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DRAFT

Enhanced participation of women in development: An enabling environment for achieving gender equality and the advancement of women, taking into account, inter alia, the fields of education, health and work

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ACRONYMS

AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
AWPS	African Women' Progress Scoreboard
BPFA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGA	Comprehensive Gender Analysis
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CSW	Commission on the Status of Women
DFID	Department for International Development
DRD	Declaration on the Right to Development
EFA	Education for All
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GRB	Gender-Responsive Budget
GSI	Gender Status Index
IFI	International Financial Institutions
ILO	International Labour Organization
IWRAW	International Women's Rights Action Watch
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MPTFGE	Millennium Project Task Force on Gender Equality
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
NWM	National Women's Machineries
PAHO	Pan American Health Organization
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
SEWA	Self Employed Women's Association
SWAP	Sector-wide Approach
TASO	The Aids Support Organization
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Forum for Africa
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNV	United Nations Volunteers
WEDO	Women's Environment and Development Organization
WFP	World Food Programme
WFHI	Women Friendly Hospital Initiative
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organization

1 INTRODUCTION: BACKGROUND, PURPOSE AND STRUCTURE

1.1 Background

1. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPFA) recognized the fundamental importance of creating an enabling environment where women's spiritual, intellectual and material needs for survival, protection and development are met and their rights are safeguarded. Furthermore, women's empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society, including participation in the decision-making process and access to power, were considered fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace (BPFA, 1995).
2. The importance of equal participation of women with men in public life has also been emphasized in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which 180 states had ratified, as of March 2005. At a national level, laws and policies designed to prevent sex discrimination, secure equal pay, maternity and reproductive rights, and increase opportunities for women in the workforce and education, have been adopted in many countries. These actions have secured some gains for women in many societies, particularly where Governments have effectively implemented legal reforms and policy initiatives. However, there remains a substantial gap between the recognition of de jure formal rights and actual practices as the lower status of women in education, health and work in many countries demonstrates (E/CN.6/2005/2).
3. Gender advocates have increasingly stressed the importance of the institutional context for the advancement of women's interests (Rao and Kelleher, 2005; Goetz, 1997; Kabeer and Subrahmanian, 1996; Razavi, 1997). Institutional change is increasingly seen as one of the key areas for the pre-requisite political and social transformation processes needed to realize gender equality and women's empowerment. Favourable institutional arrangements within state and non-state entities tasked with administering and delivering development outcomes, are central to creating enabling environments that facilitate women's access to development resources, capabilities and agency to improve their lives.

1.2 Purpose of the paper

4. This background paper is intended to provide a discussion focus for the Expert Group Meeting in Bangkok, 2005, leading to the provision of recommendations for the CSW review of the theme 'Enhanced participation of women in development: an enabling environment for achieving gender equality and the advancement of women, taking into account the fields of education, health and work'.

1.3 Methodology and Structure

5. This background paper is based on a literature review of relevant multi-lateral agency documents, Government publications, academic and NGO papers.
6. The paper starts with presenting the conceptual understanding of women's effective participation in development as agents and beneficiaries. The importance of an enabling environment for the enhanced participation of women is discussed. The institutional arenas through which women's access, capabilities and agency are enabled or disabled, and the core elements of an enabling environment are introduced. The following section explores the challenges in creating an enabling environment for women to access education opportunities, safeguard their health and secure their livelihoods through employment. The fourth section explores approaches and strategies for creating an enabling environment based on experiences, lessons learned and additional areas requiring further attention. The final section presents policy implications and proposes specific areas of focus for the international community, Governments and civil society organizations.

2 The relationship between an enabling environment and women's participation in development

2.1 Women's 'effective participation' in development: access, capabilities and agency

7. The nature of women's participation in the economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives and the terms or conditions under which this participation takes place, have been a key concern for the women's movement and gender advocates since gender issues became more prominent on the international agenda. Over the years, there has also been an increased understanding of the need to integrate gender-sensitive perspectives, approaches and procedures into development and participation processes. There is now considerable literature that enhances our understanding of the nature and terms of, and pathways for women's participation in particular, and participatory development, more generally, in numerous contexts at community, national and global levels (Cornwall, 2001; Bell and Brambilla, 2001; Chambers, 2004; UNDP, 1999a, Bridge, 2001, Sweetman and Kerr, 2003).
8. There has been a steady shift from an emphasis on participation as a 'means' (involvement) to participation as an 'end' (a transformative agenda). Participatory development approaches have tended to concentrate on means of participation, most commonly getting women involved in decision-making through representation, overlooking gendered power relations that limit women's effectiveness in terms of capabilities and agency to influence decisions and bring about positive changes in their lives. Participation as end implies empowering people in terms of acquiring such assets, skills, knowledge and capabilities to take greater responsibility for their development (UNDP, 1999b; Narayan, 2005). Effective participation invokes notions of stakeholder involvement, influence and negotiation; enhanced capabilities for transformative change; and access to development enhancing opportunities and public goods (World Bank, 2001; Sen, 1999; Lopez-Claros and Zahidi, 2005; UNDP, 1999).

9. Shifting from a focus on women's involvement in participatory development initiatives to empowerment as a goal is important in light of gender inequalities in access to assets, capabilities and agency. The Millennium Project Task Force on Gender Equality's (Grown *et al*, 2005a) broad interpretation of women's empowerment highlights three critical dimensions of women's empowerment that affect women's enhanced participation in development, and is the conceptual basis of this paper. These dimensions include: capabilities (for example, in areas of health and education); access to opportunities (for example, employment and land); and agency (for example, ability to participate in policy and decision-making processes).
10. Two pathways are necessary for women's empowerment. First is the institutional climate that facilitates women's participation in development. The institutional climate includes social and political structures that present opportunities for women's participation in negotiations, dialogue, decision-making, implementation, benefit sharing and evaluation of development processes, through the expansion of assets and capabilities and an enabling institutional framework. Second is the ability of women themselves to act to further their interests. This is because women's empowerment involves a progressive process of 'effective participation' that enables them to take initiative, apply agency and work actively in their own interests. It implies an understanding of the reality of their situation, reflecting on the factors influencing the situation, and taking collective and individual steps to effect changes to improve it, for example through economic self-reliance, educational achievements and reproductive and sexual health choices.

2.2 The importance of an enabling environment for women's participation

11. An enabling environment is one which presents women and men with the same opportunity structures and freedom of choices while securing the conditions for both men and women's well-being. A national strategy committed to gender equality outcomes in education, health and work needs to take account of the institutional links and processes within and across policy-making and delivery organizations, which enable or disable women's access, capability and agency. The socio-cultural context through which these processes operate is another important dimension as socially constructed norms, values and behaviours in the household and family relationships are reproduced across a range of organizations and arenas and impinge on women's ability to effectively participate in development processes.

