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Studying Gender Machineries¹

The term *gender machineries* usually refers to formal government structures assigned to promote gender equality and/or improve the status and rights of women. Examining these structures in many countries around the world shows that in practice the machineries take a wide variety of forms, from formal ministries to temporary councils and committees. They may be established by formal statute, executive decree, or bureaucratic rules, or there may be machineries in political parties that have a widespread influence. Some observers expect that effective agencies will be statutory, centralized, complex and well funded, a form that withstands changes in political leadership. However, there is no one single form that is consistently more effective generally than others. In addition, it is the variety of possible agency forms that allows machinery to adapt to blowing political winds and changing demands of gender policy and politics.² At times a centrally located executive commission may be required; later, it may be a ministry or bureaucratic office; at still other times all three may coexist. In some countries, a range of single issue agencies—for labor, health, and education matters—can be more effective than a large Ministry expected to cover all issues. In others situations, machineries may be more active at regional and local government levels.

Agencies have different missions: some are meant to focus on specific gender equality policies such as those outlined in the UN Plan of Action; others may work to insert gender perspectives into all areas of governing through “gender mainstreaming. They may have a variety of functions in working on the mission: policy adoption and implementation; assessment; service delivery; education; and supporting NGOs. Any investigation of the work and effectiveness of gender machineries must be designed with a full understanding of the relations between missions and functions.

Then, to proceed, there must be assessment instruments that have validity and reliability. In other words, valid measures provide accurate observations of what is actually happening in each agency and the machineries in each country. Reliable measures will ensure that the findings are comparable within the parameters of the research, for example, from national to local levels of government, across diverse cultural/religious contexts, among countries of a specific geographic region, and across groupings of countries based on economic development or geographical region.

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¹ The terms women’s policy agencies and gender machineries are used interchangeably.

² At the same time, this instability may make agencies vulnerable to colonization by forces not supportive of women’s goals or even closure.
Executive Summaries

PART I. Measures, Findings and Implications of the RNGS Project

Part I presents the findings of the Research Network on Gender Politics and the State (RNGS) on gender machineries in 13 western postindustrial democracies from the 1960s to the early 2000s. To underline the credibility of the findings, this section begins with a brief overview of the RNGS research process, emphasizing the rigorous methods of conceptualization, data collection and analysis, and a detailed description of the RNGS instrument for measuring agency effectiveness. Then, the overview of findings shows that in western democracies agency effectiveness increased during the 1980s and 1990s, but that conditions for that success vary in terms of the context of policy processes where agencies are active. There is no single composite of factors that produces success, but several case studies of agencies illustrate how conditions combine to foster effective machineries. Turning attention to the relevance of this research to the situation of gender machineries in the developing world, there is consideration of the usefulness of the RNGS measurement tool for research in countries outside the west along with a set of questions that must be considered in designing such a tool. Part I concludes with a list of conditions that, in various combinations, may lead to agency success and policy recommendations for designing gender machineries in the western democracies.

PART II. Assessing Research on Dynamics and Determinants of Gender Machineries in the Developing World

The second part of the report makes a critical analysis of published work on gender machineries in developing countries. Based on a systematic inventory of the literature on these structures it aims to show the extent to which we have credible evidence to know if, how and why gender machineries have been important and effective “... institutional channel [s] for gender policies and guidelines for the State”. The first section explores the context of global diffusion and diversity of gender machineries and problems of conceptual travelling. The next section shows the extent to which the literature is fragmented and unsystematic and the consequences of this situation for a discussion of gender machinery effectiveness and performance. A set of potential ingredients or “factors” for agency success and failure distilled from the studies is then presented. These are placed in the context of the instruments and analyses already developed for the RNGS study of women’s policy agencies in western countries. The section ends with four illustrative cases that show some of the best practices in research and some tentative insights about pathways to agency performance.

PART III. Recommendations

The report concludes with a presentation of policy recommendations that aim to promote a more systematic study of gender machinery performance. With a foundation of more extensive and rigorous research we will be able to better understand if, how and why these structures can promote goals of gender equality in the developing world and make more useful policy recommendations for practitioners and activists seeking to maximize the potential of gender equality agencies.
Part I Measures, Findings and Implications of the RNGS project

A. The RNGS Project

Before presenting the assessment tools and results of the RNGS (Research Network on Gender Politics and the State) research project, Section A describes the network, the research plan and the methodology. RNGS, composed of more than 40 experts on gender politics in 13 countries, has recently completed a large, comparative study of gender machineries—women's policy agencies—in Western democracies. This project examined the activities of these offices in policy processes pertaining to abortion, job training, prostitution, and political representation from the 1960s to the early 2000s, and priority issues in the 1990s. Preliminary results were published in five issue books: abortion (McBride Stetson 2001); job training (Mazur 2001); prostitution (Outshoorn 2004); political representation (Lovenduski 2005) and priority issues (Haussman & Sauer 2007). The Politics of State Feminism: Innovation in Comparative Research (McBride & Mazur 2010) is the capstone publication that completes the final analysis across all issues and countries in the study and sets forth an empirical theory of state feminism. The theory of state feminism documents and explains the important role of alliances between women's policy agencies and women's movement activists in opening up politics in Western democracies to descriptive and substantive representation of women. According to the state feminism theory, while agencies are not essential for women's movements to have success with the state, their activism does increase the likelihood that the state will respond to movement demands for access and policy change. Further, agencies can become crucial when typically favorable conditions for movement success are not present, thus playing a back-up role.

The study also generated a great deal of information about the organization and activities of a wide variety of gender machineries in Austria, Belgium, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, and the United States over nearly four decades. Part I of this report draws on these studies. It presents the instrument of analysis for assessing machinery impact and its usefulness in other countries, covers general trends in the conditions for agency success and failure, and addresses a composite picture of agency success in Western countries with policy recommendations.

The substantive findings and recommendations in this report are supported by the systematic and rigorous analysis characteristic of the RNGS project on women's policy agencies. From the beginning, the intent of the network has been to use the comparative method in a way that would permit statistical as well as qualitative analysis. Rather than studying nation-states as units, the network

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3 For complete information on the RNGS project see http://libarts.wsu.edu/polisci/rngs
4 The findings from these books are preliminary and based on comparative case studies of a single issue. They were part of the process leading to the development of the full state feminism theory. For a listing of the specific chapters from each issue book go to Appendix III.
selected policy debates as the focus. By tracing the processes in debates—from initial appearance of a proposal on the national agenda to the final government action—researchers were able to document and assess the activities of women’s policy agencies along the way. Thus, selecting individual policy debates and the role of agencies in those debates, rather than nation-states, as the units of analysis expanded the number of observations from 13 to over 120. The approach included a variety of agencies into the study. Using policy debates also made it possible to examine the findings cross nationally, longitudinally, and by policy/issue sector. The network brought together directors for research for all countries. They in turn recruited scholars to contribute case studies on 2-4 debates for each issue and one debate on the priority issues (not all issues are covered in all countries). The network provided the following specific criteria for selecting the debates to ensure their representativeness: (1) debates take place in public arenas such as the legislature, courts, news media, political party conferences or electoral campaigns; (2) debates occur in periods when a women’s policy agency was in existence; (3) debates represent the range of discussions on the issue in the country in the period under study; (4) debates end with an official state decision, including for instance, legislation, an executive order, a court ruling or a government policy proposal.

Research on all cases of debates had to provide information according to a common conceptual framework of agency effectiveness. Like all parts of the study, members of the network collaborated to develop the framework, working together at a series of conferences in Europe and the U.S. To guarantee that the studies conformed to the framework, all researchers had to present their findings to the network at one of these conferences. This process focused on the validity of the measures and the reliability of the results across issues, countries, and over-time. Related to the goals of validity and reliability was RNGS’ careful attention to conceptualization of central ideas, complete with guidelines for operationalization and measurement provided to researchers. This included the operational definition of agencies themselves: any structure that meets both of the following criteria: (1) an agency/governmental body formally established by government statute or decree; and (2) an agency/governmental body formally charged with furthering women’s status and rights or promoting sex-based equality. Agencies that are not formally established but still are important state actors seeking to further women’s status and rights in the policy process were called quasi-women’s policy agencies. They are usually attached to government institutions or political parties and function in the policy process like women’s policy agencies. These standardized case studies facilitated the preparation of a quantitative data set of the RNGS framework variables and led to the mixed methods approach—integrating statistical, qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) and causal mechanisms case studies—that increased and widened the understanding of agency activities in Western democracies.
B. RNGS Instrument for Assessing Machinery Impact and Outcomes

To assess machinery impact, RNGS used the claims advanced by women’s movement actors in policy debates as the standard for what specific policy actions would improve the status of women and achieve gender equality. With respect to the activities of women’s policy machineries, we focused on the effectiveness of agencies in influencing the content of policy debates to advance these claims of women’s movement actors. Because the RNGS project defined women’s movement goals in terms of discourse and focused on the policy process in debates over issues, it used *framing* as the means of assessing agency effectiveness. Framing refers to the way in which actors define policy issues in terms of problems (diagnosis) and policy goals (prognosis). The way issues are framed favors some interests over others. For example, if policy actors agree that the problem with criminal trafficking is its effect on the dignity and well-being of women, groups who advocate for women have a basis for action. If, on the other hand, it is defined as an issue about illegal immigration, law and order organizations have the edge. Thus, changes in framing debates to recognize gender brings interests of women into policymaking arenas and justifies the participation of advocates for women in the process. Further, if women’s policy agencies can convince policy actors to accept the women’s movement positions—called micro-frames—in debates, they are effective in bringing about both desired policies as well as open the doors for women’s participation in politics.

RNGS asked researchers to collect information on two subjects expressed by women’s movement actors and women’s policy agency personnel:

- **Diagnostic frames**: What do actors say is the nature of the public problem represented by the issue, for example, prostitution/trafficking or abortion reform, for women’s equality and status?
- **Prognostic frames**: What do actors recommend as the policy solution to this problem?

To classify an agency as an ally, symbolic or anti-movement, researchers compared the fit between women’s movement actor frames and women’s policy agency frames by answering three questions:

1. Did the agency adopt a position, that is, a microframe, on the topic of the policy debates? **YES or NO**
2. If it took a position did these microframes coincide with the microframes expressed by women’s movement actors? **YES or NO**
3. Was the agency successful in gendering the debate? In other words, did the agency bring this women’s movement frame into the issue frame—the definition of the issue used by policy actors? **YES or NO**

To answer these questions, researchers documented the frames through analysis of documents, media reports and interviews. By comparing the positions taken by agencies in the debate, researchers could judge whether they coincided with or were in opposition those taken by movement actors. If they coincided they were ally agencies. To determine whether an ally agency was effective—Insider
rather than Marginal--researchers compared the diagnosis and prognosis frames used by policy actors in the subsystem at the beginning of the debate and with those at the end of the debate. Researchers observed the dynamic intervention of agencies in these debates and provided evidence for their conclusion as to whether agencies were able to gender the debates, in other words, to change the issue frame used by policy actors to make decisions in a way that reflected the women's movement frames. There was a requirement that researchers report and make systematic use of multiple sources of information for telling the story of agency activities.

The table below illustrates how the agencies were classified according to these criteria. The most effective agencies are called Insiders, those that expressed microframes that coincided with women’s movement actors and gendered the issue frame of the policy actors in the subsystem. Marginal agencies are allies but not effective in changing issue frames. Symbolic agencies took no position in the debates and Anti-Movement agencies took positions in opposition to movement actors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. Agency expressed microframe</th>
<th>2. Microframe coincided with women’s movement actors</th>
<th>3. Agency gendered Issue frame with women’s movement perspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insider</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginal</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-movement agency</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These steps just described allowed researchers to measure the effectiveness of agencies. But the criteria for measuring the impact of agencies are different. In the RNGS project, effective agencies were those that brought gender perspectives into the terms of policy debates. To assess the impact of these changed perspectives on policy content, RNGS once again relied on framing analysis. Researchers compared the policy outcomes of debates to women’s movement actor/women’s policy agency policy goals (prognostic microframes). If they were compatible, the agency was deemed successful in gaining a substantive response to movement claims. To assess agency impact on policy processes, researchers listed the actors in the policy subsystem at the end of the debate—were women’s movement actors and
representatives on the list? Based on the assumption that gendering the debate enabled access by advocates for women, the presence of women’s movement actors among the policy subsystem actors was evidence of agency impact. Thus the agency was classified as successful in bringing women into the decisionmaking arenas. Agencies that achieved both the policy and procedural response in favor of women’s goals were classified as achieving a dual impact on the state. These impacts coincide with greater substantive and descriptive representation of women’s movements.

