



Economic Commission
for Africa

African Women's Report 2009



Measuring Gender Inequality in Africa:
Experiences and Lessons from the African
Gender and Development Index





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List of Acronyms

ACGS	African Centre for Gender and Social Development
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ADF	African Development Forum
AfDB	African Development Bank
AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AIS	AIDS Indicator Survey
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
ART	Anti-retroviral Therapy
AU	African Union
AWP	African Women's Protocol
AWPS	African Women's Progress Scoreboard
AWR	African Women's Report
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CBO	Community Based Organization
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CEEWA	Council for Economic Empowerment of Women
CO	Concluding Observation
CoP	Code of Practice
CWD	Committee on Women and Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
EPI	Expanded Programme of Immunization
EU	European Union
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationists
FGM/C	Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting
GADS	Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GMS	Gender Management System
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting
GSI	Gender Status Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPI	Human Poverty Index
HRE	Human Rights Education

ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IT	Information Technology
IUD	Intrauterine Device
IZA	Institute for the Study of Labor
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MCH	Maternal and Child Health
MDBS	Multi Donor Budget Support
MGA	Madagascar Ariary
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
NAADS	National Agricultural Advisory Services
NCW	National Council for Women
NDPF	National Development Planning Framework
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NMW	Non-Market Work
NPA	National Plan of Action
NPC	Non-Physician Clinician
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development
OP-CEDAW	Optional Protocol of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
P&R	Principles and Recommendations
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PHC	Population and Housing Census
PMA	Plan for Modernization of Agriculture
PoA	Programme of Action
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
REACH	Reproductive Education and Community Health
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDPRP	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Programme
SNA	System of National Accounts
SOWC	State of the World's Children's Report
SRHR	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
TUS	Time Use Survey
UN	United Nations

UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSCR	United Nations Security Council Resolution
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VAW	Violence Against Women
WAD	Women and Development
WEM	Women's Empowerment Matrix
WHO	World Health Organization
WSIS	World Summit on the Information Society

Foreword

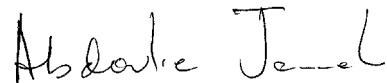
The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) presents one of its flagship publications, the 2009 **African Women's Report**. The report's theme: *Measuring Gender Inequality in Africa: Experiences and Lessons From the African Gender and Development Index*, is opportune as African countries are being urged to improve their statistical systems and data collection methods to respond to development concerns. This includes the need to accelerate gender equality in the social, economic and political fields. The central message of the report is that gender equality cannot be adequately implemented and monitored without appropriate data.

The African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) seeks to invigorate gender statistical data collection in Africa as a monitoring tool of progress being made in implementing global, regional and sub regional commitments on gender equality. The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) (CEDAW) is the first ever global treaty to give full and effective expression to the economic, social and cultural rights of women in addition to their political and civil rights. The International Conference on Population and Development (1994) and the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) in concert with their respective follow-up meetings of +5, +10 and +15, and the United Nations Millennium Declaration (2000), all constitute important global agenda-setting frameworks for the achievement of gender equality.

At the regional level, the rights of African women have been given holistic impetus with the entering into force of the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa in 2005 under the auspices of the African Union (AU). The introduction of other initiatives, such as the Declaration of the Southern African Development Community on Gender and Development (1997), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (2001) and the Solemn Declaration of African Heads of States on Gender Equality (2004) also enhance regional perspectives on women's rights. These instruments provide the basis for holding governments accountable for advancing the status of women in their respective countries. Women's marginalization is deeply rooted in the historical, political and socio-cultural context of Africa's development. While some improvements and successes are evident, the substance and pace of change have not been executed with the momentum and urgency required to catapult Africa's present stage of development to the level of results needed.

Evidence pointing to the negative impact of gender inequality on pro-poor growth is growing and through gender disaggregated data, such gaps can be identified and addressed. The UNECA has therefore developed the AGDI to complement other tools and to serve as an Africa-specific mechanism to monitor progress being made in gender equality among member states. The AGDI provides a user-friendly framework for assessing the extent of gender equality and measures to be taken to address existing gaps by subsuming the focus of investigation within four major blocks, namely *women's rights*, *social power*, *economic power*, and *political power*. The UNECA has successfully piloted the AGDI in 12 African countries, cutting across all the sub regions. Consequently, the results demonstrate an urgent need to accelerate political will, commitment and drive towards the achievement of gender equality.

Important lessons learned from these trials have informed the fine-tuning of the index as a user-friendly tool. Therefore, its full deployment is now timely. It is hoped that countries will find it useful not only as an instrument for measuring self-performance, but also as a peer review mechanism for appraising the performance of the continent as a whole.



Abdoulie Jannah
UN Under-Secretary-General and
Executive Secretary, ECA

Preface

The development of an index that best suits the needs and aspirations of the continent is timely as the region takes stock of progress in gender equality through the accountability processes of ICPD +15 and Beijing +15 reviews of 2009. The African Women's Report (AWR) is also being launched at a time when the world observes 30 years of existence and implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

The core objective of the New Partnership for Africa's Development is to underscore the importance of Africa's lead role and ownership in finding solutions to problems affecting the continent. The gathering of information and data is vital to achieving this goal.

Premised on the absence or inadequacy of data on issues pertaining to the legal, social, economic and political fields, the AWR has demonstrated and indeed affirmed the need for African countries to place statistical development, especially the gathering of gender statistics on the front burner of development efforts. Such steps will provide early warning signs of gaps in policy design and implementation in country efforts to meet goals and targets set in the area of gender equality under international, regional and sub regional frameworks.

Through the prism of the limited data that was made available for the report, a diagnosis of continuing gender inequality in the aforementioned fields has nevertheless been made.

The report highlights difficulties that countries are facing with respect to the full realisation of women's rights due, among other things, to the persistence of negative cultural and religious beliefs and attitudes towards women. High Maternal Mortality Rates as highlighted during the ICPD and Beijing +15 regional reviews of October and November 2009 and further established in the AWR is an issue of catastrophic concern.

The AWR also demonstrates the different and changing dimensions of gender inequality being experienced in some countries, especially with respect to child health where there are increasing signs of male stunting, malnutrition and school drop out rates. These outcomes are not an indication of the need to reduce investments in affirmative action in favour of the girl child. They rather demonstrate lack of precise and targeted planning and implementation using tools such as disaggregated data.

This edition of the AWR is technical in nature, given that it is based on the use of a technical tool, the African Gender and Development Index and thus makes it distinguishable from previous flagship reports of the African Centre for Gender and Social Development. The report in its present form reaches out to a wide range of users such as politicians, technocrats, civil society organizations, academia, researchers and development agencies. It is with a view to ensuring that the report can be used and understood by an even wider audience that the UNECA has produced the accompanying Synopsis.

It is the hope of the UNECA that the report will be used as a resource for change, knowledge building, information sharing and policy formulation in Africa.

Acknowledgements

This report is the outcome of years of sustained and focused work to enhance the use of statistical tools to collect and analyze sex disaggregated data within African countries. It was developed under the dedicated leadership of the Under Secretary General and Executive Secretary of the ECA, Abdoulie Janneh and the Deputy Executive Secretary, Lalla Ben Barka. The African Women's Report (AWR) benefited from the former Director of the African Centre for Gender and Development (ACGS), Josephine Ouédraogo, who believed in an index that can better reflect African member States' performance in addressing regional gender and social development issues. Deepest appreciation also goes to Monique Rakotomalala, Director of the African Centre for Gender and Social Development (ACGS). Since joining the Division in April 2009 she has been relentless in advancing the cause of women and children and demonstrating a passion for fostering positive change in their lives.

The AWR is the result of years of work in developing the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) which forms the basis for this report. Following the AGDI's development the UNECA piloted data collection based on this statistical and analytical tool in 12 African countries using an intensive two-way consultative process. Through this, the AWR benefited from the input of specialists with diverse sets of expertise from the fields of gender and development, statistics, political, social and development.

Thokozile Ruzvidzo, Chief of the Gender and Women in Development Section of the ACGS provided meticulous guidance and intellectual input into the report's production. Her interest and devotion to the project has been an inspiration to the team members.

Tacko Ndiaye and Beatrice Duncan were team leaders during the evolution of the AGDI and production of AWR at different times. Tacko Ndiaye was instrumental in the collection of data from the 12 countries, the finalisation of national AGDI reports, as well as the initial drafting of the AWR. Beatrice Duncan provided extensive technical contributions to the finalisation of the AWR. Her dedication to this work and the remarkable effort she invested in the collation of all the relevant data are greatly appreciated.

Acknowledgements also go to the two senior experts who assisted the UNECA develop the AGDI. Special thanks to Saskia Wieringa and Jacques Charmes for their contributions, guidance and support in the design of this groundbreaking tool. Saskia

Wieringa is the Director of the International Information Center and Archives for the Women's Movement in Amsterdam and is also affiliated as a senior researcher to the University of Amsterdam. Jacques Charmes is an economist and statistician serving as the Director of Research at the Institute of Research for Development.

A team of dedicated ACGS staff worked tirelessly to provide the technical expertise and background input required to ensure that the project was brought to completion. This team was comprised of Souleymane Abdallah, Souad Ben Abdennebi, Rose Aderolili, Houda Mejri, Omar Abdourahman, Meaza Ashenafi, Emelang Leteane, Selamawit Abebe, Tiruset Haile, Gladys Mutangadura, Adrian Gauci, Elizabeth Woldemariam, Oumar Diallo, Sher Verick, Sandra Zawedde, Meron Tewfik and Berhanu Tesfaye.

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Summary

The African Gender and Development Index as a Tool

Built around international consensus and a review of existing global indices, the UNECA designed the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) to facilitate the monitoring of Africa's progress in the implementation of global, regional and sub regional commitments affecting women.

Using both qualitative and quantitative means of data collection and analysis, the framework for measuring gender inequality under the AGDI is broadly classified into three “blocks” which reflect the totality of human development. They are the *social block* (capabilities), comprised of education and health issues; the *economic block* (opportunities) assessing access to productive resources; and the *political block* (agency) dealing with women's representation in decision-making in public and civil society arenas.

The index is in two main parts. The first is the Gender Status Index (GSI), which stores and facilitates the processing of the index's quantitative information. It focuses on measurable indicators of the three blocks by statistically comparing the performance of females and males. The index's second element is the AWPS which is its qualitative facet, dealing with issues more directly related to actual implementation of global and regional treaty obligations through the lens of all three blocks in an addition to a *women's rights block*. A unique feature of the scoreboard, the AWPS achieves this by reviewing and scoring interventions in the fields of legal and policy reforms, institutional capacity, research, civil society participation and monitoring and evaluation.

In its composite form, the AGDI affords an opportunity for African countries to monitor the progress they are making with respect to implementation of frameworks such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), and the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

“The AGDI was developed through a series of consultations with experts based in different regions and international agencies.”

Design and piloting of the AGDI

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regions.”

The AGDI was developed through a series of consultations with experts based in different regions and international agencies. The first step involved a review of existing indices previously developed by various development partners. Key among these were the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), both pioneered by the UNDP in 1995, to capture the complexities of gender inequalities within a human development framework and to offer a monitoring and policy making tool at both national and global levels. Another source of reference was the Women’s Empowerment Matrix (WEM) (Charmes and Wieringa, 2003), which maps out general gender-related issues in various spheres: physical, socio-cultural, religious, political, legal, and economic; as well as at various levels, individual, household, community, state and global. Although the WEM does not indicate possible correlations, it emphasizes the inter-linkages between the various spheres of women’s empowerment or disempowerment, and the levels at which these take place.

The review of the GDI and GEM, however, revealed their close association with a country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in addition to their over reliance on international databases which do not always capture African realities adequately. By their very nature of being quantitative, they tend to exclude the important and overarching influence of qualitative data. The AGDI seeks to fill in these gaps by building on the strengths of these models. It broadens concepts of gender and women’s empowerment by integrating a full range of socio-cultural, religious, legal, economic and political concerns. By utilising nationally available statistics and other local information, the AGDI captures the realities associated with gender equality and women’s empowerment in the African region.

The index has been piloted in 12 countries, representative of the continent’s five sub regions. The countries involved were Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania (United Republic of), Tunisia and Uganda. In each pilot country was established national advisory panels, comprised of representatives of national machineries for women’s affairs or gender, health, education and the national bureau of statistics or their equivalents; two independent experts with gender and development experience and statistics; and representatives of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The role of these panels included the facilitation of access to relevant and high quality data and endorsement of national reports.

This report is based on the results of the pilot exercises conducted within the 12 countries.

Main findings

Using the four blocks as the framework for analysis, the AGDI trial outcomes present important issues for consideration by governments and other stakeholders. This summary starts with a review of the women's rights block findings since it encapsulates where African countries stand with regard to their commitments to women's rights. It then proceeds into the results of the analysis pertaining to the social, economic and political blocks.

The women's rights block

The women's rights block investigates compliance with the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Optional Protocol to CEDAW (OP-CEDAW), and the Optional Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the African Women's Protocol). The analysis of the women's rights block shows that all 12 countries have ratified CEDAW, but that of these, three (Egypt, Ethiopia and Tunisia) have maintained reservations to date. Particularly in the cases of Egypt and Tunisia, these reservations relate to "CEDAW core areas": Articles 2 and 16, which deal with enforcement of non-discrimination and equality in marriage and family life. While other countries have integrated non-discriminatory clauses into their constitutions and other legislative frameworks and proceeded with reforms in marriage, family and property relations, their content, judicial interpretation and operation tend to be hampered by the continued operation of customary law and general lack of capacity of enforcement agencies. Progressive rulings emerging from the constitutional courts of some countries, such as Benin, South Africa and Uganda are however demonstrating that it is possible to protect women from discrimination through informed and responsive interpretation of the law.

Compared to the Convention, the level of accession to the OP-CEDAW tends to be lower. Of the 12 countries, five (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) have ratified it; three countries (Benin, Ghana and Madagascar) have signed it, while the remaining four: Egypt, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Uganda, have not taken any action. The additional observations cited in relation to the OP-CEDAW relate to the general lack of awareness of its contents. Consequently, prospects of its utilisation as a monitoring mechanism by civil society, even among ratifying countries, remain remote.

“ Compared to the Convention, the level of accession to the OP-CEDAW tends to be lower. ”

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The AGDI’s social block investigates performance with respect to Violence Against Women (VAW), education and health.”

With respect to the African Women’s Protocol, the results show that to date, six countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania), have submitted instruments of ratification, while four (Cameroon, Ethiopia, Madagascar and Uganda) have signed it. The remaining two (Egypt and Tunisia) have yet to initiate moves towards its endorsement. The AWPS also assesses implementation of Article 5 of the Protocol, dealing with Harmful Practices. The findings show persisting challenges with respect to the elimination of practices such as Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C). Ingrained negative attitudes and perceptions of society towards gender equality and women’s empowerment, and the absence or inadequacy of human and financial resources in the implementing institutions constitute drawbacks to the full realisation of this treaty.

The social block

The AGDI’s social block investigates performance with respect to Violence Against Women (VAW), education and health.

The component on *violence against women* investigates the extent to which countries are addressing the complexities associated with domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment, trafficking in women, and in implementing Article 27 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC). The pilot found that indications of political will to combat the various forms of violence is growing, seen by the fact that five countries (Cameroon, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and Uganda) have either initiated or completed law reforms that aim to combat and punish domestic violence. Additionally, seven countries (Burkina Faso, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) have comprehensive rape laws in place. Of these, Madagascar and South Africa include marital rape in their definition of rape. While reforms in sexual harassment tend to be more *ad hoc*, those related to trafficking have been more progressive. To date, five countries (Benin, Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar and South Africa) have ratified the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; while Ghana, South Africa and Uganda have enacted laws against human trafficking.

Common constraints to effective elimination of VAW include the inadequacy of existing implementation measures, such as legal awareness campaigns; capacity enhancement programmes for law enforcement personnel (such as the police, prosecutors and judges), and limited financial and human resources to sustain the work of mandated institutions.

The specific indicators reviewed under the *education* component are gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment; primary and secondary drop out ratios; ability to read and write among the population aged 15 years and above; and completion of primary school. At primary level, South Africa and Tunisia show higher female enrolment compared to males. Parity in primary enrolment also appears imminent in seven countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda), while for Benin, Burkina Faso and Ethiopia achievement of the MDG 2 target of ensuring that girls and boys will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015 is likely to take longer.

A mixed picture is created with respect to the attainment of gender equality at secondary and tertiary levels. While no country has attained parity at secondary level, six (Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda) show promising signs of doing so. At tertiary level, South Africa and Tunisia have more females than males enrolled, while Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar show signs of being close to parity. However, the actual gross enrolment figures for both sexes create more of a dismal picture as it shows marked reduction of numbers of both sexes from primary to the higher levels of education. This is the case for the majority of countries identified as almost achieving parity at secondary level (Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa and Tunisia) in addition to those who do not demonstrate it (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda).

A similar picture is painted for tertiary education. The findings show that South Africa and Tunisia have higher female to male enrolment, while Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar are close to achieving parity. Again, the overall picture of enrolment must be given sufficient attention, as efforts towards parity (particularly in higher education) have been accompanied by declines in both male and female enrolment rates, but especially males in the majority of instances.

The *health* component of the AGDI covers child health (stunting under 3; underweight under 3; and mortality under 5); HIV/AIDS prevalence; time spent out of work; and progress being made in four ICPD +15 commitments, namely: HIV/AIDS and STI prevention and treatment, maternal mortality and family planning. The assessment of child health indicators generally point to poor nutrition and high mortality rates, especially among boys in many of the pilot countries. Although countries demonstrate high levels of commitments to the stated ICPD +15 indicators through policy design and partnerships with civil society and donor support, HIV/AIDS prevalence rates for women tend to be higher compared to men in all countries. Maternal Mortality Ratios are also high as the vast majority of countries continue to face challenges associated with inaccessibility to emergency obstetric care, unsafe abortions and the shortage of medical personnel. Although indications of falling fertility rates in all the countries are evident, measures to comprehensively

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The findings show that South Africa and Tunisia have higher female to male enrolment, while Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar are close to achieving parity.”

ensure that contraception is fully and freely available to all has yet to materialise for the majority.

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The AGDI’s economic block assesses the extent to which women are meaningful players and beneficiaries in the economic development processes of their respective countries.”

The economic block

The AGDI’s economic block assesses the extent to which women are meaningful players and beneficiaries in the economic development processes of their respective countries. It measures levels of gender inequalities in economic activity through income levels, time use or employment, access to productive and strategic resources and implementation of ILO Conventions 100 (Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951); 111 (Discrimination in Employment and Occupation, 1958); 183 (Maternity Protection, 1952, as revised), the ILO Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work; and the extent to which countries are mainstreaming gender into PRSPs.

The outcomes demonstrate that women’s earnings (across formal and informal sectors) tend to be the value of half of men’s. This is attributable to constraints, such as women’s comparatively limited access to productive factors, including land, technology and credit. In the formal sector (e.g. civil service employment), except in limited cases, women also occupy the lowest paying positions, such as clerical and secretarial. The analysis of a limited number of Time Use Surveys also indicates that, in general, women tend to spend more time on domestic work and less on productive activity compared to men.

Furthermore, while progress has been made in maternity protection, wage discrimination against women is largely persistent, and there has been a general failure on the part of countries to design appropriate policies, with clear targets and institutional mechanisms to pursue equal employment opportunities. Additionally, while policy commitment to addressing feminized poverty through engendering national PRSPs tends to be growing, overall achievements in this area have been hampered by the lack of effective monitoring and evaluation, and inadequate human and financial resource allocation.

The political block

The political block measures levels of gender equality in decision-making within public and private sectors. With respect to the former, four countries (Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, and Uganda) have achieved the 30 per cent threshold for women’s participation within the legislature. Women’s generally

limited representation in legislative bodies is usually due to the overall absence of gender-aware policies among political parties. Their low visibility at the local governance level, in addition to within the judiciary, civil service, and as heads of civil society organisations, is uniform across most countries.

The political block also measures governments' commitment to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2001) on Women, Peace and Security, BPfA critical area of concern to establish effective and accessible national machineries and gender mainstreaming processes in all government departments. Highlights of the results of the country assessments show very minimal implementation of Resolution 1325, and demonstrate only token or no commitment on the part of these countries to integrate gender perspectives into conflict prevention, management, and resolution processes.

Although most countries have established national machineries to deal with the BPfA commitments, inadequate financial and human resources, lack of clear focus; uncertainties in co-ordination and limited research have rendered the vast majority of these institutions ineffective. Shortfalls resulting from the existence of weak gender machineries could have been ameliorated through effective gender mainstreaming in all government departments. The results show, however, that most governments are not fully implementing this process, and where they are, that gender desks or focal persons have not been given the full mandate, professional commitment and resources to effectively implement their mainstreaming goals.

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The political block measures levels of gender equality in decision-making within public and private sectors.”

Some cross dimensional synergies

Country assessments demonstrate overwhelming progress in legal and policy development in the social, cultural, economic and political fields, which aim at addressing gender inequality between men and women. Implementation is, however, being hampered by the limited allocation of human and budgetary resources. The African Women's Report demonstrates therefore, that there is a lack of consistency between the GSI and AWPS results, in which it appears that most countries continue to manifest situations of inequality regardless of reforms in place. There is also lack of uniformity in outcomes across the four blocks. Whereas it would be logical for instance to expect that countries with impressive track records in bridging gaps in education (e.g. Madagascar and Tunisia) to have similar achievements in the political and economic spheres, this has not been the case. In addition, despite its impressive overall social block rating under the GSI, South Africa records high maternal mortality and HIV/AIDS prevalence rates as found in the AWPS analysis.

“ Demonstrate commitment through the elimination of de facto and de jure discrimination. ”

The AGDI also leads to an increased appreciation of the interdependency of indicators contained in each of the blocks. A key example of this is girls' education and its links to improved child health and declines in early marriage. The AGDI findings also demonstrate that women's economic empowerment would significantly enhance food security at the household level, as well as facilitate reduction of child malnutrition.

Key action points

The issues identified by the field trials present a number of actions to be taken by African governments and other stakeholders. The following are the highlights:

Women's rights

African Governments must

- *Give high priority to the implementation of CEDAW, the BpFA and the African Women's Protocol*, backed by adequate financial and human resources, and appropriate related monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.
- *Provide women with the necessary tools* such as legal aid and accessible courts to enforce their rights in line with the fundamental position of women as rights holders.
- Appreciate that they are accountable to women and the need to demonstrate commitment through the elimination of *de facto* and *de jure* discrimination by means of comprehensive legal reforms and attitudinal change.

The African Union needs to

- *Set high reporting and monitoring standards* of government commitments to ensure that the African Women's Protocol is given high visibility as the reference point for implementation of the gendered aspects of other African initiatives, such as NEPAD.
- Ensure that the African Women's Protocol attains effective recognition at sub regional level and is given place as the reference framework for all gender-mainstreaming initiatives.

UN and regional agencies (e.g. UNECA, AU, UNIFEM) need to work towards

- Improving co-ordination, maximizing efforts and the use of resources, especially within the context of proposed United Nations reforms which aim to harmonize the mandates of agencies which work on advancing women's rights.
- *Identifying and facilitating opportunities for sharing the progressive experiences in best practices* taking place in some countries.
- Providing financial and technical support to countries to *review and reform customary and religious laws* in collaboration with stakeholders such as including traditional and religious leaders.

“Ensure that the African Women's Protocol is given high visibility as the reference point for implementation of the gendered aspects of other African initiatives, such as NEPAD.”

Social block

Violence Against Women and Children

African governments and civil society must

- *Address violence* through sustained law reform; capacity enhancement of enforcement agencies; public awareness campaigns (inclusive of strategies to *reverse the culture of silence surrounding violence*, its relegation as a private issue and the impunity with which such crimes are committed).
- *Adopt regional, sub regional and inter-country multilateral and bilateral trafficking protocols*, which aim to strengthen enforcement regimes; secure prosecution of perpetrators; and the protection, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims.

Education

African governments must

- Tackle gender gaps at higher levels of education through further *subsidization of secondary and technical education*, expansion of day care establishments, enhancing boarding facilities, providing relevant night school programmes and other forms of alternative education schemes.
- Address and reverse the current trend of high school drop outs among boys.

“Address and reverse the current trend of high school drop outs among boys.”

- Run these initiatives in tandem with *female retention* measures, such as safe and sanitary environments for girls; training of more female teachers; and the prevention of violence in schools.
- Instil a sense of confidence in the education system by ensuring that school curricula are relevant to the job market situations of African economies.

Women and Child Health

African Governments, NGOs and Development Partners must

- Address the current high levels of maternal mortality and the gendered impacts of HIV/AIDS, using selected strategies that include *improved equity in access and service delivery*, especially with respect to emergency obstetric care and HIV/AIDS treatment.
- Tackle the impact of the shortage of health services providers including medical staff by strengthening African health systems, especially at rural level, bearing in mind pro-poor strategies and the adoption of alternative forms of training.
- Sustain and scale up successful efforts in high and equitable coverage for *priority interventions* in child health such as the Expanded Programmes of Immunization (EPI); Vitamin A supplementation; and the use of insecticide-treated bed nets (ITNs), especially in deprived areas of African countries.
- Undertake comparable efforts and investments to support the case management of childhood illnesses, family planning services, ante natal, child birth, and post natal care.

Economic block

Governments, NGOs and Development Partners must

- Build consensus around the *recognition of women's contributions to the market economy* through their roles in both market and non-market work.
- Address disproportionate time burdens on women in the domestic sphere through improvements in access to public goods, such as water sources, day care centres, and health facilities, especially in rural situations.
- Take steps towards accelerating poverty reduction, using strategies such as mainstreaming of gender perspectives into PRSPs and other national devel-

opment planning frameworks and processes such as Gender Responsive Budgeting.

- Follow-up and document the monitoring and evaluation of the gender dimensions of commitments in such policies, with a view to taking corrective action along with setting up scorecards in all development sectors for purposes of accountability.
- Address discriminatory barriers which prevent women from accessing productive resources, such as land, labour, technology and credit.

“Build consensus around the recognition of women’s contributions to the market economy through their roles in both market and non-market work.”

Political block

African Governments must

- Commit to the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004), and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (2007), which *call for gender balance and equality in governance processes* and include a commitment to affirmative action (CEDAW, Article 4).
- Take steps to reverse situations of gender stereotyping in appointment processes, especially as they relate to positions which are traditionally dominated by men at political party, executive, ministerial, judicial and civil society levels.
- Embark upon continuous capacity building programmes for prospective women candidates and plan towards the creation of a coalition or alliance around a critical mass of able women in politics.
- Invest in public education and sensitization against stereotyping of women’s roles in society.

Cross cutting actions

African Governments must

- Give priority to research and data collection of sex-disaggregated statistics at all levels.
- *Invest in the deployment of time use surveys* in the short term, to facilitate generation of data on how men and women use their time and ensure that development initiatives are informed by these outcomes.

- Provide all institutions, which are directly or indirectly connected with the implementation of women's rights, with the necessary human and financial resource support to implement their respective mandates. They include national machineries for women, law reform commissions, human rights commissions, social welfare agencies, civil society (including the media) and enforcement institutions (police, courts and immigration services).
- *Invest in sustained public awareness programmes* that emphasize the gains to society if women are given the same opportunities as men in the social, economic and political spheres.
- Implement affirmative action measures in these spheres, with a view to accelerating *de facto* and *de jure* equality between men and women.

Introduction



The agenda

The last three decades have witnessed a significant momentum and global movement that have questioned the logic of gender inequality in the international quest for sustainable development. World conferences on women (Mexico, 1975; Copenhagen, 1980; Nairobi, 1985; and Beijing, 1995) have set the global agenda for achievement of gender equality through a systematic process of periodic analysis of progress. The Beijing +5 (2000), +10 (2005) and +15 (2009) outcomes specifically identified persistent gaps and challenges in the achievement of gender equality, as well as new recommendations for action to ensure full implementation. The agenda setting of the International Conferences on Population and Development (ICPD, 1994, 1999, 2004 and 2009) complemented these efforts (see Box 1.1).

Within the first decade under discussion, the UN General Assembly approved the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, to provide a framework for national action to end discrimination against women in the social, economic, cultural and political fields. Its principles (non-discrimination, accountability, inter-dependency and participation) inspire and reinforce the global initiatives cited above. Mention is also to be made of the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (1993); the World Conference on Human Rights (1994); the Millennium Declaration and the targets set under the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs, 2000). Other important milestones include the endorsement of UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (2001); the World Summits on the Information Society (2003 and 2005) which commit countries to ensure full participation of women in all spheres of the information society; the UN Secretary General's Study on Violence Against Women (2006), and the launch of the related global campaign.

Landmarks have also been achieved at regional and sub regional levels spearheaded by the adoption of the 2003 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the African Women's Protocol). The Protocol was informed by NEPAD, approved in 2001 as a framework for regional integration and social, political and economic development. It provides avenues for

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These compelling instruments and initiatives are the standard bearers upon which progress in the advancement of women is measured.
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enhancing women's human rights through social development indicators included in its African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM). Others include the Declaration of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) on Gender and Development (1997); the adoption by African Heads of States of the gender parity principle in the work of the AU Commission (2002)¹; the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004); and the Africa-wide campaign to end violence against women (African Development Forum (ADF), 2008).

Box 1.1 **ICPD on gender equality**

The objectives are: to achieve equality and equity between men and women and enable women to realize their full potential; to involve women fully in policy and decision-making processes and in all aspects of economic, political and cultural life as active decision makers, participants and beneficiaries; and to ensure that all women, as well as men, receive the education required to meet their basic human needs and to exercise their human rights. Recommended actions include, among others, establishing mechanisms for women's equal participation and equitable representation at all levels of the political process and public life; promoting women's education, skill development and employment; and eliminating all practices that discriminate against women, including those in the workplace and those affecting access to credit, control over property and social security. Countries should take full measures to eliminate all forms of exploitation, abuse, harassment and violence against women, adolescents and girls. In addition, development interventions should take better account of the multiple demands on women's time, with greater investments made in measures to lessen the burden of domestic responsibilities, and with attention to laws, programmes and policies which will enable employees of both sexes to harmonize their family and work responsibilities.

Source: ICPD PoA, 1994

The AU also demonstrated its commitment to gender and development in the continent by its adoption of its Gender Policy in 2009 (REV 2/Feb 10, 2009). Its stated goal is to adopt a rights-based approach to development through evidence-based decision-making and the use of gender-disaggregated data and performance indicators for the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa. It also seeks to promote a gender responsive environment and to undertake commitments linked to the realisation of gender equality and women's empowerment in Member States. The framework will inform planning, implementation and monitoring of gender equality on the continent.

These compelling instruments and initiatives are the standard bearers upon which progress in the advancement of women is measured.

¹ This has been implemented through the election of five female and five male Commissioners.

Redefining the future

While efforts aimed at reversing trends in gender inequality have gained momentum on several fronts, the gains have not been sufficient to bridge the gap between men and women in all spheres of life. Numerous challenges remain unaddressed, including women's limited access to productive resources such as land, water, energy, credit; means of communication; education and training; the gendered and other social costs of Maternal and Child Health (MCH), HIV/AIDS; the continued escalation of varied shapes and forms of violence, rape and other human rights abuses, especially in situations of armed conflict; and high maternal mortality rates.

This predicament is being worsened by the present global crisis manifested in the 2009 financial meltdown, food crisis and climate change. The UNECA (2009 c.:1) has demonstrated that the global economic crisis has resulted in a decline of economic growth in a significant number of African countries; a trend which is likely to reduce government expenditure on social (e.g. education and health) and other services (such as extension services).

Among other strategies, this state of affairs calls for redefining and reshaping the agenda for women in a manner that responds to these challenges effectively. Part of such measures includes the adoption of more rigorous approaches to gender analysis through the collection of sex-disaggregated data for effective monitoring and implementation.

“Among other strategies, this state of affairs calls for redefining and reshaping the agenda for women in a manner that responds to these challenges effectively.”

Engendering statistics is non-negotiable

The Outcome and Way Forward of the Beijing +10 regional review of 2004 calls on,

“governments to evaluate on a regular basis, the extent to which political will is translated into concrete results, so as to identify and remedy the gaps in existing gender policies and implementation, and support them with the allocation of the appropriate human and material resources.”

Up-to-date sex-disaggregated data, in various sectors at multiple levels in all African countries, is a prerequisite for taking such actions.

The AGDI was developed against the background of a need to instil a work ethic, culture, and practice of gender-aware planning and statistics gathering in Africa. The central aim of engendering statistics is to make a case for removing gender inequali-

ties where they are shown to exist; to provide an evidential basis for unbiased policies and measures; and to establish a scientific basis for monitoring and evaluating the impact of policies and measures with respect to their gendered impacts. The absence of such statistics hampers the effective diagnosis of inequalities and, thereby, leads to an imbalanced development of society.

A significant volume of research establishes that gender inequality is adverse to human development and economic growth.

An efficient system of statistics to facilitate the identification of gender gaps in development is central to pro-poor growth in Africa. A significant volume of research establishes that gender inequality is adverse to human development and economic growth (e.g. Dollar and Gati, 1999; Klasen, 2002, 2006; Thomas, 1997; World Bank 2001). These studies show that countries with gender gaps in education, employment and access to productive resources such as land, credit and extension services tend to demonstrate declines in economic performance.

National and regional statistical systems in Africa have not made the type of progress in designing systems and operations to generate the full scope of sex-disaggregated data needed to support advances made in raising awareness of the social and economic implications of gender imbalances. Thus, policy-making and programme targeting aspects of gender in many sectors are not as sharp as they would have been if gender differentiated data were available.

An assessment of national statistical systems in Africa (UNECA, 2006), however, identified constraints, such as lack of connectivity to national development programmes, and the under-resourcing of statistical units. The Commission and its partners are responding to this by pursuing more holistic statistical reforms that aim at accelerating a culture of engendering statistics in Africa. Some of these measures include the following:

- Support for mainstreaming gender into Population and Housing Censuses (PHCs) through interventions aimed at engendering the Principles and Recommendations (P&R) on PHCs. The expected output is the production of a Gender African Supplement to the P&R. The project consists of reviewing the statistical frameworks for the preparation of the 2010 round of PHC and providing recommendations on how to integrate gender perspectives in census undertakings.
- Advocacy and support for the adoption of Time Use Surveys as a step towards appreciating the value of, and capturing unpaid work in African national accounts.
- Launch of a Civil and Vital Registration Capacity Building Programme, with the objective of strengthening vital and civil registration systems in Africa.
- Provision of a platform for the creation of a Gender and Statistics Network in line with the recommendations of the StatCom-Africa Working

Group on Gender Statistics. This is expected to provide a framework for knowledge sharing, peer learning, and networking between all stakeholders dealing with gender statistics issues. Through the network, participants are expected to advocate for sustained political commitment to integrate gender equality concerns into policy agendas, as well as into the development of standards, frameworks and guidelines, and other statistical initiatives.

The AGDI occupies a significant place among these initiatives and will inform governments and stakeholders of the valuable place of gender statistics and their importance in national development planning.

“ Another reference point was the Women’s Empowerment Matrix. ”

Methodology and data sources

The AGDI was born out of a series of consensus-building processes. The first step involved a review of existing indices developed by various development partners.

With the assistance of two experts experienced in gender and women’s issues, as well as statistics, the process encompassed an appraisal of existing indices, an assessment of their strengths and limitations; a review of relevant global and regional agreements and conventions; and the specific monitoring mechanisms accompanying them.

The indices relevant to AGDI’s design consisted of three of the five human development indices designed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) as part of its annual Human Development Reports. These included the Human Development Index (HDI), the Gender-related Development Index (GDI), and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), all of which capture gender inequalities within a human development framework. The HDI is not sex-disaggregated and is based on life expectancy, education and standards of living using GDP per capita. Based on the same indicators, the GDI is sex-disaggregated to facilitate assessment of impacts on men and women. The GEM on the other hand is an extension of the GDI, focusing on gendered differences in political and economic participation, and in women and men’s power over economic resources.²

Another reference point was the Women’s Empowerment Matrix (WEM) (Charmes and Wieringa, 2003). This matrix maps out various gender-related issues in the physical, socio-cultural, religious, political, legal and economic spheres, as well as at the individual, household, community, state, and global levels. Although the WEM does not indicate possible correlations among these categories of analysis, it does

² See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/humandev/hdi/>

emphasize the inter-linkages between the various spheres of women's empowerment or disempowerment, and the levels at which these take place.

“
In developing the AGDI, the UNECA made an attempt to overcome these limitations and build on the strengths of the GEM and GDI.”

The review of the GDI and GEM revealed their close association with a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Their compilation is also based on international databases, which do not always adequately capture African realities. In addition, their primary focus on quantitative concerns overlooks the critical importance of qualitative issues, such as women's rights. In developing the AGDI, the UNECA made an attempt to overcome these limitations and build on the strengths of the GEM and GDI. The model seeks to broaden the concepts of gender and women's empowerment by integrating a full range of socio-cultural, religious, legal, economic and political concerns in a way that addresses equality and equity in access to and control over social capabilities, economic opportunities, political power and women's rights issues. Through the utilisation of statistics available nationally and an assessment of the implementation level of key global and regional commitments, the AGDI captures the realities associated with gender equality and women's empowerment in the African region.

The second step involved a review of the draft AGDI by an international and regional advisory working group of experts consisting of statisticians, economists, gender and development specialists, social development practitioners, as well as representatives from UNFPA, the World Bank and UNIFEM. The outcome of their engagement with the process was a sharpening of the professional accuracy and usability of the AGDI's contents and structure. The regional advisory working group, in particular, played an important role in reviewing and validating the draft AGDI on the basis of rigorous criteria consisting of relevance; availability of data; value added; and coverage of all major domains and issues where gender inequalities are most prominent. The third step in the design of the AGDI involved its piloting in 12 African countries, with the intention that lessons would be learned from its application for future improvements in the content of the index. The criteria for selection of the countries were based on the necessity of reflecting Africa's subregional (Northern, Eastern, Western, Central, and Southern) and linguistic (English, French and Portuguese) diversity. The countries selected per subregion were as follows:

Sub-region Countries

- **East Africa:** Ethiopia, Madagascar, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda;
- **West Africa:** Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana;
- **Central Africa:** Cameroon;
- **Southern Africa:** South Africa, Mozambique; and
- **North Africa:** Egypt, Tunisia.

Figure 1.1
Sub regional distribution of trial countries



Source: UNECA

At the implementation level of each pilot country, National Advisory Panels were established, comprised of representatives of national machineries for women’s affairs or gender; health; education; and national bureau of statistics or its equivalent; two independent experts with experience in gender and development, and statistics; and an NGO representative. The role of National Advisory Panels included facilitation of accessing of relevant high-quality data and endorsement of national reports.

This African Women’s Report synthesizes the findings from national reports. It provides a general picture of gender equality and women’s empowerment based on the experiences of the countries involved in the pilot. Prior to the publication of this report, an experts meeting attended by independent experts from each of the trial countries was held from 20-22 July 2009 to validate its contents.

Data sources for the pilot exercise included Population Censuses, Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), Living Standards Surveys, Time Use Surveys (TUS), Labour

“ The role of National Advisory Panels included facilitation of accessing of relevant high-quality data and endorsement of national reports. ”

Force Surveys, Enterprise Surveys and Agriculture Surveys. In the compilation of this synthesis report, however, extensive references were also made to other sources to compliment the quantitative and qualitative data presented by countries. These sources included: State Party Reports to the CEDAW Committee; Country Self-Assessment Reports arising from the African Peer Review Mechanism processes of countries under the NEPAD initiative; MDG Progress Reports; various UN agency progress reports (e.g. MDG monitoring reports, Human Development Reports, HIV/AIDS status reports); Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers; and the report of the recently held African Development Forum of 2008. **Appendix 1 outlines the specific data sources per country on each issue of investigation.**

To make the document useful and relevant to the ICPD +15 and Beijing +15 2009 regional process, efforts were made to use data spanning the period 2000-2009. The documentation process, however, encountered a number of difficulties. These included data unavailability in several key areas and the absence of a system of harmonized data collection across African countries to generate results for comparative purposes.

Overview of the AGDI

The AGDI is a composite index that combines both a *quantitative* assessment of gender equality in the social, economic and political spheres using a Gender Status Index (GSI); and a *qualitative* evaluation of governments' performance in their implementation of specific treaties, declarations, and resolutions through an African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS). Amalgamating the two provides a holistic picture of the status of women in a country and affords opportunities for actions to be taken to correct imbalances between males and females in their access to social, economic, and political space in society.

Quantitative evaluation of women's empowerment: the GSI

Preliminary observations

The GSI is a quantitative measure of relative gender equality in various spheres, computed using a set of 41 indicators.³ These indicators are classified within three blocks: *social power* representing 'capabilities'; *economic power* representing 'opportu-

3 The original text consisted of 42 indicators, inclusive of life expectancy under the health component. This indicator was however excluded after thorough reconsideration during the July 2009 independent review of experts.

nities'; and *political power* representing 'agency'. The social power block focuses on education and health; the economic power block pays attention to gender inequalities in income, time use, employment and access to resources, while the political power block measures representation in decision-making across public and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs). There is also a fourth block, that of women's rights, which is restricted to the African Women's Progress Scoreboard subcomponent of the AGDI. It uses qualitative indicators to review performance with respect to global and regional treaty obligations affecting women.

Each block of the GSI is divided into various components, which in turn are subdivided into a number of sub-components and finally, indicators/variables respectively. Only variables amenable to comparison between women and men are included. Therefore, indicators such as maternal mortality are not included in the GSI. To meet the objective of democratizing statistics, the index is based on the use of simple indicators which compare women's achievement to men's, and thus ignores population-weighted harmonic means as a basis of computation.

Social power (capabilities) block

The social power block examines various education and health issues.

Gender inequality in *education* is measured through three sub-components: enrolment, dropout, and literacy rates. The first sub-component takes account of gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrolments, while the second focuses on the primary and secondary level dropouts. These issues are critical for monitoring the cultural, social, economic, and gendered dimensions surrounding the dropping out of school among both girls and boys. Literacy is captured through two indicators: the ability to read and write for the population aged 15 years and above, in addition to those who have completed a full dose of primary school.

Inequalities in *health* encompass four sub-components: child health, measured by indicators on stunting under 3 (height for age), underweight under 3 (weight for age), and mortality (under 5); HIV/AIDS prevalence among young people (aged 15–24)⁴; and time spent out of work.

Economic power (opportunities) block

The GSI of the economic power block is evaluated on the basis of three components: time-use or employment; income; and access to resources.

⁴ The original text of the AGDI reflected "new HIV/AIDS infections". This was subsequently changed to "HIV/AIDS prevalence" when it was later realized that data on the latter was generally lacking.

“ It uses qualitative indicators to review performance with respect to global and regional treaty obligations affecting women.”

“The extent to which women are effectively accessing productive resources.”

The first component, *time use* or *employment* measures the participation of women in the labour force and household and care economy. It is widely acknowledged that women's economic participation in the labour force and their contribution to national income are generally underestimated in household surveys and national accounts due to the perception that their contributions (e.g. in small scale agriculture, food processing and child care) are not of economic value. This tends not to take account of the definition of economic activities under the revised System of National Accounts (SNA) (1993), which includes 'all primary, manufacturing and construction activities'.

Although Time Use Surveys are not yet available in many countries, the indicators for *time-use* (which the AGDI has adopted), are preferred to those of labour force and employment, due to their underestimation of women's participation. Gender disparities in time use are measured by means of three indicators:

- Time spent in market economic activities, as a paid employee, own-account worker or employer;
- Time spent in non-market economic activities, within the production boundary or as an unpaid family worker in market economic activities; and
- Time spent in unpaid non-SNA activities, within the extended definition of work that includes domestic activities, care work and volunteer work.

Gender gaps with regard to *income* are captured through the following seven indicators:

- Wages in agriculture;
- Wages in the civil service;
- Wages in the public and private formal sector;
- Wages in the informal sector;
- Income from informal sector enterprises;
- Income from small agricultural household enterprises; and
- Income from remittances or inter-household transfers.

The third component in this block on *access to resources* determines the extent to which women are effectively accessing productive resources to support their full participation in the economic development process. This is determined through the lens of the following indicators:

- Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses and land;
- Access to credit; and

- Freedom to dispose of own income.

Political power (agency) block

The political dimension of the GSI is the analytical framework of the representation of women and men in decision-making. The block consists of two components: an examination of power distribution in the public sector across the three arms of State: Executive, Legislative, Judiciary; and a civil society segment, which reviews participation in political parties, trade unions, employers associations, professional syndicates, and leadership of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Community Based Organisations (CBOs). The lines of distinction between the two broad sectors are fluid, as they tend to spill into each other in some countries depending on the national context.

The GSI table with all its features, as described above, is presented below in Table 1.1.

“ *The lines of distinction between the two broad sectors are fluid, as they tend to spill into each other in some countries depending on the national context.* ”

Table 1.1
Gender Status Index with blocks, components, sub-components and indicators

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator
Social power 'Capabilities'	Education	Enrolment (Gross)	Primary enrolment rate
			Secondary enrolment rate
			Tertiary enrolment rate
		Dropout	Primary dropout ratio
			Secondary dropout ratio
		Health	Literacy
	Ability to read and write		
	Child health		
	HIV/AIDS prevalence		Stunting under 3
		Underweight under 3	
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture
			Wages in civil service
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)
			Wages in informal sector
		Income	Income from informal enterprise
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise
	Time-use or employment	Time-use	Income from remittances and inter-household transfers
			Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)
			Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities
		Employment	Time spent in domestic, care, and volunteer activities
Or: Share of paid employees, own-account workers, and employers in total employment			
Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	
		Access to credit	
		Freedom to dispose of own income	
	Management	Employers	
		High civil servants (class A)	
		Members of professional syndicates	
		Administrative, scientific and technical	

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector		Members of parliament	
			Cabinet ministers	
			Higher courts judges	
			Members of local councils	
	Civil society		Higher positions in civil service (including government institutions, regional governors and ambassadors)	
		Senior positions in		Political parties
				Trade unions
				Employers' associations
				Professional syndicates
			Heads or managers of NGOs	
	Heads of community-based associations or unions			

“The AWPS is a double entry table composed of two axes.”

Qualitative evaluation of women’s empowerment: the AWPS

Preliminary observations

The statistical mechanism of the AWPS provides a framework for assessing progress being made by African governments in the qualitative areas of legal reform, policy, planning, implementation and monitoring of international treaties, declarations, and decisions affecting women. The AWPS is a double entry table composed of two axes: a vertical axis (horizontal lines) listing selected conventions, charters, resolutions, and issues included in the assessment; and a horizontal axis comprised of a range of indicators for measuring government performance.

Vertical axis of the AWPS

Similar to the GSI, the AWPS functions under the three blocks of social, economic and political.

However, in view of its unique objective of also assessing the human rights of women, it also possesses a *women’s rights block* as an additional (fourth) block. The inclusion of a rights assessment in the AGDI framework is not to suggest that the other blocks (social, economic and political) are not sensitive to women’s rights. This rights block rather reinforces the other three by providing a special window of opportunity for investigating country performance of treaty obligations in fields that are social, economic and political. This is apparent from the basic objects and purposes of the two global and regional charters on African women as outlined in Table 1.2 below.

Table 1.2**Correlation between women's rights/social/ economic/ political blocks**

Treaties	Provisions on Social Rights	Provisions on Economic Rights	Provisions on Political Rights
CEDAW	All appropriate measures - Article 3 Exploitation of women -Article 6 Equality in education -Article 10 Equality in access to health services - Articles. 12, 14 Equality in family law -Article. 16	All appropriate measures - Article 3 Equality in employment and labour rights - Article 11 Finance and social security - Articles 13, 14 Equality in family law -Article. 16	All appropriate measures -Article 3 Equality in political and public life at national level -Article 7 Equality in political and public life at international level - Articles.8, 14
African Women's Protocol	Right to dignity – Article 3 Right to life, integrity and security - Article 4 Elimination of Harmful Practices - Articles 5, 20, 22, 23 Marriage Rights - Articles 6 and 7 Right to education and training - Article 12 Health and reproductive rights - Article 14	Economic and social security rights - Article 13 Right to food security - Article 15 Right to sustainable environment - Article 18 Right to sustainable development - Article 19 Right to inheritance - Article 21	Participation in the political and decision-making process - Article 9 Right to peace - Article 10 Women in armed conflicts -Article 11
Cross-cutting provisions	<p>Non-discrimination and equality before the law CEDAW: Articles 1,2, 9, 15 African Women's Protocol: Articles 2, 8</p> <p>Affirmative Action CEDAW: Article 4 African Women's Protocol: Article 1.d</p> <p>Elimination of gender stereotypes and negative perceptions of women CEDAW: Article 5 African Women's Protocol: Article 2.2</p> <p>Accountability CEDAW Articles 2 and 18 African Women's Protocol: Article 26</p>		

Sources: CEDAW and the African Women's Protocol

As can be appreciated from the Table, Article 3 of CEDAW, with its call for the holistic implementation of women's rights and gender equality, covers all the blocks. It does so in the following manner:

“States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.” (CEDAW, Article 3)

In addition to assessing whether a country has taken measures to implement the Convention in general, the AWPS captures actions taken with respect to Article 2 (non-discrimination) and Article 16 (marriage and family life).

The Committee on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (the Committee), established under the Convention (Article 17), is entrusted with overseeing and monitoring its implementation. Consequent to ratification, countries are obliged to report on progress being made with respect to steps being taken towards full realization of the provisions of the Convention. This is to be done one year following ratification and thereafter, at least every four years, and further whenever the Committee so requests (Article 18). Depending on the particular country's constitutional process, treaties such as CEDAW are either automatically domesticated upon ratification (the monist approach) or require a specific legislative process for domestication (the dualist approach).

The OP-CEDAW complements the existing monitoring and enforcement mechanism of the Convention by providing a setting in which complaints of “grave or systematic violations” by a State Party (Article 8 (1)) can be raised and addressed through the Communication and the Inquiry Procedures of the Committee. Although the recommendations of the CEDAW Committee are not legally binding and sanctions cannot be directly imposed in response to the failure of a State to take the relevant remedial action, the OP-CEDAW remains a formidable channel through which acts of systematic violations of women's rights can be exposed and condemned.

The African Women's Protocol sets in motion a complementary framework for the enforcement of women's rights, integrating specific human rights concerns that are not elaborated in existing global treaties. The Protocol emanated from widespread consultations on the need to develop a human rights instrument of relevance to the overarching concerns and needs of African women. It may be cited as unique to other instruments in that it:

“ Depending on the particular country's constitutional process, treaties such as CEDAW are either automatically domesticated upon ratification (the monist approach) or require a specific legislative process for domestication (the dualist approach). ”

“ The African Women’s Protocol therefore represents an African response to the particular situation of African women.”

- Explicitly articulates medical abortion as a right in cases of sexual assault, rape or incest, and where continued pregnancy endangers the mental and physical health of the mother or the life of the mother and the foetus.
- Affords protection to different categories of women, such as widows, the elderly, women with disabilities, women heads of households, and pregnant and nursing women in detention.
- Provides specific provisions forbidding forced marriages, stipulation of the minimum age of marriage as 18 years, and recommends monogamy as the “preferred form of marriage.”
- Guarantees the right of women to participate in conflict prevention and promotion programmes, in addition to their security and protection during conflict.

Some of these provisions touch on cultural and traditional norms affecting family community relations. The African Women’s Protocol therefore represents an African response to the particular situation of African women.

The monitoring and reporting mechanism of the African Women’s Protocol is, however, less elaborate and corrective compared to those of CEDAW and the OP-CEDAW. Under its Article 26, State Parties are required to reflect progress which they are making in implementing the Protocol in their periodic reports to the African Commission as spelt out under Article 62 of the African Charter.

In addition to capturing whether countries have ratified the African Women’s Protocol and are implementing its general provisions, the AWPS singles out *Harmful Practices* (Article 5) as a key area of investigation.