2.2.1 Why the institutional context matters

12. Institutions are fundamental foundations of an enabling environment because they define rights, specify the mechanisms for acquisition of resources, and assign roles, tasks, responsibilities to women and men in societies. A simple definition of institution is the 'rules of the game' for achieving specified development goals, while organizations refer to specific institutional forms that administer these goals (North, 1990; Kabeer and Subrahmanian, 1996; Goetz, 1997). These rules specify behaviour and performance of development agents or actors and are embedded in organizational transactions.

Institutional arrangements are the forms of contract through which rules govern (North, 1990) and structure individual and collective interactions including gender relations (Rao and Kelleher, 2005).

13. It is useful to distinguish between formal and informal institutions that govern and structure individual and collective behaviour. Formal institutions consist of norms and values related to legal, economic and political systems and their constituent parts such as laws, policies and reforms. These may include legal title to land, health and education systems and reforms. Informal institutions comprise socio-cultural norms, traditions, customs, value systems and religions that govern relationships between individuals and groups. For example, in some societies, norms and customs specify matrimonial systems, including age of marriage and divorce that may limit women's choices, restrict women's movements and further reduce their opportunities for employment or access to education and training.
14. Formal and informal rules can conflict with each other to the detriment of women's capabilities. Because formal institutions are socially embedded, they reflect and reproduce existing power imbalances. Informal inheritance norms in some societies, for example, impede women's access to formally institutionalized property rights. So while formal rules may specify non-discrimination, organizations often operate according to hidden values which marginalize the interests of women (Rao and Kelleher; 2005).
15. Many institutions are not responsive to women's needs or interests and perpetuate unequal relations of power between men and women. Unequal gender relations are reproduced in the ways in which institutional resources are allocated, tasks and responsibilities are assigned, value is given and power is mobilised; these patterns reflect not only formal rules and behaviours but also underlying norms and dominant attitudes. Therefore, addressing the institutional context is a critical area for establishing an enabling environment for women capabilities.

2.2.2 Arenas and stakeholders of an enabling environment

16. Women's participation in development - access, capabilities and agency - is mediated by gendered norms and values operating within four key institutional arenas: states, markets, communities, and households or families. Norms, values and institutional arrangements operating in these arenas enhance or limit women's choices and options.
17. Within the arena of the state are a range of executive, legal, military and administrative organizations, including central Government, decentralized Government administrations, legislative/parliamentary bodies, the police and judiciary. Organizations of influence in the market arena consist of multi-national companies (MNCs), national corporations, co-operatives and other private sector bodies. Organizations operating in the community arena include civil society organizations, community and religious groups. The household and familial arena comprises individuals, extended families and kinship groups.

2.2.3 Core elements of an enabling environment for women's participation

18. From a gender perspective, the extent to which institutions contribute to creating an enabling environment on behalf of women is determined by the following cross-cutting sets of factors:

- Legal and regulatory frameworks;
- Policy and resource allocation frameworks;
- Institutional and organizational frameworks;
- Social-cultural factors.

19. These frameworks range from the laws of the country enacted by legislation, through the rules, regulations and procedures of ministries and departments at national, regional and local levels, to the practice and attitudes of civil servants based on their different interpretations of the laws and regulations, their own capacities and their vested interests. The enabling environment also includes the policies and practices of relevant NGOs/CSOs and private sector businesses. Organizations and their modes of operation, including administrative, technical, political and financial processes and mechanisms, underlying organizational culture, and the way they deliver critical services to women, combine with wider societal norms and cultural issues to affect the ways the environment responds to women's rights and needs.

20. In addition to these cross-cutting factors, other contextual factors affect women's access, capabilities and agency and are covered in internationally agreed development goals, including the MDGs, and the objectives and related actions arising from the 2000 and 2005 World Summits. Examples of these contextual indicators and factors include: health, nutritional and education status, population demographics and household characteristics, labour markets, food security, economic, political and environmental conditions, socio-cultural conditions, access to adequate public services and basic infrastructures, labour-saving technologies, and access to information and communication technologies. Peace and security are also linked to an enabling environment for women's participation. Finally, international co-operation in the fields of finance, technology transfer, debt and trade have potential to support Government reforms.

2.2.4 The significance of sectoral and institutional connections

21. The connections between education, health and work outcomes have implications for women's access, capabilities and agency and the way related services are provided and implemented. Grown *et al* (2005a) highlight how post primary education has strong positive effects on health outcomes and on broader women's empowerment and how the enhancement of increased economic opportunities also improves health status and health-seeking behaviour.

22. The success of gender-aware interventions in one sector might require interventions from another sector and the linkages between education, health and work might require concurrent attention and reform in all three areas. For example, accessing information on health services might require some degree of literacy. In addition and because of a complex interplay of factors, women's achievements in one area do not automatically lead into equitable gains in other areas. Positive links between education and work for example, do not always translate into equal income outcomes as employed women do

not earn as much as men. Taking it a step further, economic empowerment of women does not necessarily translate into overall empowerment in other areas of their lives, for example within the household and in their interactions with local communities (Masika and Joeke, 1996), as their increased enrolment in paid work may lead them to experiencing a double workload, at home and at the workplace. The interconnectedness of the education, health and work sectors means that the creation of an enabling environment involves a continuum of institutional processes to translate into tangible gains for women. Appendix 1 provides some examples of areas of focus for an enabling environment that demonstrate the multiplicity of challenges, and approaches required to tackle these challenges.

3 Challenges of creating an enabling environment for women's empowerment

3.1 Challenges of the wider macro-economic context and related social impact

23. The dominant economic paradigm assumes that benefits of economic growth, liberalisation policies, and their resulting social impact are gender-neutral. However the degree to which women benefit from economic growth depends on the ways benefits are distributed and the gendered differentials in women's capacities to access and use productive assets, for example, capital, land, skills and markets. Socio-cultural norms, restricting women's travel, land ownership and access to schools or training impair their ability to take advantage of economic and other livelihood opportunities. Market-oriented growth models also overlook women's time constraints and opportunity factors for engagement in markets.
24. Cuts in public-sector health and education provision, associated with economic restructuring, disproportionately impacts on poor women's capabilities in many societies. Privatization of health sectors, for example, increases reliance on health insurance, to which women in the informal sector and on low wages have limited access (Chant and Craske, 2003).
25. Feminist analyses of macro-economic reforms, policies and practice have contributed to a better understanding of the ways in which these reforms negatively impact on women's health, access to training and secure sustainable livelihoods. Engendering macro-economic models for such analyses has required disaggregating existing macroeconomic variables by gender (Collier, 1994), introducing economic variables capturing the structure of gender relations (Elson, 1998) and making the unpaid reproductive economy visible (Catagay, 1998). However, such contributions have yet to translate into national policies that enhance women's lives.

3.2 Education, health and work: Gaps in access, capabilities and agency

26. Despite progress in education, health, and employment opportunities for women in some societies, gaps relating to access, quality and content of services remain. This section highlights gaps in access and capabilities that impact on women's agency.

