

African Gender and Development Index Regional Synthesis Report

Measuring Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Africa



United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa

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Women's Empowerment in Africa*



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Publications Section
Economic Commission for Africa
Menelik II Avenue
P.O. Box 3001
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Tel: +251 11 544-9900
Fax: +251 11 551-4416
E-mail: ecainfo@uneca.org
Web: www.uneca.org

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Acronyms

| | |
|-------|--|
| ACEM | Association of Christian Educators in Malawi |
| ACGS | African Centre for Gender and Social Development |
| ADDS | Agence Djiboutienne de Développement Social |
| AfDB | African Development Bank |
| AGDI | African Gender and Development Index |
| AIDS | Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome |
| ALMP | Active Labour Market Policy/Programme |
| ARP | Alternative Rite of Passage |
| ART | Antiretroviral Therapy |
| ARV | Antiretroviral |
| ASWA | Agriculture Sector Wide Approach |
| AU | African Union |
| AUC | African Union Commission |
| AWD | African Women's Decade |
| AWPS | African Women's Progress Scoreboard |
| BAIS | Botswana AIDS Impact Surveys |
| BPA | Beijing Platform for Action |
| CBO | Community Based Organization |
| CFECM | Caisse féminines d'épargne et de crédit mutuel |
| CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women |
| CPR | Contraceptive Prevalence Rate |
| NCCHR | National Consultative Commission of Human Rights |
| DNHA | Department of Nutrition and HIV and AIDS |
| EFA | Education for All |
| EPI | Expanded Programmes of Immunization |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization |
| FAP | Financial Assistance Policy |
| FDED | Fonds de Développement Economique de Djibouti |
| FGC | Female Genital Cutting |
| FGM | Female Genital Mutilation |
| FPE | Free Primary Education |
| FWL | Federation of Women Lawyers |
| GAWFA | Gambia Women's Finance Association |
| GBV | Gender Based Violence |
| GEM | Gender Empowerment Measure |
| GEM | Girls Education Movement |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GPBM | Gender Protocol Barometer for Malawi |
| GSI | Gender Status Index |
| GII | Gender Inequality Index |
| HDI | Human Development Index |
| HDR | Human Development Report |

| | |
|---------|---|
| HIV | Human Immunodeficiency Virus |
| HRE | Human Rights Education |
| HRET | Human Rights Education and Training |
| ICPD | International Conference on Population and Development |
| ICT | Information and Communications Technology |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| IRC | International Rescue Committee |
| ITN | Insecticide-Treated bed Nets |
| JAB | Joint Admissions Board |
| JGSP | Joint Gender Support Programme |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |
| KDHS | Kenya Demographic and Health Survey |
| KDS | Kenya Demographic Survey |
| MCH | Maternal and Child Health |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goal |
| MGDS | Malawi Growth and Development Strategy |
| MOSBSE | Gambian Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education |
| MPFEF | Ministère de la Promotion de la Femme, de l'Enfant et de la Famille |
| MTP | Medium Term Plan |
| MUCODEC | Mutuelle Congolaise d'Épargne et Crédit |
| NACC | National AIDS Control Council |
| NAWFA | National Women's Farmers Association |
| NAP | National Advisory Panel |
| NASCOP | National AIDS/STD Control Programme |
| NASEP | National Agricultural Sector Extension Policy |
| NEPAD | New Partnership for Africa's Development |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organization |
| NHSSP | National Health Sector Strategic Plan |
| NPRS | National Poverty Reduction Strategies |
| PDL | Poverty Datum Line |
| PMTCT | Prevention of Mother To Child Transmission |
| PoA | Programme of Action |
| PPA | Planned Parenthood Association of Zambia |
| PRSP | Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper |
| PTCT | Parent-to-Child Transmission |
| RCH | Reproductive and Child Health |
| RECOFEM | Projet de Renforcement des Capacités des Organisations Féminines |
| RHU | Reproductive Health Unit |
| SADC | Southern African Development Community |
| SCOFI | Scolarisation des Filles |
| SDGEA | Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa |
| SFH | Society for Family Health |

| | |
|--------|--|
| STI | Sexually Transmitted Infection |
| SSA | Sub-Saharan Africa |
| TBA | Traditional Birth Attendants |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNAIDS | The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS |
| UNDESA | United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNECA | United Nations Economic Commission for Africa |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| UNFD | United Nations Fund for Development |
| UNFPA | United Nations Population Fund |
| UNSC | United Nations Security Council |
| UNSD | United Nations Statistics Division |
| VAW | Violence Against Women |
| VCT | Voluntary Counseling and Testing |
| VISACA | Village Savings and Credit Association |
| WAD | Women's Affairs Department |
| WANEP | West African Network for the Elimination of small arms Proliferation |
| WB | World Bank |
| WHO | World Health Organization |
| ZARAN | Zambia Aids Law Research and Advocacy Network |

African Gender and Development Index—Phase II Countries



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Chapter One

Introduction

African member States have shown commitment and are taking critical steps to advance gender equality and women's empowerment by acceding to key global and regional instruments, and integrating gender into national policy, planning, program and legislative frameworks, thus acknowledging the centrality of gender equality in the achievement of socio-economic and political development. In doing so, they are affirming that gender equality and women's empowerment are not only development goals in their own right but they are also a device to achieving development results. Rio + 20 outcome document acknowledges persistent social, economic, and political inequalities deterring realization of the full potential of women to engage in, contribute to and benefit from sustainable development as leaders, participants and agents of change. Most countries in Africa have affirmed their commitment to collect, disseminate, harmonize, and make full use of sex disaggregated data to inform policy decisions. They have also shown willingness to integrate targets for gender equality and women's empowerment. The 2011 Busan financing for development outcome document also re-affirms the global commitment to integrating gender equality and the empowerment of women in the international development framework. The document calls for the adoption of a comprehensive development goal on gender equality and the inclusion of gender-sensitive targets and indicators in all other goals. Despite this laudable commitment, African member States have not been able to adequately institutionalize monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to assess the extent of gender gaps in the different sectors of development and their

progress in implementing their regional and international commitments towards gender equality and women's empowerments.

Albeit at a slow pace, there is dynamism of transformative policy environment evolving which encapsulates key tenets of international and regional gender equality instruments, and consequently informs African policy and developmental priorities. Specifically, the vital role of women and the need for their full and equal participation in all areas of development has been reiterated by a number of these instruments including: the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and its gender component, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, Southern Africa Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development among others. Further, the 2012 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio + 20) underscored the importance of accelerating implementation of gender equality and women's empowerment commitments.

Within this global and regional policy and legislative framework, this synthesis report shows some staggered and inconsistent progress made by African member States in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment in the social, economic and political sectors. For instance, some countries have recorded commendable levels of progress in legal reforms in key areas of social

development, specifically in education, health and social security for the most vulnerable segments of their population while others are lagging behind. The report shows that improvements have been registered in the provision of basic education with many countries reporting an increase in enrolment ratios for both girls and boys¹. Similarly, women's representation in decision making positions has also increased significantly in some countries while public awareness of women's rights is also on the increase. For example, women's representation in parliament in Rwanda has reached 56.3 per cent while Senegal and South Africa have increased by 40 per cent².

Despite these laudable achievements and progress, the findings of this report demonstrated that gender inequality and women's empowerment still remain one of the biggest challenges facing African member States. The inequalities manifest themselves in women's limited access to, and control over productive resources, unequal access to social services and socio-economic opportunities as well as low representation in politics and decision-making spheres. The analysis in this report thus generates valuable policy lessons that will be useful for African countries to redress gender imbalances and improve the status of women.

The national African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) reports³ have confirmed that advancing gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa is still a major struggle that is shrouded in complex, intricate and myriad challenges including weak planning, institutional, monitoring and evaluation systems. To make it more difficult, there is inaccessibility of periodically updated data, lack of strong and receptive policy and legal environment, inadequate human development

capacity as well as insufficient and weak structural arrangements to mainstream gender in the various sectors of development. To address this challenge, and to fulfill its mandate to report on Africa's progress in implementing global gender equality and women's empowerment instruments, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) has developed the African Gender and Development Index. AGDI is a tool designed to facilitate effective monitoring and evaluation, policy and planning analysis as well as an assessment of the extent to which Africa is implementing the regional and international commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment. The tool contributes to a bigger strategy for promoting gender equality in the continent as it is designed to enable African member States to accurately measure achievements made and assess the level of persisting gender gaps in gender equality and women's empowerment. AGDI therefore is an important tool that additionally helps policy makers to assess their own performance in implementing policies and programmes aimed at achieving gender equality and women's empowerment.

