



Localising the gender equality goal through urban planning tools in South Asia

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Cover image: Residents of Sujat Nagar slum in Dhaka, Bangladesh on October 11, 2016. Photo: © Dominic Chavez/World Bank

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Headline findings

- South Asian countries face considerable challenges if they are to achieve Sustainable Development Goal 5 (gender equality), despite having made progress during the Millennium Development Goals.
- Gender equality is mostly enshrined at the constitutional level but generally not given priority in downstream policies and plans at urban or national levels.
- Multi-pronged and multi-level action is a priority in the first 1000 days of SDG implementation to make cities inclusive for all genders, and especially for women.
- Policies and plans need to be revised, with supporting financial instruments, institutionalised mechanisms for implementation, monitoring and evaluation and sustainable methods of local data collection and indicators that are interoperable with macro-level mechanisms.
- Building capacity in data and skills at all levels is critical to empower stakeholders to take informed decisions, along with suitable organisational protocols, processes and technology deployment.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank	MSDP	Mymensingh Strategic Development Planning
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women	NGO	Non-governmental organisation
CSO	Civil society organisation	PMAY	Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojna
CSTEP	Center for Study of Science, Technology and Policy	RAY	Rajiv Awas Yojna
DSP	Dhaka Structure Plan	SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
GESI	Gender Equity and Social Inclusion	SCM	Smart City Mission
GHMC	Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation	SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
GII	Gender Inequality Index	SLSCDP	Sri Lanka Strategic Cities Development Project
GRB	Gender-Responsive Budgeting	ULB	Urban Local Body
HDI	Human Development Index	UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
IHDI	Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
LNOB	Leave No One Behind	WASH	Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene
MDG	Millennium Development Goal	WHO	World Health Organization
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation		

Abstract

The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), proposed by the United Nations after a series of consultations with stakeholders across the globe, have set new targets for countries to achieve by 2030. The first three years, or the first 1,000 days of SDG implementation (since January 2016 when they came into effect), are critical to lay strong foundations on which countries will further progress towards the 17 SDGs and their respective targets. This study focuses on the gender equality agenda of SDG 5, which will strengthen the ‘social’ pillar of the SDGs. Selected targets of SDG 5 have been studied at the intersection of two other goals, SDGs 6 and 11. These goals aim, respectively, to enhance access to water and sanitation and build inclusive cities both being important aspects of urban planning and critical enablers for achieving gender equality in urban areas. The scope of this study is limited to urban settlements in South Asia, specifically in four countries: India, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka.

Considerable challenges exist if these four countries are to achieve gender equality in all spheres, despite commendable progress in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The findings of this study reveal that gender is generally not considered an important factor in planning for urban spaces and infrastructure provision. The existing urban planning policies, legislation, plans,

and practices on the ground show that gender and urban planning exist as independent practice domains. There are successful examples of gender mainstreaming, but they are mostly sporadic, and yet to be scaled up through mainstream urban planning protocols.

The priority actions suggested in this paper for the first 1,000 days of SDG 5 implementation are multi-pronged and multi-level in nature. Policies, legal and regulatory instruments, plans, programmes, and financial instruments can be the levers of initiating change on the ground if aligned suitably to respond to different gender needs. On the other hand, organisational capacity in terms of skills, awareness, human resources and technology is a critical enabler for initiating, implementing and sustaining interventions. The priority actions are proposed to make urban planning systems gender-responsive under the larger umbrella of ‘inclusive cities’ and to address the agenda of ‘leave no one behind’ (LNOB). The paper intends to contribute to the wider discourse on women’s right to the city’s economic opportunities and social and cultural resources, as well as the right to representation, and how these can form the basis for attaining the targets under SDGs 5, 6, and 11. This paper also highlights the need for a coordinated approach to SDG implementation by demonstrating the case of gender equality and urban planning.

1. Introduction

The 17 SDGs adopted by the UN General Assembly put forward a plan of action for ‘five Ps’: people, planet, prosperity, peace, and partnership (UN General Assembly, 2016b). The UN has clearly emphasised that it does not intend to suggest any specific implementation mechanism for the SDGs and that the onus rests on national governments. Implementation will nevertheless be supported by an accountable yet pragmatic follow-up and review framework by the High-Level Political Forum that enshrines the resolve to ‘leave no one behind’ (UN General Assembly, 2016a). This calls for identifying an agenda for the first 1,000 days that can set a strong footing for early action at global, regional, and national levels (Lucci and Lally, 2016). The aim is to facilitate the robust implementation of the SDGs while ensuring that no one is left behind, with adequate attention paid to the unfinished business of the MDGs.

Each of the 17 SDGs are critical for achieving overall sustainability in all spheres and, together, they seek to balance the three pillars of sustainable development: economic, social, and environmental. To that effect, the goals are ‘integrated and indivisible’ (UN General Assembly, 2016b). Moreover, a direct relationship can be drawn between goals such as gender equality (SDG 5), the main focus of this paper, with the goal of inclusive cities (SDG 11) and that of universal access to water and sanitation (SDG 6). The implementation mechanisms need to account for the interconnected and cross-cutting nature of the SDGs.

The Outcome Document on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development stressed the need for embedding the SDGs at multiple political levels, especially in national and provincial policies, for facilitating localised

implementation (UN General Assembly, 2016b). In addition, the need for promoting policy coherence, consistency and coordination in the Asia Pacific region has been highlighted in the Regional Roadmap for implementing the 2030 Agenda (Economic and Social Council, 2016). Thus, there is a need for intensified efforts to channel dialogue towards coordinating actions at different government levels.

1.1 Gender, cities, and urban planning¹

The global-level goal of gender equality had several important milestones preceding the SDGs (see Figure 1). Gender equality has an instrumental value for the long-term growth prospects of countries. However, this can be hindered by social institutions and family codes limiting women’s rights, the limited economic role of women in paid work, and limited access to resources such as education and health services (Jütting et al., 2006). In urban areas, challenges to gender equality manifest themselves in various forms such as persistent gender bias in urban economies (e.g. the work participation rate and the wage gap), inadequate infrastructure, violence against women in public spaces and inadequate representation. These in turn impact women’s participation in the labour force and limit their development capacities (Chant, 2013; UN-Habitat, 2012; UN WOMEN, 2015).

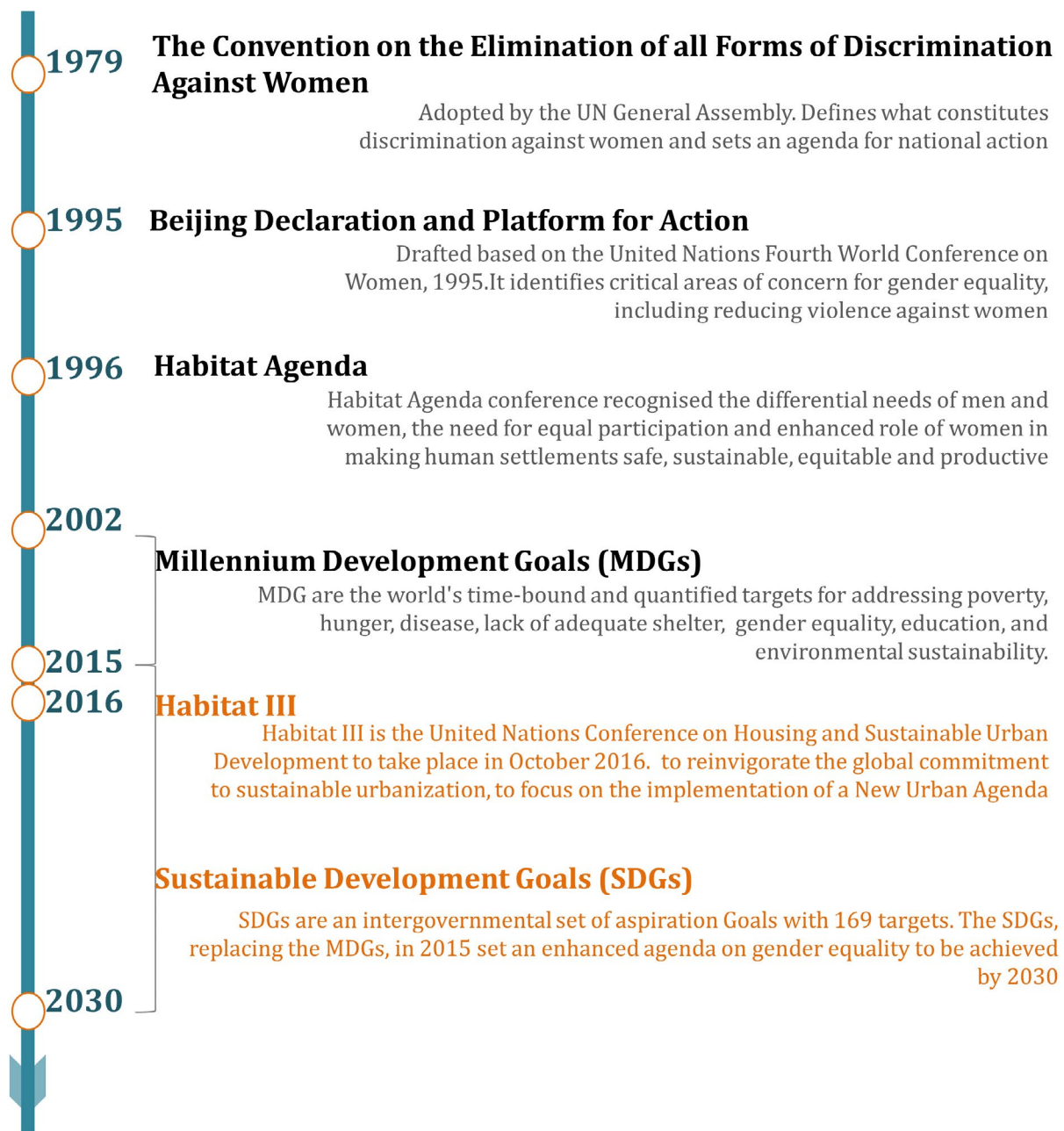
The conceptual framework for analysis of gender equality with respect to cities can be drawn from the ‘inclusive city’ concept,² specifically for women, since they have been historically marginalised across the globe and in South Asia. Here it is important to mention the ‘Right to the City’ approach that treats cities as urban commons and includes

Urban planning plays an important role in the provisioning of infrastructure; reducing violence; and creating opportunities for participation, decision-making, and, thus, empowerment. These are also essential components of the targets under SDG 5, which seeks to ‘achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls’ (Secretary-General, UN, 2014).

1 The Planning School at McGill University defines Urban Planning as follows: ‘urban planning can be described as a technical and political process concerned with the welfare of people, control of the use of land, design of the urban environment including transportation and communication networks, and protection and enhancement of the natural environment’. Urban Planning, in this paper, has been used to mean planning exercises adopted by state authorities for planning and management of an urban area, within their legal and regulatory frameworks. In the context of the study countries, these are primarily spatial planning exercises providing for land-use and physical infrastructure and amenities in a city. Such exercises are generally carried out by the means of various urban planning tools such as regional plans, perspective plans, vision plans, development plans, master plans, etc. The nomenclature and scope for each of these tools are specified by the respective town planning acts and policies.

2 The Inclusive City concept has three main dimensions, spatial inclusion, social inclusion and economic inclusion (World Bank, 2015).

Figure 1: Important global milestones in gender equality and women empowerment



Source: CSTEP Analysis

The premise for achieving gender equality through urban planning is that women and men have different needs (such as safety, ergonomics, activity patterns) and that a lack of or inadequate access to urban infrastructure and services has a disproportionate impact on women especially in urban poor settlements (Beall, 1996; Commonwealth Secretariat, 2009; UN-Habitat, 2013; Tacoli, 2012). This constitutes a major foundation of the arguments presented in this paper.

Having to walk long distances for water the time women have available for other activities. Also, the failure to consider gender needs often renders sanitation facilities unsuitable for use by women, thus restricting their movement in cities. One in three women worldwide risk shame, disease, harassment, and even attack because they do not have access to safe sanitation facilities (WSSCC/ WaterAid/Unilever, 2013).

three dimensions: the right to economic opportunities; the right to social, cultural, environmental resources; and political rights (UN-Habitat, 2016).³ In reality, the ‘traditional aspects of urban planning have disadvantaged women’ (UN-Habitat, 2013). The impact of inadequate access to urban services such as water, sanitation, housing, energy and transport manifests in different forms for women such as time poverty, unpaid care work, lack of access to opportunities, loss of social reputation, and threat to safety and security (Tacoli, 2012; UN-Habitat, 2013). This must be recognised in efforts to create conditions for equal opportunities for women vis-à-vis men.