3.2.1 Education

27. Education and training have a profound effect on girls and women's abilities to achieve status in society, such as economic independence and political representation. Global commitments to achieving gender equality in education (as found in CEDAW, the BPFA, Education For All (EFA), the ICPD and the MDGs), have led to increases in numbers of girls attending school in many countries. However, despite Government commitments to gender equality and education through legislation and free schooling, universal access to education and the associated benefits of this right is still a huge challenge in many countries. The challenges of female education are many and extend beyond the education system into society as a whole (See box 1). Access to education, however, does not automatically translate into empowerment for girls or positive social change in many countries (Raynor, 2005; Rose and Brown, 2004). The empowerment potential of educational achievement is dependent on wider policies, educational system and social changes that foster gender equality.

Box 1 Education: Examples of gaps in access, capabilities and agency relating to education

Gender parity (proportion of girls and boys entering and completing school) remains low in many countries (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2005; WEDO, 2005). Women's roles and responsibilities, such as the care of children and household responsibilities, which many girls undertake, hinder their ability to take advantage of educational opportunities.

Quality of school experience, in terms of intolerance, discrimination and violence, disproportionately affects girls (UNESCO, 2004).

Household decision-making, based on son preference, in some societies leads to low prioritization of girl's education, particularly where there are cost implications.

Practical issues such as distance travelled to school, safety on the way to and at school are sometimes overlooked in policy implementation. These are infrastructure issues that significantly impede access to education in societies, where informal norms restrict the movement of girls and women.

3.2.2 Health

28. All too often health reforms fail to translate into effective programs which address the specific and differing needs of women and men (Ravindran and Pinho, 2005). MDG 5 BPFA and CEDAW play an important role in the efforts of improving the health of women. It is important to look beyond reproductive health in order to consider issues like HIV/AIDS and women's access to health facilities. Box 2 provides some examples of gaps in access, and capabilities for health seeking behaviour.

Box 2 Health: Examples of gaps in access, capabilities and agency

Women's equitable access to full, comprehensive, appropriate, affordable and quality health primary care services continue to be low in many countries (Oxaal & Cook, 1998; O'Brien & White, 2003; WHO, 2005; WEDO, 2005).

Women are particularly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS infection. (Ruiz, 2003; De Bruyn, 2005; WHO, 2005), but many HIV/AIDS prevention efforts continue to focus their information programmes with messages of abstinence and use of condoms that do not address issues of power to negotiate safe sex.

Globally, women and girls provide up to 90 percent of HIV/AIDS care in the home, which increases the load for female caretakers. This increase in social burden combined with the AIDS death toll of working-age women has cut the female labour force in sub-Saharan Africa (ILO, 2004).

Maternal mortality rates are high in poor countries due to poor family planning services, lack of education and information, as well as logistical problems and cultural, social and religious taboos or beliefs that constrain women's health-seeking behaviour (Oxaal, 1998; Ruiz, 2003; WHO, 2005; WEDO, 2005).

Human resource policy and planning in the health sector fails to take account of qualitative factors which determine who enters the workforce for how long, where they work, and under what terms. This leads to gender-segregated occupational structures in health services with women highly concentrated at the bottom, thus indirectly discriminating against women (Standing, 2000).

Transport, lack of access to income, domestic responsibilities and productive activities make journeys to clinics difficult.

Insensitive attitudes of staff to women in health centres and facilities and opening hours deter women from visiting health facilities.

Norms like son-preference in some societies lead to prioritising sons' health needs over daughters.

Gender-based violence manifested in the forms of forced sex, trafficking in women and female genital mutilation (FGM) have health consequences for women (Harcourt, 2001; ILO, 2004).

Women's domestic roles that expose them to indoor solid fuel pollution and high concentrations farms producing flowers for export expose them to harmful chemicals.

3.2.3 Work

29. The rise in women's participation in paid work has been significant in some parts of the world (Elder and Schmidt, 2004). While the gap between the labour force participation for men and women has been decreasing for the past ten years, this progress has not been uniform across regions. While much has been achieved, women's participation in formal paid work remains low in many societies and there has been a growing trend towards women's overrepresentation in the informal labour market (UNIFEM, 2005). Box 3 provides some example of gaps in access, capabilities and agency

Box Work: Examples of gaps in access, capability and agency

Increasing numbers of women are represented amongst the most precarious forms of employment in the informal sector with no access to social, legal or health and safety protection (Chen *et al*, 2005).

Women are under-represented in large and medium enterprises as access is hindered by women's inability to grow their micro-enterprise firms in part because of norms relating to property rights, access to finance, business support and training (ILO, 2005).

Gender inequalities in access to permanent and full-time employment is influenced by early marriage and child-bearing, low education, and women's care responsibilities for children, the sick and the elderly (Amin, 1997, Grown *et al*, 2005b).

Gains in formal employment for women created by globalisation, trade and foreign direct investments (FDI) that may be better paid are short-term, insecure and unstable in some countries because of the high mobility of MNCs that can easily relocate their operations in countries with lower unit labour costs (UNRISD, 2005). Concerns persist about the quality and conditions of work and employment rights in these industries (Kabeer and Mahmud, 2004; Lim, 1996; Oxfam 2004).

Gender segregation in employment persists. Women still occupy lower paid and lower status roles, exacerbated by discriminatory perceptions of 'appropriate roles' for women and their gender responsibilities that impede their entry to higher and better paid jobs.

Micro-credit finance programmes' potential for social change and empowerment for women in some situations is undermined by household power dynamics that constrain the potential positive empowerment outcomes.

The case of unpaid voluntary work in community programmes in light of time constraints is another issue programmes need to take into consideration.

30. These illustrations show that gender equality commitments of Governments are influenced by socio-cultural norms and a country's broader development strategy within the context of wider macro-economic conditions.

3.3 Challenges of transforming institutions and organizations

31. A range of political, institutional and financial constraints limit the effectiveness of policies and programmes designed for gender equality. The challenges involved in transforming institutions and organizations for gender equality outcomes include policy misintegration, weak leadership and missing drivers of change, weak enforcement and reinterpretation of laws, organizational misalignments and weak accountability and monitoring systems.

3.3.1 Policy misintegration

32. Contradictory sectoral policy choices impact on women and girls' capacities and lives. Agricultural intensification policies, for example, requiring increased labour inputs impact on policies aiming for universal primary education in rural areas (Harper *et al.*: 2003).

3.3.2 Lack of political commitment, weak leadership and missing drivers of change

33. Lack of political will and weak leadership are often cited as key omissions for driving gender equality changes at national levels and within organizations. The lack of change champions, agents and sponsors and strategic allies or alliances means that good gender policy intentions on paper evaporate.

3.3.3 Limited enforcement and flawed interpretation of laws and codes

34. Most countries are politically and legally committed to gender equality. A commitment expressed through the ratification of conventions for example CEDAW, are reflected in domestic legislation. However, in many societies implementation and enforcement of legal commitments is weak and conflicts with customary laws and practice.

