World Bank Institute
Finance and Private Sector Development

PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS,
INFRASTRUCTURE, GENDER AND POVERTY

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INTRODUCTION

This discussion paper on the nexus between Public Private Partnerships (PPPs), infrastructure, gender and poverty is accompanied by training materials and is designed for use in training courses run by the Finance and Private Sector Development section, World Bank Institute. While there is some literature available on the pro-poor aspects of PPPIs, and a wide literature on gender, there is no empirical data available that extracts best practice in relation to gender dimensions of PPPIs. This paper seeks to respond to this gap by examining the PPPI processes through a gender lens, and identifies opportunities and entry points for integrating gender and poverty dimensions into PPPIs. The paper, and the methodology proposed for addressing gender and poverty within PPPI has equal relevance for other forms of social diversity including ethnicity, race, caste, age, disability, and geographical and economic diversity. It is expected that the discussion and methodology will be of use to public officials, policymakers, private sector representatives and NGO/civil society groups.

Gender, Poverty and PPPI

Currently, development approaches in most Sub-Saharan Africa countries are framed within the context of Poverty Reduction Strategies. At the same time, as part of infrastructure reforms there is a move towards greater involvement of the private sector through public private partnerships in infrastructure (PPPI) as one amongst a number of strategies for delivering improved services. As governments seek to optimize national resources and respond to the increasing needs of an ever-growing urban population for access to basic infrastructure services –12 40% of the population have inadequate access to water and sanitation - PPPI are seen to make a contribution to the provision of infrastructure, though they are not intended to replace the responsibility of, and need for, government investment.

Infrastructure encompasses a very broad range of sectors (e.g. water and sanitation, transport, energy) and each sector in turn has many different services, modes of delivery, variations in coverage and range of users. This diversity and complexity, together with the particularities of each sector, make it very difficult to generalise about type of PPPI and the nexus with poverty, gender and other social diversity. This paper therefore is

Trends in private participation: water, sewerage, & electricity

Investment commitments 1990-2001
- Far higher private investment in electricity than in water & sanitation.
- Impact of “large deals” & country specific changes most visible in E. Asia & L. America.
- In electricity sector, L. America & Caribbean account for 43% of cumulative investment compared with 2% for Sub-Saharan Africa.
- In water sector, L. America & Caribbean account for 52% of investment compared with 1% for Sub-Saharan Africa.

Source: World Bank, PPI Project Database, quoted in WDR 2004, p.166
focused primarily on two infrastructure sectors of particular importance to poor women and men - water and transport - and on urban rather than rural contexts in Sub-Saharan African countries. It is hoped however that it will also provide useful guidance for PPPIs in other sectors. There are currently very few formal PPPIs in Sub-Saharan Africa but many and varied relationships exist between public and private partners in African cities and towns. The intention is to encompass such relationships. Due to the limited experience with PPPI in Sub-Saharan Africa, much of the learning and illustrations here have been derived from other regions, especially Latin America.

PPP is a general term used to cover a wide range of agreements or partnerships made between private sector concerns, and other stakeholders - public sector utilities, government departments, or consumer groups - in relation to the delivery of services. These can range from partnerships with large-scale international or national companies, small-scale local entrepreneurs, community self-provisioning and non-governmental organizations fulfilling a private sector role.

The old assumptions that infrastructure reform and PPPI are about economic objectives, and that pro-poor, social and gender issues can be dealt with outside the PPPI or at another time, are changing:

(i) The Director General of the South African Department of Water Affairs and Forestry has called for a global approach that **deliberately puts the poor first and is seen to do so, an approach which is founded as much on the values which underlie the MDGs as on engineering sciences, economics & administrative dimensions of water supply**.¹

(ii) The World Bank is also shifting away from primarily avoidance and mitigation of adverse project impacts to recognizing that economic and social development is mutually dependent. Its Infrastructure Action Plan (2004) calls for greater emphasis on “…service delivery, recognizing the importance of policies and institutions, in addition to financing and construction to build sustainable infrastructure”². There is also a move towards viewing infrastructure as “not just about growth, but equally about poverty reduction and reaching the Millenium Development Goal’s (MDG)”³.

(iii) With growing emphasis on new funding mechanisms (e.g. municipal financing, PRSCs) projects that strive for regional integration and trade facilitation, there is an increasing realization of the need to engage in more macro social analysis to better understand and address the impacts of its programs e.g. the transport sector⁴.

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The World Bank Development Report, Making Services Work for Poor People (2004) highlights that, to make services work for poor people, changes are required not only in the arrangements for service delivery but also in public sector institutions. It calls for strengthened accountability in three key relationships in the service delivery chain between: poor people and service providers, poor people and policy makers/regulators, and policymakers and providers (formal and informal). It recognizes the potential that PPPIs have to make a significant contribution to extending service provision to low-income households in terms of good governance by increasing transparency as well as by overcoming the systemic constraints to efficiency, management and resource optimization, a few examples of which are provided in Table 1. Central questions are:

1. Who is providing the service and how?
2. Who is the provider accountable to – the policy maker (government), the client (the public utility) or the consumer?
3. On a gender-disaggregated basis, who is gaining and who is loosing from the existing system, and how will the PPPI affect equitable access to services?

