan Africa	101	90	96	75	70	73	64	61	62
East & South Africa	110	104	107	83	81	82	66	66	66
West & Central Africa	93	77	85	67	58	63	63	56	59
Middle East & North Africa	102	97	100	86	81	84	88	85	87
South Asia	111	104	108	88	83	85	81	77	79
East Asia & Pacific	111	110	111	98	97	98	92	92	92
LAC	120	116	118	94	95	95	90	91	91
CEE/CIS	98	96	97	92	90	91	93	91	92

Source: Taken from Tables 1 and 5, *State of the World's Children 2009*, UNICEF 2008.

Table 2: Enrolment and attendance rates, secondary school (2000-2007)

Geographic Regions	Gross Enrolment rate (%)			Net (%)			Gross Attendance rate (%)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	29	32	28	24	26	26	22	24
East & South Africa	39	34	36	30	27	29	20	18	19
West & Central Africa	33	24	29	26	20	23	31	26	28
Middle East & North Africa	73	67	70	67	62	65	54	52	53
South Asia	54	45	50	-	-	-	51	43	47
East Asia & Pacific	73	73	73	60	62	61	60	63	61
LAC	87	94	91	69	74	71	-	-	-
CEE/CIS	89	85	87	79	75	77	79	76	78

Source: Taken from Tables 1 and 5, *State of the World's Children 2009*, UNICEF 2008.

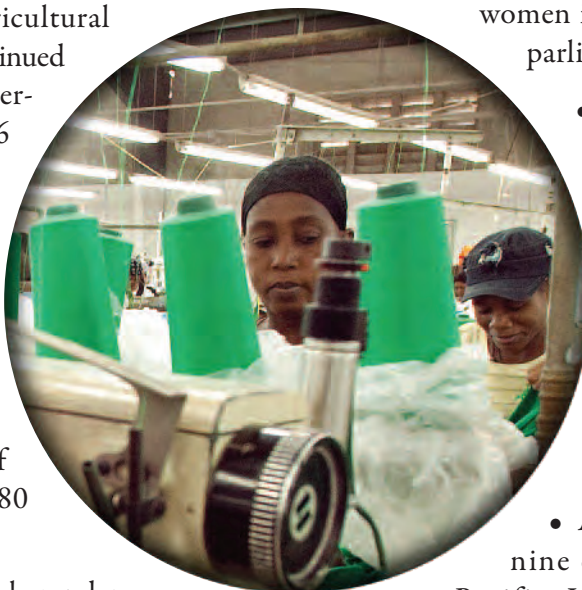
Gender parity in literacy has also been achieved in several countries, and the gender gap is narrowing in literacy in all regions except the Middle East and North Africa (UNIFEM 2008: 120). There have been substantial increases in female literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (UNIFEM 2008: 120), which could be due to gender-informed policy interventions such as stipends, conditional cash transfers and vouchers. Still, women remain in the majority by far (63%) of the 137 million illiterate youth worldwide.

Employment

According to the UN (2008: 18), women's participation in paid, non-agricultural employment (indicator 11) has continued to increase, if only marginally, averaging nearly 40 per cent in 2006 compared to 35 per cent in 1990. The UN (2008) also states:

- Almost two thirds of women in developing countries work in vulnerable jobs as own-account and unpaid family workers. In Southern Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, this type of work accounts for more than 80 per cent of all jobs for women
- The labour market remains highly gender-segregated, and female dominated positions tend to be characterized by inferior status, lower pay and poorer working conditions.
- Although well-educated women have advanced and the share of women managers is increasing most women remain in low-status, less valued jobs and face greater barriers to higher-level positions.

In 2009, the UN MDG report took note of the fact that the global economic and financial crisis and high prices for primary commodities have eroded labour markets around the world. The ILO projects that up to 22



million women could lose their jobs in 2009 as a result of the crisis (UN 2009: 22)

Political participation

There have been some gains in the level of women's political participation (indicator 12). According to the International Parliamentary Union (IPU 2009):

- Women's share of seats in national parliaments was 18.4 per cent as of January 2009, up from 13 per cent in 1990.
- Among developing regions, Latin America and the Caribbean has the highest share of elected women in the lower (or single) houses of parliaments (22%).
- As of June 2009, women held at least 40 per cent of parliamentary seats in six countries—Rwanda (56.3%), Sweden (47%), South Africa (45%), Cuba (43.2%), Iceland (42.9%), Finland (41.5%) and the Netherlands (41.3%)—and at least 30 per cent in 24 countries.
- At the other end of the spectrum, nine countries, including six in the Pacific Island states have no women members of parliament at all.

UNIFEM (2008) reports that the introduction of quota systems has been the most decisive factor in increasing women's political representation. Other positive factors are active promotion of women candidates by political parties, training in electoral campaigning and fundraising, civil society support for female candidates and, underpinning all, the political will of governments to promote women's access to national parliaments (UNIFEM 2008).

Progress and Challenges Across the Goals

Poverty and hunger

One major challenge has been the effort to document gender-specific differences with regard to poverty and hunger (MDG1), since poverty is measured and reported by households, not by individuals. In 2006, recognizing the fact that employment is the best path out of poverty, the UN Secretary-General recommended an additional target under Goal 1: “Achieve full, productive and decent work for all, including women and young people.” Four new indicators were agreed upon to assess progress, three of which are disaggregated by sex. The UN (2008,2009) reported that:

- The proportion of own account and unpaid family workers in total employment in 2007 was higher for women than for men in all regions except for Latin America and the Caribbean and the transition countries of CEE/CIS.
- In 2007, 8 out of 10 women workers in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia were in vulnerable employment.
- Women rarely receive adequate compensation for their significant contribution to food security.
- The global economic crisis could push 77 million more people in developing countries into vulnerable employment in 2008, reversing gains of previous decades.

Women’s health

The MDGs originally took a fairly narrow approach to women’s health, with the main focus being on maternal health (MDG5) and more specifically maternal mortality. Women’s sexual and reproductive health was conspicuously absent from the original targets and indicators, although it is a core element of women’s general health and critical to women’s control over their own lives. Acknowledging this, in 2006 the UN Secretary-General recommended the inclusion of an additional target: “Achieve universal access to reproductive health by 2015.” The indicators identified to measure progress include unmet need for

contraception and adolescent fertility, primarily due to early or forced marriage.

Maternal mortality

The UN (2008, 2009) reports that maternal mortality (target 6, MDG5) remains unacceptably high across much of the developing world, noting the following:

- Every year more than 500,000 women die during pregnancy, in childbirth or in the six weeks after delivery. In 2005, 99 per cent of these deaths occurred in the developing regions (86% in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia).
- In Sub-Saharan Africa, a woman’s risk of dying from treatable or preventable complications in pregnancy and childbirth over the course of her lifetime is 1 in 22, compared to a 1 in 7,300 risk in the developed regions. One in four of these women could be saved by effective access to contraception.
- At the global level, maternal mortality decreased by less than 1 per cent per year between 1990 and 2005, far below the 5.5 per cent annual improvement needed to reach the target.

Family planning—unmet need

Women’s unmet need for family planning (indicator 6, MDG5) has been declining in most countries. However, the UN (2008, 2009) reports that based on 2005 data:

- Despite increases in contraceptive use in all regions, the gap between women’s desire to delay or avoid having children and their actual use of contraception has stayed fairly high, especially in the least developed countries.
- In Sub-Saharan Africa, nearly 1 in 4 married women has an unmet need for family planning, and the rise in contraceptives used has barely kept pace with the desire to delay or limit pregnancy.
- Unmet need is highest among the poorest households, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean.

HIV and AIDS

With respect to HIV/AIDS (MDG6), the number of new infections and the number of AIDS deaths appear to have peaked in the last several years and have since been declining. However, the number of people living with HIV worldwide continues to grow, with women representing a growing share. According to the UN (2008, 2009):

- In 2007, an estimated 15.5 million women and 15.3 million men aged 15 years and over were living with HIV worldwide compared to 14.1 million and 13.8 million, respectively in 2001 (UN 2008: 20).
- In Sub-Saharan Africa, 67 per cent of people living with HIV in 2007 were women (UN 2009: 33).
- On average only about 31 per cent of young men (aged 15-24) and 19 per cent of women in developing countries have an accurate and comprehensive understanding of HIV (UN 2009: 33)

UNAIDS (2008: 33) reported that in 2007:

- Young people aged 15-24 accounted for an estimated 45 per cent of new HIV infections worldwide.
- 370 thousand children younger than 15 years became infected with HIV.
- Worldwide, the number of children living with the disease has risen from 1.6 million in 2001 to 2 million in 2007.