Horizontal axis of the AWPS

The horizontal axis of the AWPS sets the stage for assessing a country’s level of commitment to implementation and monitoring of international and regional frameworks reflected in the vertical axis. It does so by reflecting a set of inter-related measures that countries are expected to address as they fulfill their commitments. They cover issues related to ratification, reporting, legal reform, policy development, planning, target setting, creation of institutional mechanisms, human and financial resource availability, research, civil society involvement, information dissemination and monitoring and evaluation.

Table 1.3 presents the features of the AWPS.

Table 1.3
The African Women's Progress Scoreboard

	Women's rights		Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Total	%		
SOCIAL	CEDAW	Ratification without reservation																	
		Optional Protocol Article 2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X				
	Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.	Article 16	X	X															
		Harmful Practices (Article 5)	X	X															
	Beijing Platform for Action	X	X																
	Violence against Women	Domestic violence	X	X															
		Rape	X	X															
		Sexual harassment	X	X															
	African Charter on the Rights of the Child	Trafficking in women	X	X															
		Article 27	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Health- ICPD +15 Commitments	HIV/AIDS	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	STIs	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Maternal Mortality	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Family Planning	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Education	Policy on female dropouts in schools	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Education on human/women's rights	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Total	%
ECONOMIC	Convention 100	X													
	Convention 111	X													
	Convention 183	X													
	Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work	X	X												
	Engendering NPRS	X	X	X											
	Equal Access to Resources	X	X	X											
	Access to agricultural extension services	X	X	X											
	Access to technology	X	X	X											
	Access to land	X	X												
	UN Security Council Resolution 1325	X	X												
Political	Creation of effective and accessible national machineries	X	X												
	Gender mainstreaming in all departments	X	X												
	Support for women's quotas and affirmative action	X	X												
Total score															

X= Not applicable

Calculation of the GSI and AWPS and shortcomings

The GSI

Each GSI indicator of gender equality is calculated by comparing the ratio of female achievement to that of males'. The closer the result is to 1.00, the greater the indication of gender equality. Some indicators, however, do not follow this method of computation. These are in relation to six “negative indicators”: education (dropout); health (stunting, underweight, under five mortality); HIV/AIDS prevalence; and time-use (domestic, care and volunteer activities). For all of these the calculations are based on comparing the situation of males to that of females. Once the indicators are calculated, the value for each subcomponent, component and block is assessed sequentially, using a simple arithmetic mean. The overall GSI is finally compiled as the mean of the three blocks to give the overall gender profile of the country (see overall GSI results in Appendix 3).

“The closer the result is to 1.00, the greater the indication of gender equality.”

Example:

Calculating the GSI for primary enrolment:

Primary enrolment rate for girls: 65 per cent

Primary enrolment rate for boys: 80 per cent

Enrolment rate indicator: $65/80 = 0.813$

It must be noted, however, that the GSI, like all other aggregate indicators, are national in character and do not give insights into the realities of localities and groups. In addition, the GSI does not provide an opportunity to appreciate trends over time, unless its computation is carried out on a regular basis.

The AWPS

A simple scoring system based on a three-point scale of 0–1–2 is used for computation of each indicator. The guiding bench marks are as follows:

- 0 (zero) indicates no action taken;
- 1 (one) indicates partial action taken; and
- 2 (two) indicates full action taken.

“
There are also
various connecting
threads between the
blocks.”

Example:

Scoring of ratification of CEDAW:

- 0 (zero): Government has taken no action;
- 1 (one): Government has signed or ratified with reservation (s);
- 2 (two): Government has ratified without reservation(s).⁵

As with the GSI, specific shortcomings in the AWPS calculation were also identified following field trials. It was discovered that this three-point scale was not adequate enough to evaluate country performance, especially with respect to different phases of implementation and impact. On this basis, a six-point scale of 0-5 has been proposed as a more workable framework for the future use of the AGDI (see Chapter 8 for details).

Cross-dimensional issues

The composite nature of the AGDI facilitates comparative analysis of qualitative and quantitative assessments, indicative of the fact that one segment of the analysis would not suffice in determining the performance of a country. In some situations, a country may reflect poorly under the GSI, while scoring impressively under the AWPS and vice-versa. Such discrepancies would have to be examined and scrutinized to determine the causes and implications and what gaps need to be filled to address the identified inconsistencies or deficiencies.

There are also various connecting threads between the blocks. An example is the correlation between social power (capabilities) and political power (agency), from which one can make verifications of the linkages between the education status of women and their visibility in decision-making. Synergies between the social and economic blocks are also evident (e.g. Box 1.2).

⁵ See Appendix 5 for a more detailed explanation of the AWPS scoring method.

Box 1.2

Synergies between social and economic status of women in Ethiopia

“There is an inverse relationship between education and polygyny. The proportion of currently married women in a polygynous union decreases from 13 percent among women with no education to 3 percent among women with some secondary or higher education. Substantial differences are observed in the prevalence of polygyny among women in different wealth quintiles. Women in the lowest wealth quintile are twice as likely to be in a polygynous union as women in the highest wealth quintile.”

Source: Ethiopia DHS, 2006:81

Linkages between these two blocks may also be drawn with the economic power block, through which an assessment may be made of the impact of a situation such as poverty on access to education, health and effective participation.

Synergies with the MDGs, PRSPs and NEPAD

For the AGDI to be effective, it must be relevant to the pursuit of national, global and regional development targets. This section is devoted to an appreciation of its usefulness as a monitoring tool of the gender dimensions of settings such as the MDGs, NEPAD and National Development Planning Frameworks (see Fig. 1.1).

Using the AGDI, MDGs6 and PRSPs for pro-poor planning, implementation and monitoring

The feminization of poverty in Africa requires that governments adopt priorities and development planning methods that not only target economic growth but also take account of the needs and potentials of the majority of the poor. Blackden *et al* (2006) and Klasen (2006), among others, demonstrate that gender inequality serves as a major barrier to economic growth. The institution of the MDGs is a development *catalyst*. This is by reason of the fact that the framework has generally redefined development objectives by operationally identifying close correlates of poverty in education, health empowerment of women into time-bound targets. It has also recast a global partnership for human development based on a multi-dimensional definition of development and the realization of fundamental economic and social rights (Gauci, 2009).

By Resolution 60/265 of 2006, a follow-up to the 2005 UN World Summit and Midterm Review of the Progress towards the MDGs, the UN Secretary General urged countries experiencing extreme poverty to prepare and implement MDG-

“For the AGDI to be effective, it must be relevant to the pursuit of national, global and regional development targets.”

6 The revised official list of MDG targets and indicators is the reference point.

“The AGDI is MDG sensitive, affording unique opportunities for countries to measure performance in a wide range of fields covered by the Millennium Declaration.”

based Poverty Reduction Strategies or National Development Plans.⁷ As of March 2008, forty-one countries had developed MDG-consistent poverty reduction strategies or national development plans of varying comprehensiveness and efficacy.⁸ The formulation and implementation of these set of second generation frameworks provide a window of opportunity to design programmes and interventions that address long term distributional consequences of economic growth (Gauci, 2009).

The AGDI is MDG-sensitive, affording unique opportunities for countries to measure performance in a wide range of fields covered by the Millennium Declaration. Immense dividends can be gained from drawing on the overlaps between the MDGs, PRSPs and AGDI measuring rods such as CEDAW, the BPfA, and the ICPD Programme of Action (PoA) (UNECA, 2009 a.). Below is an outline of how the AGDI adds value to this process (also see Figure 1.2).

The MDGs and the social block

Of special relevance to the social block are MDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. The GSI has adopted two of the three indicators of Goal 2, which deal with universal primary education; notably gross enrolment ratio in primary education and women and men's literacy rates. The only difference is that for the latter, the AGDI extends the age limit to 15 years and beyond. The GSI also focuses on dropout at primary and secondary levels, with a complementary opportunity afforded under the AWPS to conduct a qualitative evaluation of how countries are preventing girls from dropping out of school by actions, such as creating safe and sanitary environments and affording protection to those who have previously dropped out through programmes of integration. MDG 3 is also relevant to the social block, particularly with regard to the indicator on the “ratio of girls and boys in primary, secondary, and tertiary education.”

The report findings draw a link between MDG 1, “eradicate extreme poverty and hunger” and child health, with particular reference to the *prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age* (MDG 1, Target 1.C, indicator 1.8). The focus for the GSI is on underweight children under-three years of age. Other AGDI child health issues are captured under MDG 4, “reduce child mortality”. In this instance, the GSI focuses on one MDG indicator, that of the under-five mortality rate, is in addition to stunting under 3, and underweight under 3. The report's overall recommendations related to the implementation of MDG 4 are to intensify child health

7 See GA Resolution 60/265. Follow-up to the development outcome of the 2005 World Summit, including the Millennium Development Goals and other internationally agreed development goals.

8 UNECA has launched a study on the effectiveness of MDG-based PRSPs in seven African countries. This study will provide a strong analytical basis for peer-learning, knowledge sharing and capacity building in the area of pro-poor development planning.

interventions, such as Expanded Programmes of Immunisation (EPI); Vitamin A supplementation; and the use of insecticide treated nets.

The AWPS also specifically addresses issues captured under Goal 5, “improve maternal health”, through an assessment of implementation of ICPD commitments and ILO Convention 183 on maternity protection at the workplace. Another relevant dimension of the MDGs to the social block is Goal 6, “combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases”. The GSI facilitates appraisal of this goal’s implementation by examining HIV/AIDS prevalence by sex among the population 15-24 years, replicating indicator 6.1 of MDG 6. Opportunities for assessing other issues of concern such as the proportion of the population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS are also presented.

“The focus for the GSI is on underweight children under-three years of age.”

The MDGs and the economic block

MDG commitments related to the economic block are captured under Goals 1, 3 and 7 (“eradicate extreme hunger and poverty”, “promote gender equality and empower women”; and “ensure environmental sustainability”). All the targets under the first Goal are relevant as they address tackling poverty, hunger, and *achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*.

MDG 3 has a specific indicator on the *share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector*, which is also relevant to the GSI. These targets and indicators are all reflected in diverse AGDI indicators on gender segregation in labour markets, monetary remuneration for work, and the potential to make use of and control productive resources and other economic opportunities. These are covered under indicators on gender differentials in: wages in agriculture; the civil service; formal (public and/or private) and informal sectors; income from informal enterprises; small agricultural household enterprises; remittances and inter-household transfers; share of paid employees; own account workers and employers in total employment; ownership of rural/urban plots/houses and land; access to credit; and freedom to dispose of own income.

The AGDI measures the visibility of women and men’s distinct contributions in the household and care economy through various time use indicators, such as time spent out of work; time spent in market economic activities as paid employee; own account employer; time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family workers in market economic activities; and time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities.

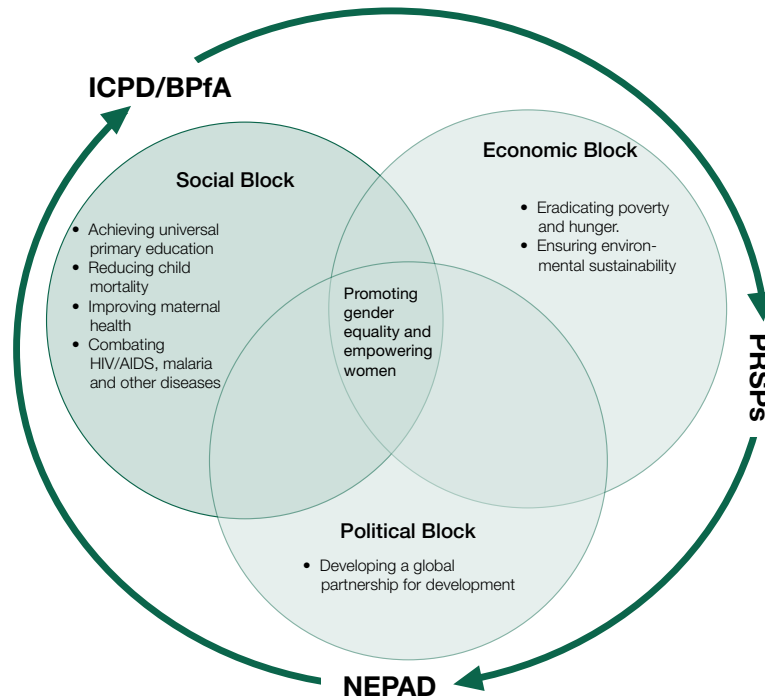
Some aspects of Goal 7 are covered in the AWPS review of government performance in promoting women’s access to agricultural extension services and land. Women’s

ownership of rural/urban plots, houses or land as compared to men's are also measured in the GSI.

Figure 1.2

Synergies between the AGDI (ICPD and BPfA), MDGs, PRSPs and NEPAD

“ All the targets under the first Goal are relevant. ”



The MDGs and the political block

Indicator 3.3 of MDG3, which investigates the *proportion of seats held by women in national parliament*, is relevant to the political block. However, the latter is wider in scope, as it covers gender participation in other entities and structures, including the Judiciary, Executive and civil society groups.

MDG 8: Developing a global partnership for development as a cross cutting concern

Goal 8 is of critical importance to all the MDGs and AGDI indicators. Frameworks such as the BPfA and ICPD make demands for increasing Official Development Assistance (ODA) for the achievement of targets. The targets for MDG 8 place special emphasis on Least Developed Countries, most of which are in Africa. The related AGDI data will be a valuable asset for sound policy-making and targeted

programming towards sustainable development. Financing for gender equality was a core agenda of the 2008 African Development Forum (ADF), which observed that resource inadequacy was an obstacle to effective implementation of commitments to gender equality. It, therefore, made a call on the international community and governments to intensify efforts at galvanizing resources (Box 1.3).

Box 1.3

Multilateral cooperation to ameliorate impact of recession on women

In the light of the financial crisis, rising food and volatile fuel prices, and in the context of climate change, development partners should sustain the ODA commitment they made in Monterrey in 2002 and at the G8 Summit. Despite this crisis, we urge development partners to invest in women. At the same time, we urge African Governments to increase investments in women and gender equality, funded by domestic resources. The financial crisis is no excuse for delaying action.

Source: ADF Outcome Document, 2008. Para.21

“The acceptance of the index by a number of development partners is also significant in this context in several ways.”

Indeed, one could readily argue that this crisis makes it all the more imperative to integrate women and gender equality issues into all economic stimulus arrangements, given that the crisis is bound to escalate inequalities across all social groups.

The acceptance of the index by a number of development partners is also significant in this context in several ways. Firstly, at the July 2005 meeting of the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the European Union (EU) commended the AGDI as a tool to ‘*help policy makers better assess how they are achieving compliance with international norms and legislation in respect of gender parity*’. Secondly, the 8th Meeting of the Africa Partnership Forum of Berlin 22-23 May 2007 described it as an effective measurement of government performance in the fulfilment of women’s rights. And thirdly, during the launch of the index at the ADF IV of 2004, the African Union endorsed it as a vital source of information for Member States in their reporting on the status of women.

The AGDI and NEPAD

NEPAD is widely accepted as the continent’s framework for economic, social, cultural and political development. The instrument itself is informed by global and regional instruments that impact upon women’s rights, and to which nation states have demonstrated commitment. Relevant among these are CEDAW, the BPfA, and the MDGs, particularly, Goals 1 and 3. One strategy outlined in NEPAD in Para. 49 is the promotion of the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of women:

“
The APRM
framework
integrates a number
of international
treaties.”

“Promoting the role of women in social and economic development by reinforcing their capacity in the domains of education and training; by the development of revenue-generating activities through facilitating access to credit; and by assuring their participation in the political and economic life of African countries.” (NEPAD, Para. 49)

The APRM (African Peer Review Mechanism) is a core feature of NEPAD and serves as a voluntary peer accountability framework for African countries to establish their commitment to the goals of this partnership. States are required to report on their achievements along four thematic lines, namely democracy and good political governance, economic governance and management, corporate governance and socio-economic development. The APRM reporting process requires governments to take account of gender equality issues and includes guiding questions to facilitate this assessment. Objective 7 of this self-assessment process clearly indicates African government responsibilities in this area (Box 1.4).

Box 1.4

Synergies between the APRM and AGDI

The promotion and protection of the rights of women and the mainstreaming of gender equality. The concern here is to ensure that women have a meaningful status in the country and to explore the frameworks necessary to further deepen their participation - political, economic, cultural and social. The indicators also seek to encourage governments to provide evidence of women's empowerment in the domain of access to and control of productive resources and services, as well as their role in decision-making, including conflict prevention and resolution. Issues pertaining to women's rights not covered under this objective are treated exhaustively in the economic governance and socio-economic development sections of the questionnaire.

Source: Objective 7 of the APRM Country Self-Assessment Framework

The APRM framework integrates a number of international treaties. This is aimed at exploring the extents to which responsive institutional arrangements in addition to human and financial capacities for implementation are in place. It is noteworthy that among the treaties included in the APRM assessment are: CEDAW; the Declaration on Violence Against Women; the Convention on the Political Rights of Women; UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security; and the African Protocol on Women's Rights. A total of 29 countries have acceded to the APRM process so far. Of these 10 (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda) partook in the AGDI trials.⁹

⁹ The countries involved are Algeria, Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Republic of Congo, Kenya, Lesotho, Mali, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome & Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Togo, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia.

The AGDI is also relevant within the context of NEPAD and APRM, given that the latter is based on thematic areas of relevance to women's empowerment. Key among these is the issue of governance, which under the AWPS, is addressed by assessing the relevance, efficiency and impact of policies, plans, budget allocation and monitoring and evaluation, to address gender gaps and social demands. At its meeting of 12 October 2002 in Johannesburg, the Committee on Women and Development¹⁰ (CWD) approved the use of the AGDI as a tool to measure the status of gender inequality and the situation of women in Africa within the context of the NEPAD Peer Review Mechanism.

The AWPS is therefore holistic in its assessment of the adequacy of state responses to issues of particular importance to African women. This is inclusive of government efforts to involve CSOs and in the provision of space for democratic governance.

Arrangement of chapters in the report

With the exception of the social block for which the relevant sections are integrated into three chapters on the themes of Violence Against Women (VAW), education and health, the remaining blocks of women's rights, economic and political power are captured separately in this report.

The AWPS is therefore holistic in its assessment of the adequacy of state responses to issues of particular importance to African women.

¹⁰ The Committee on Women and Development is an advisory body of the African Center for Gender and Social Development and is composed of African Ministers and Experts.

Commitment to Women's Rights



Introduction

As indicated in Chapter 1, the “women’s rights block” is the only dimension of the AGDI which is based exclusively on qualitative data gathering and analysis under the AWPS. It investigates the state of implementation of CEDAW, its Optional Protocol and the African Women’s Protocol.

Overview of results

Based on the scoring system, the overall average score for this block is 59 per cent (see Table 2.1). A total of nine countries (Benin, Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda) obtain either 50 per cent or over of the possible maximum score of 102, while Burkina Faso, Ethiopia and Madagascar obtain less. The results indicate that this just average overall performance is primarily due to several factors, such as low performance with regard to ratification of the OP-CEDAW, poor implementation of Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW, limited ratification of the African Women’s Protocol, and the persisting occurrence of harmful practices in the majority of countries. Figure 2.1 provides an overview of the composite scores on the women’s rights component and complements the data presented in Table 2.1 below.

“Based on the scoring system, the overall average score for this block is 59 per cent”

“
The experience
of the trial
countries therefore
demonstrates that
African countries
have reached
a stage where
implementation has
to be given greater
impetus.”

Table 2.1
Composite score on women’s rights variables of the AWPS (per cent)

	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
CEDAW	17	12	25	15	11	21	18	21	17	16	25	18
OP-CEDAW	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	4	2	2	0	2
Article 2a	17	7	22	15	9	16	2	17	14	13	21	13
Article 16	8	8	22	17	5	16	1	18	14	11	21	13
African Women’s Protocol ratification and action on Harmful Practices	13	5	26	14	8	16	19	20	5	15		12
Total	56	34	97	61	33	71	41	80	52	57	67	58

Source: UNECA computations from country data

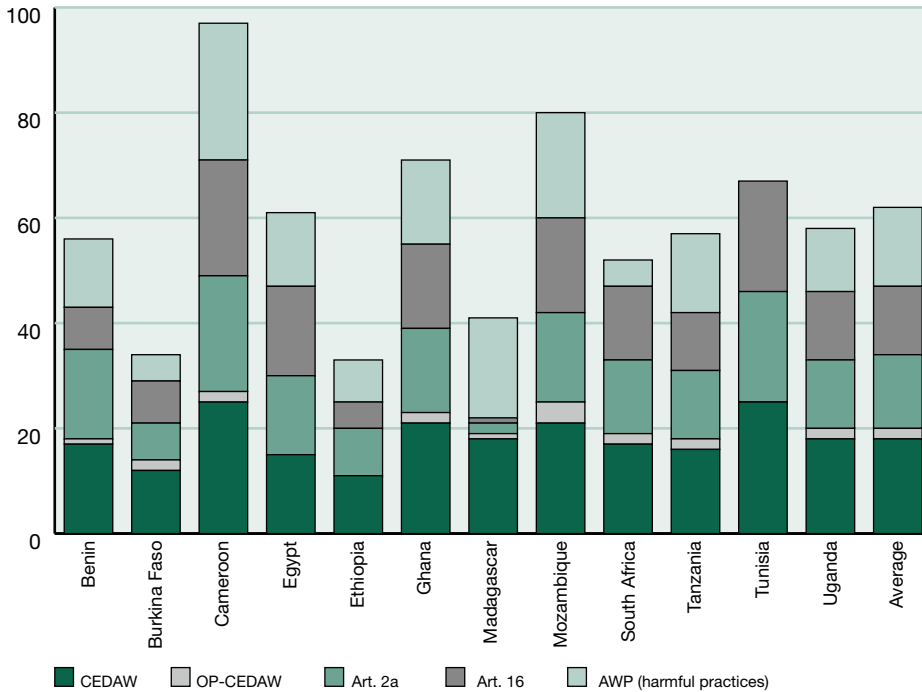
Notes:

1. Maximum possible scores per country = 102: (CEDAW=26, OP-CEDAW=6, Article 2=22, Article 16=22 and African Women’s Protocol=26). The absence of scores for Tunisia under African Women’s Protocol ratification and action on Harmful Practices is to indicate the country’s lack of ratification and also the absence of harmful practices as indicated in its country report. Although Tunisia notes that it has abolished polygamy and does not practice Female Genital Mutilation, the potential existence of other practices renders it imperative for the country to investigate such other practices and take action in line with treaty obligations
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

The overall performance of countries in this area also reveals steady and consistent progress in the ratification of international legal instruments, the formulation of laws, policies, action plans, and the setting of institutional arrangements following CEDAW ratification. The experience of the trial countries therefore demonstrates that African countries have reached a stage where implementation has to be given greater impetus.

Figure 2.1

Picture view of composite scores on women's rights component (AWPS)



“The content, operation and judicial interpretation of these, however, tend to negate gains made through related legal advancements.”

Source: Based on Table 2.1

Taking domestication and implementation of Articles 2 and 16 as cases in point, the results show that while most countries have integrated non-discriminatory clauses into their respective constitutions and other legislative frameworks, they have also proceeded from there with reforms in marriage, family and property relations (including inheritance). The content, operation and judicial interpretation of these, however, tend to negate gains made through related legal advancements. Table 2.2 presents comparative scores on each of the women's rights components.

Other bottlenecks include women's lack of awareness of their rights, lack of affordability to access the justice system, delays in judicial processes and social and cultural pressure against sending close family members (especially husbands) to court.

Thus, despite wide ratification of CEDAW especially, gender discrimination still persists. As such, expected implementation of its provisions lags far behind ratification. The details of country performance under each variable are discussed in succeeding sections.

Table 2.2**Comparative scores on women's rights variables of the AWPS**

In %	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
CEDAW	30.4	35.3	25.8	24.6	33.3	29.6	43.9	26.3	32.7	28.1	37.3	31.0
OP-CEDAW	1.8	5.9	2.1	0.0	0.0	2.8	2.4	5.0	3.8	3.5	0.0	3.4
Article. 2a	30.4	20.6	22.7	24.6	27.3	22.5	4.9	21.3	26.9	22.8	31.3	22.4
Article. 16	14.3	23.5	22.7	27.9	15.2	22.5	2.4	22.5	26.9	19.3	31.4	22.4
African Women's Protocol ratification and action on Harmful Practices	23.1	14.7	26.7	22.9	24.2	22.6	46.4	24.9	9.7	26.3		20.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UNECA computations from country data**Note:** Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Ratification of CEDAW without reservations

All countries under consideration have ratified CEDAW. Of the 12 countries, three (Egypt, Ethiopia and Tunisia) entered reservations and declarations at the point of ratification and have maintained them to date. Egypt did so with respect to Articles 2, 9(2) and 16¹; and Tunisia similarly with respect to Articles 9(2), 15(4), 16(c), (d), (f), (g), (h), and 29(1). Ethiopia's reservations are related to Paragraph 1 of Article 29 (see Appendix 6 for full details).

Article 28, Paragraph 2 of the Convention adopts the impermissibility principle of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties (1969), which provides that a reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of a treaty shall not be permitted. The CEDAW Committee has designated Articles 2 and 16 as core provisions of the Convention and therefore, deems related reservations entered as infringements upon its object and purpose. The Committee has commented on the retention of reservations by Egypt (Box 2.1) and Tunisia by recommending their withdrawal.²

1 Egypt is in the process of reconsidering its CEDAW reservations, although in respect of Article 16 it has raised concerns that the withdrawal of reservations would diminish the rights of women under Islamic and Egyptian law. See CEDAW/C/EGY/7/2008. Pp 11 and 76.

2 No such Recommendation has been made to Ethiopia, since Article 29 (1) of CEDAW is not a core provision. By contrast, see Concluding Comments of the Committee-CEDAW: Tunisia. 21/06/2002.

Box 2.1

CEDAW Committee's response to the reservations of Egypt

While appreciating the efforts of the National Council for Women to encourage the Government to withdraw its reservations to Articles 2 and 9, Paragraph 2, and Article 16 of the Convention, the Committee expresses its concern that these reservations entered by the State party upon ratification have been retained. The Committee urges the State Party to expedite the steps necessary for the withdrawal of its reservations and in that regard draws its attention to the Committee's statement on reservations in its report on its nineteenth session and, in particular, its view that *Articles 2 and 16 are central to the object and purpose of the Convention* and that, in accordance with article 28, paragraph 2, they should be withdrawn.

Source: *Concluding Observations of the CEDAW Committee to Egypt. 02/02/2001 Paras. 326 and 327: emphasis added*

“All countries under consideration have ratified CEDAW.”

All countries had met their reporting obligations to the Committee at the time of this report's preparation, although not in timely sequence as many had consolidated various outstanding reports. The Committee also encourages NGOs to participate in the preparation of the main State Report and invites them to submit Alternative Reports to balance State perspectives. Preparation of State and NGO reports provide unique opportunities for reflecting upon and reviewing country performance on the pace and content of implementation. The pilot found that civil society engagement with respect to both CEDAW implementation and reporting tended to be highest in Benin, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia (see Table 2.3 below).

Table 2.3

CEDAW ratification and implementation scores

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	17
Burkina Faso	2	2	2	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	12
Cameroon	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	25
Egypt	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Ethiopia	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	11
Ghana	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	21
Madagascar	1	2	2	0	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	18
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	21
South Africa	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	17
Tanzania	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	16
Tunisia	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	25
Uganda	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	18

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

Maximum possible score per country=26

Scores valid as at August 31 2009

“ Progress of measures of countries in law reform are however off set against short falls in the area of family and property interventions, discussed below under Article 16. ”

Law reform for purposes of domesticating CEDAW is evident in all countries with most (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa and Uganda) attaining high scores in this area. Some countries, especially those of the civil law tradition adopt the monist approach to the adoption of treaties into their domestic law. For example, the constitutions of Benin (1990, Article 147), Burkina Faso (1991, Article 151), Ethiopia (1994, Article 9(4)) and Madagascar (1992, preamble) indicate that ratified international instruments are to be integrated into domestic law. In principle, therefore, all substantive provisions of CEDAW are part of the domestic laws of these countries. Progress of measures of countries in law reform are however off set against short falls in the area of family and property interventions, discussed below under Article 16.

The results show further that gender policies have been adopted or are in the process of being adopted in all countries, and that processes of mainstreaming gender into sector policies and programmes are also underway. Nine countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda) attain the maximum score of 2 on policy commitments. This reflects the fact that these policies have received the assent of their respective legislative bodies and that broad strategies on gender equality are in place. Specific gender policies represent a form of horizontal guideline within government. However, most countries are also ensuring that gender concerns are reflected and integrated vertically in other development plans and policies. A case in point is Mozambique (Box 2.2).

Box 2.2

Horizontal and vertical gender policy development in Mozambique

At policy level, the five-year National Development Plan addresses gender equality. The country's Cabinet approved a gender policy in 2007. The critical areas it identified include the creation of institutional mechanisms to assure integration of gender in sector-based plans; economic empowerment; food security; education; reduction of maternal mortality; elimination of violence against women; participation of women in the political life; the process of decision-making; and protection of girls' rights (National Plans on the Advancement of Women 2002 to 2006; and 2007 to 2009). Other sectoral plans take account of gender (for example, the Strategic Plan (2006-2010/11) of Education and Culture).

Source: AGDI Country Report of Mozambique, 2005

Development plans and target setting for the implementation of CEDAW are either underway or fully developed in a substantial number of countries. In the case of Uganda, the government has taken steps to adopt “the first National Action Plan for monitoring the implementation of CEDAW for the period 2007-2010” (Uganda State Party Report, 2009:19). Common to all countries is the concern that substantial portions of programme budgets are reported to come from donors, indicating the potential lack of sustainability of the programmes and the low level priority

given to women's rights in national budgets. Various levels of information and dissemination interventions are underway. For instance, United Republic of Tanzania has translated the Convention into its national language, Kiswahili, for accessibility to the majority of women and men (United Republic of Tanzania State Party Report, 2008: Para. 68), while in Egypt, the National Council for Women (NCW) has developed a cartoon reference kit in collaboration with legal experts and Muslim and Christian clerics under a women's religious and legal rights project (Egypt State Party Report, 2008:10).

Country reports indicate that responsibilities for ensuring the implementation of CEDAW rest mainly with the national machineries for gender/women's affairs. In some countries, such as Uganda and South Africa, these responsibilities are shared across a number of institutions, such as national human rights and law reform bodies. Critically, most national machineries and allied institutions lack adequate human and financial resources for the effective discharge of their mandates. Governments are however seen to involve civil society in CEDAW implementation, especially in Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia, which demonstrate maximum effort.

“Critically, most national machineries and allied institutions lack adequate human and financial resources for the effective discharge of their mandates.”

OP-CEDAW

Compared to the Convention, the level of accession to the OP-CEDAW tends to be lower. Six countries (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ghana, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) have ratified it; two (Benin and Madagascar) have signed it; while the remaining four: Egypt, Ethiopia, Mozambique and Uganda have not taken any action (see Table 2.4).

The additional observations cited are connected to the general lack of knowledge and, therefore, utilisation of the Protocol as a monitoring mechanism by civil society, even by parties to the Protocol. The fact that a total of six countries have not done so indicates that the vast majority of pilot countries cannot set this process in motion. This is by virtue of the fact that the Committee is not authorized to receive communications in respect of non-State Parties (Article 3).

“ Adherence to and acceptance of the Committee’s recommendations under the Protocol would have reflected State commitment to the promotion of women’s rights. ”

Table 2.4
OP-CEDAW scores

	Ratification	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Total
Benin	1	0	0	1
Burkina Faso	2	0	0	2
Cameroon	2	0	0	2
Egypt	0	0	0	0
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0
Ghana	2	0	0	2
Madagascar	1	0	0	1
Mozambique	2	1	1	4
South Africa	2	0	0	2
Tanzania	2	0	0	2
Tunisia	0	0	0	0
Uganda	0	1	1	2

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=6
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

The Protocol ratification would have demonstrated openness and transparency on the part of governments to allow civil society to monitor CEDAW’s implementation through the submission of complaints, when necessary, to the Committee. Adherence to and acceptance of the Committee’s recommendations under the Protocol would have reflected State commitment to the promotion of women’s rights. The reporting requirements of the OP-CEDAW are set out under Article 9(1). This permits the Committee to invite the State Party concerned, under Article 18 of the Convention, to include in its report the following:

- Details of any measures taken in response to a communication submitted by an aggrieved party (or parties) in accordance with Article 2; and
- A consequent enquiry conducted by the Committee under Article 8.

Article 2a of CEDAW

Article 2a of CEDAW calls on State Parties to embody the principle of equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other legislation, and to ensure, through laws and other means, the realization of this principle. The AWPS inclusion of assessment of compliance with this is to ensure that countries carry out appropriate legal reforms to instil the principles and provisions of non-discrimination in their respective constitutions and legal texts. Since the fundamental objective of CEDAW

is the elimination of discrimination, conformity with this provision is equally basic to all other steps that countries would take to promote gender equality.³

Among the 12 countries, only Egypt and Tunisia have entered reservations in relation to Article 2; although Egypt has noted in its 2008 CEDAW State Party Report that it has taken steps to withdraw it. It notes that:

“Egypt has a reservation to this article. However, intensive efforts are now underway to withdraw the reservation given that Article 2 of the Convention is not incompatible with Egypt’s Constitution, laws, and procedures in general...” (Egypt State Party Report, 2008:15)

The results of country assessments on this provision are shown in Table 2.5 below:

Table 2.5
CEDAW Article 2a implementation scores

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	2	2	2	2	0	1	2	2	2	1	17
Burkina Faso	2	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	7
Cameroon	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Egypt	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Ethiopia	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	9
Ghana	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	16
Madagascar	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	17
South Africa	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	14
Tanzania	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	13
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	21
Uganda	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

All countries possess anti-discrimination and equality clauses in different legal texts, although most commonly in their respective constitutions. Reflecting social and political considerations, the Bill of Rights of the Constitution of South Africa

3 Discrimination cross-cuts other issues, such as employment and decision-making.

(1996), is broad based, ensuring the foundation for a “non-racist, non-sexist, and human rights-based society where race, class, gender, sexual orientation, disability, diversity, age, social security and protection from harm” are, among others, primary considerations.

“All countries possess anti-discrimination and equality clauses in different legal texts, although most commonly in their respective constitutions.”

Several countries report continued discrimination against women despite the existence of such anti-discriminatory clauses. This persistence has been due to such factors as negative perceptions and practices towards women’s advancement; the absence of enabling legislation to give effect to constitutional provisions; the existence of laws which are inconsistent with constitutions; and judicial misinterpretation of laws which promote gender equality.⁴

As a case in point, the 1990 Constitution of Mozambique forbids discrimination against women, without an enabling legal definition of discrimination. Although the Constitution also prohibits discrimination against women on the basis of gender, it does not extend this protection to marital status. Despite undergoing review, some aspects of the country’s laws remain discriminatory against women. The Penal Code, for example, does not proscribe marital rape and its provisions on pornography, prostitution, violence against women and rape do not afford equal protection to all women.⁵ Women are also discriminated against in the inheritance provisions of the Civil Code; while under the Commercial Code, women are required to obtain their husband’s consent prior to engaging in business activities.

Box 2.3

Case study of an anti-discrimination mechanism in Egypt

In Egypt an Ombudsman Office was set up in 2001 to receive and monitor women’s complaints and to handle problems impeding women’s effective participation. It is the official channel through which any Egyptian woman may report any discriminatory practice to which she is subjected. A team of specialized attorneys and technicians handles the executive work of the office. They respond to inquiries, provide legal advice, refer complaints to the competent agencies, and monitor the treatment of complaints.

Source: Egypt State Party Report, 2008:8

It is for this reason that five countries (Benin, Egypt, Ethiopia, United Republic of Tanzania, and Uganda) score 1 on laws, indicating persisting gaps in legal provisions that guarantee non-discrimination against women. In addition, while all countries have passed laws to give effect to some provisions of CEDAW, there are huge dis-

⁴ This situation is evident in the field of family laws and will be dealt with under the next variable on Article 16.

⁵ Steps towards revising the Penal Code are presently underway in Mozambique. See combined initial and periodic CEDAW reports of Mozambique (2005) considered during the 38th Session (2007) of the CEDAW Committee.

parities between the enactment and enforcement of laws (also see discussions under Article 16).

Insensitivity of law enforcement agencies, such as the police and prosecution officers and the operation of plural legal systems (civil law, common law, Shari'a, and customary law) are additional inhibitors to progress. Additionally, women entering court systems face various difficulties, such as low social and economic status, lack of information and knowledge, the absence or limited access to legal aid and domestic responsibilities that inhibit their ability to report and follow up on cases. Cameroon's report notes, for example that courts are dominated by male judges and that the majority of decisions favour men. Additionally, notwithstanding the provisions of the Constitution, and the many laws and conventions ratified by Cameroon, there remains a persistent belief that men have more rights than women.

Despite these major set backs, some countries are making remarkable progress towards reversing discrimination through the interventions of their constitutional courts. Recent developments in the constitutional courts of Benin, South Africa and Uganda in particular demonstrate the potential role of African courts in the enforcement of equality provisions.

“Despite these major set backs, some countries are making remarkable progress towards reversing discrimination through the interventions of their constitutional courts.”

Box 2.4

Abrogation of polygamy by the Constitutional Court of Benin

On 24 June 2004, a Member of Parliament filed a petition to the Constitutional Court on the ground that the Family Code, which authorized men to have more than one spouse, was contrary to the principle of equality between men and women enshrined in Article 26 of the Constitution, as it did not allow women to have more than one husband. The court found that the Family Code was contrary to the Constitution and as a result, polygamy has been outlawed in Benin.

Source: *Expert review participant, July 2009*

Article 26 of the 1990 Constitution of Benin recognizes the principle of equality before the law as well as that of equality between men and women. Out of character with most constitutional systems of African Franco-phone countries, individuals are permitted to bring cases to the Constitutional Court in accordance with Article 122 (see Box 2.4).

The Constitutional Court of Uganda has declared the discriminatory provisions of the Marriage and Divorce Act, the Penal Code, and the Succession Act unconstitutional on the basis that they contravene the constitutional principles of non-discrimination and equality between the sexes. The Marriage and Divorce Act for instance required women to prove two grounds when petitioning for divorce, while a man was required to prove only one (State Party Report of Uganda, 2009:14-16).

A substantial number of landmark court decisions by the Constitutional Court of South Africa have fundamentally advanced *de jure* and *de facto* equality between women and men in areas such as customary and inheritance laws and women's access to land. An example is provided below in Box 2.5.

“ Article 16 of CEDAW deals with the removal of discrimination in all matters pertaining to marriage and family relations. ”

Box 2.5

A South Africa court ruling challenging discrimination in inheritance

The *Bhe* case in South Africa involved a constitutional challenge to the rule of male primogeniture as it applies to the African customary law of succession. The court considered the African customary law rule of male primogeniture, in the form that it has come to be applied in property inheritance, to be discriminatory, unfairly against women and illegitimate children, declaring it unconstitutional and invalid.

Source: South Africa State Party Report, 2008:32-33

Article 16 of CEDAW

Article 16 of CEDAW deals with the removal of discrimination in all matters pertaining to marriage and family relations. It places an obligation on State Parties to take appropriate steps towards ensuring equality in marriage and family, including equal rights with men to freely choose marriage partners; equal rights and responsibilities towards children; the right to freely determine the number and spacing of children and the means to do so; as well as the same rights to property. It also abolishes all forms of child marriage and betrothals, and calls for the specification of a minimum age for marriage and compulsory registration of marriages. This is critical in the context that customary law forms the basis for forced marriages, child marriages and polygamy, which by implication affects women and men's equal rights (e.g. consent, spacing of children and equal access and control over property). It has already been noted that Egypt and Tunisia have also entered reservations with regard to Article 16. However, in contrast with steps it is taking in relation to Article 2, Egypt has indicated that the same action may not be taken with respect to Article 16. Its 2008 State Party Report states:

We do not wish to withdraw Egypt's reservation to these provisions, as doing so would diminish the rights of women under Islamic and Egyptian law, which provide for their rights and relieve them of responsibilities which men alone are required to bear. (Egypt, State Party Report, 2008:76 [*Paraphrased*])

Although at different stages, all countries under consideration are undertaking reforms in family law to ensure consistency with CEDAW (see Table 2.6).

Table 2.6
CEDAW Article 16 implementation scores

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	8
Burkina Faso	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	2	1	8
Cameroon	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Egypt	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	17
Ethiopia	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	5
Ghana	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	16
Madagascar	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	18
South Africa	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	14
Tanzania	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	0	11
Tunisia	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
Uganda	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

The Ministry of Justice of Ghana has for instance, made proposals for new property arrangements between spouses and cohabitants under a Spousal Property Bill (2006). In Madagascar, the Family Law is being revised to ensure that the lawful age of marriage for both sexes is made 18 years in substitute for 14 years for girls and 17 years for boys, as provided in the present Ordinance No. 62-089. Similar to Uganda, Madagascar is also undertaking reforms to ensure that rules pertaining to adultery apply equally to both men and women (see discussions under Article 2). Previous legislation permitted a man convicted of adultery to pay a fine, whereas a wife was liable to imprisonment. In addition the revised Family Code of Ethiopia (2000) contains detailed provisions on common and shared responsibilities of both spouses in relation to the upbringing of their children.

The challenge of the operation of mixed legal traditions by countries identified under discussions under Article 2 applies equally to the effective implementation of Article 16. In Uganda for instance, the current process of reforming the law on marriage has been stifled by difficulties of harmonizing the interests of persons who adhere to Christian, Islamic, Hindu, Bahai and customary law (Uganda State Report, 2009:66).

The experience of Tunisia, however, shows that Islam can be used as a positive tool for enforcing women's rights. Legislators resort to the principle of *Al-ijtihad*, which allows for the reinterpretation of the sacred texts. This offers opportunities for the revisions of laws which for instance aim at outlawing polygamy and guaranteeing legal equality between spouses.

“
The experience of Tunisia, however, shows that Islam can be used as a positive tool for enforcing women's rights.”

African Women's Protocol (Article 5)⁶

It has already been noted that the African Women's Protocol was designed to respond to the specific concerns of African women, including Harmful Practices as set out under Article 5. As shown in Table 2.7, eight countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania), have ratified the Protocol, while one (Uganda) has signed it; and the remaining two (Egypt and Tunisia) are yet to take any action.

Nevertheless, it is important to observe that through the prior influence of CEDAW and other instruments, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), all African countries had already undertaken various actions to curb harmful traditional practices even before the coming into force of the Protocol in 2005. In Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, South Africa,⁷ United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda, for example laws and policies against harmful traditional practices had been adopted and plans developed to deal with issues such as Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C), forced early marriages, abduction, forced marriages, trafficking,⁸virginity testing, widow inheritance, levirate, incest, scarification and sorcery.⁹ Ethiopia has also established a National Committee on the Eradication of Harmful Traditional Practices with the mandate to identify and eliminate these practices in consultation with stakeholders (Ethiopia State Party Report, 2008:12).

6 The procedure for calculation of the African Women's Protocol scores differs from CEDAW and its Articles 2 and 16. Whereas the latter were scored independently of the Convention, the African Women's Protocol and its Article 5 were scored jointly, although a recommendation for consistency in scoring major international treaties has been made in Chapter 8 of this report.

7 See note below Table 2.7.

8 See Chapter 3 on Violence Against Women for more information on trafficking.

9 Although it is to be mentioned that NGOs, national governments and local governments tend to differ widely on classification of such practices as 'harmful' and on concomitant measures to eradicate or, conversely, condone them.

Table 2.7**African Women's Protocol ratification and actions on Harmful Practices**

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	0	1	1	2	2	0	1	1	0	1	2	0	13
Burkina Faso	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	5
Cameroon	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	26
Egypt	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	14
Ethiopia	2	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	8
Ghana	2	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	16
Madagascar	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	19
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	20
South Africa	2	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	7
Tanzania	2	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	0	15
Tunisia														
Uganda	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=26
2. Tunisia has not ratified the Protocol, but has been excluded from the Table because it notes the absence of traditional practices, although the caution cited under Table 2.1 applies. It is likely the results of South Africa have been underestimated based on a review of its State Party Report to CEDAW (2008), showing more progress in aspects indicated in the Table. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Despite these interventions, country reports point to the continued existence of harmful traditional practices (Box 2.6).

Box 2.6**Some Harmful Practices existing in Benin**

Among the types of violent acts committed in Benin: sexual violence; economic exploitation; forced marriage; degrading widowhood practices; and female genital mutilation are the most familiar practices based on custom and perpetuated by tradition. Action abductions, bartering girls against their will, early marriage, as well as other similar forms of marriage, are practiced without the use of violence among some Adja, Toffin, Otamari, Berba, Gnindé, etc. These practices, where they persist, constitute one major obstacle to girls' school attendance. Even where the parents are willing to send their daughters to school, she may be taken out of the school system at any moment to join the husband chosen for her. A father who has already received bride price in species or in kind lives in dread of his daughter escaping to marry the man of her own choice.

Source: Benin State Party Report, 2002. Paras. 5.1 and 5.3

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Attitudinal change
appears to be a
major set back in
efforts to eradicate
FGM/C.
”

Although categorized as a continuing problem of serious magnitude (UNICEF, 2001), DHS records are showing diminishing prevalence rates of early marriage in some countries. Ethiopia, for example, notes that by 1997, the national early marriage prevalence rate was 31.1 per cent, with 61 per cent of girls being forced to marry under 15 years of age in the Amhara Region alone. By 2007, the prevalence rate dropped to 21.4 per cent nationwide while marriage by abduction saw a 47 per cent decrease over the same period (Ethiopia State Party Report, 2009:17).

FGM/C has been cited as a violation of women's rights (Box 2.7). It continues to be practiced on women of different classes in a substantial number of countries.

Box 2.7 **ICPD Commitment on FGM/C**

Governments should prohibit Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting wherever it exists and give vigorous support to efforts among non-governmental organizations and religious institutions to eliminate such practices.

Source: ICPD PoA. 4.4(e), 4.22

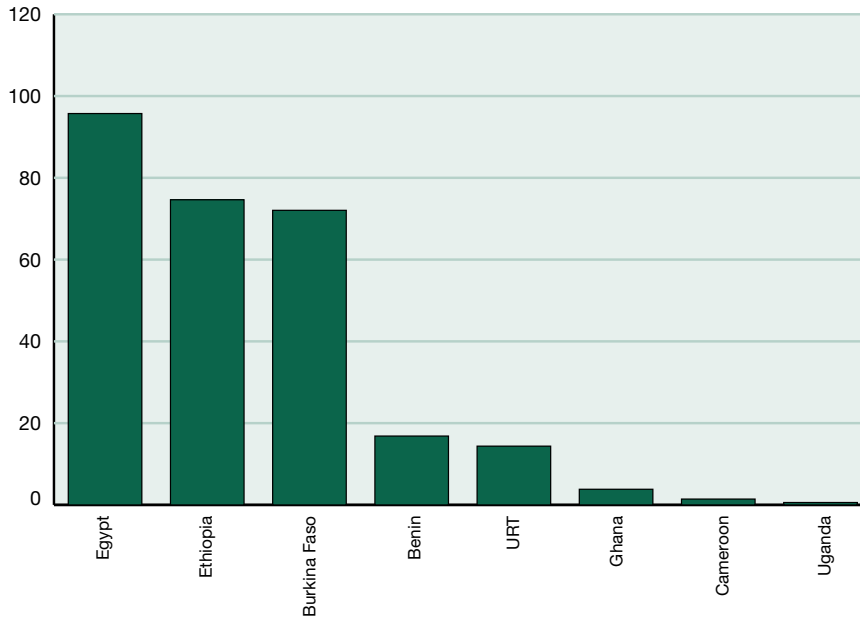
Results from the 2008 DHS of Egypt show that the practice of female circumcision is virtually universal among women of reproductive age (15-49 years) and that the country has a prevalence rate of 95.8 per cent. This is comparable to other African countries, e.g. Burkina Faso (72.5 per cent), Djibouti (93.1 per cent), Eritrea (88.7 per cent), Ethiopia (74.3 per cent), the Gambia (78.3 per cent), Guinea (95.6 per cent), Mali (91.6 per cent), Mauritania (71.3 per cent), Sierra Leone (94 per cent), Somalia (97.9 per cent) and Northern Sudan (90.0 per cent).¹⁰ Figure 2.2 below shows prevalence rates for AGDI trial countries for which the practice of FGM/C has been documented.

Attitudinal change appears to be a major set back in efforts to eradicate FGM/C. Just under half of all women aged 15-49 years interviewed during the DHS of Egypt believe that female circumcision is a religious requirement, and just over half also felt that the practice of circumcision should continue. Forty one per cent of women thought that men support the continuation of circumcision. Men's attitudes about this practice are generally similar to those of women. Around half of men aged 15-49 years indicated that circumcision is required by religion and 57 per cent believed the practice should continue. However, the proportion of ever-married women aged 15-49 years who believe that circumcision should continue dropped from 82 per cent in 1995 to 63 per cent at the time of the 2008 DHS (Egypt, DHS, 2008).

¹⁰ This data was obtained from: Eliminating Female Genital Mutilation. An Interagency Statement (WHO, 2008).

Figure 2.2

Prevalence of FGM/C in the AGDI trial countries



Source: *Eliminating Female Genital Mutilation. An Interagency Statement (WHO, 2008)*. Data was derived from national survey data (DHS) published by Macro or the Multiple Cluster Indicator Surveys (MICS), published by UNICEF

Note: The applicable year by country are as follows: Benin (2001), Burkina Faso (2005), Egypt (2008), Ethiopia (2005), Ghana (2005), Uganda (2006) and URT (2004)

The seriousness of the issue has compelled countries, such as United Republic of Tanzania, to develop comprehensive National Action Plans (Box 2.8).

Box 2.8

United Republic of Tanzania's long term plans to combat FGM/C

A National Plan of Action (NPA) to combat FGM/C (2001 to 2015) was developed to provide guidance on the elimination of Female Genital Mutilation. The 1st of February of each year is a national FGM/C day, used to sensitize the community on its harmful effects. In implementing the NPA on FGM/C various activities have been undertaken which include: training of school teachers to integrate the knowledge in schools' curricular; sensitization of communities through campaigns, media programmes, seminars, workshops, drama, books, and leaflets on the harmful effects. The government also provides awareness raising on the existing laws against FGM/C. In addition, a number of NGOs undertake training and sensitization activities on the legal and human rights aspects of FGM/C. They also participated fully in developing the NPA on FGM/C. As a result of a 'Stop FGM/C' drive, some mutilators have been sensitized to the extent that they have laid down the tools they used to perform FGM/C, and have joined the campaign of educating the community to stop the harmful practice. Further, some parents and elders, who were hitherto advocates of FGM/C, come out to denounce the practice in public.

Source: United Republic of Tanzania State Party Report, 2008: Paras. 71-73

Through self-initiatives, civil society groups have been proactive in campaigning for the adoption, ratification and domestication of the Protocol. There has also been on-going collaboration between civil society groups and governments in tackling issues of Harmful Practices, in most countries.

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Through self-initiatives, civil society groups have been proactive in campaigning for the adoption, ratification and domestication of the Protocol.”

The scores on the African Women’s Protocol demonstrate that the most significant investments have been made in the law and policy formulation fields, leaving areas of implementation lagging behind. This is worsened by persisting negative attitudes and perceptions of society towards gender equality and women’s empowerment. National gender machineries have overall responsibility for monitoring and advocating for the implementation of the Protocol. They however face major shortcomings in implementation due to the inadequacy of human, financial resources and limited capacity to deal with issues contained in the Protocol.

