

MODULE 2

BASIC CONCEPTS OF GENDER

Session 6: Gender and Development

NOTES/ REFERENCES FOR POWERPOINT PRESENTATIONS

Excerpts from:

IPU Speech of Remedios Rikken

Operations Director, Center for Asia Pacific Women in Politics (CAPWIP)

..... gender policy-makers have to be aware that gender roles are changing and that this has implications for policy. For example, policies can either respond to gender stereotyping and traditional gender roles (e.g. paying benefits on the assumption that only men are heads of households) or attempt to change them (e.g. taking into account the barriers to women and girls participating in non-traditional training courses). To give an example, in the late 80s in the Philippines, all our men in construction work were siphoned off by demands for construction workers in the Middle East. So there was local demand for work along this line such as welding, electrical work, masonry, and carpentry and the pay was good. However, in the Philippines the gender issue here was: "Oh, women do not do that. Those are men's work." Since we wanted our women to respond to the demand and get better pay, we came out with a Strategic Gender programme. This was funded by ILO, through our Department of Labour and Employment (DOLE) and implemented by an attached agency called, National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC) - called "Women in Non-Traditional Trades" (WINT). The "gender" problems we had to face were: (1) No women wanted to enrol. (2) The trainers were men and they keep telling the women: "Why are you taking this training? You are a woman", and (3) employers did not want to employ them. In spite of these obstacles, we went ahead with the programme, since what we wanted to change were the obstacles themselves.

We even ran commercials on TV showing women enjoying doing “men’s work”. Well, the good news is those attitudes have change. Now after ten years, many of our women are working as welders, carpenters, masons, electricians and getting better pay for it. And they are in demand. So we call this move our respond to Strategic Gender needs and interest of women. It acknowledges the longer-term need to change gender roles so that women and men share more equally both the responsibility for domestic and reproductive work and the benefits of economic activity. This is what we mean by policy change and the impact on sex and gender in changing the roles of women as you change what they can do.

Women and Men - There has also been an evolution in the field of women in development. When women of the First World got together 30 or 40 years ago, they did not even know what they wanted. The first chapter of *The Feminine Mystique* by Betty Friedan, the book that exploded like a bomb in the ‘60s, is called "The Problem That Has No Name". Then women started naming their problems. From problems women discovered their issues, although at the beginning women’s issues were considered by the rest of the world as “flower issue or soft issue”. Until women claim that “All Issues are Women’s Issues”.

In the beginning, the question was, “How to integrate women into development?” Until women realized they were asking the wrong question. They realized that women have always been in development. Women are producers of development! Women are at the heart of development! But the problem is one of invisibility. We are invisible even to ourselves.

Women in Development (WID) previous efforts have sought to address women's rights and needs in special and separate development programmes. Then there was a shift to Gender and Development (GAD). The GAD approach seeks to integrate women's needs into the wider picture. GAD emphasizes the need to monitor the different impact of policies and programmes on women and men, girls and boys.

This shift in focus from women to gender recognizes that the status of women cannot be addressed as a separate issue: it can only be addressed by considering the status of both sexes. May I repeat the definition of status -status is defined as society's evaluation of a person's place in the social structure – including power, prestige and esteem accorded to that place. The status of women and men cannot be addressed as a separate issue.

Here, I would like to pay tribute to the efforts of ESCAP over the past five years to encourage countries to produce statistics on men and women. And I think that is one of the things we need to do: to ensure that our national statistics show the status of both women and men.

Gender as a form of social analysis, was introduced to the Philippines in 1986 by CIDA. CIDA invited the Harvard Team, authors of the Harvard framework, and asked them to introduce their framework to selected Filipino trainers of social transformation groups, to feminists, government and non-government trainers using the facilities of the Asian Institute of Management. I was one of the participants of that first training/workshop. The training was very well appreciated and we have been using the framework ever since using case studies from the Philippines.

