



**EXAMINING THE CONCEPT OF GENDER
MAINSTREAMING IN URBAN SPACE TO PROMOTE
INCLUSIVE CITIES: THE CASE OF WARWICK MARKET,
DURBAN. SOUTH AFRICA.**

BY

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**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Master of Town and Regional Planning.**

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*The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF) towards this research is hereby
acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not
necessarily to be attributed to the NRF.*

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2021

DECLARATION

I Kiara Rampaul hereby declare that the work on which this dissertation is my original work (except where acknowledgements indicate otherwise) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining another qualification in this or any other university.

April 2021

DEDICATION

Deepak, Sharon and Rhea Rampaul

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation reflects my work and study journey to fulfil my curiosity of my capability as a researcher. It is part of the journey to understand the design of urban spaces and the complexity of inclusive cities.

To my parents, for being a constant source of support and encouragement.

To my dad, for being my mentor and source of inspiration and the reason why I'm passionate about urban planning.

To my mom, for always pushing me to greater heights and believing in me.

To my sister, Rhea, for always believing in me and supporting my dreams.

To my supervisor, Professor Hope Magidimisha-Chipungu, for her patience and guidance throughout the dissertation process. I could have not wished for a more supportive and encouraging supervisor, Prof. Magidimisha-Chipungu was supportive from the start and was understanding of the constraints implemented due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Her empathy and understanding have sustained me during these challenging times, she inspires and motivates me. Prof. Magidimisha-Chipungu specialist knowledge on inclusivity and being the SARChI chair for Inclusive Cities was especially helpful, her guidance, and unwavering support is proved to be invaluable in my research study.

To all research participants, for their participation and sharing experiences from which I was able to learn from.

Thank you all for playing an instrumental role in this process, it would not have been possible without your support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE NO.
DECLARATION	2
DEDICATION	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES	8
LIST OF FIGURES	9
LIST OF MAPS	10
LIST OF IMAGES	11
ACRONYMS	12
ABSTRACT	13
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	14
1.1 INTRODUCTION	14
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	15
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	16
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	16
1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	16
1.6 DEFINING GENDER MAINSTREAMING	17
1.7 METHODOLOGY	18
1.7.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM	18
1.7.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	19
1.7.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE	20
1.7.4 DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION	20
1.7.5 CONSTRAINTS TO THE RESEARCH STUDY	21
1.8 OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION	22
1.9 SUMMARY	23
CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	24
2.1 INTRODUCTION	24
2.2 THE FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE TO PLANNING	24
2.2.1 GARDEN CITY	24
2.2.2 FEMINIST THEORY	25

2.2.3	FEMINIST URBANISM AND FEMINIST GEOGRAPHY	25
2.2.4	IMAGEABILITY THEORY	26
2.2.5	SEX ROLE THEORY	27
2.2.6	SOCIAL ROLE THEORY	27
2.2.7	MARXIST FEMINIST FRAMEWORK	27
2.2.8	RADICAL FEMINIST FRAMEWORK	28
2.2.9	SOCIAL FEMINIST FRAMEWORK	28
2.2.10	BLACK FEMINIST FRAMEWORK	29
2.3	PLANNING THEORIES	30
2.3.1	PARTICIPATORY PLANNING	30
2.3.2	THE COMMUNICATIVE PLANNING (CP) THEORY	33
2.3.3	THE ADVOCACY APPROACH	34
2.3.4	THE EQUITY PLANNING APPROACH	35
2.3.5	WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID) APPROACH	35
2.3.6	GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT (GAD) APPROACH	36
2.3.7	GENDER ROLE FRAMEWORK	37
2.4	KEY CONCEPTS	38
2.5	SUMMARY	40
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW		41
3.1	INTRODUCTION	41
3.2	HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF URBAN SPACES	41
3.3	HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING	44
3.4	THE INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING	45
3.4.1	GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AUSTRIA	46
3.4.2	GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AUSTRALIA	54
3.4.3	GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SOUTH ASIA	57
3.5	THE SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING	59
3.5.1	THE CHALLENGES OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SOUTH AFRICA	59
3.5.2	LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS & POLICIES OF GM IN SOUTH AFRICA	61
3.6	SUMMARY	64

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY OF WARWICK MARKET, DURBAN. SA	67
4.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT	67
4.2 PUBLIC SPACE FRAMEWORK	71
4.3 PLANNING OF WARWICK MARKET	71
4.4 SUMMARY	72
CHAPTER FIVE: STUDY FINDINGS	73
5.1 INTRODUCTION	73
5.2 WHY WAS THE WARWICK JUNCTION PROJECT CREATED?	74
5.3 SUCCESS FACTORS OF THE WARWICK PROJECT	76
5.4 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED DURING THE WARWICK PROJECT	77
5.5 GM STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN THE WARWICK PROJECT	79
5.6 WHY WOMEN NEED TO BE INVOLVED IN THE DESIGN?	81
5.7 SUMMARY	83
CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS & CONCLUSION	86
6.1 INTRODUCTION	86
6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	86
6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS	87
6.4 CONCLUSION	88
BIBLIOGRAPHY	89
APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW 1	102
APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW 2	103
APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW 3	104
APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW 4	105

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND COLLABORATIVE PLANNING APPROACHES

TABLE 2: DIFFERENT POLICY APPROACHES TO THIRD WORLD WOMEN

TABLE 3: TRANSDISCIPLINARY TYPOLOGY OF URBAN SPACES

TABLE 4: STRUCTURE AND COMPONENTS OF THE NATIONAL GENDER MACHINERY (NGM)

TABLE 5: PROCESSES AND MECHANISMS AFFIRMING PROGRESS TOWARDS GENDER EQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1: RESEARCH PROCESS

FIGURE 2: PURPOSIVE SAMPLING

FIGURE 3: PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

FIGURE 4: PARTICIPATION LADDER

FIGURE 5: MOBILITY CHAIN

FIGURE 6: GLOBAL MILESTONES IN GENDER EQUALITY

FIGURE 7: GENDER MAINSTREAMING PLANNING PROCESS

FIGURE 8: FRAUEN-WERK-STADT

FIGURE 9: EVERYDAY ROUTE, VIENNA

FIGURE 10: SHARE OF WOMEN IN URBAN AREAS IN SOUTH ASIA

LIST OF MAPS

MAP 1: AUSTRIA

MAP 2: AUSTRALIA

MAP 3: WARWICK JUNCTION

MAP 4: LOCALITY MAP OF WARWICK JUNCTION

LIST OF IMAGES

- IMAGE 1-2:** GANSEVOORT PLAZA
- IMAGE 3:** COURTYARDS OF FRAUEN-WERK-STADT DEVELOPMENT
- IMAGE 4-7:** ASPERN STEED STADT
- IMAGE 8:** PLACE SPACE WHITTLESEA CITY
- IMAGE 9:** CONCEPT DESIGN OF WHITTLESEA PUBLIC GARDEN
- IMAGE 10:** AERIAL IMAGE OF WARWICK JUNCTION
- IMAGE 11-13:** WARWICK MARKET
- IMAGE 14:** PEDESTRIAN WALKWAY, WARWICK JUNCTION

ACRONYMS

GM	Gender Mainstreaming
NOSW	National Office on the Statue of Women
OSW	Office on the Status of Women
SA	South Africa
UN	United Nations
WIEGO	Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing
WID	Women In Development

ABSTRACT

Urban spaces are vital in community life because they allow individuals to build social relationships, participate in activities, and access green places. The ability to occupy an urban or public area can have a favourable influence on one's social, emotional, and physical health. In this day and age, there is a clear disparity in who may safely enter and use these locations. The term "inclusive city" speaks for itself: it is a city built for everyone, one that values all of its citizens and their needs equally, and so must address gender disparity. Gender Inclusive Cities are planned and designed using gender mainstreaming, which includes all women in decision-making processes and aims to achieve Sustainable Development Goal 11: *Make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable*. Currently, both men and women use metropolitan places; nonetheless, the urban environment can still be considered as a mostly masculine sphere, in which women may feel more awkward, unwanted, or excluded than men. The exclusion of women and girls from the urban planning process generates a knowledge gap, resulting in public spaces that exclude them. Women are being let down by city planning. This research will follow a case study design to explore the concept of gender mainstreaming in city planning of urban spaces.

Keywords: Gender, Urban Space, Inclusive Cities

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A city that is inclusive appreciates all of its residents and their needs equally. Baboun (2018) asserts that inclusive cities are places that fight gender inequality. The awareness of how urban spaces in developing and developed inclusive cities are gendered is tenuous with a small amount of data collected on how women and girls are influenced by urban planning decisions.

Without a more profound perception of the socio-spatial needs of women, cities will prevail in the domain of men. The relationship between gender and urban space is a contentious debate around the world which is influencing the design of living space from different social, cultural, and economic aspects. Women's experience in urban life is different from men as women use the artificial environment differently as they have several forms, traditions, roles, and responsibilities.

Men have been historically effective in many urban studies and the quality of public spaces due to many reasons. The gender-sensitive aspect of urban space, as defined by Carp, Stone, and Yulz (1991), may be seen in the way urban space restricts women's movement. This constraint is used through generating patterns of movement and behavior based on fear and restricted access, as well as some assumptions regarding the position of women in urban life (Zekavat and Momenian, 2017). In customary, these limitations incorporate some social norms, limiting responsibilities, limiting feelings, and limited sources of space for the use of women.

Although both men and women now use public areas, the urban environment can still be regarded as a masculine realm in which women feel uneasy, undesired, or excluded (Larsson and Jalakas, 2007). Women and girls' absence from the urban planning process generates a "knowledge gap," resulting in public areas that exclude them (Kneeshaw, 2018). Women are being overlooked in urban planning. Unequal city planning is making women feel insecure. Public parks have transformed into places of crime, and therefore women are apprehensive to visit. Inclusive public spaces are meant to encourage a refined cosmopolitan urban culture yet they have been excluding women or making them feel unsafe.

To create a safe and inclusive city, there is a requirement to reveal the gendered power relations in planning. Gender-friendly cities remain a “utopian concept” as these sort of, cities are diversified, barrier-free, have well-developed infrastructure, are connected, and propose spaces that can be understood and employed according to different needs. In the field of gender planning, Vienna, Austria is accorded a top position at the European level concerning both the conceptual depth of its activities (Vassilakou, 2013). Vienna is the city with a female face. Gender mainstreaming has an incredible mark in Vienna. South Africa needs a paradigm transformation towards gender equality in spatial planning concerning the visualization, deconstruction, and redefinition of social values and norms in urban planning methods and management. When cities become increasingly feminised, gender equity measures to optimise their economic, social and environmental sustainability become more significant (Gough, 2016).

The need for this study stems from the fact that we are an inclusive community and many women still feel excluded from urban planning. Cities must govern strategies for assessing women's rights in urban settings, and planners must reconsider how public spaces are used. Safe streets, well-maintained public services, and gender-specific amenities are important for women and girls. In a truly “inclusive city,” everyone's rights need to be considered, everyone needs to be involved in planning processes, and everyone needs to be able to use urban spaces. South Africa can be transformed into a catalyst for female empowerment, with cities becoming powerhouses of possibilities for women; however, everyone must benefit.

The study selects one of the inclusive public spaces in the city of Durban, South Africa - Warwick Market. Warwick Market is located near Warwick Junction, a transportation and commerce center on the periphery of Durban's central business district.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem to be solved is conceptualised as follows, based on the context and motivation:

1. Given the availability of policies and efforts aiming at gender mainstreaming urban settings, existing literature provides no evidence of a long-term alteration of women's and girls' roles and status.
2. This research aims to examine how gender mainstreaming strategies have been applied to achieve equality in urban spaces and uncover why they have failed – as women and girls still feel unsafe in many urban spaces.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research study intends to meet the following objectives:

1. To uncover the nature of gender mainstreaming
2. To examine the application of gender mainstreaming in urban spaces
3. To identify measures for strengthening gender mainstreaming in South African urban spaces

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions will be addressed by the research study:

1. What is the nature of gender mainstreaming?
2. How is gender mainstreaming applied in Warwick Market?
3. What are the challenges associated with the application of gender mainstreaming in South African urban spaces?

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Consequently, both men and women use public areas; nonetheless, the urban environment may still be regarded as mostly masculine, with women feeling more exposed, unwelcome, or excluded than males (Larsson and Jalakas, 2007). The absence of engagement of women and girls in urban planning creates a knowledge gap, which manifests itself in public areas that reject them (Kneeshaw, 2018). Women are afraid to visit public parks because they have become crime hotspots. Inclusive public spaces are intended to foster a sophisticated cosmopolitan urban community, but they have historically excluded or made women feel unsafe.

The need for this study arose from the realization that, despite the fact that we are an inclusive community, many women felt excluded from urban space planning. Cities must govern strategies for assessing women's rights in urban settings, and architects must reconsider how public spaces are filled. Women and girls need safe streets, well-kept public spaces, and gender-specific amenities. Everyone's rights must be considered in a genuinely "inclusive city," everyone must be active in planning processes, and everyone must be able to use urban spaces. With cities being powerhouses of possibility for women, South Africa can be transformed into a catalyst for female empowerment, and everyone must gain.

1.6 DEFINING GENDER MAINSTREAMING

The notion of gender mainstreaming is central to this research study. Gender mainstreaming has been defined by the United Nations as:

“The process of assessing the implication for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s and men’s concerns and experiences an integral design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political economic and societal sphere so that women and men benefit equally and inequality not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is gender equality” (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 1997).

According to the European Commission (2003), gender mainstreaming is the establishment of a partnership between men and women in order to guarantee that both participate equally. According to Manase et al. (2003), gender mainstreaming ensures that programs not only respond to gender disparities but also aim to minimize gender inequality. Gender mainstreaming, as described by Saulnier et al. (1999), is an approach that considers why gender analysis is central to the policy and program process and integrates women's perspectives and preferences into the center of policy decisions, institutional frameworks, and resource allocations.

According to Mazey (2000), gender mainstreaming is a straightforward example of policy succession or policy adaptation, driven by the need to transcend the shortcomings of current policies and the need to respond to an evolving policy setting. Macdonald (1994) states “gender mainstreaming is about introducing women’s perspective into all areas of development work and claiming both the private and public domains, individual and collective experience, as legitimate spheres for development action”.

Our republic attests that gender mainstreaming is not about women-only problems but equality for all (RSA, 2006). Siim (1988) argues that gender mainstreaming approaches the problem of gender inequality at a more systemic level, recognizing gender differences in current policies and discussing the effect of these gender biases in the reproduction of gender inequality. Gender mainstreaming, according to scholar Stienstra (1994), is an adaptation that allows for transition.

In South Africa, the battle for gender mainstreaming began in the 1990s. Gender mainstreaming is described as follows in South Africa's National Gender Policy (NGP) prepared by OSW:

“... a process that is goal orientated. It recognises that most institutions consciously and unconsciously serve the interests of men and encourages institutions to adopt a gender perspective in transforming themselves. It promotes the full participation of women in decision making so that women’s needs move from the margins to the centre of development planning and resource allocation (xviii)”.

According to Rippenaar-Joseph (2009), the above description “places women at the center of the gender mainstreaming process,” emphasizing that the “playing fields are uneven and that women must be represented at decision-making levels.” Rippenaar-Joseph (2009) goes on to say that the NGP definition excludes men and focuses exclusively on women, calling the principle of equality into question.

1.7 METHODOLOGY

This section describes the research methods used in this report. According to Igwenagu (2016), research methodology is "a collection of systematic techniques used in research." This section examines the research method in respect to a given sector of expertise, as it encompasses subjects like paradigm and qualitative approaches. The primary goal of this research project is to investigate current literature on gender mainstreaming in order to find the achievements, failures, and obstacles that cities that have attempted to implement gender mainstreaming have experienced.

1.7.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A transformative paradigm bases its research on social justice issues and aims to solve the political, social, and economic issues that contribute to social oppression, conflict, struggle, and power structures at every stage (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). This paradigm is suited for this research study as according to Kivunja and Kuyin (2017) the transformative paradigm gives a voice to the voiceless and those less powerful. The ontology of historical realism as this research study relates to inequalities. The transformative paradigm is based on a transactional epistemology, a dialogic methodology, and an axiology that respects cultural norms.