C. General Trends and Case Studies of Conditions for Agency Effectiveness

RNGS research focused on the mission and functions of agencies with respect to bringing gender ideas into the processes of adopting policies. It explored the extent to which agencies furthered women’s status and gender equality—as Insiders, Marginal, Symbolic or Anti-Movement—as indicated by their support of goals expressed by women’s movement organizations and their success in influencing the debates to achieve those goals. As the figure below indicates, agency effectiveness in bringing women’s movement claims was slow to be realized in the 1960s and 1970s. By the 1980s and 1990s, however, the rate of effectiveness increased sharply. Overall, successful agencies, successful agencies or Insiders, outnumbered symbolic ones, and very few worked against movement goals. The frequency of Symbolic agencies declined from 1980s to 1990s. In general these patterns may reflect changes in the attention paid to gender machineries by women’s movements and by international organizations. RNGS inquiry, however, found no systematic relationship between these patterns of effectiveness and patterns of mobilization and institutionalization of women’s movements.

Over the decades, successful agencies—Insiders—in comparison with other agencies, tended to be ministries located close to centers of power with authority to
propose policy (rather than only review proposals or enforce policy). They were slightly less likely to have leaders with experience in the women’s movements. On the other hand, many of the Symbolic agencies were administrative offices, located inside bureaucratic departments, more distant for central policymakers and without the authority to propose policy. They were, in turn, more likely to have leaders with women’s movement experience. It is interesting that there were no differences between successful agencies and others with respect to administrative capacity of the offices as measured by the number of resources such as the presence of paid staff, specialized departments and divisions, field offices, or separate budgets.

The frequency of these characteristics across the types of agencies show only tendencies, not correlations, and there are many exceptions to the general patterns. Often, typically passive administrative offices have been successful when policy debates occurred within their bureaucratic reach. Similarly ministries can fail when government bosses direct them away from a particular debate. Even an active and well-resourced agency such as the Minister for Woman’s Rights in France turned against women’s claims to promote the position of the President in a 1985 debate over proportional representation. Women’s advocates wanted a quota to increase women’s representation, but the Minister and her President favored a gender-neutral approach. The lesson is that the particular resources and powers of an agency must be understood within its institutional context and in relation to the various policy subsystems where authoritative decisions are made. Thus, we are not able to offer a single template of a successful agency. However, some of the following case studies offer insights into best practices of specific agencies.

1. Council for Equality between Men and Women in Finland

Since the 1970s, the Council for Equality, an executive commission composed of political nominees representing different parties, has had few resources—nothing more than a small staff, from five to eight employees. In the 1970s it was symbolic or marginal to debates studied on job training. In the 1980s it was relocated from the Prime Minister’s office to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, more distant from central power, but inside one of the main arenas for policymaking on social issues. Further, it received statutory responsibility for proposing reforms on gender equality. After that, the council registered more successes including debates pertaining to prostitution, job training, and political representation. In a debate over gender quotas in 1995, the Council was on its way to being Symbolic until a new leader—an MP who was very committed to achieving gender quotas—took over and turned the council toward an active role in pushing the goal. In that debate the agency had support from women MPs of all parties as well.

**The best practices composite in this case involved an agency with statutory responsibility for gender issues and proposal powers, proximity to subsystems on social policy, assertive leadership, and allies in parliament.

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5 From Holli and Kantola (2005).
2. Status of Women Canada  

Contrary to the record of many other agencies on the issue, the Status of Women Canada was effective in gendering the job training debates in the 1980s and 1990s. This effectiveness was due in part to its location: although it was an administrative office, it had a voice at the cabinet level through a Secretary of State (Minister) designated to represent the agency in cabinet discussions of policy. The Cabinet was the job training subsystem; in debates prior to the 1980s, the it had accepted that job training policy pertained, at least in part, to equality between women and men. Thus, with gender already on the table, it helped justify the agency’s entrée to policy discussions in later debates. Along with proximity to policy subsystems the agency also had a statutory mandate to bring policy proposals through its Minister on the Cabinet, a large staff, 6 divisions, field offices, and a multi-million dollar budget. Much of the budget was devoted to subsidies for women’s organizations.

**The best practices composite in this case combined proximity of the agency to policy subsystems and its statutory mandate to bring policy proposals with issue frames job training that incorporated gender ideas and close contacts with women’s movement organizations.

3. Ministry for Equal Opportunities in Italy  

Three prostitution debates studied in the 1990s give the opportunity to observe the same agency as an Insider as well as Symbolic in three different debates over prostitution. None of the administrative features of the agency changed over these debates: a Cabinet Ministry, close to central power, with policy proposal powers, features generally associated with Insider agencies. Yet, as ministries go, it had few administrative resources: 1-2 staff, no separate budget, divisions, or field offices. Thus, for its influence, it depended on the Minister, who had had women’s movement experience before taking office. As it turns out, she was effective in only one of these prostitution debates, gendering the debate to promote women’s claims. In another debate, the issue was already gendered in ways supported by the agency head; there was no need to intervene. In the third debate, the Minister declined to intervene because there was little support from her contacts in the women’s movement. Thus, the Italian case shows again that proximity and policy proposal powers can be important, but they are not determining. Rather, the case adds the notion that the leader of the agency, as we found in the Finnish case, can be an essential component, especially in the absence of administrative capacity and a complex structure. The interests of the women’s movement in the issue played a part in determining what the leader would do.

**Thus the best practices composite illustrated by the Ministry for Equal Opportunities in three debates in Italy in the 1990s combines ministry proximity and policy powers with the leader’s commitment to a proposal and the support of movement actors.

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6 From Teghtsoonian and Grace (2001).
7 From Danna (2004).
4. Institute for Women in Spain\textsuperscript{8}

This agency gives us some insight into a formula, not for agency success, but marginalization. Unlike many of the other agencies in the study, the Institute for Women was in a position to participate in all state debates pertaining to abortion, prostitution, job training, and political representation issues studied in Spain. Since Spain is the youngest democracy in the RNGS study, its experience may be of interest to the developing world. The Institute was established in 1983. However, it was an Insider effective in bringing a gender perspective to policy design in only two of the ten debates and was Marginal or Symbolic in the rest. The Institute has many of the features of the ineffective agencies mentioned earlier. It is an administrative office inside the Ministry for Social Affairs and distant from central decision-making power. It has recommending and enforcing powers for handling discrimination complaints but does not have authority to propose policy. Thus it waits to be sent proposals that have trickled down to its perch inside a ministry. The enforcement authority has produced a relatively high degree administrative capacity: 3 divisions and 75-100 civil service positions. In addition, its leaders usually have had some feminist experience (especially when the Left-wing party is in power). One of the two successes for the agency is an exception that proves the rule. In 1986 the agency had an important success in bringing a gender perspective to the debate over implementation of the recent law that legalized abortion. The subsystem for this debate was inside the Ministry of Social Affairs. The agency thus had access to that policy subsystem and could be effective.

**The weaknesses of the Institute for Women in Spain in influencing policy shows the importance of providing statutory authority for making policy proposals and proximity to centers of political power in designing an effective policy agency and that the effectiveness of administrative resources must be assessed in terms of these other conditions.**

D. Adapting the RNGS Assessment Tool Beyond the Analyzed Countries

With respect to the specific instrument used by RNGS to assess machinery impact and outcomes, its applicability is limited to projects that are focused on the role of agencies in designing and influencing the content of a wide range of policies. Further, the RNGS approach is based on these assumptions: political systems have stable democratic institutions; the policy making process is a conflict of ideas expressed through framing; there is a variety of women’s movement actors attentive to policy issues; policy actors and social actors make explicit statements that are accessible through media, parliamentary records, party documents; government reports; manifestos; testimony, etc.; and agencies have an opportunity to participate in policy debates, but need not be stable over time. The more closely a project’s political systems, policy processes, women’s movements, and agencies conform to these assumptions, the more likely the RNGS measure will be useful.

In designing a tool for assessing the effectiveness of gender machineries in all countries—western democracies and the developing countries—the same questions must be addressed. The first two are the most important:

1. **What standard will be used to determine whether specific actions will improve status of women and achieve gender equality?** There are several possible choices: Plans from international agencies; agendas of transnational NGOs; feminist theory; claims of domestic advocates (as used by RNGS). Which one is selected depends on the purpose of the research for which the measure is developed. Taking the cues from international agencies provides a cross-national template. It would show, for example, which agencies are most effective in achieving the goals of the United Nations Plans of Action. Following the campaigns of transnational NGOs such as those that focus sexual violence would provide another standard. While such approaches make it possible to generalize across countries and regions, cross national standards often bias the results in favor of those agencies that are already committed to those goals and against other agencies which are influenced more by domestic actors in their ideas about improving the status of women. For example, in areas where issues sexual assault are extremely controversial or controlled by religious leaders, agencies would be shown to be ineffective according to the NGO standard, but they may be very effective in focusing on other ways of improving the status of women such as focusing on the health of mothers and children. There is such variation across countries and over time that implications of selecting one standard over another must be carefully considered.

2. **What agency activities should be studied with respect to this standard?** There is no one measure for agency effectiveness because agencies are likely to have broad missions and a variety of functions: for example, educating the public about gender inequality; supporting NGOs, women’s projects, and other social actors; designing and influencing policies; coordination and monitoring of implementation of policy. The choices about which agency missions and functions to study depend on the goal of the research. RNGS was interested in the influence machineries have had in promoting the goals of women’s movement actors. Another research project might be more interested in how the agencies are improving the quality of life for women or promoting education. In the latter case, a measure would focus on the effectiveness in carrying out policies and proving support.

3. **What will be the criteria to define effectiveness of agencies with respect to that standard?** Because the RNGS project defined women’s movement goals in terms of discourse and focused on the policy process in debates over issues, it used framing as the means of assessing agency effectiveness. If a project were looking at the success of agency support for battered women’s shelters, indicators might pertain to determining the number of women served, following case histories, and examining the effects on families and children.
4. What will be the instructions to researchers to guide them in gathering the information necessary to measure agency effectiveness? Since their measure compared the perspectives of agencies and movement actors, RNGS asked researchers to collect information about their statements on topics up for policy debate. Instructions to researchers would be different if the goal is to study the effectiveness of agency programs to help women who have been victims of sexual assault. The important point is that those charged with gathering information must be given explicit and clear instructions to guide them in their research.

5. How will researchers assess the impact of agencies? The criteria for an effective agency can be distinguished from those for its impact. In the RNGS project, effectiveness meant the agency’s role in influencing the issue definitions in policy debates while assessing impact involved looking at the substantive policies and processes that resulted from the agency influence. In another study, looking at agency effectiveness in providing education about gender inequality to women in the society may focus on the number of women educated whereas assessing the impact of that education would involve follow-up to see how women used what they had learned.

It is important to distinguish between the five questions that need to be addressed in developing an instrument for assessment and the particular strategies used in the RNGS project. The questions can apply to projects that study a wide range of agencies across many different countries and political systems. The first two questions must be carefully considered before any other decisions are made: What standard will be used to determine what specific actions will improve status of women and achieve gender equality? and What agency activities should be studied with respect to this standard? If researchers decide to use indicators of political participation as the standard for gender equality, they might be interested in the functions of agencies in educating the public and working with NGOs, rather than the policy proposal/influence activities used by RNGS. In another project, researchers may want to follow the fate of specific women's policies, such as domestic violence, women's health, or women’s opportunity in education. The role of the agencies in both policy influence and overseeing implementation may be the focus in this case. Decisions made with respect to these first two questions thus set the stage for choices for more hands-on methods of data collection and assessment outlined in the other questions—criteria for defining effectiveness, instructions for gathering data, and assessment of agency impact.