Women's time use

One of the targets under Goal 7 (environmental sustainability) is to improve access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation, which is still a problem for over 1 billion people, especially in rural areas and urban slums. Discussion is currently underway to require this data to be disaggregated by sex. Disaggregation will assist in documenting the burden of water collection within the household. In all regions, women shoulder the bulk of responsibility

for collecting water when none is available on the premises. For example, the UN (2008) reports that in 2005-2006:

- Women were more than twice as likely as men to collect water (64% of all water collection was done by women, 25% by men).
- Children collect water in 11 per cent of households.
- More girls than boys fetch water (7% girls compared to 4% boys).



2

Engendering Local and National MDG Policy Processes

As the last section highlighted, many countries have made progress towards the attainment of the MDGs, and in particular towards achieving gender equality, but important challenges remain. While much attention has focused on tracking specific targets and indicators set out for each country, the extent to which national and local policy processes have incorporated a gender-sensitive perspective is sometimes overlooked. To ensure the sustainability of the investments made to date, and to maximize their benefit, active engagement and ownership by local and national authorities is crucial.

In order to effectively engender national and local policy processes, it is important to go beyond narrow engagement with finance and planning ministries to include sector ministries, local authorities, civil society organizations and communities. Following are the key strategies for involving all stakeholders in a sustainable process towards engendering the MDG policy process.

Strategic Priorities

Create a sustainable process

- Use design, planning and implementation processes that are inclusive and participatory to ensure national ownership and sustainability of the MDGs.
- Integrate the MDGs with CEDAW and the BPfA to ensure the inclusion of gender equality issues in the MDGs, simplify and harmonize reporting processes at the national level, and add value to national reports by making them more useful as policy documents.
- Promote gender equality and women's empowerment when developing national MDG-based policies and programmes.

- Build support at the highest level of government and among national, community and interest group leaders and decision-makers to contribute to an inclusive and effective process.

Broaden participation

- Ensure broad participation—not only by policymakers but also by development partners, civil society groups and local communities—in formulating poverty reduction strategies and preparing national MDG reports (see Box 3).

- Involve women in every policy or decision-making group—including the MDG strategy group, thematic working groups, civil society and UN Country Teams (UNCTs).

In the world's poorest countries, women typically comprise 50-52 per cent of the population, and should participate on this basis.

- Involve the widest range of women's organizations as possible so as to guarantee balanced representation in keeping with women's diverse backgrounds (urban and rural women, HIV-positive women, adolescents and older women, women with disabilities, impoverished women and so on).

Include individuals such as gender experts and feminist economists to contribute specific expertise.

- Make available suitable levels of financing to national women's machineries and civil society to help people to better participate. Mechanisms should include the provision of relevant information (in local languages), and possibly training, prior to the consultations, to enable wider understanding of the policy debates. People cannot make useful contributions unless they are prepared.
- Track levels of women's participation in terms of numbers, diversity and content, by including these issues in the monitoring tools indicators.



Box 3: Tracking, monitoring and reporting instruments

National MDG reports, prepared by developing countries in collaboration with the United Nations Country Teams and other partners, have been the primary instrument for tracking and monitoring progress towards reaching the MDG targets. UNDP, the lead agency in tracking progress on the MDGs, makes it a priority to ensure that national MDG reports are gender aware and that gender equality is adequately addressed in reporting on each of the goals. These national reports have enabled countries to take ownership of the goals, and have emerged as tools for raising awareness, advocacy and alliance building.

Governments in low-income countries prepare **Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs)** through a participatory process involving domestic stakeholders and external development partners, including the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF 2009). In 1999 the IMF and the World Bank initiated the PRSPs approach as a comprehensive country approach for poverty reduction. According to the IMF, “PRSPs aim to provide the crucial link between national public actions, donor support, and the development outcomes needed to meet the United Nations’ Millennium Development Goals ...[and] provide the operational basis for Fund and Bank concessional lending and for debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative” (IMF 2009:1). PRSPs have increasingly been used as monitoring tools as they have more and more incorporated MDG targets to measure results. The guidelines* for developing PRSPs include useful recommendations on gender-sensitive reporting.

*IMF and World Bank Joint Staff Guidelines on PRSP Preparation, Status Reports and Accompanying JSAs. Access at: <http://www.imf.org/external/np/prspgen/glines/2001/092701.htm>



Good Practices: Gender and the MDGs Project

UNDP's two-year pilot project, "Gender and the Millennium Development Goals", was designed to produce innovative examples of how to bring a gender equality perspective to MDG advocacy, reporting and monitoring. UNIFEM executed the pilot project in Cambodia, Kenya, Kyrgyzstan, Morocco and Peru between January 2004 and December 2005, working with three constituencies at the country level: government, civil

society (particularly a broad representation of women's organizations as intended beneficiaries and partners) and the UN Country Teams (UNCTs). Project activities were designed to highlight the importance of localizing and building national ownership of the MDGs, and of including the voices of the poor and women in national development processes. (See Table 3 below.)

Table 3: Summary of good practices

Processes	Good Practices	Country
Localization	Brought together multi-stakeholder groups to align gender-responsive targets and indicators with national commitments.	Morocco, Kyrgyzstan, Cambodia
	Translated the gender assessment document, A Fair Share For Women, into the Khmer language and developed a popular version for teaching and advocacy at the community level.	Cambodia
Harmonization	Devised common indicators for tracking progress on the MDGs, CEDAW, the BPfA and PRS to demonstrate their inter-linkages and reduce transaction costs for government and gender equality advocates.	Kyrgyzstan
	Highlighted a country specific priority related to addressing feminized poverty (e.g., effects of new trade agreements on women in the garment production sector) and conducted analytical work to assess the challenges and opportunities.	Cambodia
	Made direct links between gender-responsive MDG indicators and UNCTs' CCA/UNDAF.	Peru, Morocco
Building national demand for gender-responsive MDG processes	Establishment of a Gender Focal Point network within government, and negotiation of the network's inclusion in the government's new PRS team.	Kyrgyzstan
	Influenced the National Statistical Bureau to reconceptualize presentation of sex-disaggregated data.	Kyrgyzstan
	Brought together the MDG initiative with work on gender-responsive budgeting to stimulate the interest of the Ministry of Finance in MDG costing.	Morocco
Constituency-building	Contest for students to write essays on gender equality and MDGs.	Peru
	Sub-contracted women's rights NGOs as implementing partners to build their interest and skills in using the MDGs as a platform for promoting women's rights.	Peru, Kenya, Cambodia
Local-level advocacy	Organized women's poverty dialogues and district level MDG action plans.	Kenya
	Outreach to rural women's networks.	Peru, Kenya
	Trained 25 women commune leaders, from eight districts in Battambang province, on gender and the MDGs (using A Fair Share for Women), focusing mainly on Goals 1 and 6.	Cambodia
Linkages to the UN regional economic commissions	ECLAC produced gender and MDG reports for Latin American countries.	Peru
Media advocacy	Used to build targeted awareness of the gender dimensions of the MDGs.	Peru

Source: Adapted from Lo 2007.

The project prioritized the achievement of two interrelated outcomes in the pilot countries:

- MDG advocacy processes, including campaigns, must reflect the gender dimensions of the eight goals.
- incorporate gender-responsive analysis and strategies across all of the goals.

Selected Approaches

The following summaries are adapted from Lo 2007:

Conduct effective advocacy and media campaigns

The Cambodia pilot demonstrates the value of linking advocacy, analysis and implementation of the MDGs with specific national priorities and citizens' concerns. The pilot focused on MDG1 and MDG8 as they are related to the impact of trade reform, highlighting the gender impacts of the end of the Multifibre Arrangement on the country's garment sector, which employs predominantly women. It raised awareness among a wide range of governmental and non-governmental organizations about the links between gender and poverty, and advocated for stronger social and legal protection of women garment workers specifically and women in the informal economy more generally.