At the same time, we discovered development planning. At the beginning we were not conscious of the connection between gender planning and gender budgeting. Our basic concern is to see to it that in the planning process of our National Economic Development Authority (NEDA), gender issues are given consideration in all the planning items. Getting involved in this activity made us realized that gender issues pervade the lives of women and men and have economic as well as having social implications.

Gender also shapes our opportunities, our access to resources and needs. Our First Congress of Women in Government Service (WINGS), the first complaint the participants voiced out was that women in government, our bureaucrats, were automatically disqualified for foreign scholarships if they have a child under two and a-half years old, but men do not face a similar disqualification. These

are some of the things we changed. We were successful in lowering the heights required for police women. In addition we are very careful in emphasizing the fact the women are already overworked because it is used against them, i.e. there is no need to give them project or involve them in activities when they are already over worked. In one case women spent two hours fetching water leaving very short time for productive activities. We made the women and the project advocates conscious of the women's time budget – either they transfer some of the household activities to husband or children or with their extra income the women may decide to buy the water. In short, let the women decide.

There is growing awareness around the world that policies and measures affect women and men in different ways. Therefore, policies and plans need to be designed accordingly. And that is why part of the objective of this seminar is to make us conscious of the need to design policies and plans accordingly.

Gender issues in government bodies. More broadly, why should governments be concerned about gender issues? One reason relates to equity. Many governments have a commitment to promote 1) equality among citizens, 2) to reduce systemic disadvantage, 3) to redistribute resources from the haves to the have nots. No government will tell you it will not do this.

A second reason relates to efficiency. Gender inequalities, apart from being unfair, are also costly, not only to women but also to men and children. The cost can be measured in lower economic efficiency, lower output, lower development of people's capacities and lower well-being. My sister is in the garment business, and when her women sewers absent themselves because their children are sick - their company cannot meet the deadline for shipment. In which case, they are forced to ship their finished goods by airfreight rather than by ship, thereby increasing the cost.

Different Roles and Gender Bias in Budgetary Resource Allocation. Differences in the roles of men and women which are built into the economic and social structures of a society, frequently

lead to unintentional gender bias in policies and programmes and their accompanying resource allocations. This can lead to social injustices and inefficiencies in the use of resources. When I talk to policy-makers, they ask, “can we do?” They admit are not even conscious of the problem. That is what we call unintentional gender bias, until we make them see the systemic dimension of the problem. This has nothing to do with bad intentions. They are not bad people – they do not do this intentionally, but unless they are aware of the system, then they are probably guilty of unintentional gender bias in defining policy and programmes.

When companies downsize, when governments have to budget more for debt servicing and must shrink the budget for other items, what are the agencies whose budget get cut? It is usually the social sector budget that they cut. Advocates of Peace usually point to the need to cut military budget instead. But after September eleventh, we are back to square one. That is why I want to pay tribute to the Prime Minister of New Zealand, who closed her country’s navy.

Government budgets and gender – the budget reflects the values of a country: 1) who it values; 2) whose work it values and 3) who it rewards; and 4) who and what and whose work it does not. Government budgets and policies are often assumed to affect everyone more or less equally, to serve the 'public interest' and the needs of the 'general person'. This is exactly the assumption that we are questioning.

What is a gender-sensitive budget? A gender –sensitive budget is about taking government’s gender commitments and translating them into budgetary commitment.

Women's budgets are fundamentally about mainstreaming gender issues; about ensuring that gender issues are integrated into all national policies, plans and programs rather than regarding women as a special “interest group”. We in the women’s movement used to lobby for funds in support of particular issues and interest of women. We talk about violence against women and the government throws us

two million for our program and we are quite happy, “Wow, we have a budget for violence against women”. What we realize now is that billions are being budgeted every year by our Government, and we never question the impact of this budget on men and women. This is what we would like to question now, not just be happy with the kind of budget it extends to us for our programmes and projects. The objective of a gender-sensitive budget is to inform debate about policy and the appropriate allocation of public expenditure and taxation.

