

South-South Cooperation and the Gender Equality Factor in the Emerging Multilateralism



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Statistical, Economic and Social Research
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(SESRIC)



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Abbreviations and Acronyms

AfDB	African Development Bank
BAPA	Buenos Aires Plan of Action
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DFI	Development Finance Institutions
ECA	Economic Commission of Africa
FOCAC	Forum on China Africa Cooperation
GB	Gender Budget
GBB	Gender Based Budget
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring Report
GRB	Gender Responsive budget
IBSA	India, Brazil, and South Africa
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INSTRAW	International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LDC	Least Developed Countries
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organisation of Islamic Countries
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SESRIC	Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries
SIDS	Small Islands Developing Countries
SSC	South -South Cooperation
UN	United Nations
UNOSSC	United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation
UNWOMEN	The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

South-South Cooperation and the Gender Equality Factor in the Emerging Multilateralism

Fewstancia Munyaradzi¹ and George Kararach²

Introduction

The global South is emerging as a large market, attracting investors globally. Better linkages in the South demand a gender focus in the exchange of resources, technology, and knowledge. Several issues relating to gender need specific attention including access to education by women; risks of trafficking of women and children; trade and regional integration; poverty levels among women; democracy, human rights, and gender; as well as intellectual property rights, indigenous knowledge, and the role of women. Data and analysis are critical to deal with these issues and there is a role for capacity development to ameliorate them.

Several players contribute towards addressing the many facets of capacity challenges to enhance gender equality by supporting institutions, policy development, and program implementation processes at local, national, regional, and continental levels. There is also opportunity to draw on the experiences of specific women-lead initiatives in many spheres of society such as education, finance, climate change, and public health. This paper argues that gender – as a source of agency to enable women to exercise their life choices as well as mobilization for development – has been given limited attention despite the role women and men play in their various capacities (as parents, producers, leaders, etc.) in many societies of the Global South and North.

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There is a need to look critically at how South-South Cooperation (SSC) can enhance development and particularly the role that women can play in that form of cooperation. The chapter is divided into six sections. Section 2 briefly discusses the notion of SSC. Section 3 looks at key issues related to gender in the context of SSC using a historical perspective. We then look at emerging multilateral forms of SSC in section 4 and the link with gender. In section 5, we argue for the need to rethink development cooperation in the South in the context of gender as a source of agency and social mobilization for justice. Lastly, section 6 forms our conclusion.

Defining South-South Cooperation

Several definitions have been used to describe SSC – most of which come from international relations theory. Historically, the term SSC has been used (by policymakers and academics) to describe the exchange of resources, technology, and knowledge between countries of the Global South (United Nations Office for South-South and Triangular Cooperation and Pacific Islands Development Forum, 2019). There is now an attempt to include all collaboration between developing countries in that definition, along with the sharing of resources and costs for mutual benefit. Developing countries see SSC as a way of promoting self-sufficiency and strengthening economic ties among Southern nations (Hanson, Kararach, & Shaw, 2012). The nature of SSC has evolved over time from a focus on defeating colonialism to greater mutual partnerships based on economic diplomacy, which has coincided with the shift in the balance of economic and political power in the world. Countries are keen to see how they can benefit from ideas that have worked elsewhere, using them to advance development.

Today, the world is facing the prospects of rapid and highly disruptive technological advances. SSC can change the nature and expectations of such technological advances. Indeed, countless opportunities lie ahead for developing countries with respect to the future of work based on the prospects of global technological innovations. However, there are certain negative perceptions associated with the impending threat posed by technology to the social contract. According to the OECD, an average 9% of jobs in the OECD are at risk of automation (OECD, 2016). Two-thirds of jobs

in developing countries are susceptible to automation (World Bank, 2016b). If unresolved, these challenges threaten to erode the goals of development requiring the creation of 344 million jobs by 2030. This is in addition to the 190 million jobs needed today to address unemployment (International Labour Organisation, 2019).

SSC can be the key to ensuring global participation from workers particularly women and youth who are currently excluded from the labour market. For example, ILO and other organizations can protect and prevent a fundamental disruption and erosion in the world of work through SSC. While there is a risk of uneven implementation and exclusion of people in the informal sector and rural areas, SSC needs to reassess the rules and ensure the development of a human centered agenda that also incorporates human capabilities in the digital age. Developing countries can also create new opportunities through technological advance and open knowledge sharing.

Trade has increased across countries with the growth of SSC enabling official support and cooperation in matters linked to commercial and investment trade agendas. The BRICS, in their efforts to smoothen global financial shocks amongst its members, set up the Contingent Reserve Arrangement (CRA). CRA issues currency where members' national currencies are being adversely affected by global financial pressures. Emerging economies in the South have learnt that rapid economic liberalization increase economic volatility, bringing uncertain macroeconomic environment. In essence, the CRA is generally seen as a competitor to the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Another example from China is the 'preferential term loan agreements' with countries in the Global South. Countries such as Argentina that had previously faced credit restrictions from international banking institutions like the IMF have become beneficiaries of the new partnerships. This is because trade and investment from China have enabled key projects linked to infrastructure and finance development. In 2016, Argentina received US\$18.6 million through its trade deal with China. While previous loan agreements as per the Washington Consensus had a complex and widely criticized neoliberal model restriction in loan financing, due to 'conditionalities', China's trade policy with other countries in the South is based on the principle of non-intervention which

enables strategic trade and investment partnerships in areas such as energy and agriculture, without imposing a particular development model (Vadell, 2019).

The increase in investments through SSC has enabled China, and to a lesser extent India, to lead in the global export-oriented manufactured goods sector. Nevertheless, the full cost-benefit analysis between countries and groups needs to be assessed in detail.

South-South Cooperation in a Historical Perspective: A Search for Agency?

Developing countries view cooperation as a way to promote self-sufficiency and sovereignty and strengthen economic ties among Southern nations (Hanson, Kararach, & Shaw, 2012). This process has been shaped by the historical evolution of SSC from the Bogor Conference in 1954, the Bandung Conference of 1955, the Afro-Asian People's Solidarity Conference in Cairo in 1957, and the Belgrade Conference in 1961, which led to the establishment of the Non-Aligned Movement and subsequent support for anti-colonial struggles.

SSC has also been conceived as an expression of solidarity among countries and a way to collaborate outside of traditional approaches including North-South cooperation. Countries are keen to see how they can benefit from ideas that have worked elsewhere, using them to advance development. SSC includes elements of aid, knowledge and technology transfer, and trade and investment.