AGDI provides a policy and planning framework to monitor Africa's progress in the implementation of global, regional and sub regional commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment. This report, therefore, presents the status of gender equality in the selected thirteen countries in Africa, highlighting the disparities between men and women in economic, social and political spaces. The report discusses progress made as well as challenges encountered by African member States in their endeavors to implement national, regional and international instruments on gender equality and women's empowerment. Following a pilot study in twelve African countries, namely: Benin,

1 Assessing Progress in Africa Towards Millennium Development Goals MDGs Report 2011

2 UNECA (2010) A Fifteen-Year Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Africa (BPFA) +15.

3 The AGDI phase II countries.

Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Egypt, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda, the AGDI studies have been extended further to other thirteen countries⁴ in the African continent. This report is based on the second phase of the AGDI studies undertaken in Botswana, Cabo Verde, Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Democratic Republic of Congo, the Gambia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Senegal, Togo and Zambia. Drawing on these national AGDI reports, the regional report provides a synthesis on the status of gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa including progress made in the implementation of gender policy commitments. The report makes a case for enhancing all efforts for the collection and use of sex disaggregated and gender responsive data for effective policy and programming in Africa. Further, the AGDI facilitates qualitative and quantitative measurement of gender inequalities in the economic, social and political spheres and contributes to a deeper understanding of the challenges encountered by member States in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. The regional report, thus provides useful insights for the need to scale-up gender mainstreaming efforts in the continent.

1.1 Overview of the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI)

The African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) was designed by the African Centre for Gender and Social Development (ACGS) and endorsed by ministers responsible for gender equality and women's affairs in 2004 as a tool for measuring gender inequalities and assessing progress made in the implementation of gender policy commitments. The index compliments other

indices such as the Human Development Index (HDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which are also aimed at monitoring a range of gender-related development indicators. In response to the specific gender equality monitoring requirements of the continent, the AGDI serves as a useful planning and policy framework for assessing performance of African countries in their implementation of the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Beijing Platform for Action, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child among many others. This tool enables countries to strengthen their policy and planning focus, compile data and assess their own status, in terms of achieving gender equality and women's empowerment, both quantitatively and qualitatively. AGDI provides a mechanism for streamlining policy, planning as well as reporting on all gender related conventions and documents. The tool's aim is thus to achieve the following;

- » Provide African governments with data and information on the status of gender equality and the effects of their gender policies towards reducing women's marginalization.
- » Equip policy-makers and their partners with a mechanism to mainstream gender into their development planning and implementation processes and to measure gender equality and women's advancement in various spheres, namely, economic, political, social and women's rights.
- » Strengthen the capacity of African member States to effectively monitor the progress made in implementing conventions that

⁴ Botswana, Cabo Verde, Congo Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Democratic Republic of Congo, TheGambia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Senegal, Togo and Zambia,

they have ratified, as well as monitoring other gender commitments.

- » Promote change in attitudes, structures and mechanisms at the political, legal and operational levels in order to achieve gender equality and women's advancement.
- » Bridge the knowledge and information gaps between stated achievements by member States and the real impact of gender mainstreaming efforts.
- » Democratize statistics and qualitative monitoring tools that are effective and easy to use.

The African Gender and Development Index Design and Computation

AGDI is able to achieve the above mentioned goals through a simple composite architecture, consisting of two parts. The first part is a Gender Status Index (GSI), which provided *quantitative* assessment of social, economic, and political issues, specifically measured through indicators that impact differentially on men and women (e.g. education and income). The full list of indicators on which gender equality was assessed is shown in Table 62 in Appendix VI. Based on data on each indicator, a ratio of female achievement to that of males has been computed to show whether gender parity was achieved or not. Thus, by taking a simple average of group of such indices, the level of gender equality can be assessed in the social, economic and political sectors.

The second component of the AGDI is the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) which represents a *qualitative* evaluation of governments' performance in their implementation of specific treaties, declarations, and resolutions affecting women and their rights. The AWPS frame work is a setup that has horizontal and vertical axes. Vertically listed are indicators which address

global and regional agreements, declarations and resolutions which African governments are expected to implement and also, issues that have been identified as crucially affecting women's lives (like maternal health, HIV, violence against women, school dropouts etc) for which pertinent policy and implementation actions are expected from governments. The horizontal axis identifies specific actions taken (e.g. presence of law, policy, budget, resource etc.) in order to implement and address the issues that have already been identified in the vertical axis. The AWPS frame work is as shown in Table 63 in APPENDIX VI. Scores are then given for level of implementation for each issue identified. Scoring is based on a three-point scale of 0, 1 and 2, where generally, 0 shows no action of implementation taken against an identified treaty or issue; 1 shows some or partial implementation and 2 is good or full action taken with respect to an issue.

1.2 The African Gender and Development Index Process

Introduction of the AGDI into the participating countries involved undertaking a series of consultative processes. The initial step in all the countries involved the establishment of a National Advisory Panel (NAP), made up of representatives of the Ministries responsible for Gender, Finance, Health and Education, the Bureau of Statistics, an NGO representative and two independent gender and development experts. The role of the panel was to facilitate research and data collection; validate the results upon completion and to ensure production of a good quality AGDI national report.

The second step followed by all the countries was to engage independent consultants who were supported by experts from the national gender machineries and central statistics offices to undertake the study. The consultants, gender and statistics experts

as well as members of the national advisory panels underwent a series of training on the use of the AGDI manual, including a hands-on appreciation of the AGDI indicators and sources of data collection. Data was collected by the countries through rigorous research which entailed review of literature and compilation of statistical data from diverse sources, including census reports; demographic and health surveys; labour force surveys; living standard measurement studies and household surveys. Consultative and participatory meetings were held by the countries to assess progress in the implementation of gender policy commitments using the AWPS. The meetings also facilitated consensus amongst strategic actors and developed the justification for the scoring presented in the AWPS.

1.3 The Socio-Economic Context

The African continent has shown some impressive economic growth since the turn of the 21st century, and also experienced a sustained average positive growth during the global economic downturn in 2008 – 2011. Growth in gross domestic product rose from 3.4% in 2013 to an estimated 3.7% in 2015⁵. The latest projections of world economic situations forecasted further consolidation in growth rates to 4.4 % annually in 2016 and 2017, respectively⁶. For Africa the major factors underpinning this positive growth trajectory include the increasing domestic demand, improving regional business environment and macroeconomic management, increasing public investment, a buoyant services sector and increasing trade and investment ties with emerging economies⁷.

The positive macroeconomic performance did not fully translate into improved standards

of living for the people and moreover, the growth was far from being inclusive and equitable for all segments of the population. Urban-rural disparity remains a challenge and gender inequality in the economic, social and political spheres is thus a persistent reality in most African countries despite efforts made to narrow the gaps. The following background serves to set the specific socio economic and demographic context of the phase II AGDI countries against which gender and development can be assessed. It portrays some of the socio-economic features of the 13 African countries that are part of AGDI II. It brings out diversity by highlighting some of the social and economic differences. For the social aspects, a comparative assessment of the population and the human development index are made, whereas the GDP per capita and poverty levels (proportion of population living on US\$1.25 per day) are used to evaluate the economic differences. The Gender Inequality Index (GII) has been used to highlight the gender inequalities in the thirteen countries.

I. The Social Context

Population

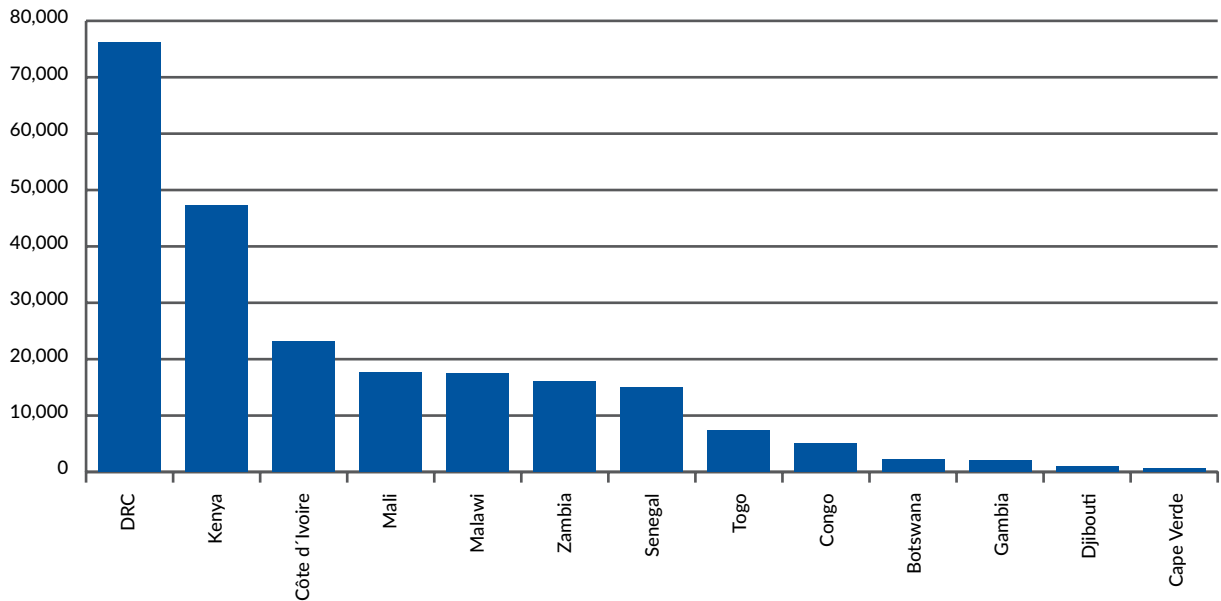
Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the differences in total population and in the population growth rates. As of 2015, out of the thirteen countries which participated in the AGDI II study, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) had the highest population (77.3 million) whilst Cabo Verde had the least (0.5 million). The population growth rates from 2010 to 2015 show a positive increase in the population for all the thirteen countries; most of them have growth rates above 2 per cent.