3.3.4 Organizational misalignments

35. Organizational misalignments occur when organizational modes of operation do not conform to what is required for gender equality institutional changes. Public and private entities might have explicit gender policies and programmes, but lack the organizational capabilities, capacities, legitimacy and resources to effect change.
36. Legitimacy of gender policies are challenges national organizations face if gender priorities are perceived as externally led. Vested interests of men may lead to resistance to organizational change and makes co-opting and engaging them potential change agents problematic.
37. Gendered norms and values at play within organizations accounts for why some ideas circulating policy arenas are acted or not acted upon while others are rejected as implied in broader analyses of power, policy and politics (Court and Young, 2003; Keohane, 1989). Competing policy priorities to which more value is attached might mean gender issues are abandoned, diluted or evaporated.

3.3.5 Inadequate indicators, monitoring and accountability systems

38. Indicators and statistics are useful advocacy, policy and accountability tools, as they demonstrate gaps and achievements. Gaps in the collection of gender disaggregated data at village, district and provincial levels of existing measures of women's capabilities and access mean that clear analysis of inter-country conditions for women are not always available.
39. At national levels, the multi-dimensionality and context-specificity of empowerment processes and impacts (Malhotra *et al* 2002; Kabeer, 1999) makes it hard for GEM and GDI indices to capture women's empowerment, participation changes and well-being achievements as these indices are not designed for this purpose. Some analysts note there is a lack of comprehensive measures of changes in cultural practices, norms and behaviours to monitor informal institutional changes (Bardhan, 1999; Morrisson and Jütting, 2004).
40. Inadequate monitoring and accountability mechanisms and structures within many organizations pose a challenge for monitoring gender-equality performance of holding administrators and service providers. Incentive structures for better performance in gender equality achievements are also lacking.

3.3.6 Weak relationships and links between development actors

41. Weak relationships between Governments, their chain of service delivery organizations, CSOs and the private sector mean that opportunities for cross-fertilization of ideas, collaboration, co-operation and partnership in bringing about changes are limited. Sectoral and sectional interests, rivalry and competition for resources mean gender equality activities might not be integrated. Conflicts over who has institutional responsibility and resources for implementing gender equality commitments of different Government agencies also present a challenge.

4 Strategies and approaches for creating an enabling environment

42. The change process is both a political and technical process that requires shifts in organizational culture and ways of thinking, changes in goals, structures and resource allocations of development organizations, changes in agenda setting, policy making, planning, implementation and evaluation (DFID, 2003). Moving from policy to implementation requires leadership and gender responsiveness in all institutional arenas including the household and kinship.
43. Governments, the international community, regional bodies, business and industry and CSOs all play a key role in creating an enabling environment for the advancement of women. Strategies and approaches relating to institutional arenas will differ with specific countries and the extent to which they can be adopted will depend on a country's cultural and historical path. This section explores strategies and approaches that have been tested and documented.

4.1 Economic sphere: Strategies and approaches

4.1.1 Policy dialogue and advocacy in the economic sphere

44. Dialogue with influential private sector actors, particularly MNCs to encourage improvements in local women's capabilities has proven an important strategy as FDI is often directed to labour-intensive industries and low-cost production sites where the workforce is predominantly female. Issues for consideration include investments in upgrading women's skills (UNRISD, 2005) and enhancements in the female workforce's bargaining power on work conditions and wages negotiation through employers' support of women's trade unions.
45. At national level, policy dialogue and advocacy needs to place emphasis on areas where women have a significant interest (micro- and small enterprise development, advocacy of small business concerns, labour laws, commercial justice issues such as land title) as these issues are paid little attention in macro-economic policymaking (Pinder, 2005).
46. At international and national levels, other proposed strategies for transforming norms that impact on women's access to resources and economic opportunities include increasing numbers of women in high level positions in international organizations to influence policy making within international financial organizations (IFIs) and WTO; economic and financial training for women; and psycho-social support mechanisms (networks, mentors and role models) for women (Kimmis, 2003; WEDO, 2002).

4.1.2 Gender-responsive budgets (GRBs)

47. GRBs are a practical tool to support gender equality obligations and human rights commitments (Budlender, 2004). They involve the analysis of the impact of

Government expenditure and revenue on men and women, with the aim to identify where budgetary adjustments are needed to ensure that resources are allocated to areas that support women's participation in development, and to monitor if expenditures are in line with the plans.

48. With support from the Belgian Government, UNIFEM's global programme 'Gender Strengthening Economic Governance: Applied Gender Analysis to Government Budgets', launched in October 2001, has provided technical and financial support to gender budgets initiatives in twenty countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia-Pacific. The programme provides gender budgeting tools and methodologies, increases stakeholders capacities to advocate for and carry out gender budget analysis, and provides resources to support implementation of gender equality plans and policies.

4.1.3 Increasing the visibility of women's economic contributions

49. Making women's contributions visible, recognised and valued is an important strategy for women's enhanced status in societies. A UNIFEM and United Nations Volunteers (UNV) programme's project in Latin America is working to mainstream a gender perspective into local Government expenditure plans and make women's unpaid and volunteer contributions to the health of their communities quantified and visible, which can be achieved by developing Gender-based National Health Accounts for example (PAHO, 2005).
50. Since 1970s, women's organisations and feminist scholars have developed a more comprehensive conceptualisation of women's work by distinguishing five types of work: formal market work, informal market work, subsistence production, unpaid care work and volunteer work (Beneria, 1992, UNIFEM, 2000). As only formal market work is adequately measured by conventional data collection and is the focus of most work-related policies (UNIFEM, 2005), there is a need for more recognition of non-formal market work contributions. Many analyses demonstrate that women's unrecognised work contributes to health and economic development, the reduction of poverty and offsets weak State welfare policies (UNRISD, 2005) through both paid and unpaid work at home, in the community and in the workplace. These contributions are highly underestimated hence women giving women limited social recognition (ILO, 2005).

4.1.4 Campaigning and organizing for change

51. Women organizing for changes in their lives have been an effective strategy to react to challenges posed by economic reforms. The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India, for example has stepped in to fill the gaps in access to services in healthcare and education and social protection provision. SEWA is also actively involved in campaign work relating to informal workers.

4.1.5 Micro-finance and small enterprise development

52. Non-traditional forms of lending offered by some micro-finance and small enterprise development initiatives are beneficial strategies wherever women face specific obstacles in obtaining credit, for example, the absence of collateral (Kelkar, 2004). The empowerment potential for micro-finance interventions, however, requires

complementary strategies to support women's skills and empowerment in their homes and wider communities. Attention to providing business training (marketing and financial management), broadening the range of enterprise activities and childcare support, are additional supportive arrangements that increase the empowerment potential for micro-finance initiatives.