Critical Observations and Recommended Actions

Pilot country scores on the women’s rights block of the AWPS demonstrate that most countries view CEDAW, the OP-CEDAW, and the African Women’s Protocol as critical instruments for the realization of the rights of African women. Nevertheless, the findings underscore that the rights of African women are not fully guaranteed and that even where assured by national constitutions and enabling legislation, they tend not to be fully enforced. Indicators obtaining the lowest scores are the OP-CEDAW, Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW, and the African Women’s Protocol. Of concern, is that laws, policies, and development plans are not always implemented due to prevailing customary and religious norms which are inimical to the rights of women.

It is important, therefore, to recognise, the impact of the operation of plural legal systems in all countries as these tend to compromise the full implementation of gender equality laws. Lack of enforcement of laws on discrimination and marriage has had a negative impact on the girl child, whose rights are compromised by harmful practices, such as early marriage and FGM/C. As indicated in Chapter 1, however, women’s rights are the embodiment of social, economic and political empowerment and therefore need to be given fundamental consideration. In particular, what needs to be appreciated is the positive link between the enforcement of laws on the rights of women and development. Incentives are created for women to contribute more effectively to such processes when, for example, they are assured of engaging in economic activities without fear of loss of business once a spouse dies due to traditional practices such as property grabbing. On this account this report makes the

following recommendations to African Governments and stakeholders to undertake the following priority actions:

African Governments must

Give full support to the implementation of treaty obligations

- If they have not done so to date, ratify the OP-CEDAW and African Women's Protocol as a matter of urgent priority.
- Clearly address the specific issues affecting African women highlighted in CEDAW and its *Optional Protocol*, and the *African Women's Protocol* in policy, planning, and implementation related to gender equality in African countries.
- Back the relatively impressive performance with regard to the design of policies and laws by *implementation and allocate adequate human and financial resources* to relevant institutions for execution in an effective, coordinated and timely manner.
- Promote and adopt Gender Responsive Budgeting as a method of financial planning and *develop effective means for women to participate* in processes that involve the securitization of allocation of national resources.
- In collaboration with NGOs, the media, and traditional leaders, *raise awareness on the rights of women and girls* through appropriate messages that would have the effect of accelerating changes in attitudes and practices that currently negatively affect their advancement in society.
- Take steps to review and reform customary and religious laws in collaboration with stakeholders, such as traditional and religious authorities, to ensure their progressive conformity and harmony with local legislation and international treaties.
- Enforce the rights of women set out under Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW and work to repeal laws that discriminate against women in *marriage and property rights*.
- In line with the African Women's Protocol, set the minimum age of marriage at 18 for both men and women and abolish all forms of forced and early marriages through related legislation and judicial action.

The African Union

- To give visible attention to the African Women's Protocol as the reference point for the implementation of the gendered aspects of other regional African initiatives, such as NEPAD, by setting high standards of reporting *and monitoring of commitments on its provisions*.

“Of concern, is that laws, policies, and development plans are not always implemented due to prevailing customary and religious norms which are inimical to the rights of women.”

All national and regional stakeholders and actors must

“ Take steps to review and reform customary and religious laws in collaboration with stakeholders, such as traditional and religious authorities. ”

- *Integrate rights-based approaches in all interventions* affecting women. This requires an affirmation of women as holders of rights and consequently equip them with the tools with which to enforce them.
- Affirm provisions *proscribing discrimination in all constitutions and legislative texts* and pay particular attention to enforcing women's rights as set out under Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW. This should include protecting the rights of women in existing polygamous marriages while also taking legal and social measures to ***ensure that consideration is given to monogamy*** as the national standard across all African countries.
- Facilitate opportunities for sharing the progressive experiences in constitutional judicial reforms in countries such as Benin, South Africa and Uganda.



Commitment to Addressing Violence Against Women

Introduction

Addressed only under the AWPS, indicators on Violence Against Women (VAW) in the scoreboard determine the extent to which countries are taking effective steps to combat such violations.

Issues of VAW have gained increased visibility and prioritization through a number of initiatives such as the *UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence Against Women* (2006). To promote sustained action around this report, the Secretary General designated 2008-2015, as the duration period for his campaign, "Unite to End Violence against Women and Girls through 2015".¹ In addition, participants of the ADF VI (2008) called for a three-year Africa-Wide Campaign to Eliminate Violence Against Women and Girls. This commenced in 2009 and was launched during the Beijing +15 regional review in November 2009 in Banjul. The campaign focuses on fostering a universal responsibility to protect and respect women and girls, including campaigns to transform patriarchal values; ending harmful traditional practices; putting a stop to the trafficking of women and children; to prevent and punish all forms of violence against women and girls, whether in peacetime, conflict or post-conflict situations; and to strengthen education, health, policing, judicial and social service institutions that prevent and punish such violence. It will also address underlying factors, such as the economic and social causes of vulnerability, including women's weak legal rights to land; housing and property; and the social code of silence surrounding VAW. The campaign will also encourage and support survivors to speak out and mobilize grassroots organizations and men.

“ Issues of VAW have gained increased visibility and prioritization through a number of initiatives.”

Flowing from observations and commitments made at the First World Conference on Women (1975), the BPfA lists violence against women as one of the 12 critical areas of concern. Article 112 (Section D, Part Four), identifies it as an obstacle to the achievement of equality, development and peace. It is further defined in Article 113 as any act of gender-based violence that results or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological suffering to women. This includes threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty; whether occurring in public or private life.

¹ See United Nations (2009). *Unite to End Violence Against Women. Framework for Action.* Programme of United Nations Activities and Expected Outcomes, 2008-2015 for more details.

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This includes
threats of such
acts, coercion, or
arbitrary deprivation
of liberty; whether
occurring in public
or private life.”

The Beijing +10 review process recognized efforts made by member states to enact or amend legislation on women's human rights. The Outcome and Way Forward of the review process, however, underscored the low level of domestication of international instruments on women and girls' rights. It also stressed that violence against women and girls including rape and domestic violence are still rampant, particularly in conflict zones.

The CEDAW Committee has also expressed concern about the persisting nature of violence against women and how this should be addressed in its General Recommendation 19 (1992), which calls on States to adopt holistic measures to address the issue. The 2004 African Heads of States' Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality also adopts an authoritative stand against violence, by calling for reinforcement of legal mechanisms to protect women and girls. Equally the 1998 SADC Conference on the Prevention of Violence Against Women calls on State Parties to take all appropriate measures to eliminate violence against women by any person, organization or enterprise.

The AWPS determines the extent to which countries are fulfilling their legislative, policy, institutional, financial and public educational drives to combat VAW in partnership with civil society. Given the broad dimensions of the issue, the AWPS focuses on the following issues only:

- The general state of BPfA implementation;
- Domestic violence;
- Rape;
- Sexual harassment;
- Trafficking in women; and
- Article 27 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child.

Overview of results

The acts of violence under consideration bear some common features. They include the lack of willingness of victims and their families to report; limited capacity of law enforcement agencies to deal with these issues as crimes; and the lack of awareness of rights and obligations afforded under the law among the general population. Against these odds, however, many countries have undertaken progressive initiatives to protect women and girls from violence. The most obvious progress has been in the area of law reform, where countries have taken bold measures at reform of laws on violence. In addition, countries such as Ghana, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania, have experienced yearly increases in reporting due to improved infor-

mation dissemination, justice delivery and the creation of specialised institutions to deal with situations of violence.² Tables 3.1 and 3.2 shed light on the overall performance of countries in dealing with VAW.

Table 3.1
Composite results on VAW

Countries	BPFA	Domestic Violence	Rape	Sexual Harassment	Trafficking	ACRWC	Total
Benin	19	8	6	3	9	13	58
Burkina Faso	18	6	5	3	2	13	47
Cameroon	19	10	10	11	12	18	80
Egypt	17	11	11	11	12	21	83
Ethiopia	6	0	5	2	8	12	33
Ghana	19	16	15	14	18	21	103
Madagascar	3	12	2	2	14	11	44
Mozambique	19	18	15	18	19	22	111
South Africa	14	16	14	13	11	13	81
Tanzania	14	13	12	11	6	12	68
Tunisia	24	20	20	20	-	24	108
Uganda	16	12	8	10	4	19	69

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=140 (BPfA=24, Domestic Violence=22, Rape=22, Sexual Harassment=22, Trafficking=24, ACRW=26)
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

2 For example, Ghana established a special Women and Juvenile Unit in 1998 to afford protection to women and children in contact and in conflict with the law.

Table 3.2
Comparative scores on VAW (in per cent)

Countries	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
BPfA	32.8	38.3	23.8	20.4	18.2	18.4	6.8	17.1	17.3	20.6	22.2	23.2	21.6
Domestic Violence	13.8	12.8	12.5	13.3	0.0	15.5	27.3	16.2	19.8	19.1	18.5	17.4	15.5
Rape	10.3	10.6	12.5	13.3	15.2	14.6	4.5	13.5	17.3	17.6	18.5	11.6	13.3
Sexual Harassment	5.2	6.4	13.8	13.3	6.1	13.6	4.5	16.2	16.0	16.2	18.5	14.5	12.0
Trafficking	15.5	4.3	15.0	14.5	24.2	17.5	31.8	17.1	13.6	8.8	0.0	5.8	14.0
ACRWC	22.4	27.6	22.4	25.2	36.3	20.4	25.1	19.9	16.0	17.7	22.3	27.5	23.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Based on Table 3.1

Beijing Platform for Action³

The BPfA revolves around 12 critical areas of concern (violence; poverty; education; health; human rights; armed conflict; decision-making; the economy; institutional machineries; media; environment; and the girl child). The AWPS begins with an assessment of the status of implementation of the Platform on the basis that all the areas of concern have significant bearings on VAW. Since the review meetings of 2000, 2005 and 2009, all countries have submitted reports to the UN on progress being made on the Platform's implementation. In addition, most countries (e.g. Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania) have prioritized the critical areas of concern as a strategic way of managing the budgetary implications of implementing the BPfA.

Table 3.3 demonstrates the extent to which pilot countries have reflected the BPfA in their respective national development planning processes, and the degree to which these plans are being implemented.

³ The recommendations on contemplated improvements of the AGDI acknowledge the need to shift the analysis of the broad framework of implementation of the BPfA under the women's rights block for consistency.

Box 3.1

Examples of country BPfA priority settings

The National Plan for the Advancement of Women of **Mozambique** (2007–2009) acknowledges seven critical areas of intervention; namely, poverty and employment; health and HIV/AIDS; girls' education and training; women's rights and violence; power and presence in decision-making bodies; environment and agriculture and institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women. **United Republic of Tanzania** agreed on a sub-programme for Women and Gender Advancement (1997–2003), which addresses four core areas and three supporting programmes based on the BPfA's critical areas of concern. Core areas include enhancement of women's legal capacity; economic empowerment of women and poverty eradication; women's access to political and decision making and education, training and employment. The supporting programmes focused on institutional arrangement, capacity building, gender mainstreaming and advocacy. The United Republic of Tanzanian government designed the sub-programme to also take into account emerging challenges, such as the HIV and AIDS pandemic, child labour and the Millennium Development Goals. **Uganda** has in place two National Action Plans on Women (1999–2004 and 2006–2010), with five priority areas: economic and political empowerment, reproductive health and rights, education and the girl child, conflict resolution and violence against women.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

Table 3.3

Commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action

	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	19
Burkina Faso	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	18
Cameroon	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	19
Egypt	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	17
Ethiopia	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	6
Ghana	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	19
Madagascar	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	19
South Africa	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	14
Tanzania	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	14
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24
Uganda	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	16

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=24
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Most countries report that BPfA commitments are reflected in various national legislation and plans; many enacted before 1995. Ghana has produced a detailed plan

“
Countries also score high on government cooperation with NGOs.”

of this nature with clearly specified targets. However, notwithstanding government commitments, budgets for implementation are inadequate and national machineries are generally under-resourced. Several countries are taking steps to disseminate the BPfA, including its translation into local languages (e.g. Cameroon).

This process has however not been without difficulty, as South Africa reports that dissemination of the BPfA has not been uniform across the country and that, in general, information on it is difficult to access. Some countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Mozambique, Tunisia and Uganda) are doing well with respect to putting in place responsive monitoring systems. Countries also score high on government cooperation with NGOs. Ghana has regular NGO meetings in place, while Uganda has created a platform for regular consultation with the public sector through its National Gender Forum.

Box 3.2

Some country experiences in BPfA implementation

Uganda established a National Gender Forum to support its Gender Management System (GMS) (instituted in 1999). The GMS adopts a stakeholder approach in which the national machinery cooperates with other government ministries, the private sector and professional organizations. The Department of Women and Gender Studies of Makerere University provides intellectual leadership for gender mainstreaming. Nonetheless, due to lack of a sufficient budget, Uganda has not yet succeeded in implementing a research strategy to support its gender policies.

Burkina Faso set up a National Commission to deal with the BPfA, as well as a national documentation and research centre. It has also taken the additional step of stationing gender focal persons in all ministries. Its report, however, mentions constraints such as budget limitations and a lack of trained personnel, both of which are hampering their effectiveness.

The Fifth National Five Year Plan (1997-2002) of **Egypt** was the first comprehensive plan in which the major elements of the BPfA were incorporated. These included attention to girls' education, women's rights and decision-making, access to health care and other social services and economic structures, plus attention to the environment.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

However, as this chapter deals with VAW, it is also pertinent to note that some sub-regional initiatives have been playing a catalytic role in countries' prioritisation of the issue. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development (2008) and its Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children, provide a setting for countries such as United Republic of Tanzania to accelerate programmes and actions in this field. As United Republic of Tanzania notes in its 2008 State Party Report to the CEDAW Committee:

“Based on the [Protocol] and Addendum, the Government initiated the preparation of the National Plan of Action to combat violence against women in 2001 which has been discussed earlier. Both the SADC [Protocol] and the Addendum have been translated into Kiswahili to make them user friendly to majority of United Republic of Tanzanians at the grass roots level.” (United Republic of Tanzania State Report, 2008: Para.74)

“All countries recognise domestic violence as a continuing violation of women’s rights.”

Domestic violence

All countries recognise domestic violence as a continuing violation of women’s rights. The reports of Benin, Burkina Faso and Cameroon cite the persistency of expectations of women’s docility, submissiveness and silence towards men, especially at the domestic level, as conducive factors for domestic violence. In the wake of limited economic autonomy, women tend to be overwhelmed by the potential realities of deprivation by opting out of violent relationships. Women are also handicapped by inadequate coordinated support systems and the fear and stigma associated with reporting.

Additionally, in most countries, domestic violence is still regarded by society as a whole, as well as by law enforcement agencies, as a private concern. The outcome assessment on domestic violence is provided in Table 3.5. It shows that a number of countries have enacted specific laws on domestic violence. An estimated 14 African countries have undertaken law reform measures in the domestic violence field of which six (Cameroon, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa and Uganda) are countries under review (see Appendix 4).

The importance of enacting specific legislation dealing with issues of domestic violence is underscored by the experience of those without such measures in place, their concern being that general penal legislation is incapable of responding to the multifaceted issues associated with gender-based crimes. In the short term, therefore, countries which have not succeeded in enacting specific domestic violence laws have reformed existing law as an interim response. For example, in 2004, Ethiopia amended its general Penal Code to include a specific provision on domestic violence. But as noted with FGM/C (Chapter 2), attitudes of both men and women to the criminality of domestic violence could be impeding prosecution for such acts (Box 3.3).

However, domestic violence laws by themselves, however, do not offer sufficient protection to women, unless augmented by extensive consciousness-raising programmes and legal awareness campaigns for members of the general public and law enforcement personnel.

Table 3.4
Domestic violence interventions

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	2	0	8
Burkina Faso	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	6
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	10
Egypt	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	1	11
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ghana	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	16
Madagascar	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	18
South Africa	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	16
Tanzania	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	1	13
Tunisia	2	2	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Uganda	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Box 3.3

Case studies of male and female views on wife beating

The 2006 DHS of **Uganda** gathered information on male and female attitudes towards wife beating as a proxy for determining male and female perceptions of women's status. Seven in 10 women and 6 in 10 men agreed that at least one of the reasons which the DHS listed as a possible justification for wife beating was sufficient cause to do so. The DHS made the important observation that these perceptions could serve as barriers to health-seeking behaviours among women, as well as affect their attitudes towards contraceptive use and negatively impact their general well being.

In **Egypt**, 39 per cent of women agreed that wife beating would be justified in at least one of the specified circumstances. The women justified wife beating in situations where a woman goes out without telling her husband or on occasions of neglecting her children (reported by 32 and 29 per cent of women, respectively).

Sources: Uganda DHS, 2006:250 and Egypt DHS, 2008:43

With the exception of Tunisia, all countries indicated that their implementing institutions lack the requisite financial and human resources, to be able to execute their functions and programmes effectively. Countries also lack the requisite data and research to assess the scope and extent of the problem and to embark upon effective

tive monitoring. Civil Society Organisations, such as female lawyers associations, are generally more visible in this area and have spearheaded most of the law reform processes already described.

Box 3.4

Domestic violence legislative and judicial reforms in Ghana and South Africa

Ghana passed a law on Domestic Violence in March 2007. It provides protection against sexual, economic and psychological abuse. Prior to the enactment of the law the Women and Juvenile Unit (WAJU) of the Ghana Police Service, set up in 1998, applied the existing Criminal Code to investigate and prosecute all cases of domestic violence, child abuse and juvenile offences. The unit operates a victim referral system, which enables victims to seek medical, counselling and shelter services. It also has social workers who deal with issues of custody and maintenance. As the agency is not able to meet all the needs of victims it has also developed an effective means of working with civil society organizations.

The Carmichele case of South Africa

The applicant sued two Cabinet Ministers responsible for damages resulting from a brutal attack on her by a man who was awaiting trial for having attempted to rape another woman. Despite his history of sexual violence, the police and prosecutor had recommended his release without bail. In the High Court the applicant alleged that this had been an omission by the police and the prosecutor. She also relied on the duties imposed on the police by the interim Constitution and on the State under the section regarding the rights to life, equality, dignity, freedom and security of the person and privacy. In a unanimous decision, the Constitutional Court held that the State is obliged by the Constitution and international law to prevent gender-based discrimination and to protect the dignity, freedom and security of women.

Sources: Ghana AGDI country report, 2005 and South Africa State Party Report, 2008:35

“The Declaration on Violence Against Women and BPfA outline a range of actions required by States to reduce and eliminate sexual violence, including rape.”

Rape

The Declaration on Violence Against Women and BPfA outlines a range of actions required by States to reduce and eliminate sexual violence, including rape. These comprise: 1) development and strengthening of laws that provide swift and effective access to courts; 2) just and effective remedies; and 3) various sanctions to punish perpetrators and redress harm caused to women. Other actions called for include the development of preventive approaches to promote protection of women and prevent re-victimization. States are also required to develop ‘preventive approaches’ of a ‘legal, political and cultural nature’ (Para 69 (d)) that promote protection of women against any form of violence in addition to the promotion of research (Para 69 (f)). Civil society is also to be given space to participate in the prevention of rape and other forms of violence against women. Table 3.5 and Box 3.5 summarize interventions against rape across the 12 pilot countries.

Table 3.5
Protection from rape

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	6
Burkina Faso	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	5
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10
Egypt	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	1	11
Ethiopia	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	5
Ghana	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	15
Madagascar	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Mozambique	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	15
South Africa	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	15
Tanzania	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	0	12
Tunisia	2	2	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Uganda	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	8

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

According to Rape Statistics-South Africa and World Wide (2008), South Africa leads the world in rape cases.⁴ The report notes that in 2006, there were close to 55,000 reported rape cases and that an estimated 450, 000 cases went unreported. Rape is an occurrence that, according to official statistics, occurred approximately 16,000 times annually during the 1980s. However, by 2006, the official figure for rape had risen to over 55,000 (id.). However, the rate of reported rape cases does not tell very much about the incidence of rape as various country reports recount that many cases go unreported due to the culture of silence and the fear of stigmatization and retaliation. Indeed, country reports also express concern at the absence of sufficient data and research to establish the nature and incidence of the crime, the basis upon which targeted remedial action could be taken.

Seven countries (Burkina Faso, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) have adequate laws in place on rape, with corresponding severe punishment regimes. Of these, Madagascar and South Africa include marital rape in their definition of rape.⁵ The results, however, show that laws are generally

⁴ The report refers to an undated study by the international police agency (Interpol).

⁵ Ghana has also included marital rape through a separate judicial reform process.

not given full meaning due to the lack of effective planning for sustained interventions, especially for victims. Madagascar for instance, has one of the most progressive laws in place, but lacks an implementation response. The absence of plans and targets to combat rape has correspondingly rendered the monitoring of its incidence difficult. Institutional mechanisms are inadequate with only Tunisia reporting budgeting sufficiently to implement its laws. Several countries also note the immense contribution of CSOs and the collaboration between them and their respective governments. Below are country case studies on how some countries are addressing the offence of rape.

“Several countries also note the immense contribution of CSOs and the collaboration between them and their respective governments.”

Box 3.5
Case studies on how rape is being addressed in selected countries

The penal provisions of **Ethiopia** currently carry a penalty of imprisonment of between 5-20 years for the offence of rape. Before their revision, there existed a situation in which when a marriage was concluded between a rapist and the victim, the former would not be charged under the law. Under the revised law, marriage can still be concluded if the essential ingredients of a marriage, such as age and consent, are met. However, in this instance, the criminal charge against the perpetrator will not be dropped.

In **Mozambique**, although no research has been conducted to assess the extent of the problem, intra-family rape (incest) is a common, but nevertheless a taboo subject which is hardly reported. Hospital gynaecologists have treated numerous cases of incest and rape of young girls by male relatives, often without parental knowledge.

Egypt notes that rape is a controversial issue, due to prevailing cultural taboos. However, the Association for the Development and Enhancement of Women has set up the House of Eve Shelter Programme for women and children. It offers housing, counselling and life skills.

The **South Africa** Department of Justice, has elaborated a comprehensive framework of commitments in its 'Justice Vision 2000'. This includes the review of the substantive and evidentiary laws of rape, legal procedures, and the provision of services to victims. The framework sees the needs of vulnerable groups as central and to this end establishes a Specialized Sexual Offences Court.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

Sexual harassment

The diverse international frameworks mentioned previously provide for action to be taken against sexual harassment in the work place, educational institutions and elsewhere under their respective sections on violence against women. Specific measures to be taken include: 1) development of legal instruments and disciplinary measures; 2) research and monitoring; 3) staff training; 4) dissemination of information; and 4) access to affordable justice and appropriate remedies. The results of country performances are shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Protection from sexual harassment

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
Burkina Faso	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	3
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Egypt	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	1	11
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Ghana	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	14
Madagascar	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	18
South Africa	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	13
Tanzania	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	11
Tunisia	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	20
Uganda	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	10

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Few countries have adequate laws on sexual harassment and where they do (e.g. Madagascar) they generally experience severe shortfalls in implementation. In the absence of specific provisions on sexual harassment, Cameroon has an Employment Bill (2001) in addition to a Code of Conduct and Ethics in place. However, neither instrument provides legally binding disciplinary measures for breaches. Mozambique explains that its existing laws are largely ineffective due to the high burden of proof placed on victims and their lack of willingness to submit evidence stemming from fear of stigmatization and future reprisals.

Benin reports that the issue remains a taboo, although several cases in schools have been reported. In Burkina Faso, the absence of a legal framework has resulted in the complete underestimation of sexual harassment situations. In the absence of distinct provisions on sexual harassment with the legal framework of Ethiopia, the provisions of the Penal Code are inadequate to prohibit sexual advances and sexual exploitation of categories of persons such as employees. Recent decrees such as the Civil Service Proclamation of 2002, and the Labour Proclamation revised in 2003 failed to take the issue into account. However, Ghana has set a target to mandate all workplaces, educational institutions and other bodies to develop codes of conduct to prevent

sexual harassment. Despite this government commitment in Ghana, only one case of sexual harassment has been successfully prosecuted (Box 3.6).

South Africa has various laws in place to protect workers and apprentices from sexual harassment. These include the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the Employment of Educators Act 53 of 1998 and various guidelines and codes of good practices. The Uganda Employment Act (Act 6), 2006 is also explicit on sexual harassment at the work place, while the Public Service Code of Conduct provides guidelines on how to address the issue in Public Office.

Sexual harassment prevention and treatment suffers from limited visibility. This has been due to limited reporting and prosecution, limited NGO involvement and paucity of related research and data. All these factors result in a tendency to underestimate its magnitude. The results also demonstrate limited evidence of concrete plans, clear targets and capacity for effective monitoring.

“ Sexual harassment prevention and treatment suffers from limited visibility. ”

Box 3.6

Two cases of sexual harassment from Ghana and South Africa

Ghana

In the case of *Manso v Norvor* (1998), the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice declared that it had jurisdiction under Articles 17(2) and 35(5) of the 1992 Constitution, and the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice Act, 1993 (Act 456) to investigate complaints alleging sex discrimination and/or violation of fundamental human rights. It ruled that sexual harassment constitutes a form of sex discrimination and is also an unwarranted impediment to the individual's right to work in an environment free from discrimination. By virtue of articles 27(3) and 33 (5) of the 1992 Constitution, the commission noted that sexual harassment should be read into the list of prohibited grounds of discrimination found in article 17(2).

South Africa

The *Ntsabo v Real Security Case* (2004) found that employers will no longer be able to turn a blind eye to sexual harassment in the workplace and in addition, will need to take proactive steps to eliminate and investigate sexual harassment within the workplace. The court concluded that the fact that the harasser is not authorised by the company to harass fellow employees would henceforth be irrelevant, as the action of the employer after being notified of this fact would be the subject of the inquiry. In this instance, a court would determine whether the employer has taken reasonable steps to protect women who have been sexually harassed in the workplace. The duties on employers and the recognition of sexual harassment as a form of discrimination are significant. In particular, it gives women recourse when they have been sexually harassed in circumstances where the employer fails to take reasonable steps to address the harassment. Previously, women often would have had to proceed to claim constructive dismissal after resigning due to the intolerable conditions endured. The decision also implies that the occurrence of sexual harassment can be brought within legal definition of discrimination.

Sources: *Case Book on Women in Ghana, 2006: 189 and South Africa State Party Report, 2008:32*

Trafficking

“Lack of access to resources, poverty and gender discrimination, as well as civil unrest and war, render women and girls particularly vulnerable to internal and cross-border trafficking.”

In addition to CEDAW and Beijing outcomes, a number of regional initiatives have been developed to accelerate efforts to combat trafficking. These include the Ouagadougou Action Plan, adopted in 2006 by ministers of foreign affairs, migration, and development from Africa and EU Member States, the AU, EU Commissioners and representatives of international organizations.

The Action Plan is a declaration of the will and joint intent of these representatives to enhance their efforts to fight trafficking. Complementing this initiative, during events to mark the AU Day of the African Child (June 16, 2009), the African Commission launched the AU Commission Initiative against Trafficking (AU.COMMIT Campaign), as part of the Commission's overall Programme of Interventions on Migration and Development from the period 2009-2012.

The UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000), supplements that of the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000). The latter requires States to adopt legislative and other measures to establish criminal offences relating to trafficking. In its documentation of the scope and diversity of trafficking in the Southern African region, the International Organization of Migration (IOM) found that trafficking is more pervasive than previously thought and identifies South Africa as one of the destination countries (IOM, 2003).

Lack of access to resources, poverty and gender discrimination, as well as civil unrest and war, render women and girls particularly vulnerable to internal and cross-border trafficking. As with previously discussed issues of violence, a similar pattern of silence and the lack of systematic research and data collection obscure the magnitude of this issue (see Box 3.7). Table 3.7 below provides an indication of measures taken by countries to address it.

Five countries (Benin, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique and South Africa) have ratified the UN Trafficking Protocol.⁶ Several countries also report that the issue is being addressed under their penal legislation. Ghana, South Africa and Uganda have however, passed comprehensive laws on human trafficking. Egypt notes that it is a transit country for subjects of African and Southeast Asian countries, the former Soviet Republics, and Eastern European countries and that most of the victims are women. It is making efforts to counter these practices through tight control of all border crossings and other routes (such as the Suez Canal), the creation of a special-

⁶ Countries reported on their obligations with respect to the Protocol, even though it did not form part of the AWPS analysis.

ized anti-trafficking police agency, and co-operation with border countries, Interpol and tourist agencies to exchange information and effect action.

Table 3.7
Measures against trafficking in women

	Ratification	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	9
Burkina Faso	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12
Egypt	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	2	12
Ethiopia	0	2	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	8
Ghana	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	18
Madagascar	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	14
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	19
South Africa	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	1	0	11
Tanzania	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	6
Tunisia													
Uganda	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	4

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=24
2. Tunisia notes that trafficking does not exist and therefore does not score. It would nevertheless be important to explore whether the country is a transit, sending or receiving destination
3. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

South Africa has strengthened its measures aimed at combating trafficking in women and children through a three-pronged strategic response. This involves strengthening international relations, especially with neighbouring countries and the prosecution of traffickers using existing legal provisions and administrative mechanisms, including assets forfeiture and law reform aimed at creating an integrated and holistic legal framework that facilitates the fight against trafficking.

In general, policies, plans and targets tend either not to be in place or are in their infancy. Institutional mandates, financial and human resource allocation, civil society involvement, information dissemination and monitoring and evaluation score low across all countries. South Africa and Egypt mention serious attempts to involve civil society in combating trafficking, but indicate that this has been a challenge due to the limited number of organizations working in that field.

Box 3.7

Instances of challenges of trafficking prosecutions

“
With the exception
of Ghana and
Tunisia, all countries
have ratified the
Charter.”

In **Ethiopia**, there were 489 reported cases of trafficking from January 2007 through December 2008. Of these, only two have been investigated and tried, and have resulted in punishments of jail terms plus fines. A total of eight cases have been dropped, while the remaining are pending. There is also a tendency on the part of victims to negotiate deals with traffickers. This effectively blocks several offenders from being brought to justice expeditiously. **Uganda** has an extensive, but contradictory legal apparatus to deal with trafficking issues. However, prosecution is made difficult by the fact that proof of prostitution is required. The courts regard the testimony of one witness as insufficient; furthermore, as prostitution is illegal in Uganda, the women concerned are liable for punishment on prostitution charges. In addition, women who are trafficked outside of Uganda and who manage to break free of the brothel owners or ‘hubbies’ who hold them in bondage are not protected from prosecution. They may be charged with ‘misconduct’ and forced to repay the government all expenses incurred in the process of repatriating them.

Sources: *Ethiopia State Party Report, 2009: 21-22 and Uganda AGDI country report, 2005*

Article 27 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

The ACRWC was adopted by the earlier OAU in 1990 to protect the welfare and promote the rights of the African child. The AGDI pays specific attention to Article 27 of the Charter (Box 3.8).

Box 3.8

Provisions of the ACRWC on child sexual exploitation

State Parties to the present Charter shall undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse and shall in particular take measures to prevent: (a) The inducement, coercion or encouragement of a child to engage in any sexual activity; (b) The use of children in prostitution or other sexual practices; and (c) The use of children in pornographic activities, performances and materials.

Source: *ACRWC, 1990: Article 27*

This Article is reinforced by the provisions of ILO Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999), the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and its Optional Protocols on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (2000) and that on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (2000).

With the exception of Ghana and Tunisia, all countries have ratified the Charter. Ghana’s report states specifically that the country has domesticated its provisions

under the Children’s Act of 1998 (Act 560) and the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act of 1998 (Act 554). Tunisia notes that there are specific laws “related to the involvement of children in armed conflict, and the use of children in trafficking, prostitution, and pornography. The Children’s Act, 2005 (Act 38 of 2005) of South Africa repeals the Children’s Act, 1960 (Act 33 of 1960), providing greater protection of the rights of children. It also creates the National Child Protection Register, which is a data base on situations of abuse and deliberate neglect of individual children in addition to the interventions made in their favour (also see Box 3.9)

Table 3.8
Implementation of Article 27 of the ACRWC

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
Burkina Faso	2	2	2	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	13
Cameroon	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	18
Egypt	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	21
Ethiopia	2	0	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	12
Ghana	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	21
Madagascar	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	11
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	22
South Africa	2	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	13
Tanzania	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	12
Tunisia	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24
Uganda	2	2	2	2	2	0	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	19

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=26
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Scoring on this variable is generally higher than those dealing with the previously discussed forms of violence (see Table 3.8). Co-operation with NGOs is also evident across countries, with some (Burkina Faso, Egypt, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and Tunisia) indicating that they have viable programmes of cooperation in place.

Nevertheless, planning, target setting, monitoring, budgetary allocations, human resources and research receive various levels of attention across all countries. United Republic of Tanzania, for example, reports that it has no monitoring framework,

“ Planning, target setting and monitoring, budgetary allocations, human resources and research receive various levels of attention across all countries.”

while South Africa mentions that this process is underway. Information dissemination on the Charter is not widespread as the experiences of Mozambique, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania show. In some instances, communication strategies also fail to take account of the peculiar circumstances of disadvantaged groups in both urban and rural settings.

On the whole, there is evidence of the need for African countries to invest more financial and human resources at national and provincial levels to ensure effective implementation and monitoring of government policies and to enact laws to protect children from exploitation. It is also important that governments pursue participation of parents and communities in the planning of interventions in areas that are more predisposed to trafficking and prostitution of children.

Box 3.9 Case studies on child protection legislation

The Sexual Offences Law of 1998 in **United Republic of Tanzania** does not contain clauses on pornography and sexual exploitation. There is presently no government policy concerned with trafficking of children and sexual slavery. Civil society groups concerned with violations of the rights of children are confronted with distrust and hostility, preventing them from effectively acting on most child exploitation situations. **Madagascar** has strict laws in place to protect girls from sexual violence and pornography. Yet the effect of these laws is minimal, as law enforcers either turn a blind eye to violations of children's rights or do not regard them as a priority. In addition to enacting numerous laws, **Tunisia** has instituted two institutional mechanisms to protect children in all 24 governorates: special budgets for officers in charge of protecting children, and an Observatory for information, training, documentation and research.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

Critical observations and recommended actions

All 12 countries have initiated moves towards harmonization of their laws and policies with the commitments and provisions stated under relevant international instruments, including the BPfA. They are all addressing the issues through their established country gender machineries and mechanisms. These achievements are, however, hampered by the absence of effective reporting mechanisms, the limited capacities of law enforcement agencies and social-cultural issues that obstruct reporting. Studies have however shown that the cost to individuals, families and the larger community can be potentially higher than that of prevention (e.g. Laing *et al*, 2002). Instances of such high costs include where children witness the occurrences of violence in their homes and communities, where a victim has been sexually violated by a person who is HIV-positive and the inability of a woman who is living in a violent relationship to be economically active let alone live a full and enabling life. On this

account, African Governments and partners need to undertake the following priority actions:

African Governments and civil society must

Institute measures to prevent violence from occurring and protect victims

- *Enhance the capacity* of enforcement agencies responsible for the protection of women and children by providing adequate training on existing laws and policies, and the equipment and mechanisms for effective record keeping.
- Ensure that awareness-raising on women's rights includes messages that work to reverse the *culture of silence* surrounding violence, in addition to its treatment as a private issue, and the *impunity* with which violence is perpetuated.
- Work to sustain successful prosecutions of perpetrators and protection of victims of trafficking.

“ Work to sustain successful prosecutions of perpetrators and protection of victims of trafficking. ”

UN and regional and sub regional agencies need to

Support inter country and sub regional cooperation

- *Document, disseminate information about and replicate best practices* taking place in some countries in the establishment of *specialized institutions* (e.g. police stations, courts and shelters for victims) for the protection and rehabilitation of victims.
- Work to ensure that regional, sub regional and inter-country approaches to trafficking are adopted by countries by advocating for and entering into bilateral and multi-lateral protocols of co-operation to strengthen and under-score enforcement regimes.

Commitment to Access and Quality Education



Introduction

Education is a critical element of human development and an essential ingredient for fulfilling other aspects of human rights, such as effective economic and political participation and quality health care. This includes how adults extend health care to children (Education For All (EFA), 2000: Para. 6). Country studies have shown that gender inequality in education leads to a reduction in economic growth (e.g. Dollar and Gatti, 1999; Forbes, 2000; Klasen, 2002; Knowles, *et al.* 2002; Yamarik and Ghosh, 2003) and Box 4.1. Such inequalities potentially also lead to higher fertility, higher child mortality, higher levels of under-nutrition and lower educational investments (Klasen, 2006).

Box 4.1

The role of education and economic growth in Africa

Within Africa, growth differences can be partly attributed to considerable differences in levels and changes of gender gaps in education. Using Uganda and Botswana as cases in point, the 1.3 percentage points of growth differences between the two countries can be accounted for by the much larger initial gender gaps in education in Uganda as well as the much slower pace of closing these gaps. Failing to meet MDG 2 would lead to lower growth of 0.1-0.2 percentage points per year between 1995 and 2005 and less than 0.1 percentage points after 2005.

Source: Blackden et al, 2006: 9

“Country studies have shown that gender inequality in education leads to a reduction in economic growth.”

This section serves as an important resource for appreciating the catalytic role of education in MDG implementation in Africa. The education component of the GSI investigates progress being made in bridging gender gaps in enrolment at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. It further compares dropout ratios among girls and boys at the primary and secondary levels. In line with the EFA initiative which acknowledges the importance of education throughout the life cycle, the GSI also determines literacy levels in countries by assessing primary school completion and the ability of the adult population aged 15 years and over to read and write. The AWPS assessment complements the GSI analysis by providing an overview of the existence and implementation of policies on girl school dropouts and Human Rights Education (HRE).

Overview of the education GSI results

The results show immense achievements at primary level. Two countries have achieved gender parity at the primary level, while in seven, this possibility appears promising. In the case of three, however, it may not be possible unless concentrated and accelerated steps are taken to make this a reality. Performance achieved at the primary level, however, experiences retrogression at secondary and tertiary levels where rates of both males and females experience a decline in the majority of cases.

The GSI results for all three levels are presented in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 respectively.

Table 4.1
The Education GSI based on gross enrolment

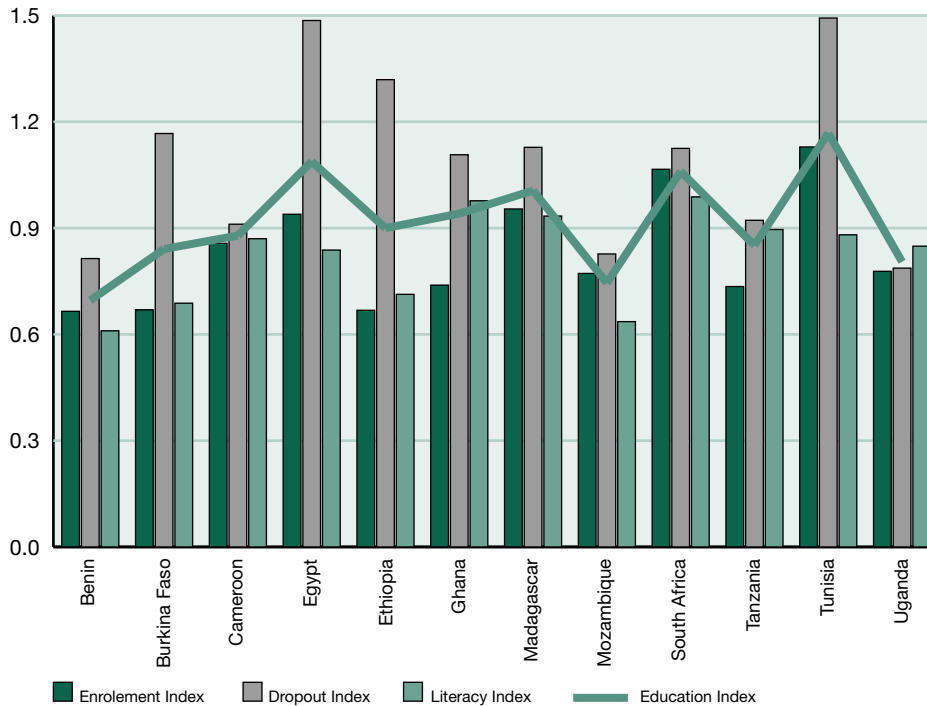
Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Primary enrolment rate	0.835	0.817	0.934	0.954	0.869	0.942	0.990	0.925	1.016	0.988	1.006	0.902
Secondary enrolment rate	0.495	0.720	0.919	0.942	0.792	0.779	0.990	0.886	0.943	0.723	0.967	0.803
Tertiary enrolment rate	-	0.471	0.718	0.920	0.341	0.495	0.882	0.505	1.239	0.495	1.415	0.628
Enrolment Index	0.665	0.669	0.857	0.939	0.668	0.739	0.954	0.772	1.066	0.735	1.129	0.778
Primary dropout ratio	0.835	1.000	1.064	1.655	1.129	1.469	1.005	1.058	1.107	1.067	1.250	0.851
Secondary dropout ratio	0.793	1.333	0.758	1.318	1.509	0.745	1.252	0.596	1.143	0.778	1.737	0.724
Dropout Index	0.814	1.167	0.911	1.486	1.319	1.107	1.128	0.827	1.125	0.922	1.493	0.787
Primary school completed	0.692	0.788	0.902	0.950	0.808	0.842	0.980	0.696	0.996	0.956	0.964	0.897
Ability to read and write	0.529	0.589	0.839	0.726	0.619	1.112	0.888	0.576	0.980	0.835	0.799	0.801
Literacy Index	0.610	0.688	0.870	0.838	0.713	0.977	0.934	0.636	0.988	0.896	0.881	0.849
Education Index	0.696	0.841	0.879	1.088	0.900	0.941	1.006	0.745	1.060	0.851	1.168	0.805

Sources: UNECA computations based on data received by countries

Notes:

1. Data are valid as at 31 August 2009
2. With the exception of the drop out indicator, which is computed on the basis of comparing the situation of males with that of females, all others were computed by comparing the situation of females to males (see enrolment data for each level below)
3. While sex disaggregated data on tertiary enrolment in Benin was unavailable (see section on enrolment below), the Official UN Site for MDG Indicators reports on the gender parity index of the country in tertiary level enrolment as 0.250. This figure is valid as at 2001 but has not been used in the calculation of the index of the country

Figure 4.1
Overall Education GSI



“Two countries have achieved gender parity at the primary level, while in seven, this possibility appears promising.”

Sources: Based on Table 4.1

What this chapter demonstrates, however, is that reliance on the GSI alone is not a sufficient route to assessing the real situation of access. In addition to determining the extent of equality, it is also important to assess the real numbers of children in school.

The results demonstrate that children of both sexes are potentially at risk of falling through the cracks of education structures and systems. They caution that while policies and programmes that ensure continued retention of the girl child are to be continued and strengthened, African countries also need to review education policies and programmes to take account of the rapidly falling rates of boys to ensure that Africa does not experience a decline in human capital formation. Full details on enrolment, dropouts and literacy are provided below.

Enrolment

The enrolment subcomponent of the GSI covers gross rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.¹ Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 which capture these results show that the lowest primary enrolment rates for both girls and boys at the primary level are in Burkina Faso, where the range is between 42.9 per cent and 52.5 per cent, respectively. By contrast, South Africa and Tunisia show higher female enrolment compared to males. Parity in primary enrolment appears imminent in seven other countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda) which are all demonstrating promising chances of achieving MDG 2. In this light, Benin, Burkina Faso and Ethiopia need to accelerate their efforts to achieve this Goal.

Table 4.2
Gross enrolment estimates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels

Indicator	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Primary enrolment rate	F	75.2	42.9	75.4	95.2	63.6	70.9	96.1	73.1	94.1	97.4	98.0	83.0
	M	90.1	52.5	80.8	99.8	73.2	72.9	97.1	79.0	92.6	98.6	97.4	92.0
Secondary enrolment rate	F	27.7	10.3	92.1	77.6	12.2	44	21.6	3.9	65.7	6.8	67.4	22.4
	M	56.0	14.3	100.3	82.4	15.4	56	21.8	4.4	69.7	9.4	69.7	27.9
Tertiary enrolment rate	F		1.6	5.6	17.3	1.4	33	3.0	1.0	17.1	0.9	36.5	2.7
	M		3.4	7.8	18.8	4.1	67	3.4	1.9	13.8	1.9	25.8	4.3

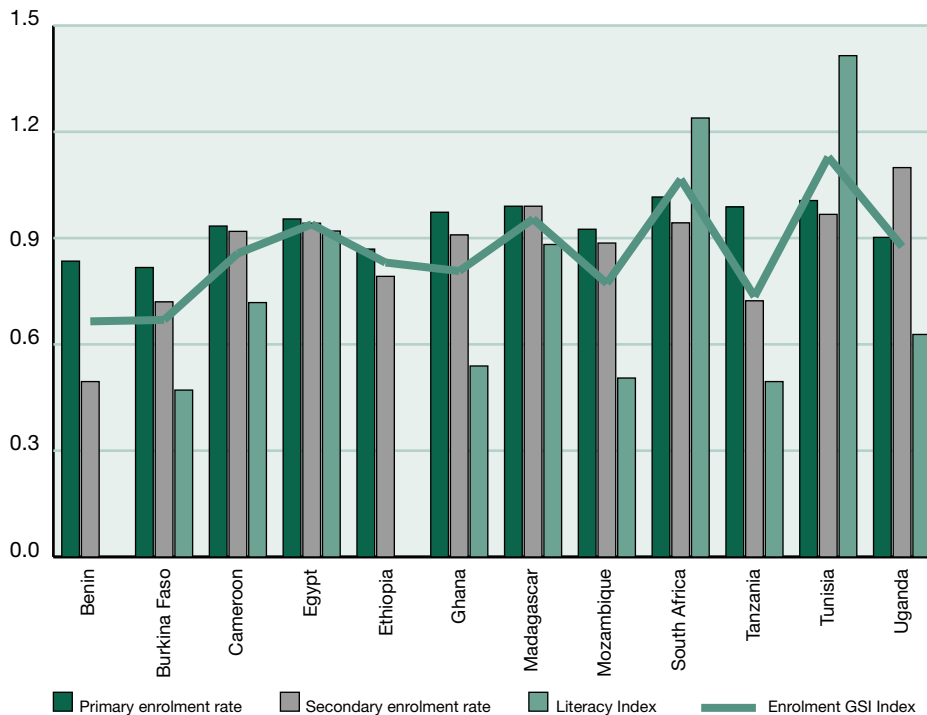
Sources: As provided in supplementary AGDI country reports, 2009. See Annex A

Notes:

1. Tertiary enrolment figures of Benin are available only in absolute terms (F=5,102 and M=17,931 as at 2005). Attempts to locate the actual ratios failed (see AGDI country report of Benin, 2005). Its gender parity index has however been quoted in the Official UN Site for MDG Indicators. See Table 4.1 above
2. Data valid as at August 31 2009

¹ Gross enrolment refers to the number of males and females enrolled in a level regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group that officially corresponds to the same level.

Figure 4.2
The enrolment GSI



“A mixed picture is created with respect to the attainment of gender equality at secondary and tertiary levels.”

Sources: Based on Tables 4.1

A mixed picture is created with respect to the attainment of gender equality at secondary and tertiary levels. While no country has attained parity at secondary level, six countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda) show promising signs of doing so. At tertiary level, South Africa and Tunisia have more females than males enrolled, while Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar show signs of being close to parity. However, the actual gross enrolment figures for both sexes create more of a dismal picture as it shows marked reduction of numbers of both sexes from primary through to higher levels of education. This is the case for the majority of countries identified as almost achieving parity at secondary level (Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa and Tunisia) in addition to those who do not demonstrate it (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda).

A similar picture is painted for tertiary education, in which it appears that South Africa and Tunisia have more females than males enrolled and Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar are close to attaining parity. The overall picture of enrolment must be given sufficient attention. This includes where improvements in enrolment have been accompanied by declines in male enrolment rates. Klasen (2006:10) demon-

states that such a situation signals a decline in overall human capital and is therefore not a desirable outcome.

The policy reasons for retrogression from primary through to tertiary in a substantial number of countries stem from the fact that primary education tends to be free in most countries. Some, such as Ghana and Uganda are implementing School Feeding Programmes, while in many it is constitutionally guaranteed as a universal basic right.

Other countries are also implementing alternative Basic Education Programmes, which are witnessing growing enrolment rates for girls. In Ethiopia, for example, female enrollment in Alternative Basic Education is growing at an average annual growth rate of 11.6 per cent higher than boys', which is increasing by 10.5 per cent. This program has helped to narrow the enrolment gap between boys and girls. The 2009 assessment of progress being made in achieving the MDGs by African countries recognizes the advances that Ethiopia has made in increasing net primary enrolment (UNECA, AU, AfDB, 2009 b.). Some of the strategies adopted by the country to achieve this have been documented in its 2002 and 2009 State Party Reports to the CEDAW Committee (Box 4.2).

Box 4.2

Affirmative action in education in Ethiopia

Affirmative action has been taken to increase enrolment of female students in the educational institutions at different levels. Thirty per cent of the total number of vacancies has been reserved for female students in higher educational institutions. The introduction of the Girls' Scholarship Programme is a major step forward in the advancement of Ethiopian women. Though this is a recent initiative it has already demonstrated its effectiveness in the promotion of girls' education and in encouraging them to remain in school. The built-in rewards of the programme encourage not only the adolescent girls of grades nine and ten (and above) to continue their education but also their parents and the community to send their daughters to school.

Source: *Ethiopia State Party Reports, 2002:19 and 2009:31*

While overall performance rates (by GSI value) of Madagascar, South Africa and Tunisia are impressive, it is nonetheless necessary to determine whether they translate into positive dividends for females in the economic and political spheres, which are issues discussed in successive chapters.

Dropout ratios

The GSI assessment of the dropout ratio is limited to primary and secondary levels only. The dropout ratio for primary level measures the number of boys and girls enrolled in the first year of primary level compared to the number of boys and girls enrolled in the last year of the primary level for the same cohort. Similarly the drop-

out ratio for secondary level compares enrolment ratios in the first year of secondary level and in the last year of secondary level for the same cohort.

Dropout ratios provide important additional information on the enrolment picture as they are indirect indicators of quality and the value that children and their care-givers attach to education. They are also pointers to various forms of demands that may be exerted on children and their households in their quest to remain in school.

As discussed in the introduction (Chapter 1), the dropout rate is a ‘negative indicator’ and its calculation is achieved by dividing the male rate by that of females. Table 4.3 shows the dropout ratios for both primary and secondary levels for the different countries. Giving a much clearer picture to the enrolment situation from primary to secondary levels, the results indicate that in nine countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) the ratio of boys dropping out of school tends to be higher at the primary level than for girls. At the secondary level, this appears to be the case in six countries (Burkina Faso, Egypt, Ethiopia, Madagascar, South Africa and Tunisia). The dropout rates of girls at the secondary level in four countries also tend to be above 30 per cent of that which is being experienced by boys. These are in Cameroon (32.2 per cent), South Africa (31 per cent), United Republic of Tanzania (90 per cent) and Uganda (80.0 per cent).

“ Dropout ratios provide important additional information on the enrolment picture as they are indirect indicators of quality and the value that children and their care-givers attach to education.”

Table 4.3
Dropout sub-component estimates

Indicator		Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Primary dropout ratio	F	9.1	0.6	4.7	0.3	11.6	17.7	19.5	6.9	28.0	30.0	1.6	59.0
	M	7.6	0.6	5.0	0.5	13.1	26.0	19.6	7.3	31.0	32.0	2.0	50.2
Secondary dropout ratio	F	2.9	1.5	32.2	5.5	22.8	37.2	14.3	8.9	49.0	90.0	5.7	80.0
	M	2.3	2.0	24.4	7.3	34.4	27.7	17.9	5.3	56.0	70.0	9.9	57.9

Sources: As provided in supplementary AGDI country reports, 2009. See Appendix 1

The GSI dropout ratios show that both boys and girls are being affected by factors that influence school dropouts at both the primary and secondary levels. Among girls, these factors include early marriage and childbirth; a lesser willingness or ability on the part of parents to fund schooling at higher levels due to the expenses involved; the absence of sanitary facilities in schools; the security implications of geographical inaccessibility; and the provision of care to family members who have been affected by HIV/AIDS or other illnesses. Boys also tend to be exposed to economic vulnerabilities where they are needed to contribute to family earnings. On the

part of both sexes, however, there is also increasing evidence from country reports to show that lack of confidence that parents are having in the ability of the educational system to respond to the economic needs of the future. These trends need to be studied further at country level.