E. Conditions that lead to agency success in Western countries

A major finding of the RNGS research on women's policy agencies is that it is impossible to compose a single composite picture of the conditions for and drivers of agency success in Western democracies. We reached this conclusion after careful analysis of agencies’ effectiveness in 120 policy debates in 13 countries using Qualitative Comparative Analysis, a method that determines what combination of conditions/characteristics lead to success, as well as descriptive statistics and case
studies. Rather than a single composite, explanations for agency effectiveness resemble equifinality; equifinality is the situation where different combinations of conditions lead to the same outcome. Finding the particular combination that will increase the chances that gender equality machineries will be successful requires consideration of each of the following conditions in specific contexts and making judgments with respect to how they might be combined to achieve desired outcomes. For example, one composite may be Ministries with dynamic leaders involved in political representation debates. Another composite may be well-resourced administrative offices in ministries charged with enforcing equal employment legislation. A third may be an executive commission with a feminist leader who has close allies among women in parliament in prostitution debates. It is important to keep in mind that these conditions affect the activities of agencies in influencing policy debates, policy content and procedural access of women’s movements.

- **Type of policy issues being considered.** Agency success in influencing and gendering policy debates to promote women’s interests tends to be affected by the type of issue being considered. With few exceptions, positions on any issue may be expressed in gendered or non-gendered terms. Even themes like abortion and prostitution frequently come to public agendas as health or crime concerns, not in terms of their effects on women. Thus, when policy proposals are gendered at the beginning of particular debates, they typically open up opportunities for women’s agencies as well as women’s advocates. As issues are debated in policy subsystems and over time, these can become increasingly open to gender influences. Job training and priority issues have been more resistant to gendering over time than abortion, or political representation.

- **Type, location, and policy powers of the agency.** Those agencies that are Ministries with policy proposal powers and are in close proximity to central powers have the advantage in influencing policy adoption.

- **Qualities of agency directors/ministers.** Important factors include the leader’s commitment to gender equality goals, priorities set for the agency, and their political position in relation to decision makers and potential allies.

- **Placement of agency in relation to policy subsystem where decision is made.** For example, policy subsystems that include elected leaders may privilege quasi agencies or cabinet offices; administrative offices may be important if policy subsystem is in bureaucracy.

- **Political leaders who support agencies and movement claims.** Party identification is not a proxy for this support. While there are countries where Right-wing governments take power and underfund or eliminate agencies, there are other cases where Right wing parties are supportive and maintain agencies. Left wing governments are likely to foster gender equality, but they are not always in agreement with positions taken by agencies.

- **Administrative capacity.** Resources should be considered but in relation to mission and function; there is no structural blueprint for successful agencies. More staff and higher budgets may mean an agency can do more to support
women’s movement organizations, conduct research, and provide services. But those resources are not a determining factor in agency success in influencing policy or opening up politics to gender issues. Similarly a lack of administrative resources does not lead to failure; effective leadership and proximity to centers of power can compensate.

- **Priority of gender equality issues to domestic women’s movement as a whole.** When a policy debate pertains to a matter that is among the top priorities of the women’s movement as a whole (not just the actors in the debate), agency leaders often use that support to intervene.

**F. Policy Recommendations:**

These recommendations pertain to the design and assessment of gender machineries in postindustrial democracies, based on the RNGS findings.

- There must be careful consideration of the desired mission for agencies and an explicit understanding of the expected functions. For example, an agency that is primarily involved in promoting specific gender equality policy may require different form, location and resources than one that promotes gender mainstreaming or is part of a more general policy to address gender, family and ethnic diversity.

- If there are several functions envisioned, some that promote system wide policy adoption and others that promote the women’s interests in specific policy areas such as labor, education, or family issues, it is worthwhile to consider the adoption of several single issue administrative offices such as a Women’s Bureau in the Department/Ministry of Labor, or an administrative office that looks out for women’s health matters. This form is characteristic of machineries in the U.S.

- Since central gender machineries are often sensitive to the particular political parties forming the political executive and represented in parliament, the design of agencies should get a firm understanding of the place of gender equality issues in the political party spectrum, with particular attention to the support of the Left-wing parties and trade unions and the degree of moderation in the Right-wing parties.

- Political appointees lead most policy agencies. Thus, the support of the political executive/Cabinet for the agencies, especially their commitment to gender equality and the working relationship with the appointed directors is important.

- Resources should be designed to meet the agency mission and function. Although RNGS focused on policy adoption processes, the function of research and education about the status of women and gender equality and accountability to constituencies of women should be considered. In addition, budgets for subsidies and other support to women’s movement organizations can foster social change not reached by policy decisions.

- The development of effective gender machineries in Western democracies should not rely on regional patterns. There is no Scandinavian type, or Mediterranean pattern, or Anglo forms.
Part II. Assessing Research on Dynamics and Determinants of Gender Machineries in the Developing World

A. Introduction

We now turn to an assessment of the published body of work on gender machineries in the developing world to identify if, how and why they have been important and effective “... institutional channel[s] for gender policies and guidelines for the State.” This is a sizable undertaking given the fact that this category includes three-quarters of the world’s countries. The study of gender machineries outside of the West has not reached the same level of systematization as research on women’s policy agencies and state feminism in western postindustrial democracies, in large part due to the large number of countries and the political and cultural diversity involved. This report is the first effort to provide an inventory of this extensive literature. We have located English-language published work on gender machineries outside of the West in books, journal articles, and reports by using academic search engines, web-based searches and a survey of experts who work on gender machineries.

As will be shown in greater detail below, this body of research is fragmented, piecemeal and thus incomplete. As a result, it is impossible to provide a comprehensive systematic picture of current knowledge about the effectiveness of gender machineries to act as meaningful conduits for the promotion of gender equality, about the conditions that enhance machinery effectiveness or to provide concrete policy recommendations about how to enhance agency impact and performance. At the same time, in order to move our understanding of these relatively new institutions forward, it is important to take stock of what scholarship shows, so far, about the dynamics and determinants of the performance of gender machineries in the vast range of national settings in the non western world. As

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9 From the Terms of Reference for this background paper.
10 Rai (2003a), Valiente (2007) and True and Mintrom (2001) provide some assessment of studies of gender machineries in non western countries, they do so in the context of a broader global perspective and do not explicitly conduct a search of all published work on developing countries as we do for this report. Byrne et al. (1996) in a report for the European Commission assess “case study” materials on gender machineries from African, Caribbean and Pacific countries and the Philippines and Chile, thus not the entire world.
11 See Appendix I for a description of the specific search protocol followed. Appendix III contains the list of studies on gender machineries in developing countries broadly speaking and studies on machineries in the six regions of the developing world used by the World Bank as well as the literature on machineries in Western countries. A part of our search included contacting leading experts of gender machineries in the developing world. To be sure, not every published piece on gender machineries has been included. Our purpose here was to identify most of the scholarship work that examines gender machineries in the developing world in general and within and across regions and countries. Special thanks goes to Season Hoard, a Ph.D. candidate in political science at Washington State University for providing us with crucial assistance in that search and in constructing the Table of Gender Machineries in Appendix II. The following people provided priceless source material: Aili Tripp, Mala Htun, Katalan Fabian, Amanda Gouws, Myra Marx Ferre, Cholthira Satyawadhanan, Medha Nanivadkar, Suzanne Zwingel and Shannon Drysdale.
such, this discussion can be seen as a first step in the development of a systematic understanding of gender machineries.

First, we glean what limited information is available about gender machinery effectiveness and performance from the studies. Since there are no reliable measures in these studies, this analysis does not offer specific cases of agency success or failure from the literature. Next, we offer a list of potential ingredients or “factors” for agency success and failure suggested in the research. We place the performance and conditions for success in the context of the methods and analyses already developed for the RNGS study of women’s policy agencies in the West, keeping in mind the caveat that instruments, concepts and findings may not travel (Sartori 1975) easily into the diverse settings of countries in the developing world. The section ends with four illustrative cases that show some of the best practices in research and some tentative insights about pathways to agency performance.

B. Understanding the Context: Global Diffusion, Global Diversity and Making Concepts “Travel”

Before undertaking this assessment of the scholarly literature it is first important to establish the context for any systematic study of gender machineries in the developing world. Here we refer to the aggregate diffusion of gender machineries throughout the world and the diversity of forms and political, social and economic settings beyond the countries studied in the RNGS project. On the surface, there are a striking number of similarities between gender machineries in western postindustrial democracies and machineries in developing countries, particularly from this aggregate perspective.

First, there is a similar evolutionary trajectory in terms of the establishment of what the United Nations has called "national machineries." Research across the five regions of the developing world identified by the World Bank -- Sub Saharan Africa, East Asia and the Pacific, Eastern Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa, South East Asia, South Asia—document a pattern of aggregate development similar to Western post industrial democracies (Rai 2003a; Squires 2007; McBride and Mazur forthcoming; True and Mintrom 2001). It is important to note that this aggregate analysis refers to the adoption of structures generally and not the rationale for establishment or performance of specific agencies.

Prior to the 1970s governments established agencies in only a handful of countries across the globe. In colonial Africa, for example, women’s affairs was a part of the colonial administration of community development (Tripp et al. 2009: 185). Following Liberia, which created the first post colonial office for women in 1946, some of the newly independent African countries established institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women in the 1950s and 1960s, according to Tsikata (2001: 5). In response to calls made by the United Nations through its women’s policy summits, first in Mexico City in 1975 and culminating in the Beijing
Women's Summit in 1995, developed and developing countries throughout the world created national women's policy machineries to oversee the promotion of women's rights and gender equality. The Beijing platform gave national machineries for the advancement of women the primary responsibility "...to support government-wide mainstreaming of gender equality perspectives in all policy areas (UN 1996)." According to True and Mintrom (2001: 30), in their macro analysis of the drivers of the diffusion of gender mainstreaming institutions across the world from 1975 to 1998, "permanent gender equality machineries" had been established by "an overwhelming number of states" by the late 1990s. Since that period even more countries have created some form of gender machinery leaving few countries in the world today without such agencies. Moreover, True and Mintrom found no regional patterns of diffusion. From 1975 to 1998 through five different periods there was more or less an equal number of agencies established in western and non western countries resulting in a relatively even distribution across the regions of the world.

A second similarity between western postindustrial democracies and developing countries is the high degree of diversity in structural attributes of women's policy agencies. As the list of national level gender machineries in non western countries in Appendix II shows, there is a vast array of different forms and structures of gender machineries across the developing world as a whole as well as within regions and within countries. In other words, like the findings of the RNGS project, there appears to be little relationship between type of political system, cultural or social context, or even level of economic development and a particular form of agency. Moreover, many of the same types of gender machineries found in western democracies have also been established in developing countries: to name a few, ministries, administrative offices, executive and parliamentary commissions, advisory commissions, institutes and Ombuds offices. In some countries, new institutional forms have been developed such as the gender “focal points” and “desk offices” in Sub Saharan African countries or the Offices of Pleni Potentiary in Poland.

It is of fundamental importance to note that beyond the common pattern of aggregate development and the imperative of national and regional diversity, any analysis must take into consideration the deep and inherent differences in the political, social and economic dynamics that swirl around gender machineries in developing countries in comparison with their western democratic counterparts. Compared to western countries, the 165+ non western countries have significantly different levels of economic development in terms of wealth and structure of the economy, political development in terms of regime stability and level of democratization, and socio-cultural influences. These differences vary not only from one region of the developing world to another but also from one country to

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12 It is important to note that while we can identify the presence of agencies, in large part from the United Nations Directory of Women’s Policy Machineries, very little is known about specific structural characteristics, context of establishment, activities and performance; except as we show in greater detail below in an uneven idiosyncratic manner.
another within regions. Given this cross-regional and cross-national variation in the environments from where gender machineries operate, rather than finding similarities, it is easier to identify which economic, political and social features the countries of the developing world do NOT share with postindustrial democracies: stable democratic institutions and processes, competitive elections, alternation of power, rule of law, effective and independent judiciaries, etc, over the past 45 years; a relatively wealthy economies, and postindustrial economic systems where the majority of the work force works in the service sector with quality of life issues or “post material values” on public agendas. Moreover, the presence of all three of these contextual attributes may very well create stable terrain for action by gender machinery in the western democratic world that does not exist in developing countries; whether that terrain transposes into more effective agencies remains a question of research.