SSC has changed the nature of development aid and related architecture, which has shifted as several new entrants have joined the aid market. The covert effect has been a crowding-in of more development aid from existing players as they scramble to remain relevant. The response of the OECD countries to new entrants has been to become more selective yet deepen traditional socio-econ-political alliances. As pointed out by de Haan and Warmerdam (2013), countries provide aid for strategic reasons. The decision is driven by policies in trade, diplomacy models, security needs, and business

or commercial interests. When there is a fixed set of donors over a long period of time, fluctuation in aid levels reflects changes in donor policies with respect to the role they see for aid, spurred mainly by domestic policy/political changes. While SSC providers also have their own motivations for providing aid, they have redefined the frontier for aid and pushed the aid envelope toward higher levels (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013).

SSC has reduced developing countries' dependence on aid programs from developed countries, creating a shift in the international balance of power towards the Global South – especially economic and political power (King, 2010). SSC has great potential for increasing effectiveness and efficiency of aid through better learning, given the similarities in development stages, culture, and conditions among developing countries. It can engender solidarity between countries and has the potential to promote greater country ownership. The increasing sources of finance offer developing countries greater options in terms of the partnerships they pursue (de Haan & Warmerdam, 2013) as well as the ability to dictate their own development trajectory through greater independence and agency.

For example, cooperation between Brazil and Africa has grown in areas such as agro-diplomacy (whereby agriculture is at the center of international diplomacy), education, and biotechnology. Brazil has developed an increasingly successful model of overseas aid provision of over US\$1 billion annually (Cabral & Weinstock, 2010)(ahead of some traditional donors), which focuses on technical expertise and the transfer of knowledge through frameworks such as the IBSA (India, Brazil, and South Africa) Forum (Kararach et al., 2012; Shaw, 2012). Brazil's South-South development aid has been called a 'global model in waiting'. Africa has requested specific forms of assistance from Brazil including tropical agriculture, tropical medicine, vocational training, energy, and social protection (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013).

SSC is about much more than aid; it cannot be defined in the way Northern donors understand aid. Increasingly, SSC is taking place in a wide spectrum of things including emerging issues such as climate change and natural disasters, security, and communicable diseases; with the knowledge that these issues

are better dealt with on a regional basis through regional frameworks and networks (UNDP, 2005, p. 15). Arguably, the biggest integration and SSC effort in history is the 54-member African Union (AU). Since January 2005, the AU has made significant efforts towards economic and political integration throughout the continent. The 'SDGs and Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want' remains central to these efforts to rethink development in Africa (Kararach, Besada, & Shaw, 2015). As part of that process, 30 countries have signed the Memorandum of Understanding acceding to the African Peer Review Mechanism. Shaw (2017) argues that a formation of frameworks such as the Africa Mining Vision (AMV), under the auspices of the AU, is evidence of an evolving regional African agency. The AMV is seeking to redefine mineral governance on the continent.

Despite the opportunities SSC presents, it also has some important drawbacks and challenges. Civil society organizations (CSOs) have expressed concerns about ensuring that human rights and gender issues are factored concretely into SSC (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013). There has also been a lack of participation by parliamentarians and non-executive branches of government in the establishment of SSC deals, which are often made at the highest political level without broad inclusion. Young people and women remain marginal to the processes that drive multilateral cooperation including SSC despite efforts to correct such anomalies.

Gender and South-South Cooperation

Gender equality is explicitly discussed under the Sustainable Development Goal number 5 and Goal 2.13 of the OIC 2025 Programme of Action. The United Nations and the OIC consider gender crucial for empowering women and promoting gender equality. To achieve global success, there is a need for multi-party cooperation to prioritize all components that are critical to the economic, social and political empowerment of women. Implementing parties must possess synergy in order to ensure that each goal achieves its objective and in turn complements the success of other goals.

As Agarwal (2018) notes, SDG 5 has the potential to transform the livelihood of women through its focus on the right to property and land which can

enhance both national and household food security. The key to achieve the objectives of the SDG's is a call to action from multilateral agencies to recognize gender dynamics in the context of SSC. We look at how SSC, particularly multilateral approaches, can improve gender outcomes.

— *South-South Cooperation and Gender-Based Budgeting*

The discussion on SSC tends to focus on the exchanges that happen among states – especially in terms of trade and efforts at regional integration. However, when the gender-trade-regional integration nexus is examined deeply, it is clear women are unable to avail the opportunities to trade seamlessly. The challenges women face involve deep-seated poverty and gender inequalities, uncertain land rights, low education levels, and the responsibilities of caring for the family under constrained resources. Analysis using a gender lens indicates that women also lack the time, resources, and freedom to access services, and may be constrained by their dual roles as income earners and caregivers (Overseas Development Institute, 2010, pp. 1-2). Economic downturns affect women disproportionately in developing countries, exacerbating existing care work and prejudices (Tomlinson, 2016). There is inherent male-bias in efforts to pursue macroeconomic stability above all else. This recognition has ignited efforts at gender-based budgeting.

Gender-based budgeting (GBB) is a formalized and institutional process that involves the incorporation of gender analysis in an institution's budgeting measures and indicators (Edwards & Stewart, 2017). A broader and more widely used definition of gender-based budgeting is that it involves an incorporation of gender perspectives in the budgetary assessment at all levels. It includes the restructuring of revenues and expenditures in order to promote gender equality (Council of Europe, 2009).

Many governments have recently started to express their commitment towards the objectives of gender equality and gender mainstreaming in SSC by adopting gender sensitive macroeconomic policies. Since Australia took the lead with the development of GBB in 1984, several developing countries have successfully followed suit. In 1995, South Africa also began to monitor how the budgets differentially affected men and women. However, this system had shortcomings of its own. The work was never integrated into the

central budgeting process but instead budgets were allocated for specific departments where provisions were made to meet the projects. Nevertheless, the current Gender Responsive Planning system that is in place acknowledges that for gender equality to be achieved, both planning and budgeting should be involved in the planning cycle of the country's budgeting process system. More importantly, gender responsive budgeting (GRB) is crucial to not just assessing the needs of women but also for identifying measures through which gender gap in a country can be bridged through effective policy and legal reforms - as is evident from the experiences of OIC member states such as Morocco, Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Tunisia, and Yemen (Budlender, 2016). Other developing countries such as Uganda and Tanzania continue to implement their gender responsive strategy by working together with non – governmental organisations with the aim of facilitating interventions and overcoming obstacles in their promotion of gender equality.

More often, there are gaps between the policy statements by government and the way in which public spending and allocations are made; specifically within the broader objectives of gender equality (Elson, 2001; Moser, 1993). Public resources assigned often by-pass the crucial needs of beneficiaries such as women and children. While governments coordinate and consult with multilateral agencies, on the use and allocations of existing resources, some governments remain behind.