Table 1. Making Services Work for Poor People: Framework of Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships</th>
<th>Promoting Accountability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Citizens and politicians/policymakers: political patronage &amp; clientelism is often endemic but is an asset that poor men, and especially poor women, do not have⁵;</td>
<td>Introduce participatory processes: engaging and making information available to wider stakeholders including consumer groups, parliamentarians, civil society, women’s associations, the media will increase accountability through informed debate, and will encourage independent monitoring by such groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policymakers and providers: often difficult to separate their respective roles thereby limiting transparency and risks capture by vested interests</td>
<td>By ensuring competition among providers, and choosing providers with an intrinsic motivation to respond to the demand of women/poor, clients can have more voice and demand quality and quantity in service⁶. Solicit bids for services thereby facilitating alternative access by using independent providers &amp; use competition in the bidding process to monitor &amp; discipline providers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clients and providers: poor people feel helpless in the face of providers, and there is much need for accountability</td>
<td>Promote participation: clients can help structure services to best meet their needs, and clients can be effective monitors of services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from WDR 2004

The findings of an Asian Development Bank study in 20 cities highlights the need for significant change in policy and regulation. It confirmed:

1. the limited ability of existing public utilities to reach the poor (and by implication to address gender issues);
2. a number of new PPPI were successfully reforming public utilities but were usually serving the poor by default;

⁵ For an example of the potential negative effects see Ayee, J., & Crook, R., “Toilet wars”: urban sanitation services and the politics of public-private partnerships in Ghana, IDS working Paper 213, Institute of Development Studies, Sussex December 2003

Lessons learnt

(i) Amongst the lessons that has been learnt from the earlier round of PPPI is that where PPPI has ignored social impacts they risk becoming highly political issues. The collapse of water concessions in Argentina and Bolivia because of social unrest generated by substantial tariff increases, among other factors, is illustrative. There is also strong resistance by many civil society organizations concerning the participation of the private sector (PSP) with its profit objectives in policy areas that relate to human rights e.g. campaign in Ghana against PSP in the water sector.

(ii) Engagement with social policy issues has remained on the periphery, rather than an integral part of, infrastructure reform in Africa. The design of PPPI has been weak in addressing poverty concerns, and there has been an absence of any consideration of the impact of such investments on different groups of men and women. This lack of attention to gender extends beyond PPPI to wider infrastructure projects. A recent review of transport case studies by the World Bank found that despite strong and explicit commitment to gender in National Frameworks this did not translate into policy and practice in the transport sector, and that there is bias towards capital expenditures with insufficient follow-up on beneficiaries. The Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Programme (SSATP) of the World Bank and the Economic Commission for African has developed a methodology to align transport policy with national PRSPs. This approach is being piloted in Rwanda, Tanzania and Guinea and has now been taken up by thirteen countries.

The World Bank PRSP Sourcebook establishes some policy principles for the transport sector (see box).

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PPPI, Gender & Poverty, Abridged Paper June, 2004
Experience is showing that there are roles for a wide variety of public, private and civil society partners and that no single player in the partnership can be responsible for achieving social and economic objectives. There is an increasing recognition that as well as focusing on additional infrastructure investments, future PPPI will need to ensure equitable and accessible services for the poor that is reflected in policy, legislation and in contractual arrangements.

**Gender issues in infrastructure:** Strategic investments in basic infrastructure, especially time-saving infrastructure, can accelerate progress towards gender equality in access to resources and economic opportunity. Experience has shown that the gains from infrastructure investment may benefit people generally, but they will have a differential impact on men and on women. For example, lack of reliable water, invariably accompanied by lack of waste water or solid waste disposal systems, exposes children to risk of water borne diseases, thereby increasing women’s workload, not only in terms of collecting water, but supervising and caring for sick children. In Uganda, a recent Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) feeding into the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (the PEAP is Uganda’s PRSP), highlighted women’s overburden and identifies the strong imbalance in gender division of labour as one of major contributors to poverty. Issues of women’s time, length of workday, chores, caring responsibilities, HIV/AIDS impacts and increased number of orphans are all part of this overburden. It points to the implications for productivity and labour, especially acute for poor households and advocates that investment aimed at reducing the burden of women, will contribute substantially to enabling the benefits of other investments e.g. girls education – critical not just for MDG3 but all MDGs.9

The central question here is how to improve the access and quality of infrastructure services for the poor in general, and specifically for women. Gender inequalities are entrenched in the infrastructure sector in the division of labour, the roles and responsibilities of women and men, and in access to and control over resources, and in terms of benefiting from services. A review of gender issues in transport projects found that in Uganda the policy on roads fails to explicitly state gender in its objectives and strategies and thus does not reflect the national commitment to gender-responsive development. With regard to Senegal the review found that transport policy statements

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PPPI, Gender & Poverty, Abridged Paper June, 2004
on addressing gender issues and involving key stakeholders may be paying little more than lip-service to the idea of integrating gender.\textsuperscript{10}

In common with poor people generally, poor women are characterised by their heterogeneity, vulnerability, need for flexibility in accessing services, tendency to access informal rather than formal services, and their need to purchase services in a safe and secure environment.\textsuperscript{11} Women are usually the first within a household to switch their source of service to save money e.g. walk longer distances often in unsafe environments to get free water, or walk rather than take vehicular urban transport to get to market – in Turkmenistan 28% women compared with 14% men walk to work. Households will invest in transport services for health emergencies but are less forthcoming for preventive health care - women invariably walk with their children to health clinics. Some Muslim women are not allowed to leave their households resulting in underused standpipes, or are not permitted to travel in the same section of a public bus as men. In some contexts, removal of standpipes or communal washing areas can have a negative effect on women’s opportunity to socialize with other women.

Policy and decision makers need to take account of women and men’s different situations and lifestyles and understand their perspectives and realities. Gender analysis will be essential in design and implementation of infrastructure reforms and gender issues should be considered when selecting technologies and developing institutional arrangements. Without this, the consequent lack of adequate infrastructure (water, electricity, sanitation, transport, energy) will come at the expense of girls’ schooling or women’s time for paid work or leisure.\textsuperscript{12}

\textsuperscript{10} A series of Case Studies were conducted looking at Integration of Gender in World Bank Financed Infrastructure Programmes. There are 10 reports from 9 country studies (Bangladesh, China, Lao, Lesotho, Peru, Senegal, South Africa, Uganda and Vietnam). The Synthesis Report is written by Jeff Turner (November 2003) of TRL, World Bank

\textsuperscript{11} Plummer, J, Developing Inclusive Public-Private partnerships: the role of small-scale independent providers in the delivery of water and sanitation services, paper presented at “Making Services Work for Poor People”, World Development Report 2003/4, October 2002

