

EXPERT GROUP MEETING

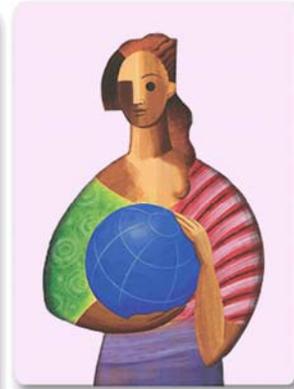
**The impact of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action
on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals**

11-13 November 2009
Geneva, Switzerland

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women

In collaboration with:
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

Hosted by:
United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UN ECE)



Report of the Expert Group Meeting

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**The views expressed in this document are those of the experts and
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Introduction

In accordance with its multi-year programme of work (ECOSOC resolution 2009/15), the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), at its fifty-fourth session from 1-12 March 2010, will review the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly and its contribution to shaping a gender perspective towards the full realization of the Millennium Development Goals. In order to contribute to a further understanding of the issue and to assist the Commission in its deliberations, the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), in collaboration with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), convened an Expert Group Meeting (EGM) hosted by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UN ECE) from 11 – 13 November 2009 in Geneva, Switzerland.

The Expert Group Meeting examined the status of gender equality and women's empowerment within the context of current progress towards the achievement of the MDGs. It considered the reasons for the uneven performance and stressed the continued relevance of the Beijing Platform for Action. The meeting discussed the social and economic costs of inaction on policies and commitments on gender equality. It proposed a set of policy recommendations, including ten key interventions for meeting the MDGs and accelerating the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, as well as additional policies and interventions in specific areas.

This report is the outcome of the meeting. It will be widely disseminated, including at the fifty-fourth session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), and the Annual Ministerial Review of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in July 2010.

Organization of work

A. Participation

The Expert Group Meeting on “The impact of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals” was attended by nine independent experts from different regions of the world, 15 observers (13 representatives of the United Nations, one representative of an intergovernmental organization, and one representative of a non-governmental organization), and one consultant. Three staff members of the Division for the Advancement of Women attended on behalf of the organizers (see Annex I).

B. Documentation

The documentation of the meeting consisted of:

- A background paper prepared by a consultant, commissioned by the Division for the Advancement of Women;
- Ten papers prepared by experts;
- A case study prepared by a United Nations Country Team.

This report and all documentation relating to the meeting (see Annex II) are available online at the website of the Division for the Advancement of Women:

http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/impact_bdpfa/index.html

C. Programme of work

At its opening session on 11 November 2009, the meeting adopted the following programme of work (see Annex III):

- Opening of the meeting;
- Election of officers and adoption of the programme of work;
- Presentation and discussion of the background paper prepared by a consultant, commissioned by the Division for the Advancement of Women;
- Presentation and discussion of papers prepared by experts;
- Working groups on issues and recommendations;
- Introduction of the draft report;
- Adoption of the draft final report; and
- Closing session.

D. Election of officers

The experts elected the following officers:

Chairperson:	Eva Rathgeber
Vice-Chairperson:	Piroska Östlin
Rapporteur:	Elaine Unterhalter

E. Opening statements

On behalf of the Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission of Europe, Mr. Ján Kubiš, Ms. Malinka Koparanova, Senior Social Affairs Officer and Gender Focal Point, welcomed all participants to Geneva and to the Expert Group Meeting. Ms. Koparanova noted the timeliness of the meeting and highlighted recent regional meetings, including on strengthening national mechanisms for gender equality and the “Beijing+15” regional review meeting which had taken place earlier in November. Ms. Koparanova emphasized the importance of gender equality and empowerment of women in poverty reduction. She noted that recent evidence demonstrated that implementation of global commitments on gender equality had been weak in many areas, and the global crises illustrated the fragility of progress achieved. In addition, limitations in data collection, analysis and reporting continued to impede effective policy-making, planning and monitoring of results. Ms. Koparanova underlined the importance of the meeting in focusing attention on gender equality and empowerment of women across all MDGs. She wished everyone a successful meeting.

Carolyn Hannan, Director of the Division for the Advancement of Women of the United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs, in a message to the Expert Group Meeting, also noted the timeliness of the meeting and, in particular, the significance of the coming year for promotion of gender equality. 2010 marked the 15-year anniversary of the Fourth World

Conference on Women with a comprehensive assessment of progress made and remaining gaps and challenges to be undertaken by the Commission on the Status of Women in March 2010; the United Nations Economic and Social Council would focus on “Implementing the internationally agreed goals and commitments in regard to gender equality and empowerment of women” at its Annual ministerial Review in July; and a high-level plenary event on the Millennium Development Goals would be held by the United Nations General Assembly in September.

Ms. Hannan pointed out that while the MDGs had been instrumental in rallying a broad range of stakeholders to the urgent task of development, the Beijing Platform for Action was critical as it offered a comprehensive framework for the realization of gender equality and the empowerment of women. In this regard, the Beijing Platform for Action constituted an essential means towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

Ms. Hannan emphasized the tremendous urgency to meet the objectives of the Beijing Platform for Action and the MDGs. Reviews of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in 2000 and 2005 had indicated some progress in eliminating gender inequalities across the 12 critical areas of concern but also highlighted the many remaining gaps and challenges. A preliminary review of responses from Member States for the 15-year review of the Beijing Platform for Action showed that progress remained uneven and inadequate in all critical areas of concern of the Platform for Action. Evidence likewise indicated that progress towards the MDGs had been slow and many of the targets were far from being achieved. Recently, concerns about the impact of the global crises on achievements made were being raised. Ms. Hannan emphasized the importance of identifying good practice examples of initiatives taken to integrate gender equality perspectives in efforts to achieve the MDGs and ways to overcome existing gaps and challenges.

Background

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action were adopted by 189 Member States of the United Nations in 1995. The Platform for Action is a global agenda for women’s human rights, gender equality and the empowerment of women, developed through a process of dialogue and exchange within and among Governments, international organizations, including the United Nations, and civil society. The Platform for Action covers 12 critical areas of concern: poverty; education and training; health; violence; armed conflict; economy; power and decision-making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and the girl child. For each critical area of concern, strategic objectives are identified, as well as a detailed catalogue of related actions to be taken by Governments and other stakeholders, at national, regional and international level. At the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly in June 2000, to review the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, Governments agreed on further actions to accelerate implementation of the Platform for Action and to ensure that commitments for gender equality, development and peace are fully realized.

The United Nations Millennium Declaration, adopted at the Millennium Summit on 8 September 2000 (A/RES/55/2), built upon the outcomes of the major summits and world conferences of the 1990s, including the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo and the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing. In the Millennium Declaration, Member States confirmed their resolve to promote gender equality and

the empowerment of women as effective ways to combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate truly sustainable development. The importance of ensuring the equal human rights of women and men and the implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) were also highlighted in the Millennium Declaration.

The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) derived from the Millennium Declaration and the outcomes of the global conferences of the 1990s, are accompanied by a series of time-bound and measurable targets for advancing development and reducing poverty by 2015 or earlier. The MDGs aim to: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger (goal 1); achieve universal primary education (goal 2); promote gender equality and empower women (goal 3); reduce child mortality (goal 4); improve maternal health (goal 5); combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases (goal 6); ensure environmental sustainability (goal 7); and develop a global partnership for development (goal 8). (A/59/2005, Box 1.)

While two goals – MDG 3 and MDG 5 – are gender-specific, there are clear gender dimensions in all the MDGs, and there is now broad recognition that gender equality is both a goal in itself, as well as a means towards the achievement of all the MDGs. Achievement of MDG 3 is essential for the achievement of all other MDGs. Conversely, achieving the MDGs has implications for gender equality and the empowerment of women.

While such linkages are increasingly recognized in policy, more work is needed to translate this into practice. Progress at national level on gender equality and empowerment of women continues to be uneven, with significant gaps and challenges remaining in many areas. Fifteen years after the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action and with the target dates for the MDGs fast approaching, there is pressing need to prioritize efforts towards gender equality and empowerment of women and to sharpen the focus towards the practical realization of the principle of the equality of women and men (art. 2, CEDAW).

The impact of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action on the full achievement of the Millennium Development Goals

Report of the Expert Group Meeting

I. Introduction

1. We are at a critical juncture in the world today, with the simultaneous eruption of crises at several different levels. For much of the world's population, there is a crisis of survival, with old and new problems of ensuring livelihood and access to food, water and energy and adequate health care and education services. Associated with this is a crisis generated by growing inequality, at global, regional and national levels. Each of these overlapping crises exacerbates older underlying gender inequalities, and makes genuine gender equality harder to achieve.

2. The economic growth paradigm that has dominated the agenda in the past two decades (based on deregulated markets oriented towards the maximization of short-term profit) has been shown to be unsustainable not only because it has resulted in multiple crises but because it has failed to deliver better and more secure material and social conditions for vast numbers of the global population. Rampant and unregulated growth in some sectors of the economy has had severe consequences for the financial system and accelerated the hazards associated with environmental damage and climate change. This has forced both governments in rich and poor countries, multilateral organizations and the private sector to re-examine some of their priorities and strategies. This re-examination of priorities is especially important because recent patterns of growth, development and social change suggest that even relatively modest goals for the improvement of the aggregate human condition were not being met. Thus, it was evident even before the global financial and economic crisis of the past couple of years that achievement of several of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was not on track in many parts of the world.

3. This moment is therefore an opportunity to put forward alternative visions. We do not have to start from a clean slate, because we already have the blueprint for many of the required changes in earlier documents and commitments that were generated by concerted action of the international community. Thus, the egalitarian, participatory and human rights-based development approach of the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, now - more than ever - offers a significant opportunity to re-orient global, national and local strategies in a more progressive direction, not only for women's empowerment, but for empowerment of all citizens.

4. The main conclusion of this Report is that, in order to achieve the MDGs, it is necessary not only to emphasize specific strategies in particular countries, but more importantly, to change the overall policy framework of both national governments and international organizations towards a more equitable and democratic direction, recognizing the need for a gender perspective throughout. This need arises because the policy framework generally in use was not based on adequately participatory and democratic decision-making and accountability processes, limited the needed increases in crucial public expenditure, and depended more on market forces to deliver essential goods and services even when there was clear evidence of high social costs, not generally matched by benefits. As a result, the framework operated generally to increase

economic and social inequalities rather than transform and overcome these inequalities. We show how key elements of the Beijing Platform for Action can be utilized and applied to serve as guides to policy development and implementation in the current context, and also suggest further measures that are required.

5. Although the MDGs are premised on a somewhat different approach to development than the Beijing Platform for Action, a number of strategic objectives and actions identified in the critical areas of concern of the Platform for Action are evident in the MDGs, as indicated in Table 1. There are other areas of convergence as well, particularly in MDG 3, on promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women. For example, one of the ‘design features’ of the MDGs is to set the earlier date of 2005 for the achievement of one target for Goal 3, that is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education.

Table 1: Mapping the Beijing Platform of Action and the MDGs

Critical areas of concern of the Platform for Action	MDG Targets & indicators
Women and poverty	MDG 1 (Target 1A, 1B, 1C)
Education and training	MDG 2; MDG 3 (Indicator 1); MDG 6 (Indicator 3 & 4)
Women and health	MDG 5; MDG 6
Violence against women	
Women and armed conflict	
Women and the economy	MDG 1; MDG 3 (Indicator 2); MDG 8
Women in power and decision-making	MDG 3 (Indicator 3)
Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women	Data element implied in indicators for MDG 3
Human rights of women	
Women and the media	
Women and the environment	MDG 7
The girl child	MDG 2; MDG 4

6. The Beijing Platform for Action is significant not only because it placed the empowerment of women at centre stage, but because it recognized that women’s empowerment and rights are a requirement for the empowerment and advancement of humanity in general. Adopting and implementing the various elements of the Platform for Action is therefore not just desirable but even essential for achieving the MDGs, and for ensuring more democratic, egalitarian and free societies in the future.

7. In this Report, we elaborate on this argument. The next section provides an account of the extent of success (or lack of it) in meeting the MDGs in different regions of the world. Each MDG is considered in a separate sub-section, with a focus on the situation of women and gender perspectives wherever possible. In the third section, the reasons for the uneven performance and apparent lack of success in meeting many of the MDGs, especially in certain parts of the world, are discussed. In the fourth section, the continued relevance of the Beijing Platform for Action is

discussed, along with a consideration of major reasons why implementation of the various measures proposed has also been uneven and relatively disappointing. This analysis paves the way for a set of policy recommendations that are elaborated in the fifth and final section. We highlight the ten interventions that we believe to be the most important, both from the point of view of meeting the MDGs and accelerating the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, and then provide additional policies and interventions in specific areas.

II. Meeting the MDGs

8. Globally, progress on the MDGs is currently below expectation. While the ongoing global financial and economic crisis has meant a significant setback for several targets, including those relating to poverty, hunger, health and employment, even before the crisis, most of the MDGs were not on track in the world as a whole and in certain developing regions in particular.

MDG 1: Poverty, hunger and employment

9. MDG 1 aims to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, with the following three targets: halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day; achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people; halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

10. Prior to the global economic and financial crisis there were indications that the first target would be met in a significant number of countries, including the most populous nations in Asia.¹ However, very recent trends have indicated some setback, related to the impact of the global crisis on employment, livelihood and wages. The recent evidence on the incidence of poverty is therefore discouraging and suggests that progress towards meeting this target has been adversely affected by the crisis, and if current trends continue, the target will not be achieved in several regions.

Table 2 provides some indication on the comparative performance by region.

¹ It should be noted that the definitions and associated measurement of the poor have changed very recently and this led to an increase in the estimated number of poor people in the world but also to the suggestion that the rate of poverty reduction had been faster than previously assumed. The international poverty line was originally set at \$1 a day in 1985 prices, measured in terms of 1993 purchasing power parity (PPP). This was subsequently revised to a \$1.08 a day, and then to \$1.25 a day. The PPPs were derived from a set of price surveys, conducted within the International Comparison Programme, but the most recent survey in 2005 (which was published in 2008) required a large revision to the previous estimates of price levels and therefore, the real sizes of some developing economies. In particular, China and India were found to have GDPs around 20 per cent lower than was previously estimated on the basis of the new set of price surveys. This in turn raised the number of poor people especially in these countries but also suggested that the rate of poverty reduction has been around the same or even slightly faster than previously assumed (Ravallion and Chen 2008).

Table 2: The proportion of employed people living on less than \$1.25 per day

Region	1997	2007	2008*
Developed regions	16	9	10
Developing regions	41	24	28
Sub-Saharan Africa	64	58	64
North Africa	6	3	3
South Asia	55	38	44
Southeast Asia	36	17	21
East Asia	38	11	13
West Asia	9	10	25
CIS Asia	26	21	23
Transition South East Europe	20	11	13
Latin America & Caribbean	13	7	8
Oceania	37	35	38

Source: Millennium Development Goals Report 2009, UN

11. It is evident from Table 2 that the incidence of poverty among the working population increased (significantly in some regions) in 2008 compared to the previous year, reversing the pattern of decline of the previous decade. In some cases, this has meant an absolute increase in poverty rates among the employed population over the period 1997 to 2008, such as in Oceania, or no change as in Sub-Saharan Africa. Of particular concern is that regions with already high poverty incidence seem to have been particularly adversely affected, including South Asia. East Asia, and especially China, showed the most remarkable success in poverty reduction over the past decade, but even here the crisis seems to have led to a reversal, although less marked than elsewhere. Since unemployment rates have also been rising in conjunction with the current crisis, the actual impact on poverty levels is likely to be even greater than the above data indicate. Data on consumption expenditure or income are typically collected at the household level, revealing that women and girls tend to be disproportionately represented among the poor. Women-headed households are among the poorest and most disadvantaged of all households. Within households, females are affected by differential lack of access to assets such as land and housing, less education, discriminatory domestic power relations and social norms, all of which affect their capacity and freedom to undertake activities that could reduce their poverty. When women control assets, they have more decision-making power within the household and their propensity is to allocate more income and resources towards child welfare (Ackerly, 1995; Thomas, 1990).

12. Part of the reason for the disappointing recent performance in reducing poverty relates to the inability to meet the third target, of reducing hunger. In the period after the global food crisis of the 1970s, increased investment in agriculture and various other measures implemented across the developing world to ensure greater self-sufficiency in food led to some progress in reducing chronic hunger by the early 1990s. However, according to the FAO, between 1995-97 and 2004-06, the number of hungry people increased in all developing regions except Latin America and the Caribbean, and even in that region, the trend has reversed in the most recent period. The reasons for this development may include the general reduction in investments, including ODA in agriculture that affected a number of poor developing countries, but also changes in policy across the developing world that led to a relative neglect of agriculture and domestic food distribution.

Although there have been campaigns to improve land titling and formalize land ownership, women have not always benefited from these efforts, and sometimes have come to lose usufruct and other benefits associated with communal land holding.

13. One of the two indicators for monitoring progress towards target 3 tracks prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age. Table 3 shows that in some developing regions, the proportion of underweight children under 5 years has remained relatively high and shown very little decline over nearly two decades. Girl children are typically worse affected by this, especially in those countries and societies where patriarchal patterns lead to reduced food consumption by females relative to males within the household (Sen and Kynch, 1988).