4.2 Policy and political spheres: strategies and approaches

4.2.1 Sustained political will, commitment and responsiveness

53. Evidence from economic and social sectors suggests that political will is a critical factor for successful changes (Rose and Brown, 2004). This political will is embodied in the sustained commitment and leadership of politicians and administrators to invest political resources to respond to women's needs. Leadership of presidents, prime ministers, ministers and members of parliament sustains commitment to gender equality. Heads of State have unmatched authority to convince diverse social and political groups to organize around gender equality, as in the case of the heads of Government in China, Morocco, Oman, Sri Lanka and Uganda who spoke out in support of girls' education with positive outcomes. Mobilization of change agents at different levels of Government and international organizations is also most powerfully deployed by political leaders. Political commitment to enabling gender mainstreaming at all levels of Government is essential for the effective and cohesive efforts to support gender equality.

4.2.2 Policy dialogue and advocacy in the political sphere

54. Policy advocacy of external agencies, CSOs and women in strategic bodies is vital for influencing wider Government policy on legislative change and resource allocation. Enhanced participation of women at decision-making levels in Governments and advocacy of CSOs increases the likelihood that women's interests and needs are taken into consideration.

55. Effective role models and female leadership are also important considerations for empowerment strategies. Networks of female leaders have proven to be successful drivers for change. The Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) is an organizational network that promotes girls education in Africa has this issue firmly ingrained on the policy agenda. Comprised of a membership of female ministers and deputy ministers, permanent secretaries, prominent educationalists, and male members committed to FAWE's mandate, the Forum has worked to bring about positive changes in their countries.

4.2.3 Engendering cross-sector analyses and processes: PRSPs and SWAPs

56. Poverty Reduction Strategies, including Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) processes provide opportunities for greater policy integration and cohesion, in terms of identifying potential effects of macro policies on women and ensuring links between sectoral priorities. SWAPs provide additional opportunities for better integration of policies through horizontal and vertical structures within sectors. Both involve a process

of integrated policy design that involves different Government departments. Conducting a comprehensive analysis of gender conditions in terms of access and capabilities can make SWAPs and PRSPs more effective and gender-responsive. It is especially important to include a gender perspective in non-traditional development sectors such as employment, financing, infrastructure building, etc.

57. Ensuring that stakeholder consultations to these processes are gender inclusive is key; experiences in a variety of contexts suggest that representation of women's interests needs to be organized with care if women's voices are to be effective during consultations (Whitehead, 2002; OECD, 2002).
58. Lessons learned from the Rwanda PRSP process reveal that additional steps are required to support consultative processes to achieve gender-sensitive outcomes. These include comprehensive and integrated gender analyses of ways in which poverty affects men and women differently and the sensitisation of all PRSP stakeholders, including policy makers. The availability of gender disaggregated data monitoring and evaluation indicators (for example the amount of time taken to fetch water and fuel) to assess outcomes and impacts of PRSPs for women is also important (Zuckerman, 2001).
59. CSO's, particularly women's organizations', participation in implementation and monitoring increases the opportunities for outcomes that reflect women's interests and needs.

4.2.4 Enabling infrastructures and arrangements

60. Political commitment to the provision of basic infrastructure such as roads, water and sanitation and ICTs, and enabling arrangements (staff allocation, labour and time-saving technologies, affordable access and a client perspective in service delivery) enhances women's access to education, health and market services. Box 4 provides examples of these infrastructural improvements.

Examples of enabling infrastructural improvements and arrangements

To address problems related to transport and travel the Indonesian Government built and staffed conveniently located schools, making it easier for girls to reach. As a result, Indonesia has maintained over 90% enrolment for both girls and boys since the reforms (Duflo, 2001).

India has tried to address the problem of the burden of care that hinders girls from taking up education opportunities by introducing flexible schooling. This helps draw working children, especially girls, into schools.

In Niger, the World Food Programme helped establish a programme whereby girls' enrolment was targeted by providing them with both in-school feeding and take-home rations of food. Girl's school attendance increased by at least 50% (World Food Programme, 2001).

In Tanzania, school attendance increased when water was accessible to where people were living.

Venezuela is an example where constitutional amendments since 1999 have guaranteed citizens a right to basic healthcare. This has been matched by the provision of infrastructure such as the establishment of community health clinics that reach the neediest citizens. Maternal and infant mortality rates have declined. Part of the success can be attributed to Government working well with other service and delivery organization, particularly CSOs.

The provision of Web Access Protocol mobile phones to female rural agricultural producers provided them with access to internet to find information on market prices for their produce (Primo, 2003, cited by DAW, 2005).

4.3 Legal sphere: Strategies and approaches

4.3.1 Building and strengthening links between CEDAW, Beijing and MDGs

61. Linking human rights instruments and policy frameworks (CEDAW, Beijing and MDGs) enhances the implementation of gender equality goals (Harcourt, 2005; Dairiam, 2005). One strategy includes encouraging women's movements to use CEDAW national reports to produce 'shadow reports' that question official claims. In this context, the international NGO Women's Rights Action Watch (IWRAP) provides some guidance for NGOs on producing shadow reports (IWRAP, 2003).

4.3.2 Translating legal commitments into domestic legal frameworks: Rights, customary laws and traditional practices

62. CEDAW provides legal and political legitimacy for gender equality action where cultural practices contradict or conflict with gender equality goals and women's rights. Various initiatives have aimed to ensure the domestic implementation of CEDAW provisions and to put into place gender-sensitive legislation in accordance with the Convention. In addition, culturally-sensitive programming and advocacy complements efforts to translate international legal commitments into national legal frameworks. For example, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) successfully played a facilitating role through its country offices on sensitive issues such as reproductive rights through support for the enactment of the Social Development law in Guatemala.

63. Reinterpretations of religious interdicts can bring about favourable changes for women. Efforts to achieve a synthesis of Islamic and Indonesian inheritance schemes were seen as an opportunity to reinterpret the Islamic legal tradition and redress the inferior legal status of women (Cammack, 1999). When religious and spiritual leaders spoke out strongly in support of improving women's status, changes occurred as demonstrated by the reform undertaken in Morocco, which transformed the practice of repudiation into divorce available for both spouses.

4.4 Strategies and approaches for organizational change

4.4.1 Strengthening organizational capabilities

64. Significant financial and human resources are needed to develop organizational capabilities including capacity building, data collection and monitoring and evaluation processes. Capacity to deliver gender equality commitments is determined by the extent to which employees can access skills and resources for improvements and are rewarded for behaviour change. Gender-responsive budgeting and other financial resources directed specifically to change programmes are required.