\textsuperscript{12} World Bank, Engendering Development Through ,Gender Equality in Rights, Resources and Voice, a world Bank Policy Research Report, a co-publication with Oxford University Press, 2001
FRAMEWORK FOR ADDRESSING GENDER AND POVERTY IN PPPIs

Policy and operational decisions need to be based on an informed analysis of the social as well as economic and governance contexts, and PPPI arrangements must have the legal and policy mandate to promote equity and inclusion for different groups of customers. Underpinning the legal, policy and regulatory processes is the need for an understanding of impact of existing and planned infrastructure development social diversity and gender. The figure that follows provides a framework for addressing gender and poverty issues at these two key stages in the development of a PPPI by identifying issues and entry points. (It is understood that these stages are not a linear progression e.g. regulatory framework will be established from an early stage). A social assessment is central to the framework; gender-disaggregated data should inform the process throughout, as should the active involvement of civil society. Before policy decisions are taken, policy makers need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the existing situation both from an economic and social perspective. A key question which should guide decisions is:

Who is currently benefiting from the current service and who is excluded, and how does this affect different groups of women and men?

In cases of major reforms with broad reaching implications, a Poverty and Social Impact Assessment may be required. PSIAs are more complicated and costly than social assessments but are becoming more common.

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Poverty and Social Impact Assessment (PSIA)
A PSIA is the analysis of the intended and unintended consequences of policy interventions—before, during implementation, and after—on the well-being of different social groups and with a particular focus on the poor and vulnerable. It is an approach designed to help policy makers understand the impact of policy reforms and public actions on social and poverty outcomes. PSIA can be applied to any development policy, not only those with an explicit poverty reduction aim, in order to identify distributional and poverty consequences.

Based on a database held by DFID, of the 134 PSIA’s completed to date thirty eight have been in infrastructure sectors. Common areas of study have included: Road construction impact (Ethiopia), utility pricing (Ghana), energy/Electricity sector reform (Ghana, Lesotho, Mauritania, Niger, Mongolia, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Yemen), water privatisation/reform (Mauritania, Uganda, India, Iran), subsidies on liquid fuels (Mozambique, Bolivia, Nepal, Yemen). Other examples include fuel tax reform in Mozambique, electricity privatisation in Honduras, and removal of water subsidies in Armenia.

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13 See World Bank Guidelines for Social Analysis in the Transport Sector (draft, June 2004)
14 The World Bank PSIA website has recently included a section on utility reforms (Feb 2005) which is based on a comprehensive summary overview of the literature on the impacts of utilities reform, comprising 46 country studies and 13 cross-country studies with a fully referenced bibliography, see Vivien Foster, Erwin R. Tiongson and Caterina Ruggeri Laderchi, Utility Reforms, World Bank http://lnweb18.worldbank.org/ESSD/sdvext.nsf/81ByDocName/PSIAandUtilityReformsbyVivienFosterErwinTiongson/SFILE/Utility.pdf
**Figure 1. FRAMEWORK FOR ADDRESSING GENDER AND POVERTY ISSUES IN PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS**

**KEY ENTRY POINTS:**

**PRE-CONTRACT PROCESS**

(See Tables 1, 2, & 3 for elaborations)

**Step 1. SOCIAL ASSESSMENT or PSIA**

On a gender & poverty disaggregated basis:

1. **Stakeholder Analysis**
   - Identify all stakeholders, their interest & potential impact on the project

2. **Situation Analysis**:
   - Impact of existing legal & regulatory framework on access & affordability
   - Demand & supply (including coverage, price & formal & informal providers)
   - Beneficiaries of existing subsidies
   - User & non-user perception of existing services & standards
   - Technology options

3. **Communication strategy**
   - Identify an approach (mechanisms, channels, methodology) targeted at poor (often illiterate) women & men.

**Step 2. POLICY FORMULATION**

1. **Cohesion of infrastructure policy with national policies on social/poverty/gender**
   - Clarify roles & responsibilities of different agencies in PPPI regarding the nexus between infrastructure sector & gender & poverty policies e.g. the PRS, national equality & gender policies
   - Recruit transaction advisers that have a capacity & track record of implementing these policies

2. **Possible measures to address gender & social equity with efficiency**
   - Inclusive contracts with a menu of options & providers (formal & informal)
   - Provision for operation in unplanned/informal areas
   - Adoption of standards relevant to the context that promote inclusion
   - Strategically targeted subsidies, including out-based aid, to support gender as well as economic equity
   - A human resource policy:
     - Retrenchees: provision for adequate social protection & counseling support
     - Employees: targets for promotion & training of women within the service

**Step 3. REGULATION**

1. **Underlying Values**
   - Commitment to implementing government’s social as well as economic objectives
   - “Putting the poor first” and be seen to do so

2. **Promote both accessibility and affordability**
   - Ensure scope for small scale providers
   - Set technology & quality standards relevant to the context such that they promote inclusion
   - Target subsidy instruments e.g. output-based aid

3. **Anticipate & monitor distributional impacts**: On a gender-disaggregated basis:
   - Collect & analyze baseline & monitoring data
   - Identify the “vulnerable” in need of subsidies
   - Monitor impact of tariffs and subsidies
   - Monitor connections & disconnections

4. **Communication & Transparency**
   - Hold public consultations in poor areas, separately for women & men if necessary
   - Use local languages, & advise on people’s rights & services available
   - Gender disaggregate qualitative & quantitative consumer surveys
   - Establish gender representation on consumer boards & other decision-making bodies
   - Use gender/poverty advisors, & encourage grievance committees and external monitoring

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**Civil Society:**

Role: representation, advocacy, gender analysis, information sharing, service delivery

Consultation on pro-poor and gender equity in PPPIs; advocacy on the policy cohesion & adoption of social objectives; building relationships of trust; support to furthering stakeholder understanding of gender & poverty.