Table 3: Per cent of children under 5 years who are underweight

	1990	2007
Developing countries	31	26
Sub-Saharan Africa	31	28
North Africa	11	7
South Asia	54	48
Southeast Asia	37	25
East Asia	17	7
West Asia	14	14
Latin America & Caribbean	11	6

Source: Millennium Development Goals Report 2009, UN

14. In the developing world as a whole, one in four children is underweight at birth, and in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa the ratio is nearly one half. The indicator has also shown very sluggish decline, falling by only 5 percentage points from 31 per cent in 1990 to 26 per cent in 2007.²

15. Approximately 200 million children under the age of five in the developing world suffer from stunted growth as a result of chronic maternal and childhood undernutrition (Tracking Progress, UNICEF, 2009). Undernutrition contributes to more than a third of all deaths in children under five and can damage their cognitive abilities that limit their capacity to learn and to earn a decent income, trapping them in an intergenerational cycle of ill health and poverty. Stunted growth is a consequence of long-term poor nutrition in early childhood. More than 90 per cent of the developing world's stunted children live in Africa and Asia. Of all proven interventions, exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months, together with nutritionally adequate foods from six months can have a significant impact on child survival and stunting, potentially reducing the under-five child mortality by 19 per cent in developing countries.

16. Overall, there was very limited progress towards the target of halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger, as measured by the second indicator for this target, i.e., the proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption. Table 4 shows

² Even such figures are likely to be underestimates in the poorest countries, since lack of development also means that 57 per cent of children in developing countries are still not weighed at birth. The ratio is as high as 68 per cent in South Asia and 66 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa, although it is only 22 per cent for East Asia.

that the number of hungry people increased for the world as a whole, and particularly for certain developing regions, by more than 50 million between the early 1990s and mid-2000s. This increase occurred entirely in the developing world, as the numbers declined in developed countries. While East and Southeast Asia also showed good performance in terms of falling numbers of malnourished people, the number of hungry people increased quite sharply in South Asia (by 50 million) and Sub-Saharan Africa (by 44 million). It is notable that the growing prevalence of hunger and food insecurity was associated with relatively high GDP growth in several regions, such as India and countries in Latin America. The results achieved in East and Southeast Asia points to the role of public policy in ensuring that aggregate income growth translates into better provision of basic needs such as food for the general population.

Table 4: Number of undernourished people (millions)
(based on FAO minimum level of dietary energy consumption)

	1990-92	2004-06
World	826.2	872.9
Developed countries	19.1	15.2
Developing countries	845.3	857.7
South Asia	286.1	336.6
East Asia	183.3	136.3
Southeast Asia	105.7	84.7
CIS Asia	4.0	5.8
West Asia	6.1	0.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	168.8	212.3
North Africa	4.0	4.9
Latin America & Caribbean	52.6	45.3

Source: The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2009, FAO

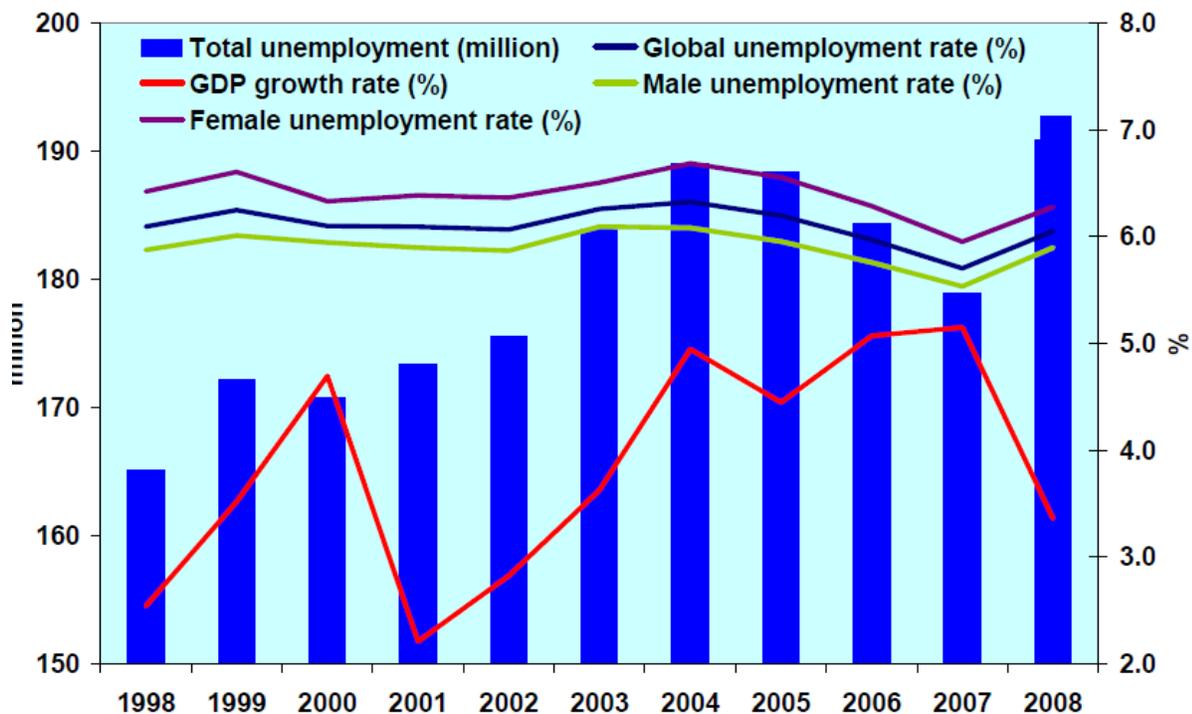
17. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) pointed out that the continued increase in the number of undernourished people during both, periods of low prices and economic prosperity and the very sharp rises in periods of price spikes and economic downturns, shows the weakness of the global food security governance system. The period just before the recent global economic and financial crisis was marked by major and extreme increases in global food prices, which rose by nearly 300 per cent for important food grains in the 18 months between January 2007 and June 2008. Subsequently, global trade prices of major food grains fell again until March 2009, and then started rising again. According to FAO (2009), in July 2009 the most recent prices of major food grain groups were higher than they were 24 months previously in almost all developing countries for which it collects data. At the same time, money incomes of the working poor who would be most affected by such price rises do not seem to have increased much if at all, largely because of the impact of the crisis on employment conditions.

18. The recent combination of higher domestic food prices, lower incomes and unemployment has substantially increased food insecurity, except in East and Southeast Asia. As a consequence, the FAO now estimates that around 1.02 billion people in the world are hungry in 2009, which is the highest number since 1970 (FAO, 2009). This trend moves in the opposite direction from the target set by MDG 1. It also has especially adverse gender implications,

because women tend to be disproportionately denied food within the household especially when it is scarce, resulting in a negative cascading effects across generations, as pregnant women’s poor nutritional status leads to low birth-weight babies with adverse consequences for their future health and growth potential (both physical and cognitive).

19. Since both poverty and hunger are critically affected by employment conditions, the target of providing decent work for all is so important. It is measured by the indicator: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people. Progress towards this target has likewise been relatively slow, and the recent crisis has exacerbated this trend. Globally, unemployment rates fell only marginally during the economic boom of the past decade, from 6.3 per cent in 1998 to an estimated 6.0 per cent in 2007 (ILO, May 2009). In South Asia, Southeast Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, open unemployment rates actually increased over this period, despite reasonably rapid GDP growth. The crisis has already caused very substantial increases in unemployment, with the ILO estimating that 51 million jobs will be lost by the end of 2009. Within the broad figures, the rates of open unemployment for women, and especially young women, have been a growing cause for concern.

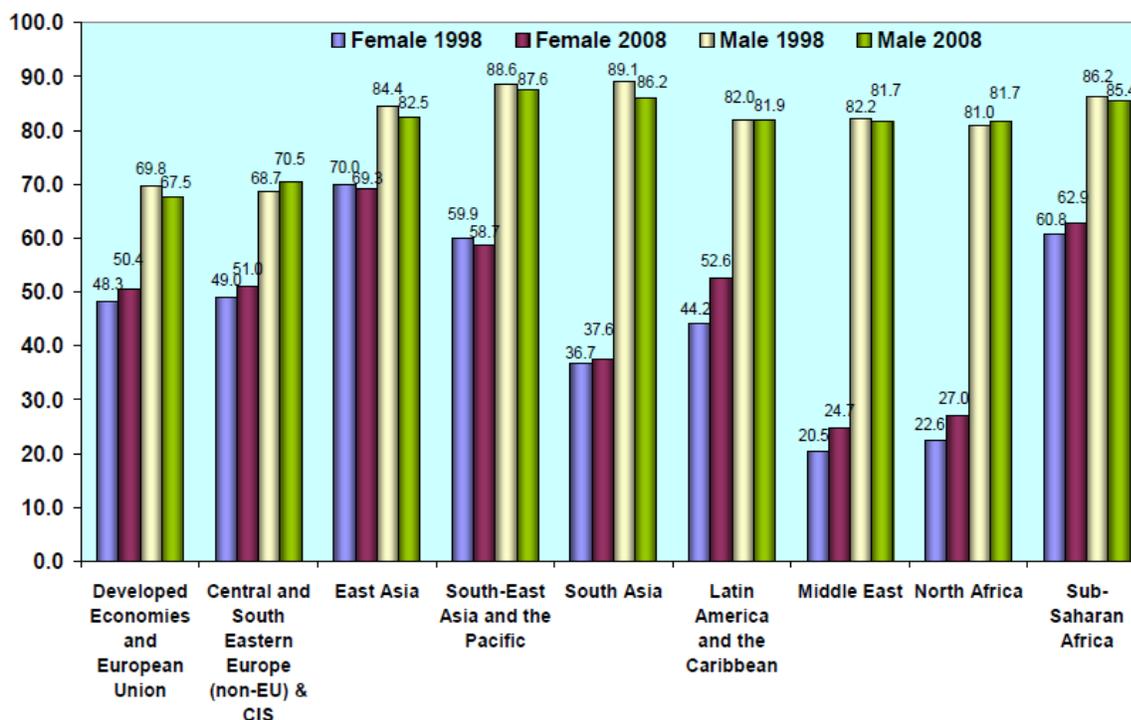
Figure 1
Global unemployment trends and economic growth, by sex, 1998-2008*



*2008 are preliminary estimates

Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, January 2009, see also source of Table A2

Figure 2
Adult employment-to-population ratios, by sex and region, 1998 and 2008* (%)



*2008 are preliminary estimates

Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, January 2009, see also source of Table A2

Table 5: Female unemployment rates

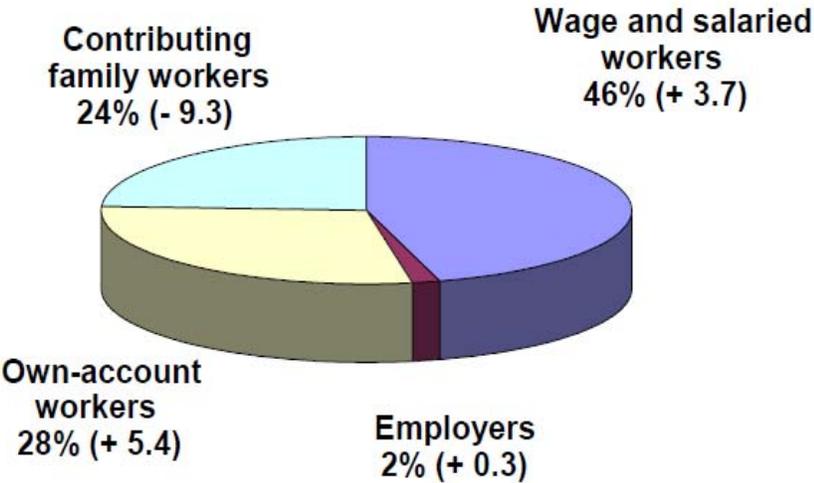
	1998	2007	2008	2009 (moderate projection)	2009 (severe projection)
World	6.6	6.0	6.2	7.1	7.7
Developed economies	7.8	6.0	6.1	7.8	9.0
CIS and non-EU Europe	12.5	8.2	8.8	10.3	11.9
East Asia	3.9	3.2	3.6	3.9	5.1
Southeast Asia & Pacific	5.2	5.8	5.9	6.5	6.7
South Asia	4.5	5.8	5.8	6.2	6.4
Latin America & Caribbean	10.9	9.2	9.4	11.4	10.6
Middle East	15.4	12.2	12.3	13.1	13.3
North Africa	18.0	15.8	15.0	15.9	17.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.7	8.2	8.2	9.0	8.8

Source: ILO Global Employment Trends May 2009 Update

20. The absolute level of unemployment and the high and rising rates of unemployment are causes for concern in regard to the target set in MDG 1, as is the quality of work, since the aim is to provide full and productive employment and decent work for all. Own-account workers and contributing family workers have been seen as more vulnerable because they tend to be

concentrated in informal activities without any formal or legal worker protection. The proportion of women workers in such employment tends to be significantly higher than men, especially in the developing world. However, there are wide variations across regions. In the developed countries, including Europe, the overall proportion of such workers is lower. There tends to be little difference between women and men and if anything, the involvement of women in such work is slightly lower than men's. In countries and regions where women encounter social or legal constraints in seeking outside employment, the differences tend to be very high, sometimes as much as fifteen percentage points (see figure 4).

Figure 4
Distribution of female status in employment, 2007
 (percentage point change from 1997 in parentheses)



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, January 2009, see also source of Table A2

21. While the proportion of vulnerable workers to total workers was decreasing, albeit very slowly and marginally, recent developments are likely to have thrown this tendency off course, with some increases projected in the proportion of such employment, especially among women workers. As is evident from Table 6, this may well result, in the more pessimistic scenario, in very high incidence of vulnerable employment of women especially in some regions, similar to those prevalent a decade ago. In addition, there has also been an increase in what may be termed precarious work, as regular contracts are transformed into short-term contracts and workers are hired in a triangular relationship, e.g. through recruitment agencies. An increase in undeclared wages (through enveloped wages) and wage arrears has also been observed.

Table 6: Vulnerable employment among women workers
(per cent of all women workers engaged in own-account or family activities)

	1998	2007	2008	2009 (moderate projection)	2009 (severe projection)
World	55.9	52.5	51.3	50.9	53.2
Developed economies	10.5	8.7	8.6	9.4	9.9
CIS and non-EU Europe	20.3	20.1	18.7	19.7	24.1
East Asia	67.7	61.1	58.0	58.1	60.2
Southeast Asia & Pacific	68.8	66.7	65.5	66.7	68.8
South Asia	89.5	85.6	84.7	85.3	86.4
Latin America & Caribbean	33.9	30.3	30.6	31.5	33.9
Middle East	57.3	46.3	45.8	46.7	52.3
North Africa	55.8	52.1	51.1	55.0	56.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	85.7	81.0	80.4	82.0	85.3

Source: ILO Global Employment Trends May 2009 Update

22. Efforts to meet the MDG 1 target of full and productive employment and decent work highlights the significance of attending to the care economy, considering that work of women and men outside the home does not come at a cost to care or quality of life within the home (working hours; child care; provision for the sick, the elderly). Domestic work, including care work, can be carried out by individuals of all ages. The gender dimension of this type of work is clear from the high percentage of female workers in such jobs. As more and more women enter the labour force, their family care and household tasks are delegated to household employees and other – often female – members of the household on whose care the well-being of entire generations may depend. An important feature of changing patterns of work has been the globalization of care work, an area that is very difficult to track, regulate and monitor because it takes place inside private households. Some features of the globalization of care work are large-scale migrations of women to work as domestic workers from some countries, such as the Philippines and Sri Lanka.

23. Since domestic work is often regarded as an extension of women's traditional unpaid household and family responsibilities, it is still mostly invisible, undervalued and unprotected. In many countries, domestic work is beyond the reach of labour law, either because it is expressly excluded or because monitoring compliance in the private sphere of the household is too difficult. The Beijing Platform for Action noted the need to ensure the safety, security and adequate remuneration of women engaged in domestic work, and the ILO has also recognized the importance of this area. The standard-setting agenda for 2010 and 2011 of the International Labour Conference concerning domestic workers has important implications for this group of vulnerable workers and their employers.

24. The Decent Work Agenda of the ILO is captured in four strategic objectives: fundamental principles and rights at work and international labour standards; employment and income opportunities; social protection and social security; and social dialogue and tripartism (the process by which workers, employers and governments contribute to the setting of workplace standards and protection of workers' rights). These objectives apply to all workers, women and men, in both formal and informal economies; in wage employment or working on their own

account; in the fields, factories and offices; in their home or in the community. While important protections have been put in place through ILO frameworks on decent work, and been incorporated into the legislative frameworks of many countries, the practical application of the objectives to all workers has yet to be achieved in many countries, including increasingly in much of the developed world.

MDG 2: Universal primary education

25. MDG 2 aims to achieve universal primary education, with the target to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

26. This target seems closer to fulfilment than the targets under MDG 1, as the past decade has seen a significant expansion of school infrastructure and facilities in many countries of the developing world.

Table 7: Gender parity index in primary, youth and adult literacy by region, 1991-2006

	Arab states	Central & Eastern Europe	East Asia & Pacific	Latin America & Caribbean	North America & Western Europe	South & West Asia	Sub Saharan Africa
Net Enrolment Rate 1991	0.81	0.98	0.97	0.99	1.0	0.67	0.86
Net Enrolment Rate 2006	0.93	0.98	1.0	1.0	1.01	0.95	0.92
Youth literacy 1990*	0.80	0.98	0.96	1.01	1.0	0.69	0.83
Youth literacy 2005*	0.89	0.99	1.0	1.01	1.0	0.88	0.87
Adult literacy 1995#	0.66	0.96	0.84	0.98	0.99	0.57	0.71
Adult literacy 2005#	0.75	0.97	0.94	0.98	1.0	0.71	0.75

Source: UNESCO, 2008, 378-9

*Youth 15-24; data from most recent year in period (1985-1994 & 2000-2006).