5 United Nations (2016). World Economic Situation and Prospects 2016. United Nations, New York 2016. Available at: http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/policy/wesp/wesp_current/2016wesp_ch1_en.pdf

6 Ibid.

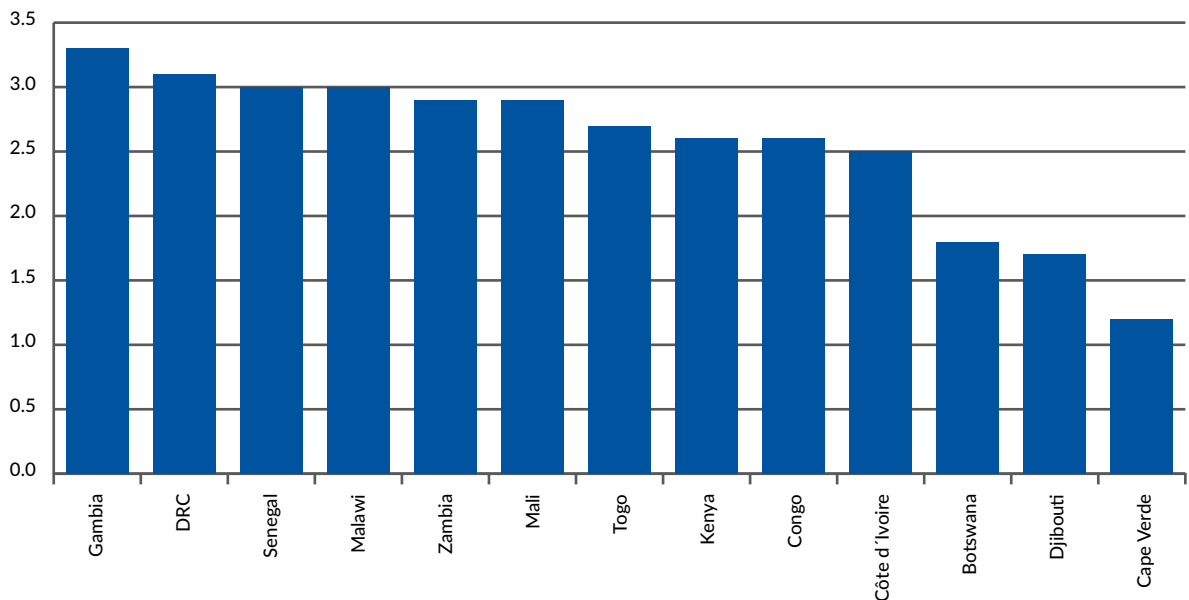
7 Economic Commission for Africa (2016). Economic Report on Africa 2015: Industrializing through trade.

Figure 1 Total Population (in millions), 2015



Source: World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision (UN DESA, 2015).

Figure 2 Population Growth Rate, 2010-2015 (%)



Source: World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision (UN DESA, 2015).

Human Development Index

The Human Development Index (HDI) is used to measure the level of a country's human development and it encompasses life

expectancy, literacy, education, child welfare, standards of living and quality of life (i.e. health, education and income). Botswana has the highest HDI of 0.698 whilst Mali has the

lowest (0.419) as indicated in Table 1. None of the selected countries have 'very high' or 'high' human development status. Out of 188 countries that were ranked, Mali is in the bottom 10 in the world rankings. However, the overall rankings for some other African countries with 'high' human development are: Mauritius (63), Seychelles (64), Algeria (83), Libya (94) and Tunisia (96), which were not part of this AGDI II cohort

II. The Economic Context

Overall, although there is marked subregional variation, the improved economic growth across Africa has not adequately translated into reductions in unemployment, poverty or significant progress towards MDGs (Economic Report on Africa, ECA 2011). The following shows the profile of the participating countries in terms of growth (in Gross Domestic Product per capita) and the poverty situation.

Gross Domestic Product

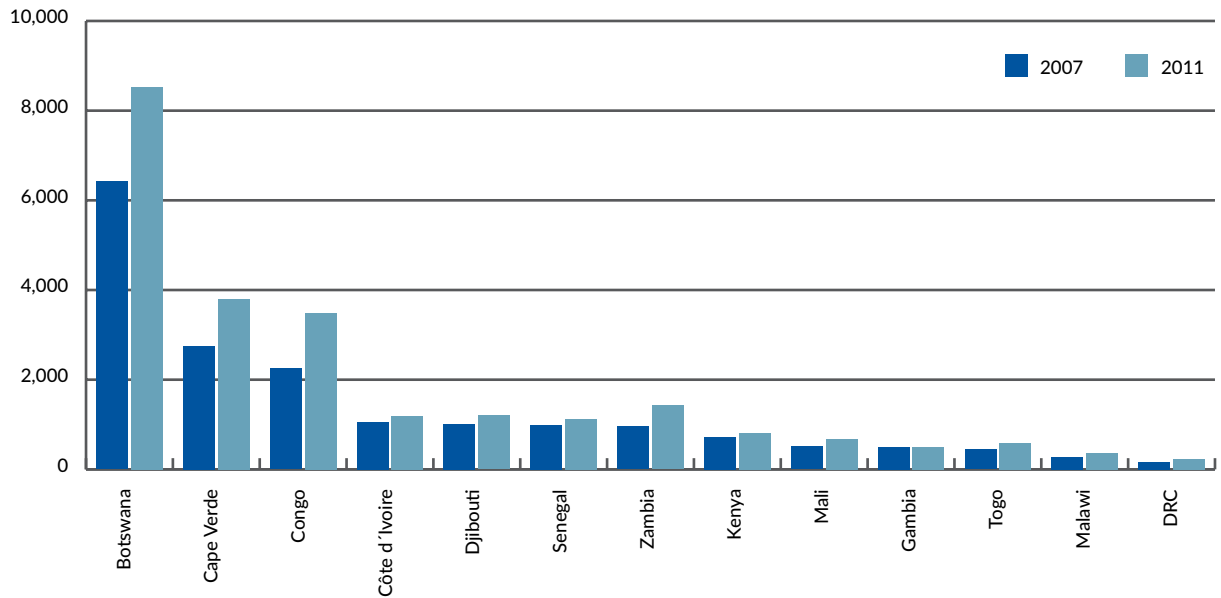
Of the thirteen AGDI II countries, Botswana has the highest Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita whilst for most of the countries, per capita income for both 2008 and 2013 was below US\$2000 (see figure 3). GDP per capita ranged from just above US\$7,000 for Botswana to as low as US\$240 for Malawi. Looking at the perspective, it is worth noting that the GDP does not adequately capture women's contribution to the economy. The important care work performed unpaid by women and girls is not accounted for in the GDP and such oversights have critical implications on the policy and development decisions. Additionally, growth does not trickle down to women and men, boys and girls equitably. Gender inequality in education, in access to and control over resources such as land and credit prevent the beneficiaries across gender and age groups from receiving equal benefits.

Table 1: Human Development Index (HDI), 2014

| Category | Country | HDI | World Ranking |
|--------------------|---------------|-------|---------------|
| Medium Development | Botswana | 0.698 | 106 |
| | Cabo Verde | 0.646 | 122 |
| | Congo | 0.591 | 136 |
| | Zambia | 0.586 | 139 |
| Low Development | Kenya | 0.548 | 145 |
| | Togo | 0.484 | 162 |
| | Djibouti | 0.470 | 168 |
| | Senegal | 0.466 | 170 |
| | Côte d'Ivoire | 0.462 | 172 |
| | Malawi | 0.445 | 173 |
| | Gambia | 0.441 | 175 |
| | DRC | 0.433 | 176 |
| | Mali | 0.419 | 179 |

Source: UNDP (2015)

Figure 3 GDP Per Capita in US \$ Current Prices

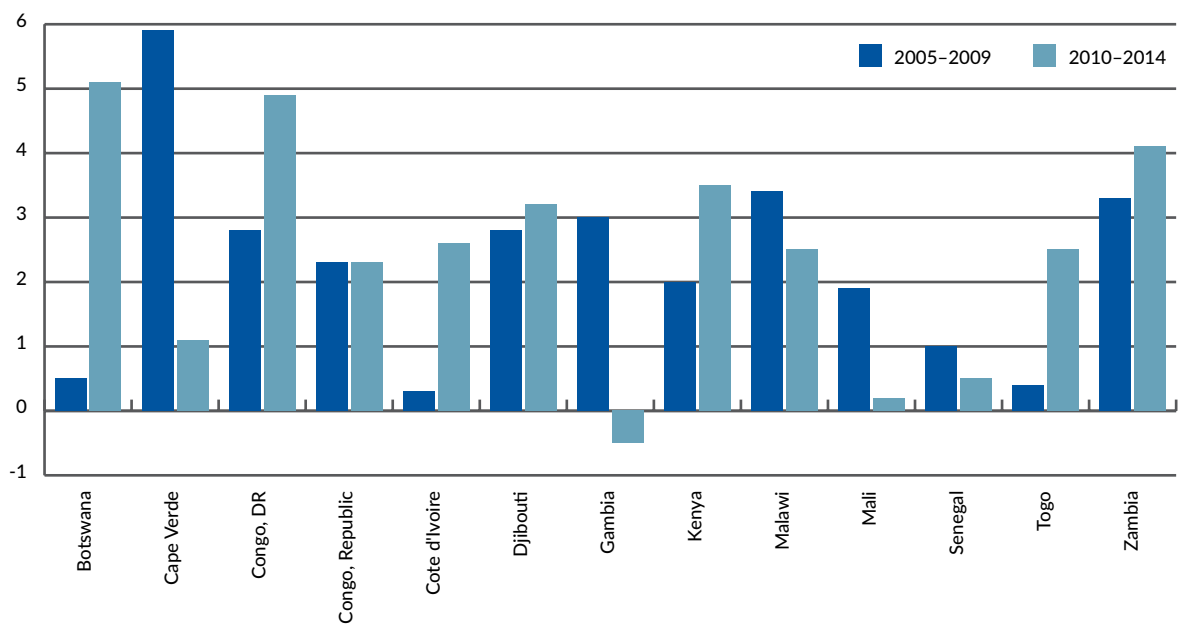


Source: African Development Bank Data Portal.