“Boys also tend to be exposed to economic vulnerabilities where they are needed to contribute to family earnings.”

Box 4.3

Why girls drop out of primary school in Uganda

Dropout and repetition rates in primary schools are still high. This is largely due to financial constraints at the household level, lack of interest, poor health and long distances to school. According to the 2006 Household Survey, 43 per cent of girl's dropout of school due to cost considerations as compared to 35 per cent of the boys. Extra charges and fees imposed by schools namely, examination fees, interview fees, building funds, milling fees, etc inhibit access to primary education. Provision of preferential treatment to boys as opposed to girls in accessing education promoted by a traditional, social and cultural setting is also partly responsible for some girls dropping out of school prematurely.

Source: Millennium Development Goals: Uganda's Progress Report, 2007:30

Literacy

Literacy is the last sub-component of education and reviews the extent of gender parity at the levels of completion of primary school and ability to read and write of the adult population aged 15 years and above. These consist of the adult population having completed primary school, or having completed adult literacy courses.

The ratios per country are shown in Table 4.4. The lowest primary completion rates are in Burkina Faso where girls and boys have completion rates of below 27.5 and 34.9 per cent respectively. Other countries showing discouraging rates are Mozambique (34.6 and 49.7) and Ethiopia (39.9 and 49.4), indicating limited ability to meet global targets.

Table 4.4

Literacy sub-component estimates

Indicator	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Primary school completed	F	52.5	27.5	84.1	95.9	39.9	82.3	10.0	34.6	100.0	83.5	117.3	51.5
	M	75.9	34.9	93.3	100.9	49.4	74.0	10.2	49.7	100.4	87.3	121.7	57.4
Ability to read and write	F	28.1	21.6	64.6	60.7	41.6	45.7	59.3	32.9	87.1	65.9	69.0	65.5
	M	53.1	36.7	77.0	83.6	67.2	54.3	66.8	57.1	88.9	78.9	86.4	81.8

Sources: As provided in supplementary AGDI country reports, 2009. See Appendix 1

The second indicator is important because it provides a platform for gauging how governments are tackling the effects of past discrimination in education, especially against females, who, traditionally, have been excluded from the education system. While investments in girls' education have been regarded as the key to correcting past imbalances in their education, it is also crucial that focus be given to the situation of adult females who may have missed out entirely on any opportunity to be educated during their childhood years. Adult females have an important contribution to make in the economy, society and body politic and therefore need the requisite skills in numeracy and literacy to be able to do so meaningfully (Box 4.4). This indicator is therefore important for assessing the existence and effectiveness of policies and interventions on adult literacy.

Box 4.4
The importance of women's adult literacy

Countries need to greatly expand and diversify adult and continuing education, as well as integrate these approaches into the mainstream of national education and poverty reduction strategies. The vital role literacy plays in lifelong learning, sustainable livelihoods, good health, active citizenship and improved quality of life for individuals, communities and societies must be more widely recognized. Literacy and continuing education are essential for women's empowerment and gender equality.

Source: Education For All Framework, 2000: Para.38

The percentage of women able to read and write range from a low rate of 21.6 per cent to a high of 87.1 per cent in Burkina Faso and South Africa, respectively. In all countries, the proportion of men who can read and write exceeds that of women, while in eight of them (Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Madagascar, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda), over half of adult female population are able to do so. Based on the GSI scores (Table 4.1), South Africa stands out as having a promising chance of meeting parity in adult literacy.

Countries such as Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and Uganda, are securing literacy standards among men and women through non-formal education channels. The Ghanaian experience demonstrates the potential for such programmes to reverse trends in illiteracy, provided social cultural issues affecting women's participation are addressed (Box 4.5).

“ This indicator is therefore important for assessing the existence and effectiveness of policies and interventions on adult literacy. ”

“Countries such as Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa and Uganda, are securing literacy standards among men and women through non-formal education channels.”

Box 4.5

Reversing adult illiteracy- The Ghana experience

The main aim of non-formal education is to reduce illiteracy among the productive age group by embarking upon functional literacy programmes in 15 local languages, as well as in English. By the end of 2003, the programme had enrolled a total of 2,023,672 people with women constituting 60.8 per cent of those who graduated, women formed 60.3 per cent. The programme links classroom learning to development (health and hygiene, nutrition, family planning, agriculture, environment, civic awareness, etc.) and income generating activities, all of which are of immense benefit to women...Some of the learners drop out during the course of the programme. The sex composition of drop-outs show that higher proportions of females drop out than males due to incompatibility of the programme with their more demanding socio-economic roles. In all about 54 per cent of females dropped out while the proportion for males was 46 per cent.

Source: Ghana State Party Report, 2005:Paras. 130-132

Uganda's country report notes that reasons for low female participation in functional literacy in its country include competing demands on women's time and limited resources to extend the geographical coverage of programmes.

AWPS education indicators

The AWPS of the social block investigates two variables, namely the existence and effectiveness of policies and programmes on girl school dropouts and Human Rights Education (HRE). These complement the issues of enrolment, dropout and literacy discussed under the GSI as they provide a framework for demonstrating how countries are investing in the retention of girls in school in addition to measures to change negative stereotypes and attitudes towards them.

Policies on girl school dropouts

The GSI analysis provides quantitative perspectives on school drop out ratios for primary and secondary levels and in addition outlined a number of qualitative factors that account for school dropouts among girls and boys. Although the country trial outcomes indicated a need to shift the analysis beyond parity indices to also focus on actual rates of enrolment, dropouts and literacy among males and females, the dropout variable of the AWPS is underpinned by the historically high levels of female dropouts in Africa as a whole (see ACRWC provision, Box 4.6 below). In particular, the variable assesses the existence and effectiveness of measures to prevent girls from dropping out of school in addition to how they protect and reintegrate those who do. The results are seen in Table 4.5.

Box 4.6

Special measures for school girls affected by pregnancy

State Parties to the present Charter shall have all appropriate measures to ensure that children who become pregnant before completing their education shall have an opportunity to continue with their education on the basis of their individual ability.

Source: ACRWC, 1990: Article 11(6)

A substantial number of countries have specific strategies in place to secure the retention of girls in school. Ghana, for example, established a special Girls Education Unit in 1998, under the Ministry of Education to programme for the special needs of girls in the education context. The unit works with NGOs to combat retention problems particularly in the poorer northern regions of the country. Political will has also been demonstrated towards girls' education with the creation of a cabinet-ranking ministerial portfolio, the Minister for Primary, Secondary and Girls Education.

“A substantial number of countries have specific strategies in place to secure retention of girls in school.”

Table 4.5

Interventions to prevent and protect girl school dropouts

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
Burkina Faso	1	2	2	1	2	0	1	2	2	2	2	17
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Egypt	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Ethiopia	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	11
Ghana	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	16
Madagascar	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	6
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	18
South Africa	2	2	1	0	2	0	1	1	2	2	1	14
Tanzania	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	1	2	10
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	0	1	2	0	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	12

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

“
Adopting a more
general approach,
Tunisia promotes
education as a
constitutional right
for all.”

United Republic of Tanzania is promoting gender equality in access to education, through a Community- Based Education for Girls initiative within the context of its Education Sector Development Programme (1996) to encourage public and private investors to build girls’ hostels and boarding schools. As a result of this effort, among others, enrolment increased from 99,402 and 109,336 in 1998 to 189,198 and 212,400 for girls and boys respectively in 2004. Enrolment of girls in A level secondary education was 6,072 in 1998 and increased to 10,765 in 2004.

Similarly, Uganda’s National Strategy on Girl Child Education to improve on retention of the girl child identifies the following as interventions that should improve on their retention in primary education: 1) development of gender-sensitive materials; 2) provision of adequate and separate sanitation facilities for boys and girls in mixed schools; 3) improving quality of education for both boys and girls; and 4) strengthening governing bodies of schools to respond to the basic needs of pupils (including those of the girl child).

On the other hand, in Madagascar, there is a marked difference between the national policy and its enforcement with regard to girls who become pregnant while in school. According to the 1996 activity schedule of the National Action Plan for Girls’ Education, single young mothers were to be encouraged to resume school. It states:

“The school and other rules that prohibit or hamper single young mothers going back to school should be revised, and single young mothers and their parents, teachers and school authorities should be sensitized during parents’ meetings”.

There are challenges associated with enforcement of these provisions as they do not apply to boys and government school rules still stipulate that pregnant girls shall be expelled and not be allowed back to school after delivery.

In Egypt, “one-class schools” have been established to enable female dropouts to complete their regular education. During 2000-2005, the number of one-class schools increased by 24 per cent, and the number of girls enrolled in these classes rose by 25 per cent.

Adopting a more general approach, Tunisia promotes education as a constitutional right for all. This provision allows students to transfer from technical schools to mainstream institutions, while additionally benefiting from career guidance and counselling, extra curricular activities, staff needs and research. All these interventions lead to major reductions in dropout rates for both girls and boys. The country also designed a monitoring and evaluation scheme in 1992 to facilitate the early detection of drop outs and the institution of effective responses. Box 4.7 outlines the reasons for higher male dropouts in South Africa.

Box 4.7

Why more boys than girls drop out from school in South Africa

Overall there are indications that girls drop out from schooling at a lower rate than boys. Some of the reasons offered for this encouraging counter trend compared to other African countries are: Only relatively high status jobs available (particularly for African women) require Matriculation and further training; Families may increasingly begin to invest in girls because women are more often sole breadwinners, and there is a perception that educated girls can command a higher *lobola* price. Of the girls who drop out from schooling, pregnancy is cited as the most common reason.

Source: *South Africa State Party Report, 2008:85*

Funding is crucial for the sustained implementation of such initiatives. It has been argued that Universal Primary Education cannot be sustained without an allocation of at least 6 per cent of the GDP to the education sector (Global Campaign For Education, 2007). While Tunisia stands out with a budgetary allocation of 7.5 per cent, Ghana notes that with its allocation of 4.1 per cent of GDP, policies have had only moderate success and issues of equity, access and relevance remain unsolved.

Human Rights Education

Various human rights treaties, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 29 (1) (b)) charge States to institute Human Rights Education (HRE) in schools, with the aim of promoting general human rights in addition to gender equality concerns among the sexes. In addition, the UN (1994) declared the period 1995–2004 as the Decade for Human Rights Education, with specific emphasis on women's human rights (Box 4.8). It notes that special efforts are required to address curricula change, the training of teachers and the development of culture-sensitive methods to reach populations. Hence, this indicator measures the extent to which countries are responding to this call.

Box 4.8

Human Rights Education in Africa

Human Rights Education is now an autonomous and expanding area of research and study. The objective in Africa is to advance and inculcate a culture of human rights. HRE promotes awareness of the full range of human rights. These rights are, however, not static over time. HRE involves numerous educational, research and advocacy activities in various sectors of society including the formal educational system and informal settings (workshops, conferences, theatre, etc.). The situation of women, children and other disadvantaged groups require special attention with regard to human rights issues. We need to develop Africa-specific material.

Source: *Strategies for the Promotion of HRE in Africa, 1998*

“ HRE has attracted limited attention compared to that of girl school dropouts.”

HRE has attracted limited attention compared to that of girl school dropouts. In the general absence of legislative reform, policy development, target setting and planning, outcomes show that across countries, programming tends to be *ad hoc*. The results as shown in Table 4.6 indicate that different institutions (see scores under institutional mechanisms) manage such interventions in a manner that may not be effectively co-ordinated. Civil society involvement in this field also appears to be minimal, while channels for information tend to be weak.

Table 4.6
Human Rights Education interventions

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	8
Burkina Faso	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	6
Egypt	0	1	2	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	5
Ghana	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	15
Madagascar	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	5
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	15
South Africa	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	10
Tanzania	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	0	8
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	17
Uganda	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Approaches to HRE in countries range from integration into school curricular, national civic education, general public awareness campaigns or a combination of one or more.

Countries which integrate human rights into their school curriculum (e.g. Egypt, Ethiopia South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda) do so as part of their curriculum development process. Egypt had integrated HRE into its school curriculum by the time of its 2000 CEDAW report submission; eight years after this, its most current CEDAW report (2008) emphasizes the continuation of more efforts in this direction:

“In recent years, a number of important issues and topics have arisen which must be taught to pupils and students since they all have a bearing on daily life and, more generally, on life in the twenty first century with all its scientific, social, economic, technological and political changes. These issues are: Human rights, traffic awareness, the rights of the child and the prevention of discrimination against women.” (Egypt State Party Report, 2000:64)

“The government is undertaking major efforts to eliminate any discriminatory instructional material content and to ensure that educational curricula include concepts concerning women’s rights and that they present positive female role models. Egypt’s National Council for Human Rights has prepared a study analyzing school textbooks and the cultural legacies therein for submission to the executive agencies. The NCW is currently coordinating with the Ministry of Education to monitor the ministry’s plans to eliminate a number of negative features mentioned in the report of the National Council for Human Rights. Civil-Society Organizations participate in monitoring and pressuring the government to change any negative aspects in this regard”. (Egypt State Party Report, 2008: 37-38).

“ There are programmes that identify children with special needs and the mass media is involved in disseminating information on human rights.”

The 2002 State Party Report of Tunisia to the CEDAW Committee notes that the country has embarked on HRE at both the general education (basic, secondary and higher) and specialist education (e.g. the National College of Public Administration, the Higher Magistracy Institute, the College for the Forces of Law and Order, the Police and the National Guard) levels. In 1995, the government established a National Commission for Human Rights Education, presided over by the Minister of Education, comprised of representatives of the main governmental and non-governmental players active in human rights education. The Tunisia AGDI country report also notes that HRE has been incorporated into the curricula, “at all levels and to all students regardless of specialization or major.” Furthermore, trainers are available to organize awareness sessions in schools. There are programmes that identify children with special needs and the mass media is involved in disseminating information on human rights.

South Africa has institutionalised HRE in schools through its Constitution (1996), South African Schools Act (1996); National Education Policy Act (1996) and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (2000).

Other countries rely on their respective Human Rights and Civic Education Commissions for implementation of HRE (e.g. Benin, Ethiopia, Ghana, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda). In Cameroon, women’s human rights

education is delegated to the national machinery on women's affairs, but is constrained by inadequate financial and human resources.

“Factors such as the financial implications and the lack of conviction among parents of the link between education and employment markets are critical factors to consider.”

The most common approach of all countries has been general awareness-raising. For example, Uganda is facilitating improved knowledge among women of their constitutional rights through the creation of *Voluntary Action Groups* and district human rights desks whose members have been trained to conduct community awareness and legal literacy sessions in their communities. Other activities include translation of materials into local languages. Drama groups and male action groups are also currently being utilized to disseminate the legal literacy materials. Similarly, in South Africa, various HRE programmes such as “Human Rights Week” and “Open Court Days” have been implemented at various levels of government. Some of these measures specifically target traditional leaders and communities about human rights, with emphasis on the contents of CEDAW, the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, its Optional Women's Protocol and the South African Constitution.

Critical observations and recommended actions

The analysis of indicators under the education component of the social block affirm the fact that enrolment rates at primary school have been driven by the implementation of free compulsory universal primary education in a significant number of countries. The success story surrounding primary enrolment is, however, being negated by high dropout rates of both girls and boys (more acutely for the latter in most countries). This situation is affecting progression into secondary and tertiary institutions, which as the results have shown, is increasingly becoming a luxury for children of both sexes.

The chapter has underscored the need for African countries to review their policies and programmes in education with the aim of addressing not only gender disparities but also the general lack of access and retention. Factors such as the financial implications and the lack of conviction among parents of the link between education and employment markets are critical factors to consider. If education is to remain the tool for advancement in health, economic empowerment and political participation, concrete steps must be taken to reverse this trend. The following corrective actions are proposed:

African Governments and stakeholders should

Implement education as a human right

- Ensure that it is recognized as such in all relevant legal and policy frameworks.
- Make services accessible to deprived communities.
- Allocate sufficient resources for improvements in quality.

Ensure the progression of girls and boys from primary to secondary school levels

- Further *subsidize secondary and technical education*
- Ensure that such education matches and is more relevant to the employment conditions of African countries, with the objective that the dividends of education will be realized within shorter periods.
- Explore the adoption of additional strategies, such as affirmative action for children of poorer communities, the creation of day care services for infants (so that girls can attend school without looking after their younger siblings), enhancing boarding facilities and night schools.

The retention of girls and boys in school

- Put interventions in place to maximize retention and reverse high drop out rates among both girls and boys. This should include the design of girl-friendly initiatives such as the construction of separate toilet facilities, the availability of water in schools, the institution of school feeding programmes; cash transfer programmes (social protection) for poor parents and the training of more female teachers.

Expansion and increased access to adult literacy programmes

- Develop and implement accessible community based **adult literacy** interventions in response to the high illiteracy levels among adult women.
- Ensure that adult literacy programmes are adaptable to the peculiar situation of women, especially those in rural areas who tend to face extreme situations of time poverty due to multiple domestic, reproductive and productive tasks, exacerbated by the absence of appropriate technology.
- Literacy programmes should be run creatively and responsively (e.g. on a shift basis) to ensure women's effective participation, retention and completion in such programmes

“Ensure that such education matches and is more relevant to the employment conditions of African countries, with the objective that the dividends of education will be realized within shorter periods.”

The promotion of Human Rights Education

“Develop and implement accessible community based adult literacy interventions in response to the high illiteracy levels among adult women.”

- Integrate *HRE* into school curricular at the basic level of education and ensure that it fully mainstreamed into inductions and orientations at higher levels of education.
- Create an African consortium of human rights experts to work with educationists, curriculum developers, children and youth to develop appropriate guidelines on the design of such curricula, aimed at the promotion of respect for fundamental human rights, the removal of gender stereotyping and the promotion of the rights of women and girls.



Commitment to Access and Quality Health Care

Introduction

The health component is the second dimension of the social block of the GSI and the third of the AWPS. It reviews various aspects of Reproductive Health, including Maternal and Child Health (MCH); the gender dimensions of time use, underscoring the importance of human well-being for effective participation in education, decision-making, and the economy. Reinforcing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the Committee on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights has made a call on States to view and treat access to quality and comprehensive health care as a human right (Box 5.1).

Box 5.1

Access to comprehensive good quality health is a human right

Health is a fundamental human right indispensable for the exercise of other human rights. Every human being is entitled to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health conducive to living a life in dignity. Measures must be put in place to improve child and maternal health, sexual and reproductive health services, including access to family planning, pre- and post-natal care, emergency obstetric services and access to information, as well as to resources necessary to act on that information. The Committee recommends that States integrate a gender perspective in their health-related policies, planning, programmes and research in order to promote better health for both women and men. To eliminate discrimination against women, there is a need to develop and implement a comprehensive national strategy for promoting women's right to health throughout their life span. A major goal should be reducing women's health risks, particularly lowering rates of maternal mortality and protecting women from domestic violence.

Source: General Comment No. 14 of the Committee on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights, 2000: Paras 1, 12, 20 and 21

“
The Committee on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights has made a call on States to view and treat access to quality and comprehensive health care as a human right.
”

In 2005, African Ministers of Health adopted a Continental Policy Framework on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR) which was subsequently endorsed by AU Heads of States in 2006. It stresses that African countries are not likely to achieve the MDGs without significant improvements in the sexual and reproductive health of the people of Africa. The Policy Framework addresses the reproductive health and rights challenges faced by Africa and calls for the following three actions, among others:

- Strengthening the health sector through increased resource allocation;
- Mainstreaming gender issues into socio-economic development programmes; and
- Situating sexual and reproductive health among the highest six priorities of the health sector.

Translating these commitments into action, the *Maputo Plan of Action* for the operationalisation of the above framework was further designed as a costed road map by the African Union Conference of Ministers of Health in 2006. Its aim is to prepare the continent towards the goal of universal access to comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services by 2015.

The Plan is premised on SRHR in its fullest context as defined in the ICPD/PoA, 1994 taking into account the life cycle approach. The elements of SRHR include Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health; Safe Motherhood and newborn care; Abortion Care; Family Planning and the Prevention and Management of Sexually Transmitted Infections including HIV/AIDS. The Plan recognizes that implementation must be built into and on an effective health system and sufficient financial and human resources.

In line with these priorities, the AWPS health indicators in particular, have been reviewed within the context of the ICPD+15 regional review (2009) of the 1994 ICPD agreed framework and its previous reviews and Programmes of Actions of 1999 (ICPD+5) and 2004 (ICPD +10). The 1994 PoA on which the subsequent Programmes are based leans on a set of interrelated actions that reinforce the MDGs, CEDAW, and the BPfA. They include sustained economic growth in the context of sustainable development; education, especially for girls; gender equity and equality; infant, child and maternal mortality reduction; and the provision of universal access to reproductive health services, including family planning and sexual health.

The fifteen-year Africa regional review of performance of implementation of the ICPD PoA (1994-2009) (UNECA, 2009 a.) indicates that progress so far achieved has not been sufficient to meet expected targets. The review highlights health and Reproductive Health, including maternal mortality and family planning and HIV/AIDS; gender and development; resource mobilization (human and institutional capacity, finance, with an emphasis on domestic sources) as key priorities for the region. The AWPS indicators are assessed on the basis of the ICPD +15 PoA agreed upon at the Africa Regional Review of 2009.

Overview of the Health GSI

The overall health GSI is presented in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1, respectively. The assessment of child health indicators generally point to poor nutrition and high mortality rates, especially among boys in a considerable number of the countries. The results under this subsection demonstrate a compelling need for African countries to design and implement targeted programmes on child health, using appropriate local strategies of which effective parental and community participation should form important components.

Countries demonstrate high levels of commitment to stated ICPD +15 commitments and related MDG indicators through policy design and partnerships with civil society and donor support. These notwithstanding, Maternal Mortality Ratios (MMR) tend to be astronomically high across a substantial number of countries; in addition HIV/AIDS prevalence rates for women tend to be higher compared to that of men in the majority of countries. These findings call for sustained attention interventions which are responsive to curing existing gaps in Reproductive Health services in Africa.

“The assessment of child health indicators generally point to poor nutrition and high mortality rates, especially among boys in a considerable number of the countries.”

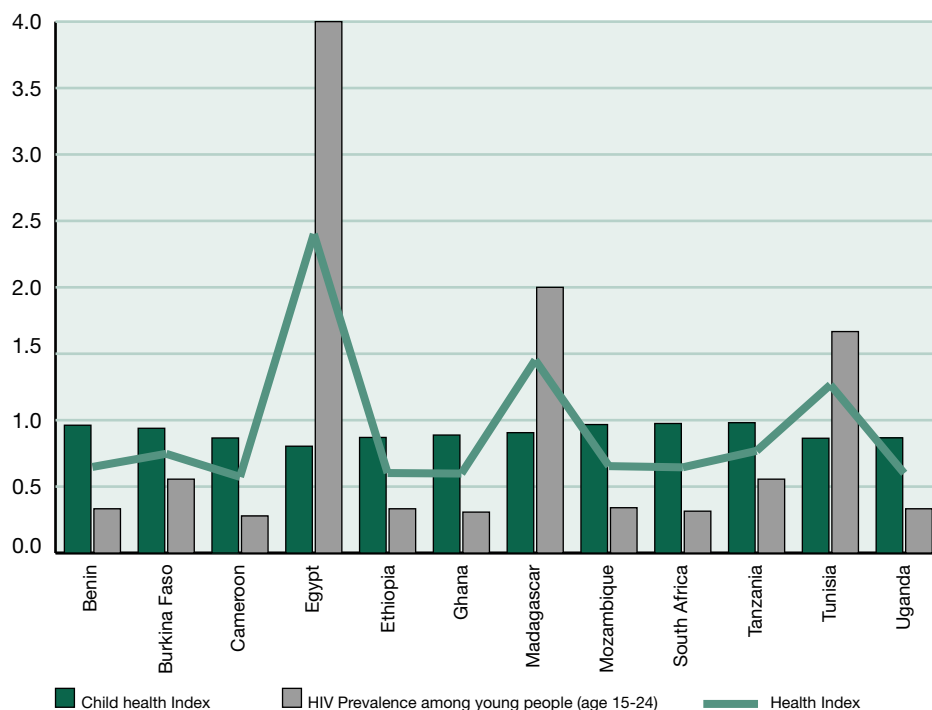
Table 5.1
GSI of the health component

	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Child health Index	0.962	0.939	0.866	0.804	0.870	0.888	0.906	0.967	0.975	0.981	0.864	0.867
HIV Prevalence among young people (age 15-24)	0.333	0.556	0.279	4.000	0.333	0.308	2.000	0.341	0.315	0.556	1.667	0.333
Health Index	0.648	0.747	0.573	2.402	0.602	0.598	1.453	0.654	0.645	0.769	1.266	0.600

Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1) and UNAIDS (2008)

“Children have the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health.”

Figure 5.1
Overall Health GSI



Source: Based on Table 5.1

Child health

Children have the right to *the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health*. In fulfilment of this measure, States are required to take steps to *diminish infant and child mortality, combat disease and malnutrition* and ensure *appropriate pre-natal and post-natal health care for mothers* (Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Article 24 (1), (2) (a), (c) and (d)).

The first sub-component, child health, consists of three constituent indicators: 1) stunting under 3, measured by the proportion of children under 3 years of age with a height for age below -2 (moderate) or -3 (severe) standard deviations from the median height for age; 2) underweight under 3, measured by the proportion of children under 3 years of age with a weight below -2 (moderate) or -3 (severe) standard deviations from the median weight; and 3) under five-mortality rate, measured by the number of children per 1,000 live births who do not reach their fifth birthday.¹

¹ Children whose height-for-age measures are below minus two standard deviations (-2 SD) from the median of the reference population are considered short for their age, or stunted. Children who are below minus three standard deviations (-3 SD) from the reference population are considered severely stunted. Stunting of a child's growth may be the result of a failure to receive adequate

With the exception of Tunisia, the remaining 11 pilot countries are among 68 countries being closely monitored under *Countdown to 2015* process² for delivery on their performance under MDGs 4 and 5. Some of the results of this on-going initiative have informed this report. *Countdown to 2015* (UNICEF, 2008) notes that under-nutrition has been an area of little or no progress. Almost 50 per cent of the mortality in children under age five is now concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa, where the richest quintile is gaining access to key interventions more quickly than the poorest. Many countries with a high burden of maternal and child under-nutrition also show high Maternal Mortality Ratios (MMRs) and high mortality rates in children under age (id: 21). There are also indications that the rapid escalation of food prices amidst the concomitant global financial crisis is having a debilitating effect on child nutrition (UNECA, 2009 b.:2).

The Introduction notes that the child health indicators are computed on the basis of comparing male to female rates. Tables 5.2, 5.3 as well as Figure 5.2 present country data and the GSI for the three child health indicators. They show that the child health GSI is demonstrating varied disparity levels between males and females. Thus for stunting, the range is between 0.883 to 1.219, underweight 0.778 to 1.071, and for under-five mortality 0.729 to 1.018.

There appears to be more cases of male stunting compared to those of females across the majority countries (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda). It would also appear that disproportionate numbers of male children are underweight in all 12 countries.

Under-five mortality rates are also showing that girls tend to have a better chance of survival than boys in all countries, with the exception of Benin, where there is a slight percentage difference. While this may be linked to the general biological position that girls have a better chance of survival compared to boys (Waldron, 1983), there is need to conduct further research into the gender dimensions of child health with a view to ensuring that both sexes have equal access to survival measures.

“There are also indications that the rapid escalation of food prices amidst the concomitant global financial crisis is having a debilitating effect on child nutrition.”

nutrition over a long period of time or of the effects of recurrent or chronic illness. Weight-for-age is a composite index of height-for-age and weight-for-height. Children whose weight-for-age measures are below minus two standard deviations (-2 SD) from the median of the reference population are underweight for their age, while those whose measures are below minus three standard deviations (-3 SD) from the reference population median are severely underweight. A child can be underweight for age due to stunting, wasting, or because of both stunting and wasting (UNICEF definitions, http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/stats_popup2.html).

- 2 With support from UNICEF, this is a collaboration among individuals and institutions established in 2005, the Countdown aims to stimulate country action by tracking coverage for interventions needed to attain Millennium Development Goals 4 and 5 and, in addition, parts of Millennium Development Goals 1, 6 and 7 (UNICEF, 2008: iv).

Table 5.2
Child health sub-component indicators

Indicator	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Stunting Under 3	F	27.3	43.2	28.0	27.1	33.5	26.2	42.2	48.8	11.2	36.8	13.1	30.8
	M	27.0	46.8	33.0	30.7	36.8	29.6	47.5	51.2	12.6	38.6	11.6	35.4
Underweight Under 3	F	22.1	39.4	14.0	6.4	27.8	12.4	37.8	49.9	3.0	21.5	1.4	22.4
	M	25.4	43.3	18.0	8.0	33.0	15.4	41.2	50.1	2.8	22.1	2.5	27.4
Mortality Under 5	F	163.3	184.2	144.5	28.0	122.0	108.0	106.1	239.4	57.0	112.0	4.7	149.4
	M	162.3	187.4	148.5	38.4	142.0	111.0	116.5	251.2	59.0	110.0	5.2	163.5

Sources: DHS reports of countries

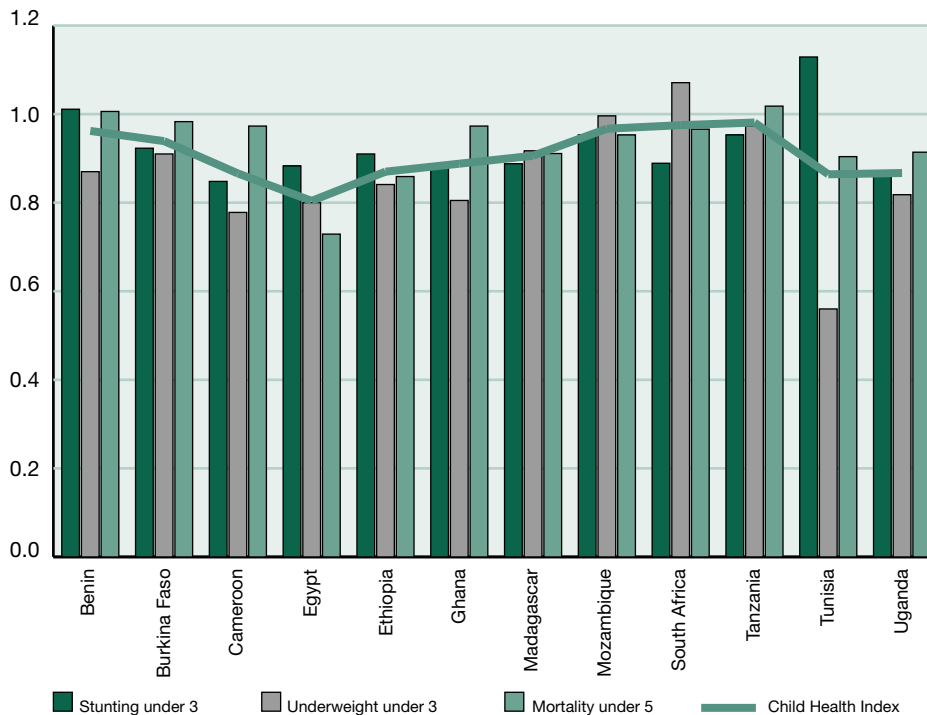
Table 5.3
GSI of the child health sub-component

Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Stunting Under 3	1.011	0.923	0.848	0.883	0.910	0.885	0.888	0.953	0.889	0.953	1.129	0.870
Underweight under 3	0.870	0.910	0.778	0.800	0.841	0.805	0.917	0.996	1.071	0.973	0.560	0.818
Mortality under 5	1.006	0.983	0.973	0.729	0.859	0.973	0.911	0.953	0.966	1.018	0.904	0.914
Child health	0.962	0.939	0.866	0.804	0.870	0.888	0.906	0.967	0.975	0.981	0.864	0.867

Sources: Based on Table 5.2

The findings present an overall picture which shows that many countries are contending with issues of child survival, a matter of concern that needs to be addressed. Egypt, for example, indicates that only slightly more than one third of children age 6-35 months are consuming foods rich in Vitamin A on a daily basis, a figure lower than the proportion of children at the time of the 2005 Egypt DHS (45 per cent) (Egypt DHS, 2008: 178). An examination of the height-for-age data from the 2008 DHS of Egypt indicates that there is considerable chronic malnutrition among Egyptian children. The DHS, 2008: 184 found that overall, 29 per cent of children under age five are stunted, and that 14 per cent are severely stunted, with levels that are slightly higher for male than for female children.

Figure 5.2
Child health sub-component GSI



“As noted earlier the indications of linkages between the health status of children and their mother’s background was also clear from country studies.”

Sources: Based on Tables 5.2 and 5.3

As noted earlier the indications of linkages between the health status of children and their mother’s background was also clear from country studies. Uganda notes for example that female education is strongly associated with higher rates of child survival. Children born to mothers with secondary or higher education have by far the lowest rates for all types of childhood mortality. Children born to such women have 40 per cent less chance of dying before their fifth birthday compared to those whose mothers had no education. The under-five mortality rate for children whose mothers have primary education is 12 per cent lower than that of infants whose mothers had no education.

HIV prevalence³

This section deals with the quantitative dimensions of the HIV/AIDS pandemic and complements the qualitative information to be provided under the AWPS (below).

³ This section relies substantially on the facts and figures provided in the 2008 UNAIDS Global Report on the HIV/AIDS Pandemic.

“Complementary data on some countries also establish significant linkages between HIV/AIDS and education, marital and age status.”

While there have been global and regional improvements in efforts to halt and reverse the HIV/AIDS pandemic, UNAIDS (2008) estimates that sub-Saharan Africa remains the region most heavily affected by HIV, accounting for 67 per cent of all people living with HIV and for 75 per cent of AIDS deaths in 2007. Southern Africa bears a disproportionate share of the global burden of HIV: 35 per cent of HIV infections and 38 per cent of AIDS deaths in 2007 occurred in that sub-region. Women account for half of all people living with HIV worldwide, and nearly 60 per cent of HIV infections in sub-Saharan Africa, demonstrating that there are serious gendered causes and impacts that governments need to address. Table 5.4 sheds light on HIV prevalence among young men and women aged 15–24 years as of 2008.⁴

Table 5.4
HIV prevalence among young people (aged 15-24)

Country	Male	Female
Benin	0.9	0.3
Burkina Faso	0.9	0.5
Cameroon	4.3	1.2
Egypt	.08	.02
Ethiopia	1.5	0.5
Ghana	1.3	0.4
Madagascar	0.1	0.2
Mozambique	8.5	2.9
South Africa	12.7	4.0
Tanzania	0.9	0.5
Tunisia	0.06	0.1
Uganda	3.9	1.3

Source: UNAIDS, Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic, 2008

With the exception of Egypt, Madagascar and Tunisia, all other countries demonstrate higher female prevalence rates compared to men. Complementary data on some countries also establish significant linkages between HIV/AIDS and education, marital and age status. In Benin for example, women are almost twice as likely to be HIV-infected as men. Rates of infection rise with age, peaking at 2.5 per cent among women at age 40-44 and 1.8 per cent among men at age 45-49. Women with primary education have the highest rate of HIV infection (2.2 per cent). There is no apparent relationship between education and HIV prevalence in the case of men. For both men and women, however, HIV prevalence is higher among those who are divorced, separated, or widowed than those who are currently married or never married. More than one in ten widowed women is HIV-positive.

⁴ The GSI on HIV/AIDS prevalence is captured in Table 5.1.

While the other indicators are true of Ethiopia, the situation is the reverse in relation to educational status. The risk of HIV infection rather increases with higher levels of education, especially among women. Those with a secondary school education are more than five times as likely to have HIV compared to women with no education. In addition, urban women are 12 times more likely than rural women to be infected (Ethiopia State Party Report, 2009: 52). The country report of Madagascar also underscores the fact that the patriarchal nature of its society places women at risk due to their economic dependence and their limited ability to negotiate protected sex. Dimensions in United Republic of Tanzania are presented in Box 5.2.

Box 5.2

The gender dimensions of the AIDS Pandemic in United Republic of Tanzania

United Republic of Tanzania's HIV prevalence has declined slightly in recent years. The current HIV prevalence rate is 5.7 per cent, with 6.6 per cent for women and 4.6 per cent for men. By contrast, the 2003-04 United Republic of Tanzania HIV Indicator Survey found an overall HIV prevalence of 7.0 per cent, with 7.7 per cent for women (6,000 tested) and 6.3 per cent for men (4,900 tested). These results show a statistically significant decline in HIV prevalence among men but not among women. The HIV/AIDS situation in United Republic of Tanzania has linkages with other indicators such as age, education and marital status. Women get infected earlier than men. For women, prevalence increases with age until it reaches a peak at age 30-34 (10.4 per cent). The peak for men occurs between ages 35-39 (10.6 per cent). Prevalence is lowest among women and men with secondary or higher education (4.9 and 3.4 per cent respectively). Among those with no education the rates are 6.0 and 5.5 percent, while for those without a full dose of primary school completion, the rates are 6.0 and 3.4 per cent respectively. For both women and men, HIV infection rates are higher among those who are widowed or divorced/separated than among those who are single or currently married. One in four widowed women is HIV positive.

Source: United Republic of Tanzania AIDS Indicator Survey (AIS), 2007/08:109-114

“The basis for including this indicator under the GSI health component is the link between time poverty in personal care, leisure and health status.”

Time spent out of work

Time spent out of work is the final sub-component of the health component of the GSI, defined as time spent on personal care, socialisation and leisure. It excludes time spent on work calculated as part of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), as well as unpaid care work of household or community members. The basis for including this indicator under the GSI health component is the link between time poverty in personal care, leisure and health status.

Institutions such as the UNECA and the UN Statistical Commission, recommend the deployment of Time Use Surveys to facilitate the investigation of time allocation among different tasks, including leisure (also see Chapter 6).

“It shows that men tend to have more hours allocated for leisure than women and that the female burden is highest in Benin and lowest in Madagascar.”

Box 5.3

The importance of time-use statistics

Time-use statistics offer a unique tool for exploring a wide range of policy concerns including social change; division of labour; allocation of time for household work; the estimation of the value of household production; transportation; leisure and recreation; pension plans; and health-care programmes, among others.

Source: <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/default.aspx>

The specific time use indicator under the health sub-component was measured on the basis of Time Use Survey's conducted in Benin, Madagascar and South Africa. The outcomes have, however, been excluded from the calculation of the overall GSI due to the absence of data from the remaining nine countries⁵ and the fact that the surveys of the three countries date back several years Benin (1998), Madagascar (2001) and South Africa (2000)). Country-specific limitations of these surveys also do not allow for calculation of a broader GSI. Benin's report cautions, for example that the rural dimensions of its survey could be biased, as it was undertaken during what is commonly referred to as a "quiet season" in agricultural terms. Age inconsistencies are also reflected in these surveys. That of Madagascar covered a sample of 7,743 individuals aged 6-65 years from 2,663 households, while that of South Africa covered a sample of 14,553 individuals aged 10 years and older from 8,564 households.

With these shortcomings taken into account, Table 5.5 presents the estimates and GSI for this sub-component only in respect of the three countries. It shows that men tend to have more hours allocated for leisure than women and that the female burden is highest in Benin and lowest in Madagascar.

Table 5.5

Estimates and GSI on time spent out of work

Indicator		Benin	Madagascar	South Africa
Estimate	F	16.03	14.57	18.48
Estimate	M	19.1	14.96	19.57
GSI		0.839	0.974	0.944

Sources: INSAE/PNUD (1998), *Enquête emploi du temps au Bénin, Méthodologie et résultats*, Cotonou; Statistics South Africa (2001), *How South African Women and Men spend their time, A survey of time use*, Pretoria; INSTAT-DSM/PNUD-MAG/97/007: EPM. 2001- *Module Emploi du Temps, Antananarivo*; Republic of Mauritius, Central Statistics Office (2004), *Continuous Multi-Purpose Household Survey 2003, Main results of the time use study*

Although the differences seem insignificant, the analysis does not spell out hours spent in non-productive activity. This is discussed fully in Chapter 6 where a further

⁵ Although it must be noted that Ghana had undertaken such a survey at the time of preparing the report.

investigation of male and female involvement in domestic activity and its impact on women's participation in productive engagements are explored.

The AWPS health assessment: commitment to ICPD +15

As noted previously, the AWPS of the health component complements the quantitative data outcomes of the GSI by providing in-depth qualitative information on related issues.

The International Conference on Population and Development (1994) and its Programme of Action emphasized the importance of SRHR to sustainable development and the advancement of women (Box 5.4)

Box 5.4

Reproductive rights and reproductive health

Reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes. It implies that people have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so. Implicit in this is the right of men and women to be informed and to have access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice, as well as other methods of their choice for regulation of fertility, which are not against the law, and the right of access to health-care services that will enable women to go safely through pregnancy and childbirth. Reproductive health care also includes sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations.

ICPD PoA, 1994

These are specifically in relation to ICPD +15 health indicators: HIV/AIDS; Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs); Maternal Mortality; and Family Planning. Based on a maximum of 88 scores per country, the overall results shown in Table 5.6 show good performance levels in legal, policy, and programme interventions. Other data are, however, used to demonstrate that while these interventions are necessary, they have not been sufficient to reverse high maternal mortality and the disproportionate impact of HIV/AIDS on women. In addition, although indications of falling fertility rates in all countries are evident, measures to comprehensively ensure that contraception is fully and freely available to all is yet to materialise.

“ In addition, although indications of falling fertility rates in all countries are evident, measures to comprehensively ensure that contraception is fully and freely available to all is yet to materialise.”

Table 5.6
Composite table of the health AWPS

	ICPD PoA+15 (HIV/AIDS)	Health- ICPD PoA +15, (STIs)	ICPD PoA+15 (Maternal Mortality)	ICPD PoA +15 (Family Planning)	Total Scores
Benin	18	20	17	16	71
Burkina Faso	17	16	19	19	71
Cameroon	19	14	12	16	61
Egypt	12	4	17	20	53
Ethiopia	14	5	16	15	50
Ghana	18	14	17	17	66
Madagascar	19	16	20	20	75
Mozambique	19	7	9	8	43
South Africa	14	17	15	15	61
Tanzania	16	19	14	16	65
Tunisia	22	22	21	22	87
Uganda	17	17	16	16	66

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

Maximum score per row=88 (HIV/AIDS=22, STI=22, Mat Mort.=22, Family Planning=22)

Scores valid as at 31 August 2009

Commitment to ICPD+15 HIV/AIDS indicators

Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Other Related Infectious Diseases (2001) presents an important framework for addressing the gender dimensions of HIV/AIDS in Africa. While containing and reversing the HIV/AIDS epidemic is highlighted as a top priority for Africa for the first quarter of the 21st century (Article 15), the declaration calls on governments to integrate gender concerns, including issues affecting women specific vulnerabilities into all aspects of their HIV/AIDS policies and programmes (Article 7).

ICPD PoA (1994) objective regarding HIV/AIDS and STDs (discussed in next section) is to prevent, reduce the incidence of, and provide treatment for sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and the complications of sexually transmitted diseases with special attention to girls and women. To accelerate the realization of the ICPD PoA for HIV/AIDS and STDs, the Millennium Declaration in 2000 set two targets for Goal 6, “Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases”. These targets are: (i) Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and; (ii) Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

The ICPD +5 review of 1999 made critical observations regarding young people and provides for specific interventions in favour of them in HIV/AIDS prevention and awareness (Para. 70). Targets include that by 2005 and 2010, 90 per cent and at least 95 per cent, respectively of young people should have access to the necessary information, education and services. This should cover access to preventive methods such as female and male condoms, voluntary testing, counselling and follow-up. Other actions required under ICPD+5 include research, prevention methods, access to post-exposure prophylaxis drugs including those required to reduce Mother-to-Child-Transmission of HIV (ICPD+5, para 95). The PoA specifically draws attention to women's greater vulnerability to infection, and to the gendered impacts of HIV/AIDS.

Table 5.7 measures how far governments have realized these commitments. Reporting on the HIV/AIDS variable demonstrates a generally high level of commitment of governments to the prevention of the spread of the disease (also see Box 5.5).

“ The PoA specifically draws attention to women's greater vulnerability to infection, and to the gendered impacts of HIV/AIDS. ”

Table 5.7
ICPD PoA+15 (HIV/AIDS)

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	18
Burkina Faso	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	17
Cameroon	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Egypt	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	12
Ethiopia	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	14
Ghana	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	18
Madagascar	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	19
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	19
South Africa	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	14
Tanzania	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	16
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	17

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at 31 August 2009

“
Countries are also making progress in the dissemination of information on HIV/AIDS although comprehensive correct knowledge may differ among males and females.
”

High scores are evident with regard to institutional mechanisms and policies. Countries have established Commissions (e.g. Ghana, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda) or Committees (e.g. Cameroon) on HIV/AIDS control, which play oversight roles in policy development. There are also generally high scores with respect to civil society involvement. The Government of Ghana, for example, works with various civil society groups, traditional leaders, youth groups, faith-based organisations, professional bodies and other associations in its effort to combat the disease. South Africa, however, notes that despite efforts made by the Government to involve women's organizations these have not been fully achieved due to the fact that very few HIV/AIDS organisations focus on the gender dimensions of the pandemic.

Despite its low prevalence rate (see Table 5.4 above), Egypt places HIV/AIDS issues high on its agenda. It has established a National Programme to Combat AIDS, a Higher Committee to Combat AIDS, a Unit to Combat Infectious Diseases, an AIDS counselling centre, hotline, and communications system for periodically supplying updated information to physicians, information workers, and others concerned with combating AIDS.

Countries are also making progress in the dissemination of information on HIV/AIDS although comprehensive correct knowledge may differ among males and females. For example, in Benin, the percentage of males and females aged 15-24 years old with such knowledge increased from 14 to 35 per cent among males and 8 to 16 per cent between 2001 and 2006, respectively.

Treatment programmes are underway in all trial countries. While specific data could not be obtained at the country level for the purposes of this exercise, UNAIDS (2008:131) points out that approximately 2.5 million people in sub-Saharan Africa are receiving treatment compared to 3 million in North Africa and the Middle East, where prevalence tends to be much lower (see Table 5.4 above) for prevalence rates in Egypt and Tunisia). The organisation also points out that in most countries women are receiving more than expected coverage for Antiretroviral Therapy (ART). While this cannot be generalized for all the pilot countries, it is confirmed for South Africa, where, approximately 55 per cent of the people receiving treatment were female and 45 per cent were male. The percentage of HIV-positive pregnant women who receive ART to reduce the risk of mother-to child transmission has been increasing. This has been the case, for example, for the Eastern Cape where between 2006 and 2007, the increase was from 44 to 53 per cent.

Box 5.5

HIV/AIDS initiatives in some countries

Cameroon created a women's sector within the National Programme for the Fight against HIV/AIDS in 2003. A pilot programme has been initiated which aims to increase the knowledge on safe sex methods, support for infected young persons and voluntary testing. Information centres and health clubs have also been established in communities and schools.

Ethiopia's initial effort in 2004–2006 to bring antiretroviral therapy to scale reached 65 per cent of its target of 100 000. In November 2006, the Government launched a two-year Millennium AIDS Campaign to generate swifter expansion of treatment access. The campaign relies on decentralization of the response, clear performance targets, coordinated planning, broad-based communications, and improved integration of HIV treatment into healthcare settings. In its first seven months, the campaign reached almost 1 million people with HIV testing, counselling, and services; it also initiated antiretroviral therapy for more than 31 000 patients.

Uganda has been giving consistent high priority to tackling the epidemic ever since the first AIDS case was reported in 1982. It has a comprehensive multi-sectoral AIDS policy that recognises and deals with women's vulnerability. Research is also being consistently conducted to understand the social, economic and cultural dimensions of transmission across different social and economic groups. In collaboration with civil society, the Government runs a well-established information campaign, using multiple media methods, seminars, regular information meetings and annual drama festivals.

In **Mozambique**, various sector ministries and NGOs have formed a partnership around HIV/AIDS. There are counselling and voluntary testing centres for people living with AIDS (*Vida Positiva*). Gender issues are fully integrated in all programmes implemented under the auspices of this partnership. There is visible involvement of civil society, such as youth groups and religious communities which specifically support women and girls in preventing and combating the pandemic.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

“Countries are however facing a number of challenges in their quest to combat and reverse HIV/AIDS.”

Countries are however facing a number of challenges in their quest to combat and reverse HIV/AIDS. Firstly, in some countries such as Ghana, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania, women are the presumed carriers of HIV/AIDS and considered responsible for spreading the disease in their communities. Women and their children are also particularly marginalized when their HIV status becomes known. There is also evidence to show that the global crisis could potentially lead to a reduction in outreach of treatment programmes (World Bank and UNAIDS, 2009) unless measures are taken to financially sustain the production of needed drugs and their targeted distribution.

Commitment to ICPD+15 STI indicators

As indicated previously, the ICPD PoA recognises that the social and economic disadvantages that women face make them especially vulnerable to STIs, including HIV/AIDS (para. 7.28) (and Box 5.6). With a high focus on adolescents, it has the objective of preventing and reducing the incidence of and improving treatment for

STIs and actions through strategies, such as training of health care providers, information education and counselling, protection through the promotion of condom use, and enforcement of laws on gender-based violence.

Box 5.6

ICPD links between STIs and women's sexuality

Violence against women, particularly domestic violence and rape, is widespread, and rising numbers of women are at risk from AIDS and other sexually-transmitted diseases as a result of high-risk sexual behaviour on the part of their partners. In a number of countries, harmful practices meant to control women's sexuality have led to great suffering. Among them is the practice of female genital mutilation, which is a violation of basic rights and major lifelong risk to women's health.

Source: ICPD 1994 PoA para. 7.35

The overall results for this variable are presented in Table 5.8, which shows that all countries except Egypt, Ethiopia and Mozambique, score over half of the maximum possible scores. This demonstrates that the majority of governments are taking the concerns of STIs and its link with the spread of HIV seriously through concrete actions.

Country reports demonstrate keen awareness on the part of governments of epidemiological and biological evidence of STIs as a critical co-factor in the transmission of HIV (see Box 5.7). In Uganda, for example, facilities where HIV/AIDS services are offered are prime locations for counseling, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of STIs. In addition, 99 per cent of facilities offering HIV/AIDS also treat STIs. Medications for treating four common STIs (syphilis, chlamydia, trichomoniasis, and gonorrhoea) are available in about half (48 per cent) of facilities offering voluntary counseling and testing for HIV/AIDS services.

Table 5.8
Health- ICPD PoA +15, STIs

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	20
Burkina Faso	2	2	0	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	16
Cameroon	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	14
Egypt	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	4
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	5
Ghana	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	14
Madagascar	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	0	1	16
Mozambique	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
South Africa	0	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	17
Tanzania	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	19
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	17

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country =22
2. Scores valid as at 31 August 2009

The scores are comparable to those attained with respect to HIV/AIDS. Information and dissemination range from theatre, film, radio and television to appropriate information and communication materials in several local languages in most countries.

Reports however, mention a number of constraints. In some countries (e.g. Benin and Ethiopia), STIs are not systematically monitored and as a result, up-to-date data tends to be unavailable for purposes of making reliable estimates of national prevalence and trends over time. In addition, reported condom use varies widely, from a very low average rate of 2 per cent of youth in Madagascar to 85 per cent in Uganda. Mozambique also points to poor quality of health services as a key challenge to effective implementation of interventions.

“ Among the world's major regions, Africa has the highest maternal mortality records. ”

Box 5.7

How some countries are addressing STIs

In **Benin**, Government commitment to fight STIs is demonstrated in a decision taken in 2000 to allocate a specific budget line for STIs and HIV/AIDS in each ministry. It has also set up a National Solidarity Fund resourced through money generated from debt relief.