65. With respect to Governments, proposed approaches for gender equality responsiveness include improved collaboration between health, education and work ministries in the co-ordination of policy development with appropriate ministries, monitoring of Cabinet submissions, co-ordinating development and regular updating of national action plans to implement gender equality measures, and methods and tools for gender mainstreaming. This includes gender impact assessments, guidelines for gender training and gender audits across all Government activities.
66. International NGO experiences suggest that sustained and carefully planned gender training plays a significant role in capacity building. Effective training needs to both raise awareness of gender issues and build their ability to carry out and mainstream gender analysis (Hadjipateras, 1997; Porter *et al*, 1999). Training should be matched with an understanding of the importance of gender as it relates to employees work. The success of gender training is highly dependent on the gender responsiveness of individuals (Rose and Brown, 2004) and the context (commitment, procedures and accountability structures) of the organization (Kardam, 1995).
67. Gender policymaking and mainstreaming strategies need sustained commitments and a genuine buy-in from agency executives. It is essential that both men and women in organizations are sensitized, trained and actively involved in gender transformative programmes relating to their work area. This can lessen resistance to positive change headed by gender specialists.
68. Improving the gender balance within sectoral organizations in policymaking, management and implementation structures is another effective strategy if women's capacities are enhanced. Employing more women in health and education sectors, at a higher professional level, as part of sector reforms, enhances women's participation in development.
69. Strategic alliances/partnership and co-ordination between and within agencies on gender issues improve delivery of services to women. The Woman Friendly Hospital Initiative (WFHI) in Bangladesh brought together a diverse range of stakeholder groups (health-care providers, civil society organizations, legal representatives, community leaders, media professionals, police and Government departments) to tackle the issues of maternal mortality and violence against women (Harcourt, 2001).

4.4.2 Strengthening organizational capacities of national mechanisms to implement gender equality

70. Strategies to strengthen national gender machineries (defined as mechanisms to implement gender equality) have included upgrading of their status and enhancing their authority, financial and human resources. Horizontal collaboration on gender equality issues across Government ministries presents opportunities for integration and information sharing. Such a strategy is bolstered where it is mandated to foster legitimacy of reform. For example, the mandate of Namibia's Department of Women's Affairs formalises its links with other ministries (Byrne *et al*, 1996).

71. Governments and national machineries need complementary tools and strategies to strengthen gender equality efforts. National machineries need the right legal instruments to monitor, coordinate and evaluate other ministries. Mechanisms need to be developed to hold Government ministries accountable for mainstreaming, including performance indicators, reporting to legislative bodies, and reporting under international agreements. Systematic collaboration and co-ordination with Government ministries for policy development should be implemented. Mechanisms for coordination among different types of national gender machineries should be developed, (joint meetings, plans, annual reports). Enhancing collaboration with CSOs/NGOs and organisations working for women's interests improves legitimacy of national machineries as representative of women of diverse socio-economic backgrounds are engaged. Gender specialists working in gender machineries need training in the necessary skills for policy analysis, program implementation and monitoring. Governments need to ensure adequate resource allocation to the gender machineries and sector specific areas for gender mainstreaming. All sector ministries should be assessed for gender budgeting (Bantebya-Kyomuhendo, 2005)

4.4.3 Strengthening organizational capacities at decentralized levels

72. Developing gender machineries at sub-national (for example, regional, provincial and district) levels increases capacities and responsiveness to gender issues where adequate support is provided. Communications from provincial to national level departments which better reflect women's needs are made possible. The Mongolian national machinery followed the national action plan for the advancement of women with sub-programmes developed at the provincial level, in order to enhance women's involvement (Bell *et al*, 2002).

73. Where central Governments devolve authority, decision-making and financial control to districts assistance in the form of policy guidelines, gender awareness raising, skills development and resources of local stakeholders is necessary to effect changes.

4.4.4 Investing in the management of organizational cultural change

74. Developing models for organizational change and performance must take gender into consideration as existing managerial models do not deal with the nuances of gender norms and values that pervade organizations. Incentives for gender-responsive behaviours and actions are an important strategy for change.

75. Sustained gender training is central to the transformatory process. Gender training, as part of an organization cultural change strategy, requires comprehensive capacity building, management commitments and clear follow-up mechanisms.

76. In instances where gendered attitudes are deeply entrenched, strategies to support awareness of gender issues might be best strategically linked to broader development issues. Chisholm and McKinney (2003) note that the Nepal Secondary Education Project, involving administrators and service deliverers at different levels linked gender awareness to broader issues on health policies, the schooling process and children.

While gender awareness was the purpose of the activities, it was not framed as such. This helped to overcome potential resistance at the workshops which were a success as gender issues were articulated within the context of broader development discussions.

4.4.5 Strengthening accountability and monitoring systems

77. Monitoring systems are essential to achieve sustained change, and provide the transparency mechanisms to hold accountable those who intervene on behalf of women. Mechanisms to monitor progress have included fora, such as committees and boards to scrutinize results. For example, the South African Commission on Gender Equality is an independent statutory, advisory and research body, whose primary functions include monitoring and evaluating Government policies and practices and the private sector. The National Gender Machinery in Zambia works at national, provincial and district levels. At the national level, it comprises the Gender in Development Division (GIDD), which functions as the secretariat of the Gender Consultative Forum, with members from the executive, legislature, judiciary, private sector, academic and research institutions, traditional authorities and NGOs. At the provincial level there are Gender Focal Points and Gender Committees of Provincial Coordinating Committees. At the district level, District Developments Coordinating Committees address women's empowerment issues and gender equality. GIDD also works closely with CSOs and NGOs (Warioba, 2005). Giving line managers responsibility for gender mainstreaming is another useful strategy.

78. Accountability strategies need data and qualitative information to assess impact and areas of need. Collection and dissemination of sex-disaggregated data is important to distinguish the differences between men and women. Proposals have been made to introduce indicators that better reflect norms, customs and traditions. Suggested indices relate to rights to inherit, freedom of movement and dress, right to ownership and access of property, female genital mutilation (FGM), marriage before the age of 20, polygamy and authority over children (Morrisson and Jütting; 2004; Jutting and Morrisson, 2005).

79. Regional bodies are developing indices that attempt to capture women's capabilities and opportunities, for example, UNECA's introduction of the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI).

Two components of AGDI

Gender Status Index (GSI) captures quantitatively measurable issues related to gender equality and women's empowerment. GSI is based on social power 'capabilities' (indicators on education and health), economic power 'opportunities' (indicators on income, labour force, time use and access to resources) and political power 'agency' (indicators on senior or high level political and management positions).

The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWSP) measures Government policy performance (legal, policy commitment, budget, training, institutional mechanisms and information) regarding women's advancement and empowerment. AWSP focuses on qualitative issues and is designed so that it includes the most pressing issues in relation to African women's empowerment.