Let us clarify terms like: 'gender-sensitive budgets', 'gender budgets', 'women's budgets', 'women's budget statements' - refer to a variety of processes and tools aimed at facilitating an assessment of the gendered impacts of Government budgets.

The term 'women's budget' gained widest use. This is because the initial focus has been on auditing government budgets for their impacts on women and girls. The term 'gender-sensitive budgets' is increasingly being adopted because these budget exercises have begun using gender as a category of analysis. 'Women's budgets' or 'gender-sensitive budgets' are not separate budgets for women, or for men. They are attempts to break down or disaggregate the government's main budget according to its impact on: women and men, and to different groups of women and men, recognizing society's underpinning gender relations.

Few government revenue raising activities or expenditures are designed on the basis of gender. Many countries have been replacing discriminatory measures with gender-neutral approaches. For example, mother's benefits have been replaced with child allowances paid to the person who is primarily responsible for the care of the child. Why? Maybe the child is being cared for by the man and not by the woman. Another example is that taxation rebates for dependent wives (sometimes referred to as 'married men's allowances') are being phased out or paid to a dependent spouse of either sex. However, the goal of removing discrimination or achieving 'gender-neutrality' should not be confused with the fact that budgetary policies can have significantly different impacts on women and men, and on different groups of women and men. Sometimes these differences can be justified to achieve certain policy goals that can

undermine social and economic objectives. However, ignoring the gendered impact of policy does not constitute gender-neutrality; rather, it describes 'gender-blindness'. We define 'gender-blindness' as a budget that appears to be a gender-neutral policy instrument where there is no particular mention of women but no particular mention of men either. Thus this appearance of gender-neutrality is more accurately described as gender-blindness.

National budget formulation usually ignores the different, socially determined roles, responsibilities and capabilities of women and men. These differences are generally structured in such a way as to leave women in an unequal position in relation to the men in their community with less economic, social and political power.

Good policy requires understanding the impact of policy and how it might be better designed to achieve outcomes which meet the needs of women and men, girls and boys, as well as different groups of women, men and children. Disaggregated data is needed to demystify the apparent neutrality and, more specifically, the gender neutrality of the budget. It will expose how tariffs, industrial relations, taxation, education, employment or industrial policy impact on women due to their different location in the family and in the economy. Who gets the jobs? What is the nature of the jobs that are created? Who gets the subsidies? Who gets the housing? What is the nature of the homes and communities which are being developed? What are the traditional policy assumptions in the budgets, e.g. are women dependent breadwinners? The fact of the matter is that the same rules and procedures can often reinforce existing inequalities and work against the interests of women.

Excerpt from:

World Bank Summary Report on Engendering Development

A Three-Part Strategy to Promote Gender Equality

THAT GENDER INEQUALITIES EXACT HIGH HUMAN COSTS AND constrain countries' development prospects provides a compelling case for public and private action to promote gender equality. The state has a critical role in improving the well-being of

both women and men and, by doing, in capturing the substantial social benefits associated with improving the absolute and relative status of women and girls. Public action is particularly important since social and legal institutions that perpetuate gender inequalities are extremely difficult, if not impossible, for individuals alone to change. Market failures, too, mean insufficient information about women's productivity in the labor market (because they spend a greater part of their work hours in nonmarket activities or because labor markets are absent or undeveloped) and are clear obstacles.

Improving the effectiveness of societal institutions and achieving economic growth are widely accepted as key elements of any long-term development strategy. But successful implementation of this strategy does not guarantee gender equality. To promote gender equality, policies for institutional change and economic development need to consider and address prevailing gender inequalities in rights, resources, and voice. And active policies and programs are needed to redress long-standing disparities between women and men. The evidence argues for a three-part strategy for promoting gender equality.

1. Reforming Institutions to Establish Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men

Because social, legal, and economic institutions shape women's and men's access to resources, their opportunities, and their relative power, a critical element in promoting gender equality is establishing a level institutional "playing field" for women and men.