Growth rates calculated based on real GDP per capita show that except for the Gambia which experienced a slight decline in growth rate of -0.5 %, there was positive growth

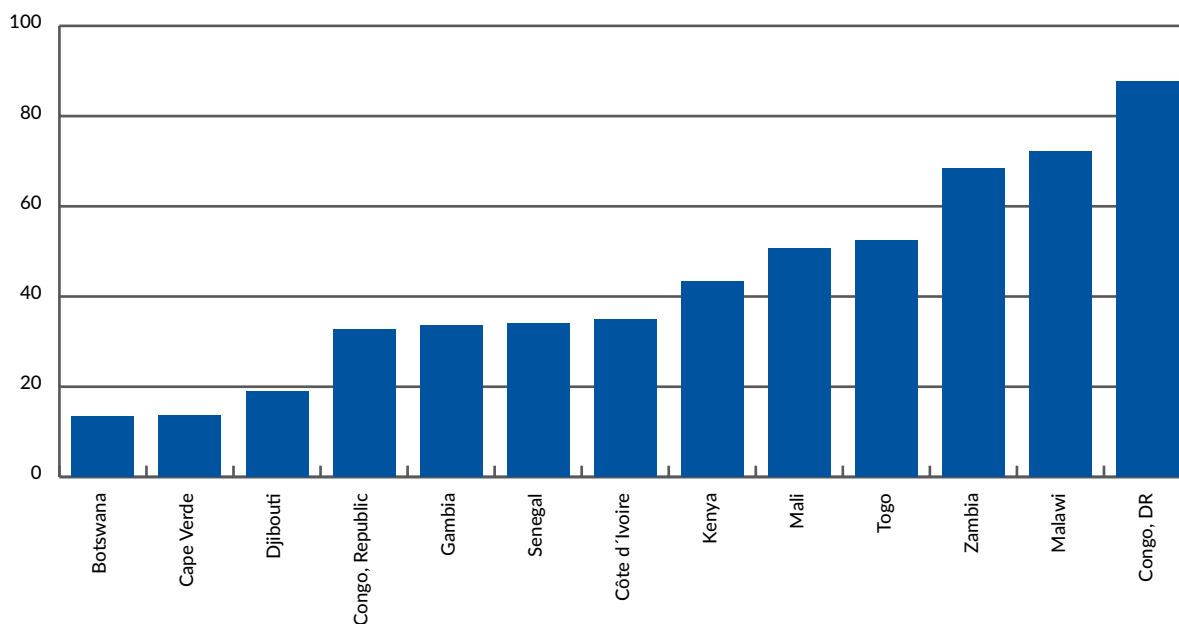
between the years 2010 and 2014, ranging from 5.1 % in Botswana to 0.2 % in Mali (see figure 4).

Figure 4 Average Annual Real GDP Per Capita Growth Rate (2005-2014)



Source: African Development Bank Data Portal.

Figure 5 Proportion of Population Below \$1.25 (PPP) Per Day, 2005-2011



Source: World Development Indicators (2013), World Bank.

Poverty

Poverty levels in Africa remain high particularly in the sub-Saharan region.⁸ It has been observed that due to the initial poor economic base and low technological advancements in these countries. Not only did it become difficult for growth to take place but it also failed to rapid reductions in poverty. Existing disparities in poverty that are based on gender and urban – rural divide make poverty reduction more complex. Reducing poverty would thus be a determining step towards achieving gender equality, since women constitute the majority of the poor people in developing countries.

Four of the selected AGDI II countries, have more than 50 percent of their population

living below US\$1.25 per day as shown in Figure 5. It is worth noting that countries which showed higher growth rates in GDP per capita, like Congo and Zambia, still have high percentage of the population living in poverty which shows that per capita growth rates are yet to be translated into poverty reduction.

Gender Inequality

The UNDP's Gender Inequality Index (GII) introduced in 2010 is composed of three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. All but one of the selected countries have Gender Inequality Index⁹ that are greater than 0.4. Out of the 155 countries ranked in 2014, six of the selected countries are in the bottom 20 (see table 2).

8 According to United Nations (2016), "The Millennium Development Goals Report 2015" the reduction in poverty rate for sub-Saharan Africa during the period 1990 – 2015 was from 57 % to 41%, a percentage decline of 28% only compared to a 69% decline for developing regions.

9 The UNDP's Gender Inequality Index introduced in 2010 is composed of three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. Reproductive health is measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates; empowerment is measured by the proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by females and proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education; and labour market is measured by labour force participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years and older.

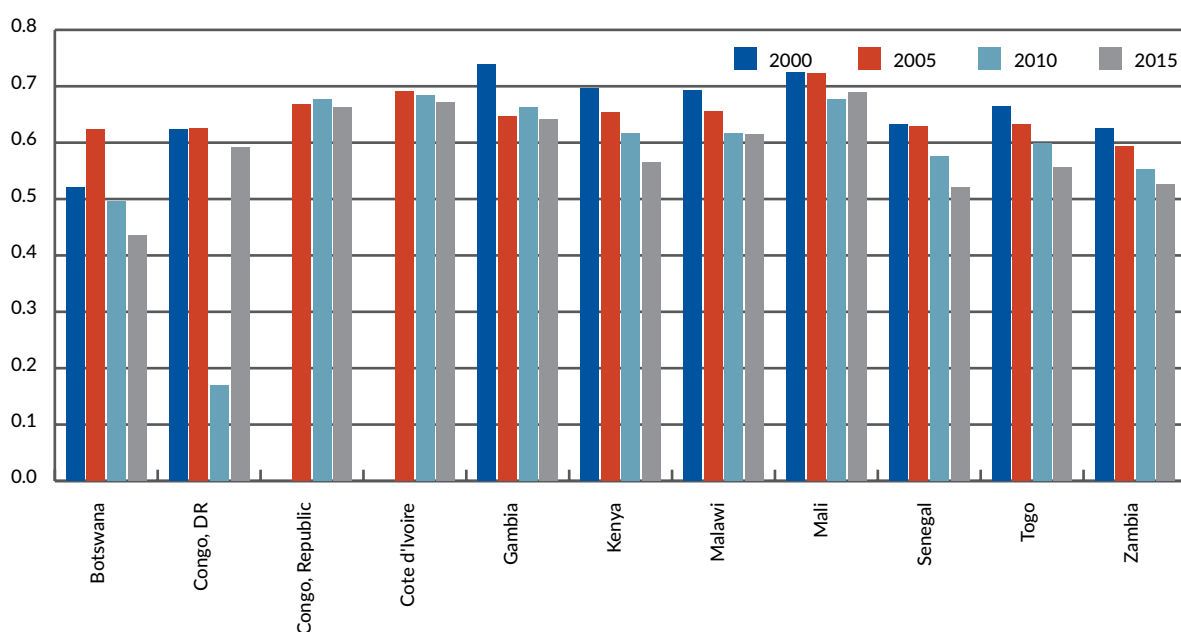
Table 2: Gender Inequality Index (GII), 2014

| Country | GII | World Rank |
|---------------|-------|------------|
| Botswana | 0.480 | 106 |
| Senegal | 0.528 | 118 |
| Kenya | 0.552 | 126 |
| Zambia | 0.587 | 132 |
| Togo | 0.588 | 134 |
| Congo | 0.593 | 137 |
| Malawi | 0.611 | 140 |
| The Gambia | 0.622 | 143 |
| DRC | 0.673 | 149 |
| Mali | 0.677 | 150 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | 0.679 | 151 |
| Cabo Verde | - | - |
| Djibouti | - | - |

Source: UNDP (2015). Note: The lower the GII, the lower the gap between men and women (more gender equality), and the lower the loss in human development due to gender inequality.

Figure 6 shows decent variation in change across 15 years with Kenya and Senegal exhibiting steady improvements while Democratic Republic of C and Congo registering almost no change in GII.

Figure 6 Trends in the Gender Inequality Index (2000 - 2015)



Source: UNDP (2015).

There is need to emphasize that, although most of the countries differ in their socio economic profile, gender inequality and women's empowerment still remains a big challenge among them. There is also a need for member states to continue working towards achieving gender equality in order to contribute to the achievement of regional and global sustainable development frameworks.