1.2 The South Asian context and the LNOB agenda

Countries in South Asia are urbanising fast, with women constituting roughly half of the total urban population in most of the South Asian countries (see Figure 2). The present share of urban population in South Asia is 31.4%, which is estimated to grow to 52.4% by 2050 (ADB and Australian Aid, 2013).

Multiple challenges to gender equality exist in South Asia and its cities, such as the following:

- Violence in public spaces is a key challenge that women face in urban areas (Bhuyen, 2006; Solottaroff and Pande, 2014). This is a manifestation of poor infrastructure, such as a lack of safe and reliable public transport and roads, public spaces with street lights, safe sanitation, etc. (UN-Habitat, 2013). At the same time, a lack of safety manifests in constrained access to resources and opportunities. For example, women tend to consider only selective opportunities which pose less of a threat to safety while commuting to their workplaces.
- Less access to paid work and safe movement in urban areas impacts on women’s empowerment. Mobility

provides a vital link between shelter and livelihoods, especially for the urban poor (Rathi et al., 2013). Both supply-side and demand-side constraints, including access to basic infrastructure services and mobility, lead to a low rate of female participation at work (IANWGE, n.d.; Tacoli, 2013).

- Inadequate representation in formal governance structures limits women’s engagement in urban governance and politics (Chant, 2013).
- Inadequate land and housing rights negate women’s access to decision-making and equal participation (Rakodi, 2014).

Women living in slums are marginalised most of all (UN-Habitat, 2012b; Confederation of Indian Industry, n.d.).

1.3 About this paper

The focus of this paper is how SDG 5, which seeks to ‘achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls’ intersects with the SDGs aiming to create inclusive cities (SDG 11) and ensure access to water and sanitation for all (SDG 6). The paper discusses the challenges faced by South Asian countries in achieving gender equality targets through urban planning. It also suggests a set of priority action points at the national as well as regional and global levels that would be critical in the first 1,000 days of SDG implementation in South Asia.

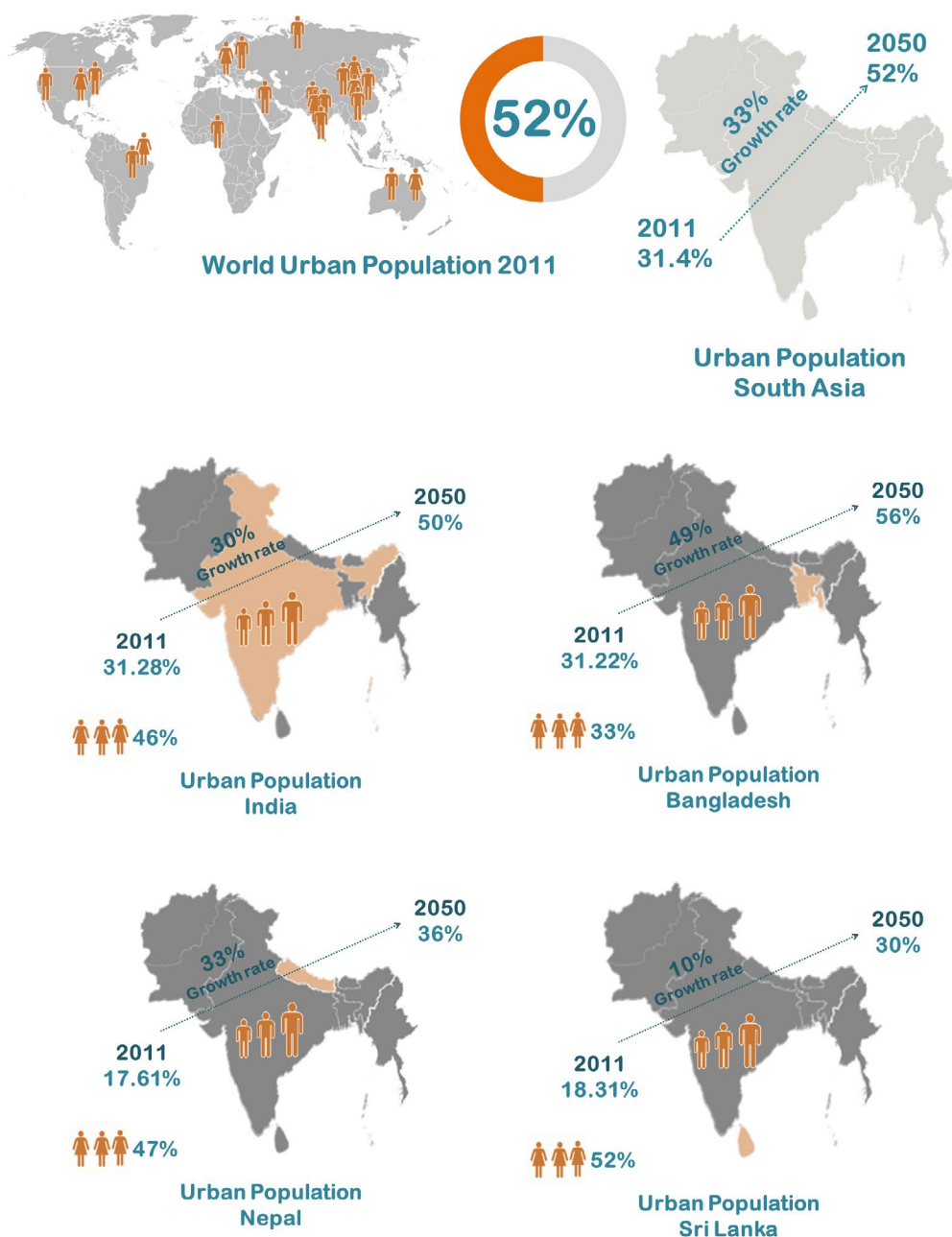
The paper looks at four countries in South Asia: namely, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Nepal.

The next chapter reviews the status of some SDG 5 targets, as well as the corresponding MDGs. Chapter 3 elaborates the design of the research. The findings of the study are discussed in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 reflects on the relevance of the study findings with reference to the LNOB agenda. Chapter 6 recommends a set of priority actions for the first 1,000 days of SDG 5 implementation in the study countries. Chapter 7 concludes the paper.

The principal assumption is that urban sector plans and policies can act as important instruments to embed the SDGs in national and provincial plans and policies. In a way, these are important levers and process drivers that can have a catalytic effect on mainstreaming best practices for creating inclusive cities for all genders, with a specific focus on the urban poor. In that context, this paper looks into the status of urban planning tools in South Asian countries to assess their preparedness to localise SDG 5 implementation.

3 Many researchers have put the safety of women in cities as central to the relationship between women and the city, and thus the key aspect to be addressed in the inclusive city goal from a gender lens. Safety in urban spaces, or a lack of it, is a manifestation of a failure to take gender into account in the production of urban spaces, notwithstanding the deep sociocultural aspects that are associated with violence against women in general. Again, a lack of safety in urban spaces in turn manifests into a lack of access to the basic rights (‘Commission on the Status of Women,’ n.d.). This paper focuses on the spatial inclusion aspect for women in cities through creation of supportive urban spaces and provision of infrastructure, services, and, thereby, fostering social and economic inclusion.

Figure 2: Present and projected urban population and share of women in urban areas in four South Asian countries in 2011



Source: CSTEP Analysis based on data from World Bank and United Nations

‘Realising gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls will make a crucial contribution to progress across all the goals and targets. The achievement of full human potential and of sustainable development is not possible if one half of humanity continues to be denied its full human rights and opportunities... The systematic mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the implementation of the agenda is crucial’ (UN General Assembly, 2016b).

2. Current progress

SDG 5 recognises women’s equality and empowerment as goals in their own right as well as part of the solution to end poverty and inequality (ICSU, 2015; Sen, 2015). It is wider in scope than the MDGs, specifically MDG 3, which committed to ‘promote gender equality and empower women’, with a single target of achieving gender parity in education.⁴

Figure 3 overleaf illustrates SDG 5’s relationship with urban planning interventions and with SDGs 6 and 11. It indicates that availability and access to infrastructure and services, as well as design of urban spaces, has an impact on various aspects of gender equality under SDG 5. It also suggests conditions such as participation and entitlement that determine access, availability, and design. This understanding of the relationship between SDGs 5, 6, and 11 sets the underlying assumptions for the analysis presented in rest of the paper.

In this chapter, we present a rapid status assessment of the relevant targets under SDG 5 (targets 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4) in our selected four study countries to understand the extent of the challenge posed ahead of SDG implementation. The status of each SDG 5 target is followed by the status of the corresponding MDG indicator, if any.⁵ This is followed by a brief status update of relevant targets under SDG 6 (target 6.1 and 6.2) and SDG 11 (target 11.1 and 11.2). Wherever possible, the analysis focuses on the urban sector, subject to the availability of data (otherwise, the national-level situation is presented). Both direct indicators and anecdotal evidence are used.

2.1 The status of the SDG targets and the unfinished business of the MDGs

SDG 5/Target 5.1 – End all forms of discrimination against women and girls everywhere

Status indicator: whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex in urban planning practices

At a constitutional level, women across the four study countries are guaranteed equality. South Asian countries that are signatories to the Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) have committed to the upliftment of women. However, a review of the status of legal tools⁶ indicates that none of the countries have comprehensive legally binding frameworks for including gender in urban planning.⁷ The Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) guidelines of 2013 in Nepal constitute a forward-looking initiative to mainstream gender into the activities of various departments, including the Ministry of Urban Development. Among the other countries, India (the Urban and Regional Development Plan Formulation and Implementation Guidelines) and Sri Lanka (Section 345 of the Penal Code recognises sexual harassment in public transport) have some smaller initiatives.

SDG 5/Target 5.2 – Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public sphere

Status indicator: rate of violence against women in urban public spaces

Violence against women in general is one of the most visible social issues in this region (Farouk, 2005; UNDP, 2015). Women experience sexual harassment and violence in public spaces, from unwanted sexual remarks and touching to rape and femicide. It happens on streets, in public transportation, schools and workplaces, in public sanitation facilities, water and food distribution sites, and

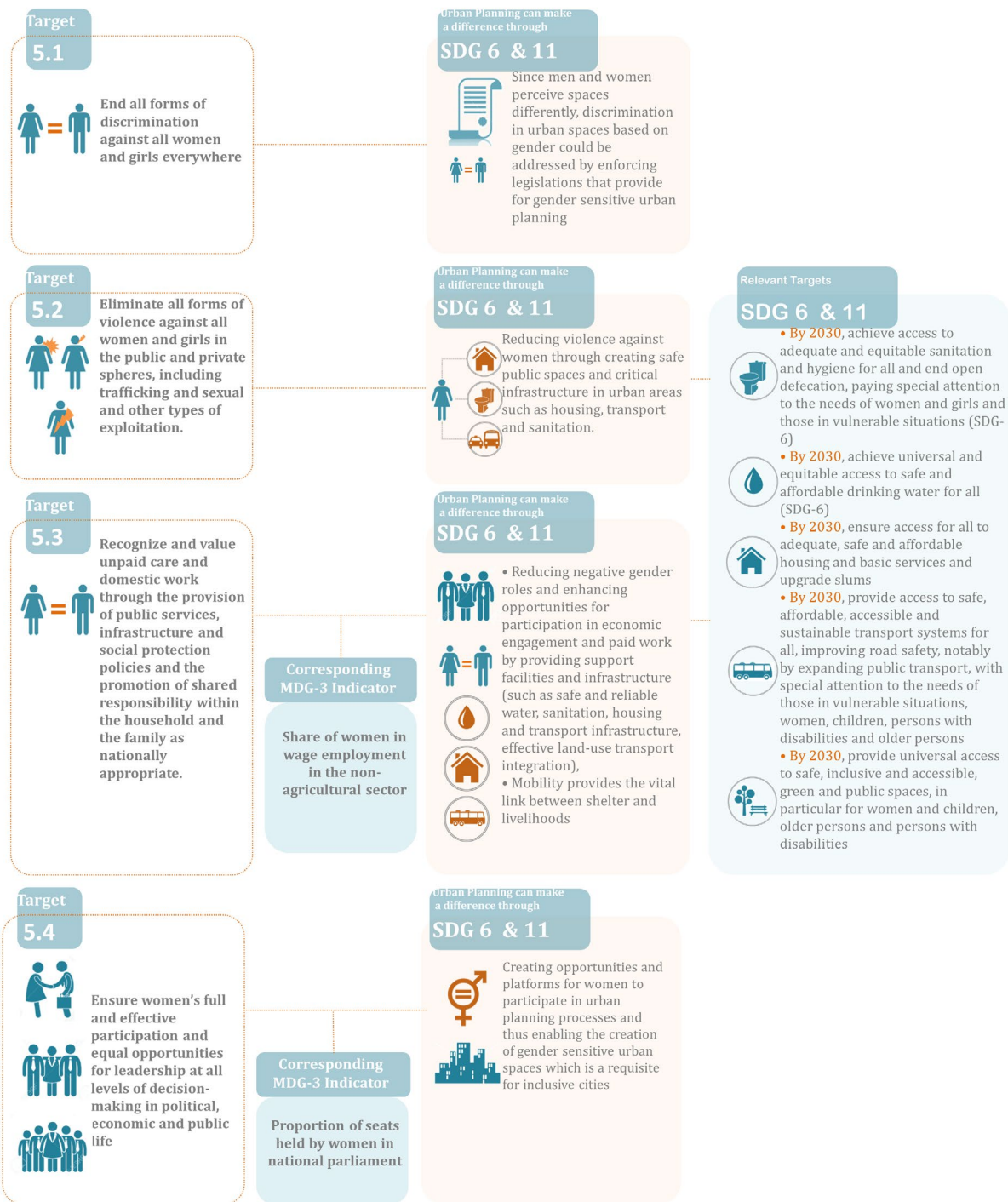
4 MDG 3 indicators, however, included two additional targets related to employment and participation in political life.