The cause of perpetual and prolonged inequality of women in society is often rooted in the policy commitments, which are not reflected through equal macroeconomic resource planning and assignment. This is also caused by a lack of relevant data and inadequate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Moreover, at times, resource allocations are not enough to meet the challenges at hand. For example, India started budgeting with a pre-Gender-based Budgeting (GBB) Women Component Plan (WCP) in the Ninth Plan (1997-2002). The WCP required both the central and state governments to ensure that no less than 30% of the plan (development) funds benefit women (Nair & Moolakkattu, 2018). The Philippines also had a similar approach where initially 5% of the budget of all national-level agencies was mandatorily to be allocated for gender and development. This was later extended to other parts of government, including the local bodies. However, this approach tends to

overlook whether previous allocations have had an impact on gender dynamics and on the lessons learnt. There is also a need to look at the power dynamics within gendered situations.

One of the ways in which SSC and gender budgeting can be effective is by looking at decentralization as an effective way to improve GBB. The engagement of local and provincial governments makes GBB more effective, since these departments are closer to communities and are capable of micro managing challenges faced by women as compared to national government. For example, in Kerala in India, the success of GBB had fewer impacts as planning and budgeting were not effectively integrated; instead, budgets were inflated by officials (Government of Kerala, 2015a; Government of Kerala, 2015b). Latin American countries have mastered the art of introducing effective GBB at micro levels. Lessons learnt from local governments in Latin America ensure the use of accurate data systems, which facilitate the collection, processing and analysis of accurate sex- disaggregated data (Kristin, Xhelo, & Wittberger, 2012, p. 26). At the macro level, GBB has ensured governments mainstream the promotion of gender equality in fiscal frameworks. Gender based budgeting initiatives (GBI) are usually country specific and often depend on the political will of the government.

— *South- South Cooperation and Gender Rights*

The challenges of informality, unemployment, physical and sexual violence, as well as poverty continue to affect women disproportionately (Chant, 2008). This scenario unfortunately sees 'women working for development as opposed to development working for women' leading to the feminization of poverty (Chant, 2008, p. 183). Gender rights in SSC have been facilitated in several countries by agencies such as the UN Women. UN Women has effectively shared knowledge, experiences, and best practice with developing countries through collaboration with governments and civil society groups, alike.

In OIC member states, developing appropriate legislative and administrative measures to promote the rights of women, to fight against all forms of gender violence, and combat violence against women is a vital goal endorsed by the OIC 2025 Programme of Action. It is a goal that has important implications

for the advancement and empowerment of women in the OIC member states. In service towards the facilitation of the rights of women, the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) encourages the adoption of national measures, policies, strategies, and laws that protect the rights of women and protect women from all forms of gender violations. Similarly, countries such as Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, South Africa, and Nicaragua have also benefitted from SSC, leading to the development of new strategies by governments. However, gender violations continue to prevail.

The discussion around upholding human rights, including the rights of women, is not a government issue alone but also requires a concerted effort among all members of society. Arguably, despite the opportunities presented by SSC, governments must work together with multilateral organisations by boosting investment, research, and learning and engage support and knowledge that empowers women and demonstrates their political will.

— *South-South Cooperation: Gender and Education*

Education is another area where significant development gains can be made by investing in women and girls. Investment in improving the quality of education is critical for a well-managed transition into a knowledge society. The SDGs make attainment of education by women a key priority. Similarly, the OIC 2025 Programme of Action also realizes the importance of education in bridging the gender gap and seeks to reduce educational discrepancies between men and women to a standard 2% level in OIC member states by 2025 (Organisation of Islamic Cooperation, 2016, p. 13). However, despite the progress achieved during the MDG period, education enrolment of girls remains problematic particularly in remote and rural communities. Quality of education and gender is an important area where SSC needs to be harnessed, particularly as it relates to support in the social sectors (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013). The involvement of the community and parents remains a key factor in the successful participation of girls in education. Influence rallied thorough community support is likely to transform attitudes and perceptions of education amongst parents (Yuki, Mizuno, Ogawa, & Mihoko, 2013) and is a key strategy to ensuring increased educational participation of girls.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) gives high priority to triangular cooperation projects. Their approach strengthens community participation and involvement, enabling better access to higher quality basic education among vulnerable groups especially girls (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2010). South-South and triangular technical cooperation have proved to be successful in an experimental model implemented under JICA.

Another notable example of joint action and cooperation in the field of education is OIC's Educational Exchange Programme, under which various OIC member states have sought to improve access to education for students in 15 low-income countries by offering scholarships for at least 650 students; with some scholarships providing opportunities to female students. OIC's Islamic Development Bank also has a similar Scholarship Program that aims to build the capacity of students (especially of women and young people in rural areas) in the OIC member states by funding their education at top ranked institutions around the world.

The Broadening Regional Initiative is also a similar initiative for Developing Girls' Education (BRIDGE) introduced in rural communities in Yemen between 2005 and 2008. The participatory management school programme was aimed at addressing the demand and supply side challenges that influence the attendance of girls in school. The intervention model hoped to eliminate low female student enrolment in basic education in rural communities. Yemen has low literacy levels especially among its rural communities, with only a third of women being literate despite education being free and compulsory for 6-15 year olds (Duret, Abdulmalik, & Jones, 2010, p. 9). The program was effective and demonstrated ways in which technical collaboration under SSC can improve gender parity in education. However, because of the strong reliance on cooperation from the community, the program needs to be monitored in order to provide long-term guidance.

— *South-South Cooperation: Climate Change and Gender*

Climate change is a challenge for all countries, including China, one of the leading nations undertaking SSC. While China's economy is growing at a rapid speed, numerous concerns are being raised about the environmental

repercussions. This is because the environmental costs of this rapid growth are finally becoming visible. China's expansive manufacturing export industry requires a lot of electricity, with its energy demands of coal putting a strain on the world's resources. However, while China has had challenges in managing its climate adaptations, it is not the only one. Africa faces similar challenges with pollution from oil in the Niger Delta. Developing countries face challenges when it comes to maintaining climate regulations considering they "feel the need to catch-up" to development. Therefore, global discussions between Africa and its partners have shifted towards dialogue on environmental investments and issues such as renewable energy and biotechnology. China-Africa relations have grown significantly over the last decade with many African countries looking towards replicating the Chinese economic governance model (Aiping & Zhan, 2018). For example, in recent FOCAC, China pledged between US\$15 Billion and US\$20 billion for the development of sustainable development projects in Africa.