Thus, while machineries may have the same labels across the world, they confront a very different set of contextual challenges in the developing world from that in the postindustrial democracies, challenges that diverge across the countries and regions with respect to levels of economic wealth, structure of economies, political stability, conflict, and cultural variations. Gender policy machineries in war-torn, unstable and poor Somalia, for example, will have an entirely different set of challenges than policy offices in wealthy and stable Sweden. The context is frequently in transition or upheaval in many developing countries as well, for example, in the Middle East now with its sweeping anti authoritarian revolutionary turmoil. Gender machineries in transitional settings will have a different set of constraints and opportunities that must be taken into consideration compared with machineries that operate under conditions of stability.

Moreover, configurations of political, economic and cultural factors do not necessarily correspond with the different regions. Indeed, labeling all 165+ countries as the “developing world” is a misnomer given this great diversity, particularly in terms of economic development. For example, many, but not all, countries in Latin America have been industrialized for over a century and have experienced higher levels of wealth and democratic stability relative to other countries also called “developing”. This means that looking for a one-size-fits-all notion of gender policy agency design and performance across the globe or regions or even within regions is futile, if not counter-productive. Agencies must be adapted to their particular setting and context and this means at different levels of government as well. Any study of gender machineries necessarily must take into consideration this double imperative: the deep differences between western

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13 These three attributes are the distinguishing features of postindustrial democracies identified in the Comparative Politics literature—see for example Inglehart (1990) Wiarda (2000) and Esping-Andersen (1999). They are what differentiates them from other groupings of countries like newly industrialized countries, less developed countries, post communist countries, etc.

14 For work on gender machineries in transitional settings see for example Al-Ali and Pratt (2002); Alldén (2007 and 2009); Ariño and Morena (2008) ; Efrati (2005) and Kandiyoti (2005).
postindustrial democracies and developing countries on one hand, and, on the other, the equally fundamental divergences among developing countries within and between regions.

Given the major differences between countries in the developing and western postindustrial worlds, experts caution against taking administrative forms and concepts from the west and automatically applying and/or using them in developing countries (Basu 1995; Staudt 1997b; Vargas and Weiringa 1998; Rai 2003a; Tsikata 2001). For some, the very essence of gender machineries is based on Weberian notions of administrative organization and modeled after similar structures in Western countries (e.g. Staudt 1997b). They argue that the pressure for national machineries came from international organizations like the United Nations at a time when they had the interests and cultural influences of the West at their cores. More recently, many international trade and finance programs make the presence of gender machinery a part of the requirement for trade status and aid; thus these machineries may be “modern” window dressing more than authoritative vectors for gender equality within the state. As we will examine in greater detail below, the nature of states has been identified as an important variable in explaining agency failure.

To make the point in more analytical terms, concepts originally used in the western context need to be developed so they can “travel” to take account for the different political, economic and cultural settings of non Western countries, so they are not “stretched” beyond their meaning and usefulness (Sartori 1970). This principle is fundamental to the recommendations for future research made at the end of this report. Any study of gender machineries in the developing world, therefore, must be mindful of a western bias and be prepared to transpose core analytical concepts; this pertains to considering the usefulness of concepts, methods, and findings of the RNGS study as well.

At the same time, scholars should not go overboard in identifying the Western bias in analytical approaches to the study of gender machineries and the gender machineries themselves in such a way that automatically dismisses the RNGS study’s relevance or the viability of gender machineries identified with western political approaches. Valiente (2007) for example criticizes the RNGS project for overlooking crucial factors in the study of women’s policy agencies and state feminism in developing countries, like low state capacity, the absence of a women’s movement and lack of resources. On the contrary, RNGS did not ignore these factors; rather they were not part of the context of postindustrial democracies. Similarly, as will be discussed in greater detail in the section on potential ingredients for success, there is a general predilection in much of the literature on gender machineries in developing countries to show how machineries fail due to lack of political will, resources, power etc. Seldom do studies ask what these
agencies do, what effectiveness means, and if, how and why they are effective.\(^\text{15}\) This bias toward failure and critique may be a byproduct of an operating assumption that these agencies are symbolic responses on the part of government leaders to international imperatives and pressures coming from the West/North and imposed on the developing “South” rather than nationally embedded efforts to address gender inequalities through government action (Miller and Rashavi 1998; Rai 2003a; Staudt 2002; Tsikata 2000; Tripp et al. 2009).\(^\text{16}\)

C. The Fragmented and Unsystematic Nature of Scholarly Research

To be sure, our search located a significant number of studies on gender machineries in the developing world. As this section will show, however, while there are studies that provide important insights into the dynamics and determinants of gender machinery success which we examine at the end of this part of the report, we identify and discuss three serious problems: weakness in measurement of machinery performance and impact; uneven coverage; poor quality data. These problems pertain to most of this scholarship and make it difficult to make any firm and consistent statements about how and why gender agencies are successful or not in promoting gender equality or even to identify cases of best or worst practices. The absence of valid and reliable metrics and comparative language for measuring and talking about the dynamics and determinants of machinery success and failure has led us to focus our conclusion to this second part of the report on the next steps that need to be taken to conduct more systematic research.

1. Measurement of Machinery Performance and Impact

While all studies are focused at some level on evaluating whether and how gender machineries carry out an agenda for promoting women’s rights and gender equality, the concept of machinery impact and success is seldom defined or clearly operationalized.\(^\text{17}\) In fact, key analytical terms are rarely explicitly defined in a transparent manner to allow for replication, an important principle in social science

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\(^{15}\) See Madsen (2010) for an exception to this rule; in her monograph of gender mainstreaming in Ghana, she identifies that much of the literature takes an apriori negative view of machinery performance, but that in her study she treats the issue as a central question for research—to what degree do machineries, she focuses on the gender focal points and the femocrats who work in them, contribute or not to gender mainstreaming efforts.

\(^{16}\) This critical perspective on all things Western comes out of post modern epistemological stances that underpin scholarly work that argues that Western scholars seek unintentionally to perpetuate the power imbalance between the formerly colonial and colonized parts. In this perspective, the only legitimate work on non Western countries can be done by indigenous scholars from that given country and ideas coming out of the Western context seek to impose a Western model on non western countries. Post modern approaches are particularly prevalent in the area of gender studies and work that is interested in the developing world and so leaves an important imprint on scholarship on gender machineries.

\(^{17}\) For more on good practices of conceptualization and measurement in the social sciences see Goertz (2006); for conceptualization in gender and politics research see Goertz and Mazur (2008).
research (King 1996). Instead, definitions are assumed in the analyses of the study. Put in terms of the steps for developing an assessment tool identified in Part I of this report, there is no agreement on the content of gender equality goals to be achieved by machineries, on which agency activities should be evaluated, on the indicators of effectiveness, on the guidelines to gather information about those measures or on how researchers will assess whether machineries were successful from that information. Thus, it is difficult to be able to verify whether the findings of the studies are correct in a single case or are reliable across studies, let alone compare findings across studies.

Some researchers conclude that the simple presence of machineries constitutes success (True and Mintrom 2001). In many studies, researchers examine only the structural capacity of gender machineries typically using the five factors put forward by the United Nations in the 1995 Fourth Platform of Action for Women and integrated into the framework developed by Rai (2003b), that is, location, clarity of role and function, resources, links with civil society and accountability. While not explicitly stated, it is assumed that machineries that are close to centers of powers, have clear mandates, are well resourced and have developed links with civil society are successful. Not surprisingly, much of the literature shows across diverse settings that there is a trend toward machinery failure, given that gender machineries in developing countries tend to have unclear mandates, limited administrative resources, and low funds.

There are several problems with this approach. First, the UN five factors concern only structural attributes and not actual performance. In the best case scenario, machinery structure is used as a proxy for agency activities, although none of the scholars come out and state this. In the worst case scenario, empirical studies become tautological—weak agencies are automatically not successful.

At the same time, as the RNGS study demonstrates, there is a not a single recipe for agency success at least among western countries; complex and well-funded agencies are not necessarily effective agencies with respect to policy deliberation. Indeed, this is a finding of particular interest for poorer countries where agencies are underfinanced: they too perhaps can have a positive impact on policy. To assume that if agencies have strong profiles that they are successful is unsubstantiated, particularly if the object of analysis is what gender machineries do rather than what administrative capacities they have. Rather, this should be a question for research and, most importantly, structural attributes should be conceptualized as potential factors, conditions, influences or drivers in explaining the outcome of agencies activities, as we suggest below. Factors may or may not combine with other potential conditions to contribute to agency success or failure. After making an assessment of machineries in terms of low levels of resources and

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18 See for example Kwesiga (2003); Kardam and Acuner (2003); Rai (2003b); Honaculada and Ofreneo (2003). Byrne et al. (1996) in a study for the EU use indicators defined by US AID, but still focus on administrative resources.
capacity, many researchers make no further exploration of the activities or impact. Thus, they ignore the question of the dynamics of agency activities and performance. This question is highly complex and needs analytical attention to determine the standards and criteria for assessing success in the diverse of settings found in the developing world.

A second problem with defining agencies’ effectiveness in terms of their structural characteristics is that the criteria commonly used come from the United Nations women’s policy process and not from a systematic empirical study of what makes for strong structural capacity. Whereas it is possible that these are the most important attributes – and they do echo some of the agency characteristics identified by the RNGS network--there has been no study of actual cases that has mapped out the central administrative characteristics of gender machineries in developing countries. Furthermore, as Lombardo et al. (2009) assert in their study of discursive approaches to the analysis of gender equality policy in postindustrial countries, it is of utmost important to be “self-reflexive” about, that is, take a critical approach, to the analytical concepts and measures being used, particularly with regards to any built-in bias or power balance that comes from using indicators established by international agencies and other powerful political players.

Further, researchers have not clearly defined and developed indicators for each of the five UN features, which means that research may not be measuring the actual structural position of gender machineries (validity) or the same set of features across different settings (reliability). In the RNGS, project we decided not only to separate agency activities from agency characteristics, but we unpacked the agency characteristics into measureable attributes with specific indicators. 19

The studies that do attempt to go beyond equating structural characteristics with success and evaluate impact and performance also tend to assume the meaning of core concepts. For example, many studies state that they are examining the activities of machineries that pursue gender mainstreaming, following the UN’s approach that identifies the central role of policy machineries in that process (e.g., chapters in Rai 2003a). While a rich literature shows that gender mainstreaming is a contested and politicized concept, particularly in the Western democracies (e.g., Staudt 2003a; Kantola 2010; Woodward 2003), very few of the analyses, except for Byrne et al. (1996), that seek to determine machinery effectiveness actually define gender mainstreaming, recognized by some as the systematic introduction of gender considerations and gender equality in all areas of public policy. In some

19 These included : Type of WPA, Policy Orientation, Policy agenda, Policy-making capacity, Administrative Resources, and Leadership. See RNGS (2007) for the nominal and operational definitions of each attribute, as well as the rationale for defining agency attributes in this way.

20 Tripp et al (2009: 172-3) is one of the few studies that touch upon the contested nature gender mainstreaming in the developing world. Although the authors do not develop a systematic definition of gender mainstreaming as an object of analysis for machinery performance in Sub Saharan Africa from that reflection.
studies it is used as a synonym for any gender equality policy or action. For example, True and Mintrom (2001) use the term mainstreaming mechanisms to describe machineries that were established prior to the development of gender mainstreaming and also identify mainstreaming agencies in terms of the formal documents and not what they actually did. As the RNGS study found in examining what women’s policy agencies actually did, few women’s policy agencies took a purely gender mainstreaming approach, even in the western world -- only 10% of the 75 policy agencies studied took a systematic “cross-sectional” approach while 75% had a formal, but not systematic, mandate to address gender equality in more than one issue. Thus an agency which has gender mainstreaming in its formal title, may not actually pursue a gender mainstreaming strategy.