5 The indicators used are primarily derived from the UN’s Statistical Division’s report *Compilation of Metadata for SDGs and MDGs*.

6 In Sri Lanka these include the Local Authorities Act, 2012 (Parliament of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka, 2012), and the Urban Development Authority Law, 1978 (Government Of Sri Lanka, 1978). In India, these are mainly the Town and Country Planning Acts. In Nepal, these include the Local Self Governance Act (1999) and the Town Development Act 1988 (last amended in 2010). In Bangladesh, these include the Town Improvement Act (Government of Bangladesh, 1953), 1977; Paurashava Ordinance (given planning power), changed in 2009 (Bangladesh Gazette, 2009); Environmental Pollution Control Act (Bangladesh Gazette, 1995); City Corporation Act (Bangladesh Gazette, 2011).

7 The legal provision for reservation for women is covered under Target 5.5 later in this chapter.

Figure 3: Linking SDGs 5, 6 and 11, and urban planning



Source: CSTEP analysis based on Beall (1996), Rathí et al. (2013), UN-Habitat (2012b), Tacoli (2012) Fraser (2012), UN WOMEN (2015), Commonwealth Secretariat (2009)

parks. This limits their access to essential services and their enjoyment of cultural and recreational opportunities. It also negatively impacts their health and well-being.⁸

Sri Lanka: One in every four women experiences severe forms of sexual harassment almost every day (Perera, 2012) and 29% of Sri Lanka's female journalists are sexually harassed in the workplace (Balachandran, 2015).

India: A baseline study conducted in New Delhi in 2012 revealed that 92% of women had experienced some form of sexual violence in public spaces in their lifetime, and 88% had experienced some form of visual and verbal sexual harassment (UN WOMEN, 2013). The street survey, safety audits and focus group discussions by Jagori revealed the following insights: roads (50%)⁹ and public transport (39%) are listed as the most unsafe public spaces, followed by markets (22%) and spaces where women wait for public transport (12%) (Suri, 2010). Factors contributing to the lack of safety include lighting on the streets, poorly maintained, non-existent pavements, and poorly designed men's urinals. Further, 33% of the women have stopped going out in public and 17% have quit their jobs for fear of harassment, or worse, in public places (Michigan State University, 2016). In Mumbai, 80% of women had been street-harassed, primarily in crowded areas like trains and railway platforms.¹⁰

Nepal: According to the data collected by the Women's Rehabilitation Center Nepal, there was a total 1563 cases of violence against women recorded in Nepal during April 2012-13, which increased to 2225 cases during January to December 2014. Among the 2225 cases, domestic violence accounts for 67.6%, social violence 12%, rape 8.9%, attempted rape 2.6%, sexual violence 3.4%, murder 1.8% and attempted murder 1.2% (Women's Rehabilitation Center, 2016).

Bangladesh: A nationwide survey in 2014 revealed that many women faced sexual harassment in their daily lives, with 43% saying they felt most vulnerable in public spaces (Islam, 2014). A survey of the slums of the capital city Dhaka found that 76% of the women respondents had endured physical or sexual abuse, with 43% having suffered both physical and sexual abuse (Blumenthal, 2014).

A comparison between countries on the above parameters is, however, difficult in the absence of comparable data over similar timelines.

Safe Cities and Safe Public Spaces, launched by UN Women in 2010, is the first global programme to prevent and respond to sexual harassment and other forms of violence against women and girls in public areas in cities (UN WOMEN, 2013). Some of the other important

initiatives in the study countries include the Safe Delhi Campaign and the gender audit of the city of Delhi in India; the 2010 Action Plan against Gender Based Violence in Nepal; and the Multi Sectoral Programme on Violence against Women in Bangladesh.

SGD 5/Target 5.4 – Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure

Status indicator: Percentage of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location, such as collecting water, looking after children and elderly persons in the family, etc.

Globally, women spend roughly three times more time than men doing unpaid work (Reuters, 2015). The average hours per day spent on unpaid care work by women in South Asia is higher than in other regions of the world except the Middle East and North Africa. For men, however, it is lower than that in most other regions (OECD, 2014).

Sri Lanka: Overall, 11% of women who work as family workers in the northern part of Sri Lanka are not paid for their work, whereas 31% of women are unpaid workers in the eastern part (Caritas Sri Lanka, 2013).

India: Women in India do almost 10 times as much unpaid work as men, barring them from contributing to the economy (Reuters, 2015).

Nepal: On average, Nepalese women perform 1.4 hours of unpaid work for every 1 hour worked by Nepalese men (Budlender and Moussié, 2013). Nepal's MDG progress report states that 74.8% of the unpaid family labour force is female.

Bangladesh: Women devote an average of 6.45 hours to 'care work' at home compared with men's average of 1.2 hours a day (*Star Business Report*, 2016).

At the national level, then, Nepal seems to be performing better than the other two case study countries with comparable data on unpaid work by gender. However, disaggregated data for this indicator for urban areas are not available.

Corresponding MDG indicator: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector

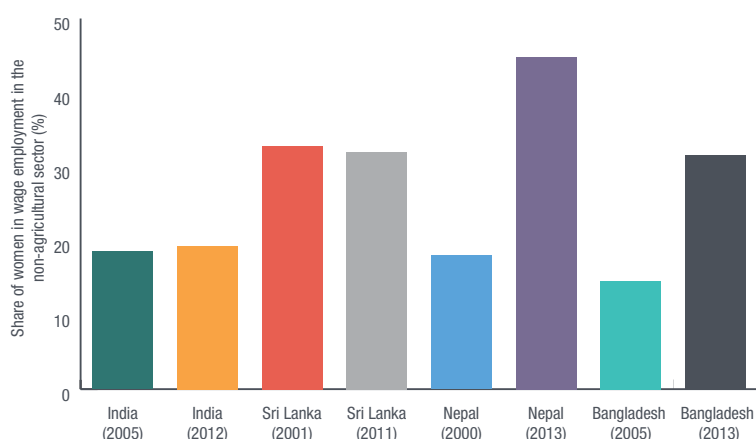
It is also worth discussing progress on a related MDG indicator on women's economic empowerment: the share of women in paid employment in the non-agriculture sector. This indicator is partially representative of the status of women's employment in urban sector activities (see Figure 4). Nepal and Bangladesh have more than doubled this indicator value roughly from 2000 to 2013. India and Sri Lanka show very minimal improvement.

8 See www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/ending-violence-against-women/creating-safe-public-spaces

9 Figures within parentheses represent the share of respondents ranking a particular public space as most unsafe.

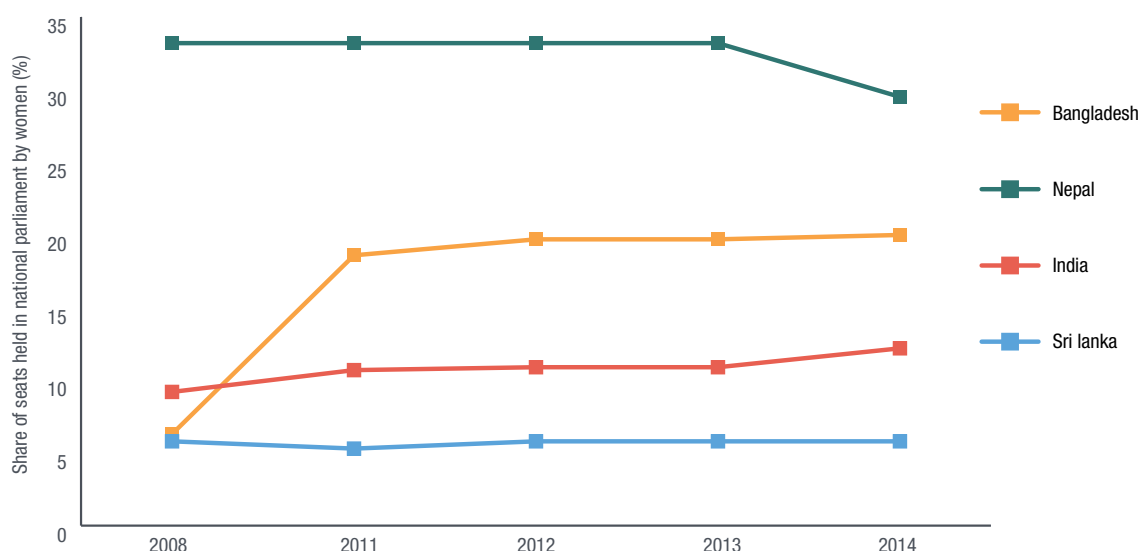
10 See www.stopstreetharassment.org/resources/statistics/statistics-academic-studies

Figure 4: Progress in the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector in the study countries



Source: Millennium Development Goals - India Country Report 2015; Millennium Development Goals - Country Report 2014 - Sri Lanka; Millennium Development Goals - Nepal Progress Report 2013; Millennium Development Goals - Bangladesh Progress Report 2015

Figure 5: Progress in the proportion of seats held in the national parliaments in the study countries



Source: Human Development Report 2010-2015

SDG 5/Target 5.5 – Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

Status indicator and corresponding MDG indicators: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and urban local governments

Among the four countries, only Bangladesh has quotas for women in the national parliament (50 out of 350 seats are reserved for women). Nepal has made substantial progress, with the highest share of seats held by women in the national parliament (32.8%) among the four study countries. While Bangladesh and India have made

moderate progress, the challenge looks far greater for Sri Lanka, with only 6.8% women’s representation in the national parliament in 2010 (see Figure 5). As a point of reference, in Norway and Australia, which ranked as the top two countries in the Human Development Index (HDI), the number of parliamentary seats held by women was 39.6% and 30%, respectively. In Iraq, the figure was 26.5%, whereas in Saudi Arabia, where women face severe restrictions, the figure was 19.9% (UNDP, 2015).

In Bangladesh, the Local Government Ordinance 1997 reserves 33% of seats in local government for women. Similarly, in India, there is 33% quota for women in both urban local bodies (ULBs) and rural local bodies. Many Indian states have passed separate legislation ensuring 50%

reservation in all tiers of local governance. In Nepal, the Local Self-Governance Act provided a 20% quota of seats for women in ward-level committees (for the period 1997-2002, when there were elected bodies). Sri Lanka does not have any formal representation laws for women, although there have been attempts in the recent past to institute mechanisms for quotas or for political parties to nominate women.

To summarise, provisions for effective participation and opportunities for leadership in urban local governance are present, with three out of four countries having enacted quotas for women at national and local levels.

Status of SDG 6 and 11 targets relevant for achieving SDG 5 targets

The above findings on the status of the SDG 5 targets show that all the four countries will need to bridge a considerable gap to attain the SDG 5 targets, especially the ones on reducing violence and access to paid work. To reiterate, these targets are directly influenced by certain targets under SDG 6 (to achieve universal access to water and sanitation) and SDG 11 (to create inclusive cities through increased access to housing, basic services and public transportation) as mentioned in the beginning of this chapter and as illustrated in Figure 3.