This research study aimed to reveal the disparities between men and women in urban spaces and how women have been excluded in planning designs of urban spaces. This research therefore according to Weiner (2003) follows a “feminist action research” as it is:

1. Grounded in women’s experience
2. Focused on problems that are important to women
3. Non-exploitative
4. Gives a voice to women
5. Gives value to women’s lived realities

1.7.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research study examined as a research question as to question if gender mainstreaming has been implemented in urban spaces. The study was structured and carried out by the following steps:

1. Conceptualisation
2. Literature review
3. Data collection
4. Data analysis
5. Writing report



FIGURE 1: RESEARCH PROCESS

The research focused on examining theoretical assumptions behind gender mainstreaming. It also discussed worldwide and national instances of gender mainstreaming, and thus a discursive analysis of gender mainstreaming difficulties, legal frameworks, including policies in each case.

The research examined current gender mainstreaming literature to identify issues and opportunities for women and girls. The study aimed to identify successful gender mainstreaming implementation in urban spaces around the world and how South Africa can bridge the gap and have all inclusive cities. Qualitative methods were used in the process of data collection.

1.7.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Sampling was used for this study not only because gathering data from a sample takes less time than collecting the same information from a wider population, but also because of the ongoing global pandemic. One of the most common samplings in qualitative research was used in this study. Purposeful sampling according to Patton (2002) is extensively applied in qualitative research for the “identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources”. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), this sampling strategy comprises locating and choosing persons who are knowledgeable about or have first hand experience with the topic of interest.

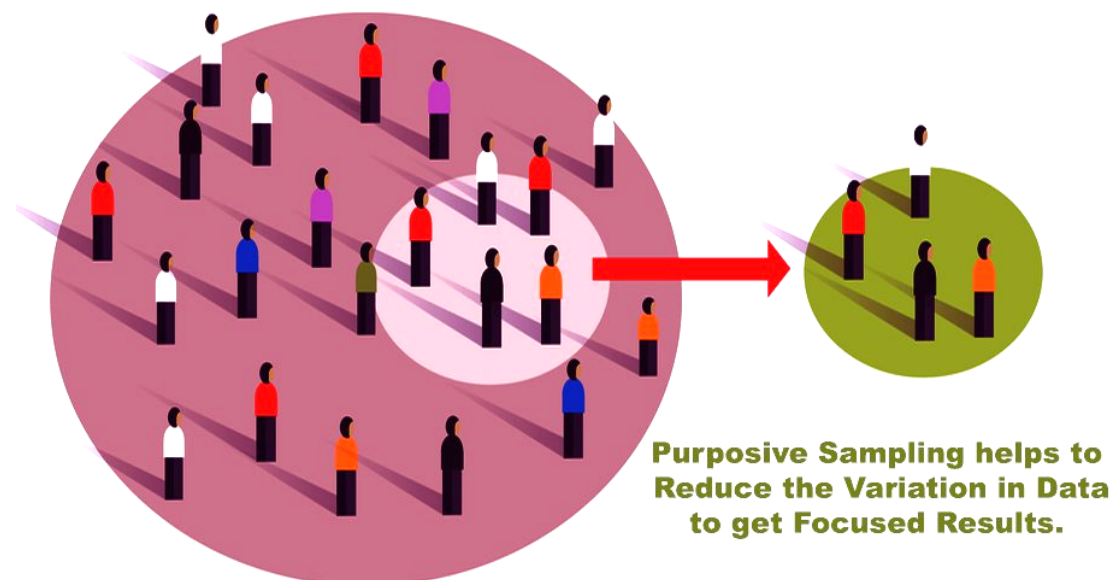


FIGURE 2: PURPOSIVE SAMPLING
SOURCE: GENGYAN

This research study necessitated the examination of individuals' participating in the Warwick upgrade and inclusive cities project's impressions of gender mainstreaming from the general population; thus, a limited sample size was appropriate for this research study

1.7.4 DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION

This research study gathered data from two key sources: primary and secondary data. Before collecting main data, secondary data was gathered to acquire a better knowledge of the issues at hand.

Secondary Data

According to Boslaugh (2007), secondary data is any data collection that was not collected by the author or "the study of data gathered by someone else." Secondary data, according to Vartanian (2010), is data that has previously been gathered and is being considered for reuse for new questions for which the data gathered was not originally intended. Secondary data was gathered in order to improve the timeline of this study. Secondary data was gathered from well-documented sources such as books, journal articles, government records, journals, magazines, and other forms of news media. Theoretical debates and models of gender mainstreaming definitions, values, aims, and interventions, as well as worldwide and South African gender mainstreaming experiences, are included in these data.

Primary Data

Primary data according to Salkind (2010) is an "original data source" that is collected first hand by the researcher. Primary data was collected from the various organizations and companies that are involved in the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal under the Inclusive Cities Project. The data narrates their perspectives on gender mainstreaming policies introduced and implemented in urban areas, progress toward gender equality, and obstacles faced.

The sources of primary data utilised include: questionnaires and interviews.

- Questionnaires: One of the primary sources of data is the questionnaire, which is an analytical technique that consists of a series of items posed to a respondent in written form, to which the subject was supposed to answer in writing. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, respondents were sent an email with a list of questions for this research report.
- Interview: This form of primary data source was used to better understand the underlying reasons and motivations for people's behavior, attitudes, and preferences. All interviews took place via Zoom or other online platforms.

1.7.5 CONSTRAINTS TO THE RESEARCH STUDY

In connection with the development of the Coronavirus pandemic in South Africa and the president stating that the country is in a state of emergency and with the ever-changing landscapes of the COVID-19 pandemic, it was advised to work and study from home and observe social distancing to prevent the spread of the virus.

This new situation brought about new challenges as this meant field studies and face to face meetings were not possible. As this study adopted a qualitative research design and due to the

current pandemic, all interviews/questionnaires took place synchronously using online platforms like Zoom.

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION

The dissertation is divided into six chapters, one of which being this one. This section includes a quick synopsis of each chapter:

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The first chapter serves as a prologue. This chapter gives an introduction to the study's objective and aim, as well as some background information. This chapter also discusses the study's objectives and research issues, as well as the research strategy and methods.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Through a feminist viewpoint, the second chapter discusses the many theoretical bases of gender mainstreaming. This chapter provides a high-level summary of the Women In Development (WID) strategy.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

The third chapter delves into the literature by evaluating prior research, including international case studies of industrialized, emerging, and impoverished nations that have successfully implemented gender mainstreaming in urban environments. This chapter delves deeper into gender mainstreaming in the national context, examining South Africa's policy and legal frameworks.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY OF WARWICK MARKET, DURBAN. SOUTH AFRICA

This chapter provides a description of why Warwick Market in Durban, South Africa, was chosen as the research site for the study. Furthermore, the chapter specifies how the study will be carried out by specifying the research methodology, research subjects, categories of data to be gathered, and data collecting and analysis methods and procedures.

CHAPTER FIVE: STUDY FINDINGS

Following data collection, the findings are presented in this chapter, where they are analyzed and evaluated. Furthermore, the study's problems and outcomes will be explored.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS & CONCLUSION

The final chapter is devoted to the overall analysis report. This chapter presents a number of recommendations to resolve the research challenges that have been identified.

1.9 SUMMARY

This introductory chapter served as the foundation for this dissertation on gender mainstreaming in urban environments. This chapter provided a brief background and inspiration for this research study before describing the research objectives and questions, with a focus on the Warwick Market in Durban, South Africa.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Globally, the importance of including women and girls in the architecture of urban spaces has been recognized. This research will make use of a feminist perspective and the women in development approach as one of the main theories that can be used to understand planning concerning gender mainstreaming of urban spaces. The chapter also looks at theories guiding gender mainstreaming and this research study. This chapter concludes with the conceptual framework.

2.2 THE FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE TO PLANNING

According to Meller (1990), feminist scholars have identified the cultural idea of two domains of planning theory and women's position in the community. Many feminist historians recognized that the “world is split into two to balance the two sexes” – the male division included public relations, trade, and industry, while the female division included home, family, and children.

Many cities recognized the challenges that women were experiencing in the nineteenth century and proposed alternatives for women to live in cities that did not adhere to a strict interpretation of the two spheres (Meller, 1990). The 1890's saw the emergence of a new town planning movement in the United Kingdom and other countries, with the aim of rethinking the usage of urban spaces and the interaction between social structures and spatial structure (Meller, 1990).

2.2.1 GARDEN CITY

The 'garden city' movement was particularly influential in the 1890's. English town planner Ebenezer Howard suggested the notion of a "garden city" as a "planned suburban community" in *Tomorrow: A Peaceful Path to Social Reform* (1898). Since the Industrial Revolution, garden cities have been a reaction to the desire to improve the quality of urban life (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2012). Howard regarded planned communities as the solution to a variety of issues.

The following were the primary components of Howard's scheme:

1. The acquisition of a large tract of agricultural land encircled by a ring fence;

2. The planning of a compact town surrounded by a broad rural belt;
3. The accommodation of inhabitants, industry, and agriculture inside the town;
4. The limiting of the town's extent and prevention of encroachment against the rural belt; and
5. The natural growth in land values to be used for the town's own general welfare.

This ideal garden city will contain a garden ring in the city center, as well as a civic and cultural complex that will comprise the city hall, a music hall, a museum, a theatre, a library, and a hospital. Six large primary routes will branch out from this center site. A park, a retail center and conservatory, a suburban neighbourhood, and then business will be centered on the periphery. Traffic will be directed through roadways that stretch along the radii and concentric boulevards. The precise placing and preparation of such a community, according to Howard, would be dictated by its location (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2012).

2.2.2 FEMINIST THEORY

Feminist theory operates in a number of fields, arising from feminist movements and incorporating general ideas on the causes of oppression and, in some ways, the social construction of sex and gender. Feminist philosophy is the expansion of feminism into analytical or intellectual debate, with the aim of comprehending the essence of gender inequality. According to Harrison and Boyd (2018), feminism theory “attempts to analyse the social platform of women, explain their apparent subsidiary role in history, and offer the basis for reform and the advancement of women in all areas of society”.

Burton (2001) adapted a feminist paradigm that allows for solutions at the client, program, and institutional levels. A feminist paradigm should do the following:

- Assist women and children in recognizing their own talents and endurance.
- Encourage partnerships that are egalitarian and mutual
- Provide a broad criticism of institutional frameworks for the treatment of society's most needy member/s
- Assist women in balancing their rights with the wishes and needs of their children.
- Offer a solid justification for civic and cultural activism.

2.2.3 FEMINIST URBANISM AND FEMINIST GEOGRAPHY

According to Andrews (2007), many feminist urbanism theorists see the built world as hostile to women. Feminist urbanism is a philosophy and social movement that addresses the effect of

the built environment on women. Feminist urbanism seeks to position people's lives at the center of urban decisions. According to Aldana (2019), feminist urbanism is "in everyone's interest." According to Levy (2013), feminist urbanists advance a critical view on patriarchal political and social systems that they claim have adversely impacted women's lives and have hindered female participation in urban development.

According to Kuhlmann (2014), several scholars studied and identified historical exclusions of women in the built environment sector, and Morton (2003) identified a loss of authority and inclusion as the reason for many women seeing the built environment as unwelcoming. Feminism urbanism theory is based on the values of feminism with a broad field with different perspectives; however, some academics, according to Milward, Mukhopadhyay, and Wong (2015), critique the theory for promoting gender roles with respect to the urban environment, especially when preparing for the reconstruction of urban spaces.

The researcher is identified as a feminist but has not crossed the term "feminist geography". This concept was introduced in the book *Feminist City*. The definition of geography is, "human relationship to our environment" which would define this concept as women interaction/relation with their environment. This concept refers to examining the urban landscapes around us and determining how they have been affected by gender and power dynamics. This term stood out and was the first time I crossed it. The term makes you question - who are cities designed for? Whose lives were they built to reflect?

2.2.4 IMAGEABILITY THEORY

Kevin Lynch's (1960) Imageability Theory broadened the scopes of urban architecture and planning experience by analyzing the characteristics of major urban features such as streets, nodes, borders, landmarks, and districts. These five components increase cities' imageability. For this research analysis, we will focus on two aspects: paths and edges. According to Damayanti and Kossak (2016), paths are the "most legible element in the city picture since it establishes a connection structure and relation among other elements." Damayanti and Kossak's perspectives on the edges (2016) construct a boundary dividing two or more adjacent regions or districts, linear breaks in continuity such as walls, railroads, and shores – this aspect is crucial in arranging features.

Lynch's (1960) imageability theory evaluates the quality of cities based on the legibility aspect of the five elements found by the observer. The word 'visible,' which Lynch refers to as 'legible,' refers to a sensory consistency that can be acquired from analysing internal impressions formed from people's memories and meanings (Lynch, 1960). Lynch's (1990) research and writings emphasize the importance of a sense of place in people's lives and emphasize that urban planning is about the spatial structure to satisfy today's needs and is a significant human virtue and right such as order, democracy, power, and imagination. Lynch (1972) associates the sense of place with time (history) and the observer's perspective in terms of social status and spatial behavior. Lynch (1981) expressed that 'context' is formed by people's sense of legibility, memory, and location- the creation of the meaning of place/urban elements is influenced by factors contained within themes such as mobility, plurality, adaptability, and comfort. Lynch's final conception of sense is related to people's psychological thoughts towards their surroundings (Lynch, 1990).

2.2.5 SEX ROLE THEORY

Sinnot (1986) state that sex roles exists and shape the choice of problems to investigate and research projects to pursue. Thompson (2016) states the Sex Role Theory explains “gendered differences in offending in terms of the differences in gender socialization, gender roles and gendered identities”.

2.2.6 SOCIAL ROLE THEORY

The social role theory, according to Eagly and Wood (2012), is "What drives sex variations and similarities in behavior?" At the core of our account are societal stereotypes about gender". According to Schneider and Bos (2019) the theory “provides a framework to help understand complexity of gender in the political sphere”.

2.2.7 MARXIST FEMINIST FRAMEWORK

Marxist feminism is a methodological subset of feminism that integrates and expands on Marxist philosophy. According to Hossain, Ahmad, and Siraj (2016) the Marxist feminist theory, is one of the fundamental causes of women's second-class status in society is the current capitalistic development system.

Classical Marxism, throughout history, humans have discovered many ways of cooking, sheltering, dressing, and reproducing themselves, i.e., creating their material life. People

collaborate and form social relationships with one another in order to produce their material lives. The modes of production are described by the means and social relations of production. According to Delaney (2005), Marxist feminists emphasize that "only a revolutionary restructuring of property relations can reform a social order in which women are more likely to be exploited than males." They note that working class women are hired and paid cheaper wage than their male counterparts. They produce the necessary work to sustain the capitalistic system, and yet, they do not benefit in the same manner as men."

Marxist feminists argue that patriarchy, the prevailing form of class culture, maintains women's subjugation by compelling them to rely on males for economic support. According to Vogel (1983), Donovan (2000), and Hurst (2010), one of the primary causes of unfair representation and inequality is the "capitalistic method of production." They contend that holding women subordinate serves the patriarchal society in a variety of ways. According to Vogel (1983) and Donovan (2000), the capitalistic mode required women to stay at home to provide for their families so that men could work. Marxist women are concerned with policies; they advocate for policies that address problems such as occupational inequality, low wages, poverty, and sexism.

2.2.8 RADICAL FEMINIST FRAMEWORK

Throughout United States, radical feminism arose in the 1960's in response to prejudice faced by women engaged in the civil rights and anti-war movements (Parpart, Connelly, and Barriteau, 2000). Many protesters were influenced by Marxist doctrine, which was frequently perceived as sexist. Traditional Marxism thought that the major source of working-class inequality was class, and that gender equality had to precede the breakdown of class society. Radical feminists argued that subordinating gender equality to class equality diminished the importance of women's issues and slowed progress on them.