As one of the first African countries to set up a comprehensive HIV/AIDS policy, **Uganda** has pioneered a school health policy, intended to teach learners life skills and to prevent teenage pregnancies. The goal of the Programme for Enhancing Adolescent Reproductive Life is to improve the sexual and reproductive health status of young people.

Controlling STIs is one of the main strategies for HIV control **South Africa**. The Government is implementing the National Strategy for the Control and Management of STIs of 1997. This has been done in collaboration with a broad spectrum of stakeholders and based on the World Health Organization's recommended approach to STI referred to as 'syndromic management'. This resulted in amending the National STI Treatment Guidelines including safer sex education, condom promotion, partner notification, and treatment. Implementation of the 'syndromic management' of sexually transmitted diseases has resulted in a reduction of syphilis infections amongst women attending ante-natal clinics from 11 per cent in 1997 to 2.2 per cent in 2003.

Source: AGDI country reports, 2005

Commitment to ICPD+15 maternal health indicators

Improving maternal health which is the focus of MDG5 is directed towards reducing the MMR by three quarters between 1990 and 2015. Among the world's major regions, Africa has the highest maternal mortality records. Globally, there were 529,000 maternal deaths per year, 48 per cent of which occurred in Africa (WHO, UNICEF, and UNFPA, 2003). For each maternal death, it is estimated that there are 30 to 50 morbidities, including temporary and chronic conditions. In the developed regions of the world, the Maternal Mortality Ratio was as low as 20 per 100,000 live births, while in sub-Saharan Africa, the ratio was 920 (UNECA, 2009 a.). WHO estimates of MMRs of the pilot countries reveal extremely high rates in Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia and United Republic of Tanzania (Table 5.9).

To make the achievement of the fifth MDG a reality, (WHO, 2007) estimates that MMR will have to decrease at a much faster rate, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, where the annual decline has so far been about 0.1 per cent. The realization of this goal will require increased attention to improved health care for women, including the prevention of unplanned pregnancies and unsafe abortions and provision of high-quality pregnancy and skilled delivery care, including emergency obstetric care (ICPD PoA paras. 8.21-8.27 and Box 5.8).

Table 5.9
MMR in pilot countries in 2005

Country	MMR	Lower estimate	Upper estimate
Benin	840	330	1600
Burkina Faso	700	390	1000
Cameroon	1000	670	1400
Egypt	130	84	170
Ethiopia	720	460	980
Ghana	560	200	1300
Madagascar	510	290	740
Mozambique	520	360	680
South Africa	400	270	530
Tanzania	950	620	1300
Tunisia	100	27	380
Uganda*	550	350	770

Source: WHO (2007:23). *Maternal Mortality in 2005*

* The DHS of Uganda, 2006: 281 states the MMR as 435, but does not provide any upper or lower limits

“Monitoring trends in maternal mortality is challenging in Africa as routine recording of deaths is not systematic within civil registration systems.”

Box 5.8
ICPD and ICPD+5 benchmarks – maternal health

- Expand the provision of maternal health services in the context of primary health care. These services should offer prenatal care and counseling, with special emphasis on detecting and managing high-risk pregnancies (ICPD 8.17, 8.22);
- All births should be attended by trained persons (ICPD 8.22)
- All countries should continue their efforts so that globally, by 2005 at least 80 percent of all births should be assisted by skilled attendants, by 2010, 85 percent, and by 2015, 90 percent (ICPD+5 ,21st Special Session, Agenda item 8, §64)
- Expand the provision of maternal health services in the context of primary health care. These services should offer adequate delivery assistance and provision for obstetric emergencies (ICPD 8.22)

Source: ICPD PoA, 1994, 1999

Monitoring trends in maternal mortality is challenging in Africa as routine recording of deaths is not systematic within civil registration systems. Consequently, the death of a woman of reproductive age might not be recorded. Where medical certification of cause of death does not exist, accurate attribution to pregnancy related health issues tends to be quite difficult (UNECA, AU, AfDB, 2009 b.) (and see Boxes 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11).

“
In addition, post-natal care is extremely low in most SSA countries.”

Box 5.9

Some insights into maternal health in Africa

- Deaths caused by pregnancy are more than all deaths from AIDS, TB and Malaria combined.
- Four million stillbirths are directly caused by maternal disease and poor delivery care.
- Sub-Saharan Africa has one-tenth of the nurses and doctors for its population that Europe has.

Source: Bergström, S. 2009

The available data show clearly that, for some countries, only a small but increasing proportion of babies are delivered in health facilities or with the assistance of skilled health personnel. In addition, post-natal care is extremely low in most SSA countries. Complications arising from unsafe abortions also contribute significantly to maternal mortality in the continent, although as indicated hard data are difficult to find. In addition, poverty reduces access to balanced nutrition, a factor critical to the health and survival of the child. Another deficiency is the inadequacy or absence of effective family planning programmes and the widespread practice of FGM/C in many African countries (UNECA, 2009 a.). A comprehensive and integrated approach to maternal health delivery, which takes account of these inhibiting factors, is therefore an imperative.

Against the background of high trends of maternal mortality in Africa the AWPS provides a framework for investigating country initiatives which are aimed at placing the country in readiness to achieve MDG 5. The results as seen in Table 5.10 show that the majority of countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Tunisia and Uganda) obtain 40 per cent or more of their scores in the areas of legal, policy, planning, target setting and the creation of institutional mechanisms. The AWPS succeeds in showing that high rates of maternal deaths in the majority of countries which piloted the AGDI have been due to lack of financial and human resource capacity as well as in the field of monitoring and evaluation to implement existing law, policies and plans.

Table 5.10
ICPD PoA+15 (Maternal Mortality)

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	17
Burkina Faso	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	19
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	12
Egypt	0	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	17
Ethiopia	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	16
Ghana	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	17
Madagascar	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	20
Mozambique	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	9
South Africa	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	15
Tanzania	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	14
Tunisia	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
Uganda	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	16

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country =22
2. Scores valid as at 31 August 2009

Box 5.10
Some barriers to accessing maternal health in Egypt

During the DHS, women most frequently cited the lack of a health care provider (63 per cent) and lack of drugs (64 per cent) as potentially big problems, followed by difficulties in getting the money to pay for treatment (44 per cent), concern that no female health care provider would be available (40 per cent), and not wanting to go alone (26 per cent). Twenty per cent or less of women mentioned as potential barriers the need to arrange for transport, the distance to the provider, or the need to get permission from the husband or someone else before they could go for care. Eight in ten women identified at least one of these obstacles to getting health care as potentially a major problem in accessing health care for themselves.

Source: Egypt DHS, 2008: 147

Inadequate health financing and shortage of medical staff and social cultural concerns were identified in reports as two leading structural reasons for the existing high rates of maternal deaths in Africa. Although the Abuja Declaration (2001) pledges to allocate at least 15 per cent or more of annual budgets to health care, this is yet to materialise for all countries with the exception of Egypt and Tunisia. A review of budget statements of pilot countries show that in general, issues of reproductive health tend to be subsumed under generic areas of health expenditure (e.g. com-

munity health), which render difficult the monitoring of budgetary allocations to maternal health.

Box 5.11

The extent of the health worker deficit in Africa

There is a current deficit of around 1 million health workers in Africa. Due to brain drain and ill health the doctor per population ratio is declining. SSA has one tenth of the nurses and doctors for its population that Europe has;

Africa has 10 per cent of the world's population but only 1 per cent of the world's doctors, nurses and midwives. African countries train about 5,000 doctors per year. European countries train about 175,000 doctors per year;

Africa has 24% of the global burden of disease but only 1.3% of the health work-force of the world.

Source: Bergström, S. 2009

“
The goal of ICPD
for family planning
is to achieve
universal access to
a full range of safe
and reliable family
planning methods
through the primary
health care system
by 2015.”

In response to the shortage of medical personnel, three African countries: United Republic of Tanzania, Mozambique and Malawi have initiated a capacity enhancement programme involving the use of Non-Physician Clinicians (NPCs). These are health personnel who are trained to engage in health procedures which would normally be carried out by a qualified doctor (e.g. caesarian sections). An evaluation of the programme has demonstrated its cost-effectiveness, sustainability and therefore potential to increase maternal health services to women, as such personnel tend to remain in their rural locations (Bergström, S. 2009).

Commitment to ICPD+15 family planning indicators

The goal of ICPD for family planning is to achieve universal access to a full range of safe and reliable family planning methods through the primary health care system by 2015 (Box 5.12). However, while modern contraceptive prevalence rates are improving in Africa they remain very low at an overall modern contraceptive prevalence of about 20 percent (UNECA, 2009 a.).

These aims, which are in line with CEDAW (Article 12.1) and reiterated in the BPfA, are aimed at empowering couples and individuals to decide freely, with full responsibility, on the number and spacing of their children.

Box 5.12

ICPD and ICPD+5 benchmarks – Family planning

- Assist couples and individuals to achieve their reproductive goals and give them the full opportunity to exercise the right to have children by choice (ICPD Principle 8, 7.12, 7.14(c), 7.16)
- Provide universal access to a full range of safe and effective family planning methods, as part of comprehensive sexual and reproductive health care (ICPD 7.2, 7.4, 7.6, 7.14 (a))
- By 2005, 60 percent of primary health care and family planning facilities should offer the widest achievable range of safe and effective family planning methods

(ICPD+5 21st Special Session, Agenda item 8, §53)

Source: ICPD PoA, 1994, 1999

“ There are also indications of an unmet demand for family planning in a number of countries.”

Table 5.11 provides data on contraceptive use in trial countries among women aged 15–49 years using ‘any method’ based on the latest available DHS data.

Table 5.11

Contraceptive use among married women 15–49 years (any method, %)

Country	(1997–1999)	(2000–2003)	(2004–2006)
Benin	16.4 (1996)	18.6 (2001)	17.0 (2006)
Burkina Faso	11.9 (1999)	13.8 (2003)	-
Cameroon	19.3 (1998)	-	26.0 (2004)
Egypt	51.8 (1998)	60.0 (2003)	59.2 (2005) 60.3 (2008)
Ethiopia	3.3 (1997)	8.1 (2000)	14.7 (2005)
Ghana	22.0 (1999)	25.2 (2003)	16.7 (2006)
Madagascar	19.4 (1997)	18.8 (2000)	27.1 (2004)
Mozambique	5.6 (1997)	-	16.5 (2004)
Tunisia	60.0 (1995)	62.6 (2001)	-
South Africa	56.3 (1998)	60.3 (2003)	-
Uganda	14.8 (1995)	22.8 (2001)	23.7 (2006)
Tanzania	25.4 (1999)	-	26.4 (2005)

Data Source: Millennium Development Goals Indicators, The Official United Nations Site for the MDG Indicators. - <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx> and Egypt: DHS 2008 Tables 6-4

The results show generally that even though there have been increases in use over various periods of time across countries, this has not been significant. There are also indications of an unmet demand for family planning in a number of countries. The ICPD regional review (UNECA, 2009 a.) indicates that the unmet need for family planning among married women in United Republic of Tanzania is 22 per cent.

In Ethiopia, the contraceptive prevalence rate among married women is 14.7 per cent, while the unmet need for contraception is 34 per cent. In Uganda only one in four married women is using a family planning method.

“
However, in most countries, the age at which women have their first birth is increasing.
”

Use of ‘any’ family planning method is a weak indicator, given the usually large proportions of users of ‘traditional’ methods. In addition, knowledge of ‘method mix’ is important at the programme level, given that failure rates differ by method. Also, for some contraceptive methods (condom, pill, IUD) it is important in measuring programme effort to have information on use-effectiveness, use-continuation and use-discontinuation of specific method.

However, in most countries, the age at which women have their first birth is increasing (e.g. Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, and Madagascar). This establishes the dividend of education and the need to intensify access and quality in especially rural areas. Uganda used retrospective data from the birth histories collected in its 2006 DHS and found that fertility rates were lower during the period 0-4 years preceding the survey than 5-9 years following the survey in every age group. The greatest declines in fertility occurred in the 15-19 age group, which also indicates the age at which women are having their first child is increasing (Uganda DHS, 2006:55).⁶ In Egypt, fertility declined almost continuously over the past two decades, from 5.3 births per woman in 1980 to 3 births per woman by 2008 (Egypt DHS 2008:51). Similarly in Madagascar, the Total Fertility Rate for women aged 15-19 years decreased from 6.1 per cent in 1992 to 5.2 per cent in 2004.

Exceptionally, knowledge of family planning methods in Egypt is almost universal (Egypt DHS 2008: 59, 71): Trends in ever use of Family Planning (any method) increased from 40 to 81 per cent between 1980 and 2008.

The results of the AWPS analysis as presented in Table 5.12 show high policy commitment across all countries in addition to effective planning in the area of family planning. However, for some countries (Benin, Cameroon, Ethiopia and Mozambique), translating such commitments into action has been slow by comparison with others.

⁶ See similar observations in respect of Ethiopia: DHS, 2006:50.

Table 5.12
ICPD PoA +15 (Family Planning)

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	16
Burkina Faso	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	19
Cameroon	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	16
Egypt	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Ethiopia	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	15
Ghana	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	17
Madagascar	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Mozambique	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	8
South Africa	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	15
Tanzania	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	16
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	16

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Policy and practice may vary in some instances (e.g. Box 5.13). In Burkina Faso for example, despite the existence of policies that guarantee services to all women, doctors condition their provision on the submission of written consent forms from husbands. The objective for this policy is stated as being to encourage family planning-related communication between partners, although solutions have not been found to take account of situations where consent is withheld.

Box 5.13

The experiences of Cameroon in Family Planning

Cameroon experiences several constraints in its efforts to make contraception more widely available. These include limited supply of contraceptives due to lack of integration of reproductive services in the health system in general; an inadequate budget; insufficiently trained personnel; logistical problems; inaccessibility of health centres in remote areas; weak demand of the population in general as they are not aware of the issues involved, and as the attitude of the staff involved is not conducive.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

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Most countries
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Most countries report of extensive information campaign initiatives on birth control, usually in several local languages using different media channels. Additionally, all countries cite that regular studies on aspects of contraceptive use are carried out. This observation is also made with respect to the design of monitoring instruments and co-operation with both national and international NGOs. The most salient constraints noted are insufficient financial and human resources, limited availability of adolescent services and the unavailability of several methods, such as sterilization and female condoms.

Critical observations and recommended actions

The assessment has highlighted an urgent need for African countries to pay critical attention to issues of child and maternal health, especially against the background of worsening poverty, the global recession and rising food costs. In weighing the total human cost of maternal health, Bergström, 2009 has reiterated that it is important to take account of the high numbers of infant deaths (“the passengers”) which invariably accompany maternal deaths (“the bearers”) in Africa.

Achieving the MDG3 Goal of gender equality and empowering women is critical for the full realisation of Goals 4 and 5 which relate to child and maternal health respectively. Social, economic and political empowerment of women as Goal 3 seeks to ensure, serve as important conduits for guaranteeing the survival of women and children. Within the context of relevant provisions of the CRC, the findings show that many countries are struggling with issues of child survival and that boys compared to girls are presently the most at risk of being stunted, underweight and dying before they reach their fifth birthdays. High rates of maternal mortality in many of the countries call for emergency response in line with the Maputo Plan of Action.

Although progress is being made with respect to reducing HIV/AIDS prevalence across countries, gender gaps continue to weigh disproportionately against women. This situation is a key indication of women’s limited control over their sexuality and the need for African government to invest more in economic empowerment initiatives, appropriate communication strategies and contraception outreach. The following call for action in relation to access to quality health is proposed for stakeholders:

African Governments are to

Sustain and scale up priority interventions in child health

- Develop local strategies to improve *food security* through sustained agricultural production and the consequent provision of extension services, improved seeds and credit for poor farmers, especially women. Such measures should include special measures for hard to reach areas in addition to those affected by famine.
- Further research is to be conducted to determine the gender dimensions of child malnutrition, with particular reference to their social, cultural, environmental and economic underpinnings.
- Sustain and expand successful efforts to achieve high and equitable coverage for priority interventions in child health. Areas of progress particularly in Expanded Programmes of Immunization, Vitamin A supplementation and the use of insecticide-treated bed nets, especially in deprived areas of African countries.
- Develop and implement comparable efforts and investments in the case management of childhood illnesses, family planning services, and antenatal, childbirth, and post-natal care.

“Sustain and expand successful efforts to achieve high and equitable coverage for priority interventions in child health.”

Maternal Health

- Develop strategies to address current high levels of maternal mortality through improved *equity in access and service delivery*, especially with respect to emergency obstetric care.
- In line with the Maputo Plan of Action, compile and disseminate data on the magnitude and consequences of unsafe abortions, enact and disseminate policies and laws to protect women and adolescents; and provide clear instructions, guidelines and appropriate training to service providers in the provision of comprehensive abortion care services.

HIV/AIDS and STI treatment and prevention

- Scale up behaviour change communication strategies across different target groups (children, adolescents and adults), through means such as peer education and community sensitization.
- Prepare forward-looking national action plans for continued ART services and ensure that such interventions are effectively targeted.

“
Address the impact
that the shortage
of medical staff is
having on African
health delivery
systems, especially
at the rural level.”

- Integrate HIV/AIDS concerns into all Reproductive Health programmes, with a view to taking account of the gender dimensions of the pandemic, such as the need to increase the use of contraceptives among both sexes.
- Strengthen the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV/AIDS within the framework of MCH programmes.

Governments, civil society and development partners must

Health financing

- Address ***health financing*** as an important catalyst of MDG short, medium and long term implementation within the context of the Maputo Plan of Action and ICPD +15 outcomes.
- In line with the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005), align financial and technical assistance and cooperation plans with national and regional needs and priorities for implementation of health priorities.

Human resource development and retention

- Address the impact that the shortage of medical staff is having on African health delivery systems, especially at the rural level. In the light of high attrition rates among medical personnel, countries are to develop effective strategies of retention in addition to considering the training and deployment of NPCs.



Access to Economic Opportunities and Resources

Introduction

In recognition of the role of women in social and economic development, the ICPD PoA focuses on empowerment of women and improvement of their status as important ends in themselves and as essential for the achievement of sustainable development. The AGDI's economic block measures African women's participation in the economy by assessing the extent to which they are meaningful actors and beneficiaries in the economic development process. There is an abundance of literature that documents the important roles women play to ensure the sustenance of their families and communities.

In Africa where economies are largely agriculture-based, women are the predominant agricultural workforce, making substantial contributions to the production, processing and distribution of food crops. HIV/AIDS, local and international migration have turned numerous women of different age groups into household heads, placing enormous responsibility on them to provide for their families. Despite their traditional roles and concomitant modifications to their responsibilities arising from social and demographic changes, women continue to be the missed targets of productive resources, which would have enabled them to play these roles effectively (ADF, 2008). A significant contribution of this chapter is its highlight of the importance of women's Non-Market Work (NMW), which have traditionally been categorised as invisible. It makes the case for such activities to be systematically captured in national income statistics for the effective recognition of women's roles in society.

“ There is an abundance of literature that documents the important roles women play to ensure the sustenance of their families and communities. ”

Overview of the GSI of the economic block

The economic power block of the GSI measures levels of gender inequalities in the economy through earnings (wages and income), time use, employment and access to productive and strategic resources. An essential preliminary observation is that data on this block was difficult to obtain and as a result the GSI has been computed on the basis of what was made available by countries. Table 6.1 and the related Figure

Table 6.1
The GSI of the economic block

Indicators	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Income and wages	0.648	0.556	0.685	0.883	0.751	1.158	0.881	-	1.257	0.592	0.789	0.438	0.785
Time use / employment	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	0.815
Access to resources	0.319	0.458	0.345	0.253	0.293	0.619	0.337	0.484	0.728	0.441	0.514	0.485	0.440
Economic power	0.549	0.632	0.577	0.492	0.647	0.913	0.723	0.879	0.937	0.675	0.556	0.613	0.683

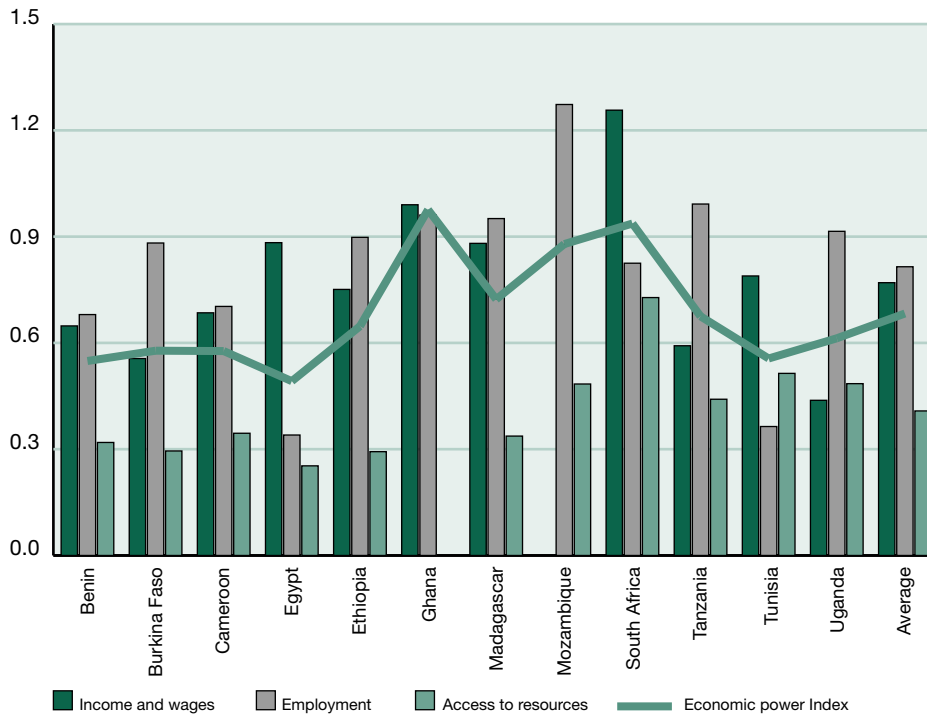
Sources: ECA computations from country studies data

6.1 present an overview of the findings, showing that the index of the economic block stands at an average of 0.683 for the 12 countries.

This score serves as a proxy indication of persisting gender imbalances in terms of access to economic opportunities and resources in Africa. Of great significance is that they show that in general terms, women are accessing just slightly more than half of what men are in most countries. With the exception of Egypt, all countries however score above average, while South Africa is near parity. At this point, there is consistency between the economic power and education scores of South Africa, making it plausible to suggest a relative closer link between the education sector and the economic participation. By contrast, the results show that women in Egypt and Tunisia may not necessarily be participating effectively in the economy despite progressive achievements in education (Chapter 4). The ensuing sections discuss each of the components making up the economic block.

Figure 6.1

GSI of the economic block and its components



“This score serves as a proxy indication of persisting gender imbalances in terms of access to economic opportunities and resources in Africa.”

Sources: Based on Table 6.1

Time use or employment

Time-use or employment as the second component of the economic power block is measured by the total number of hours devoted to domestic work compared with the number of hours performed in market economic activities. The following are the focal indicators in this section:

- Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own account or employer);
- Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities;
- Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities; or
- Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment.

As already noted in the Introduction, the indicators on time use and employment run separately or concurrently, depending on data availability within a given country.

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It is estimated that
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female activities
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countries are not
captured by the
SNA.”

Although Chapter 5 has already established that there severe data gaps with respect to time use in several countries, it is an important indicator in the economic block and remains there as a wake up call to countries to invest in Time Use Survey's. Since data on both variables are available for Benin, Madagascar and South Africa, they are recorded as composite indicators for these countries by averaging the results of the two indicators as the basis of computation. It is also noticeable that the assessment of time use in this chapter is broader in scope compared to that of Chapter 5 which dealt with the number of hours that men and women allocate to leisure. The emphasis of this chapter is the comparison between the ratio of time that is spent on System of National Accounts (SNA) and non-SNA activities (Box 6.1).

Research on male and female time use on productive and domestic work already exists (e.g. Latigo, 2003 and World Bank, 2006) and the definition of what constitutes production is fully provided for in the SNA (1993). While the purpose here is not to investigate these issues further, it is worth pointing out that recognition of what is commonly referred to as women's NMW has been identified as a key area needing policy intervention to improve the situation of women in the non-market economy (Latigo, 2003:1).

Box 6.1 *Time Use and Africa's development*

Perhaps nowhere is the asymmetry in the respective rights and obligations of men and women more apparent than in the patterns of time use differentiated by gender, and the inefficiency and inequity they represent. Both men and women play multiple roles (productive, reproductive, and community management) in society (Moser 1989; Blackden and Bhanu 1999). Yet while men are generally able to focus on a single productive role, and play their multiple roles sequentially, women, in contrast to men, play these roles simultaneously and must balance simultaneous competing claims which leave them with limited time for each. Women's labour time and flexibility are therefore much more constrained than is the case for men and they suffer from the multiple challenges of time poverty.

Source: World Bank, 2006:1

Non-market economic activities cover non-SNA work, such as domestic care and volunteer activities, including meal preparation; caring for children, adults, the elderly, handicapped or the sick within the household; and volunteer work for the community or other households. It has however been the practice of macro-economists to focus on the "monetized" economy and not count NMW in national accounting or to reward it in national budgets. Elson and Evers, 1997 note that it is estimated that 66 per cent of female activities in developing countries are not captured by the SNA, compared with only 24 per cent of male activities. This situation is adverse to the economic status of women, as the support they provide within the care economy is what sustains the market economy and contributes to poverty reduction and

economic growth. Results of time use for Benin, Madagascar and South Africa in respect of the issues being investigated are provided in Tables 6.2 and 6.3 below.

Table 6.2
Time use data from Benin, Madagascar and South Africa

Component	Indicators	Unit	Sex	Benin	Madagascar	South Africa
Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	Time spent in 24 hours (%)	F	16.3	12.2	8.0
			M	16.3	20.1	13.2
	Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	Time spent in 24 hours (%)	F	7.2	7.6	1.7
			M	5.5	6.7	1.9
			F	14.4	15.3	15.8
			M	4.7	3.3	5.2
Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	Time spent in 24 hours (%)	F	14.4	15.3	15.8	
		M	4.7	3.3	5.2	

Sources: INSAE/PNUD (1998), *Enquête emploi du temps au Bénin, Méthodologie et résultats*, Cotonou; Statistics South Africa (2001), *How South African Women and Men spend their time, A survey of time use*, Pretoria; INSTADSM/PNUD-MAG/97/007: EPM. 2001- *Module Emploi du Temps, Antananarivo*; Republic of Mauritius, Central Statistics Office (2004), *Continuous Multi-Purpose Household Survey 2003, Main results of the time use study*

The results show that in Madagascar and South Africa, men play a more dominant role in economic activity, compared to Benin where time allocated to this by men and women tends to be equal. Time that women allocate to both non-market, unpaid and domestic work also tends to be higher in the case of women for all three countries. However, the implication for Benin is that women tend therefore to work more hours on both SNA and non-SNA activities. In its analysis of these three countries' time use data, the World Bank (2006:17, 47) arrived at the similar conclusions by noting that in Benin, South Africa and Madagascar women allocate a lower percentage of their time per day to productive work (53.0 per cent, 33.5 per cent and 44.2 per cent) compared to men (77.8 per cent, 71.7 per cent and 86.1 per cent). The burden on women's time affects their ability to make positive contributions to growth and poverty reduction. The time use GSI in respect of the three countries is shown in Table 6.3.

“Time that women allocate to both non-market, unpaid and domestic work also tends to be higher in the case of women for all three countries.”

Table 6.3
GSI on time use for Benin, Madagascar and South Africa

Indicators	Benin	Madagascar	South Africa	Average
Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	1.000	0.603	0.605	0.733
Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	1.316	1.134	0.889	1.181
Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	3.104	4.702	3.040	4.063
Time-use index	1.807	2.147	1.511	1.992

Sources: Based on Table 6.2

As the alternative variable, the share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers consists of the share of employed people who are not contributing family workers. It measures the share of workers in a country who enjoy autonomy in respect of the use of income drawn from economic activities. The results are shown in Tables 6.4, 6.5 and Figure 6.2.

Table 6.4
Levels of gender equality in employment

Component Indicators	Unit	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Employment Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment	Share of total (%)	F	40.5	46.9	41.3	25.4	47.3	49.0	48.7	56.0	45.2	49.8	26.7	47.8
		M	59.5	53.1	58.7	74.6	52.7	51.0	51.3	44.0	54.8	50.2	73.3	52.2

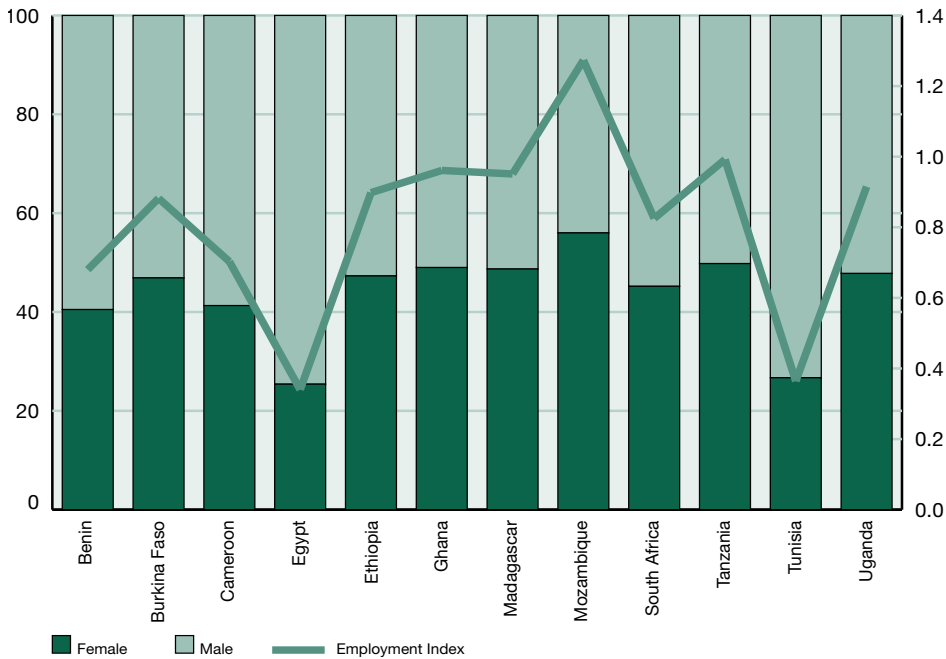
Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

Table 6.5
The GSI on employment

Indicators	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	0.815
Employment Index	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	0.815

Sources: Based on Table 6.4

Figure 6.2
Employment GSI Index



Sources: Based on Tables 6.4 and 6.5

The results show that women have comparatively limited economic autonomy in Egypt and Tunisia, which have the lowest GSI for this indicator. Their experiences demonstrate that gender equality in education (as achieved by Tunisia) is not by itself sufficient to increase the overall status of women. Consequently, other actions such as overcoming social norms which exclude women from vital areas of the economy must be undertaken.

On the other hand, other countries such as Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda are demonstrating higher levels of autonomy in employment, although this may also be an indication of the high levels of both men and women in informal sector employment.

Incomes

In addition to other factors, income levels are directly dependent upon the gender division of labour in the market economy as already discussed.

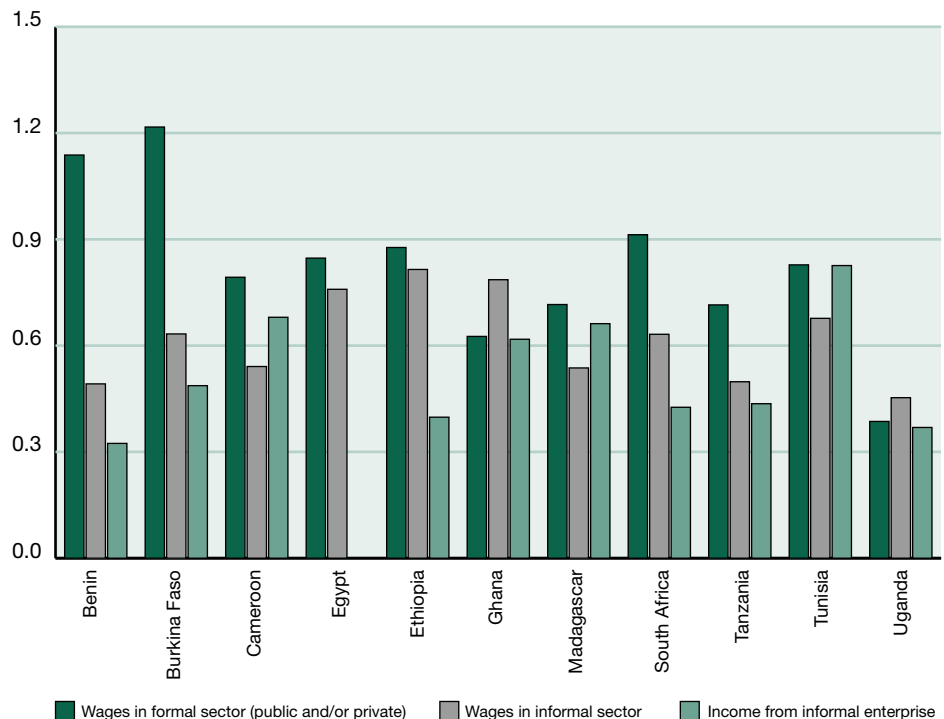
The GSI measures progress being made in bridging male and female gaps in income. This is done firstly, by assessing the state of wage distribution in the fields of agriculture, and the civil service, the formal sector (public and private), the informal sector and secondly,

through income from informal sector enterprise, small agricultural household enterprise, and remittances or inter-household transfers. The lack of data in this field (particularly the informal sector) across several countries is discernible from Figure 6.3 below and Table 6.7 (further below), which present the overall results on this sub-component.

“The majority of female agricultural workers are unpaid family members who are deployed during peak agricultural seasons.”

An overview of the gender division of labour in the sectors being discussed is crucial for an appreciation of the income structure.

Figure 6.3
Wages and income index



Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

All 12 pilot countries tend to experience the lowest income levels for both males and females in the agricultural sector, where the majority of men and women dominate. Mozambique, for example, notes the persistent inability of its Trades Union movement to impress upon government the strong need to narrow down the salary difference between agro-cattle workers and those of industry and services. Duncan (2009) observes that the reasons for gender disparities in agricultural incomes stem from segregation of farm labour. This tends to congregate women in the farm tasks of planting and weeding, whereas men are generally responsible for the more physically demanding tasks of land clearance, which attracts higher daily wages. In some countries such as Egypt (see Box 6.2) and Ethiopia, the majority of female agricul-

tural workers are unpaid family members who are deployed during peak agricultural seasons (Ethiopia DHS, 2006:44; Egypt DHS, 2008:37). Cameroon notes that a stereotyped image of women exists in the agricultural sector is becoming less apparent. This has been due to the fact that the drop in prices of cash crops (cocoa, coffee) has led to the development of new crop-growing practices among men, who are switching to the formerly female preserve of food crops.¹

Women's earnings in this occupation therefore invariably tend to be lower than that of men or do not exist in all countries as shown in Table 6.6 and Box 6.2.

Box 6.2

Case study of women in agriculture in Egypt

Women working in agricultural occupations are much less likely than other working women to be paid for the work they do (56 per cent and 98 per cent, respectively). This can be explained by the fact that most women who work in an agricultural occupation are assisting their husbands or another family member; around two-fifths of ever-married women who are employed in agricultural occupations are working for a family member compared with only 3 per cent of working women who are involved in non-agricultural occupations year-round. Seasonal work is more common among women working in agricultural occupations than among women employed in non-agricultural occupations (27 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively).

Source: Egypt DHS, 2008:37-38

There is evidence to suggest that men and women tend to be on the same salary levels for doing the same category of work within the civil service, although work segregation tends to be the case (e.g. Box 6.3). This is reflected in the gender composition of the civil service of most countries, in which it is seen that women form the majority of those occupying positions with lower qualification requirements, especially within low-paying clerical areas. Hence, although Uganda reflects a situation in which women earn higher wages than men in the civil services, this is reported to be due to the fact that the majority of the former are concentrated in the lower scale of the salary structure and that the calculation is based on “averaging overall scales.” In Benin, although the General Statute of Permanent State Employees (Act No. 86-013, 1986) ensures equal access to State employment for men and women, Article 12.3 empowers organizations to restrict access to certain posts to specific sexes on the basis of special requirements.² In many countries, women also tend to be more visible in the social sector segment of the civil service, compared to the economic sector.³ Mozambique also notes that women tend to be paid less than men “because they are usually integrated into lower categories and have more difficulty receiving promotion in professional careers”.

1 See CEDAW/C/CMR/3/2007:22.

2 See CEDAW/C/BEN/1-3/2002. Para. 11.2.

3 For example, in Burkina Faso, women account for 49.5 per cent of staff in the Departments of Health and Social Welfare whereas in other departments they account for just 30 per cent. See CEDAW/C/BFA/2-3/1998, p 13.

“Women’s earnings in this occupation therefore invariably tend to be lower than that of men or do not exist in all countries.”

Box 6.3

Case study of some aspects of the income structure of Tunisia

The minimum guaranteed inter-professional wage (SMIG) was instituted by Decree no. 74/63 of 31 January 1974, and is used as a basis for fixing wages in non-agricultural sectors regulated by the Labour Code of 1956 as amended... According to the 1997 National Institute of Statistics survey of micro-business, the average monthly salary was 186 dinars surpassing the SMIG (169 dinars) by barely 10 per cent. The average monthly salary of women was 148 dinars, representing 76 per cent of men's salary (169 dinars). The same survey also showed that wages increase with age, and that they are highest beginning with the 40/49 age bracket for both men and women. Men receive salaries that are higher than the SMIG regardless of their level of education, whereas women's salaries surpass the SMIG only if they possess higher education.

Source: AGDI country report of Tunisia, 2005

“The absence of regulatory frameworks and effective inspectorates to protect informal sector actors not only prevents effective data collection, but also tends to expose them to different forms of economic exploitation.”

Egypt distinguishes between the private and public segments of the formal sector, noting that “females on average earn less than males and the wage gap is larger in the private sector.” Burkina Faso also notes that the greater pressure on the private sector to meet targets constrains employers from hiring women, because of childbearing and perceived obstacles having to do with their conjugal or motherhood status.⁴

In Madagascar, more than seven out of ten women are house helpers. The average annual salary of women in such occupations is Ariary 750,000⁵ against Ariary 1,147,000 for men. In addition 50.4 per cent of women are victims of part-time work against 36.4 per cent of men, 47.3 per cent of women hold an employment that is not adequate against 39.3 per cent of men. Factors that account for this situation include: 1) heavy housework load for women; 2) a lesser level of education and qualification; 3) preference among employers to hire men rather than women; and 4) under-valuing of women's capacity to perform.

The absence of regulatory frameworks and effective inspectorates to protect informal sector actors not only prevents effective data collection, but also tends to expose them to different forms of economic exploitation. Ethiopia notes that women are more likely to be paid in cash if they are employed in the non-agricultural sector. An estimated three-fourths of those employed in this sector are paid in cash (Ethiopia DHS, 2006:44). Although it is generally perceived that women are the dominant force in the African informal sector, this is not true of some countries such as Tunisia, where men dominate in informal trading activities. In Ghana, where women do dominate the informal sector, however, available data shows that the mean wage for males also working in this sector was 7.8 per cent higher than that of males by 1991/92, and rose to 21.4 per cent by 1998/99.

The *income* component assessment demonstrates the predominant need to support women's participation in higher levels of entrepreneurial activities, where there are

⁴ See CEDAW/C/BFA/4-5/2004. Para. 2.9.

⁵ One USD is equivalent to MGA2 000 on average.

indications that they are the minority. For example by the time of the national census of 1994 in Tunisia, women heads of enterprises accounted for only 8.5 per cent of all entrepreneurs, employing approximately 100,000 people.

Accuracy in the interpretation of income from remittances is important as it may not be taken at all times as a reflection of empowerment or an increase in opportunities but rather as an indication of the absence of empowerment and capacity to generate income at the individual level. This is best appreciated from the context of polygamous households where husbands tend to be registered as the household head of each of their wives during household surveys. Money disbursed to wives for purposes of household expenses is generally categorised as ‘remittances’, thus concealing the real economic status of men and women in polygamous situations. High remittances from abroad also potentially conceal the inability of countries to provide profitable work to migrating citizens, while the size of remittances may also conceal the human cost of migration, such as the long absence of the partner, as well as the general poverty situation in the receiving country. Against the background of these complexities, Table 6.6 reflects a threshold on which the income component of the GSI is computed, excluding income from remittances. For some countries such as Ghana and South Africa, this leads to sharp reductions in their income GSIs.

Table 6.6
The GSI on levels of gender equality in income

Indicators	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Wages in agriculture	-	0.239	0.506	0.996	0.674	0.592	0.904	0.766	0.686	-	0.737	0.678
Wages in civil service	-	-	0.767	0.930	0.780	0.542	0.968	0.935	0.916	-	0.453	0.786
Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	1.138	1.217	0.793	0.847	0.877	0.626	0.716	0.913	0.715	0.828	0.386	0.823
Wages in informal sector	0.492	0.633	0.541	0.759	0.815	0.836	0.537	0.632	0.498	0.677	0.453	0.625
Wages sub-component	0.815	0.696	0.652	0.883	0.787	0.649	0.781	0.812	0.704	0.752	0.508	0.731
Income from informal enterprise	0.324	0.487	0.680	-	0.398	1.619	0.662	0.426	0.436	0.826	0.369	0.623
Income from small agricultural household enterprise	-	0.260	0.511	-	0.897	0.583	0.827	-	0.524	-	-	0.600
Income from remittances and inter-household transfers	0.636	0.501	0.964	-	0.854	2.797	1.452	2.980	-	-	-	1.455
Income sub-component	0.480	0.416	0.718	-	0.716	1.666	0.981	1.703	0.480	0.826	0.369	0.836
Income sub-component without remittances	0.324	0.374	0.596	-	0.648	1.101	0.745	0.426	0.480	0.826	0.369	0.589
Wages and Income component	0.648	0.556	0.685	0.883	0.751	1.158	0.881	1.257	0.592	0.789	0.438	0.785
Wages and Income component without remittances	0.570	0.535	0.624	0.883	0.717	0.875	0.763	0.619	0.592	0.789	0.438	0.673

Source: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

Note: Mozambique did not provide data on this component

Access to resources

“This is explained by the fact that women are not accessing productive resources (land and credit) to the same extent as men in many countries.”

The third component of the economic block, access to resources consists of two sub-components: 1) *means of production*, which reviews indicators on ownership of rural/urban plots, houses or land, access to credit and freedom to dispose of own income; and 2) *management* measuring gender equality between men and women in their capacities as employers, high civil servants (Class A), members of professional syndicates and administrative, scientific and technical personnel corresponding to the categories of the 1988 International Standard Classification of Occupations (economic clout). With the exception of Ghana, which possessed data for all seven indicators, most countries had a paucity of data on indicators under each sub-component (Table 6.7).

United Republic of Tanzania's most recent State Party Report to the CEDAW Committee (2008) sets the tone for appreciating the besetting challenges that women face in their quest to access productive resources:

Box 6.4

The underlying causes of inequitable access to resources in United Republic of Tanzania

In United Republic of Tanzania, gender relations are reflected in household structures, division of labour, access and control over resources and power relations. Most communities in United Republic of Tanzania are essentially patriarchal, whereby traditional norms, practices and attitudes are centred on male domination. In this context, men continue to dominate power, ownership and control of productive resources. Women continue to have unequal access and control of major productive resources.

Source: *United Republic of Tanzania State Party Report, 2008: Para. 25*

Greater degrees of gender disparities are more evident under the sub-component on *means of production*. This is explained by the fact that women are not accessing productive resources (land and credit) to the same extent as men in many countries. The under utilization of women in agriculture, due, for example, to their having little or no formal control over land, reduced access to fertilizer, credit and other vital inputs have been proven to increase women's poverty (Klasen, 2006: 8, 10). Some countries are however recording impressive gains in land access. For example, in Ghana, over 50 per cent of plots of land are owned by women in communities which practice the matrilineal system of property distribution, as is the case in the Ashanti Region. Opportunities for accessing credit are also evident in Mozambique and South Africa. Overall, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda score indices above 5.0 in this sub area.

Figure 6.4
Women's Access to credit index
(Male=1.000)

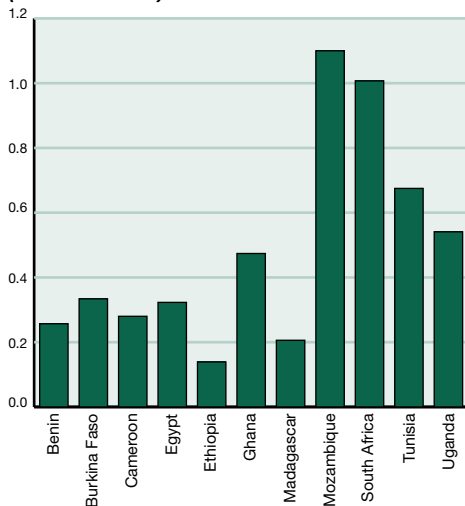
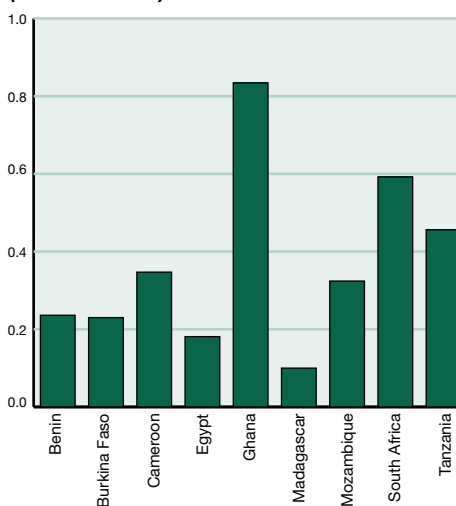
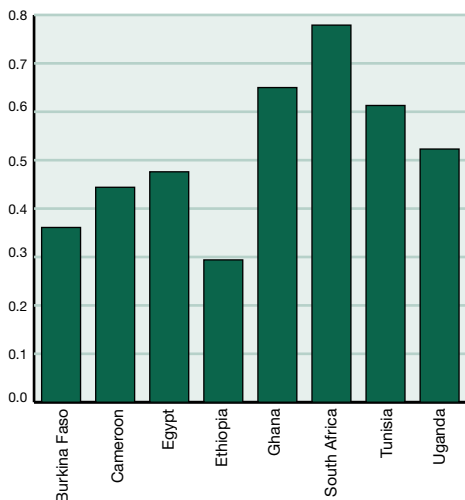


Figure 6.5
Women's high civil servants index
(Male=1.000)



“DHS surveys have become important sources of information on this issue.”

Figure 6.6
Women's administrative, scientific and technical index
(Male=1.000)



Another area of focus under this sub-component is the degree to which males and females are able to dispose of their own income. Although it would appear in general, that women are increasingly gaining the freedom to dispose of their own income, this depends upon how this income was acquired, the extent to which a spouse was involved and the cultural and religious pattern of the country. DHS surveys have become important sources of information on this issue. In its 2006 DHS, Uganda found that an estimated 55 per cent of married women had complete control over the disposal of their earnings, 33 per cent indicated that they took such decisions

Table 6.7*The GSI on levels of gender equalities in the access to resources*

Indicators	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	0.146	0.604	-	0.061	0.315	1.030	-	0.301	-	-	-	0.311	0.395
Access to credit	0.257	0.334	0.280	0.323	0.139	0.474	0.206	1.100	1.007	-	0.675	0.541	0.485
Freedom to dispose of own income	0.801	0.923	-	-	0.745	0.730	0.324	-	0.700	-	-	0.801	0.718
Means of production Index	0.401	0.620	0.280	0.192	0.400	0.745	0.265	0.701	0.854	-	0.675	0.551	0.517
Employers	-	-	0.436	0.070	0.172	0.911	-	0.194	0.394	0.425	0.092	0.537	0.359
High civil servants (class A)	0.236	0.230	0.347	0.181	-	0.834	0.100	0.324	0.592	0.456	-	-	0.367
Members of professional syndicates	-	-	-	0.530	0.092	0.173	0.718	0.287	0.646	-	-	0.197	0.378
Administrative, scientific and technical	-	0.361	0.444	0.476	0.294	0.650	-	-	0.779	-	0.613	0.523	0.517
Management Index	0.236	0.295	0.409	0.314	0.186	0.642	0.409	0.268	0.603	0.441	0.353	0.419	0.381
Access to resources Index	0.319	0.458	0.345	0.253	0.293	0.693	0.337	0.484	0.728	0.441	0.514	0.485	0.446

Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

jointly with their husbands/partner, while 13 per cent reported that such decisions were made solely by their spouse/partner. On the other hand, 60 per cent of married women whose husbands receive cash earnings reported that the latter were the main decision-makers on the use of their cash earnings (Uganda DHS, 2006:242-243).

This case study of Uganda is to be contrasted with Egypt where its 2008 DHS found that married women who had cash earnings either made decisions about how their earnings were used by themselves (20 per cent) or jointly with their husbands (73 per cent). Only a small minority of women reported that these decisions were made mainly by the husband. However, with regard to decisions about how the husband's earnings were used, the majority of women (71 per cent) indicated that they made these decisions jointly as a couple. Only 22 per cent of the women indicated that their husbands themselves took decisions as to how to spend their earnings (Egypt DHS, 2008:39).

Table 6.7 (above) also provides an analysis of the sub-component on 'management' and indicates that there are few females holding positions as superiors in Africa. Although the political block draws similar conclusions with respect to participation in "higher positions in Civil Service" (Chapter 7), the economic block analysis highlights the extent of economic clout among men and women in the management sphere. Ghana features as the highest in this range, largely due to the existence of a relatively large number of female entrepreneurs and high-level civil servants. This is followed by South Africa, where the post-Apartheid affirmative action policy has resulted in increased visibility of women in management across multiple sectors.

Low scores generally evident in the access to resources component reverse the gains seen under incomes and wages. The greatest gender gaps in the economic field thus lie in men's control of wealth and their larger share in economic decision-making.

Overview of the AWPS of the economic block

Complementing the GSI, the AWPS assesses the extent to which governments are adhering to and implementing international conventions that deal with a range of issues affecting gender and economic participation. These Conventions are aimed at protecting women from discrimination, both within the context of labour market and gender-specific issues such as wage inequality, and in matters specific to women, such as maternity protection. The scoreboard achieves this by reviewing the implementation status of ILO Conventions, 100, 111 and 183, the ILO Code of Practice (CoP) on HIV/AIDS, the extent to which countries are mainstreaming gender into their PRSPs and the qualitative dimensions of how women are accessing economic resources, with specific reference to agriculture extension services, technology and land. The results as presented in Table 6.8 shows that countries have collectively achieved an overall average score of 53 per cent. Areas of lowest performance are with respect to implementation of ILO Convention 183, ILO CoP on HIV/AIDS, policies on access to technology as well as those pertaining to land reforms.

“These Conventions are aimed at protecting women from discrimination, both within the context of labour market and gender-specific issues such as wage inequality, and in matters specific to women, such as maternity protection.”