Adults 15-14; data from most recent year in period 1985-1994 & 2000-2006

27. Despite some recent progress, several major concerns remain. The first relates to the gender gap. As is evident from Table 7 which shows the gender parity index, in both enrolment and attendance, rates for females are significantly below rates for males in South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and North Africa, although the gap is closing in other developing regions. Second, enrolment is not the same as attendance: in these same regions, actual attendance appears to lag behind enrolment, especially for girls. In Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, actual attendance is only 61 per cent for girls, meaning that four out of every ten girls do not attend school despite having their names on the school roll. A third and often overlooked issue regards those who have been excluded by the current policy emphasis on primary education, i.e., the illiterate youth who are no longer eligible to attend primary school. This group will be an important part of the citizenry and the labour force in many countries for the next several

decades. Illiteracy is a source of deprivation and exclusion, and calls for specific interventions to ensure universal functional literacy. In South Asia, for example, a quarter of female youth falls in this category. Therefore, the existing target of MDG 2, which places all the attention on primary schooling, is inadequate to deal with the social needs of some regions where there is a large pool of illiterate young people who are too old to attend primary school. The focus on universal primary education furthermore limits aspiration on expanding access to secondary education, technical training, and opportunities for lifelong learning.

Education in (post)conflict situations

Over half of the 75 million children who are estimated to be out of school worldwide live in conflict-affected zones (40 million), a large proportion of which are girls. Conflict and refugee status most often negatively impact on girls' educational opportunities, both in terms of access to safe educational spaces and in terms of achievements because of undue pressures weighing on girls to secure income for the family. In many cases, conflict sets back educational gains and rights for girls and women and exposes them to unexpected forms of violence and abuse.

Source: UNESCO, 2008.

28. Another important issue relates to the quality of schooling, in that the commitment to ensure greater quantity may often lead to some sacrifice of quality standards. This is particularly likely in relatively poor economies with a large backlog of unmet needs for schooling, and where public budgetary constraints cannot provide enough basic infrastructure, facilities and qualified teachers to ensure a productive and useful learning experience. The experience of “parallel schools” in some states of India, where school expansion has been driven by the need to universalize schooling with limited resources, shows that these constraints can become an important concern. Inadequate resource provision for public schooling in a number of countries has been associated with underpaid teachers, sometimes described as “parateachers”, who are typically women, especially in the primary grades.

29. Also of concern is the high dropout rate that is still prevalent in many developing countries, with a high proportion of children not completing primary schooling and a much higher proportion not going on to secondary school, as can be seen from the sharp drop in enrolment ratios between primary and secondary level. This drop is especially marked for girl children, who often tend to drop out of school at the later elementary stage or before secondary school, for a number of reasons, including social norms, caretaking responsibilities for younger siblings, financial and physical difficulties of access (school fees and distance to school), poor quality of schooling or inadequate provision of necessary facilities such as separate toilets for girls.

30. Economic inequality remains a factor in educational attainment. Studies in Sub-Saharan Africa show that the best predictor of school attendance for both girls and boys is household income levels, which are more important than sex or urban/rural residence. Children from the wealthiest quintile of households have a six-times better chance of making it to the ninth year of school (Lewin, 2009). Gender disparities in schooling are inversely related to wealth and rise for girls in the poorest households (UNESCO, 2008).

31. A major concern in the area of education is the continuing lack of functional literacy in large parts of the developing world. In many countries, literacy programmes, including adult literacy programmes, have been relegated to secondary importance following the major policy emphasis on expanding access to primary education. As a result, large numbers of adults and youth are slipping out of the policy net and remain confined to illiteracy, and a disproportionate number of such people are women. UNESCO (2008) data indicates that in 2006, there were some 850 million illiterate people: 775 million adults and 75 million children, with little or no schooling at all. 61 per cent of them were female.

32. Much interest has recently been attached to the use of Conditional Cash Transfers to ensure both enrolment and attendance among children of poor households. There is no doubt that these have had a positive impact in some cases, especially in Latin America. However, two points need to be borne in mind. First, such cash transfers do not in any way substitute for – but rather rely upon – the existence of a functioning system of quality public schooling. Second, therefore they should not in any way divert either spending or attention from the requirements of expansion and improvement of publicly run schools.

33. The global economic crisis appears to have had an adverse effect on the performance under this indicator as well, although the impact is not as sharp as it is for employment and poverty. Micro studies conducted by the UNDP in several regions, such as developing Asia, have shown that as household incomes are affected, particularly among the less privileged and economically deprived groups, a frequent response has been the withdrawal of girl children from school. Climate change and the harsh effects of drought also appear to be impacting on girls' participation in schooling in some areas, with a number of studies documenting numbers of girls withdrawn from school as so-called 'famine brides', because early marriage will realize a bride price and help families restock herds (North and Unterhalter, 2009).

MDG 3: Gender equality and women's empowerment

34. MDG 3 aims to promote gender equality and empower women. This goal has one target, namely to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015. The target is measured by three indicators, namely: Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education; Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector; and Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.

Elimination of gender disparity in education

35. The first date for this target has already passed, and therefore there should now be no gender disparity in schooling at both primary and secondary levels. However, in 2005 the target for primary schooling was not met in 94 out of 149 countries with data (UNESCO, 2005).

36. As noted in the discussion under MDG 2 above, there is differential performance across developing regions and despite some concerted government, bilateral and multilateral efforts, more than half the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia and the Arab states have yet to achieve the goal of gender parity in primary enrolments, while in 2006, only 37 per cent of

countries with data, mostly in North America and Europe had achieved parity at secondary level. Gender gaps in secondary enrolments exist in almost all the countries of sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia, where more boys than girls are in school, three quarters of the countries in East Asia and the Pacific, and half the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean, where generally more girls are in secondary school than boys reflecting labour market opportunities (UNESCO, 2008). The target thus remains quite far from being met. Even where enrolment rates appear to be similar for boys and girls, actual attendance rates vary, with girls less likely to attend. And even when they do attend school, they are more likely to drop out at different levels of schooling.

Table 8: Secondary school enrolment and attendance

	Net secondary enrolment, Male	Net secondary enrolment, Female	Net secondary attendance rate, Male	Net secondary attendance rate, Female
CIS & CE Europe	79	75	79	76
Developing countries	51	49	48	43
East Asia & Pacific	60	62	60	63
Sub-Saharan Africa	28	24	26	22
Latin America and Caribbean	69	74	-	-
South Asia	-	-	51	43
Middle East and North Africa	67	62	54	52

Source: State of the World's Children Report 2009, UNICEF

37. Discrimination and bias are important causes of exclusion of girls/women from further schooling, but these are not the only ones. Location (rural/urban), ethnicity and social grouping, income, language and disabilities can all be important sources of educational disparity, especially when they are compounded. Often these factors do not come out very sharply from overall data on girls' education. Therefore, in addition to examining the aggregate data on schooling, it is important to be aware of and focus on particularly vulnerable and marginalized groups with respect to primary and secondary schooling, in order to ensure that they do not encounter multiple obstacles to educational advancement.

38. It is also important to bear in mind that access to schooling entails much more than enrolment on a register. Quality issues concern the content of the curriculum, the pedagogic approach and style of management. Many studies document gender inequalities in the provision of schooling, even though equal numbers of girls and boys are enrolled, with girls often being directed away from 'high status' subjects, not always given adequate support from teachers, and subjected to gender-based violence at, or on the way to, school, which school management regimes are often unable or unwilling to address (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2005; Leach and Mitchell, 2007; Maslak, 2008).

Bangladesh: Female Secondary School Assistance Programme

This programme began in 1994 with the aim of increasing the secondary school enrolment and retention rates of rural girls. It is a government programme which has built on the lessons learned from NGO programmes over more than a decade. Over the years, it has provided full scholarships covering tuition and all other costs, increased the numbers of female teachers, educated communities and parents about the value of girls' education, improved school infrastructure, and added occupational skills to the curricula. By 2002, the expanding programme was supporting 5,000 schools in the 118 poorest rural districts with around a million girls getting scholarships, and almost 40 per cent of the teachers being female. The enrolment and attendance rates for girls improved sharply and surpassed those for boys. The proportions of married girls among ages 13-19 dropped significantly.

(Herz and Sperling, 2004, cited in: Sen, Östlin and George, 2007)

39. Superficially, it appears that the gender gap in higher education is closing or has been closed. Worldwide, there are more women than men enrolled in tertiary education. In developed regions the ratio is dramatic: 129 females to 100 males; in developing regions the gap is also closing: 96 females to 100 males. Girls are much more likely to proceed to tertiary education in the developed regions, CIS countries, Latin America and the Caribbean, and South-Eastern Asia. Fewer have advanced to tertiary education in sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Oceania (United Nations, 2009).

Botswana's Diphhalana Initiative

Cultural norms about teen pregnancy vary widely. But even where there may be little stigma attached to it, as in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa, pregnancy and motherhood can make it very difficult for a girl to continue schooling. Systematic actions to break these barriers are therefore required. This initiative, led by a woman Member of Parliament (MP), shows how an integrated approach across social sectors – health, education and social welfare – can address the needs of pregnant schoolgirls and tackle barriers and challenges they face.

“Pregnant schoolgirls at Pekenene School are allowed to return to school after giving birth, for as long as they wish...During maternity leave, schoolwork and other resources are sent to girls' homes, and the school has developed a curriculum with some distance education modules that can be followed at this time. When girls are certified fit to return to school by a doctor, they return with their babies. The school has crèche facilities, which can take babies as young as four months, and nappies and milk are provided. At break and lunchtimes the young mothers breastfeed their children. The Diphhalana project requires that the father, if he is at school, share the responsibility of looking after the baby at break and lunch times.”

(United Nations, 2005, cited in: Sen, Östlin and George, 2007)

40. A closer look at the data reveals, for example, that young women continue to encounter barriers in accessing scientific and technical education, even in countries where the gender gap in schooling has been closed. Even where there is greater enrolment of women, the more high-yielding professional courses tend to be disproportionately taken up by men. Increased costs of such education because of privatization and reduction of government subsidies in many countries has exacerbated this tendency, as families are less willing to make large outlays of investment for the higher education of girls. UNESCO figures reveal that in 121 countries with available data, women comprise 29 percent of researchers but there were big disparities among regions. For example, in Latin America and the Caribbean, 46 percent of researchers are female; and Argentina, Cuba, Brazil, Paraguay and Venezuela have achieved gender parity. In Asia, women constitute only 18 percent of researchers overall. India and Japan have 13 percent female researchers, and the Republic of Korea has 15 percent. In Africa, women comprise about 33 percent of researchers (UNESCO, 2009). In Europe, women comprise 29 percent of science and technology researchers. They also comprise 29 percent of those employed as scientists and engineers across the European Union, but the growth rate in their participation between 1998 and 2004 was lower than that of men (European Commission, 2006).

41. Increasing the actual numbers of women in science and technology (S&T) is necessary, but not sufficient. It is equally imperative to address the culture of science and technology to make it more hospitable to women. Many of the values considered core to good performance in S&T, such as independence, competitiveness, assertiveness, respect for hierarchy, are based on male models of behaviour and differ from the nurturing, consensus-seeking roles into which women are often socialized as girls. Because the culture of S&T is biased towards men, there continues to be a so-called ‘leaky pipeline’-effect, with women dropping out at different stages of the educational and career trajectory. There are three different types of segregation often faced by women in science and technology. *Vertical segregation* relates to the concentration of women at lower levels in S&T, such as the B.Sc. for students, or lower level professional positions for women in the workplace. *Horizontal segregation* relates to the tendency for women to cluster in certain areas of science, such as the biological and medical sciences. *Contractual segregation* relates to the tendency for women to be given short-term or part-time contracts (UNU, 2005). All of these types of segregation are heavily influenced by the overwhelmingly male culture of science and technology.

Promoting women’s employment in S&T

Europe

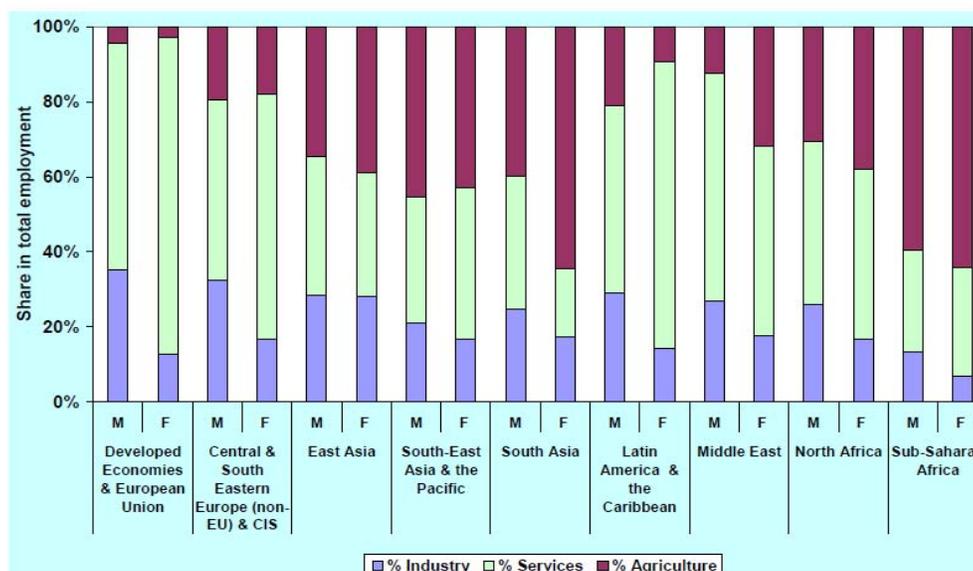
A *Code of Best Practices for Women in ICT* was launched by the European Commission in October 2009. The Code aims to attract girls at school or university to the high-tech sector but also to retain and promote women already working in this sector. It covers four areas of practices: education, recruitment, career development, and return to work after leave, and lists specific activities that could be undertaken within each of these areas. Signatories to the Code include some major ICT companies such as Google, Microsoft and many others. In signing the Code they have promised to address at least some of the issues related to women in the ICT industry. Most importantly, this Code outlines a list of actions and provides potential guidelines for what could be done. Similar codes could be drawn up for other S&T sectors, not only in Europe but also elsewhere in

the world. The development of such instruments provides clear indicators against which progress can be measured.
http://ec.europa.eu/information_society/activities/itgirls/doc/code.pdf

Women's employment

42. Women's empowerment has many manifestations, and one important aspect is access to employment, which is the second indicator for monitoring progress on MDG 3. As noted in the discussion on MDG 1, women are disproportionately employed in more vulnerable forms of employment and in lower value-added activities. Work participation rates vary significantly across regions, but in general, female work participation rates are lower than those for men, reflecting not only the demands of child bearing and unpaid involvement in the tasks of social reproduction, but also social and other constraints upon the employment of women outside the household. Female work participation rates (defined as the proportion of women of working age who are gainfully employed) tend to be especially low in North Africa (22 per cent), West Asia (25 per cent), and South Asia (34 per cent). They are highest in East Asia (65 per cent), but even there, are significantly lower than male rates. Furthermore, women in developing countries tend to be disproportionately employed in agriculture and low-paid services, and constitute a small minority of workers in manufacturing employment, in particular in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (see Figure 3). Even in regions where export-oriented employment has relied on young female workers, they tend to be concentrated in the relatively low-paid and less skilled parts of the production process. At the same time, it appears that the phase of marginal increase in female involvement in export-oriented activity has passed, as recent trends show both relative and absolute decline in female manufacturing employment even in the most export-driven economies (Ghosh, 2008).

Figure 3
Distribution of employment by sector (sectoral employment as percentage of total employment), by sex and region, 2008*



*2008 are preliminary estimates
 Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, January 2009, see also source of Table A2

43. The continued prevalence of a large burden of unpaid work, and its lack of recognition by society, links to lack of empowerment for women. The current global crisis and related reductions of public services and greater costs associated with them is likely to put further pressure on households to increase the time allocated to such work. As a result, the burden on women and girl children within the household is likely to increase.

Work-life balance

Philippines

The Employers' Confederation of the Philippines (ECOP) has developed a gender equality-oriented response to, and position on work and family issues.

“ECOP recognizes that employees cannot entirely relegate family issues to the background while at work. If work-family issues are not taken seriously, they may therefore cause problems in the workplace that could affect work performance. When an employee is worried about a child or parent, or preoccupied by family matters, the likelihood of committing mistakes due to poor concentration is greater. This in turn affects the ability of the company to meet its objectives.

In a highly competitive world, such problems can affect the ability of companies to remain competitive. These realities can no longer be ignored. ECOP therefore encourages its members to develop work and family programmes/ initiatives that take into account the varying needs of different workers in balancing work and family responsibilities. These efforts may be costly, of course, but the long-term effects if not addressed properly may be more costly for companies. Action in this field therefore makes good business sense. ECOP recognizes that workers will now and then take some time out from work to focus on the care of children and elders. ECOP recognizes diversity in the world of work and the fact that family needs vary by age, gender, civil status, region, economic status and position. It further recognizes that all employees will be affected by obligations related to work-family obligations in one way or another at one time or another, if not managed well. Employers are therefore urged to assist in their workers' struggle to balance work and family responsibilities by providing support services (such as child and parent care centres, medical care, supplemental livelihood activities) and by adopting other measures (such as flexible work arrangements).”

(ILO, 2005)

44. A range of processes associated with globalization may accelerate gender inequalities as gaps widen between richer and poorer countries. The growth of free trade regimes, high levels of labour mobility for some groups, changes in relations of production associated with commercial agriculture and rural-urban migration have significant gender perspectives and their effects and impacts women must be examined. Lack of investment in adult literacy, increase in trafficking women, out-migration of highly qualified teachers and nurses, and the relocation of many poor women to urban neighbourhoods with inadequate schooling, physical infrastructure including access to housing, water and sanitation, are some of the effects associated with these developments. Efforts to narrow inequalities between countries, as advocated in the Beijing Platform of Action, and tackling challenges encountered in this process can have significant results in creating a stronger context for realization of the MDGs.