The World Bank statistics at a country level for access to safe drinking water are generally better than for access to safe sanitation facilities in urban areas of the study countries. Nepal and Bangladesh are specifically lagging behind in ensuring access to safe sanitation for their urban population (see Figure 6, overleaf). However, irrespective of the aggregated statistics, anecdotal evidence suggests the existence of violence against women and a loss of opportunities for paid work in all four study countries as a result of inadequate access to basic services.

Migrant women from economically weaker households in Bengaluru, who often work in the informal sector, lose work opportunities as they need to spend hours waiting for piped water each morning, given the often unreliable supply in urban informal settlements (interview with stakeholder).

A lack of planned public sanitation facilities for women in cities restricts women's ability to access city resources and can have serious health implications. A sample survey in Pune revealed that approximately 60% of women in the city leave their houses to go to work daily. The unavailability or bad conditions of public toilets compels many of them to rush home (Mishra, 2016).¹¹

Box 1: Differences in data

It is worth noting that there are differences between the World Bank data and the country reports on MDG progress. For example, access to safe drinking water in urban areas of Nepal is 59% as per the MDG country report and 91% as per World Bank data. While some of these reasons might be attributed to differences in the definition of indicators and measurement techniques, it also highlights the discrepancy in multiple datasets which are used for policy-making as well as actions on-ground. Also, there is a general lack of available sex-disaggregated data on access to basic services which are generally measured at the household level and thus could miss out on aspects critical for influencing access for women specifically.

Source <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator>

While the availability of public transport is considered as an enabling condition for an inclusive city, women often face harassment on public transport itself. Adequate transport facilities from the origin to destination of a commute can enhance women's safe mobility and thus access to opportunities. In Bangladesh, inadequate public transport facilities constrain women's access to social and economic opportunities (Shafiq-Ur Rahman, 2010).

The above factors constitute the essential components of urban sector plans for the study countries in question.

2.2 Overall status of gender inequality in the study countries

Although our focus is on gender (in)equality in relation to urban planning, it is only part of a larger problem that manifests itself in various areas and forms. Thus, gender equality in cities needs to be understood against the backdrop of the wider status of inequality and human development in the study countries. One would generally assume that a higher level of human development would ideally reflect a lower level of inequality in a particular country. There is, however, a lack of evidence to prove any substantial relationship between the Human Development Index (HDI)¹² and the Gender Inequality Index (GII),¹³ either direct or inverse in nature. GII measures the loss in human development a country experiences due to

11 The survey was done by a group called Abhiyakti working for women's rights. The group has launched a 'Right to Pee' campaign that demands 'more public toilets for women in the city and thereby the right to dignity'.

12 HDI 'is a summary measure of average achievement in key dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable, and having a decent standard of living. The HDI is the geometric mean of the normalised indices for each of the three dimensions'. See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/human-development-index-hdi>

13 GII 'shows the loss in potential human development due to disparity between female and male achievements in two dimensions, empowerment and economic status, and reflects a country's position relative to normative ideals for the key dimension of women's health'. See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/what-does-gender-inequality-index-gii-measure-and-how-it-calculated>

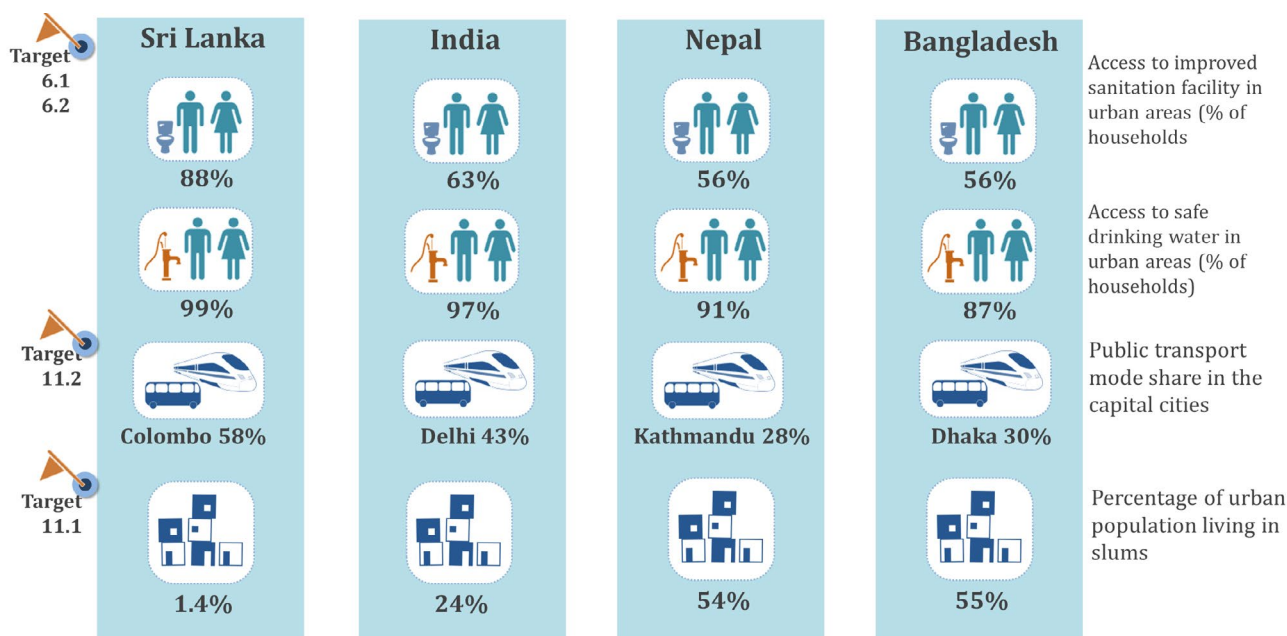
inequality in reproductive health, empowerment and labour market participation between women and men. A study comparing the GII of the top 10 countries ranked in HDI in 2013 shows that it is possible for countries having a high HDI ranking to have a high GII.¹⁴ For example, Denmark, which is ranked 10th in HDI in 2013, shows a lower GII value (0.06) compared to the United States (GII value of 0.26), which is ranked fifth in HDI. This is largely because Denmark performed much better than the USA in terms of maternal mortality ratio, adolescent birth rate, and share of seats held by women in parliament, despite having a lower per capita Gross National Income than the USA (UNDP, 2014). Research shows a stronger correlation between the Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)¹⁵ and the GII. The IHDI is an adjusted version of the HDI and takes into account the unequal distribution in the three dimensions of the HDI across the population (which could be among different genders, various social groups, ethnic groups, income groups, geographic locations). Though it is difficult to infer exactly what type of inequality a specific IHDI score is pointing towards, the correlation between IHDI and GII (0.87) indicates that an unequal distribution of human development is strongly associated with an unequal

distribution across gender (Seth, 2011). Referring again to the example of Denmark and the USA in 2013, Denmark fared better than the USA in IHDI despite being ranked lower than the USA in HDI.

In the context of the four countries studied in this paper, Figure 6 shows that all four have made some positive progress towards their HDI, IHDI and GII scores during 2011 to 2014. The order of positioning among these four countries remains the same in both HDI and IHDI scores (i.e. from high to low score: Sri Lanka, India, Nepal, Bangladesh). While Bangladesh and Nepal are ranked lower than India in terms of both HDI and IHDI, they fare better than India in GII. Sri Lanka ranks the highest on both HDI and GII among the study countries. This could imply that Sri Lanka, Nepal and Bangladesh have managed to address gender inequality in a better way than India while making progress in other aspects of human development.

Overall, the findings and analysis discussed in this chapter show that for the SDG 5 targets, there are limitations in the ability to track progress in the study countries, as many key indicators cannot be disaggregated by urban areas and gender. The legal framework ensuring gender equality is somewhat guaranteed at the

Figure 6: Status of access to water and sanitation, public transport and housing



Source: (World Bank, 2015), (United Nations (UN) - Sri Lanka, 2015), (Perera, 2014), (Clean Air Network Nepal, 2014), (DTCA, 2014)

14 The 10 countries are Norway, Australia, Switzerland, Netherlands, United States, Germany, New Zealand, Canada, Denmark. See <https://slemma.com/share/0055c7e8be7200494c2d0853457e613864a3812c>

15 IHDI is a measure of the level of human development of people and also how it is distributed among people in a society. As the name implies, it is an adjusted version of the HDI and is, thus, based on its dimensions of human development achievements in health, education, and living standards. See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/inequality-adjusted-human-development-index-ihdi>

Table 1: Comparison of the GII, HDI, and IHDI of the study countries

Year	Country	HDI		IHDI		GII	
		Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
2011	Sri Lanka	0.691	97	0.607	106	0.419	74
	Nepal	0.458	157	0.304	157	0.558	113
	Bangladesh	0.5	146	0.374	151	0.55	112
	India	0.547	134	0.392	135	0.617	129
2014	Sri Lanka	0.757	73	0.669	80	0.37	72
	Nepal	0.548	145	0.401	148	0.489	108
	Bangladesh	0.57	142	0.403	143	0.503	111
	India	0.609	130	0.435	131	0.563	130

Source: *Human Development Report 2011-2015*

constitutional level, but is not yet reflected in the urban planning legal framework. Anecdotal evidence suggests that all four countries face substantial challenges relating to violence, unpaid care work, and representation of women, in varying degrees. However, no formal process for tracking these issues exists in any of the study countries.

Overall, all four countries have made some progress in achieving the MDG goals under gender equality. Progress has been made in the water- and sanitation-related MDG targets, but these fall short of the enhanced targets under

SDGs 6 and 11, especially for improved sanitation facilities in India, Nepal, and Bangladesh. Bangladesh also faces more challenges in providing safe drinking water access to its urban population compared with the other three countries. Sri Lanka fares the best among all four countries in both water- and sanitation-related targets. Safe and accessible public transport is still a challenge in all four countries.

In terms of overall gender equality, Sri Lanka is best positioned among the four countries with a higher IHDI and a lower GII.

3. Methodology and approach



A family outside their home in Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh state, India. Photo: © Graham Crouch/World Bank.

This paper seeks to deepen understanding of the challenges to achieving the targets under SDG 5 at the intersections of SDGs 6 and 11, and what priority actions are required to overcome the associated challenges. Based on the understanding of the relation between urban planning and the selected SDG 5 targets (see Figure 3, page 14), this paper focuses on the following questions in the remaining sections:

1. To what extent do urban planning tools¹⁶ embed the aspects of gender equity required for achieving SDG 5?
2. What are the priority actions needed in the urban planning ecosystem than can facilitate implementation of SDG 5 within the first 1,000 days?

3.1 Research methodology

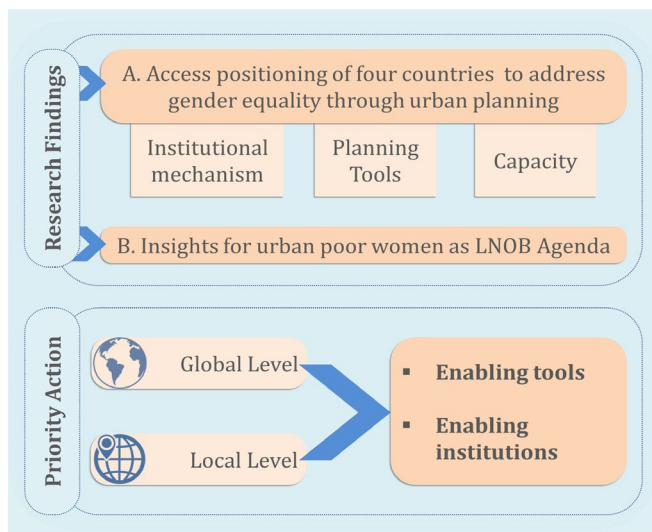
The overarching approach adopted for this research combines a three-pronged method including a literature review, assessment of a selected set of plan documents as samples and interviews with a range of experts from the urban domain.

The literature review focused on the institutional mechanisms that countries have to incorporate gender equality in urban planning practices (e.g. which ministries/agencies are in charge of these areas and the extent to which they coordinate their policies). It also looked at urban sector policies and the legal and regulatory provisions that include gender aspects.

We then assessed existing urban plans to understand whether they embed gender aspects. The assessment framework we used for each plan document is largely based on an idea of inclusive cities from a gender perspective drawing substantially on the guidance outlined

¹⁶ Urban planning tools in this paper is meant for urban sector plans and policies pursued by various tiers of governments pertaining to planning and management of urban areas, including urban infrastructure.