Ensuring equality in basic rights. Gender equality in rights is an important development goal in its own right. Legal, social, and economic rights provide an enabling environment in which women and men can participate productively in society, attain a basic quality of life, and take advantage of the new opportunities that development affords. Greater equality in rights is also consistently and systematically associated with greater gender equality in education, health, and political participation---effects independent of income.

If countries in South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East and North Africa were to increase gender equality in rights to the level of the "most equal" country in their respective regions, the ratio of women to men in parliament would more than double in the Middle East and North Africa and would increase by more than 60 percent in the other two regions. Although increasing gender equality in rights would have more modest impacts (at the margin) on gender equality in education, significant rights improvements could go far toward achieving parity between boys and girls in school enrollments. Only in South Asia would sizable gender gaps in enrollments be expected to persist in the face of large improvements on rights. There is thus a critical role for legal reforms that accord equal rights and equal protection to women and men.

But statutory reform is seldom enough. In many developing countries, the capacity to implement legal reforms remains weak, and it is complicated by multiple---and inconsistent---legal systems. For example, civil law in Uganda provides for equal rights in divorce---but customary law prevails in the division of conjugal property, and divorced women are unable to retain access to land. In cases of gender-based violence, heavy evidentiary requirements and other procedural barriers (as well as the attitudes of enforcers) stand in the way of justice in a number of countries. In such contexts efforts to strengthen the enforcement capabilities of the country's judicial and administrative agencies are critical to achieving greater gender equality in basic rights. In almost all cases political leadership is decisive.

Establishing incentives that discourage discrimination by gender. The structure of economic institutions also affects gender equality in important ways. Markets embody a powerful set of incentives that influence decisions and actions for work, saving, investment, and consumption. The relative wages of men and women, the returns to productive assets, and the prices of goods and services are all largely determined by the structure of markets. Evidence from Mexico and the United States suggests that firms operating in competitive environments discriminate less against women in hiring and pay practices than do firms with significant market power in protected environments. Similarly, in both urban and

rural China, women face greater wage discrimination in jobs that have been administratively assigned to them than in jobs obtained through competitive channels.

More broadly, policies and investments that deepen markets and redress gender disparities in access to information---combined with sanctions against those who discriminate---all help strengthen incentives for gender equality in the labor market. In China and Vietnam, for example, the deepening of rural labor markets has brought with it substantial increases in demand for female labor in nonfarm enterprises, opening up new employment and earnings opportunities for women.

Designing service delivery to facilitate equal access. The design of program delivery---such as school systems, health care centers, financial organizations, and agricultural extension programs--can facilitate or inhibit equitable access for females and males. Moreover, involving the community in the design of service and delivery will help address specific demands within local contexts. This is often with positive effects on female access and use.

In Bangladesh, Kenya, and Pakistan, for example, girls' enrollments are more sensitive than boys' to school quality and to specific delivery attributes---such as the presence of female teachers, sex-segregated schools and facilities, and safe transport to and from the school. Addressing such considerations can significantly increase parents' demand for educating daughters. In parts of West Africa "mobile bankers" (known as *Susu* collectors in Ghana) bring financial services to local markets, workplaces, and homes, eliminating the need for women to travel long distances to save or borrow. And in Bangladesh, group-based lending programs use support groups and peer pressure as a substitute for traditional bank collateral to ensure repayment. Both designs have increased women's access to financial resources.

2. Fostering Economic Development to Strengthen Incentives for More Equal Resources and Participation

In most settings economic development is associated with improved circumstances for women and girls and with greater gender equality---through several channels:

*Households decide about work, consumption, and investments partly in response to price levels and other market signals. Shifts in these signals tend to bring about reallocation of resources. When economic development improves the availability and quality of public services, such as health clinics and schools, it lowers the cost of investments in human capital for the household. If costs decline more for females than for males, or if investments in females are more sensitive to price changes than investments in males as evidence suggests, females benefit more.

*When economic development raises incomes and reduces poverty, gender inequalities often narrow. Since low-income families are forced to ration spending on education, health care, and nutrition, with women and girls bearing much of the costs, as household income rise, gender disparities in human capital tend to fall.