This relationship has been reaffirmed through greater globalization and SSC with outcomes such as the Joint Forum on China-Africa Cooperation (FOCAC). The forum includes cooperation on a variety of matters including climate change and environmental sustainability. Since its inception in 2000, the forum has proved to be an effective platform and multilateral mechanism for China and Africa to conduct collective consultations and cooperation. As part of its effort to bolster its climate agenda, China proposed an investment of US\$3.1 billion in its South-South Cooperation Climate Fund. The fund established in 2015 demonstrates China's vision for clean energy. China has also proposed to engage in 50 projects for green development and environmental protection pledging to raise awareness on climate change and environmental protection. This was done with the setting up of a China-Africa Environmental Cooperation Centre. China has also implemented Africa Green Envoys Programme to strengthen Africa's human capacity for environmental management, pollution prevention and control, and green development, to continue to enhance capacity building and promote the green development of Africa. It is very encouraging that China has committed at the 76th General Assembly of the United Nations that it would not build new coal-fired power projects abroad adding to pledges to deal with climate change. Globally, there

is need for more speedy effort towards investments and visible outcomes of SSC and climate change mitigation, otherwise women stand to miss progressive reforms due to their involvement in agriculture sector as discussed below.

When addressing climate change, women's needs cannot be ignored – particularly in the developing world. This is not just because of their involvement in the agriculture sector but also because climate change has direct impact on women's lives and livelihoods. For example, in Bangladesh the frequent occurrence of natural disasters has an effect on women's ability to cope with rebuilding or access to resilient measures because of their lower socio-economic status, lack of access to information and public services, and gender inequality in education, income, and participation in decision-making. As a result, they are not able to respond to/or adequately prepare for climate change related phenomena (Haider, 2017).

It is also of consequence that women are some of the worst affected victims of climate related emergencies because of their increased vulnerability (UNISDR, 2013). For instance, in the aftermath of natural disasters women face threats such as human trafficking, child marriage, sexual exploitation, and forced labour as compared to men (Haider, 2017). Similarly, female migrants that relocate due to climate change also face challenges and risks that are specific to them. There is also a disregard for women's practical needs during a climate emergency and in the rebuilding process, often evident from the lack of access to toilets, lack of access to menstrual hygiene products, and lack of access to maternal health.

Yet, women can play an important role in responding to climate change within their communities. For instance, women can mitigate climate change by changing consumption patterns in their households through the efficient use of energy sources with low-footprint and techniques that can optimize the use of energy. Therefore, gender is a key factor that needs consideration when addressing climate change and climate resilience – especially in the developing world. South-South cooperation can be a critical instrument in addressing climate change because of its central role in addressing interlinkages such as eradication of poverty and reduction of gender

inequalities in developing world. According to UN Secretary-General, Antonio Guterres, 'enhanced cooperation can help developing countries learn from each other and grow more quickly, close income gaps and build inclusive, resilient societies' (UN, 2019). Much like gender equality, climate change is an intersectional issue that has significant implications for sustainable development efforts.

In OIC member states, climate change poses existential threats to communities due to increased volatility in weather, decline in agriculture production, recession of water levels and quality, high dependence on climate-sensitive resources, and low adaptation abilities due to technological, financial, and infrastructural hurdles (Organisation of Islamic Cooperation, 2019). At the same time, much like in various developing countries in the global South, OIC member states have made several efforts directed towards addressing the role of gender in climate change. Policies and programs dealing with gender and climate change tackle a range of issues from gender mainstreaming in climate change programs, building the resilience of women in response to climate change, implementing community level initiatives that can help women in adapting to and mitigating climate change using sustainable instruments and mechanisms, and promoting gender equality.

For example, the Bangladesh Climate Change and Gender Action Plan is a comprehensive strategy document whose central purpose is to mainstream gender equality into climate change policies, strategies, and interventions (Ministry of Environment and Forest, 2013). It integrates gendered perspectives in the areas of food security, social protection, and health; comprehensive disaster management; infrastructure; mitigation and low carbon development; research and knowledge management; and capacity building and institutional strengthening (Ministry of Environment and Forest, 2013). Similarly, the Solar Energy Program (NOOR) in Morocco is one of the largest concentrated solar power (CSP) facilities in the world with a noteworthy focus on efforts that address gender equality at the construction, maintenance, and operation phases of the program (African Development Bank Group, 2019). The program also aims to reduce gender inequality by introducing initiatives such as 'gender-responsive relocation and compensation plan, programs to combat gender-based violence and human

trafficking, supportive healthcare programs, and recruitment, training, and retention of women as part of the labour force' (Rojas, Siles, & Owren, 2019, p. 6).

— *Gender: Agriculture and the Food System in the Global South*

Around the world, agriculture sector employed 27% of all the women in the workforce in 2017 (SESRIC, 2018). In OIC member states, this number was considerably higher than the world average at 41% (SESRIC, 2018, p. 42). Women are key players in the global food production process but they face challenges associated with access to land and natural resources. These challenges limit their ability to produce and procure food (Agarwal, 2018) despite being the main actors in the agricultural food system. Climate change has a strong correlation to food insecurity and adverse changes have an impact on crop production. Global estimates predict that crops will decline by 50% in the tropics by 2050 due to climate change. Dialogues on SSC-food-security nexus have focused on the global South due to the large scale of production in that part of the world.

Efforts, innovations, and interventions in agriculture have been increasingly directed towards empowering women and, more recently, youth engagement in agriculture. The Alliance for financial inclusion, established in 2008, is a knowledge-sharing network present in over a 100 developing countries. The collaboration shares knowledge, ideas, and financial resources. The alliance demonstrates how financial regulators, through collaboration, can exchange ideas related to climate emergencies that affect women and youth. Diverse actors have come together globally, setting global targets and reaching a consensus on how to ensure gender equality in agriculture, ending hunger, and poverty reduction.

Another similar initiative is OIC's 'Working Group on Financial Inclusion' formed in 2017 to promote 'financial inclusion, efforts towards improving access to finance, financial education, and consumer protection', which is crucial to reducing poverty and boosting social and economic success of the OIC member states (Alliance for Financial Inclusion, 2017). The Working Group was established in response to OIC member states' realization of the role that

Islamic social finance mechanisms can play in improving the financial inclusion of vulnerable segments of society across various sectors. In fact, the World Bank also agrees on the potential of Islamic social finance instruments in reducing poverty and inequality, with a critical focus on enhancing access to finance and financial inclusion (Mohieldin, Iqbal, Rostom, & Fu, 2011).