Equal participation in decision-making

45. The third indicator for monitoring progress towards MDG 3 addresses the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament. Women's adequate representation at the highest levels where national and international policies are formulated is indispensable for overcoming sex discrimination and securing gender equality in a wide range of areas, including macro-economic policy and foreign affairs. However achievements in this area have been very slow.

46. There is clear evidence of a gender gap in high-level positions around the world. Explanations vary as to why there are small numbers of women at the top in the public and private sectors, and focus on men's and women's different approaches to leadership through socialization processes, structural and institutional impediments to women's participation and promotion (the so-called 'glass ceiling'), and stereotypes and attitudes about men's and women's roles and responsibilities. While gender equality legislation is in place in many countries, gaps in implementation also contribute to slow progress in women's participation in decision-making.

47. Globally, women held 18.7 per cent of seats in single/lower chambers of parliament as of November 2009. This suggests a steady but modest progress compared to 11.3 percent in 1995, but remains well below the 30 percent target set in the 1990s. Rwanda became the first country in the world to elect a majority of women to its lower house of parliament (56.3 per cent) in September 2008. In 24 countries of Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America, women have reached or surpassed 30 per cent representation of women in single/lower chambers compared to only six in 1998, all of which had been European, but one quarter of all parliamentary chambers have less than 10 percent women members and nine chambers have no women members at all (mainly in the Pacific Islands and Arab Gulf States). For the first time, in 2006, both women and men stood for election and voted in the United Arab Emirates; a woman was elected to Bahrain's Lower House of parliament in 2006 and four women were elected to Kuwait's parliament in 2009. In terms of senior leadership within parliaments, currently 35 women preside over one of the houses of the 187 existing parliaments. While overall trends point to an increase in women's parliamentary representation, the gains are not spread evenly across regions and regional aggregates obscure the large number of countries where women have little presence in national decision-making (IPU, 2009).

48. A larger challenge is to ensure gender equality initiatives are actively taken forward in parliaments. While 60 countries have established committees to ensure gender equality issues remain on the table, in many countries there is very little active parliamentary engagement with these issues (IPU, 2006).

WOMEN IN PARLIAMENT - REGIONAL AVERAGES (per cent)			
	Single House or lower House	Upper House or Senate	Both Houses combined
Nordic countries	43.2	---	---
Americas	22.4	19.9	22.0
Europe – OSCE member countries including Nordic countries	21.0	19.4	20.7
Europe – OSCE member countries excluding Nordic countries	19.2	19.4	19.3
Asia	18.5	16.7	18.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	18.3	21.0	18.6
Pacific	13.0	32.6	15.2
Arab States	9.7	7.0	9.1

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm. (accessed 17 November 2009)

The role of women's organizations

The Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) is a non-governmental organization that advocates for social transformation to generate equal opportunities, and equal access to resources by women, and by youth and other marginalized groups. TGNP coordinates the activities of a pressure group, the Feminist Activist Coalition which includes over 30 NGOs. TGNP is involved in research, capacity building and lobbying, working with a wide range of national and locally-based organizations. It has been pioneering a gender-sensitive budgeting initiative since 1997 and was a key advocate for the National Time Use Survey which has been produced by the National Bureau of Statistics of Tanzania in 2006. This Survey is now used as evidence in monitoring public expenditure in key areas such as agriculture, water and sanitation. (<http://www.tgnp.org/>)

49. Laws and their effective implementation are crucial to the empowerment of women at many levels. The Box below provides instances from different countries where legislative change resulted in greater gender equality. However, passing a law is only one component of a process of change. Good laws must be effectively implemented – which is not always assured, especially when laws run counter to prevailing gender norms and attitudes, as has been the experience of many countries, and which is especially true when women beneficiaries have little voice and agency. Attention therefore must be paid to the social complexities and incentive structures that will facilitate effective implementation. Participatory processes involving a broad range of stakeholders from the very outset of a legislative initiative to its implementation are critical.

Promotion of women's rights through the law and judicial action

Morocco's family code reform

The groundbreaking introduction of Morocco's new Family Code in 2004 gave women greater equality and protection of their human rights within marriage and divorce, as mandated by Article 16 of the Convention. The new law embodies the principle of shared family responsibilities between the spouses. It was the product of extensive public discussion of challenges women faced under the previous law, as well as analysis of the implications of human rights standards and religious texts. To help ensure effective implementation of the new rights that have been guaranteed, the legislative changes were also accompanied by the creation of dedicated Family Courts, and the Ministry of Justice is enhancing the provision of support services and training for judges and court officials.

Source: CEDAW 30th Anniversary celebration,

http://www.unifem.org/cedaw30/success_stories/#morocco.

India's Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act 2005

An example of poor formulation was the early draft in 2002 of India's Domestic Violence Bill, which left many loopholes including lack of recourse for a woman who may be thrown out onto the streets by a violent husband if she dares to challenge him using the law. As a result of strong lobbying by women's groups, and effective re-drafting by feminist lawyers, the draft was changed, and a considerably improved Act has recently come into force as the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act 2005. Both physical and verbal abuse can lead to charges, and the rules also ban husbands from harassing their wives for larger dowry payments. The Act uses a broad definition of violence to include beating, slapping, punching, forced sex, insults or name-calling. Preventing wives from taking up a job or forcing them to leave are also covered. The Act allows abused women to complain directly to judges instead of police, who usually side with men and rarely act on complaints. Now, when a woman files a complaint the onus is on the man to prove that he did not abuse his wife. The law also ensures the woman's right to stay in the family home, regardless of whether or not she has any title in the household. The Act covers not only wives and live-in partners, but sisters, mothers, mothers-in-law or any other female relation living with a violent man. As such, it is one of the most progressive pieces of legislation on this subject to date.

(Agnes, 2005, cited in: Sen, Östlin and George, 2007)

Costa Rica: Supreme Court Ruling on Women's political participation

In the decision *Voto No. 2166-99* of 2003, the Constitutional Chamber of the Supreme Court of Costa Rica embraced and extended the concept of substantive equality. This 2003 opinion upheld a claim against the President of the Legislative Assembly based upon his appointments to legislative committees. Five assembly members, four women and one man, challenged the President's failure to name proportional numbers of women and men to the assembly's 2002-2003 permanent committees. The Court unanimously ruled that the Assembly President's omissions were inconsistent with the guarantee of equality under the Costa Rican

Constitution, and those of CEDAW and the Inter-American Convention on Human Rights. The opinion quoted Article 7 of CEDAW as well as relevant articles from the Law for the Social Promotion of Women and the Electoral Code. It condemned the President's failure to name women and men in proportionality, or to provide sufficient evidence that he had deliberately and adequately considered or paid attention to the demands for women's participation legally required by the governing legal norms.

http://www.iwraw-ap.org/publications/doc/OPS14_Web.pdf

50. Diversity contributes to economic performance since businesses can tap into the creativity, innovation and skills of both men and women. A study conducted by US Fortune Magazine of 500 companies showed that having more women on company boards correlated strongly with above-average returns on shareholder equity, sales and inversed capital. A number of studies show that women bring different perspectives to management in private and publicly run companies. Yet throughout the world, women are under-represented in top managerial jobs compared with their share of overall employment; when climbing up an organization's hierarchy, the proportion of women managers diminishes sharply. In Europe in 2008, 9.7 per cent of company board seats were held by women, compared with 8 per cent in 2004. Findings from 2009 reveal that the percentage of women in senior managerial positions globally has grown slightly, since 2004, from 19 per cent to 24 per cent. The Philippines was in the lead with 47 per cent of managerial positions being held by women, followed by the Russian Federation (42 per cent) and Thailand (38 per cent). Denmark, Belgium and Japan recorded 13 per cent, 12 per cent and 7 per cent, respectively (PNW, 2008).

MDG 4: Child mortality

51. MDG 4 is a call to reduce global child mortality. This goal has one target, namely to reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate. Progress is measured with three indicators, namely: under-five mortality rate; infant mortality rate; and the proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles.

52. Deaths of children under five years of age have declined steadily worldwide. However, mortality is increasingly concentrated in poor countries. 99 per cent child deaths occur in least developed countries. Child mortality varies dramatically across developing regions and even within them, where rates in rural areas are much higher than in urban areas.

53. The target of MDG 4 requires a reduction of child mortality from more than 12 million in 1990 to four million in 2015. In order to be on track, child mortality rates would need to decline on average by 4.4 per cent annually, which is much higher than the actual 1.8 per cent reduction achieved so far, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for half of under-five deaths, while South Asia accounts for 32 per cent. At the present rate, the reduction in under-five mortality rates will be only by one-third, and at the current rate, the target can only be reached in 2045 (Child Info: Monitoring the Situation of Children and Women).

Table 9: Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)
Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)

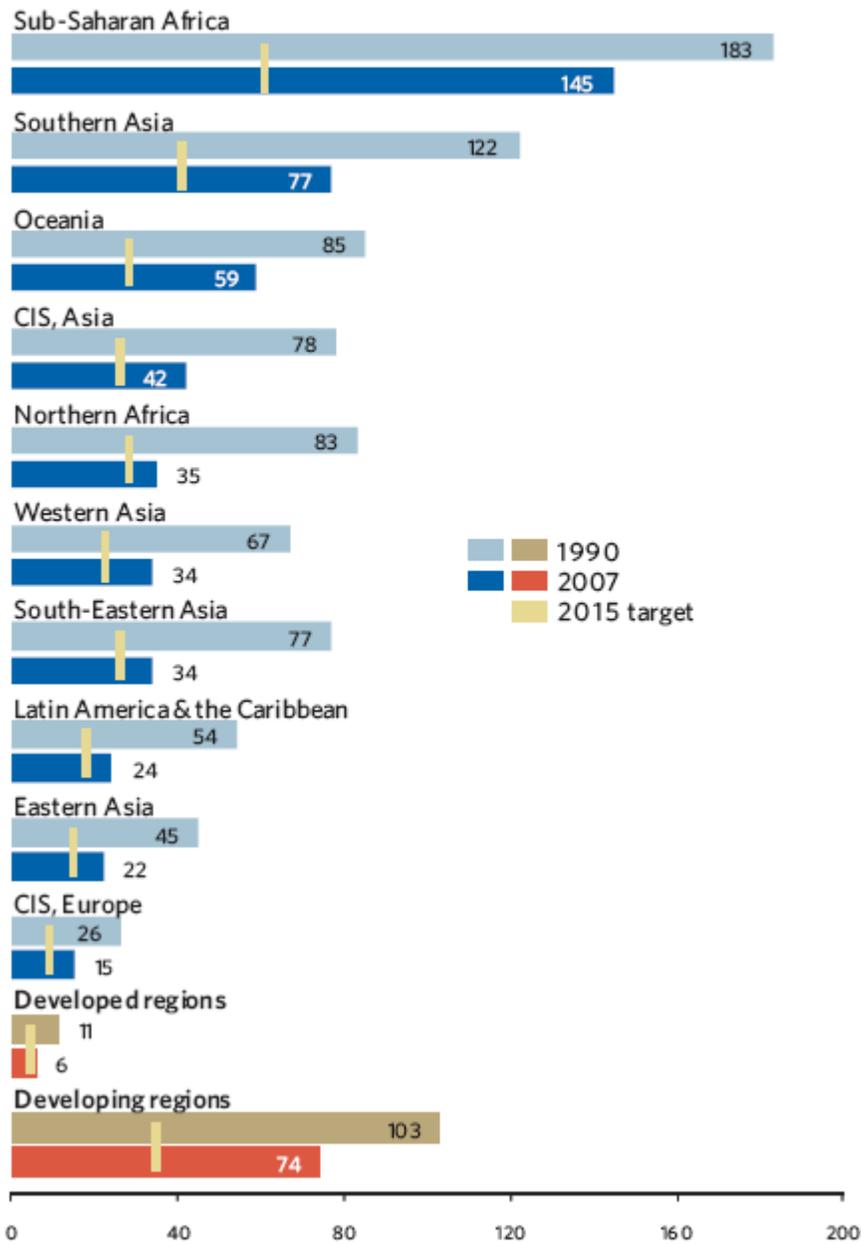
Region	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008	Decrease	Average	Progress
							1990-2008 (%)	annual rate of reduction 1990-2008 (%)	towards the MDG target
AFRICA	168	165	152	139	134	132	21	1.3	insufficient
Sub-Saharan Africa	184	180	165	152	146	144	22	1.4	insufficient
Eastern and Southern Africa	167	162	146	129	122	119	29	1.9	insufficient
West and Central Africa	206	202	188	176	171	169	18	1.1	insufficient
Middle East and North Africa	77	66	56	47	44	43	44	3.2	insufficient
ASIA	87	82	71	60	56	54	38	3	insufficient
South Asia	124	111	99	83	78	76	39	3	insufficient
East Asia and Pacific	54	49	41	32	29	28	48	4	on track
Latin America and Caribbean	52	43	33	26	24	23	56	4.5	on track
CEE/CIS	51	49	37	27	24	23	55	4.4	on track
Industrialized countries	10	8	7	6	6	6	40	2.8	on track
Developing countries	99	95	86	77	73	71	28	1.8	insufficient
Least developed countries	179	168	150	136	131	129	28	1.8	insufficient
World	90	87	78	70	66	65	28	1.8	insufficient

Source: http://www.childinfo.org/files/Progress_for_Children-No.8_EN.pdf

Table 10

Child survival efforts are intensifying in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia

Under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births, 1990 and 2007



Source: The Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

54. In regions where child mortality rates are high, around one-third of such deaths are accounted for by neonatal mortality. Each year, four million newborn babies die – equal to the number of AIDS and malaria deaths combined. The time of birth and the first days of life are the riskiest period in the human life span. Each year, three million babies die in the first week of life and two-thirds of these (2 million) die in the first 24 hours of life. More rapid progress in reducing newborn deaths is therefore essential for advancing progress towards MDG 4.

55. Low birth weight (LBW) is defined by WHO as weight of less than 2,500 grams, and infants weighing less than 2,500 grams are 20 times more like to die than heavier babies. More common in developing than developed countries, a birth weight below 2,500 grams contributes to a range of poor health outcomes. Efforts to reduce LBW by at least one-third between 2000 and 2010 contribute towards achieving MDG 4 (WHO and UNICEF, 2004).

56. Birth weight is affected to a great extent by the mother's own foetal growth and her diet from birth to pregnancy, and thus, her body composition at conception. Mothers in deprived socio-economic conditions frequently have low birth weight infants. In those settings, the infant's low birth weight stems primarily from the mother's poor nutrition and health over a long period of time, including during pregnancy, the high prevalence of specific and non-specific infections, or from pregnancy complications, underpinned by poverty. Physically demanding work during pregnancy also contributes to poor foetal growth (WHO and UNICEF, 2004).

57. More than 20 million infants worldwide, representing 15.5 per cent of all births, are born with low birth weight, 95.6 per cent of them in developing countries. The level of low birth weight in developing countries (16.5 per cent) is more than double the level in developed regions (7 per cent) (WHO and UNICEF, 2004).

58. Half of all low birth weight babies are born in South-Central Asia, where more than a quarter (27 per cent) of all infants weighs less than 2,500 grams at birth. Low birth weight levels in sub-Saharan Africa are around 15 per cent. Central and South America have, on average, much lower rates (10 per cent), while in the Caribbean the level (14 per cent) is almost as high as in Sub-Saharan Africa. About 10 per cent of births in Oceania are low birth weight. Globally, the LBW indicator is a good summary measure of a multifaceted public health problem that includes long-term maternal malnutrition, ill health, hard work and poor pregnancy health care (WHO and UNICEF, 2004).

59. The health of newborns and children is inextricably linked to the health of their mothers and the role and status of women in society. Although no global sex-disaggregated data for under-five mortality is available, evidence indicates that discrimination against girls and unequal sharing of food and resources within households have a significant impact on girls' mortality. Improving women's health and enhancing reproductive and maternal health and services (MDG 5) will directly contribute to attaining MDG 4 (UNICEF, 2009).

60. Improving the health of children and their mothers goes beyond a package of good health interventions and services. It involves addressing and reversing structural discrimination and maltreatment of women, and promotion of women's rights and empowerment.

61. The third indicator monitors routine measles immunisation of 1 year-old children. Coverage has increased to protect the children from this deadly disease, reaching 82 per cent of the world's children in 2007. Measles deaths have dropped 74 per cent, with the largest reduction in Sub-Saharan Africa. Globally, there were an estimated 197,000 measles-related deaths in 2007, down from 750,000 in 2000. Measles vaccine, at less than \$1 per child, is one of the most cost-effective health initiatives currently available (Joint News Release/WHO/UNICEF/American Red Cross/CDC/UN Foundation).