2.2.9 SOCIAL FEMINIST FRAMEWORK

In the second half of the 1970s, socialist feminists began to take initiative. Many feminists were unsatisfied with liberal Marxism, which considered women's subjugation as subordinate to class subjugation. They also were perplexed by modern progressive feminism, which overlooked class and recognized sexism, or women's subjugation, as the prevailing type of subordination. Socialist feminism came to the conclusion that class and women's subjugation

were equally essential and needed to be attacked at the same time (Parpart, Connelly, and Barriteau, 2000).

Socialist feminism described patriarchy as a set of hierarchical relations with a material base of men's authority over women's identity, childbearing, and labour-power. They provided a historical view on hegemony, noting that it takes diverse forms in different historical periods and ethnic, cultural, political, fiscal, and religious settings.

They also argued that the Marxist idea of economic activity should be broadened to include both productive and reproductive labour. Both baby reproduction and commodity development were highlighted by socialist feminists. Socialist feminists were interested in the connections between reproduction and development, as well as the male-dominated patriarchal structure that governed both (Parpart, Connelly, and Barriteau, 2000).

2.2.10 BLACK FEMINIST FRAMEWORK

Black women's battles against multiple oppressions of race, gender, and class have affected them, and their fights have inspired a growing corpus of literature and study. Black feminist consciousness, according to Simien (2008), comes from an understanding of overlapping patterns of inequality.

Black feminist scholarship has influenced feminist epistemology as well. Black feminists have stressed the need of direct experience as a measure of relevance, the use of language in assessing knowledge arguments, and the development of a caring ethic and personal responsibility in one's studies (Collins, 1989). The history of various challenges to race, ethnicity, and gender has prompted black feminists like as King (1988) and Williams (1989) to advocate for a feminism that recognizes the need to analyze the overlapping implications of these factors on the lives of women of colour.

Williams (1989) made the following observation:

"the simultaneous experience of racism and sexism [and classism] not only compounds those oppressions, but reconstitutes them in specific ways."

2.3 PLANNING THEORIES

This section defines the body in understanding in urban planning in relation to this research analysis by including principles, meanings, and conclusions. There are five planning theories explored that are considered to be the primary planning theories generated today.

2.3.1 PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

According to Lefevre, Kolsteren et al (2000), participatory planning is an urban planning paradigm that emphasizes engaging the entire population in urban planning processes. It is considered part of community building and strives to harmonize viewpoints among all members.



FIGURE 3: PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

SOURCE: https://participatoryplanning.ca/sites/default/files/upload/document/participatory_urban_planning_brochure_2016.pdf

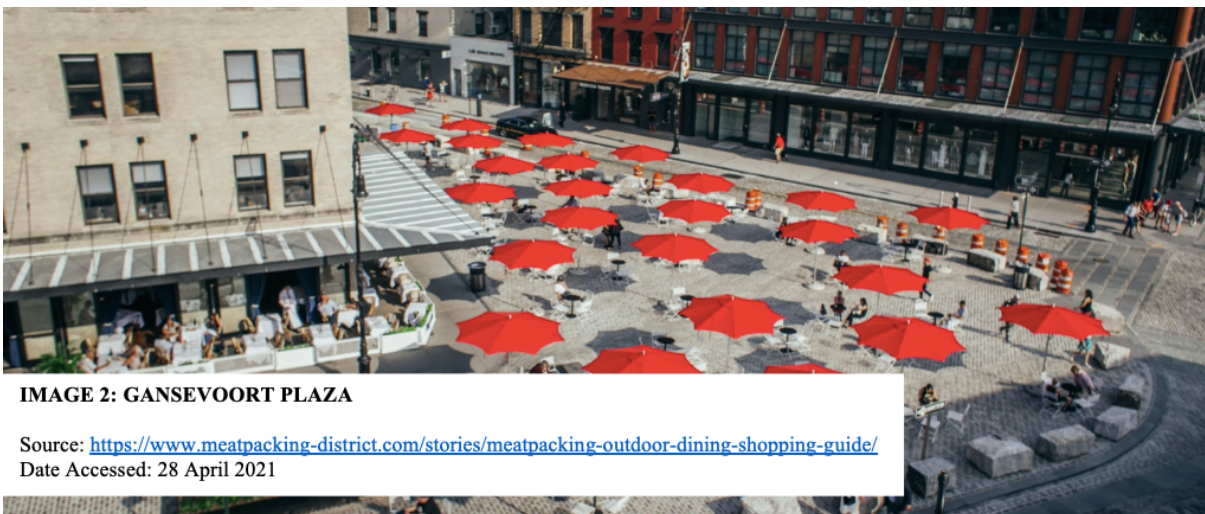
DATE ACCESSED: 28 APRIL 2021

According to the Montréal Urban Ecology Centre (MUEC) (2015) participatory planning is a “proven approach to designing neighbourhoods on a human scale”. According to MUEC (2015), the following initiatives will benefit from a participatory approach:

- Plan for long-term mobility in the neighbourhood
- Design of a public space
- Greening of the grounds of a housing estates
- Building a community centre

According to CHALAS (2009), participatory planning is urban planning that does not have a true project or approach prior to the public debate but does after the public debate. The non-profit Project for Public Spaces collaborated with tenants, local officials, business owners, and

neighbourhood leaders in New York City to redevelop Gansevoort Plaza. The Plaza is a large open space located at the intersection of 9th Avenue and Gansevoort Street (Project for Public Spaces, 2005). Citizens' feedback, traffic analyses, and vibrant teamwork enabled the creation of a "real public space," which improved the quality of life and promoted human-scaled engagement.



The design of the Gansevoort Plaza is modified to best respond to community needs and is a shred of all-embracing evidence that citizen participation is important in urban planning projects to cultivate the interchanging of ideas and generate different ones according to MUEC (2015) in a participatory planning process “proposed activities should provide for citizens to have an authentic influence on the ideas developed and decisions to be made”.



FIGURE 4: PARTICIPATION LADDER
Source: Health Canada (2000)
Date Accessed: 28 April 2021

According to MUEC (2015) Participatory urban planning is a six phase process which is presented as follows:

Phase 1: Launch the project – involves establishing partnerships with local stakeholders and defining action plan (jointly established partnership agreements, stakeholder mapping, etc.).

Phase 2: Understand the issue – creating diagnostic portraits of the use of public space (exploratory walks, consultation kiosks, surveys, etc)

Phase 3: Explore solutions – determining production situations that can satisfy requirements and address problems.

Phase 4: Decide on scenarios – validating and strengthening the solutions built in collaboration with various stakeholders.

Phase 5: Act together – putting concept solutions into action and making public commitments

Phase 6: Inaugurate designs – celebrating the projects accomplishments with a mobilizing event.

2.3.2 THE COMMUNICATIVE PLANNING (CP) THEORY

The communicative planning strategy focuses on using collaboration to promote people's varied desires in the course of understanding everyone. According to Lane (2005), there is no preparation without the intervention of interested interests, so the model aims to satisfy a diverse spectrum of voices in order to improve the dialogue and negotiation that is expected to shape the planning mechanism.

According to Innes (2004), the growth of the communicative planning theory was unprecedented and provided an alternative from the dissatisfaction and pessimism that characterized the field of planning theory in the 1970s (Machler and Milz, 2015). Innes is a strong supporter of the CP hypothesis, believing that it has achieved acceptance in the planning literature as the main explanation driving collective planning practice (Innes, 2004).

TABLE 1:
CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND COLLABORATIVE PLANNING APPROACHES

PARTICIPATORY PLANNING	COLLABORATION BASED PLANNING
Multidisciplinary approach	Interdisciplinary approach
Compartmentalization of disciplines	Cross-disciplinary integration
Education is believed only to be necessary for the public	Stakeholders educate each other
Over-reliance on public hearings and other formal input methods	Informal face to face dialogue among stakeholders
Participation of stakeholders only requested at certain points in the planning process	Continuous stakeholder participation throughout the planning process
Stakeholder participation generally encouraged only to create support for a plan	Stakeholder participation encouraged to create a holistic plan
Science used to buttress positions and refute other parties data	Joint information search used to determine facts
Voting is used to make decisions	Consensus used to make decisions

SOURCE: BENTRUP (2001)

DATE ACCESSED: 2 APRIL 2021

The following are the essential components of communicative planning theory, according to Tewdwr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998:1976) — each has differing opinions on the boundaries of communicative planning theory as a framework for planning:

1. Planning is an immersive and interpretive process;
2. Planning takes place within diverse and responsive dialogue communities;
3. The approaches necessitate respectful interpersonal and intercultural debate;

4. Emphasis is placed on mechanisms that facilitate democratic debate and the identification, dialogue, and elevation of issues, solutions, methods, and principles, as well as the resolution of disputes;
5. There are several arguments for various ways and types of policy development;
6. Participants acquire a reflexive ability that allows them to assess and re-evaluate;
7. Strategic discourses are broadened to accommodate all involved parties, resulting in new strategy discourses;
8. Participants in the conversation gain experience of other participants in addition to discovering new relationships, beliefs, and understandings;
9. Participants are willing to work to improve the current conditions; and
10. Participants are motivated to identify realistic means of fulfilling their organizing desires rather than merely listing them.

Thus according to Habermas (1984), communicative planning theory is a procedural theory of planning with roots in Habermas' critical theory of "communicative rationality," in which Habermas recommends the use of a shared form of decision making as a method of promoting democratization. Outhwaite (1994) states the theory of communicative rationality was assembled in Habermas's (1984) conceptualisation of the strong Marxist tradition, culture. Machler and Milz (2015) states that Habermas offered a way to "avoid the trap of reinforcing existing power imbalances through the communication of knowledge" as he suggested that "to know" is to expose and critically reflect meanings to understand their origin and how they affect people.

2.3.3 THE ADVOCACY APPROACH

In the 1960s, lawyer and planning theorist Paul Davidoff articulated the activism planning paradigm. According to the model, there are significant differences in the electoral system and in the negotiating process between communities, which result in a large number of citizens becoming unorganized and unrepresented in the process. According to Mazziotti (1982), Davidoff's model proposed to ensure that all communities are fairly included in the development phase by campaigning for the underprivileged and aiming for social reform (Davidoff, 1965). According to Lane (2005), a majority of public priorities are considered for this model, and the position of the planner is actually that of a facilitator who either campaigns for underrepresented communities specifically or assists them in being a part of the method.

2.3.4 THE EQUITY PLANNING APPROACH

The term "equity preparation" is connected to Krumholz's experience in Cleveland, Ohio, and is encapsulated in the Cleveland Policy Plan (Krumholz 1982; Krumholz and Forester 1990). While Davidoff (1965) pushed for planning from outside the public sector, Krumholz was more concerned with how city planners could respond in the face of expanding urban impoverishment (Zapata and Bates, 2017). Equity preparation, according to Krumholz and Hexter (2018), aims to have more options for those who have few. It is a framework in which urban planners according to Metzger (1996) "influence opinion, mobilize underrepresented constituencies, and advance and perhaps implement policies and programs that redistribute public and private resources to the poor and working-class".

According to Zapata and Bates (2017), Krumholz claimed that planners need to advocate for policies and resource allocation to obtain socially just outcomes and planners need to address poverty and segregation issues "head-on". One of Krumholz's (1982) core lessons is that "the adoption of a well established target is the essential step towards cultivating an activist position." According to Zapata and Bates (2017), equity planning is the technical work of designing and executing strategies, plans, and services, including cost-benefit analyses and assessing and recommending new capital allocations.

2.3.5 WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID) APPROACH

A Washington-based network of female construction experts invented the word "women in development" in the early 1970s (Tinker, 1990). Gallin and Ferguson (1993) define WID as a strategy that "adds" women to production without changing the sector. According to Miller and Razavi (1995), the 1975 World Conference of the International Women's Year in Mexico City, as well as the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985), articulated the primary concerns of women worldwide, improved educational and job opportunities, parity in political and social participation, and increased health and welfare programs, and witnessed the creation of the WID movement which demanded social justice and equity for women.

The importance of Boserup's *Women's Position in Economic Development* (1970) to the WID movement was that it questioned the myths of the "welfare solution" and emphasized women's importance to the agricultural economy. Sub-Saharan Africa was defined as the great global field of "female farming systems," in which women took a significant role for food production using "traditional" hoe technology (Buvinic, 1983). According to Rippenaar-Joseph (2009),

this approach is rooted in "enlightenment and modernisation philosophy since its origins are founded in a belief in knowledge, logic, individualism, and the hegemony of Western society."

2.3.6 GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT (GAD) APPROACH

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Development Assistance Committee has defined the Gender and Development approach as the most traditional practice; their Guidelines for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Development Cooperation (1998) and Source Book on Concepts and Approaches Related to Gender Equality (1998) both select a gender-and-development approach (DAC, 1998).

According to Jaquette (1982), the GAD solution emerged in the 1980s as an antidote to the WID method, with roots in socialist feminism, bridging the void devised by the modernization theorist, linking the relations of development to the relations of reproduction, and taking into account all viewpoints of women's lives.

According to Karl (1995), the GAD should be part of a broader alternative policy vision since it is evolving as a "progressive path to development from women's viewpoints and experiences." According to Young (1987), the GAD methodology begins with a holistic view, looking at "the whole of social organisation, economic and political existence to consider the shaping of specific facets of society".

According to Sen and Grown (1987), the approach stresses predominantly female unity, which is valued by progressive feminists; however, the GAD approach welcomes the contributions of men who express concerns about equality and social justice. According to Maguire (1984), the GAD strategy sees women as reform agents.

There are several approaches and frameworks for recognizing and reacting to gender concerns in planning. Moser (1993) highlighted five distinct approaches to Third-World women and their problems (Table 2).

TABLE 2:
DIFFERENT POLICY APPROACHES TO THIRD WORLD WOMEN

Issues	Welfare	Equity	Anti-poverty	Efficiency	Empowerment
Origins	Earliest approach: - residual model of social welfare under colonial administration - modernisation /accelerated growth economic development model	Original women-in-development (WID) approach: - failure of modernisation development policy - influence of Boserup and first world feminists on Percy Amendments of UN Decade for Women	Second WID approach: - toned down equity because of criticism - linked to redistribution with growth and basic needs	Third and now predominant WID approach: - deterioration in the world economy - policies of economic stabilisation and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development	Most recent approach: - arose out of failure of equity approach - Third World women's feminist writing and grassroots organisation
Period most popular	1950-70; but still widely used	1975-85: attempts to adopt it during the women's decade	1970s onward: still limited popularity	Post-1980s: now most popular approach	1975 onward: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as a problem of under-development, not of subordination	To ensure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity	To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination seen as problem not only of men but also of colonial and neo-colonial oppression
Needs of women met and roles recognised	To meet practical gender needs in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning	To meet strategic gender needs in terms of triple role – directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men	To meet practical gender needs in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale, income-generating projects	To meet practical gender needs in context of declining social services by relying on all three roles of women and elasticity of women's time	To reach strategic gender needs in terms of triple role – indirectly through bottom-up mobilisation around practical gender needs as a means to confront oppression
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on their reproductive role; non-challenging, therefore widely popular with government and traditional NGOs	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticised as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with governments	Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognise productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day; most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women's self-reliance; largely unsupported by governments and agencies; avoidance of Western feminism criticism means slow, significant growth of under-financed voluntary organisations
Source: Moser, C. (1993), Gender Planning and Development: Theory, Practice and Training, Routledge, London, pp. 56-57.					

2.3.7 GENDER ROLE FRAMEWORK

The gender roles framework was developed by Harvard Institute of International Development professors in collaboration with USAID's Women in Development Office, and it has since become a popular tool among other mainstream development organizations (Miller and Razavi, 1995). According to Miller and Razavi (1995), this paradigm is based on the early WID approach's discoveries and concerns. According to Connell (1987), the “sex role theory” that underlies liberal feminism provides the theoretical grounding for this paradigm.

According to Sims, Felstein, and Poats (1989), the framework begins with the assumption that the family is not an undifferentiated gathering of individuals with a shared production and consuming function, and that “households are understood as systems of resource allocation themselves.” According to Miller and Razavi (1995), this framework proposes a gender analysis as a non-confrontational method to planning.

2.4 KEY CONCEPTS

Gender

According to Krieger (2003), the term “gender” came into common use as an alternative to the word “sex” in the United States in the 1970s.