Collaboration on global goals such as Sustainable Development Goal 5 also has the potential to ensure gender equality by placing emphasis on empowering women, ending discrimination and unequal division, and unpaid care and domestic work. At the regional level, the OIC has adopted a set of initiatives and strategic documents such as the OIC-2025-Programme of Action, the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW), and OIC Women Development Organisation to empower women and addressing gender inequalities. To achieve these global and regional goals in the domain of women's empowerment, it is necessary that countries, international organisations, governments, and civil society continue to have dialogues in order to have a clearer sense of how to engage women and have better economic and social inclusion. Ensuring global food security is an ambitious and multi-scale endeavor (Agarwal, 2018). However, an even more complex is ensuring adequate and sustainable global distribution of food. This can only be made possible through a global cooperative effort towards fully engaging women in the food systems and addressing local practices that disfavor women. It is also important to have more gender-disaggregated data on land distribution and land ownership in order to mitigate some gender-based inequalities.

SDG 5 could have a larger impact if the role of women in food security is focused on areas such as natural resources management, property rights, and land access. Agarwal (2018) argues that natural resources, which include forest and fisheries, can provide additional sources of nutritional diversity since women are more likely to gather food from these areas. Giving them access to this land would enable them to have more property rights and almost guarantee a secure food system (Agarwal, 2018). It is up to stakeholders to take advantage of the opportunities created through SSC as a platform to create synergies on how to include women in a broader discussion on global food security.

— *Migration in a Dynamic World Economy*

While migration has been an inherent feature of human existence, it has taken on a new meaning in the modern world economy - with substantial focus on labour migration from developing countries to high-income countries. A noticeable pattern has been the feminization of migration (UN INSTRAW, 2007)(Table 1), whereby there is a trend towards a higher percentage of women among voluntary as well as forced migrants (International Labour Organisation, 2018; Lan, 2006).

The feminization of migration has led to a rise in concerns regarding women's security (such as human rights issues) in the host country, the destination country, and through the migratory journey (UN INSTRAW, 2007). The shift in migration has several implications including patterns of remittances and their economic impacts, family cohesion, the racialization of migrants, human trafficking, gendered division of labour, and economic as well as educational opportunities (Donato, Gabaccia, Holdaway, Manalansan IV, & Pessar, 2006). The gendered division of labour must always include reproductive labour to account for the work performed within the domestic, informal, or private sphere and which is critical in sustaining the household (e.g. cleaning, cooking, childcare and rearing, etc.) and the formal economy. Lan (2006) argues that reproductive labour enables paid, productive labour to take place. There is a tendency in literature to ignore the fact that reproductive labour is typically performed by women. As dominant gender discourses are threaded throughout labour ideologies, domestic work has historically been considered a "natural" part of a woman's duties and identity. Feminized labour has traditionally been considered as "unskilled" and, thus, has gone unpaid in both the global South and the rest of the world. This is despite its essential contribution to market economy functionality. However, when women migrate to perform domestic labour, "unpaid home labour in the domestic sphere becomes paid labour in international spaces" (ibid).

Table 1: Female migrants in total international migrants (in %), by major area, 1960-2010

Major area	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
World	46.6	47.2	47.4	47.9	48.8	48.4
More developed regions	47.9	48.2	49.4	50.8	50.9	50.1
Less developed regions	45.7	46.3	45.5	44.7	45.7	47.3
Europe	48.5	48.0	48.5	51.7	52.4	56.7
Northern America	49.8	51.1	52.6	51.0	51.0	49.3
Oceania	44.4	46.5	47.9	49.1	50.5	39.5
Northern Africa	49.5	47.7	45.8	44.9	42.8	45.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	40.6	42.1	43.8	46.0	47.2	47.2
Southern Asia	46.3	46.9	45.9	44.4	44.4	47.4
Eastern and South-eastern Asia	46.1	47.6	47.0	48.5	50.1	56.7
Western Asia	45.2	46.6	47.2	47.9	48.3	47.4
Caribbean	45.3	46.1	46.5	47.7	48.9	49.7
Latin America	44.7	46.9	48.4	50.2	50.5	49.7
Members of Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC)	Na	Na	Na	46.2	46.1	45.1

Source: Adapted from Zlotnik (2003); and World Bank (2011), World Bank Gender Statistics Database (2020) dataset

Assumptions regarding the reasons why women migrate have caused popular debate in developing countries (UN INSTRAW, 2007). Female migration has significant economic impacts amongst others. Studies from Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Malaysia show that women migrants seek employment abroad primarily to help pay for their families' basic expenses and care needs. As of 2015, migrant workers remitted over \$601 billion to their countries of origin (World Bank, 2016a). Developing countries received over \$441 billion of that total, three times as much as the developmental assistance and almost as much as the foreign direct investment they received (World Bank, 2016a; Ratha, 2019). In developing countries like Nepal, foreign remittances account

for almost 25% of GDP (Seddon, Adhikari, & Gurung, 2010). According to the World Bank Development Indicators dataset, in some OIC member countries like Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan this share exceeded 28% in 2019. Besides, many migrant workers send remittances through informal channels, so the actual total is likely to be higher. Most of such remittances go towards poverty reduction at the household level. For example, Bhadra (2007) showed that 45% Nepalese women migrants used their remittances exclusively to provide basic needs such as food, healthcare, and schooling for their children. There is a consensus that such remittances help countries of origin cope with financial gaps linked to trade deficits, reduce pressures on local currency, and reduce external debt. While remittances have spurred development in some countries, in other communities they have adversely affected growth because these are temporal sources of finance (Rosewarne, 2012). Moreover, remittances that feed a country's budget can at times be a result of violent, slavery like, practices endured by women and the poverty and low GDPs in these countries pave the way for exploitation from other rich Southern countries. This is another paradoxical issue to address in the area of SSC on migration.

Migration can also disrupt smooth social reproduction and stability of the household in the global South. The emigration of mothers can profoundly affect the social and emotional well-being of their children. A study from Sri Lanka showed that the children with mothers working abroad suffered from mental health conditions at higher rates as compared to the control group (Senaratne, Perera, & Fonseka, 2011). The children's educations are also affected by the lack of supervision and parental support (Suarez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002). Despite migrant mothers' efforts to remain in touch with their children, their interactions are often irregular and "fall short of meaningful exchange" for proper nurturing. As a result, these children often grow up without getting to know their parents.

In some instances, women migrate in order to escape oppressive gender norms, leaving their home in pursuit of economic independence and freedom. This can strengthen a woman's position in the family by improving her relative bargaining position. Women workers have greater advantage in the household because they have a degree of control over their economic assets.