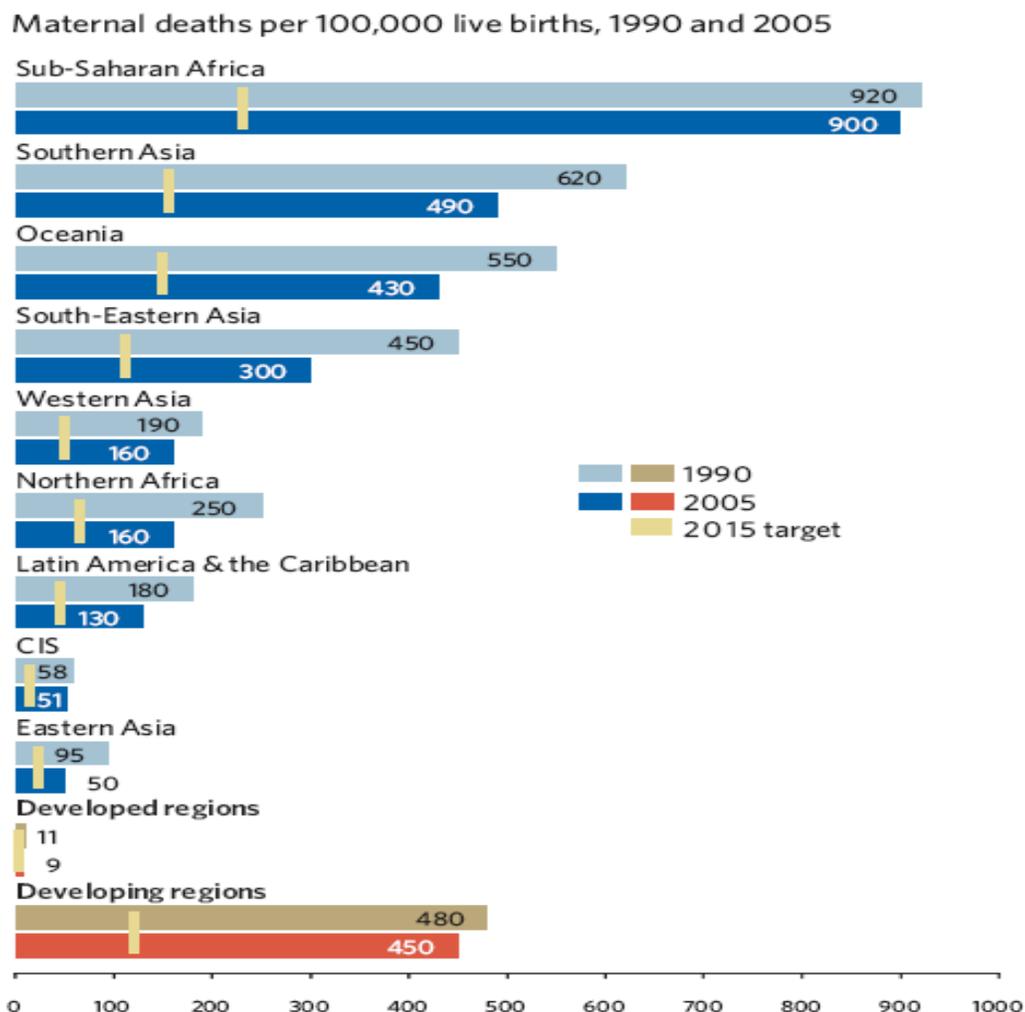
MDG 5: Maternal health

62. MDG 5 aims to improve maternal health, with two specific targets, namely to reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio; and to achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health. Progress towards meeting the targets is monitored by six indicators, namely: maternal mortality ratio; and the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (first target); and contraceptive prevalence rate; adolescent birth rate; antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits); and unmet need for family planning (second target).

63. Maternal mortality is difficult and complex to measure, particularly in settings where the levels of maternal deaths are highest. Information is required about deaths among women of reproductive age, their pregnancy status at or near the time of death and the medical cause of death – all of which can be difficult to measure accurately, particularly where vital registration systems are incomplete. Indeed records on maternal mortality are notoriously poor in just about every country in the world. Women who die in childbirth, who have no surviving children and whose partners remarry, might literally disappear from memory as no one records them in District surveys.

Table 11

Giving birth safely is largely a privilege of the rich



Source: The Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

64. Every year, an estimated 210 million women have life-threatening complications of pregnancy, often leading to serious disability, and a further half a million women die in pregnancy, child birth, and the puerperium, nearly all of them in developing countries. More than 120 million couples have an unmet need for contraception and 80 million women each year have unwanted or unintended pregnancies, 45 million of which are terminated. Of these 45 million abortions, 19 million are unsafe, 40 per cent of them are done on women under 25 years, and about 68,000 women die every year from complications of unsafe abortion. Every day, 1,500 women continue to die from complications related to pregnancy and childbirth. Since 1990, almost 10 million maternal deaths took place (UNFPA: No Woman Should Die Giving Life, <http://www.unfpa.org/safemotherhood>).

65. The reduction in maternal mortality rates has been slow and almost negligible for the developing world as a whole, falling from 480 per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 450 in 2005. This progress is due primarily to trends in certain regions, particularly East and South-East Asia and North Africa, which have shown declines of more than 30 per cent over this period. In South Asia, the maternal mortality rate declined by 20 per cent, which is still too slow to meet the target without substantial acceleration in the next few years.

66. The timing and causes of maternal deaths are well understood. Obstetric complications – such as post-partum haemorrhage, infections, eclampsia, and prolonged or obstructed labour – and complications of abortion account for most maternal deaths. Severe infections, which include sepsis/pneumonia, tetanus and diarrhoea together with asphyxia and pre-term births, pose the greatest dangers for newborns. Most of these conditions are preventable or treatable with essential measures such as quality reproductive health services, antenatal care, skilled health workers assisting at birth, access to emergency obstetric and newborn care when necessary, adequate nutrition, post-natal care for mothers and newborns, and education to foster healthy practices for women and newborns. Research has shown that around 80 per cent of maternal deaths could be averted if women had access to essential maternity and basic health-care services (UNICEF, 2009).

67. It is not surprising that 99 per cent of maternal deaths and disabilities and ill-health occur in developing countries. The divide between North and South is greater on maternal mortality than on any other issue covered by the MDGs. The most recent data show that the average lifetime risk for a woman in a least developed country dying from complications related to pregnancy and child birth is more than 300 times greater than for a woman living in an industrialized country. No other statistic is so unequal.

Table 12

	Lifetime risk that a woman will lose a newborn*	Lifetime risk that a woman will die of maternal causes
Africa	1 in 5	1 in 19
Asia	1 in 11	1 in 132
Latin America	1 in 21	1 in 188
More developed countries	1 in 125	1 in 2,976

* Deaths to babies between birth and 28 days.

SOURCE: Calculated from most recent rates available from Save the Children (neonatal mortality), Population Reference Bureau (total fertility rate), and UNICEF (maternal mortality ratio).

68. However, maternal mortality is also a concern in rich countries, where differences in maternal mortality rates can be seen predominantly in regard income and other factors. In the United States of America, for example, maternal mortality amongst black women is three to four times higher than among white and Hispanic women (CDC/NCHS, 2006). In Australia, aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women have maternal mortality rates more than five times higher than the general population (Australia's Health, 2008). In the United Kingdom, there is a five-fold difference in maternal mortality between the most deprived and least deprived women (WHO/UNICEF/UNFPA/World Bank, 2005).

69. In addition to the direct causes of maternal mortality and morbidity where attention and investment is currently directed, a number of factors at the household, community and district levels need to be addressed as they are a prerequisite for the health and survival of mothers and newborns. These include: lack of education and knowledge of girls and young women about health and reproduction, insufficient access to food and micronutrients, poor health facilities, and inadequate and limited access to basic health-care services. There are also basic factors, such as poverty, social exclusion, discrimination against women and political insecurity that serve to entrench the underlying causes of maternal and newborn mortality and morbidity.

70. Therefore, in order to reduce maternal mortality rates, adequate health and nutrition before pregnancy as well as sufficient antenatal care are very important, as is the nature of the delivery to ensure the survival and health of mother and newborn. Less than half of all pregnant women in the developing world have access to minimally adequate antenatal care.

Reduction in maternal mortality in Bangladesh, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and China

In 1996-98, with sustained pressure and input from civil society, as well as donors, Bangladesh redesigned its national population policy into a reproductive health policy and focused significant attention on building essential obstetric care capacity. Maternal mortality began to fall in the next five years (Jahan, in press, Jahan, 2003, Jahan and Germain, 2004).

Similar rapid declines have been seen in Malaysia and Sri Lanka (UNFPA, 2005). A recent evaluation of the Health VIII project in China shows a 40 per cent overall reduction in maternal mortality (from 131.5 to 68.2 deaths per 100,000 live births) between 1998 and 2005 in the 71 counties where the project was implemented (LIU et al., 2007). This remarkable reduction in MMR was mainly attributable to the comprehensive measures undertaken in the project counties to transform health systems through increasing awareness and influencing attitudes about maternity care; improving services by investing in buildings and equipment; establishing rules and guidelines for strengthening obstetric services; investments in training health workers and strengthening supervision; cleaned and improved maternity wards; provision of free food to patients; provision of kitchens and cooking utensils for family members; and establishing supervision and monitoring procedures to identify and correct problems. In addition, the counties reviewed all maternal deaths to identify failures to be corrected.

Cited in: Sen, Östlin and George, 2007

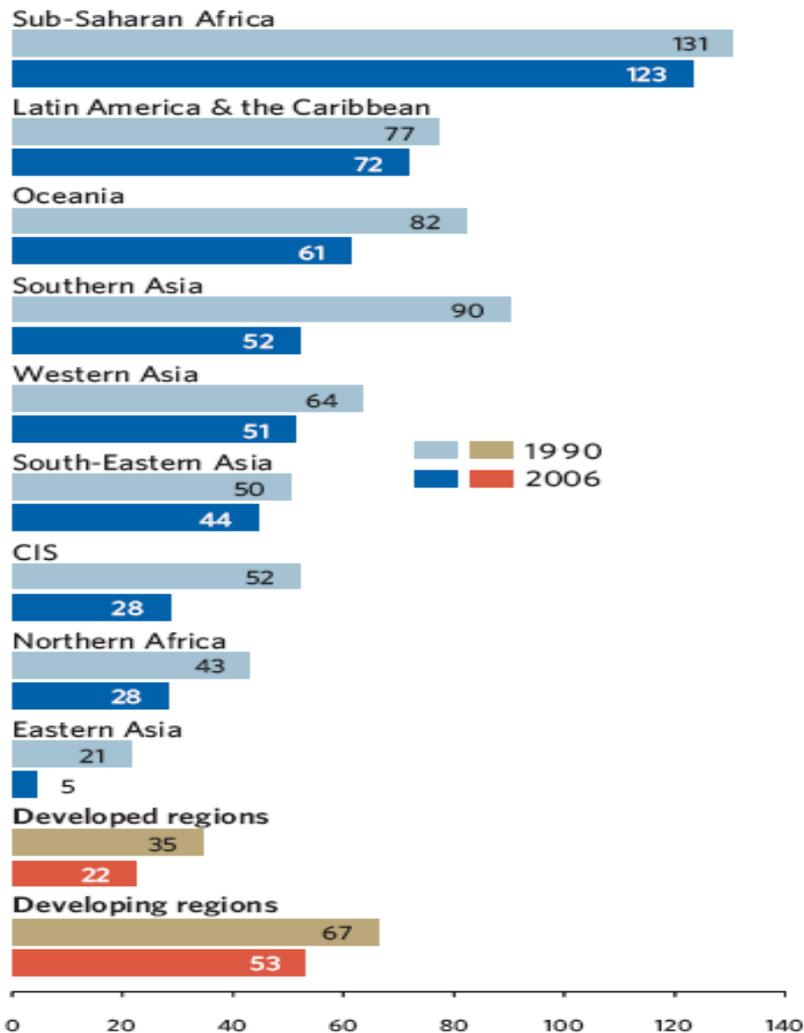
71. The regions with the highest rates of maternal mortality – Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia – also show the slowest rates of reduction, suggesting that they will find it more difficult to meet the target. In South Asia, a major cause of maternal mortality is poor nutrition among mothers, which is linked to the failure in meeting MDG 1, while in Africa, poor information and empowerment of women, inadequate medical infrastructure and lack of access to timely and adequate professional care, as well as very low contraceptive prevalence, probably play the most important role.

72. One very important reason for high maternal risk is early pregnancy and motherhood. Pregnancy early in life contributes to the estimated 70,000 maternal deaths every year among girls aged 15 to 19 years. An infant's risk of dying in his or her first year of life is 60 per cent higher when the mother is below 18 years of age than when the mother is older. From Table 11 it is evident that early marriage is still widely prevalent among the same regions that exhibit high rates of maternal mortality, with half of the young women in least developed countries as a group, being married before the age of 18 years. This corresponds to early pregnancy: the adolescent birth rate is highest in Sub-Saharan Africa and has declined only marginally in the period since 1990. The same is true for South Asia, where the continued prevalence of early marriage probably contributes a great deal to the inability to reduce maternal mortality rates more rapidly. While legislation on age of marriage in accordance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women is in place in many countries, enormous challenges remain to strengthen implementation, enhance compliance and eliminate exemptions.

Table 13

The risks are high for both mother and child when pregnancy occurs at too young an age

Number of births per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years, 1990 and 2006



Source: The Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

73. Women living in countries in conflict or with weak institutions which cannot deliver basic social services have high maternal mortality ratios. Peace and security are prerequisite in these countries for accelerating progress on improving maternal and newborn health.

74. The international community currently spends around 12 billion a year on family planning and maternal health programmes in developing nations. Doubling the current spending to \$24.6 billion would prevent the early deaths of almost 400,000 women and 1.6 billion babies, cut

unintended pregnancies by more than two-thirds and reduce by 75 percent the number of unsafe abortion and resulting complications (UNFPA, 2009).

Transforming Health Systems

The Health Workers for Change (HWFC) project

Quality of health care is linked with the context - social, economic, cultural and structural - in which the health services and those seeking care are located. These contexts, and their interactions, influence the recognition of illness, health seeking behaviour, and responses of health providers and health services. *Health Workers for Change* (HWFC) consists of a series of 6 workshops designed to explore this matrix and help health workers improve the quality of care they provide, especially in relation to female clients. The intervention, developed by the Women's Health Project in South Africa, was also tested in Uganda, Zambia, Mozambique and Senegal. The workshops help health workers examine their jobs, the way they do them, gender issues and other factors influencing their interaction with colleagues and clients, and what was required to improve the situation. The intervention proved highly acceptable and relevant within widely different social and cultural contexts.

(<http://www.who.int/tdrold/research/finalreps/no2.htm>)

Profamilia's Clinica Para El Hombre in Colombia

This represents one of the most successful attempts to increase men's access to comprehensive reproductive health services through the introduction of men-only clinics. Quality of care and gender-sensitive patient-provider interactions are central to the delivery of services. Staff are trained on personal and cultural beliefs about masculinity, and are encouraged to reflect on their personal attitudes regarding gender and how gender impacts on their interactions with patients. A quality of care evaluation of the clinics in 1997 found that doctors had less time to participate in training and a tendency to view clients exclusively in terms of the treatment of disease. An interesting observation has been the importance privacy and confidentiality from the patients' perspective (AVSC, 1997).

Community-based monitoring system in Uganda

The national civil society network, Uganda Debt Network, used a community based monitoring and evaluation system (with 40 per cent participation of women) for monitoring health, education and other services in two sub-counties, and ensuring that they were in line with the norms on service provisioning under the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSPs). As a result, the quality of care by providers improved, the number of beds in labour wards for women increased, and user fees were removed in one sub-county, which benefited women in particular given inequalities in access to income.

Strengthening women's awareness and demands on services in Bangladesh, Argentina and Peru

In Bangladesh, the women's rights group, Naripokko, endeavours to strengthen poor women's awareness on services that should be available at Upazilla (sub-

district) level and their ability to make demands on Upazilla health committees. They also seek to enhance gender sensitivity of the Upazilla health committees and providers, and sensitize local media on gender specific health concerns of women. As a result, the number of physicians (including a gynaecologist) in the clinics, and their attendance, increased and waiting times decreased, leading to better access of women to maternal health services.

In Argentina, the women's groups involved in municipal councils' participatory budgeting efforts were able to negotiate better child care facilities and thereby reduce the work burden of women and enable them to engage in income enhancing work.

In Peru, citizen's groups appealed to the Inter-American Court of Justice, using the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (IESCR) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), for bringing a doctor who raped a woman patient in a public hospital to book, and also successfully challenged forced sterilization of poor women post delivery in public facilities.

Source: Case studies cited in Sen, Östlin and George, 2007

MDG 6: HIV/AIDS and other diseases

75. MDG 6 aims to Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. Three targets are associated with this goal, namely: have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS; achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it; and have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases. A total of ten indicators serve to monitor progress towards achieving this goal.

76. Worldwide, the number of HIV/AIDS cases now appears to have peaked, but an estimated 31.3 million people are infected (UNAIDS, 2009). Many millions more are affected as family members, colleagues or carers. Infection rates are rising in East and Central Europe and Central Asia. Africa dominates in HIV and AIDS incidence: over one third of new HIV infections and 38 per cent of AIDS deaths in 2007 occurred in Southern Africa. Altogether, sub-Saharan Africa is home to 67 per cent of those living with HIV. Women account for half the people living with HIV worldwide and nearly 60 per cent of those infected in sub-Saharan Africa (United Nations, 2009). The spread of this disease has also been associated with social dislocation and violence against women.

77. Weaknesses in health systems mean that many people miss crucial opportunities to receive information about their HIV status and the services on offer. While achievement towards this target has been more substantial than for many of the other MDGs, much more needs to be done.

78. One relatively positive aspect is the growing access to treatment for the disease, which has increased by around ten times since 1990. Encouragingly, the number of women receiving services for prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV quadrupled from 10 per cent in 2004 to 45 per cent in 2008 (UNAIDS and WHO, 2009). However only 21 per cent of pregnant

women received HIV testing and counselling, and only one third of those identified as HIV-positive during antenatal care were subsequently assessed for their eligibility to receive antiretroviral therapy for their own health (WHO, 2009).