1.4 Structure of the Report

The report is structured into four chapters. **Chapter One** is the Introduction, which gives a synopsis of the scenario of gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa and outlines the background and the socio-economic context of the findings. The chapter also presents an overview of ADGI and outlines the methodology and processes that supported production of the national AGDI reports in the participating countries. Additionally, this chapter shows diversity in the thirteen countries covered by AGDI Phase II, highlighting some of the social and economic variations as well as similarities in policy, legislative and programme implementation. **Chapter Two** presents a detailed analysis of the data generated through the Gender Status Index (GSI), a synthesis of the findings

on the three power blocks that is social, economic and political. The section discusses the good practices, emerging and persisting challenges as well as issues common to all the participating countries. **Chapter Three** consolidates the findings of the African Women Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) and discusses prevailing women's rights issues that AGDI II countries are dealing with. The chapter also highlights the different measures participating countries have adopted in order to address violence against women and discusses how different countries have implemented the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 to address continental peace and security issues as well as the mechanisms they have followed in promoting involvement of women in peace and security decision making. The chapter also presents different and innovative ways in which AGDI II countries are using quotas and affirmative action to advance gender equality and women's empowerment as well as the different measures being followed to mainstream gender into all facets of development. **Chapter Four** presents conclusions on the AGDI II findings and flags recommendations to reinforce strategies that African member States need to put in place in order to advance gender equality and women's empowerment in the continent.

Chapter Two

The Gender Status Index

The Gender Status Index (GSI) measures the gender gaps within each country and assesses the extent to which women have the same opportunities as men to: i) obtain education and live healthy lives, ii) achieve economic empowerment and have access to resources, and iii) achieve positions of power in the public and private sector and in the civil society. Progress in gender equality is measured in three main areas, covering social “capabilities” (the Social Block), economic “opportunities” (the Economic Block) and Political “agency” (the Political Block).

Each block of the GSI is divided into various components which in turn are subdivided into a number of sub-components and then into indicators/variables. All together 44 indicators are included in the GSI framework. The full list of indicators is shown in Table 62 in Appendix VI.

Computation of the Gender Status Index

Each indicator provides data for male and female separately, in the form of proportion, percentage or rate of achievement (for instance percentage literate or net enrolment rates) or actual average count (for instance income from informal enterprises), number of hours spent in various activities based on which female to male comparison is determined. The basic Gender Status Index is a simple ratio of female achievement to male achievement in which a value of one shows parity where as a value below or above one shows the under or over achievement of females respectively.¹⁰ Simple averages of these ratios are then computed sequentially

for subcomponents, components and blocks. The GSI of the whole country is determined as the simple average of the indices of social, economic and political blocks.

2.1 The Gender Status Index Social Block

The aim of this section is to demonstrate gender disparities in two policy areas, namely education and health. On the education front, GSI measures gender disparities in enrolment rates across all levels, completion rates at primary level and literacy rates among youth. On the health front, GSI measures gender disparities within two aggregates, namely child health indicators such as prevalence of stunting and underweight and child mortality and HIV/AIDS indicators such as prevalence of HIV/AIDS among youth and access to antiretroviral therapy services.

2.1.1 Overview of Education Results

Improving the socio-economic outcomes for girls and young women is of central importance, not only to the beneficiaries themselves, but also to their communities and the next generations. Research has shown that providing girls with an extra year of schooling can increase individual wages by up to 20 percent, while also lowering birth rates by almost 10 percent, resulting in a profound economic impact. Increasing the number of women with secondary education by one percent is associated with an annual increase of 0.37 percent of per capita economic growth.¹¹

10 There are seven indicators which measure under- achievements, like unemployment rate in which case the GSI is computed as $(1 - \text{female rate}) / (1 - \text{male rate})$. The revised 2011 guideline of AGDI describes the details.

11 World Bank (2012), Smarter Economics: Investing in Girls, The World Bank Group, Washington DC.

The education subcomponent of the GSI is composed of an enrolment rate that is measured by indicators demonstrating the early childhood enrolment, net enrolments in primary and secondary education and the gross enrolment rate at the tertiary level. The

completion rate indicating the proportion of pupils starting grade one who subsequently reach the last grade of primary education is also included under this sub-component. The literacy rate of 15-24yr olds is the last indicator in the education subcomponent.

Table 3: Overview of the GSI Result – Education Indicators

| Education (Female to Male Achievement) GSI | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti | Average |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Early childhood enrolment | 1.020 | 1.020 | | | 0.980 | 0.960 | 0.980 | 1.110 | 1.080 | 0.940 | | 1.050 | 1.000 | 1.014 |
| Primary enrolment rate (net) | 0.970 | 1.020 | 1.020 | 1.000 | 0.980 | 0.960 | 0.880 | 1.090 | 0.870 | 0.920 | 0.980 | 0.970 | 0.990 | 0.973 |
| Secondary enrolment rate (net) | 0.940 | 1.160 | 1.250 | 0.820 | 0.840 | 0.730 | 0.710 | 0.920 | 0.690 | 0.890 | 1.170 | 0.530 | 0.730 | 0.875 |
| Tertiary enrolment rate (gross) | 0.600 | 0.870 | 0.430 | 0.600 | 0.610 | 0.220 | 0.540 | 0.740 | 0.420 | 0.260 | 1.270 | | 0.500 | 0.588 |
| Enrolment | 0.883 | 1.018 | 0.900 | 0.807 | 0.853 | 0.718 | 0.778 | 0.965 | 0.765 | 0.753 | 1.140 | 0.850 | 0.805 | 0.864 |
| Primary completion rate * | 0.980 | 0.980 | 0.930 | 0.990 | 1.050 | 0.740 | 0.930 | 1.056 | 0.640 | 0.860 | 1.020 | | 0.960 | 0.928 |
| Literacy rate of 15-24 years old | 0.970 | 1.030 | 0.760 | 0.870 | 0.500 | 0.740 | 0.800 | 1.204 | 0.640 | 0.750 | 0.840 | 0.970 | 0.850 | 0.840 |
| Education | 0.944 | 1.009 | 0.863 | 0.889 | 0.801 | 0.733 | 0.836 | 1.075 | 0.682 | 0.788 | 1.000 | 0.910 | 0.872 | 0.877 |

* Proportion of pupils starting grade one who reach last grade of primary education

Source: UNECA computations from country reports¹²

12 Country Report on The Gambia: African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) 2011; Gender and development index, Malawi 2011-Published by Malawi, Ministry of Gender, Children and Community Development and the National Statistical Office, Gender in Africa; Development Index on the Condition of women in Cape Verde, 2010; Rapport national sur L'Indicateur de développement et des inégalités entre les sexes en Afrique (IDISA), Congo Brazzaville, décembre 2011; Indice du Développement et des Inégalités de Sexes en République Démocratique Du Congo, 2012, Indicateur de Développement et des Inégalités entre les Sexes en Afrique (IDISA), Mali-Bamako, 2012; Indicateur de Développement et des Inégalités entre les Sexes en Afrique Pour le Togo, 2012; Africa Gender and Development Index Botswana Report, 2012; Indice de Développement et des Inégalités entre les Sexes en Afrique (IDISA), Rapport d'expérimentation en Côte D'ivoire – 2012; Kenya Gender and Development Index Report, July 2012; Mesurer l'Inégalité entre les Sexes en Afrique: Expériences et leçons tirées de l'Indice de Développement et des Inégalités entre les Sexes en Afrique cas du Sénégal-2012; and The African Gender and Development Index (AGDI)- Zambia Country Report 2012.

Immense progress has been achieved in the education sector as a whole by the thirteen AGDI II countries. However, only Senegal (1.08), Botswana (1.01) and Cabo Verde (1.00) are seen to have achieved gender parity in education with other six countries namely; Kenya, Djibouti, the Congo Republic, Zambia, Cote d'Ivoire and Malawi demonstrating promising progress towards this achievement in the near future. Mali, Togo, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Gambia on the other hand indicate a need for concerted, timely and effective interventions to make this a reality.

Significant gains were recorded by all the thirteen countries under study in the areas of early childhood and net primary enrolments with the achievement of a gender parity score of more than 0.86 across the board. Mixed results were realized in the net secondary enrolment with Malawi, Cabo Verde and Botswana achieving gender parity on the one hand while Mali, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti and Togo needing to employ more effective strategies in a bid to ensure achievement of gender parity. Only Cabo Verde demonstrated gender parity in the gross enrolment figures for tertiary education with the rest of the other countries barely reaching up to the half-way mark. Policies and strategies geared towards increasing transition rates from secondary to tertiary education as well as access to higher education by girls need to be reviewed and improved upon for majority of the countries, with particular emphasis on Togo and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Completion rates in relation to primary school was seen to have varied across the countries. More needs to be done by all the countries under review with the exception of the Gambia, Senegal and Cabo Verde who have attained parity in the proportion of girls and boys starting grade one and successively also making it to the last grade of primary education. Botswana and Senegal are the only countries that recorded

parity in the literacy rate of girls and boys aged between 15 and 24 years. At the time of the reports' research, Kenya, the Congo Republic, Zambia and Cabo Verde were on course to meet the parity index by 2015, if the gains made are not reversed.