Gender mainstreaming approaches are not the same as addressing specific areas of gender equality policy. In fact, the developing world literature differentiates between gender mainstreaming approaches and a more specifically targeted approach that focuses on specific areas of gender equality or women’s issues. Nevertheless, it just does not apply this differentiation to analyses of gender machineries (e.g., Staudt 2003, Rai 2003b; Weldon 2002a; Franceschet 2007; Drysdale 2008). Studying gender mainstreaming involves a very different set of tools than examining the various domains where states have pursued public policy to promote women’s rights and gender equality, i.e. violence, representation, health, reproductive rights, family law, reconciliation of work and family, equality employment, housing etc.

2. Uneven Coverage of Regions, Countries, Sectors, and Time Period

The literature on gender machineries in the developing world covers the 165+ countries and six regions of the world very unevenly (See Appendix III). While scholarship on Sub Saharan Africa and Latin America is quite extensive, there is only handful of analyses of machineries about East Asia and the Pacific, South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa. There has been an emerging research on machineries in Central Eastern Europe and the states of the former Soviet Union particularly due to the EU requirement that the new accessor states establish agencies. Sometimes researchers attempt to make generalizations about regional patterns (e.g., Okeke-Ihejirika and Franceschet 2002) but examinations of countries without any discussion of any larger regional patterns are more typical. Most studies that include machineries across different regions of the world ignore any consideration of regional patterns (Byrne et al. 1996; Rai 2003a; Lycklama et al. 1998; True and Mintrom 2001). One interesting piece compares agencies in Latin America to Sub Saharan Africa (Okeke-Ihejirika and Franceschet 2002) and Franceschet (2007) provides an analysis of trends in gender machineries across the region. The issue of regional variation is important for determining whether there are trends in agency success in relationship to cultural commonalities in countries in a given region and their common historical legacies, linguistic and religious traits, etc. With few exceptions (Tripp et al. 2009), studies that do examine more than one country or certain countries within a region do not explain why researchers chose
particular countries. (e.g., Byrne et al. 1996; Lycklama et al. 1998; Okeke-Ihejirika and Franceschet 2002; Goetz 2003; Staudt 1997a); thus often regional studies do not systematically study all countries or a representative selection of countries.

There is very little awareness in this literature about the benefits of selecting machineries for systematic study by policy sector or over time. A first wave of studies of gender machineries came out at the end of the 1990s (e.g., Rai 2003a; Lycklama at al. 1998) as a reaction to the impetus from the UN Beijing process and the preparation for the Beijing +5 conference in 2000. But even in these studies there was a mixture of providing overviews of agencies since their establishment and of focusing on current agency activities, rather than asking the question of whether agency activities changed over-time or a focus across a variety of policy areas. Assessing any variation in terms of policy sector, therefore, is quite difficult. Thus, an important proposition coming from the RNGS study and other cross-national studies of gender equality policy and mechanisms and an important policy concern for the World Bank in the context of this report remains untouched. In most detailed analyses, specific agencies pay attention to a single area of policy—e.g., domestic violence (e.g., Drysdale 2008 and Weldon 2002a) or development policy. And as already has been mentioned, the focus on gender mainstreaming actions usually forecloses any consideration of targeted activities in specific policy sectors.

Based on existing literature, it is not possible to assess agency developments over a long period of time, arguably the ultimate gauge of success. The monographic studies of a single case tend to be snapshots at a single period or moment in time, for example in Rai (2003a) and Lycklama at al. (1998). Many studies do not bring in a time dimension and when they do, the evaluation is made over a time period that is specific for the case and not necessarily comparable across cases (e.g. Franceschet 2007; Byrne et al. 1996; Madsen 2010; Tskikata 2001). And of course, earlier studies of machineries, even if they do take a long-haul perspective, are dated.

### 3. Quality of Data Collected

Evidence marshaled to develop arguments about machinery performance is piecemeal and difficult to replicate. Several studies, usually those funded by international or regional agencies, do state clearly their research steps, (Tsikata 2000 and Byrne et al. 1996). But the norm is to present evidence and information without any indication of how it was collected. As a result, evidence found in studies can be contradictory from one case to another as well as across studies. For example, in one part of their chapter on “engendering state bureaucracies”, Tripp et al. (2009) argue that in general gender machineries are quite marginalized and powerless in Sub Saharan countries. But later in the same chapter they assert in case analyses of gender machineries and their impacts in gender equality policy in three countries that machineries are quite powerful in Mozambique, moderately powerful in Cameroon and less powerful in Uganda.
Another problem is that many of the analyses of gender machineries are embedded as secondary objects in larger studies of women's movements or gender and politics. Out of the 177 pieces identified for this report, only 75 were specifically on gender machineries. Thus, the majority of research on machineries treats them as a secondary focus, often in relation to women's movements sometimes as potential allies but most of the time as a means to dilute or dissipate altogether the movement. This trend as an ancillary object of analysis might be another reason why the scholarly literature does not provide systematic operational definitions.

Finally, most studies use secondary source analyses of gender policy machineries or data about machineries from international agencies rather than primary source data that is conducted by independent scholars, through surveys, archival work, interviewing, focus group, participant observation, etc. On one hand this means that many of the studies are superficial accounts of machineries. On the other, the same incorrect analyses are repeated in other studies, thus reinforcing the analytical weaknesses of all the literature on gender machineries in the developing world. The solution we propose below is to conduct new primary research studies that are based on careful conceptualization, transparent decisions about the objects of analysis and the deliberate selection of cases for analysis.

D. Determinants of Agency Effectiveness: A Menu of Potential Factors

We now turn to examining the determinants for agency effectiveness that are suggested by the literature. Given the problems in conceptualizing, measuring and analyzing agency effectiveness pointed out in the previous section, this list of ingredients is by no means definitive. Instead, each factor should be seen as a potential influence that can be examined in future studies of gender machinery activities. It is important to note that in the process of developing and conducting future research projects, the specific focus of each factor might change as well as its relative analytical importance, particularly when researchers take-up the task of clearly defining and developing measures for each concept. In many instances, one factor or influence actually includes many different sub factors that may need to be examined separately in terms of their relevance for agency success. RNGS has already indicated the probability of a combination of factors emerging as being important in certain cases over others and some studies on the developing world do suggest a particular combination of factors will lead to more successful outcomes. The principles of equifinality- there is more than one path to the same outcome and the importance of combinations of necessary and sufficient conditions found in the RNGS study also apply in understanding the recipe for agency effectiveness in the developing world. Regional patterns may be found that present certain combinations of factors as the line-up of ingredients that are common gender machineries in that region. Given the uneven coverage of regions, however, the issue of regional patterns remains a question for research. Other influences not listed here may also be identified. Therefore, this list should be seen as a menu of possible influences to be explored in future research.
We start with the five major UN factors that much of the literature uses as major a touchstone and are often seen as the necessary conditions that need to exist together for agency success regardless of country. These first five factors also correspond to some of the conditions found to be important in the RNGS study. The next three factors focus on conditions that are specific to the developing world context that are not salient in the Western post industrial countries and the last three are ingredients that have proven to be important in both western and non western settings. There are additional factors that are mentioned more sporadically in the literature, i.e, influence of the left in power and design of government, that are not covered here. It is important to note that some of these factors might correspond with regional grouping

F1. Location at the Highest Level - Machineries that are located in the highest level of government, close to where important decisions are made will be more likely to be successful, although this is not always a panacea. Goetz (2003) in her study of agencies in Bangladesh, Chile, Jamaica, Morocco and Vietnam asserts that offices in positions of power must also be well-resources. This is one condition among many that explains success in the RNGS study of policy adoption and many studies on the developing world identify this as an important ingredient to more success.21

F2. Clarity of Mission and Mandate – Here machinery success occurs when agencies have clearly defined mandates and missions that are unambiguous. Many studies question the effectiveness of cross-sectional mandates associated with mainstreaming as being effective tools for gender machineries.22

F. 3 Meaningful Links with Developed and Strong Civil Society Groups – The focus here is that agencies are more effective if they work with strong and developed civil society organization, e.g., NGOs and women’s movements. Collaborative “strategic partnerships” between agencies and groups are identified as being conducive to success in Latin America and the Caribbean (Franceschet 2007 and Lycklama et al. 1998) and in some Sub Saharan African countries, but not all. Gender machineries have sometimes sought to undermine groups in some countries in the region – although it was not clear from the analyses whether this made them successful or not. In other African countries, the presence of a strong women’s movement did not lead to success; again showing the lack of any regional patterns in Sub Saharan Africa (Tripp et al. 2009 and Tsikata 2001). Thus, it may be that gender machineries can be successful without women’s movement presence.

22 See Byrne et al. (1996); Goetz (2003); Rai (2003a); Valiente (2007) (Lycklama et al. (1998); Lewis (1990); Gouws (2005-2006).
Still, the presence of a strong and autonomous women’s movement as a part of a strong civil society seems to be an important part of the recipe for success.  

F.4 Adequate Resources – The presence of relatively well-resourced agencies is often seen as a sign of success if not an ingredient for potential effectiveness. The level of resources allocated to machineries is often linked to the availability of resources and funding more generally within a country, to state capacity and political—two other factors examined here. In poorer countries with less developed government structures, it is less likely that agencies receive high levels of funding. Whether adequate resources are necessary for agency success remains a central question for research. Some studies show that agencies can be effective in resource-poor environments, for example in Mozambique (Tripp et al. 2009).

F.5 Accountability -- Connected to the notion of legitimacy, Rai (2003); Hassim (2003) and Gouws (2005-6) identify the importance of groups and individuals outside of the state to recognize that gender machineries are able to speak for and/or represent women. The notion that women’s policy agencies can represent women’s interests is central to the literature on western democracies as well and is seen as a major function of agencies there (Weldon 2002b).

F.6 Political Will/ Leadership – Many studies draw attention to the importance of the support of the leadership of the government for the machinery and overall goals of gender equality to succeed (Rai 2003a). This may be an intervening factor in that agencies are given more powerful and clearer mandates as well as more resources when the government hierarchy is supportive of their mission and gender equality issues are high on policy agendas. Concomitantly, powerful and well-resourced agencies may meet with solid obstacles unless they receive the support of the political leaders of a country. In some Sub Saharan African countries, the support of the “first ladies” is crucial in blocking success, particularly with regards to partnerships between machineries and society based women’s organizations (Tsikata 2001).

F.7 Democratization – The degree to which democracy has been established and consolidated with a proven track record on rule of law and legitimate legal institutions can be quite crucial for success as well. As Rai (2003a) and others

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23 Also see Byrne et al (1996), Hassim (2003), Kbesiga (2003), Waylen (2007); Honculada and Pineda Ofreneo (2003); Galligan and Sloat (2003); Goetz (2003); Jezerska (2003); Adams (2007) and Bego (2011).

24 Also see Goetz (2003); Lewis (1990); Byrne at al. (1996); Mama (1997); Jezerska 2003, Kbesiga (2003); Rai (2003a); Waylen (2008), Tripp et al. (2009); Gouws (2005-2006); Honculada and Pineda Ofreneo (2003); Galligan and Sloat (2003); Jezerska (2003); Okeke-Ihejirikam and Franceschet (2002); and Kbesiga (2003).
(Hassim 2003 and Htun and Weldon 2010) point out, issues of women’s participation and representation and gender equality are more apt to be taken up by stable democratic governments. True and Mintrom (2001) also specifically identify that higher levels of democratization are an important factor, after the presence of transnational women’s movements (see also below under extra national factors).

**F. 8 Policy Legacies** -- Work on Central Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union shows in particular how the legacy of communism has influenced the ability of gender machineries to pursue gender equality and work with the women’s movement (Sperling 1999 and Bego 2011). As countries move further away in time from the communist era, agencies are less fettered by the historical connection between communist regimes and gender equality. The legacy of “coup d’état states” and one party rule is pinpointed as well as a factor that holds back gender machineries in certain Sub Saharan countries (Tsikata 2001). These legacies are part and parcel of the effects of post colonialism in Sub Saharan Africa but also in other parts of the developing world that were recently decolonized (e.g., Rai 2003c; Tsikata 2001).