Promoting public awareness and consumer rights; advocacy for vulnerable/excluded/gender equity; research to measure pro-poor & gender differences in access and benefits
Stage 1. ENTRY POINTS FOR GENDER WHEN PREPARING A PPPI

Social Assessment (or PSIA)
To make the right policy decisions governments need information on the existing status quo, not just in terms of the economic and governance strengths and weaknesses of the utility but also its performance on social objectives. The social assessment (or PSIA) will examine the opportunities, constraints, likely impacts and social risks relevant to different groups of people, but should be seen as part of an on-going process and not a once-off study. Steps in the social assessment include:\[15\]:

(i) **Stakeholder analysis** Identification & analysis of key concerns of various stakeholders, based on disaggregation by social diversity and gender;

(ii) **Situation analysis**
(a) the poverty and gender profile of the poor and their engagement with the market structure,
(b) the impact of the legal and regulatory framework on social and gender equity
(c) supply: the range of service providers that are operating in the sector, both formal and informal; provision and uptake of services by different groups of poor women and men
(d) perception of customers and potential customers (gender-disaggregated) on the reliability, quality and price.

With the increasing impact of HIV/AIDS in Africa, it will also be necessary to disaggregate differences across households e.g. grand-parent and child-headed households, and households affected by HIV/AIDS.

(iii) **Demand**: identify heterogeneous low-income households and gender based constraints to demand (access and affordability), and the factors that influence willingness to pay for different types of services capacity and vulnerability e.g. (capacity and vulnerability)

(iv) **Standards**: Do they lead to exclusion of some groups from service?

(v) **Technology**: identify preferred technology choice of different male and female income consumers and why, and preferred payment method.

Analysis of the findings of the gendered poverty/social assessment will provide direction to three main areas:
1. **Policy**: guidance for the formulation of pro-poor and gender-responsive policy and strategy recommendations and implementation processes (this is discussed in the next section).
2. **Communication**: guidance on a gendered communication strategy for the PPP process targeted at low income, often illiterate women and men, and using appropriate channels of communication.

It will be important that the stakeholder analysis extends to unplanned and informal areas where the poorest generally live, and that all data be collected on a gender-disaggregated basis. A check-list for this is provided in Table 1.

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15 Detailed guidance on social assessment is available from the World Bank Social Analysis Sourcebook. For sector-specific guidelines see, for example, Guidelines for Social Analysis in the Transport Sector Draft (2004), World Bank.

PPPI, Gender & Poverty, Abridged Paper June, 2004
### Table 1: SOCIAL ASSESSMENT & STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder analysis</th>
<th>Gender disaggregation of stakeholders and their interests:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- better-off &amp; low income customers &amp; potential customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- men, women, children at household &amp; business level, women’s groups/associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- range of service providers – formal &amp; informal, &amp; factors influencing choice of location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- secondary stakeholders – public utility agencies, parent ministry, consumer groups and civil society</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-economic context</th>
<th>Pattern of residential development disaggregated by population, gender, ethnicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Availability of social infrastructure &amp; how it facilitates the different roles and responsibilities of poor men and women in different locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Access to services by different income and gender groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ability/willingness to pay for services for men and women</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existing coverage</th>
<th>Establish existing coverage for disaggregated groups of men and women in different income areas; identify who is included &amp; excluded from services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Service targets for these different groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Profile of providers (formal &amp; informal) that service these disaggregated groups (quality, quantity, standards, efficiency, reliability, barriers to up-scaling, constraints &amp; risks faced)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legal and regulatory framework</th>
<th>Identify existing statutory responsibilities of various agencies including those addressing poverty and gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Implications of, constraints of, need for changes, in existing legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Examine tariff and subsidy structure and identify who benefits/is excluded on an income and gender disaggregated basis</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy framework</th>
<th>National policy on poverty, gender, infrastructure and services (PRSP, sector policies, national development plans etc)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Policy for service provision for poverty regions, low income communities /households especially poor female and child headed households</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Policy on exclusive contracts, involvement of small scale, &amp; informal providers &amp; community groups; barriers to entry, land tenure, expropriation of infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Policy on informal and unplanned areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Investment policy</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology choice</th>
<th>Appropriate to the needs of low income areas, and the needs of women?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Cost implications for different income groups, and within this, for men &amp; women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Range of options, quality and standard appropriate to the context, promoting inclusion and increased access</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutional arrangements</th>
<th>Role of public, private, civil society, community organizations &amp; their track record in addressing gender/ poverty issues (coverage, reliability, commitment, capacity)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Role of small scale providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Gender disaggregated user perception of relevant government agencies &amp; providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Willingness to embark on institutional capacity building related to gender and poverty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Governance</th>
<th>Relationship between policy makers, providers and clients (to whom are providers responsible), and role of civil society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Political bias or corruption related to budgetary allocation and expenditure, and in connection and service provision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Perceptions of different stakeholders, especially poor men and women (providers, service, access, standards, price, reliability, billing etc)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consumer role in decision-making</th>
<th>Existing methods of consultation with customers &amp; gender disaggregated information and analysis of who they reach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Involvement of civil society including women’s associations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Communication strategy | Existing strategy & extent to which it is inclusive of all stakeholders (methods, channels, messages appropriate to low income people – both women & men) |

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Stage 2. ENTRY POINTS FOR GENDER IN POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR PPPI

Experience has shown that unless consciously planned for, PPPI policy can inadvertently erect barriers to improving services for low-income households and can fail to address women’s priorities. Government and regulators can take action to promote pro-poor and pro-gender PPPIs, and these measures are discussed in this section.

**Institutional reform and private sector participation**

(i) *Move away from exclusivity towards a range of providers*: Exclusive contracts can pose real barriers to access to services by the poor unless universal service obligations are required. They lose out both on the benefits of competition, and the role that non-conventional suppliers (that may not be connected to the formal network) actually play in provision of services to low-income areas. Service provision can be outsourced to small-scale businesses in order to respond to gender related needs e.g. water can be delivered to, or waste collected from the house or adjacent to it thereby reducing women’s workload and time burden. Measures to promote competition and choice of provider will help reach targets for expansion of services thereby supporting both women and men to carry out their different responsibilities; enable poor people to buy services as and when they need them, and to control spending when they can’t afford them. Control over spending on infrastructure is key for women who, on the one hand, may have little control over the use of household income, and on the other hand, are responsible for the provision of such household services as water and waste disposal. Expressions of interest should require a proven track record in poverty and gender analysis and incorporation of gender expertise throughout.