UNECA, 2002

4.5 Social-cultural sphere: Strategies and approaches

4.5.1 Working with community leaders

80. Social mobilization is an important strategy for transformatory changes that redress gender power imbalances and entrenched ideas of women's roles, and their culturally acceptable behaviour and responsibilities. Mobilizers need to integrate cultural perspectives into programming and apply culturally sensitive approaches to human rights (UNFPA, 2004b). A World University Service initiative with female Palestinian refugees created new perceptions within the local community about what roles women could play. When viable opportunities for women in traditional activities like handicraft production dried up the NGO began to train women to be carpenters and electricians - for which there was high local demand. Sensitive consultations were held with local religious and community leaders, to pave the way for women to be allowed unaccompanied into stranger's houses (DFID,1999).
81. Cultural sensitive programming (UNFPA, 2004b) facilitates the creation of an environment in which bridges can be established between local cultural values and universally recognized human rights standards, including those pertaining to gender equality. Placing emphasis on a rights-based approach is particularly important in this context, so as to ensure that arguments of cultural relativism do not undermine commitments to the full implementation of international human rights standards, such as CEDAW. Adopting culturally sensitive development policies and practices that do not make positive or negative value judgements on any culture, ethnicity or religion can provide unique entry points and build a relationship of trust between Governments and donor agencies. Some UN agencies such as the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) have played a facilitating role, promoting for the first time, specific policies on population, reproduction health, family planning and education and the reproductive health in Iran (UNFPA, 2004a) and other countries.
82. Involving opinion leaders in gender transformatory processes as change agents can present opportunities for countering norms and practices that disadvantage women and help reconcile gender roles and responsibilities. In this regard, men have a critical role to play in fostering an enabling environment for women's participation in all arenas. Successful CSO strategies have included working with male traditional (community and religious) leaders to sensitize them on the importance of women's participation in decision making in their societies, communities and homes. Careful attention needs to be paid to ensuring that co-operating with traditional leaders to implement development strategies and programmes does not reinforce existing social patterns of power and domination.

4.5.2 Raising awareness and changing attitudes through the media

83. Diffusing and promoting positive images of equal relations between men and women and challenging gendered roles via the use of media are effective strategies. CSOs have targeted, organized and worked with traditional groups to create awareness of gender issues through drama, traditional songs and dances using local dialects to carry out messages of women's participation. [to be expanded]

4.5.3 Scaling up innovative community and household level strategies

84. Documenting innovative practices for wider learning and scaling up successful small-scale projects expand impacts to larger groups of population. Scaling up pilot and innovative projects at community level require that some level of replicability of the small-scale project and moreover, political will and available resources. Scaling up can assist in delivering cost-effective and locally relevant services that increase community responsiveness to gender issues. Examples of successful 'scaling up' HIV initiatives such as TASO in Uganda, illustrate that careful development of standardised approaches with sufficient flexibility for diversity is effective. However, scaling-up requires research to demonstrate impact, a national plan accompanied with adequate financing and staffing arrangements.

4.5.4 Working with men and boys

85. The involvement of men and boys is an issue that cuts across all areas and arenas of women's participation in development. Even though this issue has been raised in intergovernmental contexts in the last ten years (including in the BPFA and in the Agreed Conclusions adopted by the 48th session of the CSW), there are but few projects which concentrate on promoting gender equity by shaping masculinities, addressing male violence and encouraging greater involvement of men in parenting (WHO, 2002; Karlsson and Karkara, 2004).

86. Involving men and boys in the work for gender equality very often means addressing issues of masculinities and male perception of gender relations. In many cases, education promotes stereotyped conceptions of male and female attributes and roles, thus reinforcing existing power relations and promoting inequality. However, curricula and educational programmes can also be used as a means to break out of rigid models of masculinity and femininity and promote alternative options for the shaping of identities and relationships. Therefore, education also plays a crucial role when it comes to the promotion of non-violent adult masculinities, and of male commitment to gender equality.

87. The involvement of men and boys in promoting gender equality at the workplace is both necessary and demanding, since the workplace generally is a space of male privilege and many men might not be ready to lose the benefits their privilege gains them. In many cultures, stereotyped definitions of masculinities serve to sustain gender inequality with regard to work. While men dominate the sector of paid work, they only participate marginally in caring and domestic work. Women as well as men may suffer from this imbalance; men would have much to gain from a stronger involvement in caring and domestic work, since it would provide them with a better inclusion in family life and contact with their children.

88. Men also need to be positively and responsibly involved in sexual and reproductive health. To this end, it is necessary that to strive for egalitarian and consenting sexual relations and to promote responsible and caring role in relations to pregnancy, birth and child-rearing. Sexually respectful and responsible behavior is equally important when it comes to reducing the negative impact of STIs, including HIV/AIDS.

89. According to research, men themselves have started to realize that they might benefit from equal relations with women, as women's improved education and health will also improve collective and family well-being. In order to successfully engage men and boys in attitude and behaviour change, it may be fruitful to highlight benefits men would gain from such changes, as well as to better define their involvement in developing and implementing policies and programmes for gender equality. Wider policy interventions need to encourage sharing of parental responsibilities through adoption of parental leave entitlements for men and provision of childcare services for working parents.

5 Policy implications and considerations

5.1 Cross-cutting issues

90. The policy lessons learned from this brief review of approaches and strategies suggest that:
91. The participation of women in decision-making and policy-making in all economic, political and social processes that impact their lives, is critical.
92. Sustained involvement of women in decision-making processes need to be accompanied with measures such as: capacity building initiatives, accountability mechanisms and adequate resource allocation, to effect change from community to national levels and enhance women's participation in development.
93. Linking women's participation and equality to other broad policy motives such as poverty alleviation provides a diverse range of strategic entry points to institutionalise gender equality within operational mandates.
94. The connections between education, health and livelihood outcomes for women and the inter-relatedness and inter-dependency of the core elements and arenas of an enabling environment require inputs and organizational changes from a diverse range of development actors – Governments, international community, private sector and CSOs – working in partnership to create conditions that facilitate women's access, capabilities and agency.
95. The valuation and quantification of all aspects of women's work (formal, informal, subsistence, care and voluntary) can challenge negative perceptions of women's unrecognized and unpaid work.
96. The success of gender equality commitments will depend on a clear understanding of the diverse actors' roles and building their capacities and incentives to undertake this role. The success of gender equality commitments depends on the interactions of a complex set of conditions and factors, including the mobilizing influences of civil society (resources and accountability), the organization of the political and administrative system (procedures and degree of decentralization), the efforts to change the culture of education, health and work policy-makers and delivery agents and other actors; and the impact of programme interventions.

97. There is a need to improve and sustain gender-responsive organizational performance, through improved governance, effective accountability and monitoring systems, and incentives.
98. Adequate human and financial resources for gender-responsive policy and programming are required for all development organizations to effect the changes required to create an enabling environment for women's enhanced participation in development.
99. Behavioural and attitudinal changes of leaders, service providers, line managers and men as fathers and sex partners that address women's exclusion, inequality, discrimination and gender-intensified disadvantage, are required.

5.2 *International organizations and regional bodies*

100. This sub-section proposes some areas of focus for discussion.
101. Areas for consideration include:
102. Development of internationally or regionally-led qualitative indicators that better reflect progress in implementing policies to support women's participation and empowerment changes, to complement existing official statistics.
103. Continued and sustained strategic policy advocacy for women's interests at international levels and with Governments and the private sector.
104. Strengthened mandates and support for gender equality machineries (international and regional).