The advocacy strategy included commissioning the NGO SILAKA, which works in education and training, to write an analytical paper (SILAKA 2004), and research on the situation of women in the informal economy conducted by the Economic Institute of Cambodia. The findings of these studies were then used in a series of multi-stakeholder dialogues that involved women from the district, provincial and village levels; trade unions; and local and national government representatives including

representatives from the ministries of Women's Affairs and of Labour and Vocational Training. Two high-level conferences were organized in partnership with the UN Country Team to raise awareness about the research findings and gender equality in the context of MDG1. The project also built capacity within key women's NGOs and advocacy networks to lobby for greater attention to be given to the livelihoods of women garment workers.

The Kenya project's advocacy strategy was to contract women's rights organizations as implementing partners in initiatives aimed at

building capacity to use the MDGs as a platform for advancing women's rights. Women's Action Forum for Networking and Womankind organized intra-district dialogues (see below under "Ensuring participation") and the Association of Media Women in Kenya produced media briefing kits. Other advocacy activities included:

discussion forums targeting district government officials and rural women; workshops for women leaders; tours and workshops for journalists; production of a briefing kit (A Fair Share for Women in Kenya); and translation of the UNIFEM (2004) publication, *Pathway to Gender Equality: CEDAW, Beijing and the MDGs*, for training district officials. These mutually reinforcing strategies resulted in a number of media stories on gender and the MDGs including features in national dailies (*Kenya Times*, *The Standard*), in the Kisumu City daily newspaper and on KTN National TV.

The Kyrgyzstan pilot worked with print and broadcast journalists to raise awareness among the general public, government and UN stakeholders on the gender dimensions of all the MDGs. The pilot also convened mass media organizations to discuss strategies for popularizing gender and the MDGs. The journalists,



who were trained by the Kyrgyz Agency for Social Technologies, produced a series of TV and radio public service announcements on gender and the MDGs, and eight television programmes on the gender equality aspects of each goal. Workshops and roundtables brought together journalists from many parts of the country to provide feedback.

In **Peru**, the initiative focused on wide-ranging media advocacy to build awareness and action related to the MDGs, particularly among women's groups at national and provincial levels, among youth, and among some local, regional and national authorities. The initiative worked closely with UNDP's nationwide MDG campaign to craft and disseminate two key messages: that women's rights are human rights and that gender equality is central to the achievement of all the goals. It produced public service announcements, briefing kits, analytical reports, radio spots, brochures and leaflets, newspaper inserts and other materials. An essay contest for university students on the centrality of gender equality to the MDGs, generated 192 entries of which 10 were chosen for publication. The project also commissioned a number of analytic studies on the MDGs, from a gender equality perspective relevant to local priorities.

Harmonize commitments and indicators

In **Kyrgyzstan**, the project developed gender responsive MDG indicators to monitor progress towards achieving gender equality across all the goals by harmonizing national commitments to women's human rights as set out in CEDAW and the BPfA (see Table 4). The project demonstrated to government partners how transaction costs related to multiple reporting requirements on gender equality could be lowered, and remain consistent with, the broader trend in development assistance towards coherence. Consultations between the National Statistical Committee, key ministries and other stakeholders led to the development of a unified Gender Monitoring Mechanism framework. This framework identified 11 indicators that could be disaggregated by sex, and proposed 20 indicators for tracking progress on gender equality through the different processes. These harmonized indicators could also be used in devising baseline indicators to ensure that the country's MDG-based poverty reduction strategy was aligned with existing commitments to women's rights. Box 4 (below) provides an illustration.

Table 4: Harmonizing indicators in Kyrgyzstan

The following matrix illustrates the harmonization process on MDG3

MDG3: Promote gender equality and empower women [Harmonizing CEDAW and the BPfA with the MDGs]						
	Goal 3	Local Indicators of MDGs (list)				
No.	Indicators	Measurement	Source of Data	Frequency of data collection	Comments	Priority Level
3.1.19	Number of victims of crimes by sex and verdicts issued to the conductor of a crime under the following articles...	Statistical data	Ministry of Interior Judicial Department	Once a year		1

This Indicator presents:
CEDAW Recommendation #19, Eliminate all forms of gender-based violence against women."
BPfA strategic objective D.1, "Take integrated measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women."

The project in **Morocco** contributed to greater coherence between MDG processes and CEDAW and BPfA monitoring by identifying rights-based indicators and targets for the MDGs. For instance, the technical team agreed that eliminating inequalities in expenditures should be a

target (linked to the country's work on gender-responsive budgeting). Among other recommendations, the National MDG Report includes targets to eliminate legal discriminatory arrangements, halve gender-based violence and eliminate reservations to specific CEDAW articles.

Box 4:

A seven-step harmonization process in Kyrgyzstan

Step 1: Formed an Initiative Group (Expert Group) and developed a participatory work plan. The Expert Group was drawn from sector ministries, academia, NGOs and the UNCT.

Step 2: Developed a unified system of harmonized indicators to bring together the MDGs, CEDAW, BPfA and PRS. The process involved sectoral workshops on the social, political, and economic dimensions of the MDGs. It also sifted through the MDGs, CEDAW, BPfA and PRS indicators and harmonized them around the MDGs in three categories: mandatory indicators that are technically achievable; important indicators that need initial support in data gathering; important indicators that need substantial inputs for data gathering.

Step 3: Held consultations with the governmental statistics committees or offices.

Step 4: Held consultations with each line ministry for validation and endorsement.

Step 5: Held consultations with broader stakeholders (UN, Government, NGOs).

Step 6: Negotiated adoption by the government and all ministries.

Step 7: Made official launch conditional on government endorsement and validation. The launch was followed by nationwide advocacy and lobbying the government to ensure systematic use and inclusion in national statistics system.

Source: Lo 2007

Influence policy processes

In highlighting the needs of women garment workers, the project in **Cambodia** was able to persuade the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training to take on the issue of social protection of vulnerable workers. The Ministry also sought to improve its capacity for sex-disaggregated data collection and analysis, and provided technical assistance to initiate a gender action plan. The Ministry of Women's Affairs expanded the MDG3 indicators, adding new ones on gender equality in literacy rates for those aged 25-44 years, wage employment in agriculture, industry and services, and women in all elected bodies (Phavi and Urashima 2006). The project was able to secure the issues of "safe migration" and "social protection" as priorities in the private sector development section of the National Social Development Plan. This section also analyzed the impact of World Trade Organization accession on the poor (particularly poor women), recognizing it as an issue to be monitored throughout the Plan.

Findings from the project's informal economy study (SILAKA 2004) were incorporated into the World Bank's poverty assessment, and the issue of sexual harassment in the workplace was highlighted as one for consideration in the implementation plan being developed to support the new domestic violence law. The project put women in the informal sector, especially women garment workers, on the agendas of the Technical Working Group on Gender, which is chaired by the Minister of Women's Affairs, and of key members of the UNCT, including the International Labour Organization (ILO).

In **Kyrgyzstan**, the consultative and multi-stakeholder process spearheaded by the project helped to influence the country's updated MDG report, and was the basis for the country's MDG-based poverty reduction strategy

process. The first government update on the MDGs (in October 2005) reported on gender-related targets, and women's groups seized the opportunity to advocate for the reduction of domestic violence to be included as an indicator for MDG3. The project was particularly successful in strengthening a network of gender focal points in line ministries (Foreign Affairs, Interior, Labour and Social Welfare, Finance and Justice), the National Statistics Committee, and the State Agency on Environment and Forest Services. This led to the production of a set of sector-specific booklets on the gender dimensions of each of the MDGs. The focal points received training on the use of gender indicators for reporting and monitoring, which, along with their experience in producing concrete outputs, is a longer-term investment in institutionalizing this capacity within government.