As with basic rights, higher incomes generally translate into greater gender equality in resources, whether in health or in education. In education, simulations suggest that the largest improvements from income growth are likely to occur in the poorest regions: South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, the effects of income appear particularly strong at the secondary level. But simulation analysis also suggests that very large increases in income--say, to average OECD levels---would be required to reach equality or near-equality in secondary enrollments in these regions. Such increases are not realistic in secondary enrollments in these regions. Such increases are not realistic in the short or medium term. Very large increases in income also would be necessary to induce noticeable gains in gender equality in parliamentary representation.

*When economic development expands work opportunities, it raises the expected rate of return to human capital, strengthening the incentives for families to invest in girls' health and education and for women to participate in the labor force. By changing incentives for work, economic development affects gender equality.

*Economic development leads to the emergence of labor markets where none has existed. In so doing, it not only creates or strengthens market signals about the returns to labor but also eliminates some economic inefficiency. For example, where active labor markets exist, hired labor provides a substitute for female family labor, whether on farms or in household maintenance and care activities. This allows households to use time more efficiently, perhaps reducing women's workload. Where labor markets are absent or do not function well, such substitution is not possible.

*Economic growth is typically accompanied by an expansion of investments in infrastructure---for sage water, roads, transport, and fuel. This too tends to reduce the time women and girls need to dedicate to household maintenance and care activities. In Burkina Faso, Uganda, and Zambia, for example, women and girls could save hundreds of hours a year if walking times to sources of fuel and potable water were reduced to 30 minutes or less. The development of economic infrastructure significantly reduces females' time on domestic chores, with potential benefits for their health, their participation in income-generating activities, and for girls, in schooling.

Although economic development tends to promote gender equality, its impact is neither sufficient nor immediate. Nor is it automatic. The impact of economic development on gender equality depends in large part on the state of rights, access to and control of productive resources (such as land and credit), and political voice. And social policies that combat labor market discrimination or support child care supplement what economic development alone cannot achieve in reducing gender inequalities---as experience shows in the transition economies, the high-growth countries in East Asia, and the adjusting countries in Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa. Social protection policies that recognize gender differences in market-based and household work and in risks are also important to protect women (and men) from economic shocks or prolonged economic downturns.

Recent debates on gender and development have tended to pit growth-oriented approaches to development against rights-based or institutional approaches. But the evidence suggests that both

economic development and institutional change are key elements of a long-term strategy to promote gender equality.

For example, where per capita income and gender equality in rights are low, increasing either equality in rights or incomes would raise gender equality in education levels. Improving both rights and incomes would yield even greater gain.

Institutional reforms that strengthen basic rights and policies that foster economic development can be mutually reinforcing. In Sub-Saharan Africa establishing land rights for women raises productivity on female-managed plots---increasing women's as well as their families' incomes. Similarly, providing women greater access to savings institutions and credit enhances their economic status and security and helps improve household welfare. In Bangladesh, as women's abilities to borrow capital in microcredit programs increase, their status and bargaining power in the family rise, as does household consumption (income).

3. Taking Active Policy Measures to Redress Persistent Gender Disparities in Command over Resources and Political Voice

Because the combined effects of institutional reform and economic development usually take time to be realized, active measures are often warranted in the short to medium term. Active measures are concrete steps aimed at redressing specific forms of gender discrimination and exclusion---whether in the home, the community, or the workplace. Such measures accelerate progress in redressing persistent gender inequalities---and they are useful in targeting specific subpopulations, such as the poor, for whom gender disparities can be particularly acute.

Since the nature and extent of gender inequality differ considerable across countries, the interventions that will be most relevant will also differ across contexts. Decision on whether the state should intervene and which active measures should be adopted must be based on an understanding and analysis of local realities. Since active measures have real resource costs, policymakers will need to be selective about which measures to undertake, focusing strategically on where government intervention has the largest social benefits. This implies focusing on areas where market failure and

spillover effects are likely to be greatest. This also implies focusing on areas that the private sector is unlikely to take on independently--- or to take on well.