Table 6.8
Comparative scores on the AWPS of the economic block

Variables	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
ILO Conventions												
100	15	7	11	20	9	18	6	17	14	12	24	13
111	14	9	13	22	10	18	13	19	15	13	24	13
183	9	3	4	0	5	16	20	17	14	6	6	7
HIV/AIDS CoP	13	2	13	0	12	14	17	18	16	15	22	2
Engendering NDPFs	13	16	6	19	12	16	4	17	9	14	20	14
Access to Extension	14	16	12	6	2	16	0	16	4	5	19	15
Access to technology	4	6	8	20	3	10	0	17	13	8	20	13
Access to land	12	8	1	13	3	17	4	19	15	9	6	8
Total	94	67	68	100	56	125	64	140	100	82	141	85

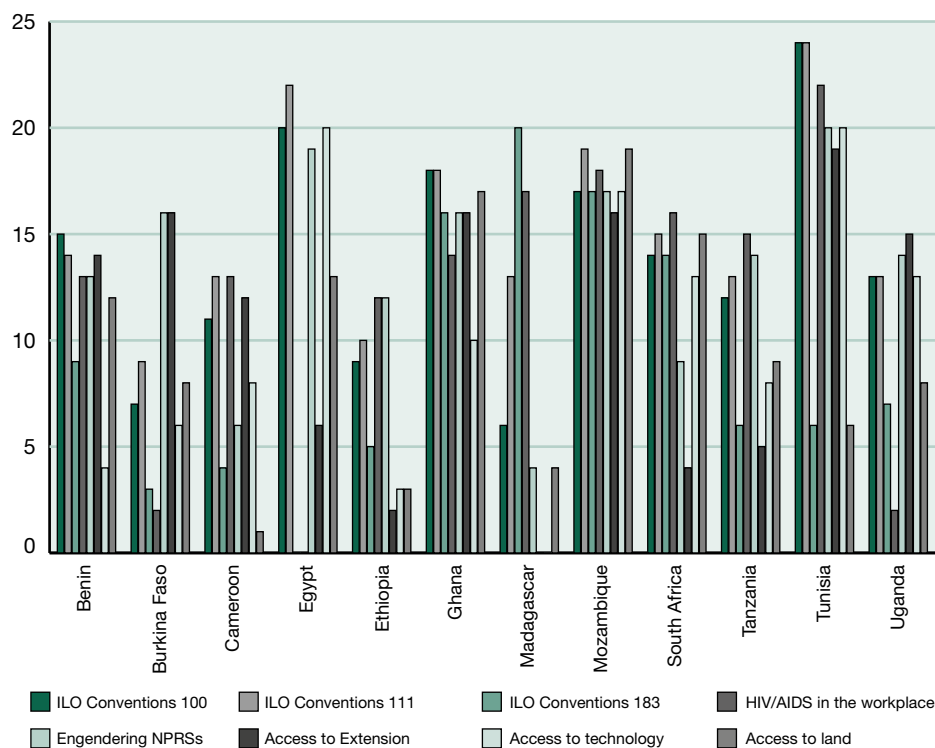
Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country= (176 (ILO Conventions 100 (24), 111 (24), 183 (24), CoP (22), NPRSs (20), Extension Services (20), Technology (20), Land (22))
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

“CEDAW calls upon States Parties to take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women including in the employment field to ensure equal rights for women and men to the same employment opportunities.”

Figure 6.7
Composite scores on economic Block of the AWPS



Source: Based on Table 6.8

Placing the ILO framework in context

The revision of the Constitution of the ILO by the Declaration of Philadelphia in 1944 provided the space for making equality of opportunity and treatment one of the fundamental objectives of the organization. It states, *all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity.* The Declaration also reinforces the principle of equal opportunity and treatment then already present in the 1919 Constitution of the ILO, which guides the policy of the organization and prescribes that *the standards set by law in each country with respect to the conditions of labour should have due regard to the equitable economic treatment of all workers....*

Since then, many other international labour standards and women’s rights documents such as CEDAW have reaffirmed the commitment of the international community to provide equal opportunities to men and women and to ensure that women’s human rights are also safeguarded at the workplace. Setting the international

framework for equality between women and men in the civil, political, economic, social, and cultural fields, CEDAW calls upon States Parties to take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women including in the employment field to ensure equal rights for women and men to the same employment opportunities. This includes the application of the same criteria for selection; free choice of profession and employment; promotion, job security, all benefits and conditions of service and vocational training and retraining; equal remuneration, including benefits, and equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, for example, equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work; social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work; as well as the right to paid leave.⁶

CEDAW also proscribes discrimination against women on grounds of marriage or maternity, within the context of employment. It proclaims that provisions for maternity protection and child-care are essential rights and calls for the introduction of maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, promotion or social allowances. It also promotes special protection to women during pregnancy and the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents combine family obligations with work responsibilities more effectively. The Convention also obliges State Parties to take appropriate measures to prohibit dismissal on grounds of pregnancy, maternity leave or marital status.

The national assessment for compiling the economic AWPS included four relevant ILO Conventions, namely Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration (1951); Convention 111 on Discrimination (1958); Convention 183 on Maternity Protection at the Workplace (2000); and the Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS (2001), all of which are discussed below.⁷

ILO Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration, 1951

The Convention applies the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers with regard to work of equal value. This extends to basic wages or salaries and to any additional emoluments whatsoever, payable directly or indirectly, in cash or in kind, by the employer to the worker and arising out of their employment.

⁶ Article 11 of CEDAW.

⁷ The absence of columns on reporting for each of the ILO Conventions is based on the lack of requirement of a formal reporting mechanism along the lines of the CEDAW Committee (Article 19 of CEDAW). But this is not intended to understate the fact that ratifying countries of ILO Conventions are required to submit annual reports on their implementation progress to the Director General of the ILO. This is specifically provided for under Article 22 of the ILO Constitution of 1919 which states: *Each of the Members agrees to make an annual report to the International Labour Office on the measures which it has taken to give effect to the provisions of Conventions to which it is a party. These reports shall be made in such form and shall contain such particulars as the Governing Body may request.*

“
The Convention
applies the
principle of equal
remuneration for
men and women
workers with regard
to work of equal
value.”

“ Although Convention 100 has been ratified without reservations by all countries, its effective implementation is facing many hurdles. ”

It defines equal remuneration for work of equal value as that established without discrimination based on sex. The Convention is legally binding only on ratifying member States of the ILO and invites each Member State to co-operate as appropriate with employers and workers organisations concerned for the purpose of giving effect to its provisions.

The principle of equal pay for equal work is to be implemented through the enactment of national laws or regulations, the creation of machineries for protection against wage determination, the conclusion of collective agreements or a combination of these various means.

The AWPS measurement is based on ratification of the Convention; domestication through law and policy reform; the creation of appropriate implementing institutions; the conclusion of collective agreements between employers and workers; adequate budgetary allocation, sufficient and qualified human resources for implementation, research and proper monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. The results are shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9
Analysis of country scores on ILO Convention 100

	Ratification	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	0	2	2	1	2	0	1	0	1	15
Burkina Faso	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	7
Cameroon	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	11
Egypt	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	20
Ethiopia	2	2	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	9
Ghana	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	18
Madagascar	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
Mozambique	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	17
South Africa	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	14
Tanzania	2	1	2	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	12
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24
Uganda	2	2	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	13

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=24
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Although Convention 100 has been ratified without reservations by all countries, its effective implementation is facing many hurdles. Country studies show that wage discrimination against women persist, with major constraints to effective implementation identified as being the lack of financial and qualified human resources and the non-existence of national classification system of work categories. Other obstacles to ensuring equal remuneration for women and men are gender gaps in professional skills, educational attainment and occupational segregation, with a predominance of women in seasonal employment.

All countries have undertaken partial or full domestication of the Convention. Legal frameworks generally cover non-discrimination with respect to employment opportunities, recruitment, and remuneration, strike and union rights, and compensation.

Policy commitment is also strong across all countries, although this tends to be minimised in the absence of or inadequate plans and targets by a number of countries. Most countries have or are in the process of putting in place institutional mechanisms for the effective implementation of the convention. Benin, Egypt, Mozambique, Ghana, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia have institutional mechanisms in motion, while this is partially so in the remaining six. With the exception of Madagascar, all countries have allocated human resources to undertake implementation activities, although this tends to be insufficient. Most countries also report of some degree of involvement of civil society, (usually through the labour unions). Achievements in research and monitoring and evaluation also tend to be low. In Burkina Faso, for example, monitoring and evaluation activities are scarcely undertaken due to the absence of an employment monitoring and evaluation framework. Most countries (e.g. Ghana and Madagascar) also tend to rely on UN-mandated institutions, such as the ILO for technical assistance.

“Policy commitment is also strong across all countries, although this tends to be minimised in the absence of or inadequate plans and targets by a number of countries.”

Box 6.5

Experiences from South Africa and Burkina Faso in implementing ILO 100

In South Africa the Basic Conditions of Employment Act provides for the establishment of the Employment Conditions Commission, which advises the Minister on minimum wages of ‘vulnerable’ workers, including women workers. This advice informs the sectoral determinations and ministerial determinations regarding minimum wages and conditions. Several important wage determinations under the Basic Conditions of Employment Act have addressed the conditions of vulnerable women workers, the most important being contract cleaners and domestic workers. Articles 61 and 62 of Burkina Faso’s taxation law discriminate against women as they provide for tax reduction on the husband’s income in cases where both the husband and the wife are salaried. The tax reduction granted to the husband is intended to provide financial assistance to the family.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

ILO Convention 111 on Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), 1958

“The indicator used in the AWPS focuses on discrimination on the basis of sex and measures whether or not appropriate laws and policies have been put in place, and to what extent these policies are being implemented and monitored.”

This Convention calls upon Member States to pursue national policies for promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in employment and occupation with a view to eliminating discrimination. The indicator used in the AWPS focuses on discrimination on the basis of sex and measures whether or not appropriate laws and policies have been put in place, and to what extent these policies are being implemented and monitored. The results are presented in Table 6.10 below:

Table 6.10
Analysis of country scores on ILO Convention 111

	Ratification	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	0	2	2	1	2	0	0	0	1	14
Burkina Faso	2	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	9
Cameroon	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
Egypt	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	22
Ethiopia	2	2	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	10
Ghana	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	18
Madagascar	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	13
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	19
South Africa	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
Tanzania	2	2	2	0	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	13
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24
Uganda	2	2	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	13

UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=24
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

All countries have ratified ILO Convention 111 and demonstrate equally high levels of legislative and policy commitment. This is however generally not backed by plans, targets, research and monitoring and evaluation. Due to the similar mandates of Conventions 100 and 111, it is seen again that only Benin, Egypt, Ghana, Mozambique and Tunisia have working institutional mechanisms in place. Scores in respect

of allocation of human and financial resources, civil society involvement, information and dissemination activities and monitoring and evaluation are generally low.

Burkina Faso points out that its personnel are not adequately trained and by far, are limited to performing administrative tasks. Although the media and the responsible ministries carry out some dissemination activities, its Government has not adequately raised the issue of discrimination and inequality.

Egypt has established equal opportunity units in all its line ministries to affirm women's exercise of their right to constitutional equality and to challenge any discriminatory practices against women in the workplace. Thirty-two units were established in 29 ministries and three in the administrative apparatus. These units deal with problems of discrimination against women in the workplace. Problems, however, remain with the Convention's implementation within private-sector establishments where compliance tends to be low. Some field research findings based on the experience of Egypt show that female workers in some private-sector establishments earn wages equal to 70 per cent of men's.⁸

The Developmental Social Welfare Policy (1996) of Benin states that all efforts shall be made to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women in respect to access to technical training, formal sector employment, working conditions, access to health care services and protection from all social and cultural pressures to which they are subjected on account of their sex. The National Women's Policy (1993) also addresses this issue by outlining measures for modifying or abolishing laws that aggravate discrimination against women; ensuring that gender-based discrimination is removed; and taking appropriate measures to ensure that women are made beneficiaries on an equal basis with men in the area of equal pay for equal work and in other work-related benefits and opportunities. Despite these protective measures, however, Benin underlines women's lack of awareness of their rights in addition to the numerous policies that address discrimination against them in employment and occupation.

ILO Convention 183 on Maternity Protection at the Workplace, 2000

ILO Convention 183 is the most recent international standard on maternity protection at the workplace and aims to promote equality for all women in the workplace and the health and safety of mother and child. Compared to previous ILO Conventions on maternity protection (Conventions 3 and 103 of 1919 and 1952 respectively), it constitutes a new step forward with regards to both persons covered and the protection it affords, applying to all employed women, including those in

“*ILO Convention 183 is the most recent international standard on maternity protection at the workplace and aims to promote equality for all women in the workplace and the health and safety of mother and child.*”

⁸ CEDAW/C/7/2008:8, 48.

“Lack of ratifications not withstanding, laws and policies on maternity protection are in place in most countries due as stated to the earlier influence of previous Conventions.”

atypical forms of dependant work, such as part-time and seasonal work. It expands the scope of maternity protection to include maternity leave entitlement for a duration of at least 14 weeks with a period of 6 weeks compulsory leave after childbirth, cash and medical benefits, health protection during pregnancy and childbirth and breastfeeding, as a means of securing a holistic package of protection for mother and child.⁹

The overall performance on implementation of this Convention is very low as may be appreciated from the scores reflected in Table 6.11. By June 2009, only one African country (Mali) had ratified the Convention. A similar pattern is seen in respect of previous Conventions in which only Burkina Faso and Cameroon are on record to have ratified Convention 3 and Ghana Convention 103.¹⁰

Table 6.11
Analysis of country scores on ILO Convention 183

	Ratification	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	2	2	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	9
Burkina Faso	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
Cameroon	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Egypt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ethiopia	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	5
Ghana	0	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	16
Madagascar	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	20
Mozambique	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	17
South Africa	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	14
Tanzania	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	6
Tunisia	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	6
Uganda	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=24
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

⁹ For an appreciation of the progressive nature of ILO Convention 183 (2000), references can be made to its predecessor treaties of 1919 (Convention 3) and 1952 (Convention 103). In the former treaty, maternity leave benefits excluded women who were working in family undertakings (Article 3) and prescribed maternity leave covered only a period of six weeks after confinement (Article 3 (a)). An improvement was made in the second, using the words *maternity leave* for the first time and extending the period of maternity leave to 12 weeks (including a period of compulsory leave after confinement) in Convention 183.

¹⁰ See <http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/convdisp1.htm>

Lack of ratifications notwithstanding, laws and policies on maternity protection are in place in most countries due as stated to the earlier influence of previous Conventions.

Five countries (Benin, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique and Uganda) report of functional institutional mechanisms dealing with the issue. Eight countries - Benin, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda - have various levels of budgetary allocation in place, while only two (Madagascar and Tunisia) demonstrate full human resource capacity.

The performances of countries also appear weak with respect to the development of plans, targets, research, involvement of civil society, information and dissemination, and monitoring and evaluation. Eight countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda) indicate the absence of plans and clear targets of implementation.

Box 6.6

Maternity protection in Madagascar

To protect women from discrimination due to maternity, the Labour Code, Act No. 2003-044 of 28 July 2004, Article 94, provides that a female applicant for employment need not reveal that she is pregnant and “a pregnancy shall not be grounds for termination of an employment contract during the probation period.”

Article 95 further provides that no employer shall cancel the employment contract of a female wage earner whose pregnancy has been medically established.

Article 97 of the Labour Code provides that at the time of her delivery, any woman has the right to take fourteen consecutive weeks off work, including eight weeks after delivery, such interruption of service not being regarded as cause for termination of her contract. During this period the employer cannot dismiss her.

In addition, Article 98 provides that for a period of fifteen (15) months after the birth of the child the mother is entitled to breaks for the purpose of breast feeding. The total duration of these breaks, which are paid at the employee’s regular hourly rate, cannot exceed one hour per working day. During this period, the mother may break her contract without notice and without therefore having to pay an indemnity for breach of contract.

Source: *Madagascar State Party Report, 2008:71*

“The performances of countries also appear weak with respect to the development of plans, targets, research, involvement of civil society, information and dissemination, and monitoring and evaluation.”

ILO Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work

The objective of the ILO Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS (2001) is to provide a set of guidelines to address the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the world of work within the framework of the promotion of decent work (Section 1). Although not a legally binding instrument, countries are expected to give effect to its contents in national laws, policies and programmes of action in consultation with social partners; work-

place/enterprise agreements, and workplace policies and plans of action (Section 2). Gender equality constitutes one of its core principles (Box 6.7) and is therefore critical in the consideration of women's economic rights.

“AWPS indicators measure the extent to which countries have created the necessary enabling environment for the Code's implementation.”

Box 6.7

Principle of gender equality expressed in the ILO CoP

The gender dimensions of HIV/AIDS should be recognized. Women are more likely to become infected and are more often adversely affected by the HIV/AIDS epidemic than men due to biological, socio-cultural, and economic reasons. The greater the gender discrimination in societies and the lower the position of women, the more negatively they are affected by HIV. Therefore, more equal gender relations and the empowerment of women are vital to successfully prevent the spread of HIV infection and enable women to cope with HIV/AIDS.

Source: Section 4.3 of the CoP

By taking account of women's greater vulnerability to HIV infection and the gendered implications of the HIV/AIDS epidemic on the work force, the Code calls on countries to mainstream gender perspectives in the design of workplace programmes and policies. Employers are to initiate specific programs to educate women about their rights (Article 6.3) and ensure that educational and training programmes include strategies on income supplementation (Article 6.5.c). It further recognizes that women normally undertake the major part of caring for those with AIDS-related illnesses and advocates that programs should recognize these circumstances, as well as the needs of pregnant women, and children, who because of having dropped out of school and/or the loss of one or both parents have become vulnerable to sexual exploitation (Article 9.8.a).

AWPS indicators measure the extent to which countries have created the necessary enabling environment for the Code's implementation. The results, which are presented in Table 6.12 below, show that laws on the Codes' implementation are in place in only four countries: Burkina Faso, Mozambique, South Africa, and Tunisia, while seven (Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia) have policy commitments in place. With the exception of Burkina Faso, Egypt and Uganda, countries have developed or are in the process of developing plans.

Table 6.12**Analysis of country scores on the Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	0	13
Burkina Faso	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Cameroon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	13
Egypt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ethiopia	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	12
Ghana	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	14
Madagascar	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	17
Mozambique	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	18
South Africa	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	16
Tanzania	0	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	15
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Ghana, Madagascar, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania Benin, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Mozambique, and Tunisia all have different levels of institutional, financial and human resource arrangements in place. Three countries (Burkina Faso, Egypt, and Uganda) however earn 0 in respect of human resource allocation. In addition, the majority have conducted various forms of research into HIV/AIDS in the world of work. However, monitoring and evaluation appears to be extremely weak with only Cameroon, Mozambique and Tunisia obtaining maximum scores.

Engendering development planning

The Introduction has pinpointed the dividends that can be reaped from MDG-based development planning and how this can be strengthened by the monitoring system which the AGDI affords. The period 1995 and beyond has witnessed the preparation of PRSPs among an estimated 48 African countries as main frameworks for poverty reduction and entry points for Multi-Donor Budget Support (MDBS). Governments have played lead roles in the design of these frameworks through participatory processes involving civil society and development partners, including

“ In addition, the majority have conducted various forms of research into HIV/AIDS in the world of work. ”

“
The strategy also advocates for gender analysis of resource allocation and more equitable distribution of these resources.
”

the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Although various agencies, such as the World Bank, have been supportive of gender inclusiveness in participation and content of PRSPs, experience is demonstrating the importance of monitoring these steps in order to ensure that lip service is not paid to gender mainstreaming.

Countries such as Egypt and South Africa, which have National Development Plans in place of PRSPs, tend to address the problem of poverty within a wider set of developmental strategies at various levels of government.

National efforts to address poverty are supported by the regional framework of the NEPAD which identifies poverty reduction as a key element in tackling developmental challenges in Africa, and targets women's economic empowerment and their greater role in development efforts. At the institutional level, the African Union is laying more emphasis on Africa's economic development and its integration into the international economic system, with a view to eradicating poverty.

The implementation strategy for the BPfA Outcome and Way Forward adopted by African Ministers and experts in October 2005 in Dakar identifies strategic actions to ensure women's economic empowerment. These include: 'strengthening the gender analytic capacity of macro-economists at all levels; greater involvement of gender analysts in redefining economic concepts, approaches and methodologies of collecting data on economic activities, so as to include women's unpaid work; and mainstreaming gender into macro-economic policies so that they recognize and support women's activities in the informal and subsistence sectors'. The strategy also advocates for gender analysis of resource allocation and more equitable distribution of these resources. This would increase women's access to business opportunities and decision-making in economic activities, such as trade and investment, and gender analysis of the impact of macroeconomic policies, programmes and measures.

The indicator of the AWPS measures the extent to which governments have adopted policy commitments to mainstream gender into their PRSPs, and whether the measures and strategies proposed are being implemented with the needed tools. The results, presented in Table 6.13 demonstrate that policy commitments to address feminized poverty through engendering national PRSPs tend to be high.

Table 6.13**Analysis of country scores on PRSP processes**

	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	13
Burkina Faso	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	16
Cameroon	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	6
Egypt	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	19
Ethiopia	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	0	12
Ghana	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	16
Madagascar	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
Mozambique	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	17
South Africa	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	9
Tanzania	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	14
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Uganda	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	14

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

In United Republic of Tanzania, the Ministries of Planning and Privatization and Finance have provided guidelines to all sector ministries on mainstreaming gender into their budgets, including those related to poverty reduction. Gender mainstreaming is also considered within the framework of the Public Expenditure Review processes at both central and decentralized levels (Box 6.8).

The national development planning method of Egypt integrates gender into the two five-year plans for socio-economic development covering 2002- 2007 and 2007-2012 with the active participation of the National Council for Women (NCW). The 2002-2007 five-year plan doubles appropriations for projects and programmes targeting women compared to the previous national plan. The government has begun to adopt planning and general budget concepts that integrate gender. Based on its mandates, the NCW monitors the implementation of these programmes, evaluates their impact on the situation of women in Egypt on an annual basis, and submits its remarks to the concerned agencies. Through these processes, it has succeeded in developing gender-sensitive policies and programs, such as the reduction of female illiteracy, provided greater access to basic social services and improved programs related to women's health.

“ Gender mainstreaming is also considered within the framework of the Public Expenditure Review processes at both central and decentralized levels.”

Box 6.8

United Republic of Tanzania and PRSP gender mainstreaming

“All countries have also taken concrete steps to translate such commitments into action through the development of plans.”

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty of United Republic of Tanzania (2005) identifies three major clusters of poverty reduction outcomes namely: Growth and reduction of income poverty; Improvement of quality of life and social well-being; and Good governance. Some of the specific measures that will contribute to women's advancement and the Convention's implementation include the following:

Cluster 1: Growth and reduction of income poverty

- Reduced proportion of rural population (men and women) below the basic needs poverty line from 38.6 per cent in 2000/01 to 24 per cent in 2010.
- Reduced proportion of rural food poor (men and women) from 27 per cent in 2000/01 to 14 per cent by 2010.
- Reduced proportion of the urban population (men and women) below the basic needs poverty line from 25.8 per cent in 2000/01 to 12.9 per cent in 2010.

Cluster 2: Improvement of quality of life and social well-being

- Increased gross and net enrolment of boys and girls including children with disabilities in primary schools from 90.5 per cent in 2004 to 99 per cent in 2010.
- At least 60 per cent of girls and boys pass standard VII examinations by 2010.
- At least 25 per cent of boys and girls are enrolled in advance level secondary schools by 2010.

Cluster 3: Governance and Accountability

- Improved personal and material security, reduced crime, elimination of sexual abuse and domestic violence.

Source: National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty of United Republic of Tanzania, 2005

The revised Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) of Uganda emphasizes gender as a cross cutting dimension. Progress has been registered in mainstreaming gender in agriculture, road, education, justice, law and order sector and health sectors of the PEAP.

Similarly, Ethiopia's poverty reduction programme, the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty, incorporates the country's National Action Plan for Gender Equality.

All countries have also taken concrete steps to translate such commitments into action through the development of plans. Benin, for example, has in place a two-year Action Plan (2007-2009) which is aimed at ensuring access to credit for women, implementing the national policy on the advancement of women, supporting wom-

en's associations engaged in income-generating activities, providing education and training of women and girls, protecting women and girls from harmful practices and promoting their rights. Egypt's National Five-Year Plan (2005-2010) places key emphasis on the feminization of poverty and economic empowerment of women. Similarly, Mozambique's sectoral programmes on education, health, agriculture, infrastructure and good governance contained in the national PRSP addresses issues of women's advancement.

Benin, Cameroon, Egypt, Mozambique and United Republic of Tanzania have various targets in place. In United Republic of Tanzania, for example, the PRSP aimed to achieve gender equality in primary and secondary education by 2005 and also envisaged reducing Maternal Mortality from 529 per 100,000 live births (1996) to 450 by 2003. The government extended the PRSP objectives into its PRSP II; designated the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (2005-2010).

All countries report of the existence of institutional mechanisms. Benin, for example, has established National and Departmental Commissions for the Protection of Women within the framework of implementation of its PRSP. In addition, the government has assigned two gender focal points to each sector ministry. Egypt reports that the NCW is responsible for addressing gender and poverty issues, working in cooperation with all the relevant ministries to ensure that planning strategies integrate gender sensitive activities that enhance women's capabilities to fully participate in the national economy. In particular, the country has directed efforts towards providing assistance, such as training opportunities for female heads of households. The Council has also established the Women's Business Centre, designed to provide information and assistance to women to initiate or expand their businesses. In Uganda, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) is responsible for ensuring that gender is mainstreamed into strategies for poverty reduction.

Financial and human resources have been allocated in all countries, albeit insufficient as shown by the average performances. Benin, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda have undertaken different research activities in the field of gender and poverty. In United Republic of Tanzania, different nationwide surveys such as those of Household Budget Surveys and Labour Surveys have provided information on the gendered nature of poverty.

With World Bank guidelines on civil society participation in the preparation of PRSPs in place, all countries with the exception of Madagascar, note setting such processes in motion. Other sources such as Alternative Reports submitted by NGOs to the CEDAW Committee show that the inclusion of gender considerations in PRSPs has been largely due to consistent advocacy efforts by Civil Society Organisations in most countries. Similar degrees of commitments are shown with respect to

“*Financial and human resources have been allocated in all countries, albeit insufficient as shown by the average performances.*”

“Currently, the government is also seeking to improve the quality and frequency of data collection and monitoring outcomes, especially at the regional level.”

information dissemination and monitoring and evaluation. Egypt justifies its score of 2 in the latter on the basis of the direct involvement of the NCW in monitoring and evaluation interventions of other ministries, institutions and organisations. Currently, the government is also seeking to improve the quality and frequency of data collection and monitoring outcomes, especially at the regional level. The NCW has undertaken a revision of indicators being used to monitor and evaluate gender-related interventions and in their place has introduced new typological indicators in future activities.¹¹

Box 6.9

Gender mainstreaming in the PRSP of Ethiopia

The Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (2006-2010) is the current Ethiopia's 5-year poverty reduction programme. It addresses gender concerns under the following four pillars:

1. Enhance Rapid Economic Growth
Enhance Women and Girls Economic Empowerment;
Enhance the Role and Benefits of Women in Environmental Management and Protection.
2. Improved Human Development
Promote equal access and success in education and training for women and girls;
Improve women and girls' Reproductive Rights, Health and HIV and AIDS status.
3. Democratization and Governance
Reduce Violence against women and girls and improve their Human Rights;
Increase women's access to all levels of decision-making, in particular in political and public spheres.
4. Improved Public Institutional Performance
Implement a gender-based analysis and approach in all government departments and support institutional mechanisms for gender mainstreaming.

Source: Ethiopia Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty, 2002. Pp 122-125

Further efforts are needed to generate gender-sensitive and sex-disaggregated data for proper monitoring, the creation of effective mechanisms at the early stages of Poverty Reduction Strategy formulation, the involvement of civil society and the securing of adequate financial and human resource allocation.

Access to agricultural extension services

The assumption that farmers are men in most African countries (Gilbert *et al*, 2002) and the tendency of agricultural ministries to be biased towards commercial and export agriculture where men dominate has led to the marginalisation of women in the provision of extension services. This indicator, therefore, measures government

11 CEDAW/C/EGY/7/2008:6-7.

performance in lifting barriers to women's adequate access to agricultural extension services.

The results, which are presented in Table 6.14 show that all countries with the exception of Madagascar have developed policies that relate to women's access to technology. Cameroon has created a National Programme for Agricultural Extension Services and Agricultural Research, which provides proximity services to women, while Tunisia has included a strategy on extending advisory services in agriculture and handicrafts to rural women in its 10th Development Plan (2002-2006). Benin also shows that priority is given to women's access to agricultural technologies in its rural development policy adopted in July 1991.

Cameroon highlights progress being made in increasing female staff among agricultural extension service providers and the elaboration of a legal framework for protecting the rights of women producers during the procurement of agricultural inputs. Burkina Faso indicates that its National Plan of Action and provision on gender in the National Agricultural Services Programme are specifically designed for women in agriculture, although the plan has only been partially implemented due to lack of funding.

“The tendency of agricultural ministries to be biased towards commercial and export agriculture where men dominate has led to the marginalisation of women in the provision of extension services.”

Table 6.14
Analysis of country scores on agriculture extension services

	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	14
Burkina Faso	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	16
Cameroon	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12
Egypt	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	6
Ethiopia	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Ghana	2	2	2	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	16
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	16
South Africa	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	4
Tanzania	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	5
Tunisia	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Uganda	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	15

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=20
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

“Grassroots farmer interest groups, such as small women’s groups and farmers’ forums at sub-county level have been initiated to take account of special interests.”

Tunisia indicates that the Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for carrying out gender-based agricultural extension services, initially financed in 1988 by the World Bank. There are currently 15 on-going projects which provide agricultural services, health care and handicraft training programmes for rural women. In Uganda, the Plan for the Modernization of Agriculture (2000) recognizes the promotion of gender equity as a catalyst to the agricultural transformation process. It appreciates and recognizes the gender division of labour and need to increase women’s productivity and incomes through access to relevant agricultural extension services. The National Agricultural Advisory Services also acknowledges the pivotal role of women in agriculture, their limited economic opportunities, lack of ownership and access to productive assets, low participation in decision-making and high workload. The programme aims at developing a demand driven, client-oriented and farmer-led agricultural service-delivery system that targets the rural poor and women, with 30 per cent of service beneficiaries being women’s groups.

Ghana has a Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy (GADS) in place, which addresses “the causes and effects of gender inequity” within the agricultural sector (GADS, 2001:9). However, the strategy has not taken firm root due to factors such as the on-going unified extension delivery system and the limited capacity of the male-dominated extension staff to implement it. A recent evaluation of the GADS indicates that the process of gender mainstreaming has been slow, observing critically that, “to start with, a fair percentage of Ministry of Food and Agriculture staff, especially those below the level of senior management, claim they have not heard of or seen the GADS since it was launched in 2004” (Opare *et al*, 2008:40).

Institutional mechanisms are in place in most countries. Some governments have set up specific units within their Ministries of Agriculture (Ghana and Tunisia) and the Department of Extension Services (Burkina Faso) to implement programmes targeting women. In Uganda, various programmes are aimed at supporting women’s better access to agricultural extension services. Grassroots farmer interest groups, such as small women’s groups and farmers’ forums at sub-county level have been initiated to take account of special interests.

With the exception of Tunisia the allocation of financial resources seems to be either lacking or inadequate in all countries. The same may be said of human resource allocation of which only Ghana and Tunisia show maximum commitment. Benin cites lack of financial and adequate number of trained personnel as the main reasons for its failure to effectively implement gender-specific extension services.

Most countries have also conducted research into the field of access to technology and of those which have, four: Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana and Tunisia have done so in specific relation to women. Burkina Faso reports having conducted some research work specifically dealing with the concerns of women farmers, while in Tunisia,

the agency responsible for carrying out agricultural advisory and training services conducts studies and surveys beforehand to assess needs, identify target groups and design more focused interventions.

Performance with regard to civil society involvement tends to attract lower scores among countries, showing the limited involvement of such agencies in the provision of agricultural services. Burkina Faso notes specifically that farmers associations are given the option of choosing their own service providers. However, Uganda scores 2 on the basis that the government supports NGOs in their efforts to tackle poverty among women through the provision of credit, advice, training and research. Collaboration has therefore been sought with agencies such as the Uganda Women Entrepreneur's Association, Uganda Women Finance Trust, Association of Uganda Professional Women in Agriculture, Uganda National Farmers Association and the Council for Economic Empowerment of Women.

With the exception of Egypt, Ethiopia and Madagascar, countries have instituted different forms of information and dissemination activities. Burkina Faso has initiated meetings and workshops on women's access to agricultural extension services at regional level in local languages, while Tunisia uses media outlets (radio and televised programmes) as its main channels of communication.

Five countries (Egypt, Ethiopia, Madagascar, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania) do not have effective monitoring and evaluation systems to track progress in women's access to agricultural extension services. Burkina Faso has designed and is utilising specific monitoring and evaluation indicators, while Benin has designated the Office of Programming and Forecasting of the Ministry of Agriculture as its responsible institution for monitoring and evaluating programme implementation.

Access to technology

The 'Tunis Commitment' of the 2005 World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS) reaffirms 'the desire and commitment of the international community to build a people-centred, inclusive and development-oriented information society which allows all people to achieve their full potential and to attain internationally-agreed development goals and objectives.'¹² The Commitment recognizes gender as part of the digital divide in society and reaffirms support for women's empowerment and gender equality. It further acknowledges that women's full participation in the information society is necessary to ensure inclusiveness and respect for human rights. It, therefore, obligates stakeholders to support women's participation in decision-making processes and to contribute to shaping all spheres of the information society at international, regional and national levels.¹³

12 Paragraph 1 of the Tunis Commitment.

13 Paragraph 23 of the Tunis Commitment.

“
The Commitment recognizes gender as part of the digital divide in society and reaffirms support for women's empowerment and gender equality.”

“
The Beijing +5
outcomes also
stress that equal
access of women
to science and
technology is
a fundamental
and necessary
component of
development.”

Access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is also a priority area of Africa's development under the NEPAD initiative. Empirical research, including the 2001 Human Development Report (UNDP) ¹⁴ emphasizes the potential of new technologies, including ICTs, for human development and poverty reduction. Such potential is exemplified by various applications for information exchange, education-capacity building, health, employment creation and search, e-commerce and the promotion of rights, among others. The Beijing +5 outcomes also stress that equal access of women to science and technology is a fundamental and necessary component of development.

All countries focus on ICT within the context of agriculture and food technology in their assessments. Benin, Egypt, Mozambique, Tunisia and Uganda indicate maximum scores in relation to policy commitment to bridging gender gaps in access to technology (Table 6.15). Benin's policy implementation has resulted in the creation of an agency for the promotion of new technologies which provides ICT training for women at subsidised rates. Following a request from the NCW, the Ministry of Information and Communication in Egypt established an independent centre to address common gender concerns and ensure that they are mainstreamed into all ICT development plans. Uganda has developed an ICT Policy¹⁵ and a draft Telecommunications Sector Policy that recognizes the importance of gender mainstreaming and access to information by disadvantaged groups.¹⁶ Similarly, Mozambique has adopted an information policy that seeks to mainstream gender into ICT in addition to harnessing the potential of ICT to bridge gender gaps in various areas, including access to business opportunities and training. The Information and Communication Technology Policy of Ethiopia (2002) makes special references to women and to the use of ICTs for capacity development and empowerment of women.

With the exception of Benin, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana and Madagascar, countries have ICT plans in place. Egypt highlights the gender provisions in its Information Society Initiative which promotes increased access to information and training, especially among women and the youth. The plan's targets include equal training and job opportunities for women and men and women's increased participation in the fields of information technology and e-commerce. The NCW also provides access to technology through its Women's Business Development Centre, by assisting women business owners and conducting various training programs to enhance the IT skills of young female high school and university graduates.

¹⁴ See UNDP, 2001. *Making new technologies work for human development*.

¹⁵ Ministry of Works, Housing and Communications (2003) National Information and Communication Technology Policy.

¹⁶ Ministry of Works, Housing and Communications, 2003, pp 33 and Uganda Communications Commission, 2005, pp 89, respectively, quoted by the AGDI Report of Uganda, 2005.

Table 6.15**Analysis of country scores on access to technology**

	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
Burkina Faso	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	6
Cameroon	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	8
Egypt	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Ethiopia	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
Ghana	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	17
South Africa	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	13
Tanzania	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	8
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Uganda	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	13

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=20
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

In South Africa, the Department of Communications in the Presidential National Commission has a gender focal point with a clear gender-mainstreaming mandate and links with the *social cluster* of the Department. The cluster is an interdepartmental mechanism within the Department of Communications that deals with economic and social issues and policy. The gender focal point also has an earmarked budget and five dedicated staff members. The role of this position is to facilitate interaction with civil society organizations at the ICT projects level, as well as in activities such as conferences, workshops and research on women/gender and ICT.

With the exception of policy commitment, which may have been renewed with the coming into being of the WSIS framework, overall scores for all other measurements appear very low.

“The gender focal point also has an earmarked budget and five dedicated staff members.”

““ Land rights are central to women’s economic and social empowerment as land is a vital means of production and serves as security for accessing credit and agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilizers.””

Box 6.10

Mozambique’s support to women in ICT

In Mozambique, the Council of Ministers approved a national Information policy through Resolution 28/2000 of 12th December 2000. The Resolution highlights the following:

- The integration of gender perspectives in information and communication technology;
- The use of ICT as an instrument for reducing gender inequalities in access to opportunities in various areas;
- Special training programmes for young people and girls;
- Promoting the use of the Internet and e-commerce to facilitate women’s and young people’s access to business opportunities; and
- Promoting the creation of electronic networks and websites among organizations and associations working for the advancement of women and young people.

Source: Mozambique AGDI country report, 2005

Equal access to land

Land rights are central to women’s economic and social empowerment as land is a vital means of production and serves as security for accessing credit and agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilizers. The BPfA calls on governments ‘to revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women’s equal rights and access to economic resources... including the rights to inheritance and to ownership of land and other property’. Given their predominance in the agricultural sector, Article 14 of CEDAW also stresses the importance of rural women’s access to land. The Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality of African Heads of States (2004) further invites governments to promote and implement legislation to guarantee women’s property and inheritance with specific reference to land.

This indicator measures whether women have equal access and control over land and further assesses government efforts to enact laws, adopt policies and plans, allocate resources and monitor women’s adequate access to land. The results are shown in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16
Analysis of country scores in access to land

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	12
Burkina Faso	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	8
Cameroon	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Egypt	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	0	13
Ethiopia	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Ghana	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	17
Madagascar	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	4
Mozambique	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	19
South Africa	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	15
Tanzania	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	9
Tunisia	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	6
Uganda	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	8

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

The pilot study results show that all countries have developed diverse legislative initiatives. Ethiopia, for example, reports of the existence of provisions within its Federal Constitution and Federal Land Administration laws, which ensure women's equal access to land. Ghana has a law to protect the security of tenure of existing and future land users and proprietors (Land Title Registration Law of 1986). It also has in place an inheritance law which seeks to protect the nuclear family from deprivation of property on the death of a spouse and parent (Intestate Succession Law of 1985).¹⁷

In Madagascar, married women are granted equal rights to land and property on equal terms as their husbands with respect to purchase, sale, inheritance, mortgage and divorce. The law includes a provision on financial compensation to the woman in situations where she has contributed to the matrimonial wealth without registering the property under her name.

Among some ethnic groups in Benin, customary laws are discriminatory towards women in land inheritance and are viewed as being exclusively a male right. The

“The pilot study results show that all countries have developed diverse legislative initiatives.”

¹⁷ This law also ensures equal rights of inheritance of male and female children.

“
Scores on financial and human resource allocation for the enforcement of women’s access to land tend to be low, with no country attaining the maximum score under either indicator.
”

government seeks to respond to this by introducing a new Family Code that would grant equal inheritance rights to both males and females. In addition, the draft law on Rural Land and Property Code provides equal access to land regardless of gender, thus creating an opportunity for women living in rural areas to own and administer land. In Tunisia, although the legal framework does not discriminate between men and women, religious principles hinder equal access to land, particularly through inheritance. Similarly in Cameroon, customary laws do not allow women to claim their rights to land, despite the fact that national legislation grants equal access to both sexes.

Three countries (Ghana, Mozambique and South Africa) demonstrate full policy commitment. In South Africa, the White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997) developed by the Department of Land Affairs places emphasis on the removal of legal restrictions on women’s access to land, including those related to marriage, inheritance and customary laws. It also addresses women’s participation in decision-making processes related to land. Benin intends to ensure women’s access to land and reformation of the existing land law in its policy statement on rural development of July 2001, while the Burkina Faso policy on Decentralized Rural Development of September 2000 provides for affirmative action targeting vulnerable sections of the population, particularly widowed women.

Although the scores show poorly, plans and targets are either in place or are in various stages of development in most countries. Benin’s Rural Land Programme targets women’s right to inheritance and their access to rural land and micro credit. It also provides a framework for reviewing the current land distribution and information dissemination. In South Africa, women are a ‘beneficiary target group’ of the Land Redistribution Programme aimed at transferring 30 per cent of agricultural land from white to black ownership over a period of 15 years.

With the exception of Cameroon and Madagascar, countries have established institutional mechanisms. Those of Benin and Burkina Faso have the mandate of ensuring the integration of gender concerns into land management programmes. The Egyptian Ministry of Agriculture and Land Reclamation facilitates access to land by rural women in addition to the provision of training and information, among other services. The Principal Bank for Development and Agricultural Credit of that country also has various assistance programs for women in place. It charges interest rates on the basis of the type of loan, its purpose, and access to technical assistance.

Scores on financial and human resource allocation for the enforcement of women’s access to land tend to be low, with no country attaining the maximum score under either indicator. Benin however reports of the operation of a separate budget line within the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries, used for the promotion of women’s access to land. Six countries (Benin, Egypt, Ghana, Mozambique,

South Africa and Uganda) have undertaken, or are in the process of undertaking related research. Egypt notes however that it encountered difficulties during its survey because farmers tended to under-report issues such as their production and income levels due to fear of taxation and government control.

Most countries have also taken steps to involve Civil Society Organizations and have embarked upon information and dissemination programmes in varying degrees. In South Africa, the sub-directorate on gender works with the Department of Land Affairs Communication section to produce materials in local languages specifically aimed at women with regard to land access. Nine countries (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda) cite lack of gender-sensitive and sex-disaggregated data as the main impediment to proper monitoring and they also demonstrate limited capacity for monitoring and evaluation as shown by their scores.

Box 6.11

Case studies on land access interventions

Ethiopia

The Federal Constitution and Federal Land Administration laws include provisions that ensure women's equal access to land. The Federal Constitution (1995) states that: Women shall, in the enjoyment of rights and protections provided for by this Constitution, have equal rights with men (Article 35 (1)); Women have the right to acquire, administer, control, use and transfer property. In particular, they have equal rights with men with respect to use, transfer, administration and control of land. They shall also enjoy equal treatment in the inheritance of property (Article 35 (7)).

South Africa

The Department of Land and Agriculture issued a White Paper on South African Land Policy in 1997. It places emphasis on the removal of legal restrictions on women's access to land, including marriage, inheritance and customary laws, gender equity in land access and effective participation of women in decision-making procedures. The White Paper commits the Department of Land and Agriculture to promoting the use of 'gender-sensitive participatory methodologies in project identification and planning.' The Department of Land and Agriculture also adopted the 'Land Reform Gender Policy Framework' in 1997, 'aimed at creating an enabling environment for women to access, own control, use and manage land; as well as access credit for productive use of the land.' The White Paper on Land Policy aims to ensure tenure security and to develop the tenure system in accordance with constitutional principles.

Uganda

Through intense lobbying the Land (Amendment) Act 2004 has been passed to include sections that increase protection of the rights of women to own, use and inherit land. Section 40 prohibits the sale, transfer, exchange, pledge, mortgage or lease of family land except with prior consent of the spouse.

Sources: AGDI country reports, 2005

Some countries such as Ghana and South Africa, demonstrate intra-regional disparities in land access among women. In the former, land access tends to be high among the Ashanti (54 per cent), a matrilineal community, while a similar observation can be made of the Western Cape of South Africa (41.2 per cent).

“
What is more critical is that women are not accessing productive resources (land and credit) to the same extent as men in many countries.”

Despite the existence of initiatives in favour of gender equality in land ownership, various socio-cultural barriers prevent this from materialising. Discriminatory legislation continues to exist in some countries, while in others, the lack of harmony between customary and modern laws serves as an impediment to enforcing equal rights.

Critical conclusions and recommended actions

The analysis of the economic block, has underscored the need for African countries to improve upon data collection in relation to male and female participation in the economy. In particular, a case has been made for countries to invest in Time Use Surveys for a better appreciation of the division of time between productive and non-productive work. One immediate impression is the lack of consistency between the scores obtained under this block with those of the social block. In the latter, countries such as Egypt and Tunisia were seen to perform well in education enrolment and health delivery. By contrast, however, their showing in economic participation proved less impressive, indicating that certain social, religious and cultural factors potentially impede the economic advancement of women, regardless of educational status.

Findings have established the dominant position of the agricultural sector as the largest employer of both men and women and changing dynamics in roles in food and cash cropping due to the fluid nature of local and international markets. What is however clear from the findings is that the majority of female agricultural workers are unpaid family members on farms belonging to male owners and that only a few tend to be independent operatives. Women's earnings in this occupation, therefore, invariably tend to be lower than that of men or do not exist in all countries.

What is more critical is that women are not accessing productive resources (land and credit) to the same extent as men in many countries. It has been shown that the under utilization of women in agriculture has the potential to reverse gains in poverty reduction efforts. In the more formal environment of the civil service, the findings also point to lower earning capacities of women due to their location in lower employment echelons. Some of the challenges being presented in formal and informal employment arrangements are supposed to be dealt with under the legal and policy frameworks afforded to workers under various ILO Conventions, PRSPs and

interventions that would accelerate the current state of women's access to extension services, technology and land. The results however indicate limited performance in some of these areas, especially those pertaining to maternity rights, protection from the effects of HIV/AIDS, ICT advancement, and land access. It is on this account that the following proposals are made to African governments and their partners.

African governments should

Invest in pro-poor national development planning

- The potential of the poor, particularly women, should be recognized. Such disadvantaged groups should be regarded as resources and not barriers to economic growth.
- Undertake and implement MDG-responsive development. planning with the active involvement of civil society, in line with the 2005 MDG evaluation outcomes (Chapter 1).
- Document and address the monitoring and evaluation of the gender dimensions of all National Development Strategies.

Invest in research

- Conduct and support research to determine the causes of differential wage and income patterns of women and men in both the informal and formal sectors, based on ILO standards of ensuring that men and women are remunerated equally for work of equal value.
- Seek technical support from the ILO in the design of appropriate and acceptable research instruments and for the development of programmes that would secure the removal of existing imbalances.

Improve extension services

- Support further improvements in extension service delivery by building the required institutional capacity (including the training and recruitment of female technical staff), to reduce the ratio between extension agents and female farmers, conduct relevant research, strengthen sex-disaggregated data collection, civil society participation, information dissemination and monitoring and evaluation of such services.

Information, Communication and Technology

- Raise awareness of the importance of giving women access to ICT at both rural and urban levels. This should be based on and backed by appropriate

“The potential of the poor, particularly women, should be recognized.”

policies, laws, pilot schemes involving the promotion of ICT products such as the use of mobile phones and the internet for productive activities.

Equal access to land

“
Strengthen
institutions
responsible for
implementing
land reform
programmes.”

- Review existing legal frameworks protecting women's access to land with the view to removing discriminatory provisions, which work against their interests.
- In collaboration with traditional and religious authorities and women's groups, embark upon a comprehensive review of customary and religious norms which serve as barriers to women's equal rights to land (c.ref. Chapter 2).
- Strengthen institutions responsible for implementing land reform programmes and provide them with the capacity to appreciate gender concerns associated with customary land distribution (e.g. customary inheritance practices).
- Encourage and provide support to CSOs to increase their assistance to women to seek redress against discrimination in access and control over land.
- Sensitise Judges on emerging issues affecting women's land rights and promote the use of international treaties and other frameworks in judicial decision making.

The African Union, development partners and civil society should

Recognise and promote women's non-market work

- Advocate for the appreciation and valuing of women's non-market work by engendering national accounts and budgets.
- Address the disproportionate time burdens on women in non-productive work through the provision of appropriate services and facilities, especially at rural level, including improvements in public goods such as water sources, in transport day care centres and health facilities.
- Design and implement effective linkages with local universities to develop appropriate local technologies that would accelerate the reduction of drudgeries associated with household food processing, and transportation of heavy loads and other domestic activities predominantly performed by women.



African Women's Agency and Decision-Making

Introduction

Participation of women in decision-making has consistently been at the centre of the global agenda since the adoption of the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women in 1985. The Outcome and Way Forward of the Decade Review of the implementation of the BPfA in 2004-2005 acknowledges positive trends in the governance area in Africa, facilitated by the increasing consolidation of democracy on the continent.

These developments have created new avenues for increasing women's access to political power. The election of Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf of Liberia as the first female African Head of State in 2005 was a milestone in women's representation at the highest level of national decision-making. Some countries (e.g. Mozambique, South Africa, Rwanda and Uganda), have reached the BPfA target of 30 per cent or more of women's representation in Parliament. Rwanda has made even more significant moves with a record level of 48.8 per cent (in the lower house), surpassing the Scandinavian average of 40 per cent. The Government of Mozambique uses a quota system (30 per cent minimum at all levels) to ensure fair representation of women in politics. Mozambique is as such a test case of substantial progress, with their representation in Parliament at 38 per cent in addition to their female occupancy of the offices of Prime Minister and Vice-President of the Parliament, respectively.

Similarly, in numerous African countries women hold or have held positions traditionally regarded as male preserves. This has been the case in Mozambique (Prime Minister (as already noted) and Foreign Affairs); The Gambia (Vice President); Uganda (Vice-President and Finance Minister); Zimbabwe (Vice-President); Ethiopia (Deputy Speakers and Assistant Whips); South Africa (Deputy President); Ghana (Attorney General, Chief Justice, Trade Minister, and Speaker of Parliament); Nigeria (Ministers of Finance, Drug and Narcotics, Foreign Affairs); Liberia (Finance, Foreign Affairs and Trade); Niger (Foreign Affairs); and Senegal (Trade).

Despite these developments, gender equality and equity principles are yet to be fully integrated into democratization processes, structures of power and decision-making. The political power block of the AGDI measures levels of gender equality in politics and decision-making as both a question of human rights and a democratic and

“Rwanda has made even more significant moves with a record level of 48.8 per cent (in the lower house), surpassing the Scandinavian average of 40 per cent.”

“
Decision-making in the public arena tends to mirror the situation at African household level.
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socio-economic imperative. The promotion of gender balance and equality in the governance and development processes and the promotion of gender equality in public and private institutions as the AGDI investigates, underpin the objectives and principles of the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (2007) (Articles. 2 (11) and 3 (6)).

In discussing participation in formal arenas, cognisance is also to be taken of the complexities associated with decision-making at the household/family level, where gender relations is best observed. It is at this level that issues of disposal of family income (discussed in Chapter 6); number and timing of children; use of family planning methods, and related family matters are discussed. It is also to be pointed out that decision-making in the public arena tends to mirror the situation at African household level.¹

Overview of the GSI of the political block

The GSI of the political block measures gender participation at both public and private levels. In the public sector, the emphasis is on membership in Parliament, Cabinet, higher levels of the judiciary, local councils, and higher positions of the civil service (including government institutions, regional governors and ambassadorial posts). In the latter category, the focus of attention is on senior positions within political parties, trade unions, employers associations, professional syndicates, NGOs and CBOs.

It will be seen that the GSI and AWPS scores for this block are the lowest in comparison to that of the social and economic blocks previously discussed. The outcomes indicate that African women lag far behind men in the arena of political power. The high number of blanks appearing in most of the tables in this chapter also underscores the limited investments in data collection in political participation.

The results of the field trials demonstrate the need for African leaders to invest more in women's participation, to meet the goal of gender equality and women's empowerment.

¹ The dynamics of decision-making at household level and how they are influenced by gender relations is a matter to be researched into separately.

The GSI: Public sector participation

The results under this heading are shown in Tables 7.1, 7.2, Figure 7.1 and discussed subsequently under the sub-headings (legislative, executive, judiciary, local, and civil service participation).