(ii) *Create demand among consumers from poor households*: In the first instance, set objectives and targets that require operators to service poor areas and to take account of gender differences in demand. In some Latin American cities universal service obligation is required; for example, in Santa Fe, Argentina, the water regulator has specified areas for special treatment and a special level of service to be delivered to these areas. However, instruments that address poor households’ ability to pay must back up such obligations, and targets must be specified.

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16 Such examples include tanker water supplies, community managed water and sanitation schemes, community maintenance of low volume roads, diesel generators for electricity, pre-paid wireless phones to privately owned local phone booths, privately owned mini-buses and rickshaws.


17 For a discussion on a range of possible instruments, see Estache, A., Foster, V., & Wodon, Q. *Accounting for Poverty in Infrastructure Reform Learning from Latin America’s Experience*, WBI, 2002.
(iii) Recognize and support small scale providers to provide complementary services:
Ease of access and reliability are important for urban women who otherwise will have to spend long hours accessing services. Informal providers deliver services to areas not served by others, often immediately adjacent to the house – an important time-saving dimension for women. They may also provide more flexible credit arrangements than formal providers. Support for the development of, and investing in the capacity building of small-scale providers and their umbrella associations to introduce appropriate levels of quality and regulation can overcome the concerns about their informality – poor management, tax evasion, poor quality, high charges and low standards – while also enabling poor people to gain access to multiple independent providers.

(iv) Remove barriers to operators providing services in illegal settlements: lack of land tenure constrain operators from legally operating in illegal or informal settlements, while also deterring landlords and households from investing in infrastructure, especially in the water and sanitation sector. Invariably, it is women who must compensate for the lack of infrastructure through an increased investment of their labour e.g. walking to markets, clinics, shop; headloading goods and water; queuing for water. In the PPPI context, to alleviate the burden on women, and to support the livelihoods of poor people, basic service provision should be opened to competition wherever there is a provision failure from the monopolist.

(v) Technology based measures
There is a very wide gap between men and women in relation to access to technology, which can be exacerbated by the introduction of new technology e.g. men dominate in bicycle and mobile phones ownership. Before choices are made it is crucial to consult women and the poor on what they currently use, their needs, priorities, ability and willingness to pay for proposed services. A crucial factor for poor women will be start-up charges associated with the technology, since meeting this initial outlay may be daunting and they may not control household budget decision-making. Options to choose a lower quality cheaper technology should be explored and the appropriate regulation of standards established. Other areas to explore are possibilities for using cheaper materials, sharing connection costs and other cost sharing measures such as not requiring in-house connections for water. Where large-scale technology projects (e.g. hydro-electricity) are concerned, gender differentiated impacts should be considered e.g. in India where resettlement is required men tend to prefer cash compensation while women alternative housing and land, or skills training.

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18 A study of the aguateros in Amuncion and Ciudad del Este in Paraguay in 1998 by the Water and Sanitation Program, found that a third of all water connections serving up to half a million people were provided by between 350 – 600 independent aguateros. In the water sector, small scale providers operate as individuals selling drinking water, truckers providing house to house delivery, individuals who have dug bore holes, to more complicated water networks; some add value through purification, making soda, ice and flavored water. It is now estimated that in the water sector small-scale providers serve about 50% of the urban population in Africa, and 25% of the urban population in Latin America and East Asia. In the transport sector, regulations that restrict informal service providers are seen to be regressive and the existence of informal providers is often an indicator of restrictive government policies.
(vi) Human resource policies

Typically, down-sizing of staff is an inevitable part of restructuring public utilities. There are comparatively few women in the infrastructure sector, and then mainly at the lower administrative and clerical levels while men occupy management positions. In this context, both because of their low status, and limited technical/managerial skill, women will be disproportionately outplaced, a fact that will run counter to many governments’ objectives of increasing the number of women in the public sector. At the individual level, women may find it difficult to compete with men for management positions because they lack appropriate education, training or experience to be retained, and lack the same professional networks and personal contacts enjoyed by men; absence from work while on maternity leave may also militate against them.

At the operational level, men predominate, but it will be poor semi-skilled and unskilled men that will be the first to be retrenched. Loss of employment will have significant implications for the high number of people dependent on their salary, the health coverage and (informal) welfare associations that accompany public sector jobs. Evidence shows that when men lose their jobs, women must compensate through engagement in the informal sector or home-based work. It also shows that unemployment increases the risk of domestic violence.

Retrenchment policies should consider opportunities for retraining, access to credit to establish small-scale businesses, and financial and social counseling not only for the employee but also the spouse. Budgetary allocations for retrenchment packages must be secured and paid on time.

For those who remain in the organization, management should be pro-active in identifying and setting target for the training and promotion of women, while PPPI contracts should require compliance with labor standards and equality of opportunity. Evidence shows that particular attention needs to be paid to the labor standard on non-discrimination – both of employment opportunity for women, and wage discrimination19. Despite the huge financial investment in infrastructure there are few jobs for women, and then, they are characterized by endemic disparity in wages, often institutionalized in bills of quantity.