The **Morocco** initiative engaged in direct policy advocacy. The pilot worked with three key ministries—Planning, Public Health, and Finance and Privatization—to build their capacity and commitment to bring gender perspectives into their work on the MDGs. The focus was on producing the country's first engendered MDG report, which contained gender-responsive targets and indicators tailored to reflect the development priorities (Royaume du Maroc 2005). The process of producing the report built sustainable interest and capacity in tracking progress to achieve gender equality among a group of diverse stakeholders, including government representatives, women's rights networks and UNCT members. The pilot secured agreement on 69 indicators and 27 targets related to priority national gender equality goals. These have been included in the UN system's Common Country Assessment and Development Assistance Framework (CCA/UNDAF) for 2007–2011 and are being incorporated into the DevInfo database for Morocco.



Ensure participation

In **Kenya**, the pilot supported “poverty dialogues” in the poorest rural districts of the country, involving grassroots women’s groups, government representatives and media. A key factor in the pilot’s success in reaching out to rural women’s groups and networks was its decision to work through national women’s organizations with existing links to the grassroots. The pilot was designed to make visible women’s priorities in the national discussions on the MDGs, and to raise the awareness of women, including the network of Kenya’s women parliamentarians, about the MDGs as a framework for action. Four one-day discussion forums in Nyanza Province, targeting district government officials and rural women, drew more than 400 women from community-based organizations, and 36 heads of departments from local ministries (Planning, Water, Health, Transport, Labour and Gender).

Training modules on gender and the MDGs were developed for local organizations in **Peru**. They covered poverty reduction, improving maternal health, combating HIV and AIDS, and overall gender assessment. Narrowing the focus was critical to secure the involvement of women’s groups and strengthen their capacity to be effective advocates for including gender equality in MDG processes. The project connected with their work on women’s health, nutrition and monitoring gender discrimination, built on their existing interest in reproductive rights and poverty issues, and consistently linked the MDGs to CEDAW, the BPfA and the Cairo Programme of Action, the outcome document of the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD). Other activities included workshops for the women parliamentarians’ network as well as mayors, women councillors and representatives from three regional governments. The project targeted women with influence at the local level, such as those active in decentralization processes and in local coordination committees. The training will support the capacity of these women to mainstream gender equality into local and regional assessments conducted by the committees.

Encourage gender-responsive budgeting

UNIFEM’s close working relationship on gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) with the Ministry of Finance in **Morocco** helped stimulate the Ministry’s involvement in the lead technical team and its work on a costing exercise related to gender and the MDGs. The budget circular issued by the prime minister for the year 2007 called on line ministries to include gender indicators in their performance budgeting indicators. In addition, the budget reform process identified gender indicators as part of the expenditure control mechanisms, performance audit and budgetary information system. The extent to which Morocco is entrenching GRB as the backbone of the entire budgeting process is unparalleled, and it offers an important and distinctive example of bridging GRB and MDG processes.

Develop or strengthen partnerships

All of the pilot projects kindled new partnerships on gender equality and the MDGs, and all offered models for stimulating multi-stakeholder dialogues on gender equality and the MDGs.

The project in **Cambodia** contributed to a deepening of partnerships between women’s organizations and trade unions in four consultations facilitated by different women’s organizations: Gender and Development (GAD) Cambodia, the NGO Committee on CEDAW, the NGO Forum and SILAKA.

The multi-stakeholder expert group in **Kyrgyzstan** brought together 16 experts, including representatives of government ministries, NGOs, donors and the UNCT (particularly representatives of the Gender Theme Group) to lead the process. The project established strong working partnerships with several ministries (Labour and Social Protection, Internal Affairs, Health) and with the Secretariat of the National Council on Women, Family and Gender Affairs. Because of its multiple partnerships and stakeholders, the project succeeded in increasing demand for a gender perspective to be included in all MDG processes. While the National

Statistical Committee has a long history of partnerships with the UN system, the project created new entry points to strengthen collaboration.

The **Morocco** pilot involved effective multi-level, cross-sectoral partnerships with active representation from government ministries (Planning, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Women's Affairs), the UNCT and civil society, and included contributions of relevant technical skills from gender experts and statisticians. These partnerships were crucial to the entire pilot and laid a firm foundation for future work on the MDGs that cuts across different sectors and actors.

Wide-ranging partnerships were developed in **Peru**. Partners included the Ministry of Health's National Programme to Reduce Maternal Mortality, community health workers in different regions of the country, the National Network of Rural Women, university students and the national UNCT gender theme group, MESAGEN, which brings together gender specialists from UN and bilateral agencies.

Highlighting the importance of sex-disaggregated data

The briefing kit, *A Fair Share for Women*, developed prior to the project in Cambodia, was translated into Khmer, which made sex-disaggregated data and statistics available to a far greater number of constituents. The briefing kit was a joint initiative of UNDP, UNIFEM and the Asian Development Bank.

The **Kenya** pilot adapted the Cambodian briefing kit for women in Kenya, which focused greater attention on the use and importance of sex-disaggregated data for advocacy, reporting and monitoring. The kit is being widely used by government officials, community-based organizations and self-help groups.

The report of the gender assessment, produced in January 2006, added to the availability of locally produced sex-disaggregated data.

The success of the **Kyrgyzstan** project in strengthening the collection and use of sex-disaggregated data, was largely due to its work with the National Statistical Committee. A UNDP/UNIFEM publication, *Gender and the Millennium Development Goals in Kyrgyzstan*, which reviewed the collection of data and identified problem areas, was included as a chapter in the Statistical Book the Committee produced to accompany the national MDG report. The Committee also signed a memorandum of understanding with UNIFEM, with an emphasis on improving sex-disaggregated data nationwide.

The project strengthened the knowledge and capacities of gender focal points of involved ministries to advocate for sex-disaggregated data. While significant gaps remain in data relevant to tracking progress towards gender equality, that data is now more accessible and there is greater local capacity to produce and use it.

As part of the gender-responsive budgeting process in **Morocco**, the Ministry of Finance launched a local level survey aimed at generating gender-sensitive data and indicators to improve understanding of the local development needs of women and men in relation to public services and policies.





4

Scaling Up Progress on MDG3: Investing in Gender Equality for Development

Gender in the Financing for Development and Aid Effectiveness Agendas

Increasing official development assistance (ODA) to 0.7 per cent of GDP (as agreed at the 2002 UN International Conference on Financing for Development Conference in Monterrey, Mexico) along with greater mobilization of domestic resources is essential if countries are to achieve the MDGs by 2015. Both bilateral and multilateral donors and organizations have recognized that gender equality is central to achieving the MDGs and a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development and democracy. Denmark's Minister for Development Cooperation, launching the MDG3 Global Call to Action campaign, emphasized that empowering women is "one of the most important drivers behind economic growth and [in the] fight against poverty." The Administrator of UNDP has highlighted gender equality as "not only a goal in its own right, but also an important means for realizing all the MDGs" (UNDP 2008). The UK Department for International Development (DFID) has emphasized that gender equality is vital for both justice and poverty reduction and has said that it is putting women and girls "at the heart of all of our development work" (DFID 2007). The World Bank (2007) has stated that gender and development issues are core elements of its strategy to reduce poverty and that the Millennium Declaration's agenda and the MDGs will not be achieved unless women and men have equal capacities, opportunities and voice.

In the context of the aid effectiveness agenda, elaborated in the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, developing countries and donor partners committed to five principles to guide the delivery and management of aid to make it more effective in achieving national development priorities (see Box 5).

Efforts to accelerate progress in achieving the MDGs have shown the need for policies to address the linkages between the development of human capital and financing for development, in a more systematic and coherent way. However, commitments will be meaningful only to the extent they address the systemic issues that underpin

poverty, inequality and the distribution of power and resources in the global economy.

In partnership with the European Commission (EC) and the International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization (ITC/ILO), UNIFEM has been working to identify approaches for integrating gender equality and women's human rights into the aid effectiveness principles and new aid modalities, in accordance with the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. In the framework of the project, UNIFEM, in cooperation with its development partners (including other UN agencies) spearheaded gender mainstreaming initiatives at the third High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Accra, Ghana (August-September 2008) and the FfD follow-up meeting held in Doha in December 2008. UNIFEM has a crucial role to play in implementing commitments made at these forums.