Gender can be defined as follows:

“Gender is a socially determined construct describing the characteristics, behaviours, and roles deemed appropriate and expected of men and women (and boys and girls) by a given society. These characteristics, behaviours, and roles are learned and reinforced through a socialisation process that begins early in life and continues throughout the life cycle” (Rolleri, 2012).

Snyder and Tadesse (1995) assert that gender does not only include women and men as it also “more easily accommodates race, class, ethnicity, and male-female power relationships”.

Gender Mainstreaming

What is Gender Mainstreaming? The United Nations (2002) defines Gm according to the Economic and Social Council (1997) as:

“...the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.”

Gender mainstreaming aspires to provide a voice to the voiceless, whether they are men or women. GM brings women's and men's interests to bear on policy-making, planning, and decision-making (UN, 2002).

Gender equality

According to Rolleri (2012), gender equality is...

“a social condition whereby women and men share equal rights and a balance of power, status, opportunities, and rewards. Gender equality can be broadly operationalised by men and women having 1) equitable access and use of resources, 2) equitable participation in relationships, the household, the community, and political arenas, and 3) safety or freedom from violence”.

Feminism

According to Stetson and Mazur (1995), feminism is an...

“ideology, policy, organization, or activity is feminist to the extent that it has the purpose of improving the status of women as a group and undermining patterns of gender hierarchy”.

Inclusive City

According to UN-Habitat, an inclusive city is one that promotes growth while guaranteeing equity. It was defined as a place where everyone, regardless of economic means, gender, race, ethnicity, or religion, is able and empowered to fully participate in the social, economic, and political opportunities that cities bring. The inclusive city is built around participatory planning and decision making (UN-Habitat, 2001).

An inclusive city provides a safe, liveable environment with affordable and equitable access to urban services, social services, and job opportunities for all city residents and other city users in order to promote optimal human capital development while maintaining human dignity and equality (ADB, 2014).

Gender analysis

The phrase *"gender analysis"* refers to a diagnostic method used by planners to address poor resource allocation (Overholt et al., 1985; Sims Feldstein and Poats, 1989). According to Miller and Razavi (1995), the goal is to emphasize the fundamental disparities in the incentives and

restrictions that men and women face when working; the insights acquired from this research are then utilized to modify planned interventions (credit, education, training, etc.) in order to increase overall productivity.

2.5 SUMMARY

This section commenced by traversing the feminist approach to planning and hereafter studied the feminist theory and how feminist urbanism theorists defined urbanism and geography. The chapter additionally highlighted other theories and frameworks within a feminist perspective. Feminist urbanism theory is focused on the principles of feminism with a varied range of varied perspectives, yet some researchers, such as Milward, Mukhopadhyay, and Wong (2015), criticize the theory for perpetuating gender stereotypes in the urban environment, particularly when planning for the reconstruction of urban areas.

The latter part of the chapter highlighted planning theories relevant to this research study. Through research, it is evident that participatory planning through citizen participation is important in urban planning projects to cultivate the interchanging of ideas and generate different ones. The communicative planning theory is linked with Habermas and unlike the participatory planning theory which is a multidisciplinary approach the communicative planning theory is an interdisciplinary approach.

This chapter concludes by defining the key concepts of this research study. This chapter discussed the many techniques taken to involve women and gender in development. Gender and Development (GAD) and Women in Development (WID) perspectives. The next chapter examines the literature on gender mainstreaming from both an international and a local standpoint.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Henderson (2017), the re-emergence of the feminist movement through various media platforms has re-energized the necessity of debating gender policy, and the “fourth wave” of feminism catalyzed by the power of social media prompted governments, universities, and international organizations to make gender a fundamental component of international agenda-setting. This chapter will cover international experiences with gender mainstreaming in developed, developing, and underdeveloped nations. This chapter's purpose is to highlight the successes and challenges of gender mainstreaming on a local and global basis.

3.2 HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF URBAN SPACES

Urban spaces according to Women’s Health East (2020) were designed incipiently through the contingent arrangement of buildings and homes. The accelerated addition in-car use from the 1950s marked cities modifying to accommodate and prioritise “car-centric infrastructure” overlooking the impact on pedestrians and public transport (Women’s Health East, 2020). Several cities became car-dependent, roads became barriers from pedestrians, employment and homes became segregated and according to Ellis (n.d) suburbs were formed.

Rao (2017) states that home was seen as “a refuge” for men, and one of the understandings that houses were separated by distance from work and according to Women’s Health East (2020) the pedestrian- unfriendly neighbourhoods became ‘prisons’ for women from the 1960’s onwards as they were socially isolated and physically unable to travel without access to a vehicle – the car-centric urban design imposed the role of “stay at home housewife” on many women which increased their dependency on men/husbands.

Women's freedom has been progressively expanding since the 1950s, yet deeply established gender norms continue to dictate how women and men go about their daily lives, and the urban environment has a big part in moulding people's lives (Women's Health East, 2020). Research according to Urban Development Vienna (2013) has recorded that women navigate urban space uniquely to men and while men travel and to from work, women go home, to school drop off, to work, to school, to do the shopping, visit relatives, and then home again – the needs and

differences in “mobility chains” (refer to Figure 5) need to be taken into account when planning or redeveloping urban spaces. An international example of how this has been approached is presented in the Vienna literature below.

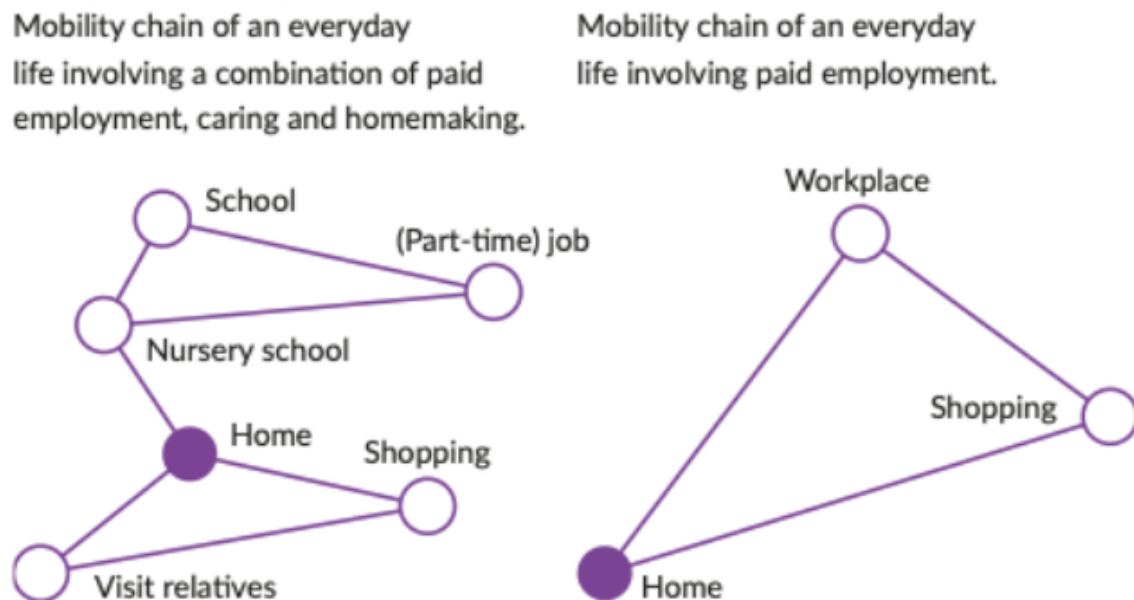


FIGURE 5: MOBILITY CHAIN
 Source: Women Health (2020)
 Date Accessed: 28 April 2021

Urban spaces according to Stanley, Stark, Johnston and Smith (2012) “provides a unique conduit for the sociospatial study of urban history”. Carr et al. (1992) describe public space as "open, publicly accessible spaces" that promote popular activities required for community formation. Some social scientists have taken a more interpretative stance toward privatization and control of public space. According to Carmona et al. (2008), "public space refers to all those parts of the built and natural environment where the public has open access." It encompasses all roadways, squares, and other public rights of way... the open spaces and parks; and the “public/private' areas where public access is unrestricted,” yet public access is normal for many sorts of urban areas but does not mean public access, according to Stanley, Stark, Johnston, and Smith (2012).

The relationship between ancient Greek urban spaces and democratic practice is usually specified as the beginning point for historians of urban open space (e.g., Crouch, 1981; Carr et al., 1992; Madanipour, 2003; Carmona et al., 2008), since the Greek agora has been presented as a symbol of the public sphere in modern literature. The first attempts in modern urban studies

to develop open space typologies focused on morphology, as did archaeological approaches (e.g., Moore, 1996; Cavanagh, 2002). Sitte (1889) was notable for designing and organizing urban squares, and Zucker (1959) expanded on this work by categorizing five types: closed, dominating, nuclear, clustering, and nebulous. Stanley, Stark, Johnston, and Smith (2012) defined seven key categories of open space in their typology (Table 3):

TABLE 3:
CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND COLLABORATIVE PLANNING APPROACHES

		Scale		
		City	Intermediate	Residence
Form	Transport Facilities	Harbors, Airport and Train Station Parking	Transit Stations, City Gate Areas	Driveways, Parking Areas
	Streets	Central Boulevards	Street Space	Pedestrian Alleys, Paths
	Plazas	Large Formal Plazas	Smaller Neighborhood Plazas	Interior Courtyards
	Recreational Space	Stadiums, Greenbelts, Beaches	Sports Facilities, Playgrounds	Houseyard Playspace
	Incidental Space	Natural Features and Semi-Wild Areas	Empty Lots, Transit Borders	Marginalized Space Between Buildings
	Parks and Gardens	Major Formal Park and Garden Space	Institutional Gardens, Small Parks, Cemeteries	Household Gardens
	Food Production	Orchards, Agricultural Fields	Grazing Commons, Community Gardens	Kitchen Gardens, Small Horticulture

	Grey space
	Green space
	Grey/Green space

According to Stanley, Stark, Johnston, and Smith (2012), the typology table above is structured by form, function, scale, and land cover of places and is designed to provide an adaptable framework for establishing broad comparisons across highly various historical periods, geographic scales, and human civilizations.

3.3 HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Although Tiessen (2007) claims that gender mainstreaming developed in 1975 in Mexico at the First World Conference – Gender mainstreaming initially emerged in international texts in 1985, following the United Nations Third World Conference on Women in Nairobi, Kenya — yet, the literature on the origins of Gender Mainstreaming cannot be pinpointed to a precise year (Hafner-Burton and Pollack, 2002).

The conferences were tied to a discussion on the role of women in development within the United Nations Commissions on the Status of Women (CSW), with the purpose of strengthening the role of women in development and embracing their values. Gender mainstreaming was formed out of necessity, according to Scholar, Strasbourg (1998), as “a governmental commitment to implement the principles of Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women,” also considered as a “resolution” on the future work of CSW, which was approved the following year and intended to incorporate the strategies into both economic and social development programs.

The Beijing Platform for Action Report, issued during the Fourth World Conference in 1995, identified gender mainstreaming as a technique for achieving gender equality and women's empowerment; this report also stated that government and other actors should adopt the gender mainstreaming approach in all policies, programs, and choices, and that all decisions should be backed by a gender analysis to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment (Beijing Platform for Action Report, 1995).

Since the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995, a substantial body of material on the implementation of gender mainstreaming policies in development organizations has been produced.

Gender mainstreaming was created to directly address organizations' opposition to social change. It was viewed as a technique of correcting the uneven allocation of development

resources by requiring development organizations' personnel to assess the effects of external programs and projects, internal management structures, and policies for men and women.

3.4 THE INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Prior to the Sustainable Development Goals, there were numerous significant milestones in the global objective of gender equality (Figure 6).



FIGURE 6: IMPORTANT GLOBAL MILESTONES IN GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Source: CSTEP Analysis
Date Accessed: 15 March 2021

Gender equality challenges in metropolitan areas exhibit themselves in a number of ways, including persistent gender bias in urban economies, poor infrastructure, violence against women in public spaces, and insufficient representation – according to Chant (2013), UN-Habitat (2012), and UN WOMEN (2015), this has an impact on women's involvement and development.

According to the World Bank (2015), the conceptual foundation for examining gender equality in cities may be derived from the “inclusive city” idea, which prioritizes women. According to the United Nations Secretary-General (2014), "Urban planning plays a vital role in infrastructure supply; decreasing violence; and promoting chances for participation, decision-making, and, consequently, empowerment." These are also fundamental segments of the targets under SDG 5, which seeks to ‘achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls’”.

Gender mainstreaming is the activity of ensuring equitable treatment of men and women in policy, legislation, and resource allocation. Gender mainstreaming in urban planning, according to the European Institute for Gender Equality (2020), is a “process-oriented strategy to assure excellence in planning” that the City of Vienna is continually refining.

The following case studies below detail a few examples of gender mainstreaming in Austria and Australia cities and South Asian countries highlighting reforms in the built environment.

3.4.1 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AUSTRIA

Austria is a “landlocked country with a population of around 8.7 million people” (Austrian Embassy, 2020). It shares borders with the Czech Republic and Germany on the north, Slovakia and Hungary on the east, Slovenia and Italy on the south, and Switzerland and Liechtenstein on the west. Austria is classified as a "well developed industrialized country" (Austrian Embassy, 2020).

Kirby (2020) claims Austria stands at the crossroads of European transportation, connecting east and west over the ancient Danubian trade route and north and south via the spectacular Alpine mountains, entangling the nation in a number of political and economic systems. Austria's current population is 9,021,247 as of Thursday, October 15, 2020, according to Worldometer's interpretation of the most recent United Nations statistics.



MAP 1: AUSTRIA WITH THE CAPITAL VIENNA

Source: Alamy Stock Photo
Date Accessed: 12 February 2021

In Austria, the principle of equality is enshrined in the Federal Constitutional Law (Bundes-Verfassungsgesetz, B-VG), where Article 7 declares that “all nationals are equal before the law” and prohibits any privilege based on gender (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020). An modification to this Article in 1998 laid the constitutional groundwork for the implementation of gender mainstreaming by providing the obligation on authorities at all levels to undertake measures to promote gender equality.

Gender budgeting, a strategy for gender mainstreaming, was established in the Austrian constitution in 2009. For the objective of gender mainstreaming, the government forms the Inter-ministerial Working Group for Gender Mainstreaming (IMAG GMB) in 2000.

Legislative and Policy Framework in Austria

Article 7(2) of the Austrian Constitution includes a commitment to gender equality in order to foster equality between men and women with the primary goal of eliminating existing imbalances. The Austrian Ministry of Women's Affairs publishes frequent updates on its efforts to execute a gender mainstreaming policy. According to the Austrian Federal Government

(2010), these reports give a summary of the actions taken by the ministries and the efforts made to contribute to gender equality.

According to EIGE (2020), the Department for Women in Austria was established in 1997 under the Federal Chancellery. To date, the department has evolved and currently consists of six departments, with the core aim of sharing information and raising public awareness of women's concerns and equality concerns, which include: study and analysis of basic research and statistical data; the realisation of gender specific projects; promotion of women projects etc (EIGE, 2020). The Department is also in charge of the management of IMAG GMB, which aims to provide a foundation for the execution of the gender mainstreaming plan at the federal level, in accordance with Austria's international commitments.

According to EIGE (2020) IMAG GMB tasks include:

- To support and monitor the gender mainstreaming implementation process in all departments and at all political levels;
- To share information and best practice initiatives in various departments, as well as local and foreign best practice examples;
- To define criteria for the gender mainstreaming strategy's implementation; and
- To monitor and evaluate ongoing projects, measures and application of gender mainstreaming objectives.

Austrian City with a Female Face: The Case of the City of Vienna, Austria.

Vienna, Austria's capital, is located in north-eastern Austria, in the Vienna Basin, at the easternmost extension of the Alps. It is the smallest state with the greatest population (Austrian Embassy, 2020). Vienna is located in northern-eastern Austria, between the Alps and the Carpathians, where the Danube (German: Donau), Europe's second longest river, has carved its way through the mountains (Ehrlich, 2020).