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19 The 4 ILO core labour standards are: freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of forced or compulsory labour; the effective abolition of child labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. The 5 broader labour standards, based on international conventions of the ILO and provisions within regional and national law address: health and safety; wages to be paid in full and on time; limited working hours and overtime pay; no repeated casualisation and social security regimes applied. Issues of discrimination and risk associated with HIV/AIDS, while not a labour standard, should be addressed in a similar manner. See Ladbury, S., Cotton A., & Jennings, M., Implementing Labour Standards in Construction – A Sourcebook, WEDC, Loughborough University (2003).
### Table 2. PRE-CONTRACT PHASE: Policy Issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government defines policy which will be informed by a gendered poverty and social impact assessment and stakeholder analysis (Step 1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Equity as a social objective to be reflected in policy statements, mandate of regulator, contracts and licenses, service targets &amp; distribution of resources &amp; subsidies, and informed by a gendered poverty/social impact assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Competition among providers (no exclusive contracts), and support for development of small scale providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Roles and responsibilities of agencies clearly defined, including in relation to capacity for gender &amp; poverty analysis and planning - formal &amp; informal providers, the client, the regulator, civil society groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Provision for a menu of service options, standards and level of service to ensure inclusion of poor women and men</td>
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<tr>
<td>- PPP mandate to work in unplanned and informal areas e.g. license to deliver services to the poor directly or by sub-contracting to small scale providers</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Inter-sectoral policy cohesion to help realize the national poverty reduction strategy or gender policy e.g. to promote land rights for men and women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Financial instruments such as subsidies and output-based aid to support strategically identified services that promote access for specific groups e.g. female/grandparent/child headed households</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Commitment to a human resource policy that minimizes the impact of downsizing including retraining opportunities and social protection package; providing training and promotion opportunities for women; require compliance with labor standards for infrastructure workers</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A range of options</th>
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<tr>
<td>Make provision for a range of services and service providers to respond to the needs of different groups and the different priorities of men and women, as identified in the gendered poverty/social assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure existing standards do not exclude certain groups, and if necessary, consider varying standards depending on the local context e.g. standpipes instead of individual household connections</td>
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<th>Small scale providers (SSPs)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Exclusivity/monopoly clauses in legislation and policy to be removed to allow for alternative service providers who are the primary providers of services to the poor.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Support the development of SSPs to improve their management, standards and quality, and promote women’s involvement as SSPs.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Participation</th>
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<tr>
<td>Require a participatory process which includes user groups, women’s associations, civil society and other stakeholders, both male and female, at different levels and different stages in the PPPI process, and make provision for this in the time schedule and budget.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Bidding documents</th>
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<tr>
<td>Explicitly require that pro-poor and gender policies are reflected in the PPPI terms of reference; short-listing of consultants, appointment of transaction adviser, and in the appraisal criteria and weighting. Capacity for gender and poverty analysis and planning to be evident throughout, and developed institutionally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure transaction advisers have expertise to integrate social diversity and gender into PPPI.</td>
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</table>
STAGE III. ENTRY POINTS FOR GENDER-RESPONSIVE REGULATION

Conventionally, the regulatory authority’s remit is set by government and will vary between countries and sectors, but it is essential that the regulator has a statutory role which reflects the underlying value that all groups of consumers have a right to essential services, and that these be preserved without discrimination. This remit must be backed up regulators having the capacity for such work. For some regulators working within existing scenarios this remit may be less explicit, and there may be need for an exercise that determines entry points in legislation and in its mandate to ensure compliance with national legal and policy frameworks e.g. the Constitution, equality policies, Poverty Reduction Strategies, social and gender policies.

In this section on regulatory policy we draw attention to two main areas of concern for the regulator:
- anticipating and monitoring distributional impacts, and
- communication, information and transparency.

Accessibility and Affordability
(i) Tariff and Subsidy Regimes: Affordable services should not be an optional by-product but, rather, a clear policy objective of the reform process. When establishing tariffs it is necessary to take account of different categories of consumers and different levels of service. Experiences from Latin America and in Europe indicate that creativity in the design of tariffs and subsidies is required. One method will not suit all, but a range of options (a menu) that provide choice related to consumption affordability (subsidies, fixed and variable tariffs, payment and billing methods, and technology limiters), are the best way of ensuring that the poor, and especially women, are able to access services and control payment depending on their circumstances. Public awareness on the pros and cons of different options, and the monitoring of differential impact by consumer groups, are critical elements of the process. Moreover, the basis on which tariff and subsidy decisions are made need to take account of intra-household budget decisions, for example, it can be anticipated that, as many African women have responsibility for water and energy provision but do not necessarily control household expenditure on these items, differential impact of different subsidy regimes will result. Data on such decision-making

20 Several regulators may be involved in the operation of the PPP (Ministry of Health in defining water quality, Ministry of Labour in regulating employment conditions, Ministry of Finance in regulating foreign currency payments and expatriation of earning etc). In this section, we refer to “the regulator” of specific infrastructure services typically concerned with the economic objectives and commercial viability of the PPPI, performance assessment, and in terms of impact on poor men and women, equity issues and tariff setting.

21 For a discussion on a range of possible instruments, see Estache, A., Foster, V., & Wodon, Q. Accounting for Poverty in Infrastructure Reform Learning from Latin America’s Experience, WBI, 2002.

22 When designing tariffs ideally there is need to have household data sets. In countries that use the Living Standards Measurement Survey, slight changes to the data collected would provide this. For further discussion on this refer to Better Household Surveys for Better Design of Infrastructure Subsidies, Public Policy for the Private sector, Note No 213, June 2000)
making processes can be gathered through affordability and willingness-to-pay surveys, and/or the social assessment.

When structuring tariffs and subsidies there are a number of key questions to be considered on a gender-disaggregated basis:

- **Who are the most vulnerable that will need subsidies e.g. female headed households, elderly men/women, child headed households, households affected by HIV/AIDS, households with a high dependency ratio etc?**
- **Are the mechanisms to identify the vulnerable gender sensitive?**
- **From where will the resources to fund the subsidies come from e.g. user charges, cross subsidies, output-based aid?**

It must also be borne in mind that in the case water, many poor households are not connected to the network and thus will not benefit from subsidies, and that to reach the poorest it may be more relevant to provide subsidies for connections.

**(ii) Output based aid** is a strategy for providing subsidies to support the delivery of basic services by private companies or NGOs. It can be used for on-going consumption subsidies, to support the expansion of existing networks, for time-bound subsidies to ease the impact of cost-recovery tariffs, or linked to specific environmental targets. The key issue here is that decisions on how and where to apply subsidies should be based on an understanding of the context and the needs of poor men and women e.g. subsidies on night transport so that women and youth can travel safely can open up additional employment options for them; subsidies to increase transport volume in situations where over-crowded, high passenger density vehicles make it virtually impossible for women and girls to travel safely – for example, in some cultural contexts, at certain times, and when women are heavily pregnant or have small babies.