Figure 7: Research design



Source: CSTEP Analysis

in UN-Habitat’s Gender Issue Guide (2012b) and the principles of gender mainstreaming (UNESCO, 2000).¹⁷ The framework along with the assessment results for the selected plan documents is presented in Annex 1.

The following eight plans were selected for review because they are the most recent and prominent urban initiatives in their respective contexts:

India:

- Delhi Master Plan (2010-2021)
- Smart City Mission Guidelines, 2015
- Housing for All (Urban) Guidelines, 2015

Bangladesh:

- Dhaka Structure Plan (2016-2035)
- Mymensingh Strategic Development Planning (MSDP) (2011-2031)

Sri Lanka:¹⁸

- Sri Lanka Strategic Cities Development Project (2011-2030)
- National Physical Plan (2011-2030)

Nepal:

- Kathmandu Valley Strategic Development Master Plan (2015–2035)

Figure 7 summarises our line of enquiry.

Finally, we conducted over 15 interviews with individual experts, government officials, representatives of multilateral funding agencies (such as the Asian Development Bank – ADB), international organisations (such as UN-Habitat, UN Women), consultants, and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) working in the field of urban development. The interactions also helped in framing the recommendations for priority actions.

The authors remain consistent throughout on the concept of gender equality, which is about equal access to opportunities and resources by all irrespective of gender and/or sex. Gender mainstreaming in this paper is meant as a means to achieve gender equality through integrating gender perspectives in the formulation, implementation, and assessment of all policies, programmes, strategies, and plans (UN WOMEN, 2014).

¹⁷ Gender mainstreaming was defined by the UN Economic and Social Council in 1997 as ‘the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action including legislation, policies, and programmes, in any area and at all levels’. See www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/GMS.PDF

¹⁸ These two plans might not be the most active plans for Sri Lanka at present. However, there is lack of clarity on what the most relevant plans are. There are a few urban sector plans, such as for the transport sector, which might be more relevant. However, since the plans selected for the other three countries do not include sectoral plans, the authors did not include sectoral plans from Sri Lanka for assessment.

4. Research findings

This chapter presents the findings of the research in the following two broad areas:

- Gender in urban institutional mechanisms
- Gender in urban planning tools.

4.1 Gender in urban institutional mechanisms

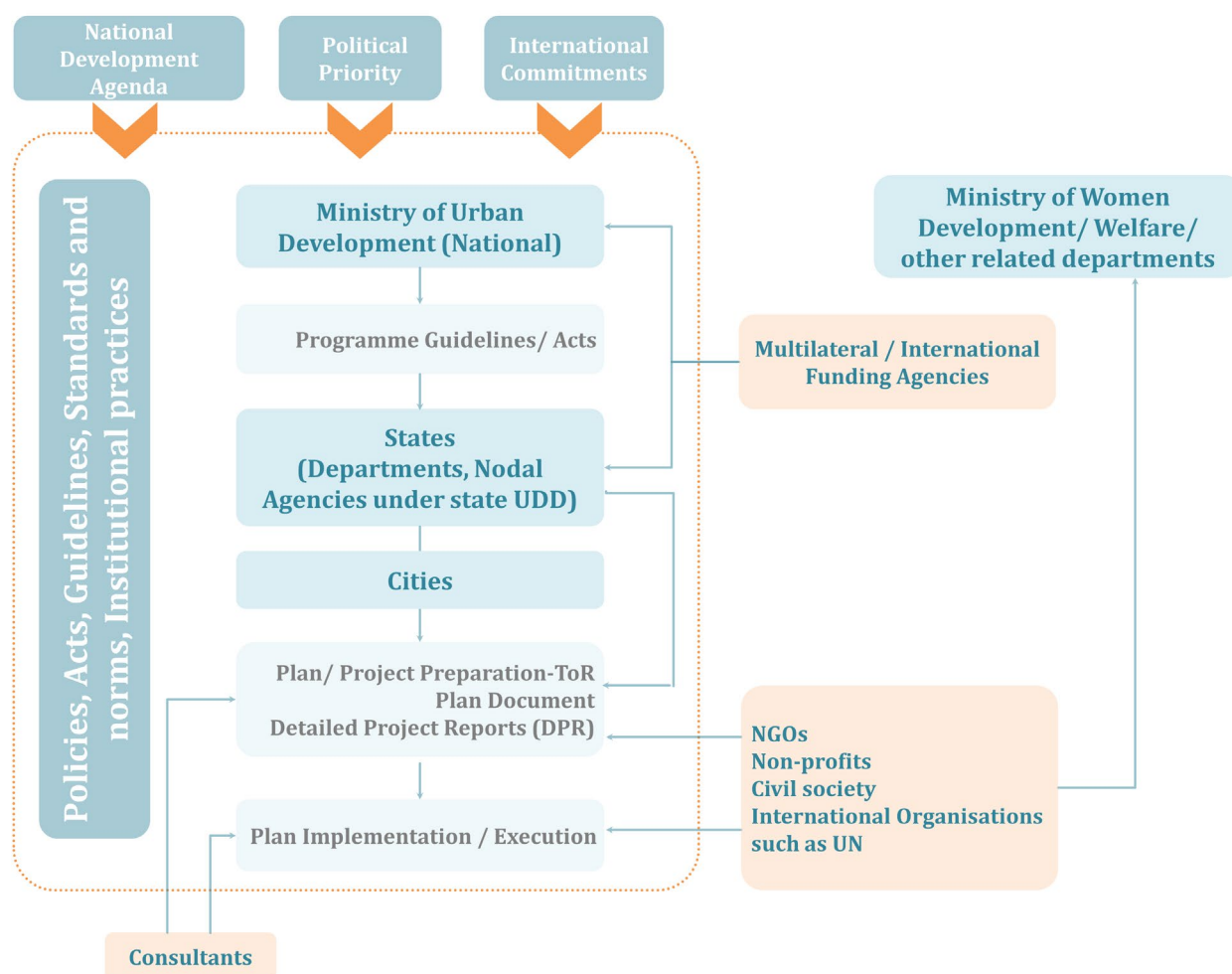
Institutional mechanisms refer to formal procedures and guidelines which have been established to co-ordinate the functions of the select agencies and actors. In each of the study countries, the corresponding ministry for women (and children) is usually in charge of gender empowerment and mainstreaming programmes. Urban development and

planning-related tasks are carried out under the respective ministries for urban development and planning and at the level of provincial governments or ULBs (see Figure 8). There is very little convergence of programmes or exchange of knowledge between these two kinds of ministry.

NGOs, civil society organisations and international welfare organisations such as the UN engage sporadically in urban development activities, bringing in gender mainstreaming aspects in some instances. However, these often fail to become institutionalised and thus are seldom replicated on a wider scale (interview with stakeholder).

As far as the inclusion of women as actors in formal urban development mechanisms is concerned, women's representation in formal institutions is an effective entry

Figure 8: Urban sector organisational relationships in the study countries



Source: CSTEP Analysis

point. In case study countries however, even when there is reservation for women, it does not ensure inclusion. In Indian ULBs, women who are elected are usually seen as proxies for their husbands/partners who could not stand due to the affirmative action laws (HDRC, 2000). However, at least one of our interviewees believed that once women have been in power and have performed the official duties of the post, they slowly become more independent as they get a better understanding of the ecosystem.

A cursory look at the organograms of urban development agencies other than ULBs as well as the interaction with experts reveals much less penetration of women in decision-making in the urban sector in the study countries. There are exceptions such as the Gender Development Forum in the Local Government Engineering Department in Bangladesh, an initiative that aims to institutionalise gender aspects in the day-to-day activities of maintaining water resources. This provides a platform for mainstreaming gender equality strategies at the organisational and field levels.¹⁹ However, the initiative has not reached a wider group of stakeholders and institutions (interview with expert). In general, gender and urban planning exist as two separate areas in the organisational realities in the four South Asian countries in terms of organisational design, coordination, exchange of knowledge, representation, and decision-making protocols.

4.2 Gender in urban planning tools

The sections below present an overview of urban sector policies and legal and regulatory provisions, followed by findings from the assessment of the selected eight plans from the four study countries.

4.2.1 Urbanisation and gender in public policies

In the context of this study, it is important to look at whether and how urban sector policies are accounting for gender issues.

Nepal

Urban issues had not been a focus of national five-year plans (JICA, 2003) until the recent one (2011–2013). The National Urban Development Strategy, 2015, which provides the blueprint for urban development in Nepal (Ministry of Urban Development, 2015), does not explicitly mention gender.

The National Sustainable Transport Strategy and the National Urban Water Supply and Sanitation Sector Policy include some gender elements. The former aims to create an inclusive transport system and considers specific provisions for women (MOPIT et al., 2015). The latter aims to ensure participation of the users, especially women

and other vulnerable groups. It also aims to provide access to women and disadvantaged groups in the strategies (Ministry of Physical Planning and Works, 2009).

The GESI Operation guidelines 2013 provided a significant boost for mainstreaming gender roles in different domains. Proposed by the ADB, they were adopted and institutionalised by the Ministry of Urban Development. The guidelines identify multiple phases of each project (design, construction, operations, and capacity-building) where the GESI guidelines are to be implemented, and propose indicators to help gauge the success or failure of these guidelines. Indicators include the appointment of a GESI specialist, creation of a GESI profile, participation and representation of women in decision-making structures, and the incorporation and institutionalisation of GESI guidelines under various ministries (ADB, 2010).

India

India does not have a formal urban development policy at the national level. The last two five-year plans of India have positioned ‘inclusive growth’ as the primary development agenda. The present national government recognises the importance of urbanisation and identifies ‘empowering women in all aspects’ as one of the main pillars of effective governance (*The Gazette of India*, 2015), as mentioned in the cabinet resolution for constituting the National Institute for Transforming India (NITI Aayog).²⁰

The National Urban Transport Policy recognises the role of transport infrastructure in enhancing the safety and security of women. India has recently launched the National Urban Sanitation Policy and the National Water Policy, although these policies do not identify gender as an independent component that needs to be addressed.

In India, each state has its own Town Planning Act as the legal backbone of urban planning exercises. Reference to women or gender in these acts is hard to find, but recently revised Urban and Regional Development Plans Formulation and Implementation Guidelines recommend the inclusion of gender-sensitive tools, methodologies and approaches in urban planning.

Sri Lanka

There is no specific urban development policy at the national level in Sri Lanka. The National Drinking Water Policy and the Colombo Metropolitan Region Transport Master Plan do not provide for specific consideration of gender aspects or make special provisions for women and other disadvantaged groups (Ministry of Internal Transport, 2015). The important legal and regulatory tools do not specifically mention gender.

¹⁹ See Local Government Engineering Department (www.lged.gov.bd).

²⁰ This replaced the Planning Commission in 2015 as the national think tank.

Bangladesh

The Perspective Plan of Bangladesh (2010-21) envisions the promotion of gender balance through the institutionalisation of gender-sensitive planning and budgeting.

The National Urban Sector Policy 2010 was designed to be gender-sensitive as well as sensitive to the needs of children, the elderly and disadvantaged. The National Land Transport Policy, the National Policy for Safe Water Supply & Sanitation and the National Housing Policy contain limited references to gender concerns, none of which are specific to the urban context.

Other important legal and regulatory tools do not mention anything specific to gender²¹ or women other than the local government quota for women (which stands at 33%).

To summarise, gender is still largely seen as a separate area in policy and regulatory frameworks. Nepal is perhaps the exception among our selected countries, as it leads the way in terms of mainstreaming gender roles in urban development projects.²² There is seldom any law that considers a convergence of urban planning and gender. The application of Universal Accessibility Standards and guidelines is largely limited to people with a disability.

4.2.2 Gender in plan conceptualisation, processes and outputs: Findings from selected plan documents

Selected plan documents²³ from the four study countries were reviewed for various aspects of gender considerations. The assessment framework employed and representative mapping of the findings from the assessment exercise are presented in Annex 1.

Overall, gender is seldom considered at the inception stage of planning²⁴. Gender does not appear as an important aspect in the given mandates of these plans. Specific interventions for gender mainstreaming were found to be largely missing such as a mandate to assess gender implications of these plans, conduct gender-related capacity-building workshops, or gender budgeting. This suggests that the plan-making agencies such as the urban development authorities see gender as being of less importance.

The planning processes and modalities seldom include gender mainstreaming as a conscious choice, other than a few sporadic examples where it appears mainly driven by funding agency requirements. Use of sex-disaggregated

data, gender-sensitive norms and standards are not common, except for a very few exceptions. Interestingly, information about the modalities of engagement with stakeholder communities is often not spelled out in the plan documents, although some of them mention participatory approaches in their methodology. None of the plans in the study countries did a gender-budgeting exercise. Five out of eight plans have included capacity-building workshops during the planning process, with specific workshops for women. However, they did not specifically focus on gender.