Migration also has impacts on destination countries. For example, migration enables the transfer of reproductive labour from privileged women in high-income countries to women migrant domestic workers from developing countries. This delegation of household work enables more women from developed countries to pursue their careers in the same way men do (Parrenas, 2000). Browne and Braun (2008) argue that the United States' reliance on women migrant workers in the long-term care sector has legitimized the low pay of workers in this industry and devalued the eldercare profession. This is just another example of exploitation under a rigid neo-liberal economy, whereby women are organs and tools of such a system and social classes demarcate between the patterns of exploitation. The power dynamics dictate the pattern of exploitation whether from powerful men or women.

Finally, there is adequate evidence that, in many cases, migration is associated with exploitation and abuse. Women migrant workers tend to be engaged in informal sectors and largely outside of labour legislation and welfare provisions of the host country (ILO, 2008). Exploitation that is exacerbated by weak labour inspection services. Domestic workers in particular are often also isolated and become dependent upon their employers. Examples of maltreatment include: not getting paid, restricted movement, removal of personal identity documents, long shifts, working for a whole week without days-off, sexual exploitation and trafficking, and poor living conditions with inadequate food and water, confiscation of personal belongings such as phones as well as denial of breaks from work. Women migrant workers were, in many cases, mistreated, isolated, and killed by their employers (Mahdavi, 2014). The rights of women domestic workers can be protected through SSC with support of organisations such as the ILO outlining appropriate protocols.

— *Intellectual Property Rights, Indigenous Knowledge, and Women in Development*

Kararach, Leautier, and Luhanga (2013) argue that the economic, political, and social dimensions of intellectual property rights demonstrate a contrast between the North and the developing Southern regions with significant gender implications. While the North pushes for greater intellectual property rights protection and enforcement, the South exercises some political unity at

the international level and advances development in innovation and technology to address critical socio-economic problems albeit with limited use of a gender lens. Unfortunately, the South has so far had limited success in advancing a common agenda and individual efforts are often uncoordinated or challenged by pressure from the North (Biadgleng, 2007) resulting in limited technological transfers. Northern countries have typically dominated global governance of intellectual property in critical areas such as computing, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, artificial intelligence, and industrial systems. Differences also exist between Northern and Southern countries in the levels of support for policymaking related to knowledge generation and transfers.

There has been limited development of policies and norms in multilateral and bilateral negotiations supported by developing countries. Developing countries have weak coordination despite similarity of interest and lack binding norms among themselves (Kararach, 2010, pp. 14-22). As a result, some countries have opted to go-at-it-alone as is the case of China with respect to telecommunication technology/5G. SSC can undoubtedly play a complementary role to multilateral, regional, and bilateral norm setting on intellectual rights (Claxton, 2010).

SSC has the potential to support both indigenous and externally sourced knowledge and innovation, particularly innovations that unlock women's potential that are important to the successful execution of SSC policies. User evidence shows that technology can transform the lives of women and girls. In particular, the usage of ICT can enable women to gain new opportunities in the public sphere, in particular in enterprises or business (Cummings & O'Neil, 2015). In this context, for instance, the Indonesian Women Information Technology Awareness Organization (IWITA) has helped Indonesian women in becoming technologically literate in ICT that enables them to use ICT for the growth of women-led microenterprises. This initiative helped thousands of women in transforming their lives by improving the success rates of their enterprises (Suwana & Lily, 2017). The Global South needs to pay special attention the role of indigenous knowledge in SSC and their development (Leautier, 2004). Indigenous knowledge and sustainable development are very

closely linked and indigenous knowledge can be extracted, replicated, and deployed at relatively low costs.

Policy makers need to recognize that differences exist in the way men and women have historically accessed research and development outcomes and the protection of intellectual property rights. In addition, research and development may be divorced from indigenous knowledge as it relies upon traditional platforms of knowledge. Dahlman (2007) noted a strong innovation-learning-gender nexus and Pritchett (2010) has shown that a society that has social equality and tolerance is more likely to have a polity that represent the will of all citizens and uses skilled people regardless of gender to create and use knowledge. A society with such norms would be more inclusive and able to extract high performance at the administrative level and achieve economic prosperity and high productivity – an approach that allows for smart-partnerships as advocated among the G77 (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013).

— *Data, Evidence-Based Analysis and Gender in Planning*

Data remains a major factor for countries seeking to plan their development (see for example Jerven, 2013 on data issues in Africa) as well as to deepen South-South and triangular cooperation in their programming, operational support, including donor support to Least Developed Countries (LDCs), Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and in related advocacy efforts. In the case of gender-responsive budgeting, for example, data is critical for facilitating exchange of knowledge, lessons learned, and good practices from Ministries of Finance across LDCs, SIDS and beyond so that countries in the south can benefit from mutual support initiatives and integrate gender equality in national budget planning. This means that women and girls will benefit from inclusive sectoral budgetary allocations that meet their specific needs and priorities. For example, using the South-South cooperation approach, UN Women facilitated the exchange of knowledge and good practices on gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) from Ministries of Finance across LDCs, SIDS, and beyond. The discourse on GRB opened doors for Afghan women in the unlikely area of security sector with the idea of building the capacity of women as entrepreneurs and workers, so that instead of outsourcing the uniforms for

the Afghan Security personnel including army they would be made by Afghan women and purchased from Afghan women, paving the way for their economic empowerment.³

Some of the main challenges of accomplishing South-South and triangular cooperation that advances gender equality is not just data but also the lack of technical capacity, awareness, and institutional will among stakeholders who are not working on gender equality, social inclusion, and protection issues directly (Kararach, Leautier, & Luhanga, 2013). To address this gap, it is critical for countries and development partners to develop a strategy that identifies strategic entry points for integrating gender concerns and goals into south-south cooperation systematically.

For SSC to have greater meaning, remain relevant and inclusive, there is a need for greater gender-based planning. Mainstreaming a gender perspective into policies, programmes, and projects requires that both women's and men's needs are specifically identified and then taken into consideration at all stages of the policy cycle. Gender planning demands that policies, programmes, or projects are designed and implemented using a gender perspective and it takes place in the second stage of the policy cycle. This approach seems to be largely missing in the way SSC is being currently pursued.

