



# 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

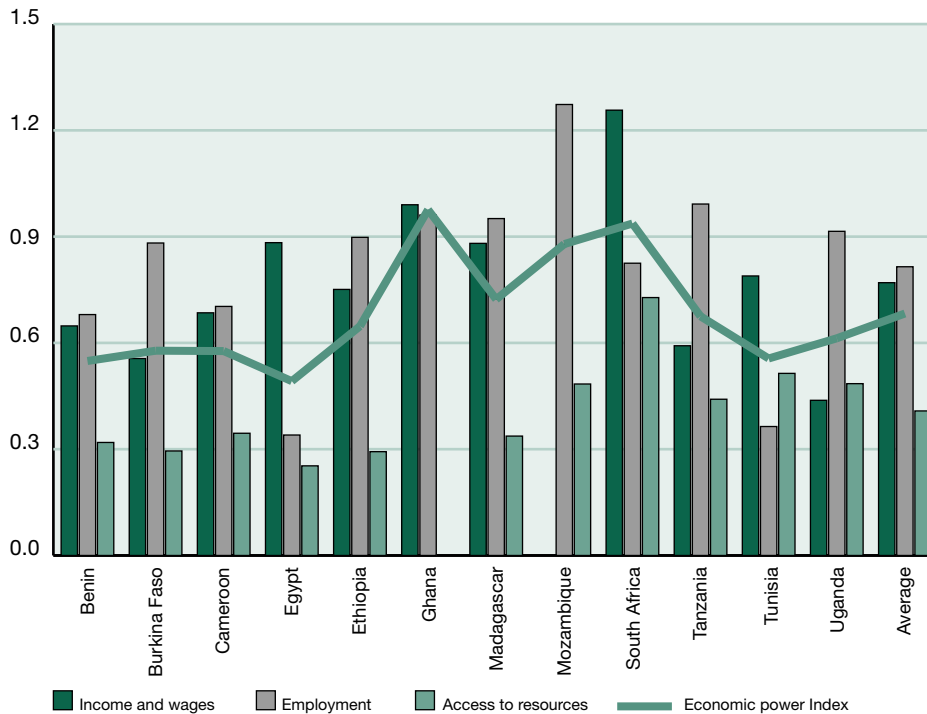
**Sources:** ECA computations from country studies data

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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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
	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

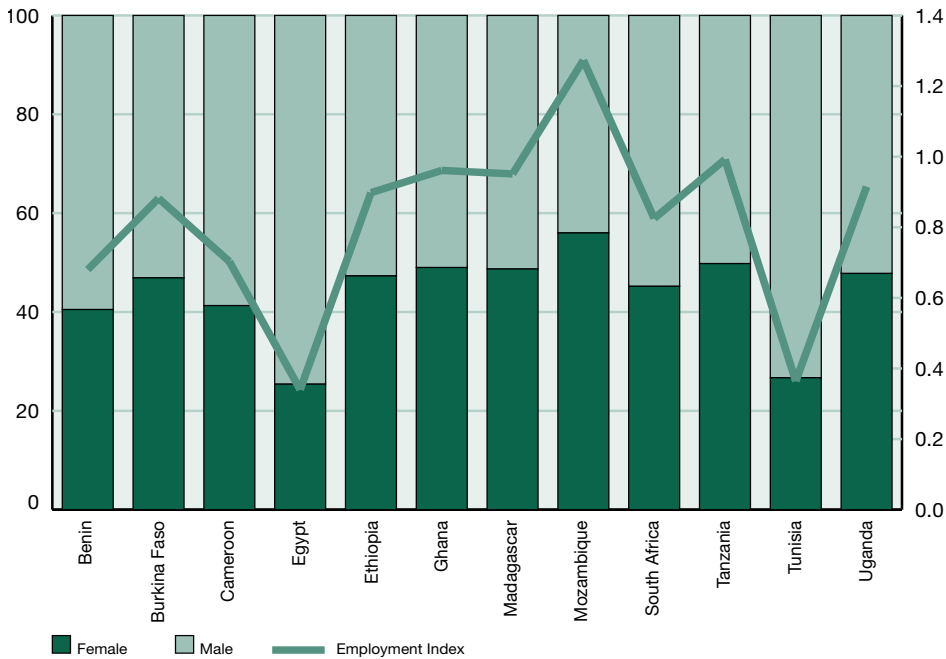
Sources: UNECA computations from country reports (see Appendix 1)