**F. 9 Extra-national Influence** -- A variety of influences beyond the nation-state are highlighted by the literature. They are often seen as double-edged swords. For example, while the international pressure to create gender machineries was instrumental in their establishment, agencies can be allowed to languish if they are only seen as symbolic responses to that pressure. The trend toward Women in Development and the Gender in Development policies in many developing countries in the 1970s sought to de-emphasize western-based notions of feminism and hence downplayed the importance of promoting gender equality (Tsikikata 2001). The pressure for developing countries to adopt neo-liberal policies, from many different international financial institutions, is also seen by many analysts of gender machineries as undermining factor; privatization and a focus on the private sector as the major arena for action means that gender machineries are not seen as important agents of change by the government and may be marginalized and left languish.25 Women’s movement participation in “Transnational Advocacy Networks (Keck and Sikkink 1997)” that mobilize around international gender equality policy discussions through the United Nations and other international agencies has been also seen as an important part of gender machinery success and so serves as positive rather than negative extra-national force (e.g. True and Mintrom 2001 and Lycklama et al. 1998). Foreign aid has been seen as both a positive and a negative force. Drysdale (2008) shows that the combined pressure of foreign donors and women’s movement groups that allowed for a feminist voice to be heard on an executive commission on violence against women in Guatemala.

**F. 10 State Capacity/Political Instability** -- Stable and established government structures are seen as an essential backdrop for agency success throughout the

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25 See Galligan and Sloat (2003); Goetz (2003); Jezerska (2003); Adams (2007), Waylen (2007); Sundstrom (2005), Kwesiga (2003), Avdeyeva (2009), Bego (2011)
When governments restructure and change over-time machineries are found to get lost in the shuffle. Although the imperative of at least the presence of gender machineries across the world and their complexity suggests that even in more fragile and less developed states, machineries have still been able to get a foot hold. In addition, an emerging literature on gender machineries operating in transitional settings can help determine to what degree agencies can be effective under conditions of extreme instability.27

F.11 - Cultural Norms about Gender Equality --This last factor captures more cultural influences. That is the degree to which established norms and attitudes, sometimes called ideology, about gender relations block the articulation of gender equality claims, policies and serve as important obstacles to gender machineries that have a pro-active feminist agenda that promotes gender equality (e.g. Avdeyeva 2009). Staudt (1997) identifies the dominant ideology among non feminist bureaucrats as an important obstacle for change and Okeke-Ihijirika and Franceschet (2002) pinpoint the use of gender ideology by women’s movements to be important parts of understanding the difference between gender machinery performance in Chile and Nigeria. Weldon and Htun (2010) suggest that the effect of cultural norms may vary by policy type in policies that are more oriented toward morality, conservative religious.

E. Good Practice in Research: Four Illustrative Cases

Despite the serious problems outline above in the scholarship on gender machineries as a whole, there are some studies more than others that provide useful analyses about pathways to effective agencies in the developing world, although there are still problems with them that prevent any systematic understanding. The country case analyses in Rai (2003), an edited volume that presents the findings of the 1998 United Nations Expert Group Meeting on National Machineries, for example, offers a framework to assess machinery successes and covers through detailed national case studies in five countries (Ugalde 2003; Honculada 2003; Jezerska 2003; Kwesiga 2003; Rai 2003c) and a cross-national analysis in five additional developing countries (Goetz 2003). Byrne et al. (1996) develop some useful indicators of gender mainstreaming in their analysis of case study material in 12 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries. In Sub Saharan Africa, regional studies were pursued through a coordinated project by the Third World Network, e.g. Tiskata (2001), Chisala and Nkopmkomalimb (2000), and Mama (2000) along with some high quality monographic work on South Africa (Gouws 1996, 2005-06 and Seidman 2003); and Ghana (Madsen 2010). Also, there has been a good number of monographs and region-wide studies of machineries in Latin America, e.g. Alvarez (1990); Baldez (1991) Francechet (2003 and 2007); Friedman (2000a and

26 See Valiente (2007); Gouws (1996); Goetz (2003); Jezerska (2003); Kwesiga (2003); Rai (2003); Sperling (1999).
27 See for example Al-Ali and Pratt (2002); Alldén (2007 and 2009); Ariño and Morena (2008); Efrati (2005) and Kandiyoti (2005).

The following four cases represent some of the best practices in this more systematic research on gender policy machineries and, as a result, provide some interesting findings that contribute to the development of our understanding of the complex puzzle of gender machinery performance in the developing world. At the same time, each one has methodological problems that limit the findings. Thus, the presentation of these cases illustrates possible good practices in research, alongside bad practices and identifies some insights about the dynamics and determinants of gender machinery performance. No definitive conclusions, however, can be made about larger issues of gender machinery effectiveness in developing world.

1. National Gender Machineries on Development in Sub Saharan African and the Caribbean (Byrne at al. 1996)

This study, commissioned by the Gender and Development Desk of the Directorate General for Development (DVIII) of the European Commission was selected because of its cross-regional focus – Sub Saharan Africa and the Caribbean- and the measurement it develops to assess whether gender machineries at the national level in each country were able to “mainstream” gender issues in development. Its findings are limited, however, because it does not provide a systematic selection of countries across the two regions - Belize, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Jamaica, Namibia, Papua New Guinea, Tonga, Uganda and Zambia- and adds to additional countries and relies on secondary source case material.

The authors identify strategies adopted by the gender machineries to influence policy and promote mainstreaming of gender in development policy/planning through the inclusion of gender in development plans, guidelines and checklists for planning and evaluation, gender awareness training, inter-departmental linkages through committees and focal points, links to women’s organizations and NGOS. The report asserts that the machineries achieved limited degrees of success in mainstreaming gender in development policy due to political, institutional, and financial constraints, including changing policy goals and backlash on gender discourse; weak mandates, conflicting roles, locations are not appropriate or unstable, underfunding, bureaucratic resistance, and lack of autonomy. The study concludes that to be effective gender machineries must build support in government and civil society and not be controlled by a top-down process. Rather funding should support capacity building of institutions as well as short term policy projects to avoid state-level cooptation.
2. **National Gender Machinery in South Africa 1990s to early 200s (Gouws 2005-2006)**

This study represents an excellent single country monograph conducted by a country expert that takes a long-term perspective across all national machineries. It also uses the notion of state feminism used in studies on western democracies and adapts it to the South African case. It is limited to the South Africa, however, which is often seen as an outlier in the Sub Saharan African setting and is more an overview of structures than an agency specific analysis; thus not any specific line-up of conditions that seem definitive over any other.

Despite hopes nearly a decade after significant funding levels were established for the National Gender Machinery, Gouws indicates that skepticism had been growing among observers as a result of conflict between the various agencies, limited achievements of gender mainstreaming, and uneven engagement with women and women’s organizations in civil society. She uses the analytical framework developed by Stetson and Mazur (1995) in order to consider whether the gender machinery has fulfilled the expectation of influencing policy and giving organized women’s interests access to the decision-making process. She finds that while the machinery has had some policy influence it has had limited success. In particular, the coordinating mechanisms to oversee the various gender machineries have been rendered ineffective due to personality politics and limited capacity. The Office of the Status of Women for example, one of the major gender machineries, had not set an agenda that was clearly feminist and had not been able to influence policy or effectively bring in women’s movement actors into policy discussions.

The mixed record of the machineries stems from overlapping mandates and competition between agencies, lack of resources, leadership problems and the “post-colonial” approach to mobilizing women. That is programs are oriented toward getting women involved with gender projects and mobilization, which can increase their work burdens rather than promote their rights and promote equality between men and women. Gouws concludes by arguing that a more institutionalized process and a movement away from personalized politics would improve machinery success as well as more strategic leadership and developing accountability among women’s organizations.


Unlike the first two studies, Seidman uses primary resource research, participant observation and elite interviews, to study a single policy agency overtime. In addition it confirms some of the findings of Gouws’ study and seems to use a similar gage for success –feminist content and feminist actors; it does not indicate why these particular projects were selected and does not define what is meant by feminism. Like Gouws, Siedman identifies high expectations in the feminist community for the Commission on Gender Equality at the time of democratic transition in 1996 both in terms of feminists involved in gender projects and the inclusion of feminist ideas. However, by 2000 feminists who helped to construct the
commission were pessimistic and by 2002 many of the feminist projects were in
disarray; for example the Commission was unable to coordinate South Africa's
women's day. Seidman asserts that the institutional design of the Commission
exacerbated conflicts over whether feminist policymakers should emphasize
representation of feminist voices within state policymaking circles or mobilize
women to support feminist agendas. Also, there was disagreement about how to
increase the public support over specific projects and which projects to put forward.


This final case uses extensive primary and secondary sources to examine the
activities of a single policy agency in one area of policy, prostitution, from late the
1980s to the early 2000s in Thailand. It uses a more developed measure of state
feminism than the previous two cases from the RNGS project. It has the potential to
dialog with other work that looks at gender machineries role in domestic violence
(e.g. Drysdale 2008 or Weldon 2002a) and other work that uses state feminism
measures. It also is one of the few studies on a South East Asian country. The study
also represents a new generation of studies on gender machineries that have been
produced by recent PhDs that are excellent detailed sources of information (e.g.,
Madsen 2010; Bego 2011; Stachursky 2011). Its finding, that gender machineries
can achieve high levels of success in areas of sexual violence policy, even in settings
where more established gender norms prevail is quite a powerful one and actually
runs counter to more pessimistic analyses of gender machineries often found in the
developing world.

Leeraisiri shows that between 1989 and 1999 Thailand achieved a high
level of “state feminism”. The National Commission on Women's Affairs played an
“insider” role in the development of the prostitution policy and women’s movement
actors participated in the process and some of their demands were met in policy
outcomes- a “dual response”. Since 1999, women's policy machineries have had
more of a “symbolic” role’ they have not sought to introduce gender into policy
discussion on prostitution and have not advance women’s movement demands.
Policy outcomes have been de-gendered and have deviated from prostitution to the
issue of trafficking. The Office of Child Promotion and Protection has taken a
leading role in the area of prostitution policy. Women’s movements were integrated
into the policy formation process, but their demands only partially satisfied, thus
the Thai government response moved from “dual response” to “co-optation”. The
National Commission’s role declined, even though it was in the Permanent Secretary
of the Office of the Prime Minister; thus location was not a key factor. Factors that
appeared to be important in the success of the gender machineries included feminist
leadership and influence from international NGOs.
SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS IN PARTS I AND II:

PART I: MEASURES, FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE RNGS PROJECT

- Agency effectiveness in bringing women’s movement claims was slow to be realized in the 1960s and 1970s. By the 1980s and 1990s, however, the rate of effectiveness increased sharply.

- A major finding of the RNGS research on women’s policy agencies is that it is impossible to compose a single composite picture of the conditions for and drivers of agency success in Western democracies. Rather than a single composite, explanations for agency effectiveness resemble equifinality; equifinality is the situation where different combinations of conditions lead to the same outcome.

- Finding the particular combination that will increase the chances that gender equality machineries will be successful requires consideration of conditions in specific contexts and making judgments with respect to how they might be combined to achieve desired outcomes.

- The particular resources and powers of an agency must be understood within its institutional context and in relation to the various policy subsystems where authoritative decisions are made. Thus, we are not able to offer a single template of a successful agency.

- Examples of composite best practices for specific agencies:
  - **The best practices composite for understanding the Council for Equality in Finland were an a) agency with statutory responsibility for gender issues and proposal powers, b) proximity to subsystems on social policy, c) assertive leadership, and d) allies in parliament.
  - **The best practices composite for Status of Women Canada combined a) proximity of the agency to policy subsystems; b) its statutory mandate to bring policy proposals; c) issue frames of job training debates that incorporated gender ideas and d) close contacts with women’s movement organizations.
  - **The best practices composite illustrated by the Ministry for Equal Opportunities in three debates in Italy in the 1990s combines a) ministry proximity to power; b) policy proposal powers; c) the leader’s commitment to a proposal; and d) the support of movement actors.
  - **The weaknesses of the Institute for Women in Spain in influencing policy shows the importance of providing statutory authority for making policy proposals and proximity to centers of political power in designing an
effective policy agency and that the effectiveness of administrative resources must be assessed in terms of these other conditions.