— *The Private Sector and Gender Roles*

Sustainable development implies taking concrete steps to accommodate the interest of all stakeholders including government, civil society, the private sector, men, women, and young people. As we noted, SSC is diversifying development cooperation landscape and means through a variety of flexible cooperation modalities such as knowledge exchanges, technology transfers, mutual learning, peer-to-peer support, and innovative financing. Private sector engagement will be critical in delivering both SSC and Agenda 2030, in terms of growth generation, job creation, research and development,

³ <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2016/11/take-five-South-South-cooperation>

innovative capacity, and financial and technical resources. The OIC 2025 Programme of Action also puts a special emphasis on the role of private sector for development. In particular, the Programme highlights that the private sector engagement will play a crucial role for achieving the goals of the Programme of Action by increasing the productivity and competitiveness in the OIC member countries. In turn, this is speculated to stimulate industrialization and associate with higher international trade volumes and rapid economic growth. Also strengthening the private sector will help increase the number of domestic and foreign investors.

The private sector remains at the core of South-South investment flows. South-South investment flows are an important financing source for developing countries to achieve the desired technological and knowledge spillovers and related productive capacity. As noted in the Addis Ababa Action Agenda for financing development, leveraging the private sector's potential in South-South cooperation is critical to achieve the SDGs, its wider scope, and huge investment needs. The private sector stands to provide the required innovative and scalable solutions.

Using a gender-lens, the private sector needs to improve the visibility of women in economic activities in developing countries – especially women's employment. In Africa, for example, women account for close to 70% of those working in agriculture and those working in employment that is insecure or poorly paid. In 2019, these statistics were at 64% and 70% in Mali and Niger, respectively (International Labour Organisation, 2020). The financial and global economic crisis has worsened income poverty and unemployment in developing countries and there are a projected 200 million new working poor earning less than \$2 a day – mostly in the informal economy, the majority of whom are women (Kararach, Besada, & Shaw, 2015).

More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic has affected all segments of the society, but its effect on women has been more profound. Women are faced with increased health risks, lack of economic opportunities, food insecurity, emotional, physical, and mental abuse, as well as a rise in stigma and discrimination due to containment measures (SESRIC, 2020). Consequently, employment rates and labour income earnings were reported to have

decreased amongst women in many developing countries in the first half of 2020. The negative impacts of the pandemic are expected to further exacerbate existing gender disparities in a number of developing countries.

The Overseas Development Institute (ODI) (2010) notes that when women own and control resources and have access to a good education, it results in reduced poverty and greater productivity. Yet, despite proven results, we noted earlier that many women are still barred from education and ownership of businesses due to prevailing attitudes and discriminatory laws. There is high variability in female participation in ownership of companies across the global South. In Africa, only 16 percent of countries have significant depth of female participation in ownership of domestic firms; close to 20 percent of countries do not have gender disaggregated data necessary to gauge progress in this area. This takes place on the back of AU protocols that outlaw discrimination against women.

It is commendable that donors are increasingly using aid to promote, attract, and subsidize private sector investment in developing countries. While such donor support is key in ending poverty it can also be used to help developing countries design and adopt economic models that are more equitable and sustainable and create decent economic opportunities. However, there is a considerable risk as well. Putting a profit motive on the private sector, particularly in sectors like health and education, increases the likelihood of unaffordable user fees, privatization of public services, and land grabbing where there is poor governance (ActionAid, 2015). These trends may worsen gender outcomes in development.

There are also concerns about financing instruments that development finance institutions (DFIs) use to support countries in development cooperation. The argument is that DFIs rely on complex financial arrangements, and more importantly, they tend to operate in environments with legal frameworks that tend to be in tax havens. As a result, an increased use of DFIs leads to an increased use of tax havens (Eurodad, 2014a; Eurodad, 2014b) and greater debt burdens for partnering countries (ibid). In addition, modalities such as blended finance also require clearer alignment to development effectiveness principles (Oxfam, 2017). Unfortunately, DFIs rarely include developing countries in their decision-making processes and

are often characterized by weak transparency and the absence of redress mechanisms for affected communities. In addition, aid's ability to "leverage" additional private finance is also questionable (European Court of Auditors, 2014). These arguments point to the limited rationale for subsidizing private investment unless it clearly supports national development strategies, addresses real issues of market failure, and increases public revenues. There is an opportunity for Southern led development finance institutions to address such gaps. Indeed, several development partners in SSC are using gender markers to ensure mainstreaming of gender issues in project design and implementation.

Deconstructing Gender in Development Cooperation as a Basic: Political Economy, Democratization, and Humanism

Analyzing development cooperation and understanding the role of inequality in the efforts to create democratic and humane societies remains rare. Some recent work has begun to explore long-term inequality trends in the Global South (Bertola, Castelnova, Rodriguez, & Willebald, 2008; Bolt & Hillbom, 2016; Alfani & Tadei, 2017; Jerez, 2014; Merette, 2013; Milanovic, Lindert, & Williamson, 2011; Rodriguez Weber, 2015). However, much remains to be done before we understand the trends, drivers, and mechanisms of long-term inequality in today's developing world and their long-term implications for SSC.

Arguably, respecting women's rights is the primary reason for working towards gender equality and gender disparity is one of the important predictors of poverty and powerlessness in a modern economy. Gender inequalities persist in the economy and decision-making and can manifest in the form of violence against women and girls, as well as restrictions on sexual and reproductive health rights, land ownership, and the right to vote. These infringements of women's rights hold back many women from escaping from poverty or sharing power in society. There is a clear need for a platform for agency that does not seek to accommodate women in development but integrates gender issues and interactions (Visvanathan, Duggan, Nisonoff, &

Wiegersma, 1997). In this regard, SSC should be considered as one such platform.

Gender gap is fueled by the fact that women are more likely to be employed in the informal sector, with lower wages and less job security, as opposed to higher positions in politics and corporate power structures. Consequently, national laws often take a piecemeal and incoherent approach to addressing gender inequality, for instance, implementing policies that increase job opportunities for women but without adjacent policies to prevent low wages or to promote adequate working conditions and high-quality childcare (Oxfam, 2019). There are estimates that achieving gender equality can boost the world's economy by \$28 trillion by 2025 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2015) and go a long way to help end extreme poverty. For instance, there is a consensus that by improving mothers' education, children's likelihood of having better health and educational outcomes can greatly improve (World Bank, 2012).

Women also play a pivotal role in defending and promoting peace in their communities and countries. Women are known to have a significant influence at the grassroots level in a community. In fact, if women are not involved in peace processes, peace is likely to be unsustainable. In this context, the inclusion of women is of vital importance for effective mediation and peace processes. The effective engagement of women into the mediation and negotiation processes is likely to increase the likelihood of success in negotiations and end up with peaceful solutions (SESRIC, 2019). It is reported that when women are an integral part of peace processes, peace agreements are 35% more likely to last over 15 years (O'Reilly, Suilleabhain, & Paffenholz, 2015). Engaging women to constructively support peace processes has yielded results in different parts of the world like Aceh (SESRIC, 2019). These examples show the transformative effects of adopting a gender focus in development policies and programs.