2.1.1.1 Enrolment Rates

Parity in primary education between girls and boys has been achieved globally. Since the adoption of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) by world leaders in the year 2000, many more of the world's children have been enrolled in schools at the primary level driven by national and international efforts and the MDGs campaigns. Girls have been observed to have benefited the most in this campaign as the ratio between the enrolment rate of girls and that of boys grew from 91 in 1999 to 97 in 2010 for all developing regions. The MDG gender parity index of 97 falls within the plus-or-minus three-point margin of 100 per cent, which is the accepted measure for parity.¹³ Total enrolment of primary school age children in Sub-Saharan Africa rose by almost one-third, from 58 to 76 per cent between 1999 and 2010 resulting in 43 million more enrolments. The steep gains in primary school enrolment may be linked to the introduction of free and compulsory primary education in most countries under study. The gross enrolment rate for both girls and boys increased by about 2.7 percent and 2.6 percent respectively for the period 2005 to 2010 in Kenya which may be attributed to the Universal Free Primary Education introduced in 2003. Further, Malawi has succeeded in enrolling majority of its primary school age group with an overall enrolment rate of 83 percent. This is a good stride towards achieving the MDG for education and the Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015 that is attributed to the introduction of Free Primary Education in 1994.

13 United Nations (2012) Millennium Development Goals 2012 Report.

Early childhood enrolment witnessed the biggest gains among the ten countries in the second phase of AGDI implementation for which data was available. All the ten countries, had gender parity indices of more than 0.94, with more than half of them attaining gender parity with Senegal in the lead. The lack of data for the remaining 3 countries was attributed either to minimal government involvement in the provision of early childhood education, lack of gender disaggregated data for this level of schooling or lack of a clear policy on early childhood education. The critical importance of early childhood education cannot be overstated. There is a growing consensus in academic literature on the positive effect of early childhood interventions on future education and labour market prospects, particularly for those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds.

A significant increase in gender parity in the net primary enrolment rate was revealed in all the countries under study. Senegal, Malawi, Botswana and Zambia, in that order, led the cluster in the achievement of gender parity at this level of education. The remaining countries have followed very closely demonstrating near-parity indices with the lowest score being 0.865. This success pointed out the deliberate government budgetary allocations in fiscal expenditure frameworks to the education sector, particularly, to primary education. Djibouti's 25 percent and Cabo Verde's 23 percent budgetary allocation from their government's total expenditure are regarded as prime examples of concrete measures undertaken by governments to enhance gender parity. It is worth noting however that there is slight reversal in the earlier gains made by Cabo Verde through a decrease in the net enrolment rate in basic education, which may either mean that access to universal and compulsory basic education is experiencing a setback, or that there is an increasing rate of failure in schools. Without a doubt, if this is not checked, it will compromise the possibility

of achieving the MDG for primary education. Additionally, in relation to the dropout rate, the indicators show that the rate is much higher among boys than girls, which points to the fact that girls not only tend to attend school longer, but also that their results tend to be better. Furthermore, Malawi's achievement of gender parity with respect to primary and secondary school enrolments has girls slightly surpassing boys. This is an indication of improvement in attitudes towards girls' education in the country that had not been registered earlier. In fact, Malawi, Cabo Verde and Botswana exhibit gender disparity in the net secondary enrolment of girls and boys at 1.25, 1.173 and 1.16 respectively. The private sector and religious agencies under the Association of Christian Educators in Malawi (ACEM) have made great strides in recruiting girls into secondary schools, accounting for ownership of 96.4 percent of girls-only secondary schools. Cabo Verde on the other hand has committed to the improvement of the efficiency and sustainability of secondary education through legislation that seeks to promote coherence in educational practices and values that students should develop in the field of gender equity, reflecting the political intention to promote gender equality and equity in the schools. Notable progress was also registered in Kenya whose 2005 net enrolment rates for secondary school for both girls and boys were 19.1 percent and 21.9 percent respectively. Since then the net enrolments have increased by about 57.6 percent and 47 percent for both girls and boys to 30.1 percent and 32.2 percent respectively in 2010. The disparities in net enrolment between boys and girls have decreased from 2.8 percent to 2.1 percent from the period 2005 to 2010. This gradual increase in the enrolments has been partly due to introduction of subsidized secondary school education in 2008 by the Government of Kenya. Parity in tertiary education, however remains difficult to attain in sub-Saharan Africa, with an MDG gender parity index of 63 compared to the parity index of 98 reached in 2010 in

Box 3: Affirmative Action in Higher Education in Cote d'Ivoire

The Project Support for Higher Education (AGE) 2008-2013 has reserved a quota of one third (1/3) in almost all admission activities for strengthening the presence and retention of girls and women in Higher Education. This has improved the number of women and girls, especially in science, mathematics and technology in various institutions country-wide.

the developing world. In general, countries with lower levels of national wealth tend to have more men enrolled in tertiary education than women, while the opposite occurs in countries with higher average income.¹⁴ Out of the thirteen countries under study, only Cabo Verde showed higher female enrolment figures compared to the males occasioned by the higher dropout rate of 13.5% among the boys compared to 9.2% among the girls. The higher proportion of dropouts (34.3%) appears to be linked to a personal choice to stop studying, followed by lack of means (31.7%) and lack of interest (11.8%). Four countries had indices of less than half, namely Togo, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali and Malawi.

With respect to enrolment at universities, in Kenya, the total male enrolment in the public universities dropped by 0.4 percent from 89,611 in 2009/2010 to 89,257 in 2010/2011 academic years. During the same period, the total female enrolment increased by 1.8 percent from 52,945 to 53,873 students. The changes in enrolment for both sexes could be attributed to the affirmative action adopted by the Joint Admissions Board (JAB) of admitting female students at two points lower than their male counterparts. Another strategy to mitigate the gender disparities in tertiary education was adopted in Malawi. The University of Malawi introduced non-residential system to increase intake for both males and females and also constructed more hostels for female students so that admission was not pegged to bed-space, but to classroom space.

2.1.1.2 Completion Rates

There has been a common thread running through all the 2012 country reports on factors leading to school drop-outs. These include the following:

- » The adverse influence of the inequitable gender division of household labour and the related women and girls' unpaid care work on the poor educational performance of the girl-child
- » Early and forced marriages
- » Teenage pregnancy, particularly in the Gambia and Botswana
- » Inability of poor parents to pay school fees, book bills, development fund levies and other education costs
- » Long distances from home to school
- » Inadequate school facilities (lack of proper classrooms, separate girls' toilets, adequate potable water supply, afternoon shifts caused by lack of adequate classroom space, etc.)
- » Lack of sufficient and appropriate teaching and learning materials in rural schools; an acute shortage of trained teachers
- » Effects of HIV/AIDS such as illness and death of care-givers and the new role by the girl child particularly in taking care of the younger children in the family as is the case in Togo.

14 United Nations (2012) Millennium Development Goals 2012 Report.

The factors mentioned above are pointers to the attitudes of the care givers and the children themselves on the quality, relevance and importance of education.

Universal primary education would be a hollow achievement if the focus were simply on enrolment rather than on the completion of primary education. In 2010, the global primary completion rate (measured by the gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary education) reached 90 per cent, compared with 81 per cent in 1999. Regional values ranged from 70 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa to almost 100 per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean and also in the Caucasus and Central Asia.¹⁵

Dropping out has been observed to often be a process rather than the result of one single event, and therefore has more than one proximate cause.¹⁶ Primarily, poverty appears to influence the demand for schooling not only because it affects the inability of households to pay school fees and other costs associated with education, but also because it is associated with a high opportunity cost of schooling for children. Consequently, as children grow older, the opportunity cost of education gets even larger, thus increasing the pressure for children to work and earn income for the household in opposition to spending time in getting educated. Furthermore, factors like distance to schools, poor quality of education, inadequate facilities, overcrowded classrooms, inappropriate language of instruction, teacher absenteeism and, in the case of girls, school safety are common causes for school drop-out.

Ensuring that all children are able to complete primary education therefore remains a fundamental, but unfulfilled target for all the countries under study. Urgent implementation

of remedial measures is therefore required to curb school drop-outs as this phenomenon has a direct impact on the achievement of all the other goals, and is a crucial indicator of the achievement of the MDGs by 2015 whose current overall pace of progress has been judged to be insufficient to achieve the MDGs by the target year of 2015.¹⁷

The completion indicator refers to the proportion of pupils joining grade one and subsequently completing the last grade of primary school.¹⁸ Senegal, The Gambia and Cabo Verde have showed higher female completion rates, thereby achieving gender parity in this regard. Between 2000 and 2004 gender parity increased from 0.91 to 1.04, indicating that girls had started to outnumber boys by 4 percent in school completion rates in The Gambia. This achievement could be attributed partly to the recognition that female teachers served as role models for girls. As a result, the Gambian Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MOSBSE) has been striving to achieve gender parity in the teaching profession through an affirmative action which is an inducement for greater teaching up-take by the females through the enrolment of women trainee teachers who have lower entry qualifications than their male peers. This is tied to a condition that their academic setbacks are upgraded through a series of remedial strategies. An increase in the survival and completion rates may partly be attributed to an improvement in sanitary facilities, particularly for girls in most schools, as was the case in Malawi, which showed the following improvement. The total survival rate for standard eight increased from 26.1 percent in 2005 to 48.8 percent in 2010. In 2005, the survival rate for girls upto standard eight was 22.9 percent against 30.1 percent for boys and

15 United Nations (2012), Millennium Development Goals Report.

16 Hunt, F. (2008). 'Dropping Out From School: A Cross-country Review of Literature.' CREATE Pathways to Access No 16. Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity: University of Sussex.