**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.

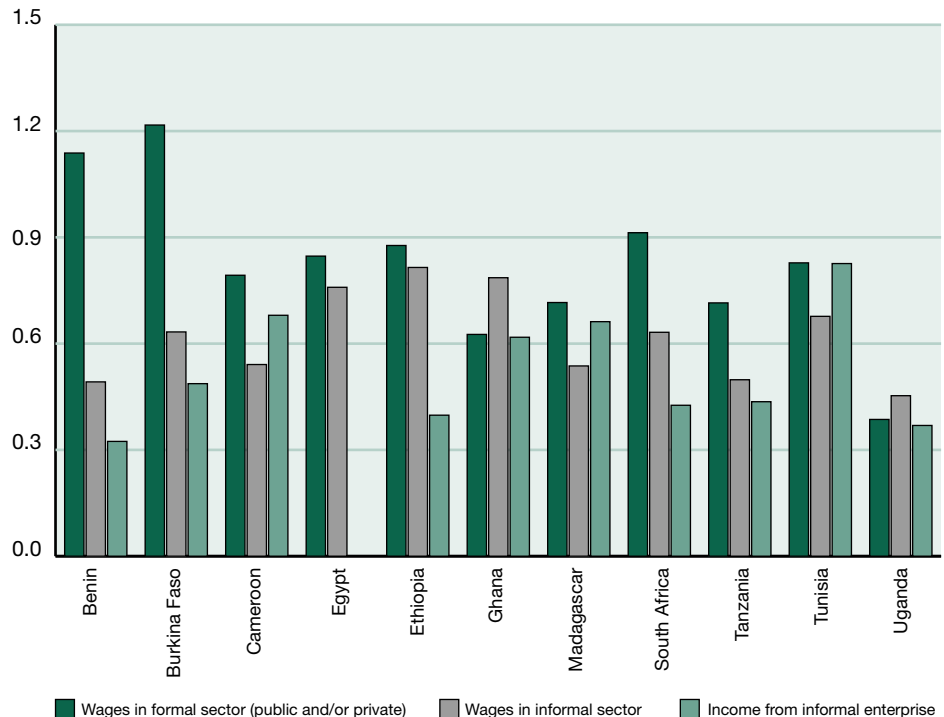
The GSI measures progress being made in bridging male and female gaps in income. This is done firstly, by assessing the state of wage distribution in the fields of agriculture, and the civil service, the formal sector (public and private), the informal sector and secondly,

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.<sup>1</sup>

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.<sup>2</sup> In many countries, women also tend to be more visible in the social sector segment of the civil service, compared to the economic sector.<sup>3</sup> 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.

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### 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.<sup>4</sup>

In Madagascar, more than seven out of ten women are house helpers. The average annual salary of women in such occupations is Ariary 750,000<sup>5</sup> 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

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

<sup>5</sup> 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

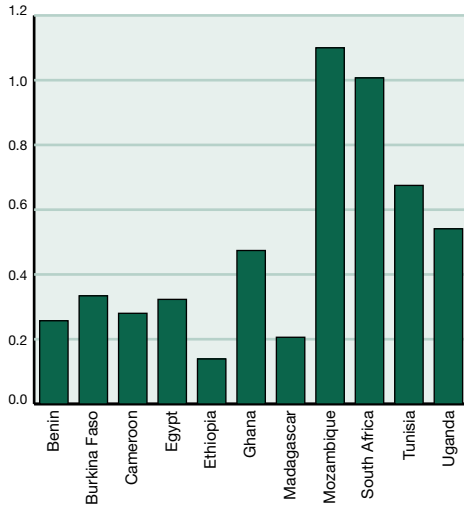
#### *The underlying causes of inequitable access to resources in United Republic of Tanzania*

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.

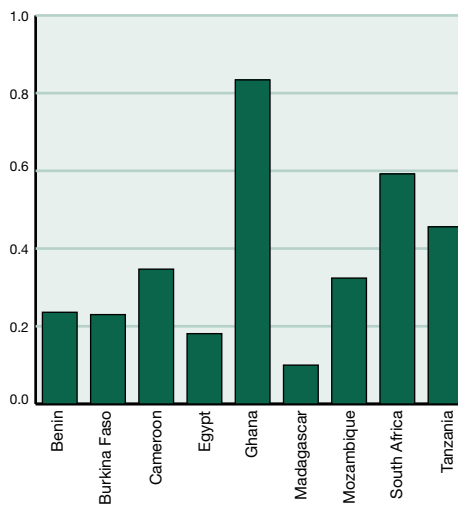
**Source:** *United Republic of Tanzania State Party Report, 2008: Para. 25*