**(iii) Review quality standards:** typically, the private sector will target those who can pay for a high quality service but the key question from a gender and poverty perspective is whether the standard that is set excludes some categories of people from access to services? The social assessment (Step 1) will identify who is excluded from quality standards, and within this, women’s preferences for service and technology choice. This paper is not suggesting that a lower level of standard is acceptable for the poor, but is arguing that standards should not be exclusionary, and therefore flexibility in standards should be considered without compromising health and safety e.g. high standards are required for drinking water but are not necessary for washing; where cost is a barrier to connection, it may be of more help to women to increase the ratio of standpipes to households rather than target individual household connections or to provide electricity at reduced cost at peak domestic times.

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(iv) **Quality standards and Reliability**

PPPI requires the private sector to meet professional standards usually aimed at a high-quality uniform service, and this is followed by stricter enforcement of quality standards which pushes up costs, with the consequent risk of further excluding the poor from services. To meet the different needs of poor men and women, consideration should be given to a range of lower cost options or alternative provision at the community level\(^{24}\). Regulators could make services more accessible through two key provisions:

1. allow for diversification of quality without compromising health and safety, and
2. facilitate credible small-scale providers to offer poor customers a service with acceptable reductions in quality for a reduced cost.

In the telecommunications sector, there are good examples of collaboration between the main providers and small-scale entrepreneurs; for example, in Senegal, small providers run telecentres based on rent lines from SONATEL the national operator privatized in 1998. The establishment of such businesses will undoubtedly see an escalation with the arrival of Internet cafes, making information more accessible to the poor and to women.

Reliability of service has a major impact on the lives of the population, but especially on women who have few service alternatives. Where service is disrupted, it is often women who are worst affected e.g. they are responsible for household water provision regardless of the source, they have least access to/control over the household expenditure to pay alternative supply sources.

(v) **Billing**

Billing issues related to water, electricity or gas, include accuracy, frequency, and payment methods. Many poor people are illiterate, with the illiteracy rate amongst women being higher compared with men, and thus, where billing is complex or non-transparent, the poor will not understand the structure or inaccuracies. Where there are no individual meters, clarity and information on, and arrangements for who is charged a flat rate or a proportion of a flat rate will be important for the poor, as well as compensation for supply interruption.

**Anticipating and monitoring distributinal impacts**

*Data collection*  Data is required to support regulatory decisions designed to ensure that sufficient benefits accrue to poor men and women, and thus there is a responsibility on the regulator to have a strategy and plan for on-going data collection. This can be obtained from local research/academic institutes, NGOs, private companies, but the regulator should develop in the longer term, a capacity for objective, credible and systematic gender-disaggregated information gathering. The regulator will need to

\(^{24}\) An evaluation of the El Alto Pilot Project in Bolivia, which tested the applicability of condominial water and sewage systems in the context of private sector participation, found that a relaxation by government and regulatory agency of technical standards in order to facilitate greater expansion, and community labor in construction and maintenance reduced costs by up to 50% for each of the two services. Source: *Utility Reform: Regulating Quality Standards to Improve Access for the Poor*, *Public Policy for the Private Sector* World Bank Group Private Sector and Infrastructure Network, Note no. 219, October, 2000.

PPPI, Gender & Poverty, Abridged Paper June, 2004
monitor, on a gender-disaggregated basis, poor people’s access to and use of services, how this interacts with their productive and household responsibilities, and to ascertain their perceptions on tariffs, method and regularity of payments. Baseline data is required so that the regulator understands its clients and their needs, and to establish the status quo regarding: existing services (formal and informal); the process of planned/unplanned extension of service to new customers; connection charges; identification of the vulnerable; impact of tariffs and subsidies; accessibility and affordability issues; connections/disconnections and their impact on the poor; cost-effectiveness of existing subsidies; billing accuracy and frequency; the extent to which these mechanisms and processes are understood by poor women and men. This data then acts as a benchmark for assessing performance on service delivery targets on a gender disaggregated basis.

3. Information and Public Consultations

Without an active consumer voice, the regulator risks being captured by the provider, and lack of information weakens the regulatory process and the credibility of reform. Communities need to be informed about the PPPI regulatory process, and in turn, the regulator needs feedback from customers on performance, service and price. However, organizing themselves to articulate a voice is very difficult for poor customers, and especially women. On the other hand, the process of PPPI contracting can strengthen the voice of the poor, and women, if advocacy groups and public information mechanisms are involved in the process. It will be important for the regulator to identify gender differences in information and communication patterns, and to assess how these relate to capacity-building, stakeholder participation, and information campaigns.

Ways of giving consumers voice include consumer advisory boards, consumer departments and qualitative and quantitative consumer surveys, involving consumers on decision-making and regulatory bodies and government oversight units. Other mechanisms include special gender advisors, grievance committees and external monitoring agencies. Building capacity for consumer relations, and having qualified staff to deal with heterogeneous social groups, are especially important. Enhanced stakeholder analysis and consultation combined with participation will build on these efforts and identify opportunities for feeding back into the process of implementation.

There is a key role for civil society in helping to organize and provide consumers with information on the regulation of services, and on how the private provider is performing relative to the contract and relative to other providers. Involvement of civil society groups can also increase accountability of government in terms of policy decisions and resource allocation e.g. systematically gathering and disseminating feedback from poor women and men; promoting the use of instruments to exact provider accountability and transparency (e.g. instruments such as report cards, citizen’s juries and consumer panels to determine user opinions on a range of issues from satisfaction with services to

perceived levels of corruption); making sure that poor women and men are included when samples are being drawn and ensuring that gender differences and different groups of women and men are disaggregated in analysing and presenting the feedback. It is not enough to have public consultations at the central level, but public consultations should be held in low income areas, using methods and language that is appropriate, and ideally separately with men and women. In Jamaica the regulator reaches out to communities through local churches; special consultative or advisory groups have been formed in Brazil and Peru and regulators have made extensive use of radio.