17 United Nations (2011), Millennium Development Goals Report.

18 UNECA (2011) The African Gender and Development Index 2011: Promoting Gender Equality in Africa.

in 2010 the rate for girls was 45.0 percent as compared to 53.1 percent for boys.

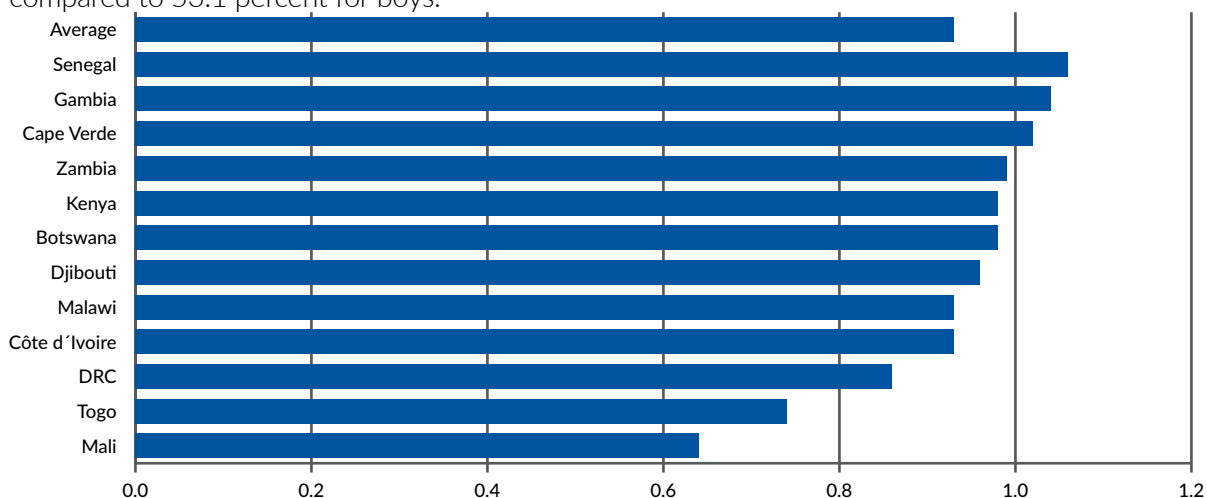


Figure 7 GSI of Primary School Completion Rate

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2011

Box 4: Improving Completion Rates for Girls in Botswana

The existence of government safety nets in Botswana prevented children from dropping out of school due to material reasons in the years under study. These include provision of a food basket, school feeding programme, provision of school uniforms, transport and destitute allowances for needy households. The Diphilana pilot project which aimed at ensuring the provision of basic education for pregnant girls had positive effects on uninterrupted education for girls. Additionally, the Girls Education Movement (GEM) is a forum for girls to address issues of their own education and development that has also had positive impacts on preventing female drop outs.

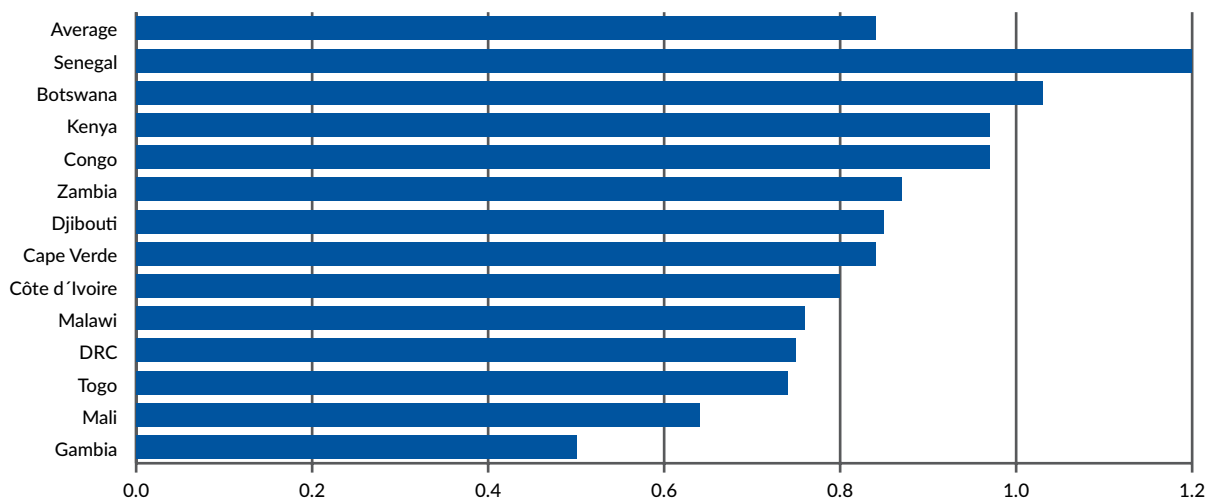
Source: Government of Botswana, AGDI Report, 2012

2.1.1.3 Literacy Rates

Based on the research carried out during the making of this report, Botswana and Senegal were the only countries in this group that attained parity in the literacy rate of 15-24 year olds. In the case of Botswana, this can partly be attributed to Botswana's education policy, which has focused on achieving universal access to primary education, and more recently on providing ten years of universal education. It also aims to eliminate gender disparities in educational access and in providing the skills needed to meet the demands of a modern

economy. Botswana was closely followed by Kenya and the Congo Republic who are on track in meeting the 2015 target year for EFA and the MDGs, by when three quarters of the youth in sub-Saharan Africa are expected to be able to read and write. The remaining countries need to formulate effective policies that will accelerate their attainment of the EFA literacy goals by 2015 to ensure that there is a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and in guaranteeing equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

Figure 8 GSI Literacy Rate in Age Group 15-24 year-olds



Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2011.

2.1.2 Overview of Health Gender Status Index Results

Exhibiting gender disparities in health outcomes is crucial given strong associations between health and education, particularly with respect to the link between maternal education and child health indicators as well as the preventative power of education on prevalence rates of HIV/AIDS. The health sub-component of GSI assesses gender parity based on three child health indicators and two HIV/AIDS indicators. The overall health GSI is presented in Table 4. The assessment of child health indicators generally point to poor nutrition and high mortality rates, especially among boys in a considerable number of the countries. Thus, there is a critical need for African countries to design and implement targeted programmes on child health, using appropriate local strategies of which effective parental and community participation should form important components. However, the HIV/AIDS prevalence rates for women tend to be higher compared to that of men in the majority of these countries. These findings call for sustained attention interventions which

are responsive to narrowing existing gaps in reproductive health services in Africa.

2.1.2.1 Child Health in Africa

Of the twenty-six countries worldwide with under-five mortality rates above 100 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2010, twenty four are in Africa. Nevertheless, Africa (excluding North Africa) doubled its average rate of reduction in child mortality from 1.2 per cent a year in 1990–2000 to 2.4 percent in 2000–2010. Amongst the AGDI Phase II countries, Malawi is one of the best performing countries, with falls of at least 50 per cent in 1990–2010 (UNSD, 2011). The overall rate of decline is not enough for sustained progress in child health in Africa as the under-five mortality remains alarmingly high in the continent and is a major issue of concern.¹⁹

The child health sub-component of the GSI is made up of three constituent indicators as below:

Stunting – measured by the proportion of children under five years of age with a height

19 http://new.uneca.org/Portals/mdgreports/2012/MDGReport2012_ENG.pdf

Table 4: GSI of Health Indicators

| Health GSI (Female to Male achievement) | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia(***) | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo(***) | Djibouti | Average |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Stunting under 5 * | 1.032 | 1.010 | 1.160 | 1.115 | 1.028 | 1.053 | 1.079 | 1.045 | 1.061 | 1.111 | 1.022 | 1.046 | 1.044 | 1.065 |
| Underweight under 5 * | 1.011 | 1.010 | 1.027 | 1.048 | 1.020 | 1.049 | 1.036 | 1.023 | 1.036 | 1.042 | 1.015 | 1.012 | 1.010 | 1.027 |
| Mortality under 5 | 1.014 | 1.270 | 1.024 | 1.032 | | 1.016 | 1.014 | 1.010 | 1.019 | 1.016 | 1.005 | 1.014 | 1.025 | 1.043 |
| Child health | 1.019 | 1.097 | 1.070 | 1.082 | 1.024 | 1.039 | 1.043 | 1.026 | 1.039 | 1.056 | 1.014 | 1.012 | 1.026 | 1.045 |
| HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 years old | 0.961 | 0.940 | 0.948 | 0.948 | | 0.982 | 0.979 | 0.994 | 0.996 | 0.993 | | 0.983 | | 0.972 |
| Access to anti-retroviral treatment** | | 1.582 | 1.547 | 1.364 | 1.391 | 2.125 | 2.032 | | 1.429 | 1.754 | 2.244 | 2.385 | 1.224 | 1.734 |
| HIV/AIDS | 0.961 | 1.261 | 1.248 | 1.156 | 1.391 | 1.554 | 1.506 | 0.994 | 1.213 | 1.374 | 2.244 | 1.684 | 1.224 | 1.288 |
| HEALTH | 0.990 | 1.179 | 1.159 | 1.119 | 1.208 | 1.296 | 1.274 | 1.010 | 1.126 | 1.215 | 1.629 | 1.348 | 1.125 | 1.206 |

* using minus two standard deviation as the cut-off point

** data were not complete to determine the index

***The Gambia data is from WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition, Congo Child Health data: DHS, 2005.