According to Hunt (2019), the Austrian capital, Vienna, has been a pioneer in gender mainstreaming for about 30 years. The gender mainstreaming plan was endorsed in Vienna in 1995, ten years before it was incorporated in the United Nations worldwide plan for gender equality. The city has evaluated over 1000 gender sensitive pilot projects and executed about 60 gender sensitive pilot projects.

Gender mainstreaming principles are included into Vienna policy, with consequences for those who do not comply (Hunt, 2019). Gender budgeting was adopted in 2005, forcing each department to report twice a year on how their spending benefited men and women equally; all housing developments in Vienna must meet gender sensitivity guidelines in order to be subsidized.

Gender sensitive planning according to Urban Development Vienna (2013) considers the “needs of persons who are often overlooked”, and has “an eye on the equitable distribution of space and time”. The diagram below illustrates the implementation of gender sensitive planning in all phases of planning and evaluation processes – from start to end.



FIGURE 7: GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN PLANNING PROCESS

Source: Urban Development Vienna, 2013

Date Accessed: 21 February 2021

Case Study 1: Frauen-Werk-Stadt

Eva Kail, one of the world's foremost experts on gender mainstreaming, lives in Vienna and sees gender mainstreaming strategy as a "public administration, to deliver excellent service to the people – to have a better quality of life – you have to care about gender equality." In 1991, Kail photographed a day in the life of eight distinct women and girls, ranging from a small kid to a wheelchair user to an energetic retiree. The exhibition was titled *Wem gehört der öffentliche Raum – Frauenalltag in der Stadt (Women's Public Space – Women's Everyday Life in the City)*. The exhibition emphasized that Vienna, like other European towns, was built by male planners for guys like them: traveling between home and work, by auto or public transportation, and so on; women were excluded from the city.

Kail's display stirred public debate and highlighted numerous issues about regions where women felt uncomfortable, how they travelled about, and, most importantly, who the city was for. Kail demonstrated that men and women had distinct perspectives on city life (Hunt, 2019). In 1992, a junior district planner formed and directed Vienna's first women's office, and she was entrusted with changing the design of the city, which she described as "a little bit of a feminist utopia," at a period of fast development, as the Vienna government had concurrently set a target of building 10,000 new homes, and only males were granted the contracts. Kail extended the invite to women in the profession and in 1997, a 357 unit complex, Frauen-Werk-Stadt (Women-Work-City) was made by women.

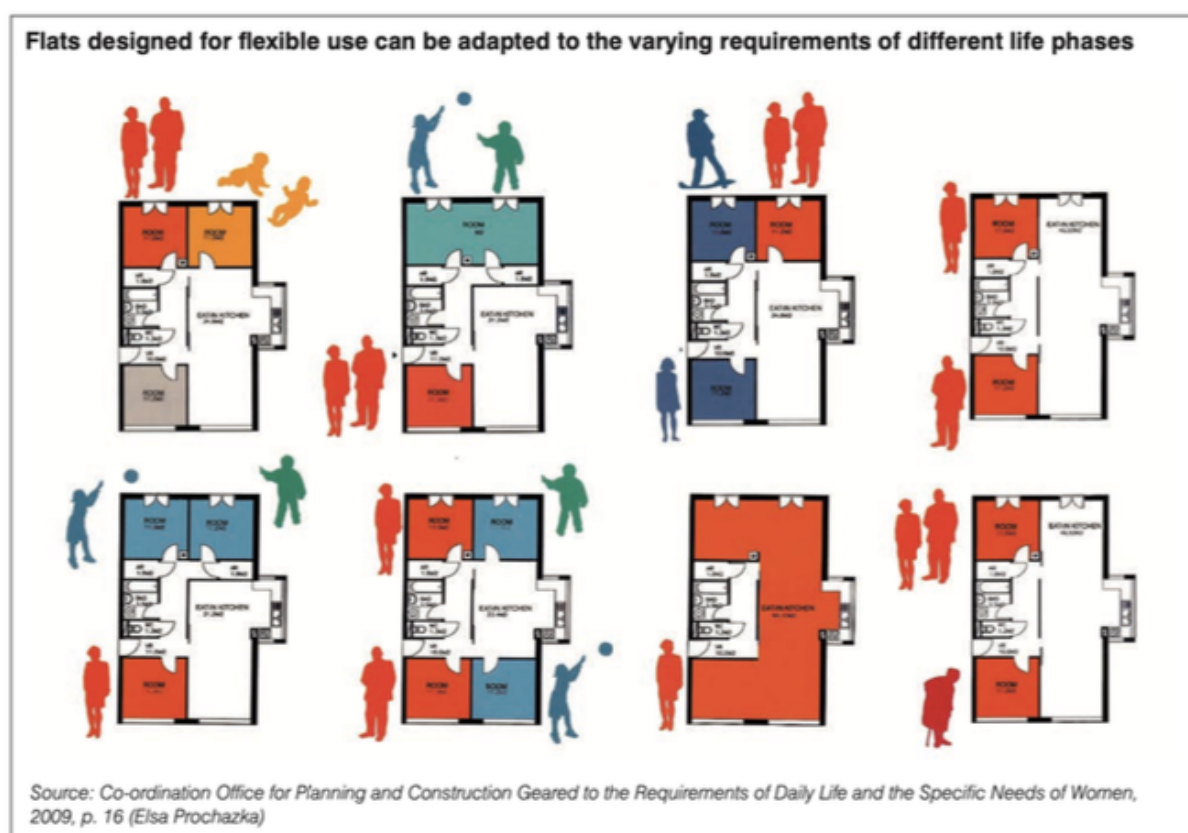


FIGURE 8: FRAUEN-WERK-STADT

From pram storage to large stairwells to foster neighbourly interactions; to adaptable flat layouts; and to the building's height, which was maintained low enough to ensure "eyes on the street," this construction was defined by a feminine perspective on every level (Kail, 2019). Following the completion of Frauen-Werk-Stadt, the city's gender mainstreaming was the next phase. Between 2002 and 2006, the focus was on the Mariahilf, a highly populated core neighbourhood with 28 000 residents; street lighting was enhanced in 26 points identified in surveys as creating concern; traffic signals were adjusted to favour pedestrians; seating was installed in nine new locations; pavements were widened; and five areas were made totally

barrier free to give prams, wheelchair users, and other mobility devices access. Kail (2019) states, “if you want to do something for women, do something for pedestrians”. According to Kail (2019), the relation between pavement widening, bench location, and gender may be hazy, but it "is an issue of providing equality of opportunity and access."



IMAGE 3 : A VIEW OF ONE OF THE COURTYARDS OF THE 'FRAUEN-WERK-STADT' DEVELOPMENT

Source: Bloomberg
Date Accessed: 17 March 2021

Frauen-Werk-Stadt translates to Women-Work-City creates housing that makes life easier for women. *Frauen-Werk-Stadt* was constructed with this in mind the development is made up of a series of residential buildings surrounded by courtyards (Image 3); the circular grassy areas depicted dot the courtyards, allowing parents and children to spend time outside without having to travel far.

According to Floren (2013), each apartment complex features an on-site kindergarten, a pharmacy, a doctor's office, and is nearby to public transportation, making running errands and commuting to school and work simpler. According to Kail (2019), the project's peculiarity is that it was built to describe the demands of "people utilizing the space first and then sought for technical answers."

Case Study 2: Aspern Seestadt

The City of Vienna has developed an “everyday route check” to apply to master plans and assess the overall liveability of new urban developments. Aspern, a Vienna neighbourhood, is one of the greatest urban developments in Europe, with a population of 20,000 people, 20,000 workplaces, and a family-oriented design (Palit, 2019).

According to Hunt (2019), Aspern is about more than just families, and it is said to have been developed with a brand identity in mind, since all streets and public areas are named after women. Aspern has a "female face" because it takes women and their needs into consideration, symbolizing a distinctive approach to planning that began influencing Vienna 30 years ago (Hunt, 2019). The City of Vienna has applied the everyday route check to the master plan for Aspern Seestadt, a brownfield development on the city’s fringe that will grow to cover 240 hectares by 2028.



FIGURE 9: CITY OF VIENNA ROUTE MAP
Source: Urban Development and Planning Vienna (2013)
Date Accessed: 17 March 2021

Figure 9 depicts the application of the City of Vienna's everyday route check methodology to assess the distance between points of interests and in turn the overall liveability of the Aspern Seestadt development for different target groups.

The Aspern Seestadt development, like the Frauen-Werk-Stadt, is built exclusively for women and as a "city of short distances," with an emphasis on physical and public transportation travel. The development is located at the end of a metro line, providing convenient access to public transport to and from the city centre. Movement according to Palit (2019) in the Aspern Seestadt development aims to prioritise pedestrian movement (Images 4-7). In the planning of Aspern Seestadt, the City of Vienna has continued to design housing, public space and streetscapes that are gender-sensitive which sees designs of wide pavements, street seating and multi-purpose parks.



IMAGE 4: ASPERN SEESTADT STREETS AND PUBLIC SPACES ARE ALL NAMED AFTER WOMEN
Source: D. Hawelka (2019)



IMAGE 5: ASPERN SEESTADT STREET NAMED AFTER WOMEN
Source: www.medium.com



IMAGE 6: THE MAIN PARK IN ASPERN IS OVERSIZED
Source: N. Palit (2019)



IMAGE 7: THE STREET WIDTHS ARE WIDE
Source: N. Palit (2019)

3.4.2 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AUSTRALIA

According to Ride (2020), Australia is the world's smallest continent and one of the largest countries. According to Australian explorer (2000), the nation has some of the world's most magnificent natural wonders, including the world's biggest coral reef – the Great Barrier Reef, the Twelve Apostles, and the World Heritage-listed Ayers Rock. According to Australian explorer (2000) throughout Australian history interventions in the country have shaped the Australian society. The current population of Australia is 25,617,755 as of Wednesday, November 25, 2020, according to Worldometer (2020) interpretation of United Nations statistics.



Legislative and Policy Framework in Australia

Australia has progressively risen to the forefront of international gender mainstreaming programs in the fight against violence against women and children in conflict zones, notably since Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 in 2000, which established the United Nations Objectives for “Women, Peace, and Security.”

Australia released the first National Plan on Women, Peace, and Security for the period 2012–2018 in 2012, outlining five primary pillars:

1. Prevention
2. Participation
3. Protection
4. Relief
5. Recovery and Normative

The plan was developed to empower women and girls, and the country's ongoing commitment to gender equality and women's empowerment was reaffirmed in the second National Action Plan, which was developed the following year and ran from 2019 to 2029. The country's gender mainstreaming plans for the next 10 years were outlined in the second plan.

Case Study 1: The City of Whittlesea, Australia

The City of Whittlesea is one of Melbourne's major municipalities, located north of the city. According to the State Government of Victoria (2017), the city is one of the fastest growing municipalities in Australia, with around 8000 new inhabitants arriving each year. The City of Whittlesea in Australia developed “Gender Equity in Design Guidelines” which provide direction on creating gender equitable urban designs in three areas according to Women’s Health East (2020):

1. Site planning

- Playground facilities should be within a reasonable distance and visible from all playing fields. Consider including clear lines of sight to social / multipurpose spaces in the pavilion to assist with passive surveillance and supervision.
- Where there are multiple playing fields, all users and spectators should have ease of access to change facilities, social / multipurpose space and other amenities.

2. Concept design

- Baby changing facilities must be accessible by all genders. Consider the incorporation of a family change room and provision of baby change tables in all unisex accessible toilets.
- Consider the inclusion of an informal gathering/ social space that attracts young people of all genders to meet and relax.
-

3. Detail design and documentation

- Paths and doorways should be of sufficient width and appropriate surfacing to accommodate prams (including double-width prams) and mobility aids. Where stand-alone toilet cubicles are provided, they should be designated as unisex.
- The lighting design must ensure that the area is easily navigable at night with signage clearly visible and safe connections between places clearly defined. Provide a well-lit connection between playing fields, the facility and the car park.
- The landscaping of the site should allow for clear sightlines for all users. Landscape design should consider relative heights and viewing angles – avoid mid-height shrubbery that allows concealment.



Image 9 illustrates the vision for Whittlesea public garden. According to Piovesan (2020) the design was adopted following consultation with community members. Piovesan (2020) asserts that the public garden is a project expected to bring the “green heart”.



3.4.3 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SOUTH ASIA

Many South Asian nations encounter difficulties in achieving Sustainable Development Goal 5. (gender equality). This section examines three South Asian nations: India, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka. These nations are rapidly urbanizing, with women accounting for about half of the overall urban population (Figure 10).

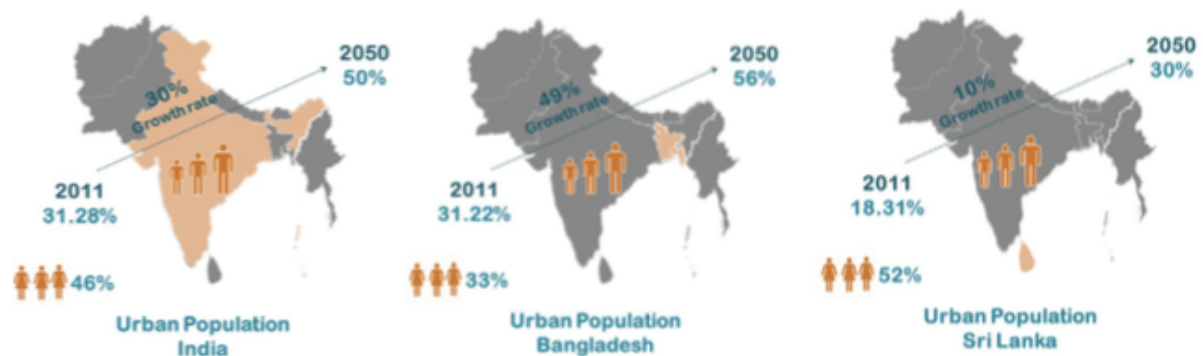


FIGURE 10: SHARE OF WOMEN IN URBAN AREAS IN THREE SOUTH ASIAN COUNTRIES
Source: STEP Analysis based on data from World Bank and United Nations
Date Accessed: 5 April 2021

According to Bhuyen (2006); Solottaroff and Pande (2014), one of the major problems to gender equality that these South Asian nations face is violence in public places, which is a result of bad infrastructure and a lack of secure and trustworthy urban places (UN Habitat, 2013).

Gender mainstreaming appears to be missing from these countries according to Bhattacharya et al. (2016) research revealed that the planning processes and modalities used in these countries seldomly include gender mainstreaming. Bhattacharya et al. (2016) discovered a further gap between urban planning and gender-inclusive policies.

Bhattacharya et al. (2016) research introduces the notion of “Leave No One Behind,” which aspires to include everyone, regardless of ethnicity, gender, geographic location, handicap, race, or other status - the notion complements the Sustainable Development Goals' (SDG) idea of equity. According to ADB and Australia Aid (2013), women in the three South Asian nations (India, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka) face various types of exclusionary social division.

The following are the primary concerns within the scope of urban planning that have an influence on the well-being of urban poor women in regard to the SDG 5 objectives (Kapse et

al., 2012; Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, 2009; UN- Habitat, 2013; UNESCO, 2011):

- Access to, availability of, and time required for basic utilities and public provisioning such as water, sanitation, fuel, power, and so on, all of which have an influence on living circumstances.
- External environment factors such as shelter, transportation, and general security levels have an influence on the overall safety and involvement of impoverished women in the urban labour market.
- Legal claim to land and housing rights 27, which impedes women's citizenship rights and the right to representation in formal systems.
- Slum removal and rehabilitation initiatives sometimes result in the loss of livelihood, particularly for women who use their dwelling spaces for commercial activity. This is an example of a lack of consultation and involvement with stakeholders in general, as well as with women, during urban poor pocket development.

According to Bhattacharya et al. (2016), there is a need to construct development strategies, plans, and laws based on the principles of constructing inclusive cities. According to Fraser (2012) and the World Bank (2015), the tools may be configured to contain the following features:

- Priority should be given to making cities safer, as well as increasing women's involvement and representation as part of an inclusive city strategy
- Support the right of all people, especially women, to economic opportunity
- Complement urban land use, infrastructure, and services with livelihood and economic activities
- Continuously improve housing, infrastructure, and municipal services, providing universal coverage and safe access
- Secure women's rights to land and property
- Focus on creating gender-sensitive urban governance
- Increase financial assistance for the development of inclusive cities.