Both the Accra and the Doha outcome documents emphasized the role of the UN system in further supporting the capacities of developing countries for effective management of development assistance, and in advancing dialogue and cooperation among development partners on aid effectiveness and financing for development.

The Accra Action Agenda (AAA) agreed at the High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, acknowledged the primacy of development effectiveness as a measure of aid effectiveness and the need for gender equality, human rights and social inclusion to achieve development results. It also recognized the need to expand the monitoring and evaluation framework of the Paris Declaration to assess the extent to which aid contributes to greater development impact and results.

The AAA provides important entry points to advance gender equality and other crosscutting issues, including through country action plans designed to implement the AAA commitments. These plans can also contribute to strengthening accountability and monitoring frameworks to scrutinize the development impact of the Paris Declaration through the integration of rights-based and gender-sensitive indicators.

Box 5:

The Paris Declaration principles to promote aid effectiveness

- **Ownership:** Developing countries exercise effective leadership in implementing nationally defined development strategies, and ensure inclusiveness in defining priorities.
- **Alignment:** Donors base their support on the national development strategies, institutions and procedures of partner countries, expanding the shift from project/programme-based aid towards general or sectoral direct budget support.
- **Harmonization:** Donors bring their actions more in-line with each other to increase transparency and collectively effectiveness.
- **Managing for results:** Donors and partner countries focus on results in managing and implementing aid.
- **Mutual accountability:** Donors and partners measure aid performance through relevant systems, procedures and capacities in donor and recipient countries.

Source: Lo 2007

The Doha outcome document goes further in connecting gender equality and women's empowerment to a vibrant economy. Development partners reaffirmed their commitment to eliminate gender-based discrimination in all its forms, including in the labour and financial markets and in the ownership of assets and property rights. They pledged to promote women's economic empowerment, to mainstream gender in law reforms, business support services and economic programmes, and to give women full and equal access to economic resources. They further undertook to promote capacity building of State and other stakeholders in gender-responsive public management, including, but not limited to, gender budgeting.

The Paris Declaration underlines the importance of partnerships between donors and recipient countries

and ownership of the development process at the national level. Aid is thus increasingly being allocated through direct budget support and sector-wide approaches (SWAs). Direct budget support means aid to the overall budget, with no formal limitation on where funds may actually be spent, while SWAs involve donor support to the development of an entire sector in a given country—such as health, education or agriculture—rather than to specific projects. Instruments such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and Country Strategy Papers (CSPs) are also being used more frequently.

In order to fulfil the stated aim of increasing ownership, the Paris Declaration principles require accountability, in particular that of the recipient governments to their constituents, including through national parliaments

and consultations with civil society organizations. Since gender equality outcomes will be important signs of the effectiveness of the new approach to aid delivery and partnerships, gender equality objectives and priorities must be integrated into national development planning and programming cycles, together with sufficient resources allocated to achieve them. In fact, at their meeting in Uganda in November 2007, Commonwealth Heads of Government called for a focus on gender equality to be specifically incorporated in the aid effectiveness agenda during the Accra meeting scheduled for the following year (Commonwealth Secretariat 2007).

Challenges

Despite the widespread recognition that gender equality is key to economic development and that inequalities between women and men have serious costs for societies, “it has been difficult to translate that knowledge into development policy and practice at the scale required to bring about fundamental transformation in the distribution of power, opportunity and outcomes for both women and men...” (UN Millennium Project 2005). There are a number of (often interconnected) reasons for this.

Lack of a gender perspective in national development plans and budgets

Although more than 120 countries now have national action plans for the advancement of women, too frequently these remain within the domain of the national women’s machinery and are rarely integrated with national development plans, poverty reduction strategies or other planning documents, or adequately resourced in national budgets. Part of the problem is

that gender equality advocates lack the capacity to effectively engage in new aid modality policy and planning processes, as do finance and planning officials to effectively incorporate the gender implications of the new aid modalities in policy formulation. Unequal power relations and hierarchical governance structures have also restricted the spaces for gender advocacy and hampered progress in mainstreaming gender into national policymaking processes. The Accra Agenda included a paragraph on capacity development, providing an entry point for gender equality advocates.

Direct budget support is intended to align aid flows with the government sectors identified in national development plans and budgets. But gender equality priorities may not be adequately addressed due to the limited degree to which they are mainstreamed in national development plans (and consequently in budgets). Aligning aid with budgeted priorities may also result in cuts to projects addressing gender equality concerns that might have benefited from external financing.

Many MDG-based national development priorities (including PRSs and SWAs) do not take gender into account, often because women are not involved in their development. A World Bank review of gender in PRSPs found that some hardly mentioned it at all, and that the range and quality of the gender analysis and policy commitment in the others was generally poor (cit. Whitehead 2003). The review identified three main issues: the quality of the participation by stakeholders other than government finance and planning ministries; the politics of advocacy around PRSPs; and the capacity for gendered poverty analysis.



In terms of SWAs, some studies in education, health and agriculture have been critical of the extent to which gender priorities are still being relegated to the margins rather than being made part of institutional change strategies (OECD/DAC 2002). In addition, despite evidence that women are profoundly affected by spending patterns in other sectors—such as justice and law enforcement, public safety, rural and urban infrastructure and transport—there have been few efforts to track these effects.

Lack of targets or indicators on development impacts

The focus of the Paris Declaration is on the processes of, and approaches to, aid delivery so it does not contain specific measures to promote gender-sensitive development or poverty-reduction. While it does emphasize that the volume of aid and other development resources must increase to achieve the MDGs, the main focus is on making aid management and aid delivery more effective and the 12 indicators do not include any measure of development impact, including gender equality. Moreover, the indicators in the Paris Declaration do not address the adequacy of the flow of resources, which is particularly important at the local level where funding has a significant impact on poor or socially excluded groups, including women.

Lack of gender mainstreaming commitment/expertise among donors/governments

A number of recent evaluations of bilateral and multilateral agencies in mainstreaming gender suggest a range of problems. There may be “policy evaporation” whereby commitments on paper are never implemented, partly

because of inadequate financing for gender equality work (Europe External Policy Advisors 2005). Another problem may be that all members of staff are responsible for gender mainstreaming but no individuals are held specifically accountable for results (World Bank 2007). Agency staff may have an uneven grasp of what “gender mainstreaming” means for their work, misunderstanding it both as a concept and approach so that it is seen “simply as a technical instrument that anyone with a tool or two can apply somewhere within the planning or implementation process (such as consulting or hiring a few women) and then say ‘we’ve done gender’” (World Bank 2007). Thus the new aid modalities may

further marginalize action on gender equality unless more rigorous accountability tools and measures of agency performance are applied to donors’ own record on promoting gender equality.

At the national level, political commitment may also be lacking, as well as the technical knowledge of how to integrate gender into development policies and programmes. “Mainstreaming” may have led to the elimination of specialized gender units. Often gender expertise can be found in the ministries of women’s affairs or gender, but these ministries are usually under-funded and have little influence over key ministries such as Finance.

Lack of accurate data on the situation of women and men

The Millennium Declaration and the MDGs, through the formulation of specific quantitative targets and indicators, have underlined the importance of the national production of statistics on women and men as a basic necessity of the development process. The



collection, analysis and dissemination of statistics and other information provide the basis for governments, international institutions and others to set priorities, design programmes and guide policy. However, it is widely acknowledged that there are significant challenges related to the statistics and indicators that are available for tracking progress.

In 2005, the UN Statistics Division reviewed national reporting of gender statistics, which were defined as “statistics that adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life.” The review covered population, health, education, the economy, violence against women, poverty, power and decision-making, and human rights (UNDESA 2005). Gender statistics are essential to back up the case for a more explicit policy focus on gender inequality. The review showed that despite some positive developments in mainstreaming a gender perspective into national statistical systems, important gaps remain in the collection, compilation and reporting of gender-sensitive data. Sometimes data are lacking altogether, and much of the existing data are not disaggregated by sex. Moreover, sex-disaggregation in itself does not necessarily mean that data are being collected using concepts, definitions and methods that reflect gender roles and relations in society. There are wide disparities in reporting between geographic regions and development groups that reflect the differences in overall national statistical capacity. The paucity of accurate data is also hampering current attempts at costing interventions to achieve gender equality and women’s empowerment (UN Division for the Advancement of Women 2005).