5.3 *Governments*

105. Measures for consideration include:
106. Sustained legal and political commitments to gender equality and their consistent application and implementation.
107. Legislative reforms to redress practices that infringe on internationally agreed rights relating to the areas of education, health and work.
108. Mobilisation of health, education and work policy makers, line managers and service providers for gender equality improvements, along the institutional chain.
109. Reviews of content of poverty reduction strategies for inclusion of gender issues in economic sectors and in social sectors, and relevant plans to remove potential institutional barriers for women's economic contribution and sharing of benefits.

110. Increased co-operation between central Government and local Government and other agencies that collect and analyze data.
111. Enhance existing and develop new partnerships with the private sector and CSOs.
112. Provision of enabling infrastructures for girls and women to access education, health facilities and the workplace.
113. Enhancements in the status of sectoral gender machineries and development of gender machineries at provincial and district levels where policy and implementation is devolved to decentralized bodies.

5.4 Civil society organizations

114. Issues for consideration include:
115. Continued use of human rights instruments and policy frameworks in advocacy strategies.
116. Engagement with cross-sector processes such as PRSPs and SWAPs to influence policy.
117. Development of shadow reporting of national gender plans.
118. Documentation of good practice and innovative programmes.
119. Continued formation of strategic alliances and partnerships with Governments and other development actors.
120. Development of more gender-equality awareness raising initiatives targeting men.

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Appendix 1: An enabling environment: Elements, challenges and approaches

Institutional levels and arenas	Institutional form/organization	Challenges	Areas of focus/Opportunities for enabling environment	Enabling Approaches and Strategies/instruments
Global (International level)	<p>International entities/organizations e.g. United Nations</p> <p>International and Regional Financial Institutions: E.g. World Bank/IMF African Development Bank</p> <p>International Trading bodies, e.g. World Trade Organisation</p> <p>Regional bodies; Governments acting in bilateral/multilateral capacities</p>	<p>Gender imbalance in decision-making positions</p> <p>No mechanism for IGOs to ratify international HR conventions/ coherence with the UN charter</p> <p>Influence national and regional level trade</p> <p>Influence State level social policy through conditionalities on loans</p>	<p>Human rights instruments, encouragement of ratification of conventions directly pertaining to gender issues</p> <p>Technical cooperation/Capacity building</p> <p>Monitoring and Accountability systems</p> <p>Policy development, analysis and research relating to gender and institutional change</p> <p>Adoption of gender sensitive plans, reforms and SWAPs</p> <p>Dialogue with States for State/international coherence of gender equality measures</p>	<p>Gender-sensitive standard-setting, e.g. through human rights instruments and policies</p> <p>Gender-sensitive budgeting</p> <p>Application of gender analysis</p> <p>Providing/disseminating research,</p> <p>Policy dialogue and advocacy to influence macro-social and economic environment</p> <p>UN/IFIs: Technical cooperation / other financial support</p> <p>IFIs/Multi/Bilateral: Gender-sensitive Foreign Direct Investment</p>
State (central and decentralized levels)	<p>Government (executive, central branches/departments)</p> <p>Line ministries (education, health, labour, etc.), administrative units and service providers</p> <p>Legislative/Parliaments</p> <p>Judiciary systems</p> <p>Gender and equality units/ NWMs</p> <p>Military</p> <p>Police</p>	<p>Coherence/incompatibility of national and customary law</p> <p>Centralised decision making</p> <p>Donor/loan conditions on social policy/resource allocation</p> <p>Reduced role in social protection/social spending</p> <p>Minimal consultation of CSOs/NGOs</p> <p>Lack of client perspective in public sector services/attitudes of civil servants viz women</p>	<p>Ratification of and compliance with conventions especially CEDAW and BPFA</p> <p>Political will for social change</p> <p>Policy development (social, economic, civil, political, cultural)</p> <p>Decentralisation</p> <p>Capacity building</p> <p>Resource allocation</p> <p>Infrastructure building</p> <p>Monitoring and Accountability systems</p>	<p>Implementation of policies and legal frameworks, including through domestic application of international /regional human rights standards pertaining to gender</p> <p>Leadership/political commitment/mobilisation of CSOs and gender equality</p> <p>Systematic consultation of gender equality units and dialogue among departments and ministries</p> <p>Gender-sensitive budgeting</p> <p>Training programmes and development of reference material guidelines</p> <p>NWMs at national and provincial levels in dialogue</p>
Private sector/CSO	<p>Multinationals (MNCs)</p> <p>Formal labour market/ Informal sector</p> <p>Financial corporations</p> <p>Farming enterprises</p> <p>Co-operatives, Small business/micro-enterprises</p> <p>CSOs/NGOs including service delivery and intermediary organizations</p>	<p>Deregulation</p> <p>Competition with MNCs, Global supply chains encourage longer working hours/cheap female labour</p> <p>MNCs not working under State regulations</p> <p>Conditions of work, earnings, lack of protection, etc.</p>	<p>Political will</p> <p>Policies, e.g. to ensure adherence to: Labour standards-Regulation of health and safety standards</p> <p>Adequate Infrastructure</p> <p>Policies in the interests of small businesses and micro-enterprises</p>	<p>Compliance with international labour and human rights standards applicable to corporations and other private sector organizations</p> <p>Monitoring and Accountability systems</p> <p>Educating employers/ employees on workers rights</p> <p>Employee access to training/invest in women's skills</p> <p>Small business/micro-enterprise development</p> <p>Women's organizing and women's participation in trade unions</p>

Institutional levels and arenas	Institutional form/organization	Challenges	Areas of focus/Opportunities for enabling environment	Enabling Approaches and Strategies/instruments
Socio-cultural (Community, household and family levels)	<p>Supra family groupings/ Extended families/lineage</p> <p>Village tribunals/ Neighbourhood net works/Political factions</p> <p>Community-based organizations</p>	<p>Cultural practices/gender equality goals conflict</p> <p>Discriminatory practices e.g. widow inheritance</p> <p>Inhibits women's participation by perpetuating social norms</p> <p>Gendered division of labour, gendered social spheres, son preference affects access to education, healthcare and work</p> <p>Lack of services/regulations that assist women to reconcile work/life responsibilities: day care centres, public transport, maternity/paternity leave; etc.</p>	<p>Right-based approaches in societal and cultural frameworks</p> <p>System of tasks and activities</p> <p>Local level education and health systems</p> <p>Local level trading networks</p> <p>Inter-household alliances</p> <p>Social services/infrastructure to reduce workload and increase well-being</p> <p>Access to information and communication</p>	<p>Reconciliation of responsibilities</p> <p>Female leadership ; Enhancing women's participation</p> <p>Challenging social norms.</p> <p>Strategies to co-opt men, religious and community leaders</p> <p>Participatory gender assessments in various contexts e.g. h and education</p> <p>Gender-awareness and sensitisation through training, education, drama, media</p> <p>Behavioural Changes Initiatives to development women's and agency to effect personal change</p>