Table 7.1

Power and decision-making in the public sector component values

Share of total (in %)	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Members of Parliament	F	10.8	15.3	13.9	1.8	28.5	8.7	10.3	37.2	33.0	30.5	22.7	33.2
	M	89.2	84.7	86.1	98.2	71.5	91.3	89.7	62.8	67.0	69.5	77.3	66.8
Cabinet Ministers	F	9.1	11.1	10.1	9.1	13.0	21.1	19.0	25.9	42.8	25.5	13.6	20.0
	M	90.9	88.9	89.9	90.9	87.0	78.9	81.0	74.1	57.2	74.5	86.4	80.0
Higher Courts Judges	F	25.5	22.6	22.6	0.4	14.5	20.1	52.9	30.2	16.7	35.2	29.0	15.3
	M	74.5	77.4	77.4	99.6	85.5	79.9	47.1	69.8	83.3	64.8	71.0	84.7
Members of Local Councils	F	3.2	20.9	15.8	1.8	20.7	10.1	4.1	28.5	29.1	20.6	27.4	41.7
	M	96.8	79.1	84.2	98.2	79.3	89.9	95.9	71.5	70.9	79.4	72.6	58.3
Higher positions in Civil Service	F	11.1	5.7	17.1	25.3	21.1	12.8	2.4		16.7	19.3	25.5	21.5
	M	88.9	94.3	82.9	74.7	78.9	87.2	97.6		83.3	80.7	74.5	78.5

Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

Table 7.2

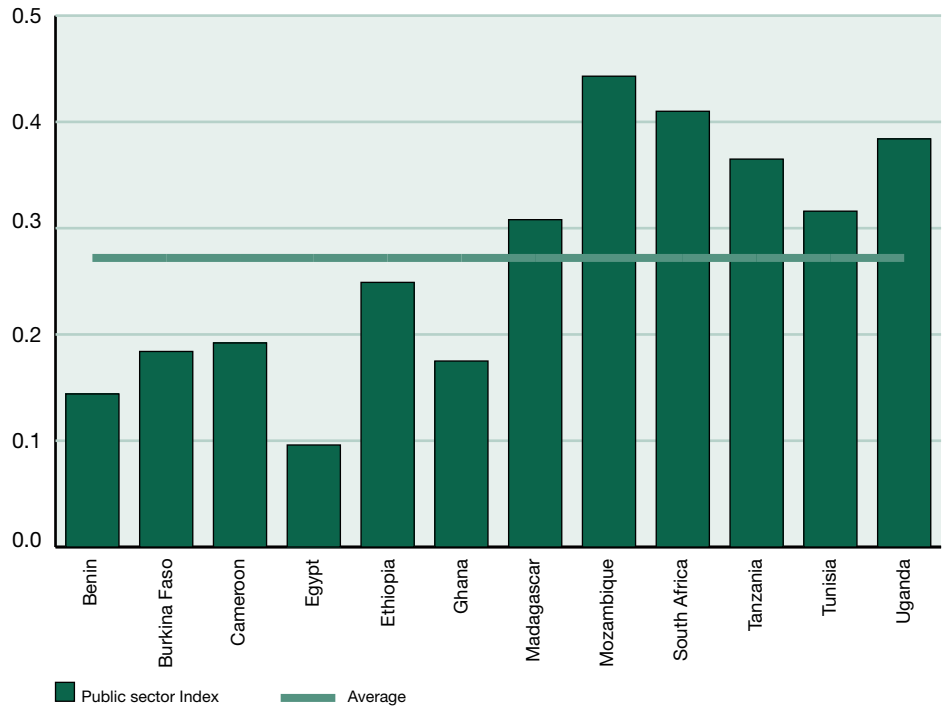
The GSI in Power and Decision-making in the Public sector

	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Members of Parliament	0.122	0.181	0.161	0.018	0.399	0.095	0.115	0.592	0.493	0.438	0.294	0.497	0.284
Cabinet Ministers	0.100	0.125	0.113	0.100	0.149	0.267	0.235	0.350	0.748	0.343	0.157	0.250	0.245
Higher Courts Judges	0.342	0.292	0.292	0.004	0.170	0.252	1.122	0.432	0.200	0.543	0.408	0.180	0.353
Members of Local Councils	0.033	0.264	0.187	0.018	0.261	0.112	0.043	0.398	0.411	0.259	0.377	0.716	0.257
Higher positions in Civil Service	0.125	0.060	0.206	0.339	0.267	0.147	0.024	-	0.200	0.238	0.342	0.274	0.202
Public sector Index	0.144	0.184	0.192	0.096	0.249	0.175	0.308	0.443	0.410	0.365	0.316	0.384	0.272

Sources: Based on Table 7.1

“Country reports also show that some electoral systems do not support the election of women.”

Figure 7.1
The public sector component for trial countries



Sources: Based on Table 7.1

Legislative participation

There are indications that fewer women than men are presented for electoral processes in situations where political parties do not have gender-sensitive policies, especially in nominating candidates for elections. Country reports also show that some electoral systems do not support the election of women, especially in societies where strong gender biases against women occupying decision-making positions persist. It has further been demonstrated that the murky nature of the political terrain, characterized often by cut-throat and “dirty linen” attacks on political figures, tend to stifle women’s effective participation. In addition, politics is an expensive process often times requiring substantial financial and human outlays which women tend not to have. Finally, women often simply have less time than men to devote to the networking required to build a political career due to their family and care responsibilities.

To address the limited participation of Egyptian women in political life, the NCW has established the Centre for the Political Empowerment of Women. The centre provides an intensive training programme for women wishing to participate in political life with assistance from the UNDP and the Government of the Netherlands. It

also cooperates with a number of NGOs in on-going campaigns to educate Egyptian society in general. The NCW holds an on-going dialogue with the political parties and women's committees in the labour unions and federations to encourage the participation of women in public life.

Although it is sometimes perceived that it is women themselves who do not take the initiative to enter into politics, trends in some countries (e.g. Ghana) demonstrate the lack of priority given to gender balancing (e.g. compared to ethnic balancing) in electioneering processes. Three election seasons in Ghana, show that only 32.2, 17.6 and 7.9 per cent of women who stood for parliamentary elections during the 1996, 2000 and 2008 electoral years obtained seats in the legislature and that the main considerations in the selection processes were ethnic, economic and political.²

Mozambique and South Africa's respective parliamentary participation indices of 0.592 and 0.493 show progressive developments and represent the highest scores among the 12 countries. Mozambique's high scores arose from the ruling party's use of the quota system (mentioned above) which is designed to ensure fair representation of women in politics.

Executive participation

The second public sector investigation relates to cabinet representation. All countries reflect scores that demonstrate disproportionately low levels of women in the highest decision-making body of the countries concerned. An important issue that is not covered by the indicators of gender equality in appointments into the cabinet, however, is the kind of ministries headed by women when compared to men. The former are traditionally appointed to ministries that are considered 'soft', such as health, education, social services, gender and human resources and rarely are they appointed to 'hard' ministries such as defence, justice, foreign affairs, economy, finance, trade and energy.

In South Africa, the representation of women in cabinet has steadily increased over the years. By 2008, women constituted 42.8 per cent of Ministers, which was a 200 per cent increase from 1997. Overall there has been a three-fold increase in the number of women ministers appointed from 1997 to 2008, a number of them holding critical cabinet portfolios historically associated with men. They include: Foreign Affairs, Public Works, Land and Agriculture and Justice and Constitutional Development. By 2008, women were also the holders of 40 per cent of deputy minister positions.

“*The second public sector investigation relates to cabinet representation.*”

² See CEDAW/C/GHA/3-5/2005. Para. 70.

“Country indices on appointments as judges of “higher courts” also highlight low visibility of women.”

Higher court appointments

Country indices on appointments as judges of “higher courts” also highlight low visibility of women. Only Madagascar achieves a situation in which women exceed men in this category. Low participation of women in the judiciary may be accounted for by factors such as lower levels of women’s access to specialised legal training, negative social attitudes, the prevalence of gender-insensitive appointing bodies and the general lack of interest that women may have towards judicial service.

Local council participation

The proportion of women in local councils is an important indicator of gender equality in decision-making in decentralised governance. Women’s participation levels in decision-making at local levels should ideally be higher than that pertaining at national levels given the closest platform they serve for the effective and sustained participation of women at community level. This is particularly important for rural women who, constituting the majority of the population, are the backbone of their economies and local level developmental efforts. The calculated indices, however, show that, on the contrary, in all countries women are grossly under-represented in local councils, with available data showing indices below 0.3 for the majority. Only Uganda shows a relatively encouraging index of 0.7 on this indicator, attributed to its affirmative action policy.

Participation in higher positions in the civil service

Gender equality in appointments to senior levels of the civil service determines the extent to which women are participating in the arena where public policy formulation and implementation take centre stage. Here again, the trend towards lower involvement of women is clearly discernible; only two countries, Egypt and Tunisia, have indices that are just above 0.3. Gender inequalities in the distribution of senior civil service positions is a reflection of gender biases that are entrenched in public sector employment policies that relate to recruitment, promotion, motivation, training and retention.³ In Ghana, the index for women’s employment in the service is quite high (0.8), but contrasts with the index for the proportion of those who are in decision-making positions. These outcomes show that most governments have not prioritized gender equality in decision-making at the level of policy-making and implementation. A case study of Madagascar is presented below in Table 7.3.

³ Some of these issues have been fully explained and explored in Chapter 6 under the sub-heading on *incomes*.

Table 7.3**Women and men in the public service 2007- 2008 Madagascar**

	No women	No of men	Total	% women	% men
Permanent secretaries/DG	15	68	83	18.1	81.9
Senior managers	54	205	259	20.8	79.2
Total	69	273	342	20.2	79.8

Source: Supplementary report of Madagascar, 2009:3

The reasons for women's low participation in public level decision-making spread across social, cultural, economic and political situations and are traced to the absence of political will, low economic resources to contest elections on the same basis as men and the low perception of women in the public eye.

The GSI: Civil society participation

The persisting observation with regard to the lack of data is also seen with respect to civil society participation. The findings which are presented in Tables 7.4 and 7.5 respectively, show the abysmal participation of women across all countries and in all areas for which data was available. Political parties, trade unions, employers associations, professional syndicates, NGO and CBO participation are all discussed below.

Table 7.4**Power and Decision-making in Civil Society Organisations Component Values**

Share of total (in %)	Sex	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
Political parties	F		12.3	2.5	4.0	4.6	11.8	5.3	0.0	25.3	4.3	14.0	15.3
	M		87.7	97.5	96.0	95.4	88.2	94.7	100.0	74.7	95.7	86.0	84.7
Trade unions	F	16.1	18.6		4.3	25.0	12.2		27.4	26.1	16.7	33.0	33.7
	M	83.9	81.4		95.7	75.0	87.8		72.6	73.9	83.3	67.0	66.3
Employers' associations	F	18.9	14.1			7.8	20.8	42.2		7.0	26.7	12.0	33.3
	M	81.1	85.9			92.2	79.2	57.8		93.0	73.3	88.0	66.7
Professional syndicates	F	15.8	25.7		2.0	18.6	13.2			30.4	6.3	1.0	18.5
	M	84.2	74.3		98.0	81.4	86.8			69.6	93.8	99.0	81.5
Heads or managers of NGOs	F	7.4	19.2			20.0	24.9	40.9	23.4	59.0	25.5	0.4	19.4
	M	92.6	80.8			80.0	75.1	59.1	76.6	41.0	74.5	99.6	80.6
Heads of community-based associations or unions	F	11.1	24.8			1.9	18.2	76.8					
	M	88.9	75.2			98.1	81.8	23.2					

Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

“Gender inequalities in the distribution of senior civil service positions is a reflection of gender biases that are entrenched in public sector employment policies.”

Table 7.5
Decision-making GSI in Civil Society Organizations

	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Political parties	-	0.140	0.025	0.042	0.049	0.395	0.056	0.000	0.338	0.045	0.163	0.180	0.130
Trade unions	0.192	0.228	-	0.045	0.333	0.139	-	0.378	0.353	0.200	0.493	0.508	0.287
Employers' associations	0.234	0.165	-	-	0.084	0.262	0.731	-	0.075	0.364	0.136	0.500	0.283
Professional syndicates	0.188	0.346	-	0.020	0.228	0.152	-	-	0.436	0.067	0.010	0.227	0.186
Heads or managers of NGOs	0.080	0.238	-	-	0.250	0.295	0.693	0.306	1.439	0.342	0.004	0.241	0.389
Heads of community-based associations or unions	0.125	0.330	-	-	0.020	0.364	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.210
Civil society Index	0.164	0.241	0.025	0.036	0.161	0.268	0.493	0.228	0.528	0.204	0.161	0.331	0.237

Sources: Based on Table 7.4

Political parties

The results show that there are insignificant proportions of women in leadership positions in political parties. Mozambique, for example, which has an index of over 0.5 for women in Parliament and an overall GSI of 0.4 in public sector participation, scores 0.0 for women in leadership positions in political parties. Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Madagascar and United Republic of Tanzania all have indices that are below 0.1. Reports demonstrate that nomination of candidates for elected public offices in most countries is the preserve of political parties, which generally do not take account of gender equality in their election processes. Outcomes therefore confirm that men dominate in decision-making positions in political parties in all countries. The near absence of women in decision-making in this critical area is an indication that they are largely excluded from shaping policies espoused by their political parties.

Trade unions

The trend of low participation of women in leadership positions is repeated in Trade Unions, with only Uganda attaining above 0.5 and Tunisia reaching almost the same point. These results are an indication that women are not adequately represented in decision-making areas which affect employment and wages.

Employers associations

The outcomes of the analysis on gender participation in employers' associations also serve as a proxy indicator of the general status of women as employers (see Chapter

6). While Uganda reflects a score of 0.5 similarly attained in trade unions, Madagascar has an over-average index of 0.7, showing that the numbers of women employers and own account workers could be rising. This is very much consistent with its employment GSI shown in Table 6.5 of Chapter 6, where it records a near parity value of 0.951. What needs to be established further are the levels (low, medium, large scale) at which women operate as employers. Against the background of limited data, the analysis demonstrates low performance overall, a trend reaffirming that women generally do not occupy influential positions in the economy; do not control the means of production; and are further not adequately represented in bodies that have control over resources that influence economic policy.

Senior positions in professional syndicates

The trend of very low participation of women in decision-making is repeated in professional syndicates. Except for South Africa, which records an index of 0.4 the remaining countries with data score very low. As with the low visibility of women in the judiciary, reasons for women's poor showing in this area may be due to the absence of a critical mass of women in professions such as law, medicine, engineering, architecture and pharmaceuticals. These outcomes could also be pointing out that in other countries such as Madagascar and Tunisia where higher levels of gender equality in tertiary enrolment are evident, females may not necessarily be opting for courses which are geared towards areas which have traditionally been the preserve of men.

Heads or managers of NGOs and CBOs

Gender parity in the management of NGOs and CBOs also demonstrates low performance. With the exception of South Africa which has an index of 1.4 (showing higher numbers of women than men), and Madagascar, demonstrating close to parity (approx. 0.7), the remaining countries show low indices, indicating that many civil society organizations are dominated by men. This tends to compromise the optimism expressed in the BPfA that the NGO sector is a potential tool for both the articulation of the interests and concerns of women in addition to being an alternate route to equality of access to power (para. 184).

The analysis of levels of women's participation in CBOs is also rendered complicated by the absence of data. Most countries indicated the challenge of distinguishing between NGOs and CBOs in their data collection and analysis. Only five present specific data on the indicator on CBOs and of these, Burkina Faso and Madagascar record indices above 0.3. The limited availability of specific data on CBOs, notwithstanding, it is possible to conclude that negative social perceptions about women in leadership are evident even at the community level, where women tend to be most socially and economically active.

The results show that there are insignificant proportions of women in leadership positions in political parties.

Overview of the AWPS of the political block

The GSI assessment on political participation is complemented by the AWPS which deals with specific qualitative issues. These are implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, the effectiveness and accessibility of national machineries, support for women's quotas and affirmative action, and gender mainstreaming across departments. The composite scores are presented in Table 7.6 and Figure 7.2 respectively.

“Conspicuous is the low score on UNSCR 1325 given the numerous conflicts which have plagued the continent and their dire consequences on women.”

Table 7.6
AWPS composite scores on decision-making

Variables	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
UN SCR 1325	0	0	0	14	0	4	0	0	7	0	0	9
National Machineries	19	18	0	14	12	16	0	10	15	14	22	12
Quota's and Affirmative Action	0	8	3	14	10	13	0	2	14	10	11	11
Gender mainstreaming departments	19	4	3	10	6	14	2	16	11	10	20	10
Total	38	30	6	52	28	47	2	28	47	34	53	42

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=86 (UNSCR 1325=22, National Machineries=22, Quotas=22, Gender Mainstreaming=20)
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

They show that Egypt, Ghana, South Africa and Tunisia arrive at half of the total possible scores, with two countries, Cameroon and Madagascar, showing 7 and 2 per cent respectively on policies geared towards increasing women's representation in political power and decision-making.

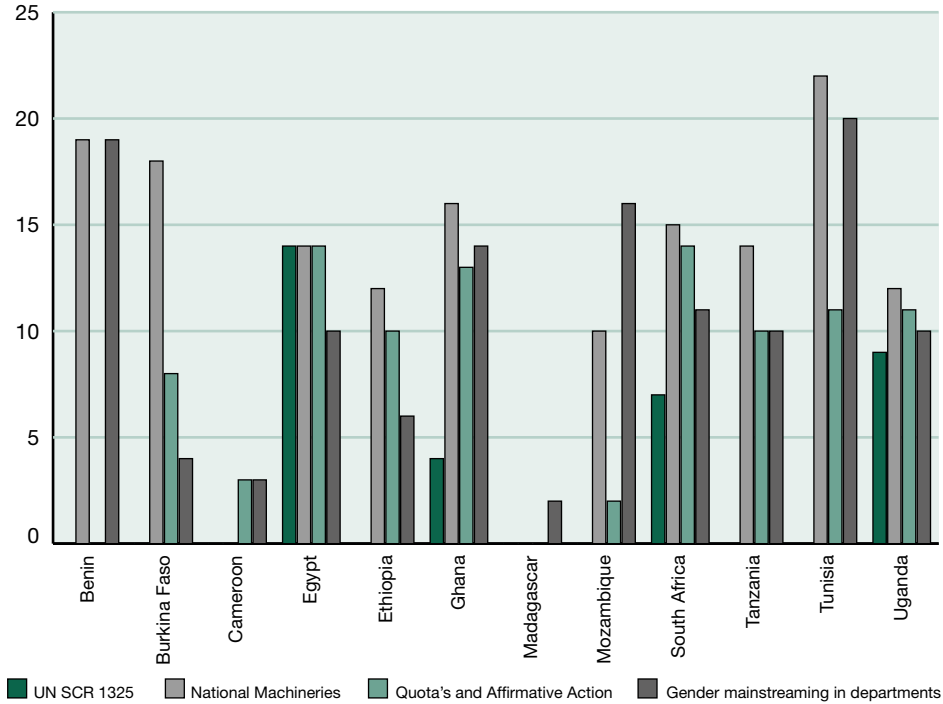
Conspicuous is the low score on UNSCR 1325 given the numerous conflicts which have plagued the continent and their dire consequences on women. Even where laws or policies are in place, scoring on all AWPS variables tends to diminish rapidly further down the horizontal axis, reflecting low levels of implementation.

Possibly due to the impact of the World Conference on Women and follow-up meetings (+5 and +10), most countries report of considerable efforts at the setting up effective and accessible national machineries for women's issues. However, governments are not as forthcoming in the design and implementation of affirmative action policies. Comparing the GSI and the AWPS in relation to the political power of African women, it is remarkable that the two high scorers: Egypt and South

Africa have strikingly different GSI and AWPS outcomes. While Egypt was among countries with the lowest GSI scores in political power (.066 overall or less than 1 per cent of the performance of men), higher AWPS scores obtained by it may be interpreted as a gap between policy formulation and implementation. As a corollary, the consistent GSI and AWPS scoring of South Africa could be an indication of effective implementation and monitoring. These contrasting situations call for further independent analysis.

“UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security has its basis in the frequent and gendered dimensions of conflicts.”

Figure 7.2
Comparative scores on the AWPS political block



Source: Based on Table 7.6

UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security

UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security has its basis in the frequent and gendered dimensions of conflicts. Quite a number of countries in Africa have experienced protracted periods of war and severe civil strife, while others have been affected and impacted as host destinations for refugees or as contributors to peace-keeping operations and arbitration processes. The resolu-

tion addresses the impact of war on women and underscores the need to engender all processes, programmes and interventions related to rehabilitation, reintegration, reconstruction, demobilization and disarmament programmes in conflict and post-conflict situations.

Although limited sex-disaggregated data exists in relation to the impact of armed conflict on women, research (e.g. the UN Secretary General on Ending Violence Against Women, 2006) has reaffirmed the debilitating situations of women and girls in conflict situations. Killing, raping, maiming and the displacement from their homes and communities are commonplace during such situations.

These concerns justify the involvement of women in conflict prevention, resolution and reconstruction processes and for their voices to be heard during peace negotiations.

The issue of women's adequate participation in peace building and conflict resolution has recently gained momentum, with the setting up of the Network on Governance, Peace and Security by the Gender Directorate of the AU. The Network, of which the UNECA is an active member, is aimed at galvanizing action for engendering peace processes and conflict resolution in the region. This variable measures steps taken by

Table 7.7
Implementation of UNSCR 1325

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Burkina Faso	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Egypt	0	2	2	1	2	1	1	0	2	2	1	14
Ethiopia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ghana	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	4
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Africa	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	0	7
Tanzania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tunisia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uganda	0	1	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	9

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

countries to give local effect to the resolution. Table 7.7 shows that country performance is poor overall, even in the case of countries which have encountered conflicts.

Ethiopia indicates that the resolution is yet to receive government attention notwithstanding the Gambella conflict of 2004 and the absence of women on the Parliamentary Enquiry Commission into that conflict. United Republic of Tanzania also shows a low performance although political tensions have raged between the Mainland and Zanzibar. Uganda has formulated an Action Plan for implementing the resolution as well as other related resolutions such as that of UNSCR 1820. Additionally, its Draft Policy on Internally Displaced Peoples emphasizes consultation and full participation of women and the youth. The country's overall implementation response appears weak in the light of the long-raging conflict in the northern part of the country, which has had a heavy toll on women and children (Box 7.1).

“The women’s proposals were presented at a meeting with former South African President Nelson Mandela.”

Box 7.1

The challenges of implementing UNSCR 1325 in Uganda

Challenges experienced in ensuring women’s participation include a limited understanding of UNSCR 1325 (2000) at all levels. Experience from the previous rehabilitation programme – the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) showed that there is a tendency for women to lose the status they have acquired during the times of conflict and return to a more subordinate status. Women are not sufficiently consulted nor involved in decision-making processes on the various resettlement programmes. This is aggravated by women’s low literacy levels and the cultural norms on women’s position; and inadequate coordination of women initiatives at the grassroot level.

Source: Uganda State Party Report, 2009:33

Although South Africa has been involved in various peacekeeping missions in the region, it is yet to adequately reflect gender concerns in its interventions. However, its Defence Amendment Act (No. 4 of 1997) outlaws sex discrimination, as well as all forms of sexual abuse. The Department of Defence has also promulgated a policy known as ‘fast tracking,’ aimed at ensuring representation of women in the higher echelons of the Armed Forces. The Department also initiated the African Women’s Peace Forum in 2000 for the purpose of initiating dialogue among women soldiers and women peace activists.⁴ Some of the challenges associated with female participation in post-conflict situations are presented in Box 7.2 below:

The low scores achieved by countries demonstrate limited commitment or capacity on the part of countries to integrate gender perspectives into conflict prevention, management and resolution processes. Only three, Egypt, Ghana and Uganda, report a related policy commitment. Egypt obtains full scores with the establishment of the Susan Mubarak Women’s International Peace Movement in 2002, which aims

⁴ Dialogues have so far been held in the Great Lakes Region.

at inculcating a culture of peace in the Arab region, with the active involvement of women.

Box 7.2

Women's involvement in the Peace Process in Burundi

A breakthrough was reached for the “Group of Associations and Feminine NGOs of Burundi”, “Women’s Network for Peace and Non-Violence” and the “Women’s Association for Peace” of Burundi, when UNIFEM and the Mwalimu Nyerere Foundation sponsored the All-Party Burundi Women’s Peace Conference, held between 17 and 20 July 2000 in Arusha, the United Republic of Tanzania. As requested, each of the 19 Burundi parties represented at the peace negotiations sent two women delegates: more than 50 Burundi women and observers participated in the event. The women’s proposals were presented at a meeting with former South African President Nelson Mandela, the facilitator for the Burundi peace negotiations. All the women’s recommendations were accepted by the 19 parties and were integrated into the final document of the peace accord – with the exception of a clause requesting a 30 per cent quota to promote women’s representation at all decision-making levels. It took almost four years of persistence for the Burundi women to have their voice heard in the peace process.

Source: Puechgirbal, 2004s

“Resolution S23-3, paragraph 61, reconfirms the need to establish strong national machineries.”

Effective and accessible national machineries

National machineries gained visibility during both the First World Conference on Women in 1975 and the celebration of the International Women’s Year in the same year.

The importance of their establishment was underscored during the 1980 Third World Conference on Women, and reaffirmed at the 1995 World Conference. Paragraph 196 of the BPfA acknowledges progress being made with the establishment of national machineries by member states with a view to ‘inter alia, design, promote the implementation of, execute, monitor, evaluate, advocate and mobilize support for policies that promote the advancement of women’. The Special Session on the Beijing +5 process added impetus to this by reaffirming the importance of establishing strong, effective and accessible national machineries for the advancement of women. Resolution S23-3, paragraph 61, reconfirms the need to establish strong national machineries. The national machinery ‘should have clearly defined mandates and authority; adequate resources and the ability and competence to influence policy and formulate and review legislation’ (BPfA Strategic Objective H 1.b)

The purpose of this indicator is therefore to measure the extent to which governments are meeting these commitments. The results in Table 7.8 show (as does Chapter 3) that most countries have structures in place, with reports indicating that a substantial number were established before 1995 (e.g. Boxes 7.3 and 7.4).

Table 7.8**Effective and accessible national machineries**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	19
Burkina Faso	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	18
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Egypt	0	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	14
Ethiopia	2	2	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	12
Ghana	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	16
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	0	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	10
South Africa	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	15
Tanzania	0	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	14
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22
Uganda	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	2	1	12

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Box 7.3**The institutional machinery structure of Mozambique**

Mozambique established an institutional framework that includes a Ministry of Women and Social Action (1995); Gender focal points in ministries (2003); National Council for the Advancement of Women (2004), the latter of which has a technical group comprising of all sectors and provincial and district councils. The National Council for the Advancement of Women was established to promote and monitor the implementation of Government gender policies. There is also, in addition, a Female Members of Parliament Cabinet and the Social Welfare Commission for Gender and Environment (Parliament) and Civil Society Organizations. On this basis, it can be argued that there is a juridical, political and institutional structure in Mozambique, favourable to the promotion of gender issues and the empowerment of women.

Source: AGDI country report of Mozambique, 2005

For national machineries to be effective, operational plans must incorporate measurable targets and allocation of resources, which all countries with the exception of Madagascar demonstrate.

Box 7.4

The experience of Ghana's institutional arrangements

“
The naming and
placing of national
machineries can also
be significant.”

The National Council on Women and Development of Ghana was set up in 1975. It focused initially on income-generating activities for women, training and awareness-raising. It was instrumental in securing the enactment of the Interstate Succession Law of 1985, as well as laws criminalizing the harsh treatment of widows and the practice of FGM/C. An Affirmative Action proposal was prepared and presented to government in 1999. It was subsequently accepted in principle and gender focal points established later in Ministries. However, the Council has been criticized for its lack of political influence, inadequate resources and donor dependence. The integration of the Council in the newly established Ministry for Women and Children's Affairs resulted in greater articulation and visibility. Human and material resources are still inadequate though, and the Ministry is under pressure by women's NGOs to be more proactive in advancing the cause of women.

Source: Ghana AGDI country report, 2005

The naming and placing of national machineries can also be significant. Some are aligned to under-funded sectors, such as Family, Youth or Social Development, an indication that gender issues have yet to be given primary consideration in their own right. Lack of clear focus, broad or ambiguous mandates and low funding levels all have a direct impact on the other variables, such as collaboration with civil society, research and information dissemination. Benin reports some good practices in relation to collaboration between its National Committee for Women's Advancement and CSOs, consisting of women opinion leaders, religious groups, and representatives of women's associations. Several country reports indicated that the women's machineries have limited geographical coverage (mostly urban) and outreach.

Inadequate human and financial resource support is evident across a substantial number of countries, although Benin, Burkina Faso, United Republic of Tanzania and Tunisia indicate that they have undertaken research related to the effectiveness of their national machineries. Similarly, only Benin and Tunisia report maximum scores on monitoring and evaluation. In effect, therefore, although all countries have established gender machineries in compliance with international obligations, they have largely been “ineffective” due to the absence of resources to enable them implement their mandates.

Gender mainstreaming in all government departments

Apart from the establishment of well-endowed and effective national machineries, it is also important for countries to ensure that gender desks or gender focal persons are established at sufficiently high levels across sectors. This is to ensure effective gender mainstreaming, accompanied by adequate financial resources to ensure

effectiveness. This section assesses implementation of BPfA Strategic Objective H.2, which states that “governments should integrate gender perspectives into legislations, public policies, programmes and projects”. Therefore, it measures the extent to which governments are committed to gender mainstreaming.

Table 7.9 shows that the majority of countries have either fulfilled or are in the process of fulfilling the basic requirement of having guidelines in place for mainstreaming gender. In some countries, governments have created an enabling environment for specific government sectors to develop their own policies. In Ghana, for example, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture had in place a Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy (2004) which seeks to mainstream gender into all its policies and programmes before the national gender policy was formulated (c.ref. subsection on extension service, Chapter 6).

Table 7.9
Gender mainstreaming policies in all government departments

	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	19
Burkina Faso	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
Cameroon	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
Egypt	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10
Ethiopia	2	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	6
Ghana	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	14
Madagascar	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
Mozambique	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	16
South Africa	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Tanzania	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	10
Tunisia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Uganda	2	2	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	10

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=20
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

The presence of national machineries and Gender Focal Points in almost all countries is an indication of commitment to sector gender mainstreaming. But this has not been without difficulty (Box 7.5). Tunisia conducts seminars for top-level personnel in various ministries on gender mainstreaming, but notes that ‘many departments are not quite convinced of the need to integrate the gender approach into their

work'. Madagascar has started paying attention to gender issues in several Ministries, but cautions that the effort is largely donor-driven.

Box 7.5

South Africa's experience in gender mainstreaming

South Africa instituted the strategy of gender mainstreaming following the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995. Under its National Gender Policy the responsibility for the advancement of women and mainstreaming gender in all governance processes is that of all government officials and the political leadership in government, including the Presidency, Executive, Parliament and similar structures in the Provinces and at local government level. A training programme on gender mainstreaming in the Public Service has been developed by the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy, with a mandate to provide leadership training across the Public Service, including training on gender mainstreaming for senior management.

Source: South Africa AGDI country report, 2005

Even when commitment to gender mainstreaming has been demonstrated through the development of a plan, the ingredients requisite for its implementation tend to be lacking. As Burkina Faso notes, staff who act as focal points are committed to doing what they can, but are constrained by the absence of adequate financial support and training.

Uganda echoes this view, adding that the situation is made more complicated by the fact that those who are appointed as gender focal persons also have routine functions to carry out and tend therefore to neglect their gender mainstreaming tasks which they consider as secondary. Commitments to budgetary allocation, human resources, research and information dissemination are equally weak.

Other challenges associated with the implementation of this indicator include the tendency to select personnel from lower ranks, the lack of or inadequate systems of accountability and reporting, lack of political will to implement gender mainstreaming and a general lack of knowledge and understanding of gender concepts and gender mainstreaming in most departments and across all levels.

Support for the women's quotas and affirmative action

It is widely recognized that patriarchal values and negative cultural attitudes towards women are so entrenched that it would require specific policy measures to ensure that these barriers do not hinder their participation in decision-making. Article 4 of CEDAW mandates the use of affirmative action as a means of addressing gender inequality, including that which persists in decision-making (Box 7.6).

Apart from the general liberalist arguments against quota use, there is concern that such measures could result in the relegation of women and even perpetuate societal perceptions of their secondary status. Despite these, and many other reservations about quota systems, there is a general agreement that specific mechanisms are needed to accelerate women's visibility in decision-making positions and that the debate should rather be around the nature of these mechanisms, especially in relation to which instruments will best deliver legitimate, effective and representational political power.

Box 7.6

Article 4 of CEDAW on temporary special measures

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.
2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

The AWPS measures whether or not States are taking active measures in support of the increase in women's political participation through quota systems that guarantee a minimal threshold of 30 per cent in highest decision-making bodies such as Parliament. This is against a general GSI performance of below 0.3 in public sector participation as discussed previously.

Showing the results, Table 7.10 demonstrates overall poor performance on all indicators, with only Egypt, Ghana, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda scoring 50 or more per cent of the total possible scores.

Mozambique, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda are implementing quotas in different forms. The ruling parties of both Mozambique and South Africa in particular, have adopted a policy of 30 per cent representation of women in all decision-making structures leading to an increase in female participation, across all levels.

Egypt adopted the quota system in 1979, issuing Law No. 22 of 1979, which allocates 30 seats in Parliament to women. However, this law was repealed in 1986 after its constitutionality was challenged. Currently, the constitutional amendment provides constitutional backing for a quota. Women participated directly in drafting the amendment through their membership in Parliament and on the preparatory committees tasked with formulating constitutional articles. The NCW and NGOs played an active role in calling for this amendment. A new amendment to the Par-

“ Apart from the general liberalist arguments against quota use, there is concern that such measures could result in the relegation of women and even perpetuate societal perceptions of their secondary status.”

“Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda are implementing quotas in different forms.”

liament and Shoura Council law has been promulgated. This amendment increases the total seats of the Parliament by 64 seats, all allocated as an additional quota for women. Meanwhile, this amendment will not stop women from competing for any of the other 444 seats. This law will increase women’s representation significantly to 12.6 per cent at the least. The change will be effective in the Parliamentary elections of 2010.

A low score on policy commitment translates, as expected, into similar scores on development of plans. Thus, the implementation of quotas have not been generally based on formal plans, explaining the generally low scores on targets, budgets, research, and monitoring and evaluation.

Table 7.10
Women’s quotas and affirmative action

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of Plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human Resources	Research	Involvement of Civil Society	Information & Dissemination	Monitoring & Evaluation	Total
Benin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Burkina Faso	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	8
Cameroon	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
Egypt	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	14
Ethiopia	2	1	1	1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	10
Ghana	0	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mozambique	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
South Africa	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	14
Tanzania	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	10
Tunisia	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Uganda	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	11

Source: UNECA computations from country data

Notes:

1. Maximum possible score per country=22
2. Scores valid as at August 31 2009

Several country reports however mention strong involvement of NGOs. An NGO-led campaign for 50/50 representation in government has for instance been prominent in South Africa. In Burkina Faso, a broad coalition on the rights of women fought for 40 per cent representation of women in high positions in the major parties for the 2007 Parliamentary elections and insisted on the same percentage in local councils and Parliament. United Republic of Tanzania is making a conscious effort

to involve civil society in the campaign to enhance women's participation in Parliamentary and other high-profile positions. It has established a Women's Parliamentary Caucus and collaborates with the women's wings of political parties. In several countries, such as Ethiopia, Ghana, United Republic of Tanzania, South Africa and Uganda, women's groups have produced *Women's Manifestos* that call for increased political participation of women among other demands.

Critical observations and recommended actions

The analysis of the political block has shown that while progress has been made to ensure that women are given equal space and voice in decision-making in their respective countries, this has not been uniform across all countries and levels. Countries of the SADC region (Mozambique and South Africa) in addition to Uganda of the Eastern bloc have made the greatest overall strides in legislative and executive representation. Although further research is needed to determine the differences in progress being made, it is plausible to assume that in the case of the former countries, the pace has been influenced by the commitment to implementation of the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development. Overall, however, performance across Africa has been unpredictable and hotchpotch with no sequencing of upward improvements across countries and indicators studied. Although women have demonstrated their capabilities in countries for which the report has provided case examples, election to office in African societies continues to be negatively influenced by the low status and esteem accorded to women. This remains so in countries that demonstrate parity in higher levels of education (e.g. Tunisia) and even for others, where women's participation in the economy is improving (e.g. Ghana). Against this background, it becomes pertinent for countries to deploy greater political will and commitment to the agenda for equal political participation and it is on this score that the following recommendations are being made:

African Governments and stakeholders must

Recognise gender equality in political participation as a democratic right and integral to good governance

- There should be increased and visible commitment to the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004) and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (2007) which call for gender balance and equality in governance processes.
- There should be firm commitment to affirmative action (CEDAW, Article 4); breaking of gender stereotyping in appointment processes, especially as they relate to positions which are traditionally dominated by men at politi-

“Performance across Africa has been unpredictable and hotchpotch with no sequencing of upward improvements across countries and indicators studied.”

cal party, executive, ministerial, judicial and civil society levels; continuous capacity building programmes for prospective women candidates; public education and sensitization against stereotyping of women's roles in society.

“ Develop and implement capacity building programmes to support women aspirants and potential candidates. ”

Use women's participation in local government and community as a spring board

- Greater emphasis should be given to supporting an increase in local level participation for women, given that the majority of women are located in rural areas and it is at this level that issues affecting vulnerable groups and access to productive resources are most critical

African governments, civil society and UN agencies must

- Increase support to women as political candidates
- Develop and implement capacity building programmes to support women aspirants and potential candidates.
- Support nurturing programmes to females at all levels of education, at which they should be encouraged to assume leadership and representative roles in their institutions.

Affirmative action incentives

- Offer incentives that would encourage countries to implement affirmative action policies that can be supported and implemented and sustained.
- Countries with impressive ratings could be selected to host important regional and global meetings.
- Promote women as successful role models in the political and leadership arenas, such as the Regional Economic Communities, using strategies such as the issuing of common postal stamps with the images of successful women politicians; bill boards of such women at border points and use of these images on common currencies.



Perspectives, Conclusions and Way Forward

Introduction

Piloting of the AGDI in 12 African countries and presenting the results provide unique opportunities for stocktaking in the utilization of a tool which is still in its formative years. The experiences of the countries and experts involved in the design of the index bring to bear many lessons which occasion not only the need to appreciate this tool's added value but also ways to improve it for future use. The computation of the three blocks of the GSI and four in the AWPS form a formidable basis for making important comparisons with the outcomes and approaches of other development indices. It also helps place the overall outcomes of the trial exercise in perspective and also determine their predictive values. The sections which follow, therefore, outline the AGDI's contribution to appreciating the extent and impact of gender inequality in Africa. They also outline recommendations for improving the future use of the index, the main conclusions of the AGDI trials and the way forward.

“It also helps place the overall outcomes of the trial exercise in perspective and also determine their predictive values.”

Perspectives on the AGDI and other development indices

The Introduction noted that a review of other development indices formed an important component of AGDI's design. This section reviews the inter-relationship between the AGDI and relevant indices of the UNDP, namely the HDI, GDI and GDP, all of which are published annually to gauge the human development status of countries. The HDI measures average achievements in a country, but does not incorporate the degree of gender imbalance in these achievements. The gender-related development index (GDI), introduced in Human Development Report 1995, measures achievements in these same dimensions using the same indicators as the HDI, but captures inequalities in achievement between women and men. In essence, it is simply the HDI adjusted downward for gender inequality. Consequently, the greater

the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower a country's GDI relative to its HDI.¹

The UNDP, however, notes that the concept of human development is much broader than what can be captured in the HDI and GDI, stating that they only offer a broad proxy on some key human development, gender disparity and human poverty issues.²

“
It is also important
to note the AGDI's
shortcomings.”

It is also important to note the AGDI's shortcomings: 1) it does not assess gender relations in reference to absolute levels of well-being; and 2) it only measures the gender gap, regardless of the general socio-economic performance of a country.³ The added advantage of the GSI, however, is that it measures a broad range of other relevant issues not included in the other indices, such as time use, access to economic resources and participation in civil society structures. The comparison between male and female status is fundamental to computing the GSI. As noted in previous chapters, this is done by comparing the female ratio to that of males, except with respect to the following indicators: Education (dropout); Health (stunting, underweight, mortality, HIV/AIDS prevalence); Time-use (domestic, care and volunteer activities). For these categories of analysis the calculations are based on a comparison of the situation of males and females.

This section examines the relationship between the GSI (that is the Gender Status Index as calculated under the AGDI framework) and the HDI and GDI as computed by the UNDP for the period 2008/2009. GEM-related data was unavailable for all countries with the exception of Egypt, Ethiopia and United Republic of Tanzania. As such, from these minor comparisons and observations are also made. All these indices are also correlated with the GDP rankings of countries, with the intent of making more holistic interpretations of the social, economic and political status of men and women in countries.

Table 8.1 presents a GSI, GDI, HDI and GDP ranking of countries based on the outcomes of this trial exercise using data from the latest UNDP Human Development Report (2007/2008). It demonstrates that a country's performance on the quantitative component of the AGDI (the GSI) can differ in different degrees from their HDI, GDI or GDP rankings.

1 See the UNDP 2007/2008 Human Development Report.

2 See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/indices/hdi/question,70,en.html>.

3 See www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/acgd/Publications/AGDI_book_final.pdf.

Table 8.1**Comparison of GSI, GDI, HDI and GDP indices of countries (2007/2008)**

Countries	GSI		GDI 2007/2008		HDI 2007/2008		GDP 2007/2008	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
Madagascar	0.784	1	0.530	5	0.533	5	0.533	5
Egypt	0.768	2		2	0.708	2	0.708	2
South Africa	0.753	3	0.667	3	0.674	3	0.674	3
Tunisia	0.670	4	0.750	1	0.766	1	0.766	1
Mozambique	0.638	5	0.373	11	0.384	11	0.384	11
Ghana	0.634	6	0.549	4	0.553	4	0.553	4
Tanzania	0.590	7	0.464	8	0.467	8	0.467	8
Uganda	0.557	8	0.501	7	0.505	7	0.505	7
Ethiopia	0.547	9	0.393	10	0.406	10	0.406	10
Burkina Faso	0.546	10	0.364	12	0.37	12	0.37	12
Cameroon	0.471	11	0.524	6	0.532	6	0.532	6
Benin	0.458	12	0.422	9	0.437	9	0.437	9

Sources: UNECA computation of country data and 2007/2008 Human Development Report (UNDP). Rankings of the GDI, HDI and GDP are also based on the same Human Development Report

Note: UNDP still ranks Egypt 2nd on the GDI regardless of the absence of data on this particular index

This comparative summary shows, for example, that South Africa, Ghana, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda have GSIs in close range with their GDI, HDI and GDP. Although not conclusive, this could be an indication of correlating linkages between national income and gender-related development processes. In the case of the GEM for which data exists for only Egypt, United Republic of Tanzania and Ethiopia, the findings also show that their respective GEM indices (0.263, 0.597 and 0.477; not reflected in Table 8.1) are comparable with the results of the GSI computations of their respective political and economic blocks combined (0.279, 0.440 and 0.466).⁴

Also of note is that countries, such as Egypt and Tunisia which have the highest GDPs, do not record high GSIs. Indeed, their economic and political gains for women were much lower than their social (education and health).

Equally so, South Africa, which scores high on the GSI and indeed has the same ranking (3rd) across its GSI, GDI, HDI and GDP experiences some deficiencies with respect to some of its AWPS indicators. Specific mention can be made of its

⁴ Computed from Table 8.2.

“This comparative summary shows, for example, that South Africa, Ghana, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda have GSIs in close range with their GDI, HDI and GDP.”

“
Women may not necessarily be better off in a country with a high HDI or GDP due to cultural or other social policy gaps or biases.”

performance under the prevention of rape and protection of victims under which it scores 68 per cent (see Table 3.5). One would have expected more resources being invested to reverse rape trends in the country, considering, against the background of its high GSI, GDI, HDI and GDP performance. Mention is also made of South Africa's average HIV/AIDS prevalence rate of 8.4 per cent (being the highest among the 12 countries, see Table 5.4) in addition to its relatively high MMR of 400 per 100,000 live births (Table 5.9).

These case examples underscore the fact that it takes more than economic growth to guarantee women's rights, and that political will, as well as the removal of social, religious and cultural barriers are also needed to achieve and sustain this. They also lead to a better appreciation of the complementarity between the GSI and AWPS. The latter could be well described as a whistle blower or alarm bells over both impressive and poor GSI performances, by signaling a need for more in-depth analysis of overall country interventions and impacts.

Hence, a high GSI ranking does not necessarily provide the best picture of the status of women in a country. For example, although Madagascar ranks 1st in this respect, it has poorer performances under the economic and political blocks and was severely lacking in many aspects of the AWPS. This apparent lack of symmetry in Madagascar's performance was borne out in its 2003 National Human Development Report entitled "Gender, Human Development and Poverty," which noted that the gap between men and women in Madagascar has diminished over the last few years. The GDI value for Madagascar was 0.477 in 2002, almost the same as the HDI for that year (0.479). The Government interpreted these results as indicating the near absence of discrimination between men and women from the point of view of the three HDI three components. Although this was explained by the reduction in variations in education, it is significant that the report also noted that the economic and political fields remain the preserve of men. This suggests that more interventions are needed in the country to sustain Madagascar's high GSI ranking.⁵

In effect, the GSI and AWPS compositely highlight the gender dimensions of the development process, underscoring the fact that it is insufficient to rely on absolute levels of well-being in assessing gender inequality in a country. This is due to the fact that the distribution of assets and or incomes may be inherently gender-biased. Women may not necessarily be better off in a country with a high HDI or GDP due to cultural or other social policy gaps or biases. Thus, a comprehensive evaluation of the status of women in Africa requires that the GDI, HDI and GDP are complemented by the AGDI and vice-versa.

5 See CEDAW/C/MDG/5/2008:39.

Cross dimensional perspectives

The AGDI process revealed the relative points of emphasis needed to reduce and eventually eliminate gender discrimination in the social, economic and political fields. The computations have shown that all countries have achieved overall parity in the social fields of education and health, with Egypt, Madagascar and Tunisia, having higher access and benefit rates for females compared to males, with South Africa close to a situation of parity (Table 8.2 and Figure 8.1)

Table 8.2
Comparison of indices for the various blocks of the GSI

Scores	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Social Power Block	0.672	0.794	0.726	1.745	0.788	0.769	1.229	0.700	0.852	0.810	1.217	0.702	0.917
Economic Power Block	0.549	0.632	0.577	0.492	0.647	0.913	0.723	0.879	0.937	0.675	0.556	0.613	0.683
Political Power Block	0.154	0.213	0.109	0.066	0.205	0.221	0.401	0.335	0.469	0.284	0.239	0.357	0.254
GSI overall	0.458	0.546	0.471	0.768	0.547	0.634	0.784	0.638	0.753	0.590	0.670	0.557	0.618

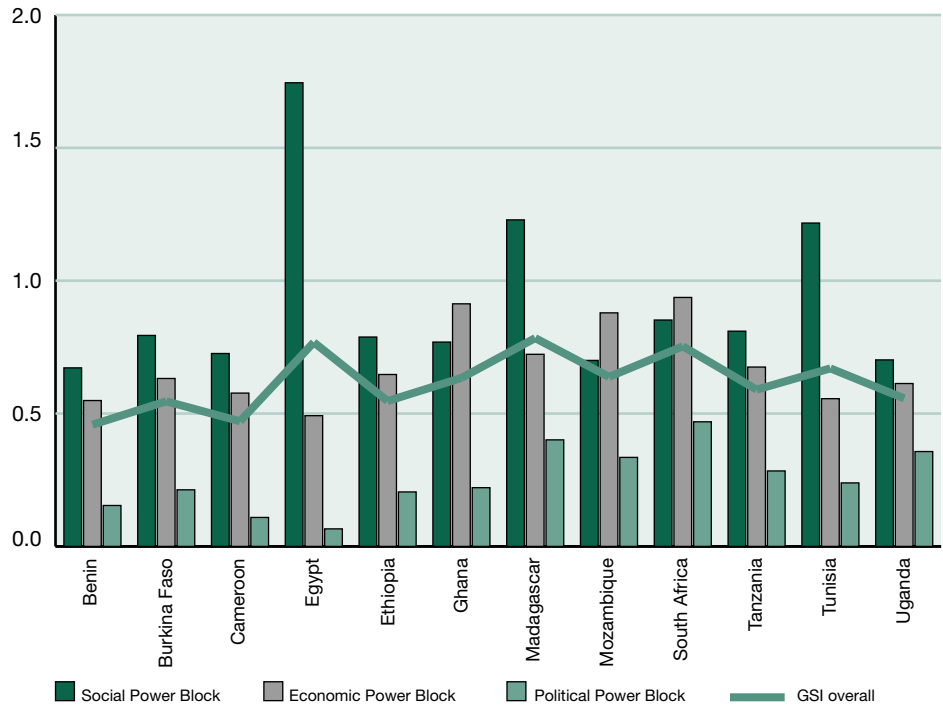
Sources: UNECA computations from country data

While not depicting more situations of parity, the economic block demonstrates that there was general over average performance, with South Africa presenting a near parity situation of 0.94, followed by Ghana with 0.91. It is instructive that the impressive performances of Egypt and Tunisia in the social block do not trickle down or across to the economic block, demonstrating the possible lack of connection between social empowerment through education and women's economic participation.

The political block demonstrates the poorest performance, showing that women are largely excluded in decision-making in their respective countries, with Egypt scoring the least (0.66) and South Africa the highest (0.47). The possible lack of connectivity between social and political participation also comes to play.

“The country assessments have, however, underscored the importance of also lifting the veil of indices to study the absolute numbers more definitively.”

Figure 8.1
Comparison of indices for the various blocks of the GSI



Sources: Based on Table 8.2

The country assessments have, however, underscored the importance of also lifting the veil of indices to study the absolute numbers more definitively. This is particularly so with respect to education, where gender parity or over parity in favour of girls, needs to be examined more closely to prevent a strangulation of the vision for the totality of the future human workforce. In addition, although some countries may have achieved parity, these results may not tell the full story with regard to the regional and rural dimensions of inequality.

Challenges and Improvements in the utilisation of the AGDI

The country trial experiences unearthed a number of challenges in the AGDI assessment process, as well as some shortcomings of the index itself. This, therefore, indicates a need to review and improve the overall tool if the index is to be sustained as an effective development framework. Proposed changes can be made on the basis of the following experiences of using the AGDI as a tool:

Data definitions and standards

The wide use of raw data by country teams resulted in considerable variations in standards, definitions and usages, especially with respect to education and health data. Although harmonization became necessary for consistency and comparability, this was not possible in many instances. In particular, the use of net enrolment ratios as an AGDI variable was problematic in the light of the existing different age categories used for this indicator across the 12 countries. While UNECA recommended that age groups for the pilot exercise be 6-11 years for primary schooling, 12-18 years for secondary, and 19-25 years for tertiary, these age ranges were generally not in accord with the existing categories used by some countries.

At the secondary level, many countries run two 'cycles', commonly designated as Junior High School and Senior High School. It was therefore not always evident whether enrolment rates were based on both or only one of these cycles. It was also not clear from most reports whether those enrolled in vocational institutions were included in the estimates. Another source of discrepancy was the absence of specificities in relation to whether enrolment figures included private and religious institutions.

Another case in point is in respect of the child health indicators for which countries either used measures of either below minus two standard deviations (-2 SD) for *stunted or underweight* children or below minus three standard deviations (-3 SD) for those considered *severely stunted or underweight*. Such differences in the use of data rendered effective comparison across countries difficult.