The proposed projects and interventions in the studied plan documents generally focus on proposals for creating physical infrastructure. Overall, infrastructure and services critical for gender equality are included but in a manner that is not cognisant of the ways in which these impact different genders. Public open spaces receive less attention, while access to water and sanitation, and creating safe public spaces in general have not been dealt with in detail except for a very few exceptions. Notably, care-giving facilities, which could enable women to find time for engaging in paid work, are completely missing from seven out of eight plans. Monitoring mechanisms involving women are vaguely mentioned only in few plan documents.

Overall, gender mainstreaming seems to be missing from the different stages of a project cycle (i.e. conception through implementation).

4.3 Capacity of countries to mainstream gender in urban planning

While the policy and regulatory framework can set enabling conditions for gender mainstreaming, the country-level implementation of SDG 5 will hinge on the capacity of the national and local institutions. The availability of and access to technical and financial resources are important in this context.

Technical capacity

Data – lack quality and thus reduce the robustness of planning exercises

Deepening the understanding of the status of gender equality requires a gender-disaggregated database. The

21 Town Improvement Act (Government of Bangladesh, 1953), 1977 Paurashava Ordinance (given planning power), changed in 2009 (Bangladesh Gazette, 2009); Environmental Pollution Control Act (Bangladesh Gazette, 1995); City Corporation Act (Bangladesh Gazette, 2011).

22 As noted, the GESI guidelines were mooted by the ADB, but have subsequently been institutionalised in Nepal's governance framework.

23 Kathmandu Valley Strategic Development Master Plan, Nepal; Dhaka Structure Plan, Bangladesh; Mymensingh Strategic development plan; Sri Lanka Strategic Cities Development Project; National Physical Plan, Sri Lanka; Smart City Mission Guidelines, India; Housing for all Guidelines, India; Delhi Master Plan, India.

24 This part of the assessment attempts to find out whether gender is finding a place in the plans' initial terms of reference, their proposed methodologies and vision statements. This does not mean the actual terms of reference document issued by the competent authorities, but the information available from the plan document and related information available in the public domain.

Box 2: Role of NGOs and CSOs in gender-inclusive urban planning

Interventions by CSOs, NGOs, and other external organisations compensate for the skills deficiency in government agencies. The roles of NGOs working on the ground include research, advocacy, campaigning and negotiation, as well as providing specific technical skills. Such efforts are generally concentrated in urban poor pockets, where there are often tense negotiations between different stakeholders.

For example, the NGO Jagori audits the safety aspects of key urban infrastructure from a gendered point of view. This has helped to highlight the need for gender-sensitive planning of urban infrastructure, which is currently missing. Studies and audits conducted by Jagori provide a powerful visual tool to understand how urban infrastructure should or should not be planned from a gender perspective. The organisation has conducted similar studies in other cities including Kolkata (Jagori, 2013).

CSOs have recently managed to influence a number of high-visibility urban planning exercises in India, including the revision of the Mumbai Master Plan. However, the role of CSOs in gender-responsive planning and pursuing the agenda of women in leadership in urban governance needs further research.

absence of a comprehensive database has implications for problem identification and programme design (Parvati, 2012). For example, the census databases in the study countries are largely used as sources of data used in urban planning exercises. However, this is not a spatial database and thus does not capture the challenges posed by physical location of infrastructure and services which can substantially impact access to those services by different genders.

Experiences of organisations and departments responsible for monitoring the progress of MDG targets at the country level revealed the following challenges (Social Statistic Division, 2015):

- Unavailability of data at the sub-state level, making a more disaggregated assessment difficult (such as with respect to urban–rural disparity)
- Irregular periodicity of available data and long gaps between two data measurement periods, rendering the process and results inconsistent
- Incomplete data, mostly due to incomplete coverage in administrative records, influencing data results.

Skills, awareness and mindset – widely lacking in the urban sector, thus posing a barrier to gender-mainstreaming practices

Gender is not a core competence among urban local institutions or managers, *‘who remain largely concerned with the provisioning of basic services’* (Khosla, 2009). Even when good-quality data and gender planning toolkits are available, planners involved in the project lack understanding about how to use these effectively (interview with experts).

The patriarchal mindset of planners and decision-making authorities lead to the gender equality agenda not being prioritised and, in many instances, being seen as a formality to be completed without conducting due diligence and fact-finding (interview with experts). The interviews conducted suggest that men’s perceptions are largely to do with ideas about women enjoying more freedom in certain urban societies. On the other

hand, women respondents identify tangible gaps in city infrastructure and service provision that make it difficult for women to have equal opportunities.

In addition, capacity constraints plague initiatives attempting to bring gender and urban planning together. This is especially true in smaller cities, where municipal staff are busy ‘fire-fighting’ day-to-day issues. In India, there are no urban planning posts. Municipal engineers manage planning activities without any formal training. There are examples where CSOs and NGOs have intervened or partnered with government agencies to bring in capacity to improve the quality of urban planning interventions or protect the rights of the citizens (see Box 2).

Financial resources

Projects funded by multilateral agencies include gender considerations to a degree. This is mainly driven by the mandate of these agencies to include a gender expert in the project team, to collect and use certain sex-disaggregated data, and to capture the voices of different genders through methods such as focus group discussions. Examples could be found in the project guidelines of the ADB and the World Bank. In Sri Lanka, gender mainstreaming and the incorporation of gender considerations in projects through a ‘Social Management Framework’ in the Strategic Cities Development Programme are being supported by the World Bank (2014).

The extent of gender inclusion through multilateral funding, however, depends substantially on the demand from the agencies receiving the support. This is why agencies with the same funding source end up with different experiences (interview with expert). One successful example is the Karnataka Urban Development and Coastal Environmental Management Project supported by the ADB in Karnataka, India, which successfully incorporated gender components. Generally, though, since smaller countries like Nepal (post-earthquake) and Sri Lanka (post-war) are significantly reliant on multilateral agency funding, they may have to incorporate gender and other guidelines more

extensively than India, which may not require as much multilateral funding (interview with experts).

In the case of the other funding sources (e.g. national/provincial/city governments, private funding), there is a general lack of awareness and interest in including gender in project mandates.²⁵ There is also a sense that it will increase the project cost. Seldom are the longer-term pay-offs of gender inclusion understood, and neither is the cost of doing nothing. Officials generally treat it only as an extra burden (interview with experts and stakeholders).

4.4 Summary of key research findings

The research shows a disconnect between urban planning and gender-inclusive policy, except for a few recent examples such as the GESI guidelines in Nepal and the PMAY in India. The legal and regulatory frameworks seldom provide for the convergence of these two domains. However, knowledge resources exist at both global and local levels that can provide for gender-sensitive principles and standards for urban planning.

There is sporadic consideration of gender equality in urban planning tools and institutional mechanisms; however, these considerations fail to get mainstreamed into robust institutional procedures and thus are not reflected in all plans in the same country. Initiatives supported by

external agencies, and the ones involving NGOs, tend to include greater consideration for gender. However, these result in success in the short term but fail to initiate long-term structural changes.

Quotas for women are a tangible mechanism for ensuring women's participation in decision-making processes. Although this does not ensure effective representation and leadership, it sets in place a process of change. Inadequate skill sets, resource availability, and the mindset of urban institutions and officials are major deterrents to more gender-inclusive urban planning, while the lack of convergence between multiple plans is a barrier to streamlining complementary efforts.

The availability of reliable gender-disaggregated data remains a constraint in South Asian countries, which often fail to measure the outcomes of plans. The interviews conducted for the study also indicate different understandings between men and women of the concept of gender equality in urban planning.

In general, urban growth, which has occurred in an unplanned and haphazard manner, has forced urban authorities to act more responsibly. Unfortunately, the same has not necessarily translated into a focus on gender or other vulnerable groups. The next chapter briefly discusses how these shortcomings impact the conditions of the urban poor in relation to the LNOB agenda.

²⁵ This aspect is further reinforced in the plan assessment section.

5. Implications for ‘Leave No One Behind’



A family living in an urban slum in Sonagachi, Kolkata, India. Photo: © UN Photo/Kibae Park.

The concept of ‘Leave No One Behind’ seeks to ensure that no person – regardless of ethnicity, gender, geographic location, disability, race or other status – is denied universal human rights and basic opportunities. This concept strongly states the principle of equity in the SDGs.

The studies in the four countries under consideration identify women as facing different forms of exclusionary social division (ADB and Australian Aid, 2013). Among urban women, there are various marginalised groups such as women of certain economic classes, women in urban slums, women migrant workers, women of various ethnicities and castes, women engaged in activities associated with negative social stereotypes, widowed and unmarried women, working women, and so on (Khosla, 2009). This chapter presents the case of women living in urban poor pockets and informal settlements who could be left behind in the SDG implementation if the current

inadequacy of the urban planning tools persists. Studies show that, although no definite relationship could be drawn, developing countries in Southern Asia have the highest share of multi-dimensional poverty in the world while having the highest GIIs (UN-Habitat, 2013).²⁶

5.1 The status of gender in urban planning tools: insights for urban poor women

There are various dimensions of urban poverty that affect poor urban women. Female-headed households are generally more vulnerable to urban poverty. This manifests in reduced access to education, social capital, health services and the labour market. The main issues under the ambit of urban planning that impact the well-being of urban poor women in relation to the SDG 5 targets are as follows (Kapse et al., 2012; Ministry

²⁶ Multidimensional poverty distribution for Southern Asia is 51% and GII is 0.739%.

of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, 2009; UN-Habitat, 2013; UNESCO, 2011):

- Access, availability, and time taken for basic amenities and public provisioning such as water, sanitation, fuel, electricity and so on, which impact the conditions of living.
- Factors involving external environment, such as shelter spaces, transport, overall security levels that impact the overall safety and participation of poor women in the urban labour market.
- Legal entitlement related to land and housing rights,²⁷ which in turn hinders women's rights as citizens and the right to representation in formal systems.
- Slum relocation and redevelopment projects often end up in loss of livelihood, especially for women using living spaces for economic activities. This is a manifestation of lack of consultation and participation with stakeholders in general, as well as with women during planning for urban poor pockets.

A 2003 study which interviewed slum dwellers, predominantly women, across Mumbai and Pune revealed that water supply to the slums is irregular, and they consistently spend more than one hour queuing up for collecting water. Since many work in the informal sector, this disruption has a direct consequence on their daily wages (Bapat and Agarwal, 2003). Another study on water in slums in Mumbai (where 71% of the respondents were women) revealed that 90% of the responding slum dwellers spent up to one hour queuing up for collecting water (Subbaraman et al., 2013).

A lack of adequate mobility infrastructure and safety limit poor urban women's access to economic, social and cultural resources. A UNICEF study found that when 700,000 squatters were resettled on the periphery of Delhi, male employment increased by 5%, whereas female employment fell by 27% because their time to travel to their old jobs increased threefold (ADB and Australian Aid, 2013).

Policies in some South Asian countries are increasingly recognising the need to address the issues of entitlement and shelter–livelihood disconnect by including women in housing entitlement and recommending *in situ* redevelopment of urban poor pockets. India's *Rajiv Awas Yojana* (RAY) housing scheme for urban poor is one

Box 3: The need for a gendered analysis

The survey findings for the 'Slum Free City Plan of Action' for GHMC display extremely rich data sets on poverty, caste, livelihood, women-headed households, earning women and their status, access to basic services, etc. However, that a gendered analysis of the same has not been carried out shows a lack of awareness and skill of the planning authorities, as well as a lack of importance given to gender in the formal scope of the urban planning exercises.

example. However, this is not always reflected on the ground. In the Ejjipura slum in Bengaluru, India, 5,000 people, including 1,200 women, were rendered homeless in an eviction drive by the city corporation in January 2013. The eviction drive was conducted to facilitate the construction of a commercial property whose original terms of reference were to provide for economically weaker sections on the same plot of land (Housing and Land Rights Network and PUCL Karnataka, 2013). While the eviction affected both men and women negatively in the form of loss of livelihood, loss of access to critical urban infrastructure such as sanitation had a greater impact on women.²⁸ Similar examples of evictions could be found in the study countries where evictions put urban poor women in a severely disadvantaged position while creating a fairly difficult situation for the whole evicted population in general. For example, in Delhi several slums have been relocated to the fringes of the city over the past decades, causing some residents of these slums to lose their livelihood opportunities (Sheikh et al., 2014).