Table 3 sets out gender/social diversity and poverty issues that are relevant to the regulator.
**TABLE 3. ENTRY POINTS FOR GENDER AND EQUITY IN REGULATION**

*Note: Specifics will be tailored based on the gendered poverty/social assessment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accessibility</th>
<th>Structuring Tariffs and subsidies</th>
<th>Transparency &amp; Performance Standards</th>
<th>Public Consultations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o Regularize activities of credible alternative providers through for example, licenses, contracts, leases</td>
<td>o Identify the most vulnerable that will need subsidies, on gender-disaggregated basis: e.g. female, child, grandparent headed households, households affected by HIV/AIDS etc.</td>
<td>o Establish an ongoing gender differentiated data collection strategy and plan to garner views of the poor on the PPP implementation process</td>
<td>o Mount information campaigns targeted at the poor concerning the new service &amp; their rights (different methods &amp; channels of communication will be required for men and women)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Set standards at an appropriate level that promotes inclusion of low income customers and addresses women’s priorities</td>
<td>o Ensure gender sensitive mechanisms to identify the vulnerable</td>
<td>o Public consultations should be held at the decentralized level in low income areas, with separate meetings to suit availability of men and women, and in local languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Review barriers to connection and consider (cross) subsidy</td>
<td>o Clarify sources of revenue to fund the subsidies e.g. user charges, cross subsidies, output-based aid</td>
<td>o Ensure openness &amp; accessibility of the regulator to male and female consumers, including the poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Analyze gendered impacts &amp; anticipate and monitor distributional impacts</td>
<td>o Structure, frequency &amp; payment methods of bills to facilitate illiterate women and men.</td>
<td>o Encourage a range of payment methods that facilitate low income households (SMART cards, pre-paid metres and vouchers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Monitoring Indicators

‘Without data there is no visibility’

Monitoring indicators will be necessary for accountability and to improve performance of PPPI to address gender (social diversity) and poverty. It is crucial to track the performance of PPPI in relation to gender equity and poverty reduction. On a programme by programme basis, the measurement and reporting of gender and poverty outcomes should be derived from detailed performance indicators and these should be linked to all plans and objectives developed. The more these are integrated into existing monitoring and evaluation systems, the more likely it is that resources and importance will be attached to them. Both quantitative (disaggregated) indicators and qualitative indicators will be needed. These should be straightforward and simple to use, easy to collect fairly regularly and to understand, and not too expensive for the programme. Cost implications of disaggregation of programme indicators by gender may be offset by greater responsiveness to women and men’s consumer interests. Civil Society Organisations have an important role to play in monitoring gender and poverty in PPPI, especially in ensuring accountability.

Appropriate indicators for monitoring attention to gender (social diversity) and poverty at each step of the PPPI Framework would include:

**Step 1: Social Assessment** *(tracking adequacy of inputs to highlight gender and poverty concerns for PPPI)*
- Explicit identification of gender, pro-poor (and social diversity) concerns in all terms of reference and studies undertaken, such as baselines, user studies, beneficiary assessments and willingness to pay surveys.
- Utilisation of gender expertise to conduct and analyse studies

**Step 2: Policy Formulation** *(tracking adequacy of translation of information into gender-sensitive concrete actions within the PPPI measures, strategies and processes adopted)*
- Policy cohesion between PPPI and National Poverty Reduction, Gender Equity and Infrastructure Policies
- Social diversity, including gender and poverty data analysed and reflected in design of PPPI, policy, regulation and technology measures to be adopted

**Step 3: Regulation and Implementation** *(tracking gender and poverty disaggregated outcomes and impacts)*
- Availability of gender disaggregated data
- Gender (social diversity) reflected in key monitoring indicators e.g. patterns of service delivery and use; consultative processes and outcomes (to be identified on a case by case basis)
Allocations towards poverty reduction and gender equity focused actions; actual budget expenditure and who is benefiting from funds spent on PPPI

- Capacity for Gender (Social Diversity) and Poverty Analysis developed
- Evidence of time saved, support for economic activity, effect on economic measures of well being and on wider social impacts (e.g. health and education)
- Capture unintended as well as intended impacts

**CONCLUSION**

With few exceptions, there is a disconnect between the policy of urban PPPI and national governments’ poverty reduction strategies (PRSPs) that are now being followed by so many countries, especially in Africa. There is also a global debate on the “privatization” of essential services such as water - considered to be a basic human right. International experience is showing that PPPI must address social as well as economic objectives if they are to be successful and that failure to do so brings high political risks. Selected investments in infrastructure investment may benefit poor people generally, but they will have a differential impact on women and men, not least because of women’s over-work burden. Heretofore, while many PPPI have been weak on explicit equity and social diversity issues, they have completely ignored gender issues and were designed in a gender-neutral way. It is the role of government to set social and economic priorities and to structure PPPI design to address the interests of all its citizens; however, there are important roles for a wide range of partners – public, private, civil society - no one player can be responsible for achieving international targets that are linked to achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

The policy and practice of PPPI need to have cohesion with other government policies, (e.g. the PRSP and gender policies), such that they address the reality of service delivery in underserved and under-resources peri-urban and (often illegal) slum settlements. This will involve partnerships that transcend the traditional triangle of utility, single private sector provider and better-off consumers, towards a service that aims to provide services for all urban residents, especially poor men and women, and integrates a diverse range of providers, both formal and informal. This has important implications for policymaking, regulation and urban governance.

There is need for empirical data and the piloting of gender-sensitive PPPI approaches so that lessons can be learnt and information shared on the process and outcomes. At present there is the beginning of an awareness of the need to address gender and poverty in PPPI e.g. differential impact of electricity tariffs including low-income consumers in Ghana, and an analysis from studies in other countries as part of Poverty and Social Impact Assessments. In the urban transport sector, work is currently underway in Mumbai, Accra, Addis Ababa, Lagos amongst others. The findings of these studies will need to be monitored and their implications taken forward.