Inadequate funding for women’s organizations

Women’s organizations and movements have succeeded in putting the issue of gender inequality on the world’s agenda over many decades of organizing and advocacy. Whether small community-based groups or networks of NGOs that operate at the regional or international

level, their work continues to be vital for promoting women’s empowerment and protecting women’s rights. As UNIFEM has stated: “Making gender equality and women’s rights central to the MDGs requires support for women’s organizing, to push for policies to ensure that commitment is translated into concrete actions... “Without women’s organizing, we run the risk of sliding back on implementation of existing commitments to women’s rights and gender equality” (Heyzer 2003; Sandler 2006) However, a 2006 survey of organizations working for the rights of women around the world reveals that women’s organizations everywhere face significant difficulties with obtaining funding (Kerr 2007).

The survey collected data from almost 1,000 respondents across the world. The data reveals that most organizations are small, with two-thirds of those responding to the survey having annual budgets of less than US\$50,000. A total of 729 women’s rights organizations had a collective income of just US\$79 million in 2005, and more than half of them had been receiving less funding since 2000 while 67 per cent said that they were finding it more difficult to raise funds than five years previously. There was a vicious cycle in which small women’s groups were seen as lacking the capacity for growth and hence funding had not increased, yet increased funding would have allowed their organizational capacities to expand.



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5

Making the MDGs Work Better for Women: Recommendations

Engender the financing for development and aid effectiveness agendas

In order to advance gender equality, governments need to target both domestic resources and external assistance to support gender equality priorities. In addition to ensuring adequate financing for programmes that respond to women's needs governments and donor partners need

to strengthen accountability systems to track and enhance their contributions to gender equality; carry out gender-sensitive progress assessments and performance monitoring and develop indicators to assess the contribution of aid to development effectiveness (UNIFEM 2008b, 2008c, 2006). These points highlight the need for capacity building in government institutions, women's machineries and women's organizations (see Box 6).

Box 6:

Capacity development to incorporate gender perspectives in the aid effectiveness agenda

- Ministries of finance and planning need to strengthen the capacity of technical staff to carry out gender-responsive budgets. The capacity of gender focal points in sector ministries to coordinate GRBs with their counterparts in finance and planning and the national women's machinery, also needs to be strengthened.
- National women's machineries should enhance their skills to participate effectively in national planning processes, monitor implementation and promote accountability mechanisms for gender equality.
- Women's organizations and gender equality advocates need to strengthen their understanding of national planning and budgeting procedures in order to effectively engage in new aid modality policy and planning processes.
- The sustainability of new capacities needs to be safeguarded through broad-based partnerships and stakeholder forums to determine policy priorities, implementation strategies and accountability mechanisms.

Source: UNIFEM 2007.

Ownership

The importance of women's participation in debating national priorities was stressed in the first part of this publication. The emphasis on national ownership in aid relationships provides a key opportunity for both national and donor partners to ensure that women—particularly women living in poverty—play a meaningful role in articulating their own needs and in making sure that these are addressed. This includes strengthening their position in governments, in parliaments and in civil society. Institutional mechanisms that promote and protect spaces for women's voices in policymaking need to be supported and gender initiatives prioritized. It is important for national machineries on gender and women's organizations to be fully involved in development planning and active in implementation, monitoring and evaluation. More donor support will be needed to make this possible.

Alignment

The new emphasis on direct budget support means that gender-responsive budget initiatives (discussed below) are even more critical if government policies and spending are to promote equity and human rights. Gender-responsive budgets (GRBs) are one way of ensuring that accountability systems linked to public expenditure at various levels have a gender perspective. Gender-sensitive indicators on resource flows to local levels are needed to assess how effectively local government spending addresses women's needs.

Donors can use “commitments to gender equality and international instruments such as the MDGs and CEDAW in policy dialogue to align with, strengthen and support national commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment,” (Gaynor 2006). Integrating gender perspectives into poverty reduction strategies can significantly scale up gender work as demonstrated in countries where both governmental and non-governmental actors have been involved. For example, in Kenya gender and macroeconomics training of key persons in the budgetary process (parliamentarians, staff of the Ministry of Finance and Planning, activists from women's organizations, economic researchers and so on) led to gender issues being

prominent in the Participatory Poverty Assessment and Kenya Integrated Budget Household Survey (GTZ 2005).

Coordinated donor support to public sector reform, which is at the centre of most direct budget support agreements, provides an opportunity to ensure that efforts to improve the efficiency of the public sector and to tackle corruption also build in performance monitoring and standards that measure and reward efforts to address women's needs.

Harmonization

Harmonization may offer the best opening for introducing gender equality assessments of aid effectiveness, since the Paris Declaration calls for the harmonizing of efforts on “cross-cutting issues, such as gender equality and other thematic issues” (article 42). However, harmonization may be challenging if countries do not agree on a baseline and clear indicators upon which to establish the gender equality factors. This would certainly require the involvement of multiple stakeholders from community, national and global levels, especially gender equality advocates and human rights experts. This effort would indeed require substantial resources to be earmarked for its success, implementation and follow up.

Managing for results

Tracking aid results at the country level is to be carried out through transparent country performance assessment frameworks—sets of indicators that monitor progress against national development strategies and sector programmes. Proposed sources for these include nationally adopted policy matrices or PRSP indicators. Gender-sensitive indicators need to be part of these frameworks to monitor gender impacts and ensure that aid is reaching those it is intended to serve. Sector-based results must go beyond maternal mortality rates and sex-disaggregated school enrolment ratios to measure the impact of government spending and revenue-raising on male and female poverty, employment opportunities, political participation and so on. The capacity to collect, analyze and utilize sex-disaggregated data will need to be strengthened. (Indicators and data are discussed in more detail below.)

Gender-sensitive indicators can also be introduced into budget frameworks, especially those following performance-based budgeting formats. These indicators are integrated into the budget cycle to better align spending decisions with government priorities. Advocates at the national and local levels can develop systems and capacities to track the extent to which national development strategies and sector programmes meet gender equality goals.

Mutual accountability

Mutual accountability is to be achieved through joint assessment missions by donors and governments. The emphasis is on the extent to which donors and aid recipients have focused on national spending priorities, as well as transparency in the disbursement of aid by donors and the use of funds at the national level. The fact that public authorities should also be accountable to their societies may provide opportunities for donors and governments to examine their partnership with respect to the depth of commitment to gender equality.

The Paris Declaration and Accra Agenda for Action commit partner countries to strengthen accountability by building parliamentary oversight roles and by ensuring broad-based participation in formulating and reviewing national development strategies. As discussed earlier, participation must go beyond one-off or ad hoc consultations and provide those involved with adequate information (particularly about official spending) and methods to register complaints. NGOs working on gender may require training in advocacy and in analyzing women's needs and gender-based inequalities, to enable them to participate in reviews of national poverty reduction strategies and SWAps. Gender equality goals need to be included in central and line ministry plans and results-based frameworks.

Budgeting for gender equality

National budgets determine who benefits from public resources, and how. Although they are often seen as gender neutral, revenue and expenditure patterns may have different effects on women and men because of socially determined

male and female roles, responsibilities and capabilities (which are also affected by other factors such as age, race, ethnicity or location). Gender-responsive budget analysis of these effects helps governments to adjust their priorities and reallocate resources to address women's specific needs and rights to health care, education and employment. In so doing, it helps governments to reduce gender inequality and patterns of unequal growth based on persistent gender gaps.

GRB initiatives were pioneered in Australia in the 1990s and have since been introduced into numerous countries, both developed (e.g., France, UK) and developing (e.g., Morocco, Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania). Today there are more than 97 such initiatives worldwide. UNIFEM supports 40 of these, at varying stages of development. They demonstrate how gender analysis and budget formulation can be aligned to achieve positive policy outcomes and transform rhetoric about women's empowerment into concrete reality (UNIFEM 2008).