Women's empowerment in South Asia is severely hampered by a lack of resources, economic possibilities, and public safety. Women's rights in the city continue to be hampered by a lack of access to basic facilities like as water, sanitation, and transportation.

3.5 THE SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

South Africa has a long history of gender inequality and is still on track to accomplish the United Nations' Millennium Development Goal 3 of fostering gender equality and empowering women. South Africa established the Commission on Gender Equality as part of the process of establishing its new democracy, a horizontal independent agency entrusted with monitoring and promoting efforts to achieve gender equality (Seidman, 2001). Although South Africa has made great progress in working towards gender equality the Corona Virus (COVID-19) pandemic has exposed that South African women are not benefitting from the gains made in terms of gender equality and there is a lot of room for improvement. In 2017, a research was conducted to examine South Africa's population's economic and social well-being; among the primary findings were that variables such as literacy, incomes, expenditure shares, and access to essential services indicated that women performed worse than males. According to the OSW (1999), the South African government's approach to gender equality is more of a "basic necessities" approach.

3.5.1 THE CHALLENGES OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Aside from the overall marginalization of black people, Akala (2018) claims that the suffering of black South African women is caused by a number of subtle variables that Hassim (1991) refers to as the "triple tragedy," such as racism, social class, and sexism. Racism, according to Lorde (1984, 110), is "the conviction in the intrinsic superiority of one race over all others and, as a result, the right to dominate." Sexism fosters and sustains prejudices, stereotyping, and biased attitudes against women (Tiger and Fox 1972; Murdock 1949; Parsons 1954).

According to Akala (2018), South Africa's altering gender relations are riddled with contradictions centered on a contentious connection. Women in the 1930s understood the necessity to provide for themselves and their families, resulting in an inflow of women entering metropolitan areas in search of opportunity (Akala, 2018). Because of the color of their skin, women were denied significant access to education, housing, transportation, health care, and economic prospects. White South African women, on the other hand, faced economic and professional constraints (Comaroff 2013; Meintjies 1996; Martineau 1997). Throughout the 1980s, women organized and held numerous roles influencing problems such as women in leadership, administration harshness, and their day-to-day survival challenges. According to Seidman (2003), while race has earned "primacy" in transformation discourses, it has become increasingly difficult to separate race, gender, and class since they intertwine.

Gender is "dynamic and multifaceted; it is neither monolithic, utopian, or homogenous" (Akala, 2018). Aside from the elements mentioned above, research shows that patriarchy has been a focal point for the spread of gender disparities. According to the ANC Gender Policy Discussion Paper (2000), patriarchy is a system of ideology, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that distinguishes and perpetuates unequal relationships between men and women. Gender inequities are highlighted in the CGE's (1998) definition of patriarchy. According to the CGE (1998), patriarchy maintained male dominance over women: "... as the common denominator of the South African country; it is a system of male dominance over women that transcends diverse economic systems, ages, regions, and class."

Apart from the aforementioned issues, femicide, rape, sexism, and domestic violence continue to afflict South Africa at alarming rates, according to Williams (2018). According to South Africa's Minister of Arts and Culture, Nathi Mthethwa, the femicide rate is five times the world average (Makou, 2017). Every four hours, a lady is allegedly killed in South Africa (Makou, 2018). In an interview with Times Live, Siyabulela Monakali of the anti-gender violence organization Ilitha Labantu stated that South African legislation does not do enough to protect women from their assailants (Williams, 2018; Masweneng, 2018).

Monakali (2018) said:

"In South Africa, we have laws in place to protect women; however, the problem lies in the implementation of these laws... strict laws must be put in place so that women feel safe enough to report crimes committed against them and the perpetrators are dealt with accordingly."

According to an Economist research, South Africa is the "rape capital of the world" (Diepsloot, 2017). According to MEC Sizakele Nkosi-Malobane figures, there was a rising incidence of women going missing in the Gauteng area in 2017. In Gauteng province, 597 women were reported missing in 2017, of which 151 were discovered (Mkhonza, 2018).

Women in South Africa have lost trust in the law (Williams, 2018) because they do not feel secure in public or private areas because they are saddled with the task of actively raising awareness about injustices done to them. According to Akala's (2018) report, South African women have suffered significantly in the past, and a reform strategy is required to alleviate gender disparities.

3.5.2 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS AND POLICIES OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa's National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality

The Gender Policy sets instructions for South Africa to take action to correct the historical legacy by establishing new frames of reference for interaction in the public and private spheres, and it proposes/recommends an institutional framework that promotes equitable access to goods and services for both men and women. According to the Office on the Status of Women (OSW), the framework suggests a process that transitions from considering gender issues as “end-of-the-day” business to ensuring that attaining gender equality is at the center of transformation efforts in South Africa.

Gender mainstreaming is meant to take place within this framework in South Africa. The OSW developed the National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality, which was officially introduced during the National Gender Summit in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2001.

The framework identifies three areas in which gender mainstreaming should occur in government:

1. Service provision
2. Gender awareness in the private and public domains
3. Internal employment policies and practices

The goal for gender equality in South Africa is founded in a parallel consideration of the institutional structure required to permit such vision's realization. The figure (Table 4) below was drawn from South Africa's Beijing +5 Report: Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality: OSW has prepared. The graphic depicts the components of South Africa's national apparatus for advancing gender equality. According to Gouws (2005), gender mainstreaming in South Africa must take place within government, which is the National Gender Machinery (NGM).

TABLE 4:
STRUCTURE AND COMPONENTS OF THE NGM

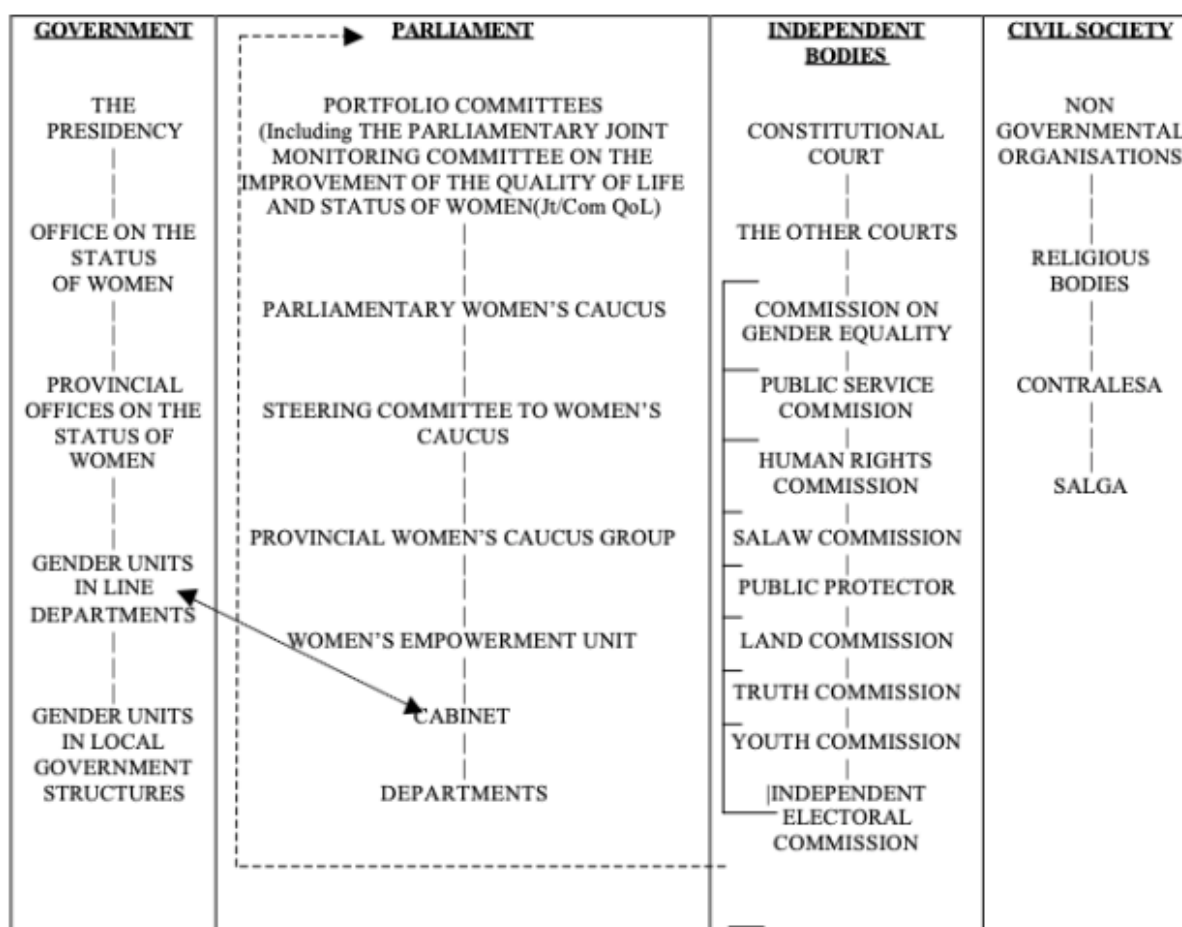


Table 5 captured below tabulates the process and mechanisms necessary to advance towards gender equality along with the key structures.

In contrast to the NGM, the South African government has signed international commitments to gender equality, the most notable of which are listed by Rust (2007):

- In 1995 SA ratified CEDAW (Office of the UN High Commission for Human Rights, 1980)
- In 1995 SA adopted the Beijing Platform of Action (UN Division for the Advancement of Women, 1995)
- In 1996 SA ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Office of the UN High Commission for Human Rights, 1990)
- In 1997 South Africa signed The Southern African Development Community's (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development (SADC, 1997)
- SA has developed the South African National Plan of Action on the Protection and Promotion of Human Rights, in compliance with the Vienna Declaration (Office of the UN

High Commission for Human Rights,1993). This plan was lodged with the UN in December 1998.

TABLE 5:

PROCESSES AND MECHANISMS AFFIRMING PROGRESS TOWARDS GENDER EQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

Key Institutional Processes	Key Role Players	Key Partners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review existing policies, institutionalise women's empowerment and Gender Equality in line departments. - Adoption of departmental policy documents and action plans - Implementation of action plans 	Gender Focal Points (GFP) in national line departments and provincial departments	Premiers, Ministers, MECs, Directors General, OSW, Provincial and Local governments, women's organisations and sector specific civil society, organisations.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Development of National Policy Framework and support Gender Focal Points in provinces and line departments to implement the policy - Development of an integrated co-ordination framework - Development of a National Action Plan - Development of a Gender Mainstreaming Strategy - Crafting of frameworks for implementation 	Office on the Status of Women (OSW) in the Office of the Presidency	Cabinet; Premiers; Ministers; MECs; Directors General; GFPs at national, provincial and local government levels; CGE; and Jt Com QoL
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Adoption of National Policy Framework and receipt of ministerial commitment - Application of gender lens to all Parliamentary processes 	Cabinet Committee	The Presidency, OSW, GFPs and the Jt Com QoL
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Introduction of legislation to parliament, formulation of policy and redrafting legislation - Application of gender lens to decisions taken by all Parliamentary Committees 	Parliamentary Select and Portfolio Committees	The Presidency; Premiers, Ministers, MECs, Parliament, OSW, GFPs, legislatures, women in civil society, provincial departments.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creation of a focal point in Parliament for women in parliament to communicate with organisations in civil society 	Women's Parliamentary Caucus and Jt Com QoL	Women in civil society
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Development and co-ordination of provincial plans of action - Development of provincial Gender Action Plans - Development of provincial Gender Mainstreaming Strategies - Development effective provincial Management Information Systems 	National OSW Provincial OSW	Minister in the Presidency, National OSW, Offices of the Premiers, MECs, women's organisations in provinces.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Advancement of the empowerment of women and Gender equality and monitoring the effectiveness of departmental policies on Gender equality 	OSW, GFPs, Commission for Gender Equality (CGE) and other independent statutory bodies	OSW, line departments, parliamentary committees and women in civil society.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Liaise with parliamentary committee on QoL and monitor the implementation of the Policy on Gender Equality 	OSW, CGE, GFPs, civil society organisations	Jt ComQoL, CGE.

National imperatives govern the *National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality*. It answers demands by suggesting procedures expressed by women and men who participated in the consultation process that culminated in gender equality being enshrined in the National Constitution. The framework suggests a method for gender mainstreaming implementation called *The Project Life Cycle* through a National Gender Programme, which elucidates significantly on processes and tools to utilize in gender mainstreaming implementation, lists essential activities and outputs, and discusses a gender management system, as well as the skills necessary to achieve the national objective of gender equality. (Gouws, 2005).

As per Gouws (2005), the framework seeks to institutionalize gender, depoliticizes the subject of gender, reduces women's agency, and activism due to its technical nature and the idea that women are a homogeneous group. There is an obvious knowledge gap in gender mainstreaming in South Africa - that would be an essential feature of this research study that will be addressed in the research study's final chapter.

3.6 SUMMARY

In the 1990s, surveys in Vienna revealed who visited public parks. Gardner and Begault (2019) discovered that females were far less likely to utilize parks beyond the age of nine, but guys utilized them well into their adolescence - researchers discovered that boys dominated park spaces. The concept of building a city that works for both men and women originated in Vienna.

“Urban planning and public-space design have long responded to existing uses rather than creating opportunities for entirely new behavior” (Gardner and Begault, 2019). The case of the City of Vienna is a prominent example of gender mainstreaming. Since the early 1990s, Vienna has implemented ways to plan and construct cities for women, with each agency in the city mandated to submit strategic plans and initiatives to promote the explicit inclusion of women's interests, issues, and lived experiences in shaping more equal policy results for citizens of both genders.

Inequality is spatially reproduced through design, from country/city systems down to particular public areas, according to the research. In the Western world, public spaces were largely built to serve white males, while private spaces were associated with women - now, cities all over the world are actively building concepts of what it means to include visibility of women in public space.

To make parks and urban places more appealing to young girls and women, urban designers must focus on representation at a deeper level, relying on more inclusive research methodologies such as public life study surveys, etc. The first step in understanding how women's urban demands differ from men's was to collect gender-sensitive statistics – this was done in 1991 in Vienna – Kail (2019) stated they analyzed the percentage of auto travels done by men vs women and did the same for pedestrian traffic and public transportation – this study,

together with Kail's photography display, prompted a thorough shift of perspective for many people involved in urban planning.

Gender disparity is pervasive in many nations, particularly in developing ones. An undeveloped country is one that has more poverty and less economic progress than other countries. Gender mainstreaming is non-existent in many underdeveloped countries, Niger is an example of an underdeveloped country where women do not have the same legal status as men. According to Jones (2018), seventy-six percent (76%) of Nigerian females get married before the age of 18, with just fourteen percent (14%) engaged in secondary education.

In comparison with the developed countries (Austria and Australia) and developing country South Africa – the Niger statistics provided by Jones (2018) give an insight of the conditions of gender inequality experienced in an underdeveloped country. Gender inequality is a huge challenge for underdeveloped countries and it is clear why the countries are unfamiliar with “gender mainstreaming”. In order to improve gender equality in any country especially underdeveloped countries like Niger – the first step is to allow girls to be educated the population on the rights of women – educating the population on women’s rights will change the mindsets about the subordinate status and unfair treatment of women.

Developed, developing and underdeveloped countries can acquire gender mainstreaming practices from the Vienna case study as the City has taken a proactive approach to advance gender equality for over 25 years. Vienna has practiced gender-mainstreaming in city-building and policy-making produced more inclusive spaces and services. South African cities can follow the city of Vienna's approach and contribute to more liveable cities.

Some fundamental lessons to inform future gender mainstreaming practice in South African cities obtained from the Vienna case:

- Focus on the needs of women creates a more liveable city for all as the city of Vienna displays that a focus on the needs of women can create a more liveable city for all.
- Designing for female needs increases the variety of activities and infrastructure that policymakers plan for and prioritize, and creates more extensive public benefits.
- Gender mainstreaming is an approach centred on preventing gender inequalities in the long term.