79. Malaria remains an important killer disease, with mortality heavily concentrated in Sub-Saharan Africa, which accounted for 95 per cent of the deaths from malaria in 2006. A major international intervention has been the provision of insecticide-treated bed-nets; the use of these has spread from 2 per cent of Sub-Saharan African children in 2000 to 20 per cent in 2006. While this is a positive sign, it is still insufficient in terms of coverage, or in terms of effective control of the disease.

80. Tuberculosis incidence (among the non-HIV positive population) has levelled off in recent years in all major developing regions except Sub-Saharan Africa – mortality from this disease is associated with poor levels of sanitation and nutrition among affected persons. However, the target of halving the cases of TB globally is unlikely to be met.

MDG 7: Environmental sustainability

81. MDG 7 aims to ensure environmental sustainability, and has four targets, namely: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources; Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss; Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation; and By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers. Progress towards the goal is monitored through a total of ten indicators.

82. Environmental sustainability encompasses energy use, management of natural resources, and climate change, and is linked in a cross-cutting way to many of the other MDGs. While climate change has become an overarching concern, other environmental issues such as air, water and noise pollution, soil degradation, destruction of water resources and congestion also require attention in pursuit of MDG 7. Climate change is an additional environmental concern that will have profound impact on natural resources, agriculture, water, coastal zones and in many other ways – and these impacts can add new hardship for women.

83. Women are affected differently, and often more severely, by climate change and natural disasters such as floods, droughts, cyclones and storms. Because men and women continue to have different roles and responsibilities at the household, communal and societal level, and women continue to experience gender-based discrimination and inequality, they have different vulnerabilities, as well as capabilities and opportunities for adjustment to the effects of climate change and natural disasters, often to the disadvantage of women. Unequal assets and power relations expose women to the worst effects of these phenomena and make recovery more difficult for women.

84. Climate change will pose a challenge to women and hence, gender perspectives are critical when considering vulnerability, adaptation and mitigation. Issues such as land degradation, drought, and loss of biodiversity, loss of property, livelihood or lives, changes in water availability, displacements, are some of the phenomena where differential impact on

women needs to be assessed. For example, women are largely responsible for water collection in their communities, are often more sensitive to the changes in seasons and climatic conditions that affect water quantity and accessibility, which make its collection even more time-consuming. Vulnerability to climate change can accentuate non-climatic stresses such as migration, urbanization, lack of food and energy security, poor management of natural resources and the loss of traditional coping skills. Risks and vulnerability for health need to be addressed.

85. Women can serve as agents for mitigation for climate change and adaptation. Women's role in contributing to energy generation and use, water and waste management within the household provides a variety of opportunities for them to be important agents in resource conservation. For example, rag-picking women serve a useful purpose and may reduce a municipal budget for garbage collection. Some successful experiences are observed in Mexico, where poor women set up a profitable recycling company from municipal solid waste management. Women in rural areas have identified new energy sources, such as biogas from waste. Women from urban areas often contribute by recycling waste at home, as they are generally in charge of home cooking, housekeeping and many aspects of livelihood generation. However, women should not merely be participating in these activities, they need to be involved in processes of planning and decision-making.

86. Efforts are needed to integrate gender perspectives in policy negotiations on climate change. International treaties and mechanisms and their implementation, such as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the Kyoto Protocol as well as the Conference of Parties (COP) all have an impact on women, but these rarely are given adequate attention. It is therefore critical that gender perspectives are addressed in climate negotiations and in scientific work on climate change, and take into account scientific, technical and socio-economic literature produced worldwide relevant to the understanding of the risk of human-induced climate change and its observed and projected impacts on women and options to respond. Women need to participate in these efforts in decision-making positions.

Table 14 Impacts of climate change on gender equality, poverty, wellbeing and achievement of the MDGs

Climate Change – issues	Impacts
<u>Forests</u>	
Degradation of forests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More time spent on fuel collection • Less time for income generating activities • Less time for children to study • Loss of eco-tourism opportunities
<u>Food and Agriculture</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased yield from crops • Increase in food prices • Change in food patterns • Depletion of livestock 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced calorie intake • Higher food insecurity • Less milk/nutrition for children
<u>Water</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduction in water availability • More dependence on unsafe water 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Larger distances for fetching water • Increased need to buy/pay for water • Impacts on mother and child nutrition
<u>Biodiversity</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of species (flora and fauna) • Loss of medicinal plants/herbs • Loss of mangroves and corals • Loss of gene pool 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of indigenous practices • Loss of livelihood • Reduced income • Increased vulnerability
<u>Health</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in water-borne diseases • Increase of diseases like dengue, malaria, etc. • Increase in respiratory diseases due to indoor air pollution and other emissions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased vulnerability • Increase in infant mortality • Disease sensitivity

Climate change and gender equality

Opportunities for women’s participation in disaster preparedness and response

In Bangladesh, women’s involvement in activities outside of the home, such as participation in meetings, standing for election and leading of community mobilization, is widely accepted. Community and religious leaders generally acknowledge that women’s awareness and participation must be increased for disaster reduction.

Compared to the 1980s, barriers to women’s involvement in decision-making have been largely removed, although women still face challenges in influencing processes that matter most to them. Since the 1991 cyclone, many women in Bangladesh are now involved in various disaster committees at the local level, initiated by the Government, the Red Cross and NGOs.

The opportunity for participation in, and access to, local political power spheres are critical to women, but most women report that during or after a disaster, they are not consulted in any community-level decision-making. They said that their participation in the community's decision-making processes could help highlight women-specific problems, as well as potential solutions.

Women's leadership

Numerous case studies suggest that women play a lead role in the recovery of their households after a cyclone. Evidence also suggests that many communities are now ready to see women leading their cyclonic risk reduction. However, the unaddressed specific vulnerabilities of women mentioned above are the barriers to women playing meaningful leadership roles at community level. Some initiatives have already been taken by Community Disaster Preparedness Committee (CDPC) members; for example, the vice chairperson of CDPC of Char Kukrimukri has formed a small women's group.

Source: Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO, 2008), Gender, climate change and human security.

MDG 8: Global partnership for development

87. MDG 8 aims to develop a global partnership for development. This goal has six targets, namely: develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system; address the special needs of the least developed countries; address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly); deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term; in cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries; and in cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications. A total of 16 indicators are used to monitor progress.

88. The distributional effects of trade policies are gender specific because women and men have different access to and control over resources, and because they play distinct roles in both the market economy and the household. It is crucial therefore that, as standard practice, gender analysis is used to inform the design, implementation and monitoring of trade agreements. In this way, targeted attention can be given to the many ways in which trade affects women and men differently in their multiple roles as workers, consumers, and users of public services. Gender analysis should cover: changing patterns and conditions of work (including both paid and unpaid work); gender wage gaps; patterns of ownership and control over assets; changes in consumption patterns and in public provision of social services. In line with the principles of the Beijing Platform of Action, such strengthened focus on gender dimensions would contribute to the formulation of policies that enhance the positive trends associated with trade and offset negative consequences for women in general, and particular groups of women in particular. However, progress towards increased attention to the gender perspectives in trade so far has been slow.

89. When assessing progress towards making trade processes more gender-sensitive and equitable, it is useful to distinguish between research, activism and policy-making. As far as research is concerned, the gender-specific effects of trade policies are now better understood and documented than fifteen years ago, although important gaps in our knowledge remain. Since the first analysis of empirical evidence in this area (Joeques and Weston, 1994), several new studies have been undertaken (van Staveren et al, 2007, and Fontana, 2009 provide recent comprehensive reviews). Initiatives in the form of awareness campaigns, training and lobbying have also been implemented. These include various projects by the Commonwealth Secretariat (for example Athill, Carr, and Williams, 2007) and by women's nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), the constitution of gender and trade 'Expert Groups' within governments (for example in the UK) and the creation of worldwide networks (such as www.genderandtrade.com). Despite these activities, however, awareness of gender aspects at the level of trade policy-making and implementation continues to be mostly absent.

90. Most analysts would agree that progress towards meeting the MDG 8 target of 'developing further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system and providing tariff- and quota-free access for LDC exports' has been disappointing. The failure to conclude the Doha Round of trade negotiations initiated in 2001 to address the needs of developing countries according to a 'development agenda' constitutes the most visible gap in the area of trade. The current economic and financial crises present a further challenge to the achievement of the Goal. Protecting and enhancing women's economic opportunities and rights should be a key element of an equitable trade strategy, but this aspect has not received sufficient attention in trade negotiations.

91. Efforts at further trade liberalization continue, and a number of new regional trade agreements are being ratified. For example, the European Union (EU) this year signed Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) with six regional groupings from African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries. EPAs originated from the proposal of the EU to negotiate with the ACP countries on the basis of reciprocal free trade agreements, in contrast with previous agreements based on trade preferences. A broad trade and development strategy known as Cotonou Agreement was approved in 2000 to provide guiding principles for the future negotiations. Whilst the Cotonou Agreement does include some gender-relevant provisions, none of the specific EPAs texts just agreed upon seems to refer explicitly to the gender aspects of trade. A gender equality focus also seems to be missing in many of the recent diagnostic trade integration studies (DTIS), conducted by the World Bank in collaboration with other donors through the Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance.

92. While the proportion of development assistance with a gender-related focus has increased in all regions since 2002, this category of aid is still focused on the social sector and very little gender-specific financing has gone towards projects related to economic infrastructure and the private sector. The largely technical emphasis on aid effectiveness in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness gives little space for looking at issues of gender equality, governance and aid.

93. The sixth target under this goal is concerned with partnership with the private sector to make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication. Indicators track the number of telephones and internet users within a population. Mobile phone

ownership and use has grown very fast, with the largest use amongst young adults worldwide. This is largely because very little infrastructure is needed for this technology and phones have been able to be provided at relatively low cost. There does not appear to be a gender gap in mobile phone use and, indeed, in some contexts reduction in maternal and child mortality is associated with improved communications because of mobile phones which make it possible for transport or other help to be accessed much more quickly. However, internet use by women has expanded much more slowly. The gender gap stems from the evidence that more men than women have enhanced technical skills and are enrolled in courses in computer science. While there is considerable potential for e-health and e-learning, the continued gender digital divide in access to computer and internet technologies puts a particular brake on this development. Of major concern is the lack of sex-disaggregated data on a more systematic basis. Data might be found in some household surveys, but there are only discretionary sources, so there is clearly need for a more systematic data collection.

III. Factors affecting MDG performance

94. The preceding chapter points to a sobering reality: not only are several of the MDGs quite far from being achieved, in particular for women, in some of the more populous parts of the developing world, but progress towards these goals has recently encountered a significant setback, largely as a consequence of the direct and indirect effects of the global economic and financial crisis. Further, it is not the case that high economic growth tends to ensure better performance in terms of meeting the MDGs: while the high-growth region of East Asia has shown substantial progress, regions like South Asia which have also experienced high economic growth in the recent past, have nevertheless exhibited relatively poor performance in meeting important MDGs, especially with respect to hunger and employment. This suggests that specific policy regimes, public strategies and socio-economic and institutional conditions all play a role in affecting the capacity and willingness of governments and donors to achieve the MDGs.

95. The Expert Group identified several reasons why progress in meeting the MDGs has thus far been globally inadequate, unbalanced and regionally diverse. They reflect unequal power balances at the global, national and local level, manifested through economic processes, institutional and social arrangements, as well as the inability or unwillingness of governments to meet other international commitments, including those elaborated in the Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) as well as in International Labour Standards. Some of these factors are described below.

(a) There was a lack of popular participation in the formulation of the MDGs, little attention was given to accountability from global to local level in their delivery and, thus, the sense of popular ownership and mobilization in support of their achievement was rather weak.

(b) Recent economic growth was based on, and deepened inequalities both globally and within countries. It was based on net trade, labour and capital flows from South to North as well as declining wage shares and rising profit shares of national income. Growth in the developing world was generally based on the export-led growth model, which in turn was associated with suppressing wage costs and domestic consumption in order to remain internationally competitive and achieve growing shares of world markets. This growth model

resulted in rising savings rates and falling investment rates in many developing countries, and the placement of international reserves in safe assets abroad. This meant that poverty reduction and greater provision of basic needs did not go as far as expected, even in several countries experiencing economic boom.

(c) As a result, the overall macroeconomic conditions that were essential for realizing the MDGs were not met in many countries. Fiscal resources remained constrained, monetary and financial inclusion did not occur, social and political institutions did not respond flexibly and creatively to changing conditions, and planning and public interventions supportive of MDG achievement remained limited.

(d) Market-determined processes were not sufficient to deliver in themselves the MDG results, and often operated in the opposite direction. For example, economic growth did not lead to full and productive employment and decent work. Export-led growth and open trade policies have not been associated with increased net employment generation in developing countries, and new employment has generally been more insecure and precarious. This has translated into worse conditions especially for women workers.

(e) Relatively rapid economic growth was also associated with exploitation of the environment and related problems of pollution, degradation, depletion of natural resources, and climate change. These phenomena directly impact most adversely on relatively poor populations, particularly women who bear the burden through more unpaid labour, less consumption and worse quality of life.

(f) The neglect of the agricultural sector in the developing world hurt peasant livelihoods and generated global food problems, which is a major reason for the lack of progress on MDG 1.

(g) In many countries, there has been an absence of policy coherence and a lack of prioritization to public expenditure and other policies required to meet the MDGs. Macro-policies and other strategies have often operated at cross-purposes from policies to meet the MDGs. Government offices are working in 'silos' to meet the MDGs and are insufficiently engaging and coordinating with departments with similar concerns. Work towards one MDG has not leveraged progress in another; and work towards implementing the Beijing Platform for Action is not being leveraged to meet the MDGs.

(h) Developments at global level also contributed to lack of progress in achieving the MDGs. Shifts in geopolitics after September 2001 led to the emergence of the security agenda, which dominated over the previously defined development agenda, including efforts aimed at financing its implementation. Aid flows to support strategies to meet the MDGs have not always been directed in a co-ordinated way. Some MDGs (for example MDG 6) benefited from significant resources, while others (notably MDG 5) received virtually none. Despite promises on some MDGs (for example MDG 2), ODA did not reach stated levels of commitment, not even in the periods of economic boom. Direct budgetary support, the approach to aid adopted by some of the major donors, has made it more difficult to secure funding for policies and projects aimed at promotion of gender equality.

(i) The global financial and economic crisis resulted in setbacks for realizing the MDGs. The main transmission mechanisms for the crisis to impact upon economies of developing countries have been the global decline in exports; the reversal of capital flows; negative changes in aid flows; consequent exchange rate devaluation which has affected domestic production and prices; the impact of extreme volatility in global food and fuel prices; and the fiscal constraints in many developing countries that led to cutbacks in important public expenditure affecting access to basic services and the quality of life. Some of the main effects are: employment effects; declines in real wages and incomes from self-employment; changes in patterns of migration and remittances; the impact of higher food prices on food consumption; access to health care; access to education; greater exposure to domestic and other forms of violence because of increased social tensions.

(j) Women's rights and international labour standards are only inadequately implemented. Particularly relevant for the achievement of gender equality are the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the following six ILO conventions: Equal Remuneration Convention 100, 1951; Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention 111, 1958; Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention 156, 1981; Maternity Protection Convention 183, 2000; Part-time Convention 175, 1994 as well as the Homeworkers' Convention 177, 1996.

(k) Institutional and structural discrimination and bias against women persist in governments, international organizations, the private sector, and the mechanisms through which strategies and policies are designed and implemented. Existing structures and processes perpetuate the gender status quo, and constitute a barrier to policy changes that hope to alter gender power relations towards the practical realization of the principle of the equality of women and men.

(l) A critical reason for the lack of achievement of the global MDGs has been the lack of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. This is because even those MDGs that do not explicitly refer to the situation and empowerment of women are affected by gender equality considerations in numerous ways. The Expert Group firmly believes that any future success in achieving the MDGs will rely heavily on a more effective implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. This argument is elaborated in more detail in the next section.

IV. The continued relevance of the Beijing Platform for Action

96. The Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women was an extraordinary moment in the history of the international women's movements as well as women workers around the world, with unprecedented mobilization of feminist policy-makers, activists and academics in the international political arena, both prior to the conference and subsequently. This gave important legitimacy to the Platform for Action and its call for action in critical areas of concern, and its role as a framework to guide and inspire policy-making at the national and international levels, as well as provide ideas and mobilizing principles to the various women's groups and representatives of civil society who were concerned with improving the conditions of women and realizing their rights and empowerment. The Platform for Action is infused with a strong sense of optimism, partly as a result of the momentous changes brought about with the end of the Cold War, but it also contains detailed and grounded policy recommendations. It thus remains a

significant resource in present conditions of crisis and opportunity, and a renewed focus on its full implementation can give added impetus to these opportunities.

Fiscal policies

97. With respect to macroeconomic policies, the Beijing Platform for Action was especially concerned to ensure the inclusion of women in economic policy-making that was to become more participatory in nature, and to prevent structural adjustment and stabilization measures from generating processes that would operate against the material interests of the majority of women. Therefore it enjoined on governments to do the following:

- “Review and modify, with the full and equal participation of women, macroeconomic and social policies with a view to achieving the objectives of the Platform for Action;
- Analyze, from a gender perspective, policies and programmes – including those related to macroeconomic stability, structural adjustment, external debt problems, taxation, investments, employment, markets and all relevant sectors of the economy – with respect to their impact on poverty, on inequality and particularly on women; assess their impact on family well-being and conditions and adjust them, as appropriate, to promote more equitable distribution of productive assets, wealth, opportunities, income and services;
- Pursue and implement sound and stable macroeconomic and sectoral policies that are designed and monitored with the full and equal participation of women, encourage broad-based sustained economic growth, address the structural causes of poverty and are geared towards eradicating poverty and reducing gender-based inequality within the overall framework of achieving people-centred sustainable development;
- Restructure and target the allocation of public expenditures to promote women’s economic opportunities and equal access to productive resources and to address the basic social, educational and health needs of women, particularly those living in poverty.” (BPfA, paragraph 58 (a) to (d).)