Assessing budgets through a gender lens requires a new way of thinking about government finances. It calls for equity to be included in budget performance indicators, and for examination of the impact of budget policies on gender equality outcomes. It also focuses on government spending in relation to women's time spent in unpaid care work, such as water and fuel collection, caring for the sick, childcare and so on. Conducting a GRB analysis is a step not only towards accountability to women's rights, but also towards greater public transparency and economic efficiency. See discussion on the GRB in Morocco (above).

Broader indicators of gender equality

Based on agreements such as CEDAW, the BPfA and the Cairo Programme of Action, the UN Millennium Task Force on Education and Gender Equality identified seven strategic priorities on which immediate action is needed if Goal 3 is to be achieved by 2015. The Task Force views these priorities as "the minimum necessary to empower women and alter the historical legacy of female disadvantage" (Grown et al. 2005; UN Millennium Project 2005). The seven priorities are:

1. Strengthen opportunities for post-primary education for girls while simultaneously meeting commitments to universal primary education.
2. Guarantee sexual and reproductive health and rights.
3. Invest in infrastructure to reduce women's and girls' time burdens.
4. Guarantee women's and girls' property and inheritance rights.
5. Eliminate gender inequality in employment by decreasing women's reliance on informal employment, closing gender gaps in earnings and reducing occupational segregation.
6. Increase women's share of seats in national parliaments and local governmental bodies.
7. Combat violence against girls and women.

All of these strategic priorities, with the exception of number 3, were subsequently taken up and included, in somewhat revised form, in the 2005 World Summit Outcome document. While these priorities are relevant for all women, the Task Force singles out three subsets of women for whom action is particularly important: poor women; adolescents (who constitute two-thirds of the population in the poorest countries); and women and girls in conflict and post-conflict settings.

The Task Force also identified a number of additional indicators to focus efforts and monitor progress towards MDG3 at the country level. While many of these have been incorporated into the new indicator framework, the following should also be explored:

Education

- The ratio of female to male gross enrolment rates in tertiary education. (Enrolment is already an indicator for primary and secondary education.)
- The ratio of female to male completion rates in secondary and tertiary education.

Sexual and reproductive health and rights (included in the new indicator framework)

- Proportion of contraceptive demand satisfied.

- Adolescent fertility rate.

Infrastructure

- Hours per day (or year) women and men spend fetching water and collecting fuel.

Property rights

- Land ownership disaggregated by male, female or jointly held.
- Housing title disaggregated by male, female or jointly held.

Employment

- Share of women in employment, both wage and self-employment, by type (included in new indicator framework).
- Gender gaps in earnings in wage and self-employment.

Participation in national parliaments and local government bodies

- Percentage of seats held by women in national parliament (has always been an indicator).
- Percentage of seats held by women in local government bodies.

Violence against women

- Incidence of domestic violence.

According to a UNDP (2005) gender review of national MDG reports, some countries have used indicators broadly along the lines suggested by the Task Force. For example, Ethiopia added an indicator on women's ownership of land and livestock under MDG1, and one on the proportion of women in police, law making and policymaking bodies under MDG3. Moreover, 22 of 78 reports reviewed addressed violence against women as one of the issues under MDG3, and Viet Nam added "Reduce the vulnerability of women to domestic violence" as a target under this goal. A number of UN agencies, including UNDAW, UNECE and UNSD, have also been making efforts to develop internationally comparable indicators on violence against women.

Another useful indicator is compliance with international and regional instruments on gender equality. This forms part of the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI), which was developed by the UN Economic Commission

for Africa and has been piloted in all the subregions of the continent. The AGDI is made up of a Gender Status Index (a quantitative assessment of gender equality in areas such as education and health, income, time use, employment and access to resources) and an African Women's Progress Scoreboard (a qualitative evaluation of governments' policy performance regarding women's advancement and empowerment). The Gender Status Index uses 42 indicators selected by an international working group and a regional advisory panel based on "relevance for gender equality, availability, the value added of the indicator and the necessity to cover all major domains and issues where gender inequalities are most prominent..." (UNECA, 2004). The African Women's Progress Scorecard helps governments monitor the progress made in implementing resolutions and conventions on the promotion of gender equality and the advancement of women.

The Gender Status Index involves a wider range of issues than international indices such as the UNDP's Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). UNDP is currently reviewing the GDI and GEM as both have proved difficult to calculate or interpret and the GDI has been criticized "for not adequately reflecting the concerns of developing countries..." (Moser 2007).

Improve the collection of sex-disaggregated data

As mentioned earlier, sex-disaggregated data as a base for funding policies and programmes is very important. Statistics are both a political tool and a prerequisite for gender-sensitive planning, monitoring and evaluation of national policies and programmes. The new aid modalities and national efforts to achieve the MDGs provide opportunities for donors and governments to invest in improving country-level

Box 7: Indispensable steps for producing gender statistics

- Selection of topics that need to be investigated.
- Identification of the data needed to understand gender differentials and women and men's roles and contributions in the different spheres of life.
- Evaluation of existing concepts, definitions and methods used in data collection against existing realities of women and men.
- Development of new concepts, definitions and methods to produce unbiased gender statistics.
- Compilation, analysis and presentation of statistics in formats easily accessible to a wide array of users.
- Development of dissemination plans for statistical products to reach wide audience.

Source: UNIFEM 2007.

capacity to enhance the coverage, quality and frequency of data collection. Indeed, the Task Force has said that this should be a priority. The availability of new and improved sex-disaggregated data will in turn support all advocacy efforts to advance gender equality in a country.

Based on its 2005 review of the state of statistics for addressing gender concerns, the UN Statistics Division called for three main actions to be taken: strengthen national statistical systems; mainstream gender in all aspects of the production of statistics; and develop and improve inadequate concepts and methods (UNDESA 2005). The UN Economic Commission for Europe has also provided some guiding steps for producing gender statistics (see Box 7), noting this requires “that concepts and methods used in data collection be adequately formulated to reflect existing gender concerns and differentials and take into consideration social and cultural factors that can produce gender-based biases in data collection, analysis, and presentation” (UNECE 2007).

In most countries, UN organizations are involved in building the capacities of national statistical systems that provide the data for inclusion in MDG reports. UNDP has suggested that UN support could be specifically focused on gender sensitization for statisticians involved in collating and processing data for the reports. This support would enable them to identify and use additional data to supplement and bring a gender dimension to the mandatory indicators under each goal (UNDP 2005).

For data to be useful, it needs to be disseminated in such a way as to be accessible to all stakeholders, including those with limited literacy. The data should also be available in consultative processes for debating policy choices, such as those established through SWAp, poverty reduction strategies and local government forums.



Increased funding for women's organizations

One reliable source of funding to women's organizations has been the UN Trust Fund in Support of Actions to Eliminate Violence against Women. Established in 1997 by a UN General Assembly resolution and administered by UNIFEM, the Trust Fund is the only global multilateral grant-making mechanism exclusively devoted to supporting local, national and regional efforts of governments and NGOs to combat gender-based violence. By the end of 2008, the Trust Fund had awarded more than US\$44 million to 291 initiatives to address violence against women in 119 countries and territories.

UN Trust Fund projects support public education and awareness campaigns; build coalitions; involve law-enforcement, judicial and government agencies; and train educators, health-care personnel and police officials to respond to and prevent violence. Many projects strive to alter community attitudes and involve men as allies. To build efforts that strengthen enforcement and accountability, the Trust Fund is focusing on projects to implement national policies and laws to end gender-based violence. Addressing the linkages between violence against women and HIV and AIDS is a second focus.

Two related projects that show how funding to women's organizations can make a difference were carried out by the International Association of Women Judges (IAWJ) in Botswana, South Africa and Zambia, and by the Caribbean Association for Research and Action (CAFRA) in Belize, Guyana and St Lucia.

The IAWJ's Jurisprudence of Equality Program conducts training for judges based on the premise that while many countries have laws to prevent violence against women and have agreed in principle to uphold international human rights standards, in practice human biases get in the way. The training examines how gender bias is often manifested

unconsciously, and explores how a “jurisprudence of equality” grounded in human rights principles can guide court cases, particularly those involving gender discrimination or violence against women. After the Trust Fund sponsored the IAWJ project in Southern Africa, participants from all three countries formed associations to continue advocating for gender equality in judicial systems. Zambia is also considering the inclusion of the IAWJ curriculum in the routine training of magistrates.