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)*

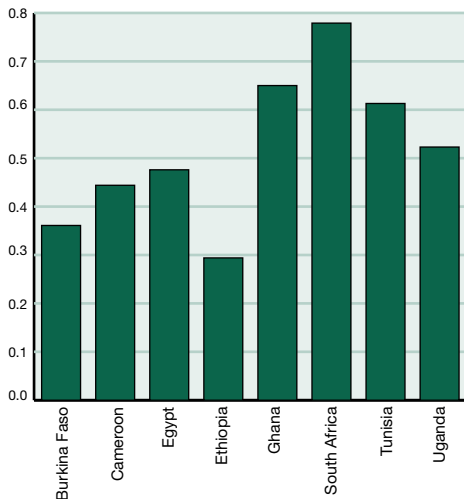


**Figure 6.5**  
**Women's high civil servants index**  
*(Male=1.000)*



“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

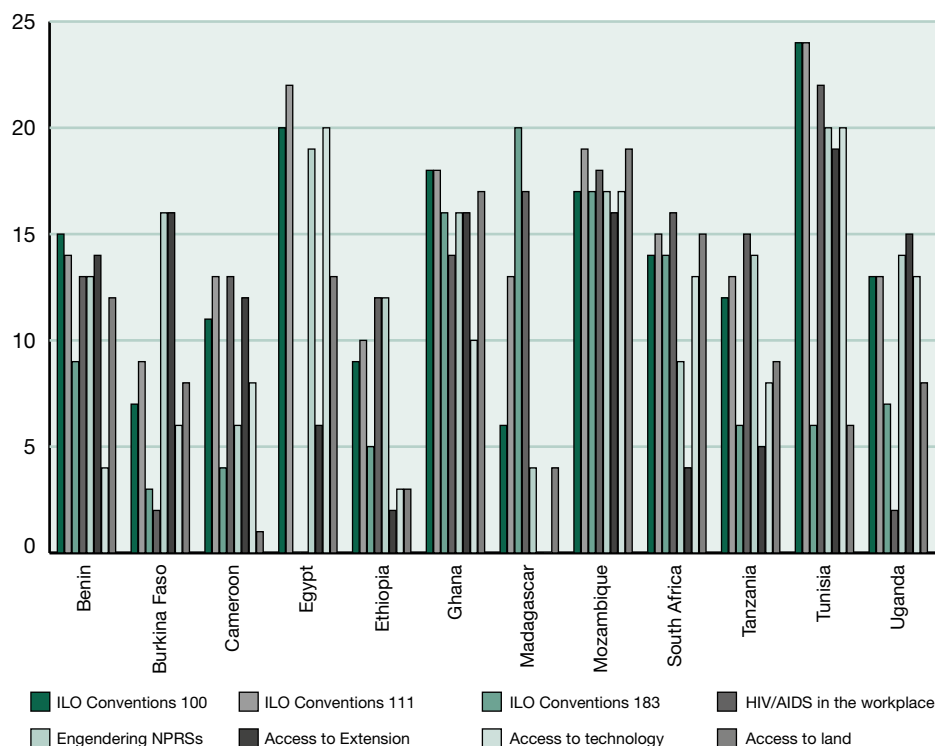
**Source:** UNECA computations from country data

**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.<sup>6</sup>

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.<sup>7</sup>

## **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.

<sup>6</sup> Article 11 of CEDAW.

<sup>7</sup> 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.<sup>8</sup>

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.*”

<sup>8</sup> 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.<sup>9</sup>

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.<sup>10</sup>

**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

<sup>9</sup> 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.

<sup>10</sup> 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.<sup>11</sup>

### 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 10<sup>th</sup> 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.'<sup>12</sup> 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.<sup>13</sup>

12 Paragraph 1 of the Tunis Commitment.

13 Paragraph 23 of the Tunis Commitment.

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The Commitment recognizes gender as part of the digital divide in society and reaffirms support for women's empowerment and gender equality.”

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The Beijing +5  
outcomes also  
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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) <sup>14</sup> 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 Policy<sup>15</sup> and a draft Telecommunications Sector Policy that recognizes the importance of gender mainstreaming and access to information by disadvantaged groups.<sup>16</sup> 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).<sup>17</sup>

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

<sup>17</sup> This law also ensures equal rights of inheritance of male and female children.

“The pilot study results show that all countries have developed diverse legislative initiatives.”

“  
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).

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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.