98. As a result of the Beijing Platform for Action, many governments have instituted mechanisms to ensure greater levels of participation in policy dialogues as well as recognizing responses from civil society. However, these efforts have not always translated into greater inclusion of gender perspectives in the actual formulation and implementation of policies. In terms of macroeconomic policy, the focus has typically been more on stability than on growth, and even in terms of growth, the focus has been on expansion of GDP rather than broad-based and sustained growth. Thus, critical issues remain to be taken up with national governments.

99. The very important demand of targeting public expenditures to promote women’s economic opportunities appears to have been at least partially fulfilled in the increase in policies of gender-sensitive budgeting in many countries, whereby public expenditures are subjected to a gender audit to assess the extent to which they support the achievement of gender equality. These efforts are an important improvement and mark some progress towards greater recognition of the gender-specific implications of fiscal policies. However, the way in which gender-sensitive budgeting is being applied in some instances limits it to a token or symbolic mechanical exercise, where an attempt is made to classify certain types of expenditure as directed towards women. A more creative and flexible approach to assessing the implications of particular forms of spending is required. Similarly, gender-sensitive budgeting has tended to ignore taxation policies, which

also have gender implications. Successful implementation of gender-sensitive budgeting requires considerable investment of time, expertise, skill, as well as political engagement. It also requires attention to funding streams and to outcomes, for example in terms of quality health, housing or education provision. It is therefore important that gender-sensitive budgeting initiatives are not limited to formalistic procedures.

Mainstreaming gender perspectives: What governments can do

Mauritius was one of the first countries to set up an institutional mechanism for the advancement of the rights of women - the Ministry for Women's Affairs in 1976 - in the wake of the international women's year. Since then, Mauritius has made significant progress in the field of gender equality and women's empowerment. While some indicators (such as the gender wage gap and low political representation of women) continue to be poor, the National Gender Policy Framework (NGPF), formulated with the active involvement of the public and private sectors, civil society and the media, and adopted in 2007, seeks to mainstream gender perspectives in a coordinated way across Ministries. The NGPF is an overarching document stipulating that each sector is responsible for formulating its own specific gender equality policy. It calls for a strategic partnership amongst different stakeholders, including the Ministry of Finance and Economic Empowerment, the media, civil society and public and private institutions. Technical assistance is provided to pilot Ministries (Ministries of Education, Culture and Human Resources; Youth and Sports; Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment) to formulate their respective gender equality policies and sector strategies, in line with the NGPF. This is a long process, and the continued commitment of high-level officials will be key to its eventual success.

Source: EGM GP paper 1, M Verdickt

Monetary and banking policies

100. The Beijing Platform for Action recognized the importance of finance for the empowerment of women and therefore made detailed recommendations in this regard. These included that governments should undertake the following specific measures:

- “Enhance the access of disadvantaged women, including women entrepreneurs, in rural, remote and urban areas to financial services through strengthening links between the formal banks and intermediary lending organizations, including legislative support, training for women and institutional strengthening for intermediary institutions with a view to mobilizing capital for those institutions and increasing the availability of credit;
- Encourage links between financial institutions and non-governmental organizations and support innovative lending practices, including those that integrate credit with women's services and training and provide credit facilities to rural women.” (BPfA paragraph 62 (a) and (b).)

101. In addition, the Platform for Action also specified that commercial banks, specialized financial institutions and the private sector, in examining their policies, should take the following actions:

- “Use credit and savings methodologies that are effective in reaching women in poverty and innovative in reducing transaction costs and redefining risk;
- Open special windows for lending to women, including young women, who lack access to traditional sources of collateral;
- Simplify banking practices, for example by reducing the minimum deposit and other requirements for opening bank accounts;
- Ensure the participation and joint ownership, where possible, of women clients in the decision-making of institutions providing credit and financial services.” (BPfA paragraph 63 (a) to (d).)

102. The experience of the past fifteen years shows that these recommendations have been insufficiently implemented. Instead, there has been a focus on providing micro-finance facilities for women, dominantly in the form of micro-credit, increasingly with some links to institutional finance. While micro-finance can play an important role towards poverty reduction and women’s empowerment, it is no development panacea. The chief benefit of micro-finance is that it allows commercial lending without collateral in the form of assets, by using group lending as the means to ensure repayment because of the role of peer pressure.

103. Efforts to provide micro-credit, however, must go hand-in-hand with steps to ensure more extensive access for women to the regular channels of institutional finance, so as to overcome the barriers created by the existence of two main systems of credit – i.e. formal institutions for the well-off and the organized sector; and informal credit and micro-finance for the poor and for women. The current economic and financial crisis has also had adverse impacts upon informal credit sources. The effective implementation of the steps outlined in the Beijing Platform for Action therefore remains of crucial relevance today.

Food security and nutrition policies

104. The Beijing Platform for Action recognized women’s critical role in agricultural production and cultivation in ensuring food security in developing countries. It also noted the significance of public distribution policies. Therefore, it called on governments to take the following actions:

- “Develop agricultural and fishing sectors, where and as necessary, in order to ensure, as appropriate, household and national food security and food self-sufficiency, by allocating the necessary financial, technical and human resources;
- Develop policies and programmes to promote equitable distribution of food within the household;
- Provide adequate safety nets and strengthen State-based and community-based support systems, as an integral part of social policy, in order to enable women living in poverty to withstand adverse economic environments and preserve their livelihood, assets and revenues in times of crisis;

- Develop and implement anti-poverty programmes, including employment schemes, that improve access to food for women living in poverty, including through the use of appropriate pricing and distribution mechanisms.” (BPfA paragraph 58 (e) to (g) and (j).)

105. The discussion in the earlier part of this report demonstrates that, in most parts of the developing world (except East and Southeast Asia), these crucial strategies have been insufficiently implemented, and food insecurity has increased. Therefore it is imperative that this element of the Beijing Platform for Action, with its emphasis on equitable food distribution and concern with safety nets, be implemented with the utmost seriousness. The impact of climate change, which is now much more apparent than in 1995, makes such action particularly pressing.

Employment policies

106. The Beijing Platform for Action explicitly notes that productive employment is key to women’s empowerment and that, to ensure greater access to such employment, a number of public interventions are required. Therefore the Platform for Action called upon governments to take the following actions:

- “Generate economic policies that have a positive impact on the employment and income of women workers in both the formal and informal sectors and adopt specific measures to address women’s unemployment, in particular their long-term unemployment;
- Ensure the full realization of the human rights of all women migrants, including women migrant workers, and their protection against violence and exploitation; introduce measures for the empowerment of documented women migrants, including women migrant workers; facilitate the productive employment of documented migrant women through greater recognition of their skills, foreign education and credentials, and facilitate their full integration into the labour force;
- Introduce measures to integrate or reintegrate women living in poverty and socially marginalized women into productive employment and the economic mainstream; ensure that internally displaced women have full access to economic opportunities and that the qualifications and skills of immigrant and refugee women are recognized.” (BPfA paragraph 58 (h), (k) and (l).)

107. These actions remain equally relevant today, and are critical for achievement of MDG 1. The generation of decent work is still not the main focus of government policy anywhere in the world, and employment patterns indicate an increase in fragile, insecure and low-paying forms of employment, especially for women, rather than decent work.

Environmental policies

108. Much of the discussion on the environment in the Beijing Platform for Action remains very pertinent today. With the exception of climate change, the document covers all major environmental concerns that have adverse impacts, with additional hardships for the poor, and especially rural poor women.

109. Several of the actions outlined in the Beijing Platform for Action are very important in the current context:

- “Ensure opportunities for women, including indigenous women, to participate in environmental decision-making at all levels, including as managers, designers and planners, and as implementers and evaluators of environmental projects;
- Encourage, subject to national legislation and consistent with the Convention on Biological Diversity, the effective protection and use of the knowledge, innovations and practices of women of indigenous and local communities, including practices relating to traditional medicines, biodiversity and indigenous technologies [...]
- Take appropriate measures to reduce risks to women from identified environmental hazards at home, at work and in other environments, including appropriate application of clean technologies [...]
- Take measures to integrate a gender perspective in the design and implementation of, among other things, environmentally sound and sustainable resource management mechanisms, production techniques and infrastructure development in rural and urban areas;
- Promote the participation of local communities, particularly women, in identification of public service needs, spatial planning and the provision and design of urban infrastructure.” (BPfA paragraph 253 (a), (c), (d), (e) and (g).)

110. These actions for participatory processes to ensure environmental sustainability in rural and urban settings point to necessary conditions to that would support meeting the MDG targets concerned with the loss of environmental resources.

Health policies

111. The Beijing Platform for Action outlined several strategic objectives on women’s health, including those of “increase[ing] women’s access throughout the life cycle to appropriate, affordable and quality health care, information and related services” and of “strengthen[ing] preventive programmes that promote women’s health”. These require increases in per capita public spending on health, as well as a transformation of health systems to improve their awareness and response to women’s concerns as both providers and consumers of health care. Such investments and changes in approaches have not occurred especially where they are most required, such as in Sub Saharan Africa and South Asia, and health systems remain under-resourced both financially and in terms of human resources. Many of the underlying causes of women’s ill-health must be tackled within broader social contexts to eliminate barriers women encounter in access to health.

Some of the specific actions from the Beijing Platform for Action are noted here:

- “Reaffirm the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health, protect and promote the attainment of this right for women and girls and incorporate it in national legislation [...];
- Design and implement, in cooperation with women and community-based organizations, gender-sensitive health programmes, including decentralized health services, that address the needs of women throughout their lives and take into account their multiple roles and responsibilities, the demands on their time, the special needs of rural women and women with disabilities and the diversity of women’s needs arising from age and socio-economic and cultural differences, among others; include women, especially local and indigenous

women, in the identification and planning of health-care priorities and programmes; remove all barriers to women's health services and provide a broad range of health-care services;

- Allow women access to social security systems in equality with men throughout the whole life cycle;
- Provide more accessible, available and affordable primary health-care services of high quality, including sexual and reproductive health care, which includes family planning information and services, and giving particular attention to maternal and emergency obstetric care [...];
- Take all appropriate measures to eliminate harmful, medically unnecessary or coercive medical interventions, as well as inappropriate medication and over-medication of women, and ensure that all women are fully informed of their options, including likely benefits and potential side-effects, by properly trained personnel;
- Strengthen and reorient health services, particularly primary health care, in order to ensure universal access to quality health services for women and girls; reduce ill health and maternal morbidity [...]; ensure that the necessary services are available at each level of the health system and make reproductive health care accessible, through the primary health-care system, to all individuals of appropriate ages as soon as possible and no later than the year 2015;
- Give particular attention to the needs of girls, especially the promotion of healthy behaviour, including physical activities; [...]
- Ensure the availability of and universal access to safe drinking water and sanitation and put in place effective public distribution systems as soon as possible;
- Ensure the involvement of women, especially those infected with HIV/AIDS or other sexually transmitted diseases or affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, in all decision-making relating to the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes on HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases.” (BPfA paragraphs 106 (b) to (e), (h), (i), (l), (x), and 108 (a).)

112. These recommendations provide a programme for basic services that support the delivery of good health care and ensure particular attention to key health needs of women identified in the three health-related MDGs.

Education and training of women

113. There has been substantial progress in elementary education enrolment rates, although there is still differential performance across regions. However, access and retention rates for girls and young women in secondary and higher education remain below expectation even in regions and countries where the gender gap in primary education has been reduced or eliminated. Retention of girls in education depends upon a number of social, economic and cultural factors, but cost and quality are typically important determinants, including the lack of focus on gender equality issues in educational content, teaching methods and management.

114. Therefore many of the actions called for in the Beijing Platform for Action remain extremely important:

- “Provide the required budgetary resources to the educational sector, with reallocation within the educational sector to ensure increased funds for basic education, as appropriate;
- Advance the goal of equal access to education by taking measures to eliminate discrimination in education at all levels on the basis of gender, race, language, religion, national origin, age or disability, or any other form of discrimination and, as appropriate, consider establishing procedures to address grievances;
- Eliminate gender disparities in access to all areas of tertiary education by ensuring that women have equal access to career development, training, scholarships and fellowships, and by adopting positive action when appropriate;
- Create a gender-sensitive educational system in order to ensure equal educational and training opportunities and full and equal participation of women in educational administration and policy- and decision-making;
- Increase enrolment and retention rates of girls by allocating appropriate budgetary resources; by enlisting the support of parents and the community, as well as through campaigns, flexible school schedules, incentives, scholarships and other means to minimize the costs of girls’ education to their families and to facilitate parents’ ability to choose education for the girl child; and by ensuring that the rights of women and girls to freedom of conscience and religion are respected in educational institutions through repealing any discriminatory laws or legislation based on religion, race or culture;
- Improve the quality of education and equal opportunities for women and men in terms of access in order to ensure that women of all ages can acquire the knowledge, capacities, aptitudes, skills and ethical values needed to develop and to participate fully under equal conditions in the process of social, economic and political development;
- Develop and implement education, training and retraining policies for women, especially young women and women re-entering the labour market, to provide skills to meet the needs of a changing socio-economic context for improving their employment opportunities. (BPfA paragraphs 84 (a), 80 (a), (c), (d), (f) to (h), and 82 (a).)

115. These actions highlight significant areas for enhancing gender equality and the quality of education which support realization of the MDG targets for education and employment.

116. The preceding discussion does not intend to provide an exhaustive list of actions from the Beijing Platform for Action that are critical when designing and implementing policies at local, national, regional and international levels aimed at achieving the MDGs. The Platform for Action also contains many pertinent suggestions to enhance the gender awareness and sensitivity of development cooperation and international aid.

Experience with implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action

117. As progress towards achieving the MDGs – which are relatively narrow and technical in their specification – has been slow, implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action has been uneven and often disappointing, especially in countries where its implementation was perhaps the most necessary. This lack of implementation, and given the current status of gender equality means that the Platform for Action remains extremely relevant. Almost all of the strategic objectives and actions can be usefully drawn upon in the current context to drive a more equitable, gender-sensitive and sustainable pattern of growth. It also suggests that a more

forceful, purpose-driven and consistent implementation of the blueprint for gender equality provided by the Platform for Action is a prerequisite for achieving the MDGs.

118. As all governments have adopted the Beijing Platform for Action, and committed to taking steps in conformity with it, why has progress been so halting, slow, and reversible by factors such as economic crisis, war or violence?

119. The Expert Group has noted several reasons for this disappointing outcome, including the following:

(a) The most important reason, as noted at the start, is that the Beijing Platform for Action both implicitly and explicitly was based on a different model of growth and development than that which has dominated national and international policy-making in recent decades. The Platform for Action called for, and relied upon, a model of economic growth that is egalitarian, inclusive, participatory, people-centred, sustainable in terms of the environment and accountable, and based on a rights-based approach to much public service delivery. This context is very different from realities that have underpinned recent economic growth, which was based on short-term profit maximization as the primary motivation, leading to biases in consumption, production and distribution, and to aspirations that were not sustainable. Specific policy proposals and quantitative targets become difficult to achieve if wider economic and political processes are steering the economy and society in a different direction. Achieving better conditions of employment and remuneration for women's work is more difficult when overall employment is on the decline, or when employment expansion does not include better wages. Improving the situation of women cultivators is more difficult in a context of agrarian crisis.

(b) The Beijing Platform for Action called for the creation and strengthening of health and education systems that are based on rights, universal and inclusive, with an emphasis on accessibility, affordability and adaptability. The broad thrust of many health and education policies has been characterized by a move towards more commercialized and market-driven provision, including the introduction of user fees, or minimal efforts to reduce the hidden costs of accessing health and education. Women's health indicators have not improved, and the quality of learning has been affected.

(c) Institutional arrangements at national level intended to support implementation of the Platform for Action have had limited success towards transforming policies in ways that would accelerate the achievement of gender equality.

(d) There was also a lack of strong voices on gender equality, at different levels. Insufficient or lack of action by governments has not always been met by an active civil society advocating for compliance with commitments. The Platform for Action challenged vested interests, power relations at all levels and entrenched patriarchal attitudes, stereotypes and behaviour patterns that constituted obstacles to implementation. Deeply entrenched male biases in governments, in health, education, urban planning systems, international trade regimes, and approaches to the development of technology have not been remedied, and a lack of accountability mechanisms for gender equality persists. Voices suggesting that promotion of gender equality is secondary, to be undertaken once higher per capita income has been achieved, are a further obstacles.

(e) Limited financial, technical or social resources at national level, and insufficient international aid also contributed to lack of progress in implementation of many of the proposed measures of the Platform for Action.

(f) Many of the levers of change identified in the Platform for Action – gender mainstreaming, gender-sensitive budgeting, systematic collection of data disaggregated by sex – have not received the necessary investments to make them effective, including capacity-building, training and monitoring and accountability for real results.

(g) The use of indicators requires attention. In cases where indicators are relatively poor proxies for what they measure, a sole focus on the indicator to drive the policy has led to severely attenuated results. Since indicators are commonly national aggregates, they inevitably mask inequities, and those in the lowest quintiles often fall below an established target. Furthermore, a very aggregative approach tends to reduce the broader social consensus that is required for implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action.