- The more closely a project’s political systems, policy processes, women’s movements, and agencies conform to the assumptions of the RNGS project, the more likely the RNGS tool for measuring agency effectiveness and impact will be useful.

- In designing an assessment tool, the following questions must be carefully considered before any other decisions are made: What standard will be used to determine what specific actions will improve status of women and achieve gender equality? and What agency activities should be studied with respect to this standard? Decisions made with respect to these first two questions thus set the stage for choices for more hands-on methods of data collection and assessment outlined in the other questions—criteria for defining effectiveness, instructions for gathering data, and assessment of agency impact.

PART II: ASSESSING RESEARCH ON DYNAMICS AND DETERMINANTS OF GENDER MACHINERIES IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD

- Gender machineries, at least in form, have been widely diffused across the globe with a similar level of diversity in form in the developing world as in the post industrial world; there appears to be no regional patterns in terms of form of machineries.

- The large literature on gender machineries is piecemeal, uneven and incomplete; standards of replication and validity are not met in much of the literature. Even the four “best practice” studies analyzed have serious methodological problems.

- As a consequence, no systematic statements can be made about performance and effectiveness of gender machineries in the developing world or about the causal factors that may or may not contribute to agency success.

- It is clear that the specific contextual settings of each machinery must be carefully examined to understand the ingredients for success and failure. It is not clear whether these contexts follow regional or country patterns or not. The analysis of the scholarship on gender machineries thus far suggests a much more complicated pathways for success that depend on sector and time period more than regional.

- There are eleven factors identified in the studies on gender machineries in the developing world that may operate in different combinations to produce
similar and different outcomes of success or failure, depending on the mission of the agency, the time period, the national/sub-national setting and the policy area.
PART III: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MOVING FORWARD

A. Introduction

While the RNGS findings on agencies in western postindustrial democracies provide a solid basis for policy recommendations with respect to establishment of agencies in the developed world (see recommendations in Part I), the problems with measurement and conceptualization, data sources, and consistency of coverage limit what can be ascertained from the literature on the developing world. Thus we would like conclude this background report on gender machineries worldwide with a set of recommendations that will help shore-up some of these gaps in the current published work. Following through with these recommendations would not only systematize that research to produce more valid and reliable results, it would also take the findings of that research and suggest concrete ways gender machineries can be used to promote gender equality principles in development policies and the process of development more broadly speaking. The five recommendations apply standards of social science inquiry to designing future studies and hence use the same general approach that was taken by the RNGS project. While this systematic approach RNGS used should be adopted, it will be up to experts from/of the developing countries who design the project to determine whether the RNGS research design and findings are meaningful.  

B. Adapting Objects of Analysis to Research/Policy Context of Study

First and foremost researchers need to be aware of the policy and research context of each study, information that is fundamental for structuring study designs. What are the needs of the entity commissioning the study? Is it a study conducted for an international organization? a regional organization? a non governmental organization? or an independent academic study? From that, the next set of questions to be answered is at what level of analysis does the “commissioner” seek to have knowledge: across all developing countries, across certain regions or within countries? Put in social science terms, what is the “population” that commissioners seek to understand? (more on this below).

Also, while there is a tendency encouraged by the U.N. to focus only on national level machineries, particularly with the emphasis on “national machineries for the advancement of women,” a complete and accurate picture of agencies should include institutions at all levels of state structures: extra-national, national, sub-

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28 In some ways, this task is already underway. We will be holding workshop on “non western applications” of RNGS Women’s World Conference in Ottawa Canada in July 2011. Researchers and practitioners who work on and/or in non Western countries will be invited to join in a discussion of whether the RNGS study and project can be useful for studying women’s policy agencies outside of the West.
national and local, a focus that has been of increasing interest in studies on agencies in the post industrial West.29

Another decision that comes out of the charge of the study and will determine the research design is which missions and functions of machineries should be scrutinized. In terms of mission, does the study focus on whether agencies pursue specific policies in different areas that promote gender equality – reproductive rights, employment, violence, education, service delivery, family law, etc., or from a more general perspective, potentially inspired by gender mainstreaming, where gender machineries inject gender equality principles in areas of government action that are not explicitly focused on gender equality? The research enterprise would involve quite different approaches and even tools of study in investigating a gender equality-specific mission versus a gender mainstreaming mission.

Here too, researchers may choose to examine sectoral trends across countries/regions, something that is quite important in order to answer larger questions of over effectiveness of agencies. Perhaps, as the feminist comparative policy literature shows, it is easier to promote gender equality in certain sectors than in others. Another research question to solve is what is the range of specific policies that promote gender equality within the developing context; they may be different than those in western post industrial democracies. Molyneux’s (1985 and 1998) conceptualization of strategic versus practical women’s interest may provide some insight into the way gender equality issues are constructed outside of the West.30

Once the type of mission has been selected, researchers must turn to deciding which function of gender machineries should be targeted in the study. Gender machineries are involved with a wide array of tasks. For example The Third World Network study of agencies in Sub Saharan Africa identified the “multiple functions of national machineries” – “policymaking, advice, coordination, monitoring, evaluation and project design and implementation (Tsikata 2001: 43).”

Thus researchers need to determine which role(s) will be scrutinized in a given study. The table below shows the differences in the research materials and tasks that would be needed to consult the various functions agencies perform. Given the wide range of functions and the highly different research contexts for each, researchers need to decide which functions should be examined.

29 The sub-national “focal points” and “office desks” in Sub Saharan African countries appear to be important machineries and several studies reviewed here have specifically taken a multi level approach (e.g., Rinker and Orbals 2009; Gouws 2005).

30 Practical gender interests come out of women’s conventional roles and focus on provision of basic needs such as health, water and education; strategic gender interests are related to addressing women’s subordinate role and promoting principles that will address inequality – legal rights, discrimination, and personal autonomy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Arenas/Actors</th>
<th>Research Materials/ Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formulation/ Adoption</strong></td>
<td>Contribute to defining problems, agenda-setting and making policy decisions</td>
<td>Parliamentary Papers, government documents; content analysis; elite interviews with decisionmakers and societal groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal decision-making institutions: Parliament, Executive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Implementation</strong></td>
<td>Carrying out policies, enforcement, administration; oversight.</td>
<td>Government documents, program analysis; court cases; administrative structures, programs, money allocated; elite interviews;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration and justice system; multi levels of government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment</strong></td>
<td>Evaluating the success/impact of a given policy</td>
<td>Impact Assessments; budget given toward assessment; actors involved with assessment; interview compliance groups and target populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academia, experts; NGOs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Service Delivery</strong></td>
<td>Providing public services – water, health, education.</td>
<td>Resources/funding of service delivery; Direct observation of program delivery at level of infrastructure; organizational analysis- hospitals etc. surveys of target populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration, multi levels emphasis on sub-national and local, specific services- hospitals, police, schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education and Training</strong></td>
<td>Developing and administering programs that sensitize and educate about gender equality issues; women's empowerment public education</td>
<td>Identify actors involved- examine specific programs, resources, budgets etc.; interview trainers. Participant observation; focus groups..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The question of time-frame is a larger research issue to resolve. Will the study focus on agencies that were created in a certain time period, for example as a response to the Beijing Platform for Action, or in contemporary periods? Similarly, given that it is of fundamental importance to determine what happens to agencies over the long haul, researchers need to design studies that focus on agencies over extensive periods of time. The time factor can be incorporated into the focus of each case analysis through examining the activities of a single agency in a single policy function and mission across a certain period of time- i.e. from the start to the finish of a program. The RNGS study conducted “process-tracing” case analyses of agency action in discrete policy debates to capture the agency activities over-time.

C. Adoption of Similar Key Concepts

It is clear that, to assure validity and reliability, researchers need to develop and define concepts that fit the specific research contexts and to be rigorous not just about core definitions but also about the indicators and the materials used for the indicators. The concept of agency overall effectiveness should be of central concern. The five RNGS steps can be useful here. That is, researchers should agree on the content of gender equality goals to be achieved by machineries, on which agency activities should be evaluated, on the specific indicators of effectiveness that eventually need to be ranked in terms of relative saliency in explaining machinery success, on the guidelines to gather information about those measures or on how researchers will assess whether machineries were successes from that information.

Rather than automatically adopting conceptualization from other contexts—i.e., from studies in western countries or from international organizations or NGOs, researchers should examine carefully the applicability of the analytical concepts for their research context. For example, the RNGS approach to success—of assessing whether gender machineries introduced gendered frames into policy debates and supported women’s movement goals-- may not be the best way of operationalizing agency success outside of the West, particularly in countries with regime instability and interrupted democratic development. The proviso of “self-reflectivity” elaborated in Lombardo et al. (2009) about using concepts should be the rule here. Researchers need to be aware about the origins of concepts and their own position in the research process in operationalizing concepts and developing research designs. The bottom-line is concepts need to travel across highly different contexts, not only from Western post industrial democracies to developing countries, but also across the diverse cultural and political contexts found among the 165+ countries of the developing world. The extent of the task of conceptual reflection will depend on
the larger context of the study; whether all of the developing world is to be analyzed or a specific region (s).

D. Selection of the Cases for Study

The context of the study will also determine the population or universe of the study. That is, what is the unit of analysis, in other words, what entities, such as countries, regions, or policy sectors will the study seek to examine? Once the analytical universe is defined, the researchers will need to develop systematic criteria for selecting a sample of units to observe. Resources and time will determine the actual number of cases that can be included in the study. As with the RNGS study, the units of analysis do not have to be countries, they can be agencies, policy sectors, policy debates, etc.

Two strategies of sampling should be considered: representative and selective. In representative sampling, the cases selected for study should represent the full range of phenomena being studied. For example, to conduct a systematic study of agency impact in the developing world cases for analysis might be selected across all regions, two for each region, across different time periods and representing different forms of agencies. In a more selective approach to sample selection, researchers could select to study pure successes and/or pure failures. Cases could be selected to test for the relative influence of the eleven factors presented in this report. For example, study the activities of agencies only with high levels of funding or agencies with clear mandates to determine whether these were important factors. No matter what the sample selection strategy, researchers must spend time and resources in first constructing the universe/population of the study, being clear about the unit and level of analysis, and then developing the criterion/a for sample selection.

E. Template and Guidelines for Analyzing Sample of Cases

Once the object of analysis has been identified, the concepts developed and the cases selected, researchers can now turn to the analysis of the cases. The principles of transparency and replication should be followed in this process as well. Researchers should be clear about the specific methods they select for analysis and clearly report their research protocol i.e., for interview questions, survey instruments, framework for content analysis and so on, so that other researchers can see how they carried out the study. If researchers are doing “process-tracing” case studies from documents and secondary analyses they need to make sure that the information comes from more than one source; in other words “triangulate” their sources.

As the guidelines for assessing agency success presented in this report indicate, researchers need to agree on the criteria they are using for success, the sources of information and how they come up with that decision. It is highly useful
to develop analytical templates for assessing success. Below, is one example of such a template for a specific function and mission.

Sample Template for Analyzing Agency Success in Educating and Training in Women's Political Representation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Agency:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name of Country:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Period:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources Used:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission: Specific Gender Equality—Women's Political Representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function: Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities Examined – Agency Activities in developing public information campaigns, seminars; training for women politicians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of programs of activities:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criteria for Success:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agency used women's rights frames to promote women in political office Yes or NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agency had a significant budget for adopting programs Yes or NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A full range of programs were pursued –YES or NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The agency helped women to be elected to public office Yes or NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Eventually create a typology from these criteria to rank each agency)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F. Development of Infrastructure

We conclude this part of the report with a recommendation about developing a research infrastructure. It is of utmost importance that experts work together to discuss conceptualization, sample selection, and research design and to attempt to secure funding. Solid research designs with clear deliverables will be appealing to potential funding agencies and, even more importantly, will present more useful and systematic results. The inherently cross-national aspect of this work means that research groups should include researchers from the countries involved in the study. While there is a preference for researchers to be citizens of the country under study, if this is not possible, deep knowledge of culture, language and place is a definite requirement. In addition, it is important that researchers have training and experience in conducting research. While credentials are an official indicator for this, obvious significant research experience and knowledge can be a functional substitute, particularly in settings where formal education is not a given. Another consideration in determining the line-up of participating researchers is approach to doing research. If conventional social science methods are to be used, then researchers cannot take epistemological approaches where they are either not familiar in those approaches or have to constantly put them into question. Given the concerted time and effort necessary to both design and carryout the study, it is important that there are some common foundations for collective work to promote an esprit de corps and effective research coordination.
Regular meetings need to be scheduled that bring together people together in person, although video stream meetings are possible. While Rai (2003) and Lycklama et al. (1998) were both products of bringing scholars together at meetings to discuss findings, both in the context of United Nations activities; it is important to have a stable structure that allows for collaborative research design and discussion of results to maximize the quality of the findings.