- Pilot projects have multiple strategic purposes so start with a pilot project and then scale up to policy change.
- Create gender mainstreaming offices – offices committed to gender mainstreaming that report to city officials – one office dedicated to the built environment and urban planning matters the other office to support gender mainstreaming practices in other municipal departments.
- Gender mainstreaming is not women-focused – it is focused on gender and the inequalities that have developed from gendered social structures.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY OF WARWICK MARKET, DURBAN. SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

The research location - Warwick Market – is located in Durban, South Africa, near the Warwick Junction. Because it is the principal railway station and one of South Africa's largest metropolitan districts, the intersection is known as "the urban entrance to Durban." (Dobson and Quazi, 2016). Warwick's location at the edge of the CBD makes it one of the most accessible places in the city. Habib (2014) describes Warwick Junction as, "a unique location that has held significance of commercial roots of Durban, South Africa. Warwick Junction is a transit-orientated nodal point which serves as the entry point into the city for the urban poor. The Warwick Precinct is the dominant public transport node within the eThekweni Municipality and its appropriate functioning is therefore essential in terms of the municipality's transport strategy. It is the largest intermodal precinct, with the convergence of rail, bus and taxi routes and thus crucial in promoting linkages between work and residential destinations and subsequently the use of Public Transport in the city (eThekweni Municipality, n.d).



MAP 3: WARWICK JUNCTION
Source: AeT (2020)
Date Accessed: 28 April 2021



Warwick’s area function has expanded over the years. The area now serves as an influential trade space for informal trade. The market has a “tumultuous history” (Neudorf, 2018). The late 1940s racial segregation regulations made the Warwick region a focus for the black African people travelling into Durban. Street traders in the 1960’s were banned from the center of Durban although trade continued despite the multiple arrests, police harassment, and severe punishments (Neudorf, 2018). According to Neudorf (2018), trade began to rise in the 1980s, but infrastructure remained substandard and insufficient for the volume of people and commodities that travelled through, and the neighbourhood developed a notoriety owing to the high prevalence of crime in the region.

In the 1990s, Warwick Junction saw a transformation as urban revitalization became a priority at all levels of the newly elected democratic government. Regulations and infrastructure were altered as a result of the urban revitalization project. The project designed spaces for people relocating bus and taxi ranks and movement to the periphery of the market area, removing external traffic from the area, and having pedestrianized Warwick Avenue, new and additional spaces were created for pedestrian movement, market activities, and relevant social spaces.

The market according to Neudorf (2018) narrates a story of “how the space has been transformed over the past two decades to create a safe and accessible space for people to sell and shop in the vast maze of bridges, pavement corridors, and squares that all together are Warwick Junction Market”.



IMAGE 10: AERIAL IMAGE OF WARWICK

Source: <https://thecityatyelevel.com/stories/street-trade-at-warwick-junction/>
Date Accessed: 28 April 2021

Warwick Junction has attained international fame in admiration of managing informal trade sensitively. While most commuters come from low-income groups their massive footfall through the area creates significant buying power. The scale of informal trade at Warwick is massive and the total number of people it supports is even larger. As an area providing opportunities for informal trade, Warwick is very important. The vigour of Warwick’s trade, its variety in goods and presentation, its unique products, spaces, smells, and sounds combine to generate a vibrant multicultural space with an African heart. That according Neudorf (2018), the market center attracts up to "8000 merchants together every day," and these street sellers comprise the "informal market" component of Durban's economy.



IMAGE 11: WARWICK MARKET

Source: www.actong.za
Date Accessed: 25 April 2021



IMAGE 13: WARWICK MARKET

Source: World Resources Institute (2020)
Date Accessed: 26 April 2021



IMAGE 12: WARWICK MARKET

Source: World Resources Institute (2020)
Date Accessed: 25 April 2021

4.2 PUBLIC SPACE FRAMEWORK

The Public Space Framework provides guidance for the development of public spaces and amenities such as the Warwick Junction area, soft and hard, active and passive open spaces, streetscapes, various intersections etc, covering both vehicular and pedestrian movement, the urban environment as well as social and economic aspects. The public spaces of the Warwick Junction area form part of a wider inner city public open space structure.

As the Warwick precinct includes a large public area due to the facilities and function (e.g. Berea Station, Market areas and bus / taxi ranks, much of the core precinct area is treated as public space. Furthermore, the unique character of the area, the need to upgrade the precinct and the tourism value to Warwick necessitates the proper functional and aesthetic design and street scaping within the public key trader areas and intermodal transport facilities.

eThekwini Municipality (n.d) and other professionals part of the Warwick project identified four types of public space:

1. Active open space, i.e. active recreation and sports facilities such as the Greyville Racecourse and the sports facilities attached to DUT,
2. Passive open space, i.e. parks, beach front areas, cemeteries including the Botanic Gardens, the West Street Cemetery, the Albert Park, the Old Fort, the beach front, the Victoria Embankment,
3. Urban open space, i.e. paved hard open spaces such as the City Hall Square, the Warwick Junction etc,
4. The street as a public space, i.e. recognising that although streets may primarily be considered as corridors of movement, they accommodate a great variety of activities associated to movement, adjacent development, high visibility etc and represent therefore probably the most significant public space areas.

4.3 PLANNING OF WARWICK MARKET

Following apartheid plans, Warwick Junction served as the Black Africans' entry point into an all-white African metropolis. The Warwick neighbourhood was designed with the goal of discouraging free-flowing mobility, and black informal vendors faced intimidation and relocation. Asiye eTafuleni (AeT), whose name translates from Zulu to "bring it to the table," has been in the forefront of improving public space at Warwick Junction and assisting markets in surviving redevelopment threats.

From 1997 to 2000, AeT co-founders Richard Dobson and Patric Ndlovu were involved as key characters in the city's Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project, which investigated a new way to regulating the region that was a significant departure from past techniques schooled in harsh police. The city embraced the initiative and invested in infrastructure enhancements in important areas of the neighbourhood, which needed collaboration across municipal agencies and the involvement of informal laborers.

4.4 SUMMARY

Even though we are currently undergoing a global pandemic which brought about many constraints, the researcher tried by all means to retrieve data for this research study. However, owing to unanticipated events and COVID-19 limits, the researcher was unable to distribute and question the vendors in Warwick Market as intended. Most significantly, the researcher ensured that all ethical issues were adhered to at all times. The next chapter will concentrate on and explain the findings of this study's research.

CHAPTER FIVE: STUDY FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the data collected – data was collected from professionals in the built environment who were part of the Warwick Junction Renewal Project. The Warwick Junction region, as mentioned in the preceding chapter, is a relatively new occurrence. A short background of the region was described, which has now given birth to a thriving, prosperous, and non-racial trade district.

Warwick Junction Market is a one-of-a-kind location in Durban, South Africa, with significant economic importance. According to Huber (2017), the market is a "informal commercial and transit center with about half a million customers passing through on a daily basis."

According to Huber (2017)'s research on Warwick Junction Market, there are three key techniques utilized to safeguard and enhance the livelihoods of informal workers:

1. An inclusive policy
2. An inclusive urban planning approach
3. The organization and involvement of informal communities

According to Huber (2017), "inclusive planning requires considerable appreciation that **space** matters and involves planning with, rather than for, someone." It must be concerned with how space can provide livelihoods for all and is based on an awareness of the functionality or mode of operation and requirements of the informal sector. In support of Huber's (2017) research and declaration that "traditional tools" used by architects and planners must be altered to better understand the functioning demands of the informal sector.

The intent of this study was to examine how gender mainstreaming strategies have been applied to achieve equality in urban space. One of the research questions of this study was "How is gender mainstreaming applied in Warwick Market?".

5.2 WHY WAS THE WARWICK JUNCTION URBAN RENEWAL PROJECT CREATED?

As according Dobson and Quazi (2016), in 1995, council put aside a considerable budget of R4.72 million to begin the redevelopment of Warwick Junction and built a structure for inter-departmental operation. The initiative was part of a metropolitan experiment with integrative area-based development, which meant that public resource planning and administration were delegated to a geographical region and that the many departments in charge of administering the region would collaborate. The initiative was built on two pillars: area-based management and inter-departmental coordination, and a commitment to participation and dialogue.

Citizens can participate in all parts of development planning under area-based management. The Warwick Junction Project's accomplishments include the transformation of a once-congested and filthy area into vibrant, interconnecting markets and an informal retail mall. In three years, the initiative transformed Warwick from a reputed center of "crime and squalor" to a thriving area of the inner city.

The Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project according to Fletcher (2019) was founded in “response to inefficient, unsafe, and unsanitary conditions that development at a primary transport node located in the South African city of Durban”.

The project manager saw an opportunity to involve local street sellers in the renovation and developed a new management strategy that deliberately attempted to incorporate the vendors in the renovation of the site, striving for an inclusive urban area. The traders' origins were diverse, as was their desire for space. The plurality of stakeholders necessitated integrated, area-based development with decentralized administration and planning.

The initiative took a sector-by-sector approach, allowing residents from all sectors to participate in all elements of development planning. The initiative attempted to establish a more participatory environment that worked with, rather than against, the interests of traders. Street traders, tax collectors, landowners, religious groups, formal shops, storage firms, cardboard recyclers, and many more were among the stakeholders in the region.

The Warwick Urban Renewal Project's major goal was stated in a 1995 report:

“...to improve the overall quality of the urban environment in the Greater Warwick Avenue and Grey Street area in terms of safety, security, cleanliness, functionality and the promotion of economic opportunities. The redevelopment of the Warwick avenue area specifically, should be geared towards promoting its primary role and function as a major regional hub for public trading and transportation, with a particular focus on the needs of the urban poor.”

Grest (2002) outlines the following objectives of the Warwick Junction Project on the street, as stated in the area's public information pamphlets:

- Increasing safety and security;
- Improving public transportation facilities and efficiency;
- Expanding trading and employment possibilities;
- Improving the cleanliness and quality of the environment;
- Extending the range of services and amenities accessible;
- Improving the quality of residential zones and encouraging the construction of low-cost temporary and permanent housing;
- Improving inter-area connectivity by permitting simpler and more pleasant pedestrian pathways; and
- Creating investment possibilities

The above-mentioned objectives corresponded to Dobson and Quazi's (2016) list of Warwick's significant infrastructure changes:

- Increased pedestrian pathways
- Better trading circumstances
- Spatial redesign of the informal sector
- Trader storage
- Street trader sites, tables, and shelter
- Providing water and electricity
- Providing business enhancement tactics



IMAGE 14: PEDESTRIAN WALKWAY

Source: http://www.urbanlandmark.org.za/downloads/case_studies_integration.pdf

Date Accessed: 28 April 2021

5.3 SUCCESS FACTORS OF THE WARWICK PROJECT

The Asiye eTafuleni (AeT) team was called together at the end of the Inclusive Cities Project to discover the contextual and organizational aspects important to their success:

Contextual factors: the informal laborers at Warwick Junction who trusted AeT to protect their concerns Relationships with stakeholders were also highlighted as one of the most significant contextual elements. Because of AeT's extensive understanding of Warwick's informal merchants, stakeholders were able to get credible information on an otherwise inaccessible section of the community, which eventually led to the acknowledgement of the requirements of informal workers in the development and planning process. The decision to cultivate connections with individual stakeholders rather than institutional ties meant that roadblocks in certain areas could be avoided; for example, barriers imposed by an official in one municipal department may be avoided or overcome by establishing as many positive connections with municipal authorities as possible. When development initiatives endangered portions of Warwick Junction, strong historical links and affiliation with built environment professionals and other community members/stakeholders bolstered lobbying efforts.

Organizational factors: Team dynamics - The team's integration in project work and the collaborative character of progress were identified as critical success factors. Having team members with architecture and design backgrounds was highlighted as a crucial factor in project success because it led to a more creative team viewpoint and an organizational culture

that, via a rethinking process, allows its members to perceive an annoyance as an asset, a mess as beautiful, and so on.

5.4 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED DURING THE WARWICK PROJECT

The view of an interviewee was that the work of advocating for a truly inclusive environment has never been easy. He argued that the collective responsibility of stakeholders by responding to the project challenges in the best way possible to achieving long-term progress. According to AeT (2014), the project faced “insurmountable difficulties” at the start of the project due to apartheid planning that separated the different race groups devising the area with a poor design.

The Warwick region faced increased political and economic isolation, prompting the project to begin and be conducted in the setting of political and administrative restrictions on local government.

During the 1990s, Durban had forty-eight (48) racially segregated local authorities that merged into a “expanded metropolitan region with six sub-authorities” that was merged into one authority dubbed the eThekweni Municipality in 2001 — the project was thus confronted with an ever-changing institutional framework.

According to Dobson and Quazi (2016), the project "grappled with the challenge of maintaining a minimal degree of safety, cleanliness, and hygiene," and the answer was to focus on a "cooperative effort" - To increase safety, the project team used “targeted measures,” such as lowering congestion, removing canyons, minimizing concealed places, boosting street lighting, enhancing police presence, and investing in community policing (Dobson and Quazi, 2016).

“Traders against Crime” was founded on a volunteer basis, with traders working together to combat crime. The street vendors banded together as well to keep Warwick tidy. This included an annual "blitz," volunteer cleaners, the transformation of toilet and water facilities, the management of pavement sleeping, the resolution of health concerns, and the provision of childcare (Dobson and Quazi, 2016).

However, achieving this is limited by the plurality of urban space groups needs and spatial demands. Two interviewees have this to say:

“...When we first learned of some of the traders' needs, we attempted to plan for them without involving them in the planning and design process. The traders were dissatisfied and petitioned the city...” (Interviewee) ...

“...Stakeholder relationships were also among the most important. For the project, better communication and gap analysis were required. Practitioners worked tirelessly to foster relationships and involve traders in decision-making. We build and maintain bridgeheads in a variety of communities and professions, and we use those bridgeheads to facilitate effective negotiations among the various key stakeholders...” (Interviewee)

Despite the challenges, an interviewee put that the key to achieving sustainable development in the project process is to establish an inclusive process.

The city's health department worked with the street vendors to educate them on basic health norms. In addition, the agency created a preliminary database of street sellers, defining their operations and outlining the infrastructure required. In 1995, street traders self-organized as the Informal Traders Management Board. The first step was to clear up the many years' worth of collected rubbish along the sidewalks. This "face-lift" operation was a watershed moment in the redevelopment of Warwick Junction because it demonstrated how much could be accomplished by inter-departmental collaboration in collaboration with street vendors (Dobson and Quazi, 2016).

According to Dobson and Quazi (2016), the project team began promoting the “New Warwick” to shift the reputation of the neighbourhood as run-down, unclean, and crime-ridden among users, council officials, politicians, the private sector, and the general public. Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO) Inclusive Cities Project excerpt on Empowering Traders in Warwick Junction.

Underlying Condition at Project Outset	Mitigation of Condition as Result of Project Intervention
Limited examples of how to integrate informal workers in urban planning.	Ongoing networking with Inclusive Cities partners and participation at international fora has helped collect precedents and establish AeT as an authority on how to integrate the informal economy into urban planning.
Political ambivalence	No mitigating factors save for relationship-building on a case-by-case basis.
Historical prejudice against informal hubs (association with crime and grime)	The Markets of Warwick tours has contributed to building a constituency of support around the informal economy in Durban and to encouraging more pro-active maintenance of the area.
Fragmentation within the community of informal workers	While there was some mobilization around organizing as a result of the Markets of Warwick tours (as mentioned above in the case of SAWA), there is still no united voice and/or democratic workers organization serving the informal workers of Durban. ¹¹ AeT will continue to facilitate the formation of workers' groups in their role as service provider, but organizing is not, nor has it been, at the centre of AeT's programmes. However, organization will likely happen on the back of existing and planned programming such as the "Safer Warwick" OHS project (now underway), much as it did with the MoW precedent.
Informal workers had limited or no access to decision-making forums	Through creating links between informal workers and city officials, AeT has increased the workers' access to decision-making dialogues, and this will continue as a focus for planned programming.
No on-the-ground recording of the informal economy contributions	Data collection, impact measurement, and general knowledge management remain as one of AeT's opportunities for improvement.
There is no perceived incentive for cities to consider inclusive planning. "World Class Cities" are flashier and generate more political capital.	No perceived or planned mitigation.
Progressive officials might leave office, causing projects to lose momentum, which creates vulnerability and risk	No perceived or planned mitigation.
Durban has some good policy, but it is not being implemented because of political turnover, loss of momentum	No perceived or planned mitigation.
Lack of interdepartmental coordination in the city.	No perceived or planned mitigation.