(h) A lack of forums for critical dialogue locally, nationally and globally on the complexities of implementation have meant that a number of emerging tensions have not been considered in policy development and practice. Some of those mentioned during the discussion relate to: understanding the dynamics of cultural affiliations; pressures to emphasize either prevention or cure in the area of health; prioritization of enrolment rather than learning and teaching in the area of education; a tendency to overlook issues of the care economy. It is possible that even advocates of gender equality have missed some opportunities for building broader coalitions in support of their demands because of their neglect of the cross-cutting issues of class, race, ethnicity, age and regional diversity, and thus of the inter-sectionality of disadvantage women encounter.

V. A renewed call to action

120. The recent global economic and financial crisis, the environmental crisis and the poor performance in terms of meeting the MDGs have called into question the overall strategy of growth and development of the recent past. Therefore, this is the right time to rethink, modify and change track in terms of policy direction and provide more democratic economic and institutional structures that will promote progressive change. This is particularly important because globally, just as we cannot afford to ignore climate change, we cannot afford to allow the MDGs to remain unmet. Meeting the MDGs generates huge positive externalities for all societies across the world. Similarly, implementing the measures outlined in the Beijing Platform for Action would generate enormous social benefits, and many involve institutional change rather than fiscal resources. Not making these investments would be extremely costly in social terms, and can create instability, unrest and social tensions.

121. The costs of meeting a number of the MDGs have been calculated (for example, Grown et al, 2006). Giving all children a full cycle of primary schooling was estimated in 2001 to require an additional \$9.1 billion per year over current expenditures (Delamonica et al, 2001), now estimated at \$11 billion (UNESCO, 2008). On average, the costs of essential care during pregnancy, childbirth and the newborn period are only \$3 per capita per year in low income

countries. Preventing women's unintended pregnancies, deaths in childbirth and saving the lives of newborns would cost \$23 billion per year, equivalent to less than 10 days of global military spending.

What is to be done? Ten critical areas of intervention

122. The interventions suggested here are not intended to replace the guidelines in the Beijing Platform for Action, but rather to supplement them and emphasize particular aspects that require special attention. To start with, there are some overarching recommendations that we believe must be met as the basis for specific policies, and which cut across different areas of intervention. Thus,

- It is necessary to develop systems of economic and political governance that are participatory and accountable and give effective voice to those who are being governed.
- It is important for governments in all countries to comply fully and effectively with the human rights obligations for women that are defined in the Convention on the Elimination of All Form of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the ILO Conventions Nos. 100 and 111.
- It is important to develop and encourage public awareness and advocacy campaigns, and to build and mobilize support for women's issues across women's movements, NGOs, trade unions and other civil society movements, and build alliances with other groups working for progressive change, with some attention to engaging men and boys as advocates for gender equality Networks that share information and collaborate on strategies are particularly powerful.

123. Given these overarching recommendations, we have identified the following as the ten most important public strategies emerging from the Beijing Platform for Action that are required in the current context to enhance efforts to realize the MDGs:

- 1. Make full employment and the generation of decent work the primary goal of macroeconomic policies.**
- 2. Ensure full and equal participation of women in political decision-making at all levels.**
- 3. Develop gender-responsive budgeting and gender auditing of all economic policies, linked to outcomes.**
- 4. Guarantee fundamental rights at work, including for informal sector workers.**
- 5. Ensure universal access to affordable food.**
- 6. Provide universal access to education and to quality health systems, with special attention to gender equality.**
- 7. Provide universal access to quality sexual and reproductive health services.**
- 8. Invest in infrastructure for water and energy resources, with special attention to the specific needs of women.**
- 9. Ensure participatory and democratic systems of protection of natural resources and adaptation to climate change for the benefit of women.**
- 10. Emphasize the collection and dissemination of data disaggregated by sex that would allow for better understanding of gaps as well as monitoring of policies and their implementation.**

124. Many of these strategies have been selected because they are seen as ‘keys’, rather than ‘locks’, for unfolding further social policy to support the achievement of the MDGs. For example, policies on decent work require provision of quality education, and concern with poverty, hunger and environmental sustainability. Similarly, gender-responsive budgeting and disaggregating data on the basis of sex ensures that MDG indicators are attuned to the complexity of the needs of diverse populations and do not lose traction on problems because of apparent achievements at the aggregate level.

Other necessary interventions

125. In addition to the ten key interventions, other steps are critical at this point in time to accelerate progress towards achieving the MDGs.

Overall:

1. Break down current indicators by sex, and include a gender-specific indicator for each MDG target, e.g. for hunger, the extent of school feeding schemes in place at primary and secondary school and their beneficiaries, by sex; for education, the number and sex of children from the lowest quintile performing successfully in school examinations
2. Set up a ‘gender observatory’ that regularly examines both implementation and outcomes, to facilitate monitoring of progress towards the MDGs
3. Create inter-ministerial committees on gender equality that include ministries of finance, trade, labour, health, planning and education, and improve gender-sensitive budgeting across all public expenditures, with the engagement of civil society to review the outcomes in relation to the delivery of services

Relevant for MDG 1

1. Prioritize the decent work agenda with full attention to gender perspectives, including in regard to employment in rural areas and in informal activities
2. Encourage active labour market policies that target women, including skills training, job search assistance and employment subsidies
3. Ensure that women farmers have access to land, inputs, credit, extension services and markets
4. In public food distribution systems, provide food on the basis on individual entitlements rather than household-based, and undertake sensitization measures to ensure equal access of women and girls to food within the household
5. Ensure financial inclusion of women by increasing and universalizing their access to institutional finance in banking and insurance. Act on the understanding that micro-credit is not a substitute for women’s full access to mainstream financial services.
6. Provide a ‘minimum floor of employment’ through public programmes such as employer-of-last-resort programmes and employment-guarantee schemes

Relevant for MDG 2

1. Give priority to strategies to retain girls in school, with specific attention to factors affecting attendance, morale, and achievement
2. Make all school, including higher education curricula gender-sensitive and supportive of gender equality

3. Avoid strategies of educational universalization based on low per-capita public spending that rely on underpaid and under-trained teachers, and ensure quality education through greater spending and more accountability for outcomes
4. Pay special attention to the education of girls who are the victims of multiple forms of deprivation and discrimination, whether because of income, residence, social category, ethnic origin, religion, disability or any other factor
5. Invest in adult literacy, with special attention to women

Relevant for MDG 3

1. Review, revise, amend and abolish all laws, regulations, policies, practices and customs that discriminate against women
2. Ensure that the necessary regulatory, policy and programme frameworks are in place to support the effective implementation and enforcement of laws (e.g., on violence against women)
3. Ensure legal systems are in place that provide equal inheritance rights for girls and women, and marital property rights for women
4. Develop specific programmes for encouraging more technical, scientific and professional development of women, such as science camps and similar activities and mentoring for youth, and professional associations, networking and special awards and other incentives for adult women
5. Develop codes of best gender equality practice for employers, and provide gender equality training for senior staff in the public and private sectors
6. Promote institutional mechanisms that foster women's participation at all levels of government, especially in decision-making structures
7. Support greater participation of women in economic and cultural groups, focusing on small producers, traders and cultural workers
8. Develop policies that respond effectively to the challenges faced by women who are subject to multiple forms of discrimination

Relevant for MDGs 4, 5 and 6

1. Increase state accountability for better results in maternal health, and create social demand for quality services within a rights-based approach
2. Remove the financial, physical, and cultural barriers to good quality health care for women by providing comprehensive and essential health care, universally accessible to all women in an acceptable and affordable way, and developed with the participation of women, using the principles of the primary health care framework. Such care should include sexual and reproductive health care, and include family planning information and services, and give particular attention to maternal and emergency obstetric care
3. Ensure that user fees are not collected at the point of access to health services, and prevent women's impoverishment by enforcing rules that adjust user fees to women's ability to pay. Abolish user fees for pregnant women, especially for delivery care. Offer care to women and men according to their needs, their time and other constraints
4. Recognize women's contributions to the health sector, in the formal sector and through informal care. Ensure that women as health providers in auxiliary, volunteer and informal care have the required multiple linkages to the formal and professional health sectors, such as supervision, training, acknowledgement and support, functioning referral systems linking them to drugs, equipment and skilled expertise

5. Strengthen the accountability of health policy-makers and of health care providers in private and public clinics for gender equality in health. Incorporate gender perspectives into clinical audits and other efforts to monitor quality of care
6. Develop skills, capacities and capabilities among health professionals at all levels of the health system to understand and apply gender perspectives in their work
7. Develop a national strategy to improve vital registration
8. Invest, in and improve delivery of integrated sexual and reproductive health, maternal, newborn and child health services
9. Support provision of food to pregnant women and lactating mothers
10. Provide education in nutrition to families and promote and support breast feeding during the first six months of a child's life
11. Invest in school feeding programmes and link these with employment opportunities for women
12. Provide adequate and universal access to sanitation
13. Ensure that disability programmes are gender-sensitive, and that women's health services recognize and cater to the separate and specific challenges of women with disabilities

Relevant for MDG 7

1. Strengthen national capacities for undertaking crisis-related gender analysis, including the incorporation of data and statistics disaggregated by sex, into assessments of disaster risks, impacts and needs
2. Develop capacity-building for women for adaptation to and mitigation of climate change
3. Educate women to become active agents of resource conservation by building on their roles in recycling and waste management within households
4. Ensure that women participate in all dialogue and policy-making forums on the generation of solutions for natural resource management, disaster risk management and conflict prevention
5. Undertake measures to improve women's access to water and sanitation, in particular in urban slums

Relevant for MDG 8

1. Move towards earmarking ten 10 per cent for gender equality-related work at the national level of ODA allocated for MDG work
2. Ensure that sound and detailed gender analysis is integrated in diagnostic trade integration studies or any other trade impact assessment. Support the efforts of partner governments and statistical offices to promote the systematic collection of detailed sex-disaggregated data. Provide funding for quantitative and qualitative research to gain a better understanding of trade impacts on specific groups of women and men.
3. Analyze, and improve the effectiveness aid-for-trade from a gender perspective
4. Support gender-responsive budgeting initiatives to ensure that decisions on public expenditure and taxes in response to tariff revenue loss are informed by a sound understanding of the gender implications of fiscal policies
5. Finance road and other physical infrastructural projects that reduce women's time and energy burdens
6. Promote gender audits of trade-related administrative procedures
7. Enhance the capacity of civil society organizations to monitor the implementation of trade agreements and to hold their governments and the international community accountable

- for their commitments to gender equality. Promote gender-aware economic and trade literacy amongst women's organizations and networks
8. Improve the opportunities for women in training in ICTs so that they are able fully to participate in the knowledge economy

VI. Conclusion

126. The Expert Group concludes that fifteen years after the Beijing Platform of Action was adopted, and ten years on from the Millennium Declaration, despite some important progress in a number of areas, gender inequalities remain and have been sharply exacerbated by the contemporary crises. Gender inequalities intersect with other inequalities and challenges of policy and the political economy that impact adversely on the realization of the MDGs. However, the Beijing Platform of Action provides not only an important intrinsic statement about the significance of gender equality, but also precise policy guidance and suggestions of processes that are essential to achieve the MDGs. Implementing our top ten actions would substantially move the MDG agenda from vision to realization, and toward the prospect of a better future for girls and women, boys and men.

ANNEX I

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ANNEX II

List of Documents

A. PAPERS BY EXPERTS

EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.1	Women’s role in agriculture and in rural welfare: access to land and resources Susana Lastarria-Cornhiel, Peru
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.2	Equal access to full employment and decent work as a poverty reduction strategy Verena Schmidt, Germany
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.3	Access and participation of women and girls to education and training Elaine Unterhalter, South Africa
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.4	Women and girls in science and technology: increasing opportunities in education, research and employment Eva Rathgeber, Canada
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.5	Transforming health systems and services for women and girls Piroska Östlin, Sweden
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.6	Achieving maternal and sexual reproductive health Tomris Türmen, Turkey
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.7	Status of women and girls in the face of climate change Rachel Nampinga, Uganda
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.8	Urbanization and gender: attention to gender equality in efforts to improve the lives of slum dwellers Agnes Kabajuni, Uganda (NB: expert unable to attend)
EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.9	Implications of current trade policies for gender equality Marzia Fontana, Italy

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/EP.10

Towards a gender-sensitive agenda for energy,
environment and climate change
Jyoti Parikh, India

B. CASE STUDY

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/CS.1

Gender Responsive Budgeting in Mauritius
Magda Verdickt
United Nations Development Programme

C. BACKGROUND PAPERS

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/BP.1

The impact of the implementation of the Beijing
Declaration and Platform for Action on the
achievement of the Millennium Development Goals
Jayati Ghosh, India

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/BP.2

Official list of MDG indicators

D. INFORMATION PAPERS

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.1

Aide Mémoire

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.2

Programme of Work

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.3

Information Note for Participants

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.4

List of Participants

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.5

Expert Biographies

EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.6

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EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/INF.7

Procedures followed in Expert Group Meetings
organized by the Division for the Advancement of
Women, Department of Economic and Social
Affairs (DESA)

ANNEX III

Programme of Work

Wednesday, 11 November 2009

Plenary Session

- 9:00 a.m.** Registration of participants (experts and observers)
- 10:00 a.m. –
10:45 a.m.** Opening
- Welcome from United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
Patrice Robineau, Senior Adviser to the Executive Secretary, UN-
Economic Commission for Europe
- Message from **Carolyn Hannan**, Director
Division for the Advancement of Women/Department of Economic
and Social Affairs, United Nations
- Introduction to the Expert group Meeting
Christine Brautigam, Senior Social Affairs Officer
Division for the Advancement of Women.
- Introduction of experts, election of officers, review of programme
of work and information on working methods
- 10:45 a.m. –
11:15 a.m.** **Break**
- 11:15 a.m. –
12:00 p.m.** Presentation of background paper
- Jayati Ghosh, Consultant**
The impact of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for
Action on the full achievement of the MDGs
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/BP.1)
- Discussion
- 12:00 p.m. –
12:45 p.m.** **Panel 1:**
POVERTY AND HUNGER – MDG1
Beijing Platform for Action:
A. Women and poverty and F. Women and the economy
- Presentations by experts and discussion

Susana Lastarria-Cornhiel

Women's role in agriculture and rural welfare: access to land and resources
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.1)

Verena Schmidt

Equal access to full employment and decent work as a poverty reduction strategy
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.2)

**12:45 p.m. –
2:15 p.m.**

Lunch

**2:15 p.m. –
3:00 p.m.**

Panel 2:

EDUCATION – MDG2 and MDG3

Beijing Platform for Action: B. Education and training of women, L. The girl-child, and J. Women and the media

Presentations by experts and discussion

Elaine Unterhalter

Access and participation of women and girls to education and training
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.3)

Eva Rathgeber

Women and girls in science and technology: increasing opportunities in education, research and employment
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.4)

**3:00 p.m. –
4:00 p.m.**

Panel 3:

HEALTH – MDG4, MDG5 and MDG6

Beijing Platform for Action: C. women and health and L. The girl-child (also parts of critical areas D, F and G)

Presentations by experts and discussion

Piroska Östlin

Transforming health systems and services for women and girls
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.5)

Tomris Türmen

Achieving maternal and sexual reproductive health
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.6)

3:45/4:00 p.m. –
4:15 p.m.

Break

4:15 p.m. –
5:15 p.m.

Panel 4:
ENVIRONMENT - MDG7
Beijing Platform for Action: K. Women and the environment

Presentations by experts and discussion

Rachel Nampinga
Addressing climate change from a gender perspective
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.7)

Agnes Kabajuni
Attention to gender equality in efforts to improve the lives of slum dwellers/to address the gender dimensions of urbanization
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.8)

Panel 5:
FINANCING – MDG8
Beijing Platform for Action: Chapter 6 and cross-cutting all critical areas (see also strategic objectives A1 and G1)

Marzia Fontana
Implications of current trade policies, reforms and agreements on poverty reduction among women
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/EP.9)

5:15 p.m. –
6:00 p.m.

General discussion – summary of main points

6:00 p.m.

Adjournment

Thursday 12 November 2009

9:00 a.m.

Summary of Day 1 by Rapporteur
Introduction to work by Chairperson

9:30 a.m. –
11:00 a.m.

Presentations by United Nations country teams and discussion
Ecuador, Ethiopia, Mauritius
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/GPP.1)
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/GGP.2)
(EGM/BPFA–MDG/2009/GGP.3)

11:00 a.m. –
11:30 a.m.

Break

11:30 a.m. –
12:00 p.m.

Panel 4 (continuation)
ENVIRONMENT - MDG7
Beijing Platform for Action: K. Women and the environment

Presentation by expert and discussion

Joyti Parikh

The gender dimensions of sustainable energy, climate change and natural resources management
(EGM/BPFA-MDG/2009/EP.10)

12.00 p.m. –
1:00 p.m.

Establishment of working groups

1:00 p.m. –
2:00 p.m.

Lunch

2:30 p.m. –
5:30 p.m.

Working groups

5:30 p.m. –
6:00 p.m.

Report back to Plenary from working groups

6.00 p.m.

Adjournment

Friday, 13 November 2009

9:00 a.m. –
9:30 a.m.

Plenary – reports back
Working groups – finalize inputs/drafting of report

9:30 a.m. –
1:00 p.m.

Continuation of working groups / drafting of report

1:00 p.m. –
2:30 p.m.

Lunch

2.00 p.m. –
3:45 p.m.

Consolidation of working group inputs and presentation and discussion of final report

3:45 p.m. –
4:00 p.m.

Break

4:00 p.m. –
5:30 p.m.

Adoption of final report

6:00 p.m.

Closing

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