Beyond assessing whether particular interventions are warranted, choices need to be made on how precisely the state should intervene. For example, is direct public provision of goods or services required? Or can similar objectives be fulfilled more cost effectively through greater availability of information, regulatory and enforcement efforts, or through public subsidies to private providers?

The report focuses on four key areas of active policy.

Promoting gender equality in access to productive resources and earning capacity. Efforts to promote greater equality of access to and control of productive resources---whether education, financial resources, or land---and to ensure fair and equal access to employment opportunities can advance gender equality as well as enhance economic efficiency. Policymakers have a number of potential entry points for intervention:

*Reducing the costs of schooling, addressing parental concerns about female modesty or safety, and increasing returns to families from investing in female schooling through improvements in school quality can overcome social and economic barriers to girls' education, even in highly gender-stratified societies.

*Designing financial institutions in ways that account for gender-specific constraints---whether by using peer pressure to substitute for traditional forms of collateral, by simplifying banking procedures, or by delivering financial services closer to homes, markets, and workplaces---can increase female access to savings and credit.

*Land reforms that provide for joint titling of husband and wife or that enable women to hold independent land titles can increase women's control of land where statutory law predominates. Where customary and statutory laws operate side-by-side, their interactions must be taken into account if efforts to strengthen female access to land are to succeed.

*In countries with relatively developed labor markets and law enforcement capabilities, affirmative action employment programs can increase female access to formal sector jobs. Where there is serious discrimination in hiring and promotions, affirmative action can also raise productivity in firms and in the economy.

Reducing the personal costs to women of their household roles. In almost all societies gender norms dictate that women and girls take primary responsibility for household maintenance and care activities. In developing countries household responsibilities often require long hours of work that limit girls' ability to continue their education and constrain mother's capacity to participate in market work. Several types of interventions can reduce the personal costs of household roles to women and girls.

*Interventions that increase education, wages, and labor market participation---coupled with adequate access to basic reproductive health and family planning services---all strengthen women's role in making reproductive decisions. But since women and men may have different preferences for family size and contraceptive use, family planning services need to target men as well as women.

*Providing public support for out-of-home child care services can reduce the costs of care, enabling greater economic participation for women and more schooling for adolescent girls. In Kenya reducing the price of child care significantly increases mother's wage employment and older girl's schooling.

*Protective labor market legislation is often a two-edged sword, generating costs as well as benefits for women working in the formal sector. For example, when firms bear all the costs of maternity leave, they may bias hiring decisions against women. When women bear all the costs, the incentives for women to continue work are weakened. Measures that help spread the costs of maternity and other care provisions across employers, workers, and even the state can raise the benefits relative to costs for women and their families.

*Selected investments in water, fuel, transport, and other time-saving infrastructure can hasten reductions in women's and girls'

domestic workloads, particularly in poor, rural areas---freeing girls to attend school and women to undertake other activities, whether related to income generation or community affairs.

Providing gender-appropriate social protection. Women and men face gender-specific risks during economic shocks or policy reforms. Women command fewer resources with which to cushion shocks---while men, as the traditional breadwinners, are particularly vulnerable to stress associated with large changes in, or uncertain, employment. Taking gender differences in risk and vulnerability into account in designing social protection is particularly important because women and men in the same household may not pool risk.

*To protect both women and men social protection programs need to account for factors that can result in gender bias in participation and benefits. For example, safety net programs have frequently (if inadvertently) excluded women by failing to account for gender differences in labor supply behavior, information access, or the types of work that women and men consider appropriate.

*Old-age security programs that do not account for gender differences in employment, earnings, and life expectancy risk leaving women---especially widows---particularly vulnerable to poverty in old age. A recent study of Chile shows that women's pension benefits, relative to men's, are highly sensitive to the specific design features of the old-age security system.