Even when *in situ* redevelopment of slums happens, a lack of supporting zoning and land-use regulations, such as those that allow a home-based enterprise, can severely constrain women's prosperity in urban poor pockets (ADB and Australian Aid, 2013). An oft-cited example is that of Dharavi, Mumbai, which is home to over 5,000 micro-enterprises, including many which are managed by and employ women, and where multiple western models of planned zoning have been proposed. If implemented, this would lead to loss of livelihood for several women on account of micro-enterprises not being allowed to operate (Apte, 2008).

'In all cases where an SDG target applies to outcomes for individuals, it should only be deemed to be met if every group – defined by income quintile, gender, location or otherwise – has met the target' (UN, 2013).

27 Although this target is not included in the scope of this study.

28 Interview with Dr. Ramdas Rao (PUCL – Karnataka) on 02 September 2016. PUCL conducted a fact-finding study on evictions in Ejjipura in 2013. The full report can be accessed at http://puclkarnataka.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Governance-by-Denial_FINAL_June-2013.pdf.

Inequality exists among slums as well, such as between the ones in the core of the city and those towards the periphery. The latter are generally where newer migrants in search of jobs tend to settle. These are also places where families evicted from the core of the city are rehoused. Losing an established social and economic network, women in these slums, who generally work as domestic help or in local small enterprises, find it difficult to secure decent livelihoods. This was the case with the Gori Palya slum, relocated to Hosabalnagar towards the northern periphery of Bengaluru, after a series of protests. It is noteworthy that in many such protests, women's self-help groups played a major role, such as in the Gori Palya example. In the new area, the relocated people faced severe hostility from the local residents. As a result, while men went for work, women virtually guarded the homes, fearing violence (from an unpublished report by CSTEP).

A 2009 study in Bangladesh showed that greater inequity exists between urban slums and proximate non-slum areas in terms of access to basic services that affect women's well-being and safety. For example, only 9% of the slum population had access to an improved sanitation facility compared with the 54% urban average (UNICEF, 2010). A 2013 report on the state of women in Bangladesh showed that poor urban women in Dhaka, including those who migrated to the city, live with inadequate access to basic infrastructure and services and their livelihoods are under constant threat (Rahman and Ali, 2013).

Urban slums also represent a concentration of the poorest of the poor, socially marginalised groups of various occupation and ethnicity. A survey of all notified and non-notified slums in the Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation Area (GHMC) in 2010 revealed that more

than 84% of the slum households are below the poverty line and more than 73% are from the Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe and Other Backward Classes category (Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation, 2013). Poor living conditions and scant livelihood options tend to increase their vulnerability, especially for women, due to lack of safety and restricted mobility.

On the other hand, cities are generally in denial about the presence of slums within their jurisdictions as their presence has implications for their existing reporting mechanisms to the upper tiers of government. Some slum areas are not recognised, especially non-notified slums outside of the purview of formal planning exercises (interview with stakeholder). It is interesting that the same legal and regulatory regime in the study countries which allows the existence of urban poor pockets without housing and basic services and with different degrees of legitimacy also allows the eviction and exclusion of many such pockets from most of the formal urban development initiatives. As a result, initiatives that attempt to enhance the status of urban poor women, especially in the form of the right to land and housing, are partly undermined, as in the case of the RAY and the PMAY programmes in India.

The above examples call for more efforts to bring development to urban poor pockets that go beyond just infrastructure and service provision. Here it is important to reflect on the 'Right to the City' approach and conclude that women in urban poor pockets are generally at risk of being left behind as they are denied rights to economic opportunities, rights to social and cultural resources and the right to representation and inclusion. This will have implications for achieving the SDG 5 targets.

6. Priority actions

In this chapter we present a set of priority actions for the first 1,000 days of SDG implementation. As discussed in Chapter 4, there is limited convergence among the tools and protocols that aimed at achieving SDGs 5, 6 and 11, while monitoring mechanisms are non-existent. The actions suggested here aim to set a process of change in the way urban planning is carried out in the study countries and to position it as a tool to localise implementation of SDG 5.

As highlighted in the previous chapters, technical knowledge resources exist on how to do gender-inclusive urban planning, or create inclusive cities, as a means to enhance gender equality in cities. This chapter suggests a set of important areas of reform for overcoming the barriers that hinder the uptake of existing knowledge through urban planning practices. The main idea is to enable urban planning to consider gender as a determinant for the production of urban spaces.

6.1 Priority actions at country level

The actions suggested at the country level are multi-pronged and multi-level, and emphasise the need for addressing gender equality as a part of an urban reforms agenda. Two broad action pathways have been identified, as follows:

- Create enabling planning tools through legal, regulatory and policy reforms
- Create enabling institutions by building capacity.

6.1.1 Create enabling planning tools through legal, regulatory and policy reforms

The following are a set of specific actions at country level identified under this pathway:

Assess the gender responsiveness of existing tools

Existing and upcoming policies, plans, legal and financial instruments must be analysed to understand their impact on gender, based on their likelihood of increasing or decreasing gender inequalities. In certain cases, sector-specific gender policies would be required to counteract gender inequalities.

Box 4: The role of governance

The determinants of success of the development programmes and initiatives in developing countries are often attributed to governance. Arun Maira, once a member of the former Planning Commission of India, says: ‘Governance is the process by which a society finds just solutions to its complex and contentious problems, and the process by which it establishes the rules of the game. Good governance requires that such processes be transparent, participative, and effective’ (Maira, 2016).

Governance is an important lever that can have an impact on the implementation and localisation of SDGs in national contexts in South Asia.

Design urban development policies, plans and regulations on the premise of creating inclusive cities

Policies could specifically endorse the interventions needed to create inclusive urban spaces through downstream plans, especially with reference to the urban poor in the LNOB agenda. The tools can be aligned to include the following aspects (Fraser, 2012; World Bank, 2015):

- Focus on creating safer cities and on women’s participation and representation as part of an inclusive city agenda
- Endorse the right to economic opportunities for all, including women
- Complement urban land use, infrastructure and services with livelihood and economic activities
- Focus continuously on upgrading housing, infrastructure and municipal services, and ensuring universal coverage and safe access
- Secure women’s rights to land and property²⁹
- Focus on creating gender-sensitive urban governance
- Increase financial support for the creation of inclusive cities.

Apart from policies and plans, legal tools for urban sector such as regulations and acts are important levers for furthering a reformist agenda. One key outcome of legally binding mandates is that policy uptake is not left to the discretion of the agencies or actors involved. These legislative provisions can provide an umbrella for designing appropriate legal tools at the local government level, such as through Municipalities Acts. Moreover, guidelines for state-sponsored or state-funded programmes implemented by local governments can create tangible opportunities for furthering the gender equality agenda, such as the GESI guidelines in Nepal and the SCM and PMAY programme guidelines in India. Promoting instruments that

29 Although this paper does not include this target under SDG 5, it is an important policy instrument for gender equality.

Box 5: Women's Self-Help Groups in the implementation and M&E of infrastructure delivery in cities

A review of the performance of women's SHGs in Karnataka, India, by the Asian Development Bank reveals instances of SHGs pushing to be part of initiatives to bring about local changes. These include putting pressure on local politicians to hold 'ward committee' meetings which are mandated by law. Some SHGs have also been pushing to be recognised as institutions which are empowered to provide local governance solutions (which is only authorised for community-based organisations). Finally, these SHGs have also been successful in fighting for and providing basic infrastructure services in slums which was absent earlier.

Source: Sitaram, 2007.

determine the implementation of gender-sensitive design and construction standards on the ground is important. In this context, the focus of Universal Accessibility Standards needs to be widened to include more on gender accessibility issues.

Create appropriate implementation, monitoring and evaluation frameworks aligned to the plan objectives

This action will go hand in hand with global-level reporting mechanisms. Although international organisations can provide suitable indicators to measure the progress of SDG targets, countries need to develop their own plan and programme-wide indicators to measure outcomes periodically. There needs to be coherence between the indicators of programmes that complement each other and try to achieve similar objectives.

A way of including gender in implementation and M&E practices is through creating mechanisms for women's Self-Help Groups (SHGs)³⁰ to participate in construction, monitoring, and maintenance of infrastructure and services. SHGs are well positioned to be vested with such responsibilities but they will need adequate training.

Align financial instruments to the gender equality objective of plans/programmes

There are ways in which women's contribution to the economy can be better accounted for (e.g. through the inclusion of invisible women's work in formal economic outputs (Were and Kiringa, 2004)). Gender-responsive budgeting calls for the application of gender analysis in the formulation and implementation of government

Box 6: Approaches to gender budgeting

The Australian government has adopted a 'three-way categorisation' for gender budgeting. This approach distinguishes between:

- a. Gender-specific expenditure
- b. Equal opportunity expenditure for civil servants
- c. Gender expenditure (the rest), considered in terms of its gender impact.

In the case of India, Kerala is one state that has made some progress towards gender-responsive budgeting with a gendered review of annual budgets and taking steps to institutionalise gender in the overall budget (Vijayan and George, 2010).

Source: Guha and Goswami, 2009

budgets (Schneider, 2008). A priority action in this context would be identifying the portion of budget allocated under a programme that is effectively contributing towards different genders. Budgetary allocations can also be assessed in terms of whether they are adequate for implementing gender-responsive projects. However, this might require a very detailed analysis of plans and sub-plans, which may not be readily available.

One way of creating incentive mechanisms could be by considering gender mainstreaming as one of the criteria for disbursement of funds from provisional/national governments and thus treating it as a reform agenda. However, experience shows that loopholes mean that reporting mechanisms do not reveal the reality about the extent of reform actually achieved on the ground (interview with stakeholders). Thus, this action needs to be implemented hand in hand with the implementation of a robust reporting mechanism.

In addition, co-ordinating donors funding across sectors and linking those funding efforts to government development schemes would lead to effective interventions. For instance, the nodal agencies managing donor funding could strategise to have different donor agencies focussing on different gender issues in the same urban area, i.e., adopting a portfolio approach in coordinating donor funding to have enhanced impact. Donor agencies might also think of adopting successful strategies for urban gender equality from each other (after contextualising them and in co-ordination with nodal government agencies) and implement those to new geographies.

Women's SHGs could also play a role in aligning financial instruments to the urban gender equality agenda. SHGs are common among urban poor women and form the basis of Micro-Finance Institutions which also lend funds to ULBs.

30 Self Help Groups (SHGs) are a homogenous group of 10-20 individuals (predominantly women) who come together for saving and internally helping each other in times of need. Group members are engaged in livelihood activities such as running a retail shop, cattle rearing, zari work, tailoring jobs, making candles, artificial jewellery etc. Each individual saves a fixed amount on a monthly basis. URL: <https://www.icicibank.com/rural/microbanking/shg.page>

Table 2: Example of the identification of women’s needs through consultation in the WASH Sector

What they had to say	What they asked for
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- First time we have ever been asked properly about our needs, concerns and coping strategies- Public, community toilets are unclean, unsafe and not usable – as a result, women defecate in the open- Not invited to discussions on toilet location, design and financing- Not included in the final decision- Managing menstrual hygiene is a challenge- Work in the most hazardous conditions at odd hours, with no safety equipment, job security, respect or dignity – shunned as unclean (sanitation workers and waste collectors)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Include us, ask us, listen to us when designing WASH facilities and planning their construction, location and future management- Provide us flexibility to design our WASH facilities within the schemes/policies so that we can choose a facility that suits our needs- Sanitation workers – ensure proper segregation, and do not force us to be exposed to unsafe waste, such as hospital and chemical waste, which is often mixed with domestic waste- Need access to financial mechanisms

Source: FANSA and WSSCC (2015)

Women’s SHGs can leverage that position to bargain with ULBs to include gender schemes in government programmes.³¹

Make robust databases

The collection of sex-disaggregated data at all levels and for all projects would be a good start towards understanding gender inequality in cities. Data collected for various purposes and by different agencies need to be collated and managed. Sex-disaggregated data can be collected through appropriate survey instruments designed to capture the work women do and their aspirations. Indicators to reflect such aspects need to be carefully developed (see Table 2).

6.1.2 Create enabling institutions by building capacity

The actions suggested to create enabling tools will require adequate institutional skills to support implementation.

Introduce gender learning in professional courses

Incorporating gender learning in planning, engineering and management courses would sensitise students to gender concerns in planning and equip them with skills that would help them understand gender issues better and subsequently incorporate this learning in the formal planning process.