There is now a recognition that when development cooperation is dedicated to tackling the structural causes of gender inequality and gender justice is mainstreamed throughout development programmes and policies, donors can have a significant impact on tackling both economic inequality and

gender inequality (Oxfam, 2019). This approach to development cooperation must be accompanied with practical steps to adopt policies that advance gender justice as part of broader governance and economic reforms of the world economy. As noted above, for example, gender budgeting can foster greater participation of women in decision-making. Improved health and education for women and girls can significantly boost their life chances and their ability to claim their rights across the board. To illustrate, UN Women in Rwanda supported civil society groups by analyzing the gender responsiveness of spending on agriculture — a sector where many women make their livelihoods. Data collected by these groups informed advocacy that encouraged a 26% jump in Rwanda’s agricultural budget from 2009 to 2011 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2015). Development partners can also improve the gender impact of cooperation by making any support contingent on governments embedding gender indicators in national poverty reduction strategies and programmes.

There are concerns that donors’ efforts to achieving gender equality goals agreed to in the SDGs are also falling short of that desired outcomes (Oxfam, 2019). While donors are reportedly making progress in mainstreaming gender into their activities, with 33% of bilateral allocable aid integrating gender equality as a secondary objective in 2015-16, this upward trend is nowhere near the levels needed to meet donors’ commitments to mainstream gender throughout their portfolios (OECD, 2018). Moreover, just 4% of bilateral aid funded programmes have gender equality as a primary objective. Moreover, 63% of programmes screened by the OECD had no gender-related objectives at all. In addition, although strong women’s rights organizations and movements are recognized as particularly effective in bringing about sustained changes towards gender equality, aid going to these organisations is woefully inadequate. In 2015-16, only \$225 million on average per year was committed specifically to non-governmental women’s organisations, of which only \$38 million went directly to women’s organisations based in developing countries (ibid). These realities may suggest political economy undercurrents that seek to negate efforts at gender equality in development. This is why southern development partners have an important responsibility and

opportunity to pursue gender equality in SSC, especially given the democratic and humanistic consequences of such advancement.

Conclusion

Today, more than ever before, the global economy is reliant on policy interdependence among countries – especially in the South. Economic power is also gravitating towards the global South, granting emerging economies a new role in development cooperation architecture. Policy-making institutions at the national and international levels must adjust to this new reality to ensure policy relevance and effectiveness. It is necessary to implement fundamental policy reforms at national, regional, and international levels to reflect the emergent trend (Kaul, 2009). Increasing interdependency demands that countries learn from those most like them and from those that have the most effective lessons to offer, whether from the South or the North. In the context of SSC, new forms of multilateralism are emerging and old groupings are taking on new impetus aimed at addressing development challenges such as climate change, human rights abuses, food insecurity and inequality, and raising capital for development.

Clearly, SSC is becoming an effective tool for capacity development, particularly in addressing the need for innovative strategies to enhance the role of gender. However, there are limited examples that explicitly seek to learn from SSC to enhance gender equality. Communities are making efforts to innovate and create platforms for countries to learn from each other to speed up project/program implementation using SSC and triangular cooperation. More voices are being heard in development – especially those of women. However, there is a need for further improvement because often the voices that are heard are from the comparatively rich and powerful states of the South. There remains a critical need to explore new ways of sourcing knowledge and developing innovative strategies to better enhance the role of gender in SSC.

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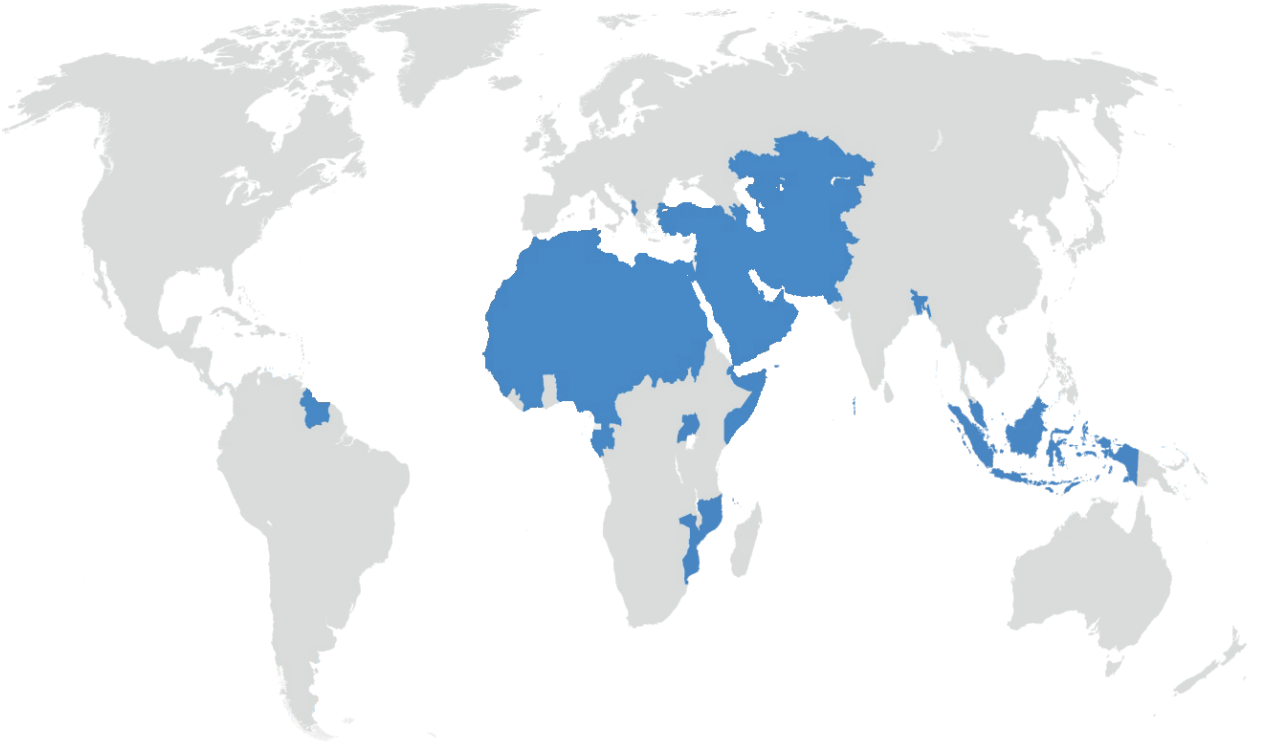
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