In the Caribbean, a region where rates of poverty and HIV and AIDS have been on the rise, CAFRA used a Trust Fund grant to address issues faced by a neglected and excluded group of women, sex workers. One project activity in Belize, a workshop for health officials, used the findings from interviews with sex workers in that country to reveal that the women often suffered from unreported violence and rarely went to clinics for sexually transmitted diseases. As a result, the Ministry of Health and agencies such as the local branch of the Pan American Health Organization agreed to work collaboratively on more inclusive HIV/AIDS prevention strategies.

Targeting women in economic recovery measures

In response to the global economic crisis, countries in all regions are now adopting some sort of emergency financing measures. Economic stimulus packages, initially adopted primarily in developed countries and some emerging economies, are now being adopted in countries at virtually all levels of development, ranging from France, Germany and the U.S. to El Salvador, Mozambique and Nepal. In general, these include investment in public works and job creation; support to firms, especially in the export sector, and measures to mitigate hardship on poor households and individuals, especially women.

Although the precise mix of these components varies widely, if women are to benefit from national level responses, they must be targeted specifically to the needs of women, especially in poor households. In terms of job creation, for example, while it is critical to ensure that sectors in which women predominate are targeted, it is even more critical to institute enabling policies for women to enter male-

dominated sectors by providing women with the necessary training and orientation. There are documented examples of how gender-responsive design of public works programmes can benefit women as well as whole communities, including physical infrastructure projects (e.g., rebuilding irrigation systems, land development, reforestation and afforestation, building rural roads, controlling floods) and expanded social services (e.g., water, household energy, child care). Creating jobs by investing in social infrastructure, expanding and improving the provision of health, education, domestic food production and nutrition, would relieve some of women’s care-giving burden and therefore provide more opportunity for them to enter paid employment.

Efforts to mitigate hardship include both tax relief and support measures such as cash transfers and extension of employment and health benefits. Such measures, however, are often short-lived, leaving low-income households just as vulnerable in the next downturn. Social protection over the long term is needed to provide a safety net against livelihood risks and vulnerability, to help mitigate the adverse effects of different shocks to household income, and to prevent the intergenerational transmission of poverty, in particular from women to girls. Measures include social insurance, social assistance—for example, food and housing subsidies—and social services such as maternal and child health and nutrition programmes. Social safety net programmes should be especially encouraged in low and middle-income countries.

To do so, however, developing countries need not only renewed financial assistance from developed countries, but also the policy space needed to adopt the public spending and support measures that can counter economic downswings, rather than be obliged to adopt the kind of austerity measures that intensify these swings and prolong their impact.

Given the extent of these challenges the achievement of the MDGs is now more urgent than ever. And, as the international community increasingly understands, gender equality is central in reaching the Goals—from reducing poverty and mitigating hunger to ensuring environmental sustainability.

Acronyms

AAA Accra Action Agenda
AGDI African Gender and Development Index
BPfA Beijing Platform for Action
CAFRA Caribbean Association for Research and Action
CCA/UNDAF Common Country Assessment/United Nations Development Assistance Framework
CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEE/CIS Central and Eastern Europe/Commonwealth of Independent States
CSPs Country Strategy Papers
DfID (United Kingdom) Department for International Development
EC European Commission
FfD Financing for Development
GAD Gender and Development
GDI Gender-related Development Index
GDP Gross domestic product
GEM Gender Empowerment Measure
GRB Gender-responsive budgeting
GRBs Gender-responsive budgets
HIV/AIDS Human immune deficiency virus/Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
IAWJ International Association of Women Judges
ICCPR International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ILO International Labour Organization
ICPD International Conference on Population and Development
ITCILO International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization
MDGs Millennium Development Goals
NGOs Non-governmental organizations
ODA Official development assistance
OECD/DAC Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development/Development Assistance Committee
UDHR Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNCTs United Nations Country Teams
UNDAW United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women
UNDESA United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNECE United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNESCAP United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNIFEM United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNSD United Nations Statistics Department
PRS Poverty reduction strategies
PRSPs Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
SWAps Sector-wide approaches

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Notes

1. The original MDG monitoring framework, issued by the UN Secretary-General in 2001 (A/56/3/26), included 18 targets and 48 indicators. These were expanded to 21 targets and 60 indicators in 2007. See <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx>.

2. These include: the 1992 Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, which recognized women's vital role in environmental management and the need for their full participation in achieving sustainable development; the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, which elaborated women's human rights; the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in Cairo, which acknowledged women's reproductive rights; the 1995 World Summit on Social Development (WSSD) in Copenhagen, which made the link between gender equality and poverty; and the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) in Beijing, which produced a broad-based agenda for promoting and protecting women's human rights worldwide.

3. This conclusion has been reported at the global level by the MDG progress reports issued annually by the United Nations Statistics Division. See: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Host.aspx?Content=Products/ProgressReports.htm>

4. Gender segregation in the labour market is differentiated by horizontal and vertical segregation. Horizontal segregation refers to the difference between the job categories women occupy as compared to men. For example, in most countries men dominate civil engineering, road building and construction, while most nurses are women. Vertical segregation refers to discrimination against women within a specific sector whereby men enjoy higher salaries, better working conditions, employment security and greater promotion opportunities than women.

5. Up to the end of the Uruguay Round, textile and clothing quotas were negotiated bilaterally and governed by the rules of the Multifibre Arrangement (MFA), which provided for selective quantitative restrictions to be applied when surges in imports of particular products threatened to cause serious damage to the industry of the importing country. On 1 January 1995, the MFA, which was a major departure from the basic GATT rules, was replaced by the WTO Agreement on Textiles and Clothing. Source: WTO at http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/texti_e/textintro_e.htm.

6. The DevInfo database was developed by UNICEF in cooperation with the UN System to help Member States track progress on the MDGs. http://www.unicef.org/statistics/index_24300.html.

7. The campaign was launched in April 2009. It calls on governments, the private sector, civil society, international organizations and

the media to make an additional commitment to "Do Something Extra" in support of implementing MDG3.

8. The EC/UN Partnership on Gender Equality for Development and Peace is a follow-up to the Owning Development: Promoting Gender Equality in New Aid Modalities and Partnerships conference that was jointly organized by the European Commission and UNIFEM in November 2005. It aims to identify approaches for integrating gender equality and women's human rights into new aid modalities. It will also provide support to national partners to fulfil international obligations on gender equality and match their commitment to gender equality with adequate financial allocations in national development programmes and budgets. The project's specific focus is on women in conflict. Source: http://www.gendermatters.eu/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=8&Itemid=8.

9. Paragraph 9 of the Accra Agenda states: *Building more effective and inclusive partnerships*. In recent years, more development actors—middle-income countries, global funds, the private sector, civil society organisations—have been increasing their contributions and bringing valuable experience to the table. This also creates management and co-ordination challenges. Together, all development actors will work in more inclusive partnerships so that all our efforts have greater impact on reducing poverty. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/ACCRAEXT/Resources/4700790-1217425866038/ACCRA_4_SEPTEMBER_FINAL_16h00.pdf.

10. The World Summit Outcome Document was adopted at the 2005 World Summit, held in New York 14–16 September, which was a follow-up to the United Nations 2000 Millennium Summit: <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N05/487/60/PDF/N0548760.pdf?OpenElement>.

11. Indicators proposed by the Expert Group Meeting on Indicators to Measure Violence against Women organized by DAW, UNECE, and UNSD (2006): http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf.

Indicators proposed by the former Special Rapporteur on VAW (2008): <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/women/rapporteur/annual.htm> Indicators proposed by the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission (2009): <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc09/2009-13-Gender-Stats-E.pdf>.

The compendium of VAW indicators by MEASURE Evaluation, which largely serves country-level implementation, is also useful: <http://www.cpc.unc.edu/measure/publications/pdf/ms-08-30.pdf>.

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304 East 45th Street, 15th floor
New York, NY 10017 USA
Tel: +1 (212) 906-6400
Fax: +1 (212) 906-6705
www.unifem.org



One United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017 USA
Tel: +1 (212) 906-5000
Fax: +1 (212) 906-5001
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