Data availability

The trial process suffered greatly from lack of current data on several indicators. The AGDI computation involved data collection with regard to a large number of indicators, with there being 41 for the GSI and 28 for the AWPS. The social block suffered major gaps in the areas of 'time spent out of work' and political participation in civil society; while for the economic block the data collection challenge lay in time use and access to resources. Peculiar to the AWPS was the absence of data on Gender-Based Violence. Chapter 3 noted that this is caused by the reluctance of victims and their families to report, the failure of law enforcement agencies to treat such acts as crimes and the absence of effective data collection systems.

This situation signals the need both to revise the number of indicators downwards to reflect data availability in Africa, while also serving as a wake up call to governments to improve data collection and the systems and institutions responsible for collecting this information.

“The trial process suffered greatly from lack of current data on several indicators.”

“
The area for which
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agricultural wages.”

Lack of co-operation/capacity of government agencies

The data collection process involved visits to government offices, interviews with key informants and reviews of volumes of government reports. Apart from the fact that relevant government officials were not always accessible and sometimes reluctant to provide information, many country teams also recounted challenges related to high staff turnover, inadequate equipment or training and insufficient resources; all of which restricted their access to information.

Data inconsistency

The computation of the AGDI was also complicated by the fact that different data sources provided different estimates with regard to the same variable. In particular, official enrolment statistics from educational institutions were generally based on the count of students enrolled at the beginning of the school year. Due to children dropping out of school during the course of the year and a tendency for principals to inflate enrolment figures, this figure is often higher than the number enrolled or actually studying later in the year. This latter practice is generally motivated by a desire to attract additional resources for the school. It is also in contrast with household surveys which tend to record lower figures on the basis of actual school attendance.

Data disaggregation

The area for which data disaggregation received the least attention was agricultural wages. This was due to the fact that Living Standard Surveys, from which such data is derived, aggregates incomes earned by all household members under the occupational classification of the household head who is assumed to be the primary income earner. Consequently, income sources of other members and of intra-household incomes tend to be overlooked.

Misinterpretation of indicators

Some country teams understood ‘targets’ to mean target groups (e.g. Mozambique). Even where the term was understood, scoring on this issue was not uniform. While some teams consistently explored the existence of quantifiable goals, others were guided by general statements of intention. Scoring on the involvement of civil society was also based on different assumptions. Some country teams interpreted this as the government’s role in stimulating NGO participation, while others focused on listing the NGOs working on particular issues.

Subjectivity and possible biases in scoring

Some AGDI country processes reflected expressions of patriotic sentiments, resulting in over-scoring in some cases. For example, the intentions or verbal commitments of a government (e.g. to undertake a project or promote gender equality) received a generous score of 1 or 2 regardless of whether the government had actually honoured or implemented these commitments. Some country teams also allocated a score of 2 when there was evidence of only partial government action on these issues. Other country teams were more critical towards their governments and awarded average scores when progress on a particular variable had actually been adequately addressed. With respect to budgets, some teams awarded high scores even though no funds had been clearly earmarked for the specific issue in question. In some cases, the rationale provided for the score was that the financial allocation was directed towards benefiting the general population, which included women. Scoring on research did not always take account of the relevance of the research undertaken in relation to the particular variable. While some countries simply reported on any kind of gender research being done, others focused on research which was specific to the variable in question. This problem is, however, linked to the fact that the index used a limited score range of 0-2 which did not readily allow for more nuanced assessments.

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Some AGDI country processes reflected expressions of patriotic sentiments, resulting in over-scoring in some cases.”

The AWPS score range

As indicated above, country teams noted that the score range of (0-2) was too narrow and required expansion to accommodate different shades of implementation levels. While there was hardly any disagreement as to when a 0 should be awarded, country teams were of the considered view that the score of 1 tended to be overly generous with regard to initial moves towards an action. In other contexts also, a score of 2 was often times regarded as an exaggerated expression of fulfillment of government commitment, especially where impact could not be ascertained readily. In essence, these concerns point to the limited opportunities to maneuver and give adequate and comprehensive expression to government performance within a 3-point scale range.

Recommended actions to improve the AGDI

UNECA, in collaboration with Member States, civil society and development partners must:

“
Develop a more transparent and valid process of scoring through the involvement of independent bodies and researchers.
”

Renew the Gender Status Index indicators

- Review and revise the GSI indicators downwards to reflect general data availability in countries.
- Revise the indicators upwards periodically to match general improvements in data collection.
- Harmonise the data collection exercise with the publication of population census, DHS and Labour Force Survey results in order to ensure accessibility to current data on a wide range of social and economic indicators.
- Support Member States to invest in time use data in the short term and improvements in overall data collections systems and procedures in the medium to long term.

Promotion of AGDI as a tool

- Sensitise relevant government departments on the use of AGDI as a monitoring tool to facilitate data collection among a wide range of users such as government agencies, CSOs and researchers.
- Provide such agencies with the skills, equipment and funds to generate AGDI-relevant and related data and to make them accessible to the public.

Renew the scoring system of the AWPS

- Develop a more transparent and valid process of scoring through the involvement of independent bodies and researchers.
- Adopt a 6-point scale of 0-5 for the future calculation of the AWPS to provide for objectivity in the scoring of achievements.

Streamline the AWPS

- Streamline components of the AWPS to simplify its computation by incorporating the BPfA and the Solemn Declaration of African Heads of States into the rights block, and drawing natural linkages with CEDAW, the OP-CEDAW and the African Women's Protocol as over arching treaties on women's rights.

- Harmonise the scoring of Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW which are currently scored independently of CEDAW, and that of Article 5 of the African Women's Protocol which is scored as an integral part of the latter.
- Replace the rape indicator contained under the VAW component with the term *sexual exploitation* as an umbrella crime for the diverse forms of unlawful sexual actions against women and children in times of peace and conflict.

“Gender-aware data collection is non-negotiable as it constitutes the prism through which defects and imbalances in the development process can be determined and addressed.”

Final conclusions and way forward

The outcomes of the pilot exercises to determine the efficacy and usefulness of the AGDI as a tool to measure gender inequality in the social, economic and political fields of development and participation has been generally positive. The tool must, however, be sharpened further through periodic reviews of the current indicators to match the level of statistical development and data availability in Africa. This needs to be matched by a concerted effort on the part of governments and stakeholders to invest in sound and responsive statistical planning with gender perspectives in mind.

Gender-aware data collection is non-negotiable as it constitutes the prism through which defects and imbalances in the development process can be determined and addressed. The impact of the lack of attention to gender considerations in planning became evident in the 1980s and 1990s when structural adjustment was introduced into many African countries. Vulnerable groups such as women, children, the youth and elderly paid a high social cost of economic adjustment strategies. The UN Secretary-General has called for pro-poor development planning, through the integration of MDG concerns into national development frameworks. There is a wide body of research that demonstrates that gender equality is central to the achievement of all the MDGs and that lack of attention to such considerations will continue to hinder economic growth, as well as poverty reduction efforts in Africa. The AGDI serves as a useful tool in measuring gender inequality in the continent and is therefore a potential instrument in MDG-based planning.

The analysis of country efforts in eliminating gender discrimination and gender inequality within the broad framework of the AGDI has revealed general and specific gaps which governments, regional organizations, UN and donor agencies and civil society organizations need to address through a range of measures such as advocacy, policy, law reform, programming and international co-operation.

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This suggests
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Tremendous progress has been made in the ratification of regional and global treaties affecting women. Most countries have also taken steps at law reform, policy development and planning, thereby providing frameworks for implementation at the local level. Nevertheless an immense lacuna still lies between these initiatives and implementation.

This has largely been due to the fact that the institutional mechanisms for monitoring the implementation of CEDAW lack adequate financial and human resources; research is extremely limited and, where available, does not directly facilitate the implementation of treaty obligations. This suggests that there is need for governments to move beyond ratification and political commitments to financing and enforcement.⁶

The assessment of women's rights in Africa has shown the need for countries to invest resources in eliminating harmful traditional practices and inimical perceptions towards women. This is to be carried out through sustained public awareness campaigns, capacity enhancement of implementing agencies, empowering women through legal literacy, legal aid and accessible justice systems.

Although overall performance in education appeared to exceed that of other sectors, a detailed analysis of the individual and collective results demonstrate that major improvements are still required in this sector to push some African countries towards achieving the MDG targets in education. Access to and retention levels in most countries studied are demonstrating that the sector is in peril. In particular, the majority of countries demonstrate lack of capacity to ensure continuity of both boys and girls from primary to secondary level. While these patterns show clearly that girls tend to be excluded with progression up the educational ladder, it also demonstrates the need to halt the regression of boys where this is evident as this could also have a spiral effect on human capital formation.

Child survival remains an issue of great concern across countries, with varying indicators for both girls and boys in the areas of stunting, underweight and mortality. The outcomes demonstrate the need to intensify priority interventions in child health. On-going programmes in EPI, Vitamin A supplementation and the use of insecticide-treated bed nets must be scaled up, in especially deprived areas of African countries.

High maternal mortality rates call for urgent attention. In particular, the pilot study highlighted the need for improved equity in access and service delivery, especially with respect to emergency obstetric care and HIV/AIDS treatment. It also underscored the need to address the impact that the shortage of medical staff is having on

⁶ This reflects the title of the UN Secretary-General's Study: "Ending Violence Against Women: From Words to Action."

African health delivery systems, especially at rural level by recourse to the training of Non Clinical Physicians.

Women continue to experience time poverty as evidenced by the disproportionate time allocated to productive activities and leisure compared with non-remunerative work. The former affects their capacity to generate sufficient income to spend on essential services and commodities and on their ability to make independent decisions. This is compounded by their limited access to productive resources such as land, credit and extension. National System of Accounts also need to recognise the proportion of time that women use in non-monetized sectors, such as domestic work and care of the sick, and compensate this massive contribution on their part through the provision of expanded public goods to women.

Despite considerable progress made in the field of women's participation in decision-making, data from all countries collectively indicate that African women lag farthest behind men at all levels in this area. The results outline the existence of structural, social, cultural, political and economic barriers that hinder effective female participation. They include low regard for women's potential contributions to politics, lack of commitment to affirmative action and women's limited financial capacities. It would take sustained political will and action to ensure that women are given the recognition and visibility needed to increase their participation in decision-making significantly. This should be embodied in the principle that sound democratic principles and good governance require that all sections of the society are effectively represented in the political process.

In addition to the imperative of advancing gender-sensitive data collection in Africa, is the adherence to constitutionalism and respect for the rule of law which tends to be low in many African countries (UNECA, 2009 d.).

The results outline the existence of structural, social, cultural, political and economic barriers that hinder effective female participation.

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Madagascar: DHS, 2003/2004 - Reproductive Health and Child Survival Baseline Survey.

Mozambique: DHS, 2003 - Final Report.

Tunisia: DHS, 1988 - Final Report.

South Africa: DHS, 2003 - Final Report.

Uganda: Uganda Child Verbal Autopsy Study 2007 - Final Report.

Tanzania AIDS Indicator Survey, 2007/08- Key Findings.

Uganda Service Provision Assessment Survey. Key Findings on HIV/AIDS and STIs. 2007.

AGDI Country Reports

Benin, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Burkina Faso, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Cameroon, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Egypt, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Ethiopia, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Ghana, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Madagascar, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Mozambique, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

South Africa, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Tanzania (United Republic of), AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Tunisia, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

Uganda, AGDI Country Report, 2005 as revised in 2009.

CEDAW State Party Reports

Benin: CEDAW/C/BEN/1-3/2002.

Burkina Faso: CEDAW/C/BFA/Q/6/2008.

Cameroon: CEDAW/C/CMR/3/2007.

Egypt: CEDAW/C/EGY/4-5/2000.

Egypt: CEDAW/C/EGY/7/2008.

Ethiopia: CEDAW/C/ETH/5/2009

Ethiopia: CEDAW/C/ETH/4-5/2002.

Ghana: CEDAW/C/GHA/3-5/2005.

Madagascar: CEDAW/C/MDG/5/2008.

Mozambique: CEDAW/C/MOZ/1-2/2008.

South Africa: CEDAW/C/ZAF/Q/4/2008.

Tanzania: CEDAW/C/TZA/6/2008.

Tunisia: CEDAW/C/TUN/3-4/2002.

Uganda: CEDAW/C/UGD//2009.

Websites

<http://www.mcc.gov/countries/burkinafaso/threshold.php>

unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/tuse/default.aspx

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/humandev/hdi/>

http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/stats_popup2.html.

Appendix One: Country Data Sources

Social Block

Education data

Benin:

1. Primary enrolment: UN official data base on MDG Indicators. Figures valid as at August 14 2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at August 14 2009.
3. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at August 14 2009.
4. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.

Burkina Faso:

1. Primary enrolment: UN official data base on MDG Indicators. Figures valid as at August 14 2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at August 14 2009.
3. Dropouts: NSD, EA/QUIBB, 2007.
4. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
5. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.

Cameroon:

1. Primary and Secondary enrolment: carte scolaire/Minedub.
2. Tertiary enrolment: ECAMII
3. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Ecam II.
4. Ability to read and write: Ecam II.
5. Primary school completed: carte scolaire/Minedub.

Egypt:

1. Primary enrolment: Ministry of education, 2009, Statistical Year Book – 2008/2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at April 30, 2009.
3. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Ministry of education, 2009, Statistical Year Book, 2008/2009.
4. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Database, valid as at April 30th 2009. Estimates based on: CAPMAS, Egypt population Census - 2006, Final Results, Published 2008.
5. Primary school completed: UN official data base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.

Ethiopia:

1. Primary and Tertiary enrolment: Educational abstract 2007/08 p. 6.
2. Secondary enrolment: Educational abstract 2007/08 p. 45.
3. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Educational abstract 2007/08 p. 34
4. Ability to read and write: DHS 2006 pp. xxix.
5. Primary school completed: Educational abstract 2007/08 p.37.

Ghana:

1. Primary, Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: EMIS report for the year 2007.2008.
2. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Data for education is from EMIS report for 2007-2008.
3. Ability to read and write: EMIS, 2009.
4. Primary school completed: EMIS, 2009.

Madagascar:

1. Primary, Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: Annuaire Statistique MENRES 2007-2008.
2. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Rapport EPT 2007 MENRES.
3. Ability to read and write: EDS 2003 – 2004.
4. Primary school completed: EDS 2003 – 2004.

Mozambique:

1. Primary enrolment: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
3. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
4. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at 14 July 2009.

South Africa:

1. Primary enrolment: UN official data base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
3. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
4. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at 14 July 2009.

United Republic of Tanzania:

1. Primary enrolment: UN official data base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at August 14 2009.
2. Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
3. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: DHS 2004/05
4. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.
5. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at 14 July 2009.

Tunisia:

1. Primary, Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: Ministry of education, 2009.
2. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: Ministry of education, 2009.
3. Ability to read and write: UNESCO Institute of Statistics Data Base, valid as at 30 April 2009.

4. Primary school completed: UN Official Data Base on MDG Indicators. Valid as at 14 July 2009.

Uganda:

1. Primary, Secondary and Tertiary enrolment: UBOS Stat Abstract.
2. Primary and Secondary dropout ratio: UBOS Stat Abstract.
3. Ability to read and write: UBOS Stat Abstract.
4. Primary school completed: UBOS Stat Abstract.

Health data

Benin:

DHS, 2006.

Burkina Faso:

DHS, 2003.

Cameroon:

1. Stunting under 3: MICS.
2. Underweight under 3: MICS.
3. Mortality under 5: DSTAT/MINCOF 2002/EDS.

Egypt:

El-Zanaty, F. and Ann Wat, 2009, Egypt Demographic and Health Survey- 2008. Cairo, Egypt: Ministry of Health, El-Zanaty and Associates, and Macro International. Tables 14.1 and 10.4.

Ethiopia:

1. Stunting under 3: calculated from raw data of DHS 2005.
2. Underweight under 3: calculated from raw data of DHS 2005.
3. Mortality under 5: DHS 2006 p. 106.

Ghana:

1. Stunting under 3: All data on health are based on the 2008 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey.

2. Underweight under 3: All data on health are based on the 2008 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey.
3. Mortality under 5 : All data on health are based on the 2008 Ghana Demographic and Health Survey.

Madagascar:

EDS 2003 - 2004.

United Republic of Tanzania:

DHS 2004/05.

Tunisia:

1. Stunting under 3 : MICS 3 (2006).
2. Underweight under 3: MICS 3 (2006)
3. Mortality under 5: SOWC(2007)

Economic block

Egypt:

Wages: Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS), Employment, Wages, and Working Hours Survey, 2007.

Ghana:

Wages and income: Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2008. GLSS 5.

Madagascar:

1. Wages: EPM, 2001, 2005, ICMT-OMEF 2007 à PARTIR EPM 2005.
2. Income: EPM 2005 ; ICMT-OMEF 2007 à PARTIR EPM 2005.

Tunisia:

Enquête Nationale Sur Le Secteur Informel - INS 2007.

Uganda:

1. Wages in Agriculture: UBOS Stat Abstract.

2. Wages in civil service and informal sector: Census.
3. Wages in formal sector (public and/or private): UNHS.
4. Income: UNHS.

Political block

Burkina Faso:

1. Members of Parliament: Tableau de Bord de la Gouvernance 2007, INSD.
2. Cabinet Ministers : Tableau de Bord de la Gouvernance 2007, INSD.
3. Higher Courts Judges: Direction des Etudes et de la Planification/Ministère de la Justice, Garde des Sceaux, 2007.

Cameroon:

1. Members of parliament: INS.
2. Cabinet ministers: Collecté.
3. Higher Courts Judges: INS/Ministry of Justice.
4. Members of local councils: Collecté.
5. Higher positions in civil service: Cameroun online.

Egypt:

1. Members of Parliament: Parliament Information Center.
2. Cabinet Ministers: Cabinet official web site (in Arabic): <http://www.cabinet.gov.e.g./cabinet/cabinet.asp>.
3. Higher courts judges: Data are available for all types of courts. Source for No. of female Judges: CEDAW/C/EGY/7/2008. Page 28. Total No. of Judges and their assistances in courts are estimated based on CAPMAS, 2008, Population Census - 2006, Final Results.
4. Members of local councils: Latest available. Source: Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS), 2008, Statistical Year Book- 2008.
5. Higher positions in civil service: Latest available. Source: Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS), 2008, Statistical Year Book- 2008.

Ethiopia:

1. Members of Parliament: Parliamentary data.
2. Cabinet Ministers: Network of Ethiopian Women's Association.
3. Higher courts judges: Judges Administration Department.

Ghana:

1. Ghana Parliamentary Registers.
2. Electoral Commission, 2000, 2004, 2008 election results.
3. Judicial Service 2007/2008 Annual Report.

Madagascar:

Enquête à Partir du Journal Officiel 2006-2008.

United Republic of Tanzania:

UN Human Rights Commission, 2009.

Uganda:

1. Members of Parliament: Parliament of Uganda.
2. Cabinet Ministers: Uganda official website.
3. Higher courts judges: Judicial Service of Uganda.
4. Members of local councils: Uganda official website.
5. Higher positions in civil service: www.judicature.go.ug.

Tunisia:

1. Members of Parliament: Official site of the Tunisian Parliament www.tunisie.gov.tn 08/2009.
2. Cabinet Ministers: Official site of the Tunisian Parliament www.tunisie.gov.tn 08/2009.
3. Higher courts Judges : Ministry of Justice and Human rights, 2009
4. Members of local councils: 2005 http://www.tunisie.com/municipales2005/n_29_03.html.

Appendix Two: Graphs on the Child Health Assessment

Figure A1
Stunting under 3

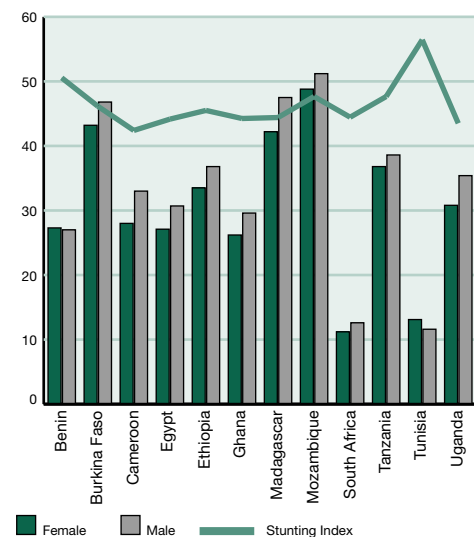
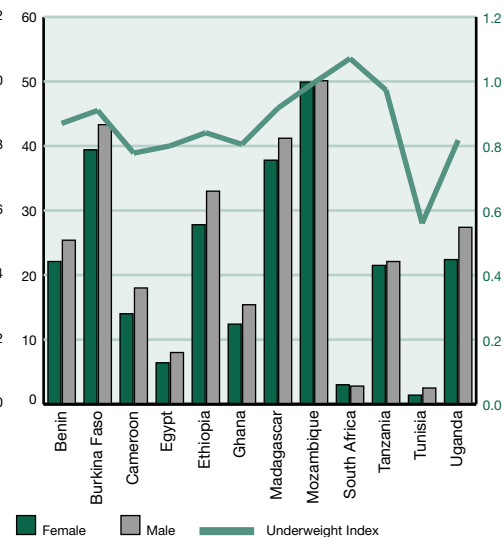


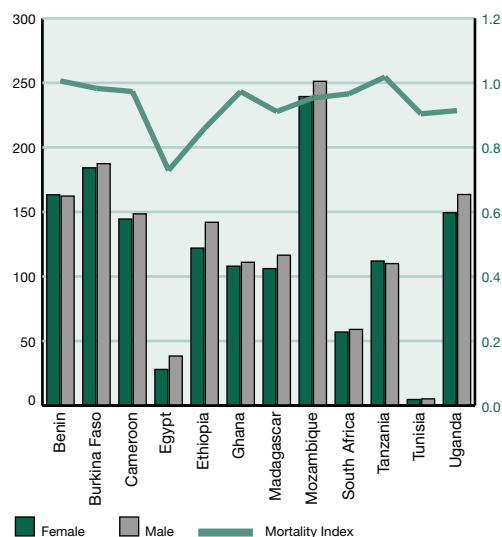
Figure A2
Underweight under 3



Sources: Based on Table 5.2

Sources: Based on Table 5.2

Figure A3
Mortality under 5



Sources: Based on Table 5.2

Appendix Three: Composite GSI and AWPS Results

Table A.1
Overall Gender Status Index

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda		
Enrolment			Primary enrolment rate	0.835	0.817	0.934	0.954	0.869	0.942	0.990	0.925	1.016	0.988	1.006	0.902		
			Secondary enrolment rate	0.495	0.720	0.919	0.942	0.792	0.779	0.990	0.886	0.943	0.886	0.943	0.723	0.967	0.803
			Tertiary enrolment rate	-	0.471	0.718	0.920	0.341	0.495	0.882	0.505	1.239	0.495	1.415	0.628		
Education			Enrolment Index	0.665	0.669	0.857	0.939	0.668	0.739	0.954	0.772	1.066	0.735	1.129	0.778		
			Dropout	0.835	1.000	1.064	1.655	1.129	1.469	1.005	1.058	1.107	1.067	1.067	1.250	0.851	
			Secondary dropout ratio	0.793	1.333	0.758	1.318	1.509	0.745	1.252	0.596	1.143	0.778	1.737	0.724		
Social power 'capabilities'			Dropout Index	0.814	1.167	0.911	1.486	1.319	1.107	1.128	0.827	1.125	0.922	1.493	0.787		
			Literacy	0.692	0.788	0.902	0.950	0.808	0.842	0.980	0.696	0.996	0.996	0.956	0.964	0.897	
			Ability to read and write	0.529	0.589	0.839	0.726	0.619	1.112	0.888	0.576	0.980	0.835	0.799	0.801		
Education Index			Literacy Index	0.610	0.688	0.870	0.838	0.713	0.977	0.934	0.636	0.988	0.896	0.881	0.849		
			Stunting under 3	0.696	0.841	0.879	1.088	0.900	0.941	1.006	0.745	1.060	0.851	1.168	0.805		
			Underweight under 3	1.011	0.923	0.848	0.883	0.935	0.885	0.888	0.953	0.889	0.953	1.129	0.870		
Health			Mortality under 5	0.870	0.910	0.778	0.800	0.836	0.805	0.917	0.996	1.071	0.973	0.560	0.818		
			Child health Index	1.006	0.983	0.973	0.729	0.859	0.973	0.911	0.953	0.966	1.018	0.904	0.914		
			HIV Prevalence among young people (aged 15-24)	0.962	0.939	0.866	0.804	0.877	0.888	0.906	0.967	0.975	0.981	0.864	0.867		
Health Index			Health Index	0.333	0.556	0.279	4.000	0.474	0.308	2.000	0.341	0.315	0.556	1.667	0.333		
			Health Index	0.648	0.747	0.573	2.402	0.675	0.598	1.453	0.654	0.645	0.769	1.266	0.600		

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	
Social power 'capabilities' Index				0.672	0.794	0.726	1.745	0.788	0.769	1.229	0.700	0.852	0.810	1.217	0.702	
				Wages in agriculture	-	0.239	0.506	0.996	0.674	0.592	0.904	-	0.766	0.686	-	0.737
				Wages in civil service	-	-	0.767	0.930	0.780	0.542	0.968	-	0.935	0.916	-	0.453
				Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	1.138	1.217	0.793	0.847	0.877	0.626	0.716	-	0.913	0.715	0.828	0.386
				Wages in informal sector	0.492	0.633	0.541	0.759	0.815	0.836	0.537	-	0.632	0.498	0.677	0.453
				Income	0.815	0.696	0.652	0.883	0.787	0.649	0.781	-	0.812	0.704	0.752	0.508
				Income from informal enterprise	0.324	0.487	0.680	-	0.398	1.619	0.662	-	0.426	0.436	0.826	0.369
				Income from small agricultural household enterprise	-	0.260	0.511	-	0.897	0.583	0.827	-	-	0.524	-	-
				Income from remittances and inter-household transfers	0.636	0.501	0.964	-	0.854	2.797	1.452	-	2.980	-	-	-
				Income Index	0.480	0.416	0.718	-	0.716	1.666	0.981	-	1.703	0.480	0.826	0.369
Economic power 'opportunities'	Income and Wages Index			0.648	0.556	0.685	0.883	0.751	1.158	0.881	1.257	0.592	0.789	0.438		
				0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915		
Time-use or employment	Employment															
																Or: Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	
Economic power 'opportunities'	Time-use or employment	Index	Time-use or employment Index	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	
			Time-use or employment Index	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	
	Means of production	Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	0.146	0.604	-	0.061	0.315	1.030	-	0.301	-	-	-	-	0.311
			Means of production	0.257	0.334	0.280	0.323	0.139	0.474	0.206	1.100	1.007	-	0.675	0.541	
	Access to resources	Means of production Index	Freedom to dispose of own income	0.801	0.923	-	-	0.745	0.730	0.324	-	0.700	-	-	-	0.801
			Means of production Index	0.401	0.620	0.280	0.192	0.400	0.745	0.265	0.701	0.854	-	0.675	0.551	
	Management	Management Index	Employers	-	-	0.436	0.070	0.172	0.977	-	0.194	0.394	0.425	0.092	0.537	-
			High civil servants (class A)	0.236	0.230	0.347	0.181	-	0.221	0.100	0.324	0.592	0.456	-	-	-
			Members of professional syndicates	-	-	-	0.530	0.092	0.128	0.718	0.287	0.646	-	-	-	0.197
			Administrative, scientific and technical	-	0.361	0.444	0.476	0.294	0.650	-	-	0.779	-	0.613	0.523	
Access to resources	Index	Management Index	0.236	0.295	0.409	0.314	0.186	0.494	0.409	0.268	0.603	0.441	0.353	0.419		
		Access to resources Index	0.319	0.458	0.345	0.253	0.293	0.619	0.337	0.484	0.728	0.441	0.514	0.485		
Economic power 'opportunities'	Index		0.549	0.632	0.577	0.492	0.647	0.913	0.723	0.879	0.937	0.675	0.556	0.613		

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda
			Members of Parliament	0.122	0.181	0.161	0.018	0.399	0.095	0.115	0.592	0.493	0.438	0.294	0.497
			Cabinet Ministers	0.100	0.125	0.113	0.100	0.149	0.267	0.235	0.350	0.748	0.343	0.157	0.250
			Higher Courts Judges	0.342	0.292	0.292	0.004	0.170	0.252	1.122	0.432	0.200	0.543	0.408	0.180
			Members of local councils	0.033	0.264	0.187	0.018	0.261	0.112	0.043	0.398	0.411	0.259	0.377	0.716
			Higher positions in civil service	0.125	0.060	0.206	0.339	0.267	0.147	0.024	-	0.200	0.238	0.342	0.274
			Public sector Index	0.144	0.184	0.192	0.096	0.249	0.175	0.308	0.443	0.410	0.365	0.316	0.384
			Political parties	-	0.140	0.025	0.042	0.049	0.395	0.056	0.000	0.338	0.045	0.163	0.180
			Trade unions	0.192	0.228	-	0.045	0.333	0.139	-	0.378	0.353	0.200	0.493	0.508
			Senior positions in	0.234	0.165	-	-	0.084	0.262	0.731	-	0.075	0.364	0.136	0.500
			Employers' associations												
			Professional syndicates	0.188	0.346	-	0.020	0.228	0.152	-	-	0.436	0.067	0.010	0.227
			Heads or managers of NGOs	0.080	0.238	-	-	0.250	0.295	0.693	0.306	1.439	0.342	0.004	0.241
			Heads of community-based associations or unions	0.125	0.330	-	-	0.020	0.364	-	-	-	-	-	-
			Civil society Index	0.164	0.241	0.025	0.036	0.161	0.268	0.493	0.228	0.528	0.204	0.161	0.331
			Political power 'agency' Index	0.154	0.213	0.109	0.066	0.205	0.221	0.401	0.335	0.469	0.284	0.239	0.357
			GSI	0.458	0.546	0.471	0.768	0.547	0.634	0.784	0.638	0.753	0.590	0.670	0.557

Sources: UNECA Computations based on country data (Appendix 1)

Table A.2
Estimated GSI. Excluding remittances and Time Use

Block	Country scores												
	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average
Social Power Block	0.829	0.890	0.873	0.946	0.888	0.914	0.956	0.856	1.018	0.916	1.016	0.836	0.912
Economic Power Block	0.523	0.625	0.557	0.492	0.636	0.818	0.684	0.879	0.724	0.675	0.556	0.613	0.648
Political Power Block	0.154	0.213	0.109	0.066	0.205	0.221	0.401	0.335	0.469	0.284	0.239	0.357	0.254
GSI overall Re-estimated	0.502	0.576	0.513	0.501	0.576	0.651	0.680	0.690	0.737	0.625	0.603	0.602	0.605
<i>Education</i>	0.696	0.841	0.879	1.088	0.900	0.941	1.006	0.745	1.060	0.851	1.168	0.805	0.915
<i>Health</i>	0.962	0.939	0.866	0.804	0.877	0.888	0.906	0.967	0.975	0.981	0.864	0.867	0.908
Social Power Block	0.829	0.890	0.873	0.946	0.888	0.914	0.956	0.856	1.018	0.916	1.016	0.836	0.912
<i>Total income and wages</i>	0.570	0.535	0.624	0.883	0.717	0.875	0.763	0.619	0.619	0.592	0.789	0.438	0.673
<i>Total employment</i>	0.680	0.882	0.703	0.340	0.898	0.961	0.951	1.273	0.825	0.992	0.364	0.915	0.815
<i>Total access to resources</i>	0.319	0.458	0.345	0.253	0.293	0.619	0.337	0.484	0.728	0.441	0.514	0.485	0.440
Economic Power Block	0.523	0.625	0.557	0.492	0.636	0.818	0.684	0.879	0.724	0.675	0.556	0.613	0.648
<i>Public Sector</i>	0.144	0.184	0.192	0.096	0.249	0.175	0.308	0.443	0.410	0.365	0.316	0.384	0.272
<i>Civil Society</i>	0.164	0.241	0.025	0.036	0.161	0.268	0.493	0.228	0.528	0.204	0.161	0.331	0.237
Political Power Block	0.154	0.213	0.109	0.066	0.205	0.221	0.401	0.335	0.469	0.284	0.239	0.357	0.254
Overall Re-estimated GSI	0.502	0.576	0.513	0.501	0.576	0.651	0.680	0.690	0.737	0.625	0.603	0.602	0.605
GSI	0.458	0.546	0.471	0.768	0.547	0.634	0.784	0.638	0.753	0.590	0.670	0.557	0.618

Sources: UNECA Computations based on country data (Appendix 1)

Table A.3
Overall AWPS Scores

AWPS Blocks	AWPS Component	AWPS Sub-component	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	Average	
Women's rights	CEDAW	Ratification without reservation	17	12	25	15	11	21	18	21	17	16	25	18	18.0	
		Optional protocol	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	4	2	2	2	0	2	1.5
	African Charter of Human and People's Rights – Women's Rights protocol – harmful practices	Art 2	17	7	22	15	9	16	2	17	14	13	21	13	13.8	
		Art 16	8	8	22	17	5	16	1	18	14	11	21	13	12.8	
		Beijing Platform for Action	19	18	19	17	6	19	3	19	14	14	24	16	15.7	
		Domestic violence	8	6	10	11	0	16	12	18	16	13	20	12	11.8	
		Rape	6	5	10	11	5	15	2	15	14	12	20	8	10.3	
		Sexual harassment	3	3	11	11	2	14	2	18	13	11	20	10	9.8	
		Traffic in women	9	2	12	12	8	18	14	19	11	6			4	10.5
		African Charter on the Rights of the Child art XXVII	13	13	18	21	12	21	11	22	13	12	12	24	19	16.6
Social	Health- ICPD POA Plus Five	HIV/AIDS	18	17	19	12	14	18	19	19	14	16	22	17	17.1	
		STIs	20	16	14	4	5	14	16	7	17	19	22	17	14.3	
	Maternal Mortality	17	19	12	17	16	17	20	9	15	14	21	16	16.1		
	Contraception	16	19	16	20	15	17	20	8	15	16	22	16	16.7		
	Policy on girl school dropouts	13	17	11	22	11	16	6	18	14	10	22	12	14.3		
Education	Education on human/women's rights	8	5	6	11	5	15	5	15	10	8	17	1	8.8		

AWPS Blocks	AWPS Component	AWPS Sub-component											Average	
		Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon	Egypt	Ethiopia	Ghana	Madagascar	Mozambique	South Africa	Tanzania	Tunisia	Uganda	
Economic	ILO	15	7	11	20	9	18	6	17	14	12	24	13	13.8
	Convention 100													
	Convention 111	14	9	13	22	10	18	13	19	15	13	24	13	15.3
	Convention 183	9	3	4	0	5	16	20	17	14	6	6	7	8.9
	Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work	13	2	13	0	12	14	17	18	16	15	22	2	12.0
	Engendering NPRS	13	16	6	19	12	16	4	17	9	14	20	14	13.3
	Access to agricultural extension services	14	16	12	6	2	16	0	16	4	5	19	15	10.4
	Access to technology	4	6	8	20	3	10	0	17	13	8	20	13	10.2
	Equal access to land	12	8	1	13	3	17	4	19	15	9	6	8	9.6
	UN 1325 conflict resolution	0	0	0	14	0	4	0	0	7	0	0	9	2.8
Political	Beijing PfA effective and accessible national machinery	19	18	0	14	12	16	0	10	15	14	22	12	12.7
	Policies	19	4	3	10	6	14	2	16	11	10	20	10	10.4
	Support for women's quota and affirmative action	0	8	3	14	10	13	0	2	14	10	11	11	8.0

Sources: UNECA Computations based on AGDI country reports, 2005 and 2009

Appendix Four: The General Status of Domestic Violence Legislation in Africa

Table A. 4

African countries which have passed domestic violence legislation

Country	Legislation	Year
Botswana	Domestic Violence Act	2007
Cameroon	Draft Bill on Violence Against Women And Gender-Based Discrimination	2006
Ghana	Domestic Violence Act	2007
Kenya	Domestic Violence (Family Protection) Bill	2002
Madagascar	An Act to Punish Violence Against Women	2000
Malawi	Prevention of Domestic Violence Act	2006
Mauritius	Protection from Domestic Violence Act	1991
Mozambique	Law Against Domestic Violence	2009
Namibia	Combating of Domestic Violence Act	2003
Nigeria	Elimination of Violence in Society Bill	2006
Rwanda	Gender-Based Violence Act	2009
South Africa	Domestic Violence Act	1998
Uganda	Domestic Violence Bill	2009
Zimbabwe	The Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims of Domestic Violence Act	2007

Sources: CEDAW State Party Reports of countries and internet sources

Appendix Five: The AWPS Scoring Process

Scoring the AWPS

Computation of the AWPS is based on a simple scoring system which is sensitive to progress made. For all cells where it is possible (see discussion below) a three point score, 0 – 1 – 2, is used. In this way, progress or deterioration with regard to any particular indicator will be visible. Its transparent nature will facilitate lobbying and advocacy efforts of Parliamentarians working on gender issues, as well as NGOs lobbying governments for better performance. The country reports accompanying the AWPS will contain a description of the methodology used to collect the data. If there are any gaps in the data collection process or content, the reports must make note of them. This may lead to recommendations on how to improve the collection process in that particular country. The narratives provided will also point out the various national specificities.

The computation of the AWPS is different from that of the GSI, where the blocks receive equal weight. All AWPS variables receive the same weight as opposed to the block as a whole. The AWPS is measured in percentages set to a possible maximum score, in which each row has a possible maximum score set at 100%. The total score of the AWPS is similarly computed from the total of all 13 rows, which again is set at 100%. The scoring is done on a three-point scale:

- 0 (zero) indicates a zero performance on the measures on the horizontal axis such as budget, law, or policy commitment;
- 1 (one) indicates a poor - fair performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as the budget in which some money is allocated to the issue addressed, or a law or policy commitment that is being drafted or discussed but that is not yet ratified by parliament; and
- 2 (two) indicates a good – to excellent performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as an adequate budget, or a law or policy commitment that has been passed in Parliament.

To make the scoring process as transparent and reliable as possible each cell has to be scored for the specific variable to which it refers. Reference to general laws or regulations that aim to promote gender justice is not sufficient. They may be mentioned in the narrative of the report, but cannot be used as a substitute for a specific law mentioned on the scorecard.

As the AWPS only scores government performance, it is not possible to use it to indicate the prevalence or incidence of certain issues. In many cases the GSI will provide this information. It is possible that some countries will have such a low

rate of incidence that they will not have developed a related policy on that issue. In such cases, the score for this issue will also be low. It is also important to understand that the AWPS does not only measure the performance of the national gender or women's machinery, but also scrutinizes the whole government. This is based on the premise that gender mainstreaming calls on and requires the involvement of all government departments.

In some instances, it will not be possible to fill all cells in all the columns. For example, while it may be possible to fill in the 'law' or 'convention' column, there are some issues for which no international resolution or convention exists or for which no laws have been formulated. When, as a result, it is necessary to leave some cells empty, the maximum possible score will automatically decrease. The system of measuring will remain the same however, with the percentage of the total score in this row being set against the possible maximum score. The cells in which scoring is not applicable are indicated with an "X" in the AWPS scoreboard given below.

a. Ratification of International or regional convention or charter

This column measures whether the international conventions or charters listed on vertical axis have been ratified, with or without reservations. In the case of consensus documents, such as the ICPD or BPfA, the squares in this column remain empty, as there is no ratification requirement.

Scoring:

- 0– not adopted.
- 1– adopted with reservations.
- 2– adopted without reservations.

b. Reporting

This column aids in the assessment of whether Member States have fulfilled the reporting requirements of specific conventions they have signed and /or ratified. For example, in the case of CEDAW, countries are required to report to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned and thereafter, at least four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.

Scoring:

- 0– no reporting.
- 1– not all reporting done, but some has been done.
- 2– reporting is up to date.

c. Legal or other legal measures

This column indicates whether the Parliaments of Member States being studied have passed national laws on the issues specified in the scorecard.

Scoring:

- 0– no law or legal measure is under consideration.
- 1– a draft law is in place.
- 2– the law (bill) has been approved by Parliament.

d. Policy commitment

After an international convention has been ratified, governments are under an obligation to design policies outlining their particular intentions and the activities to be undertaken to reach their goals. This column, therefore, measures whether or not governments have shown evidence of such a policy document, whether such a document has been implemented, and if applicable, whether it has been approved by Parliament.

Scoring:

- 0– no policy.
- 1– draft policy, not fully elaborated.
- 2– fully elaborated policy, approved by Parliament.

e. Development of a plan/gender plan

The staff of the institution in charge of implementing the issues mentioned in the vertical axis is responsible for developing a plan/gender plan in which clear objectives are set and particular activities are specified. This item measures whether such a plan/gender plan has been developed.

Scoring:

- 0– no plan has been prepared.
- 1– the development of a plan/gender plan is in process or the plan developed is inadequate.
- 2– the plan/gender plan has been fully elaborated with clear objectives and targets set and the plan is in use.

f. Targets set

This item measures whether governments have set realistic and measurable objectives or targets in relation to the specific issue. The targets could be set within the Plan of Action of a particular convention or document, such as ICPD +5, or within other

government Plans of Action, such as economic or social development plans. For example, the MDGs set various international developmental targets related to poverty, maternal mortality, HIV/AIDS and gender. If relevant, these targets are spelled out in the discussion of the relevant variables.

Scoring:

- 0 – no targets or measurable objectives specified.
- 2 – general objectives specified but no targets set.
- 3 – specific objectives identified and measurable targets set.

g. Institutional mechanisms

This column measures whether or not government departments or institutions have organised adequate institutional mechanisms, such as gender desks or focal points, at appropriate levels to implement the items listed. The appropriate level of each variable may vary. In some cases such as contraception and maternal mortality, this means that officials at local level must be involved.

Scoring:

- 0 – no institutional mechanism identified.
- 1 – within a general department, focal person appointed without special mandate or only at the national level while implementation should reach down to the local level.
- 2 – a specific department, focal point or gender desk within departments or regional or local administrations has been identified and is at the appropriate level to be effective.

h. Budget

Several countries are implementing gender-sensitive analysis of budgets (e.g. South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania). A gender-sensitive budget analysis allows one to assess how a budget impacts on women and men, as well as on girls and boys. Without such an analysis, the gendered impact of particular budget items may not be recognised.

This column calls attention to the question of whether governments have paid attention to the gendered impact their budget has on the specific item listed by allocating requisite financial resources for the implementation of the gender plan specified earlier. This item reviews the allocation of financial resources by governments to gender related activities. It does not relate to a general budget only.

Multi and bilateral donor agencies in Africa typically supply part of the budget needed to implement the items listed in the scorecard. Under this item however,

only government funds are considered. ODA funds, as far as they relate to government spending, are to be recorded in the country report notes. The funds spent by the private sector are also not included, even if they come from ODA funds.

Scoring:

- 0 – no government budget allocated for this item.
- 1 – some funds allocated, but not sufficient to cover the costs needed to meet the targets set in the gender plan or unclear what kind of total budget is allocated to gender-related issues.
- 2 – sufficient government budget allocated to cover the targets set in the gender plan.

i. Human resources

This column measures whether the government has employed sufficient and qualified staff to implement plans and policies. This includes whether or not the relevant institutions have undertaken adequate efforts to train staff responsible for implementing the specific item under consideration. This might involve both legal training on issues related to women's rights, as well as specific training for officers involved in departments or institutions entrusted with implementing the specific items mentioned in the scoreboard. Another item assessed here is whether staff have sufficient resources to carry out their assigned tasks. Lastly, the staff assigned to implement the gender plan related to this variable must be located at a sufficiently high level in the administration to work effectively.

Scoring:

- 0 – no specific staff assigned
- 1 – some staff assigned, but with insufficient gender expertise and without sufficient support or at a too low level in the administrative hierarchy.
- 2 – sufficient qualified staff employed, with sufficient support and at an adequately high level in the administration.

j. Research

A policy or plan can be effectively implemented only if there is sufficient data to inform and/or support it. This column measures whether or not governments have taken sufficient care to ensure that data collection and analysis on the items concerned have taken place. The research may be undertaken by specific government agencies, research institutions, universities or independent researchers. This item only measures research that has been initiated or commissioned by government agencies, not whether research has been carried out independently of the government. It also should be research that is specifically relevant to the specific indicator.

Scoring:

- 0 – no research needs identified and no research commissioned.
- 1 – some research areas are identified and implemented.
- 2 – research needs identified and adequate research conducted or commissioned.

k. Involvement of civil society

NGOs are involved in a wide range of activities related to the issues mentioned in the scorecard. It is therefore important that they are also involved in the consultation process, both on the basis of their expertise and because they are major stakeholders. Many of their efforts are not self-financing, such as shelters for women who are victims of abuse. NGOs can operate most effectively if governments ensure a sufficiently enabling climate, including financial, legislative, and administrative support for the registration and operation of NGOs. Together with governments, they can play an important role in the activities aimed at addressing gender inequality and fostering women's advancement. This column measures how far governments are working with NGOs in the particular item being scored. It does not measure NGO efforts in the specific field that they undertake independently of governments.

Scoring:

- 0 – no attention paid to civil society, no consultation has taken place, no support foreseen.
- 1 – some attention paid to civil society.
- 2 – extensive process of consultation has taken place with the appropriate NGOs, and support for and collaboration with civil society incorporated in key activities.

l. Information and dissemination

Laws, conventions, charters, as well as gender policies and plans are relevant to women if they are aware of their rights and entitlements. This column, therefore, measures whether governments are undertaking sufficient interventions to ensure that the population at large is aware of the various issues listed, and correspondingly, whether the information being disseminated is adequate and appropriate enough to reach people in a language they understand. This might include support to specific NGOs to undertake specific information campaigns.

Scoring:

- 0 – no information efforts undertaken.
- 1 – some campaigns undertaken, but limited in coverage because of language, media and other constraints such as the wide divergence between ethnic groups in a country, or geographic areas.

2 – extensive campaigns conducted which reach wide sectors of the population.

m. Monitoring and evaluation

To ensure the efficient implementation of targets set, policies and activities need regular monitoring. Hence, this column measures whether or not the government is monitoring the gender policy or plan under consideration, and whether appropriate indicators to measure progress are being used for the specific item.

Scoring:

0 – no monitoring and evaluation mechanism in place and, no tools and appropriate indicators put in place.

1 – monitoring and evaluation tools identified and process put in place but not in an adequate or sufficient way.

2 – monitoring and evaluation under way /undertaken.

Appendix Six: Case Studies of Reservations

Reservations to CEDAW by Egypt, Tunisia and Ethiopia

Egypt

In respect of article 9: Reservation to the text of article 9, paragraph 2, concerning the granting to women of equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children, without prejudice to the acquisition by a child born of a marriage of the nationality of his father. This is to prevent a child's acquisition of two nationalities where his parents are of different nationalities, since this may be prejudicial to his future. It is clear that the child's acquisition of his father's nationality is the procedure most suitable for the child and that this does not infringe upon the principle of equality between men and women, since it is customary for a woman to agree, upon marrying an alien, that her children shall be of the father's nationality.

In respect of article 16: Reservation to the text of article 16 concerning the equality of men and women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations during the marriage and upon its dissolution, without prejudice to the Islamic *Sharia's* provisions whereby women are accorded rights equivalent to those of their spouses so as to ensure a just balance between them. This is out of respect for the sacrosanct nature of the firm religious beliefs which govern marital relations in Egypt which may not be called in question. It is also in view of the fact that one of the most important bases of these relations is an equivalency of rights and duties so as to ensure the complementary which guarantees true equality between the spouses. The provisions of the *Sharia* lay down that the husband shall pay bridal money to the wife and maintain her fully and shall also make a payment to her upon divorce, whereas the wife retains full rights over her property and is not obliged to spend anything on her keep. The *Sharia*, therefore, restricts the wife's rights to divorce by making it contingent on a judge's ruling, whereas no such restriction is laid down in the case of the husband.

In respect of article 29: The Egyptian delegation also maintains the reservation contained in article 29, paragraph 2, concerning the right of a State signatory to the Convention to declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of that article concerning the submission to an arbitral body of any dispute which may arise between States concerning the interpretation or application of the Convention. This is to avoid being bound by the system of arbitration in this field.

Reservation made upon ratification: General reservation on article 2: The Arab Republic of Egypt is willing to comply with the content of this article, provided that such compliance does not run counter to the Islamic *Sharia*.

Tunisia

General declaration: The Tunisian Government declares that it shall not take any organizational or legislative decision in conformity with the requirements of this Convention where such a decision would conflict with the provisions of chapter I of the Tunisian Constitution.

Reservation concerning article 9, paragraph 2: The Tunisian Government expresses its reservation with regard to the provisions in article 9, paragraph 2 of the Convention, which must not conflict with the provisions of chapter VI of the Tunisian Nationality Code.

Reservation concerning article 16, paragraphs (c), (d), (f), (g) and (h): The Tunisian Government considers itself not bound by article 16, paragraphs (c), (d) and (f) of the Convention and declares that paragraphs (g) and (h) of that article must not conflict with the provisions of the Personal Status Code concerning the granting of family names to children and the acquisition of property through inheritance.

Reservation concerning article 29, paragraph 1: The Tunisian Government declares, in conformity with the requirements of article 29, paragraph 2 of the Convention, that it shall not be bound by the provisions of paragraph 1 of that article which specify that any dispute between two or more States Parties concerning the interpretation or application of the present Convention which is not settled by negotiation shall be referred to the International Court of Justice at the request of any one of those parties. The Tunisian Government considers that such disputes should be submitted for arbitration or consideration by the International Court of Justice only with the consent of all parties to the dispute.

Declaration concerning article 15, paragraph 4: In accordance with the provisions of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, dated 23 May 1969, the Tunisian Government emphasizes that the requirements of article 15, paragraph 4, of the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women, and particularly that part relating to the right of women to choose their residence and domicile, must not be interpreted in a manner which conflicts with the provisions of the Personal Status Code on this subject, as set forth in chapters 23 and 61 of the Code.

Ethiopia

Socialist Ethiopia does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of article 29 of the Convention.

The African Women's Report (2009) is based on the results of piloting the African Gender and Development Index in 12 African countries across the five subregions of the continent. Making a case for countries to invest in sex disaggregated data collection, the outcomes provide an indication of the general situation of women across the continent.

The results of the AGDI trials demonstrate that countries have shown commitment to international, regional and subregional treaties affecting women through overwhelming ratification. Many instruments have been reflected in constitutions and other legal frameworks of countries. Nevertheless, implementation of these has been at snails pace, resulting in the persistence of violence against women and discrimination, especially in relation to equal rights in marriage and property rights.

The report confirms existing MDG status reports which indicate remarkable progress being made with respect to MDG2 on Universal Access to Basic Education. Regrettably, however, this momentum is not carried forward into secondary and tertiary education, where both sexes, most especially males fall through the cracks. Similar gender dimensions are found with respect to child health, where boys seem to be the worst victims of stunting, underweight and under-five mortality. Substantial gaps and things to do remain in the area of Sexual and Reproductive Health, which is witnessing excessive rates of maternal mortality and disproportionate impacts of HIV/AIDS on women.

In the area of economic participation, the report expresses concern at the lack of statistical and financial recognition given to the time and effort that women expend in domestic and reproductive work. Women remain a dominant force in the informal sector, particularly as unpaid family workers. In formal sector employment they are segregated into the lowest echelons of employment, so that when taken together, women tend to have lower earnings than men.

In the political field, countries of the Southern African region (Mozambique and South Africa) in addition to Uganda of East Africa have achieved 30 per cent representation in Parliament. This has largely been influenced by the implementation of affirmative action policies by ruling parties. Nevertheless, for these countries and for the vast majority of countries, women's political representation remains abysmal on the whole, as their presence dissipates at the levels of the judiciary, executive, and even at community level.

With the aid of a systematic collection of sex disaggregated data, the report calls for enhanced commitment towards accelerated implementation of gender equality as outlined in frameworks such as the ICPD+15, Beijing+15, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the African Women's Protocol.

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