Source: <http://www.wiego.org/sites/default/files/resources/files/IC-Durban-Case-Study.pdf>
Date Accessed: 28 April 2021

5.5 GENDER MAINSTREAMING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN THE WARWICK PROJECT

Women's experience and knowledge of urban spaces are different to men. These differences need to be considered when planning and designing spaces. In the context of the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project – the project's informal merchants, the majority of whom are women, were involved in the project's development and design. The evidence of the women involvement were the measures put in place to accommodate gender equality in the access to urban space.

Responding, the interviewees stated thus:

“...The project team designed interconnected trading spaces to ensure that traders can move safely from one space to another. Plans and designs are solely for the benefit of the traders... To ensure space safety and ease of mobility, accessibility and usability, ramps and elevators were provided close to the elderly and women traders with children...” (Project Manager)

The interviewed Town planners stated that: *“...We were aware that we needed a broader understanding of different market segments to plan and achieve an inclusive public space. Our main planning tool was gender sensitive planning, which aided in creating positive experiences for female traders – it was recognized that female traders' experiences and needs were not homogeneous... We attempted to create an inclusive approach in which traders were included in the strategy formulation process....We knew that women's capacity to fully utilize public places was reliant on their access to transportation and their perceptions of safety... We planners considered the readability of the area as well as the safety element, and we planned appropriately...”*

This explained that along the intersectional gendered lens, women's specific experience, needs and concerns informed the development and design of the market area. The facilities (ablution and storage facilities) were constructed to be women gender conscious. The Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project combines adequate and appealing infrastructure with an innovative approach to urban management concerns, presenting a unique paradigm of how inclusion could be included into urban design. The initiative resulted in a sustained and continuing participation of informal merchants in conversations regarding their needs and priorities. To build an inclusive urban area, the Warwick project listened to informal merchants and included their demands into the design.

Evidence from the study emphasised space comfortability and safety to be key to gender mainstreaming. The view is that when creating spaces for women, the need to keep women safe, typically by crime-prevention design methods or by enabling women's usual patterns of mobility and utilization of the city is considered important. Women's engagement in public life is contingent on these improvements. It was established that the fear for personal safety from prevent women from traveling in public places, and innovations to keep women secure might

'paradoxically' make women feel less protected. Women form predicted mental images of hazardous areas based on current news; as a result, their perception of safety is dependent on visuals rather than statistical proof or ideas supported by evidence.

The Self Employed Women's Union (SEWU) was founded in 1994, and it influenced the formation of the Self Employed Women's Association in India. The SEWU's national headquarters were in Durban, but its most active branch was of street sellers in Warwick.

SEWU brought to the forefront the concerns of female traders, such as child care and a shortage of overnight accommodations. The SEWU's leader is a long-time businessman in Warwick who declared:

"We women must be there. Any meeting, any policy, they must think about women. The women must be there" (AeT, 2014).

The study recognises that to create gender equitable city spaces, women voice in decision making and their involvement in the designing of urban spaces is critical. Such that gender equality, balance, and inclusive safe urban spaces that reflect the needs and wants across community gender is achieved.

5.6 WHY DO WOMEN NEED TO BE INVOLVED IN THE DESIGN OF URBAN SPACES?

According to Terraza (2020), "urban space determines how we organize our lives and our communities, and most definitely, our society. As such, it reflects and reproduces the gender stereotypes with which we grew up and co-exist". According to Terraza (2020), it is critical to integrate the viewpoints of women and gender minorities in the design of cities and communities since it will allow women to have equal access to the advantages of the city. Terraza (2020) believes that urban design is critical for addressing gender disparities stating "Urban planning and design shape the environment around us – and that environment, in turn, shapes how we live, work, play, move and rest".

According to Lambrick and Rainero (2010) it is important for women and girls to be involved in the planning and design of urban spaces because:

1. It creates awareness of the notion that space is not neutral; space design may either support or obstruct women's and girls' usage, appropriation, and safety.

2. It acknowledges that gender and gender relations between men and women are important variables in the organization and development of urban environments.
3. It acknowledges that the city geographically reflects distinct social, economic, and historical qualities that are particular to the situations of local women.
4. It acknowledges that urban settings reflect the power dynamics that shape the behaviours and disparities in the lives of men and women..
5. It acknowledges that public spaces in cities are typically planned based on a conventional idea of the family and a conventional distribution of labour between men and women (men as workers in the public space and women as caretakers and home keepers in the home and private spaces). It also encourages effort to modify this spatial structure to reflect changing gender roles in society.
6. It acknowledges that women's anxieties are grounded in reality (the association between feelings of dread and violent events) and that women understand when and where they feel unsafe in cities and why.
7. It is an effective instrument for improving the quality of urban and communal life, as well as reducing women's fear and victimization.
8. It acknowledges that if women and girls avoid accessing specific public areas because they do not feel comfortable, these areas will become more unsafe for women, girls, and other users. As a result, it is a beneficial instrument for improving the quality of urban and communal life for everybody, as well as reducing women's fear and victimization.
9. It supports women's and girls' right to the city and citizenship as a prerequisite for equitable and sustainable cities and communities.

Huber (2017) research on Warwick Market recommended the following for urban planners:

1. Communicating in the same language: Planners must develop strategies to communicate their ideas in an understandable manner.
2. Inclusion, not exclusion: not only is 'involvement of everyone' part of the democratic worldview, but it may also be one of the most important strategies of addressing social and geographical inequalities in planning. Informal communities are the most aware of what they require and the issues they face on a daily basis. To create good change for everybody, many stakeholders (in this case, representatives of local traders, planners, appropriate city authorities, etc.) must come together and participate and exchange their skills.
3. Data: Improved statistics are a significant asset as the foundation for improving the status of the informal economy. On the one hand, there is data power: "Policymakers prefer data

to other types of information.” As a result, precise and easily available information is required. On the other hand, data and knowledge about processes, quantities, circumstances, shortfalls, and so on serve as the foundation for effective planning.

4. Experiment and Error: Recognize that not everything will go as planned. Informality, like many other aspects of life, is frequently unpredictable. Even if you have the most extensive data set, your ideas may not turn out as planned. The team of the NGO ‘Asiye eTafuleni’, for example, previously attempted to create a more sustainable technique to prepare ‘mealies’ (South African word for ‘corn’), which are sold by one of the groups at the Warwick Junction Markets. After a 1:1 trial and error test, they quickly realized that, while their method was more sustainable, it was inefficient. Finally, AeT shifted their ideas to the original method of boiling corn.

In the words of Huber (2017), the creation of a “just and inclusive city implies the inclusion of everybody...”

5.7 SUMMARY

The Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project combines adequate and appealing infrastructure with an innovative approach to urban management concerns, presenting a unique paradigm of how inclusion could be included into urban design. The initiative resulted in a sustained and continuing participation of informal merchants in conversations regarding their needs and priorities. In order to build an inclusive urban area, the Warwick project listened to informal merchants and included their demands into the design.

The study's findings and research show that representation is about more than simply making faces and bodies visible; it should be about creating experience evident. People's stories must be told and mapped via urban design. Lynch's (1960) theory of imageability, particularly his definitions of 'meaning,' must be taken as if the meaning of each aspect of the theory is derived via social lives and lived experiences. Sensitive research or innovative communication tactics allow individuals to speak up about their lived experiences, which changes how space is seen – The experience of seeing people and being recognized for who we are is linked to a sense of belonging in a location, a community, and a larger society. Urban designers must think about who they represent and how they represent them; they must rely on interpretation and participation to ensure that effective actions do not lead to more prejudice or tokenization,

undermining the efficacy of initiatives offered to make susceptible marginalized groups visible in society.

According to the literature and research, designers who want to create spaces for women are typically motivated by the need to keep women safe, typically by crime-prevention design methods or by enabling women's usual patterns of mobility and utilization of the city more comfortable. Women's engagement in public life is contingent on these improvements.

Fears of personal safety from male aggression prevent women from traveling in public places, and innovations to keep women secure might 'paradoxically' make women feel less protected. Women form predicted mental images of hazardous areas based on current news; as a result, their impression of safety is dependent on visuals rather than statistical proof or ideas supported by evidence.

I am one of these women who forms mental pictures based on news of hazardous public locations — hearing that women are victims of males in urban areas leads me to believe that most, if not all, urban settings are hazardous, despite studies proving otherwise. The impression of crime and danger, rather than actual crime, is a recurrent concern for gender equality in public settings.

Valentine (1989) discovered in a 1980s study that women felt more threatened in regions with certain characteristics (gloomy, isolated, far, underpopulated, or locations with obstructed eyesight) – Valentine (1989) reasoned that women prefer to spend their days in "fight or flight mode," because they construct predictive mental representations of harmful images.

Several architectural characteristics designed to improve prevent and control crime, according to Gardner and Begault (2019), may reverse when it comes to increasing the sensation of safety. – for example, designs boosting illumination frequently contain floodlights, which create pockets of darkness – Similarly, obstacles such as hedges and walls keep intruders out of a property while simultaneously limiting visibility and providing spots for a possible invader to hide.

In conclusion, many design decisions prohibit women from using public areas, which is why urban planners and designers must consider whether their designs are gender-inclusive “design

vocabulary can speak to the real and perceived systematic and experienced safety concerns of women in the public realm”.

This research study presumes with the words of Gardner and Begault (2019) “design is powerful, space is ultimately created and transformed by social action”.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

“Cities have the capability of providing something for everybody, only because, and only when, they are created by everybody.” – Jane Jacobs, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*.

This chapter aims to offer an overview of the dissertation as well as an indication of its achievements. The conclusions and suggestions in this chapter are based on the study findings. This chapter is divided into four sections: the first is an introduction, the second is a summary of the findings, the third is ideas for solutions to the challenges discovered during the study, and the fourth finishes the chapter.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Good design and community communication is the answer to creating inclusive urban public spaces that are accessible and safe for everyone in the community. This study looked at the topic of gender mainstreaming in urban spaces in order to build inclusive cities. The research was motivated by the need to understand the nature of gender mainstreaming, investigate its implementation, and find strategies to enhance gender mainstreaming in South African urban environments. Literature has confirmed that professionals in the built environment need to acknowledge and accommodate the specific needs and experiences of all population groups when creating urban spaces.

Women’s experience and knowledge of urban spaces are different to men and these differences need to be taken into account when planning and design spaces. In the context of the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project – the project's informal merchants, the majority of whom are women, were involved in the project's development and design. An intersectional gendered lens, women’s specific experience, needs and concerns informed the development and design of the market area. Ablution facilities and storage facilities were constructed based on women’s requests.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

To create gender equitable spaces and cities for women is to have women making decisions on the design of urban spaces. To advance gender equality and create inclusive safe urban spaces that reflect the needs and wants not only of women but the community at large, there is a need for a gender balance.

Chapter 4 presented a local example of an inclusive urban space represented by the case of Warwick Junction Market and chapter 5 discussed the findings associated with the case study. Brighter lighting in urban spaces is often suggested as a way to make a space “safer”. Spaces that are used by a diverse range of people, participating in different activities at different times of the day can make women feel safer. To engage women in urban spaces, professionals in the built environment especially planners who play design the use of spaces need to encourage social interaction in their designs. Mixed-use areas where all people feel included which will contribute to peoples wellbeing and liveability of space as well.

Some characteristics to consider when planning to make a space engaging, inclusive and safe for women include:

1. Good accessibility to and from the location, and safe route options
2. Clear, well-kept paths
3. Easy to read signs and directions
4. Easy movement within the location
5. Ample seating
6. Some play areas adjacent to housing to permit informal surveillance
7. Provision for small children and the elderly (due to the fact that women are typically caregivers), such as low/wide walkways for strollers, wheelchairs, walkers, and so on.
8. CCTV cameras and heightened security measures
9. A well maintained public space
10. Cutting back vegetation in over grown areas
11. Multi gender, stand-alone accessible toilets with baby changing facilities
12. Good visibility of all areas of a public space free from shadows and obstacles
13. Sufficient lighting
14. Spacious design

The municipality have emphasized the need to include women in their design and the Warwick Junction project is a good example.

6.4 CONCLUSION

The following section summarised the study findings and recommendations for creating safe and inclusive urban spaces for women and is drawn from both South African and international resources and evidence. Professionals in the built environment must listen to and collaborate with women in the creation of urban areas for the entire community; women's voices must be front and center.

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APPENDIX 1:
INTERVIEW 1

ASIYE ETAFULENI

1. What do you understand by gender mainstreaming?
2. Why do you think women need to be part of urban planning design?
3. Why was the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project created?
4. What are some of the challenges that you are/have experienced during the project?
5. Did you include women in the project? What role did they play?
6. Were the community (vendors) members of Warwick Market included in planning process of the project?
7. What efforts were made by project team to implement gender mainstreaming strategies?
8. What are the barriers the project faced in achieving its goals?
9. What kind of measures were taken to demonstrate gender equality in the urban design?
10. What kinds of programs exist for the purpose of creating gender equality in access to urban space?
11. What kinds of programs exist in creating gender equal participation in the design of urban spaces?
12. How were these programs designed?
13. How did project team communicate to stakeholders?
14. How do you measure the satisfaction of the community of Warwick?

APPENDIX 2:
INTERVIEW 2

PROJECT MANAGER of Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project

1. What do you understand by gender mainstreaming?
2. Why do you think women need to be part of urban planning design?
3. Why was the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project created?
4. What are some of the challenges that you are/have experienced during the project?
5. Did you include women in the project? What role did they play?
6. Were the community (vendors) members of Warwick Market included in planning process of the project?
7. What efforts were made by project team to implement gender mainstreaming strategies?
8. What are the barriers the project faced in achieving its goals?
9. What kind of measures were taken to demonstrate gender equality in the urban design?
10. What kinds of programs exist for the purpose of creating gender equality in access to urban space?
11. What kinds of programs exist in creating gender equal participation in the design of urban spaces?
12. How were these programs designed?
13. How did project team communicate to stakeholders?
14. How do you measure the satisfaction of the community of Warwick?

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW 3

TOWN PLANNER of Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project

1. What do you understand by gender mainstreaming?
2. Why do you think women need to be part of urban planning design?
3. What role did you play in the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project?
4. What are some of the challenges that you are/have experienced during the project?
5. Were women included in the design of the urban spaces?
6. Were the community (vendors) members of Warwick Market included in planning process of the project?
7. What efforts were made by project team to implement gender mainstreaming strategies?
8. What are the barriers the project faced in achieving its goals?
9. What kind of measures were taken to demonstrate gender equality in the urban design?
10. What kinds of programs exist for the purpose of creating gender equality in access to urban space?
11. What kinds of programs exist in creating gender equal participation in the design of urban spaces?
12. How were these programs designed?
13. How did you communicate the urban design of Warwick Junction to stakeholders?
14. How do you measure the satisfaction of the community of Warwick?

APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW 4

ARCHITECT of Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project

1. What do you understand by gender mainstreaming?
2. Why do you think women need to be part of urban planning design?
3. What role did you play in the Warwick Junction Urban Renewal Project?
4. What are some of the challenges that you are/have experienced during the project?
5. Were women included in the design of the urban spaces?
6. Were the community (vendors) members of Warwick Market included in planning process of the project?
7. What efforts were made by project team to implement gender mainstreaming strategies?
8. What are the barriers the project faced in achieving its goals?
9. What kind of measures were taken to demonstrate gender equality in the urban design?
10. What kinds of programs exist for the purpose of creating gender equality in access to urban space?
11. What kinds of programs exist in creating gender equal participation in the design of urban spaces?
12. How were these programs designed?
13. How did you communicate the urban design of Warwick Junction to stakeholders?
14. How do you measure the satisfaction of the community of Warwick?