Meetings should be held through all stages of the study:
- to first discuss the initial design and conceptualization issues and to develop funding strategies;
- next to present preliminary findings and refine the research design and concepts from lessons from the field;
- to present final results toward an eye for producing final deliverable or publication.

Researchers may want to explore establishing independent cross-national research network, like the Third World Network (TWN) or the South Asian Research Network (SARN) -- now currently defunct. Learning from the lessons of these and other networks, would be useful as well as establishing links between existing networks, again to maximize systematization and accumulation of findings.
Cited References


APPENDIX 1. Protocol for Literature Search

Steps taken to conduct non-western literature review search
By Season Hoard
Search Conducted 12/2010-1/2011

01. The search began by accessing the World Wide Political Science Abstracts Index website.

02. A search was conducted on the website by using the following criteria
   a. Keywords: Women's Policy Agencies, Women's Agencies, Women's National Machineries, Women's Machineries, State Feminism, Gender Machineries

03. Due to the fact that some important gender journals are not available on this database, the women's studies database, Women and Gender, was also used using the search terms above.

04. a. In addition to World Wide Political Science Abstracts Index and Women and Gender databases, publisher databases and individual journal databases were searched using the terms above.

05. a. After the search of these databases, Google, Google Scholar, and Google Books were utilized to continue the search using the above search terms.
   b. In addition to a basic search, Google’s advanced search option was utilized. Searches using each of the above terms in the “exact working or phrase option” box and including regional locations (Africa, Asia, Latin America, America, Europe) in the “all these words” box:

06. Some individual Authors known for researching these issues in particular areas were also searched using Google, Google Scholar, and Google Books, authors searched included: M. Rincker, C. Ortbals, Trapp, and Hiromi Tanaka.

07. Requirements for including in Bibliography
   a. Article/Book/Report was about State Feminism, WPAs, or Women’s National Machinery.
   b. Article/Book/Report had section, chapter on State Feminism, WPAs, or Women’s National Machinery
   c. Article/Book/Report had secondary findings on State Feminism, WPAs, or Women’s National Machinery.
   d. The Article/Book was in English.

08. Limitations—The terms “women’s movements” and “feminist movements” were not searched; however, many materials focusing on these movement’s were found through the Google searches because these searches produced results that had these terms anywhere in the material.
# APPENDIX II. List of National Machineries in Non Western Countries
(Compiled by Season Hoard)

## Sub Saharan Africa\(^{31}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women’s Policy Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Ministry for Family, Development, and Gender Promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender focal points in all ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Protection and Women Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender focal points in all ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>Women’s Affairs Department in the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender focal points in all line ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Ministry for the Advancement of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Action and Advancement of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender focal points in 50 departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and the Family (Ministere de la Promotion de la Femme et de la Famille)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>Institute for Gender Equality and Equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>Ministry for the Promotion of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>Ministry for the Promotion of Women and Social Affairs (Ministere de la promotion Feminine et des Affairs Sociales)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Committee for the Integration of Women in Development (Comite d’Integration de la Femme au Developpement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comoros</td>
<td>National Ministry of Social Affairs (addresses gender issues)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Planning Department in charge of coordinating action plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo-Brazzaville</td>
<td>Ministry for the Promotion of Women and Integration of Women in Development (Ministre de la Promotion de la Femme et de l’Integration de la Femme au Developpement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo-Kinshasa</td>
<td>Ministry for Women’s Affairs (Ministere de la Condition Feminine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote d’Ivoire</td>
<td>Ministry of the Family and the Promotion of Women’s Affairs (Ministere de la Famille et de la Promotion de la Femme)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s, Family, and Social Affairs (Ministere Charge de la Promotion de la Femme, des Affaires Sociales et du Bien Etre Familial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equatorial</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{31}\) (Tripp, Casimiro, Kwesiga, & Mungwa, 2009, pp. 169-172)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Role Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>National Gender Policy mainstreams gender issues in ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Women’s Affairs Office within the Prime Minister’s Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Affairs Departments in the line ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Affairs Bureaus in 10 regional governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Ministry for the Family, the Protection of Children, and the Promotion of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Bureau in the Office of the Vice President and Department of State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>Ministry for Women and Children’s Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and the Promotion of Women and the Child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and Women’s Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and Women’s Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture, and Social Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Youth, Sports, and Recreation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Management Forum at central and district levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>Ministry of Population and the Condition of Women and Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Child Welfare and Community Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all line ministries and stakeholder organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cabinet Committee on Gender Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technical Working Group of Principal Secretaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Policy Advisory Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>District Assembly at local level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>Ministry for the Promotion of Women, the Child, and the Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>Secretary for the Promotion of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Rights, Child Development, and Family Welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Women’s Unit and Family Welfare Unit operates through Family Support Bureaus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Ministry for Women and Social Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Development, Population, Promotion of Women, and Protection of the Child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in line ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sao Tome &amp; Principe</td>
<td>Director of Cabinet of Women and Family Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Ministry of the Family, Social Development, and National Solidarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Organizations and Structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>National Gender Steering Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Welfare, Gender, and Children’s Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Office on Status of Women Gender Focal Points (Executive Branch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joint Monitoring Committee on the Quality of Life and Status of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parliamentary Women’s Caucus (Legislature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Empowerment Unit (Legislature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commission on Gender Equality (Independent Statutory Advisory Research Body)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>Women in development units in several ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>Gender Coordination Unit in the Ministry of Home Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in each sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NGO Gender Consortium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children (Tanzania)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Youth, Employment, Women, and Children Development (Zanzibar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all central ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>Ministry for Social Affairs, the Advancement of Women, and the Protection of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Labour, and Social Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender in development Division Parliamentary Committee on Good Governance, Gender, and Human Rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all line ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Consultative Forum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provincial Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Committees of Provincial Coordinating Committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>District Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coordinating Committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender, and Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Management System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Focal Points in all ministries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provincial Gender Councils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>District Gender Councils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Women's Policy Agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Bulgaria** | Commission for Protection Against Discrimination (2004)  
Equal Opportunities Departments within Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (2000)  
Women’s Rights and Gender Equality within the National Assembly  
Human Rights and Religious Affairs Committee.                                                     |
| **Czech Republic** | Unit for Equality between Men and Women within the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (1998);  
Government Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2001)  
The Permanent Commission on Family and Equal Opportunities within the Chamber of Deputies (2002) |
| **Estonia**  | Bureau of Equality within the Ministry of Social Affairs (1996)  
Department of Gender Equality under the Deputy Secretary General of Social Affairs (2005)  
Inter-ministerial Committee for Promoting Gender Equality (2003)  
Gender Equality and Equal Treatment Commissioner (2009)  
The Office of the Chancellor of Justice                                                        |
| **Hungary**  | The Secretariat for Women’s Policy (1995)  
Equal Opportunities Secretariat (1996)  
The Secretariat for the Representation of Women within the Ministry of Social and Family Affairs (1998)  
Ministry of Equal Opportunities (2003)  
Government Office for Equal Opportunities within the Ministry of Youth, Social and Family Affairs and Equal Opportunities (2004)  
Governmental Unit for Gender Equality within the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (2006) |

32From: (Bego, pp. 62-63)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Inter-Ministerial Consultative Commission on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (1999)
### Office of the People’s Advocate (1997)
### Commission on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men within the Romanian Parliament

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Organisations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slovakia</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government committee for Woman and Family (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coordinating Committee for Women’s Issues (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department of Equal Opportunities within the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department of Equal Opportunities and Antidiscrimination (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department for Family and Gender Policy (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department of Gender Equality and Equality of Opportunities (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Slovak National Centre for Human Rights (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Office of Public Defender of Rights (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Parliamentary Commission for Women (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slovenia</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Policy Office (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Policy Commission (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Opportunities Policy Commission (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parliamentary Committee for Internal Affairs (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
East Asia, Southeast Asia and the Pacific

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women’s Policy Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>National Working Committee on Women and Children under the State Council*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Ministry for Women Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Headquarters for the Promotion of Gender Equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao People’s Democratic Republic</td>
<td>Lao National Commission for the Advancement of Women, The Secretariat Office*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development of Malaysia*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>Myanmar National Committee for Women’s Affairs (MNCWA)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>Department of Home Affairs*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Women’s Division, Department of Home Affairs*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>Ministry of Labour, Invalides and Social Affairs*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*United Nations, Division for the Advancement of Women, September 2010
### Latin America and Caribbean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women's Policy Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antigua and Barbuda</td>
<td>Directorate of Gender Affairs*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>National Women’s Council (CNM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>Ministerio de Justicia*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Special Secretariat for Policies on Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>National Service for Women (Sernam)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Defensoria del Pueblo*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consejeria Presidentcial para la Equidad de la Mujer*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministere de la Sante Publique, de la Condition Feminine et de la population*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>National Women's Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>Women's Bureau*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>Ministerio de la Mujer*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comision de Transicion*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>Coordinadora Politica de Mujeres Ecuatorianas (Equadorian Women's Political Coordinating Organization) (CPME)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Women's Council (Conamu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>Institute for Women’s Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Oficina Nacional de la Mujer*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Defesnoria de la Mujer Indigena*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secretaria Presidencial de la Mujer (SEPREM)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Defensoria de la Mujer de la Procuraduria de los Derechos Humanos*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foro Nacional de la Mujer*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Coordinator for the Prevention of Intrafamiliar Violence and Violence Against Women (CONAPREVI) 34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>Ministere de la Condition Feminine et aux Droits des Femmes*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>National Institute of Women (INAM)*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Bureau of Women’s Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>National Women's Institute (Inmujeres)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>Instituto Nicaraguense de la Mujer (INIM)*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>Ministry for Women and Social Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>National Institute for Women and the Family</td>
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</table>

34 Drysdale (2008).
| Venezuela | Instituto Nacional de la Mujer (INAMU)* |
# Middle East and North Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women’s Policy Agencies</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Ministere Delegue aupres du Ministre de la santé, de la population et de la reforme hospitaliere, charge de la famille et de la Condition Femenine* Le Conseil National de la Famille et de la Femme*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>Ministere de la Promotion de la Femme, du blen Etre et des Affaires Sociales*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>The National Council for Women (NCW)</td>
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<td>Israel</td>
<td>Ministry for the Advancement of Young People, Students and Women, Prime Minister’s Office* The Authority for the Advancement of the Status of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>Center for Women and Family Affairs*</td>
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<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>Jordanian National Commission for Women (JNCW)*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>The National Commission for Lebanese Women*</td>
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<td>Libya</td>
<td>Secretariat of the General's People’s Committee for Information and CuJulture*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Secretariat d’Etat aupree du Developpement social, de la famille &amp; de la Solidarite*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrian Arab Republic</td>
<td>Syrian Commission for Family Affairs*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Family, Children and Elderly Affairs*</td>
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<td>Yemen</td>
<td>The Supreme Council of Women, Women National Committee*</td>
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### South Asia

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<td>Afghanistan</td>
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<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Ministry of Women and Children Affairs*</td>
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<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>National Women’s Association of Bhutan*</td>
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<td>India</td>
<td>Parliamentary Committee on the Empowerment of Women*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Women and Child Development*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>National Commission for Women</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maldives</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender and Family*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Ministry of Women Development*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>Ministry of Child Development and Women’s Empowerment*</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Appendix III. Literature on Gender Machineries Worldwide

**General Non Western Countries**


Non Western Countries by World Bank Region

Sub Saharan Africa


**East Asia and Pacific**


**Eastern Europe and Central Asia**


**Latin America & Caribbean**


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