Recently, the University Grants Commission of India expressed its intent to start courses on urban planning in more colleges and universities to bridge the shortage of urban planners in municipality ULBs. This is an opportunity to include gender-responsive planning in this curriculum (Jain, 2016).

Build awareness and skill across organisations

Gender issues are seldom part of the formal urban

planning/development discourse. Gender learning instituted in planning, engineering and other relevant courses needs to be supplemented by capacity-building at all levels of government. The focus of capacity-building should be training all staff on the formal/legal gender arrangements that have been instituted, including gender-oriented tools within planning processes, making these tools amply clear to planners, and training staff to be aware of how to include gender in plans.

Create partnerships for quick learning and implementation

If organisations do not have a history of incorporating gender considerations, a strategic entry point could be to work with NGOs or similar organisations that have worked on gender mainstreaming and incorporate their learning.

The Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) in India has been working with UN Women to mainstream gender into India’s rural livelihood and employment programmes. This partnership has helped MoRD to pass gender audit guidelines for reviewing and evaluating the works of various departments that are under the ministry. UN Women also helped MoRD in carrying out a gender-responsive evaluation of the Intensive Participatory Planning Exercise (IPPE) initiative.³²

Create responsive organisational platforms

Identifying organisational entry points for gender mainstreaming is important. This will require either training of the identified resource or creating a new position in the organisation. Positions could be created for gender experts throughout specific projects or a separate and permanent position for a gender expert could be created in the organisation.

31 This action requires further research on how exactly to be performed.

32 See https://jobs.undp.org/cj_view_job.cfm?cur_job_id=64156.

One common platform for regular exchange between ministries and agencies such as those for urban development and departments for women at the country level would be helpful. Something in line with the National Action Plan for Climate Change in India, which attempts to bring together all departments, can be considered for the gender equality agenda. For integrating databases, monitoring and evaluation indicators, the ministry responsible for statistics and programme monitoring in each of the countries can provide a single umbrella.

Technology can play a critical enabling role in successfully achieving many of the above suggested interventions. Effective use of technology will require leveraging skill from private sector as well as useful deployment of the Technology Facilitation Mechanism (TFM)³³ proposed by the UN.

6.2 Priority actions at the global level

The actions here indicate an urgent need for collaboration among countries for an enhanced focus on gender in global platforms.

Make urban women visible in databases and indices

One important measure will be to prepare countries and national level organisations to collect and manage data disaggregated by sex and geography (such as urban and rural) so that effective inference can be drawn from the same to further inform policies and actions. It will also be

worthwhile to design indicators in an incremental manner based on current data availability standards of countries, in order to enhance the quality, coverage and periodicity of data substantially. Identifying cross-linkages between targets under different SDGs is also crucial in this regard. The agencies under the auspices of the UN such as the Inter Agency Expert Group on SDG Indicators are already working towards bringing out a common set of indicators for measuring the SDGs. This could further inform the internationally comparable indices such as the HDI, GII, Gender Development Index and IHDI.

Activate regional and global platforms to enable monitoring and knowledge sharing

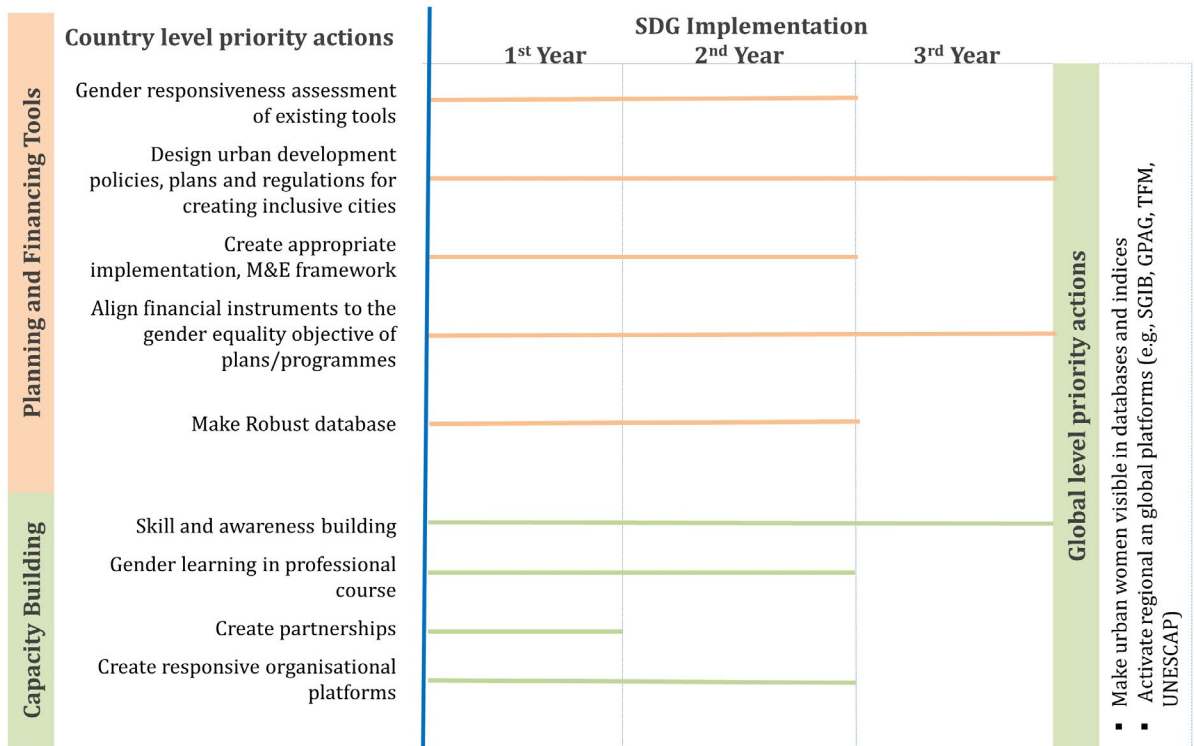
There have been important initiatives, such as the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) Gender Info Base and the SAARC Gender Policy Advocacy Group, which have mandates to monitor the regional situation and pursue policy advocacy towards achieving regional and global commitments.

Ensuring integration of efforts among agencies in the Technology Facilitation Mechanism proposed by the UN could provide a critical global platform for knowledge sharing, technology exchange and transfer.

The diagram opposite presents a summary of the priority actions proposed for the first 1,000 days of SDG implementation with regard to the selected SDG 5 targets. The actions are spread over the 1,000-day timeline considering the complexity of the challenges that might be experienced.

33 See <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/TFM> for details

Figure 9: Implementation timeline of priority actions



Source: CSTEP Analysis

7. Conclusion

The SDGs, including SDGs 5, 6, and 11, are broader in scope than their corresponding MDGs and have higher targets to achieve. The interconnected nature of the SDGs requires the global community and countries to develop cross-cutting thinking and coordinated mechanisms for implementation. SDG 5 is linked to many other SDGs (perhaps all of them), but specifically for our purposes, SDGs 6 and 11, relating to basic services and inclusive cities, respectively. These are also goals that are critical for addressing the LNOB agenda in cities across the world.

Women's empowerment in South Asia is considerably hindered by a lack of access to resources, economic opportunities, and safety in public spaces. Lack of access to basic services such as water, sanitation, and transport continues to limit women's rights in the city. In spite of political quota policies, inclusion and participation in decision-making is still largely a work in progress. Urban poor women are specifically vulnerable to these limitations and could be left behind while countries progress towards achieving the SDG targets.

Multi-pronged and multi-level actions should be a priority during the first 1,000 days of SDG implementation, which can create enabling conditions for the faster achievement of the targets in India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and Bangladesh. The priority actions identified in this study, need to be part of the urban reforms agenda as summarised below.

- There is a need to make urban policies and plans more gender-responsive: specifically, treating gender as a

determinant in the production of urban spaces. The concept of 'inclusive cities' can provide an overarching vision under which inequalities, including in gender, can be addressed. Securing financial support for gender-responsive planning would require instruments that allow for gender budgeting and the engagement of women-led microfinance institutions.

- Fostering inclusive-city principles would need actions in the policy space to endorse safer cities for women; mixed land use; land-use transport integration; promotion of safe public transport and non-motorised transport; safe access to water and sanitation; and to ensure women's rights to economic, social, and cultural opportunities, and the right to representation in decision-making. Including women in the formal institutional mechanisms of urban sector programmes is an important step towards gender mainstreaming in urban planning.
- It is necessary to build capacity for creating a repository of sex-disaggregated data and skills for gender mainstreaming in urban planning. This has to be complemented by building awareness and creating opportunities for early learning and partnerships, including with NGOs. Responsive organisational platforms and protocols can help effective implementation of the SDG 5 targets.
- Global-level actions need to support database creation, indicator designs and the revival of regional platforms. Coordination of external donor funding is also required to facilitate more effective and coherent implementation.

Annex: Plan assessment framework and mapping of findings

■ Yes
 ■ Partially yes
 ■ No
 Not available/can't say

SI Number	Description of criteria	Kathmandu Valley Strategic Development Master Plan, Nepal	Dhaka Structure Plan, Bangladesh	Mymensingh Strategic Development Plan	Sri Lanka Strategic Cities Development Project	National Physical Plan, Sri Lanka	Smart City Mission Guidelines, India	Housing For All Guidelines, India	Delhi Master Plan, India
A. Does gender find a place in the initial terms of reference and methodologies proposed for the planning exercise?									
1	Is gender implication of the planning tool identified at the plan preparation stage?	Not available	Partially yes	Yes	Partially yes	No	Not available	Not available	No
2	Are gender and/or awareness-building workshops proposed to be conducted at any stage of the planning exercise?	Not available	Not available	Yes	No	No	Not available	Not available	No
3	Is gender equality/women's empowerment a part of the plan objective or vision?	No	No	Partially yes	Partially yes	No	Partially yes	Partially yes	Partially yes
4	Does it propose a participatory approach with stakeholders from the community, including women?	Partially yes	Partially yes	Yes	Partially yes	Yes	Partially yes	Partially yes	Partially yes
B. Does the planning process actually include gender mainstreaming?									
1	Do planning exercises use sex-disaggregated data and indicators?	No	Partially yes	Partially yes	Not available	No	Not available	Partially yes	Partially yes
2	Do planning exercises apply gender-sensitive norms and standards (such as universal accessibility standards, etc.)	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Partially yes
3	Does it involve specific engagement with women in the stakeholder community through any or more of the following means?								
3a	Citizen feedback	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Yes	Not available	Not available
3b	Household-level survey	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	No	Not available	Not available	Not available
3c	Community-level meeting	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	No	Not available	Not available	Not available
3d	Focused group discussion	Not available	Not available	Yes	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
3e	Through self-help groups/community organisations	Not available	Not available	Yes	Not available	No	Not available	Not available	Not available
4	Have women's commissions/NGOs been consulted or engaged?	Not available	Not available	Partially yes	Not available	No	Yes	Partially yes	Partially yes
5	Have media and news outlets been used to seek the participation of stakeholders?	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available	No	No

SI Number	Description of criteria	Kathmandu Valley Strategic Development Master Plan, Nepal	Dhaka Structure Plan, Bangladesh	Mymensingh Strategic Development Plan	Sri Lanka Strategic Cities Development Project	National Physical Plan, Sri Lanka	Smart City Mission Guidelines, India	Housing For All Guidelines, India	Delhi Master Plan, India
6	Has any gender-budgeting exercise been carried out during the planning process?								
7	Have any gender-related capacity building/awareness workshops been conducted?								
C	Do the plan proposals include components that contribute to gender equality?								
1	Creation of public green/open spaces								
2	Creation of public transport								
3	Creation of non-motorised transport infrastructure (such as walkable, safe streets)								
4	Creation of enabling conditions for easy access to water?								
5	Creation of enabling conditions for easy access to improved sanitation facilities								
6	Creation of support infrastructure such as child-care and elderly-care facilities								
7	Creation of safe public spaces in general								
8	Is there any monitoring and evaluation framework proposed in the plan?								
9	Is there a women's monitoring mechanism proposed where women and girls track the development of a project in their own community?								
10	Is there a proposal to integrate technology to improve reporting violence in public spaces or against women?								

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This research paper, part of the series ‘Starting Strong: the first 1000 days of the SDGs’, identifies key actions toward addressing the unfinished business of the MDGs and how to reach those who are furthest behind in relation to the new SDGs.

The ‘Starting Strong’ series is a collaborative partnership to initiate a wider conversation around priority actions for the first three years of the SDGs – just over 1000 days – with relevant stakeholders with a regional focus.

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