Strengthening women's political voice and participation. Institutional changes that establish gender equality in basic rights are the cornerstone of greater equality in political participation and voice. Similarly, policies and programs that promote equality in education and access to information (including legal literacy) can strengthen women's agency and thus their capacity to participate in the political arena. But like the impact of economic development more broadly, these approaches take time to reap observable benefits.

Recent experience from more than 30 countries, including Argentina, Ecuador, India, the Philippines, and Uganda, suggests that political "reservation" can be effective in increasing political participation and representation in local and national assemblies in a

relatively short period of time. "Reservation" legislation takes different forms in different countries, but generally stipulates that a minimum number (or proportion) of political parties' candidates or of electoral seats in national or local assemblies be reserved for women.

Challenges for the Future---the Way Forward

THE EVIDENCE PRESENTED IN THIS REPORT MAKES a compelling case for the state to intervene in promoting gender equality. Indeed, the state civil society groups, and the international community all have critical roles to play in fighting gender discrimination, thus enabling societies to reap considerable benefits. But there remain several important challenges.

Sharpening Policy through Gender Analysis

How to deepen understanding of the links between gender equality and development and how to reflect these links in policy decisions are key challenges for the present and the future. This report brings together extensive evidence on these links, but much remain to be discovered and understood, implying the need for collecting more and better data and for analyses disaggregated by gender. Two areas for more analysis:

*What are the gender impacts of specific macro and sectoral policies? And how do public expenditure choices promote or inhibit gender equality and economic efficiency? Policymakers face numerous competing demands for public resources and attention, with tight fiscal and administrative budgets. Under these constraints, information and analysis help governments achieve the maximum social gains from the gender -related interventions they choose. Moreover, because the nature of gender disparities differ among societies, effective policy needs to be grounded in analysis that integrates local and national gender concerns.

*Increasingly, it will be important to look beyond how policies and programs affect our usual development markers (such as education, health, or labor force indicators) to how specific interventions improve female autonomy, leadership, and voice---both within the household and in society more broadly. Understanding

which interventions are most effective in achieving this requires more gender analysis.

Addressing Emerging Issues

A related challenge is for policymakers to be forward-looking in the face of rapidly changing circumstances. Indeed, many emerging issues require greater attention by policymakers and policy researchers from a gender perspective, including globalization, decentralization in government, the spread of HIV/AIDS, and the aging of the world's population. For example:

*With birth rates declining and people living longer, the world's population is aging. Among other things, this will result in a substantial rise in the number of widows worldwide during the 21st century. What does this demographic shift imply for social protection, health, and other areas of public policy? Understanding the policy implications of this demographic trend will be an important challenge for research in the coming years.

*Similarly, globalization and new information technologies are transforming the way that production is organized and information shared around the world. Will these changes accelerate progress toward gender equality or widen gender gaps in economic opportunity. Better understanding of the opportunities and risks associated with these forces represents another challenge for researchers and policymakers.

Broadening Partnerships

A third critical challenge is for policymakers---in their efforts to promote gender equality---to broaden their partnerships with civil society groups, donors, and others in the international community. While policymakers have an important leadership role to play, efforts to combat gender inequalities can be enhanced by active collaboration with civic and international organizations. The donor community can contribute by supporting the collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data, by incorporating gender analysis into their dialogues with national policymakers, and by sharing "good practice" based on international experience. Similarly, civic groups and local

researchers can contribute critical information and analysis based on local knowledge that will enrich the government's policy dialogue.

Fostering broader participation and transparency in policymaking has the potential for tremendous payoffs, both for gender equality and for national development as a whole. Opening public deliberations and policymaking to greater participation by women's groups can directly empower women---and can enhance the impact of policies and programs. The research findings on the links between greater female participation in public life and lower levels of corruption are intriguing. They suggest that facilitating broader exchanges of ideas and greater transparency in policymaking---and enabling greater female participation in the public domain---can strengthen a country's governance and the effectiveness of its development policy. The world cannot forgo salutary effects as remarkable as this.