Source: UNECA computations from country reports (2012) and sources indicated in ***

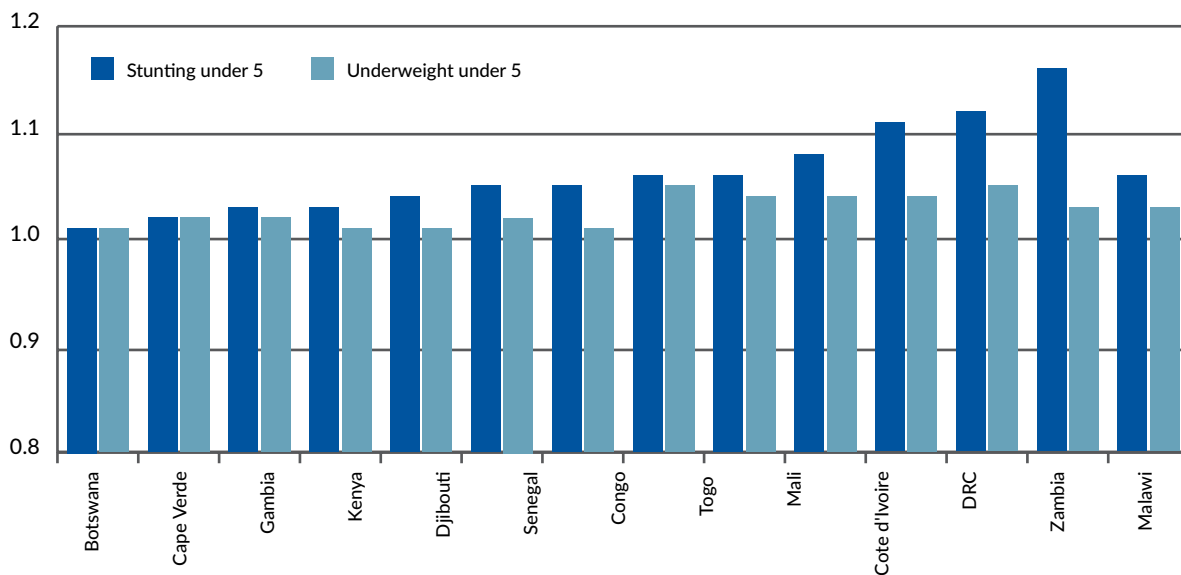
for age below minus two (moderate) or three (severe) standard deviations from the median height for age of the reference population.

Underweight – measured by the proportion of children under five years of age with a weight below minus two (moderate) or three (severe) standard deviations from the median weight of the reference population.

Under 5 mortality – probability of dying for a child before reaching its fifth birthday presented as proportion per thousand children.

The indicators for stunting and underweight children below the age of five years, which proxy long-term and short-term health status of children respectively, remains a challenge for most of the AGDI II countries. Child health GSI values are computed on the basis of comparing rates of non-affected (not stunted or not underweight) female to male ratios. The findings show that the child health GSI is demonstrating varied disparity levels between males and females. Thus, for stunting, the range is between 1.02 to 1.16, for underweight the range is 1.01 to 1.049,

Figure 9 GSI of Stunting and Underweight in Children Under 5



Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2011 (based on table 4 above)

and for under-five mortality, the range is 1.005 to 1.27 (see figure 9 and figure 10).

Since the indicators show values all more than one, this shows that female children under the age of five are relatively at a better health status than their male counterparts. For instance, when considering all countries in this AGDI Phase II, the average GSI of stunting is 1.063 – in other words, the number of not stunted is 106 females for every 100 male children.

Whilst it has not been possible to establish the main determinants of the difference in stunting and underweight between boys and girls as reflected above, a meta-analysis of sixteen Demographic and Health Surveys in Sub-Saharan Africa by Wamani et al. (2007) confirmed the same disparity.²⁰ The analysis found that male children under five years of age are more likely to become stunted

than their female counterparts, suggesting that long-term health investments are more favourable for girls than boys in the same age group. Thus, there is need to conduct further research into the gender dimensions of child health with a view to understanding these contributing factors and ensuring that both sexes have equal access to both health and survival measures.

The indications of linkages between the health status of children and their mother's background were also clear from these country studies. According to UN (2011), children from rural and remote areas, as well as those who are marginalized, vulnerable and living in the poorest households, were still at a distinct disadvantage.²¹ This disparity is remarked upon in a number of the country reports, including the report for the Republic of Congo.

20 Henry Wamani^{1,2}, Anne Nordrehaug Åstrøm¹, Stefan Peterson³, James K Tumwine⁴ and Thorkild Tylleskär¹, available at http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/381/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2431-7-17.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcpediatr.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2431-7-17&toOpen2=exp=1481203192~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F381%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2431-7-17.pdf*~hmac=2aed733a4c80ae84b91ca7a77028010a23d8d3a7971a2008ee50b7f073ad853f

21 UN (2011).The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011.New York: UN.

The findings have also revealed some general improvements over time. For instance, the Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) shows that under-five mortality rate in Kenya reduced by 36 percent from 115 deaths per 1000 in the 2003 KDHS to 74 deaths per 1000 in the 2008-09 KDHS. The improvement in child survival could be attributed at least in part to various government programmes; for instance, the substantial increases in childhood immunization coverage at the national level. Given that malaria has been identified as one of the leading causes of death among children in Kenya, another important initiative that has been implemented is the improvement in key malaria indicators such as ownership and use of treated mosquito nets, preventive treatment of malaria and treatment of childhood fevers. However, under-five mortality rate still remains higher for male than female children.

In Malawi, some of the major factors influencing a decrease in childhood mortality

spacing and birth size of the child, whereas, in the Gambia, it was noted that the rate of Vitamin A supplementation was high among both males and females, at 80 percent, which was a determining factor in lowering childhood mortality. Therefore, scaling up health services and addressing the challenges that hinder their use, as well as prioritizing prevention and treatment of childhood illnesses, improving nutrition, immunization coverage, and water and sanitation are important to promoting child health and reducing health inequalities.²²

2.1.2.2 HIV and AIDS

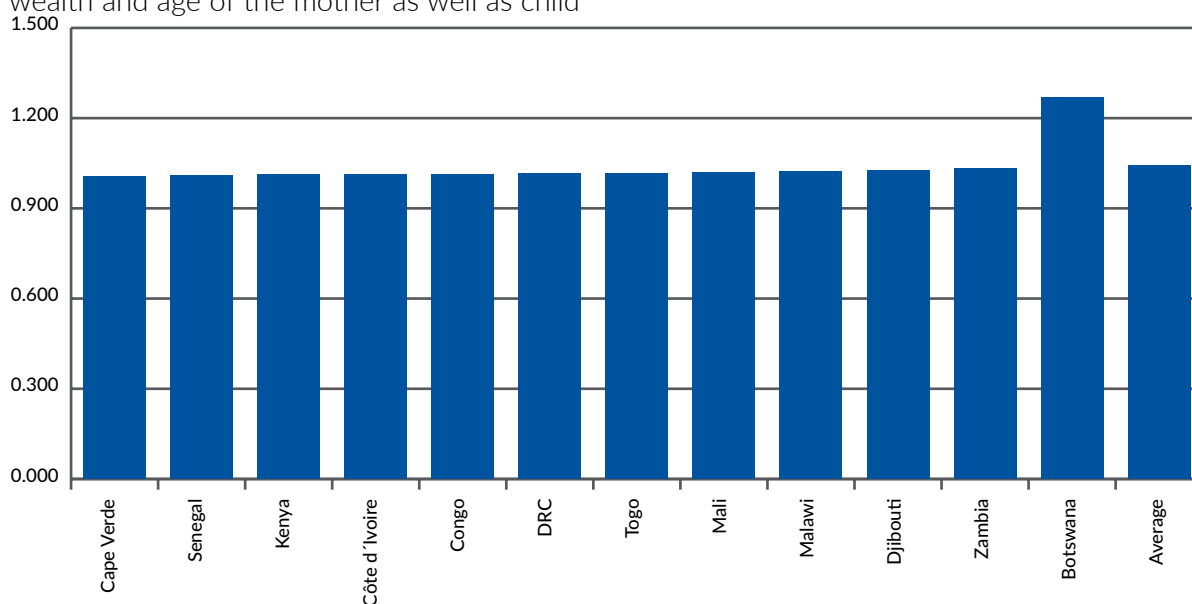
The second subcomponent of the health GSI is related to HIV/AIDS and is made up of the following constituent indicators:

- » **HIV prevalence rate among 15-24 years old** – percentage of women and men aged 15-24 living with HIV, as measured in national based surveys.

Figure 10 GSI of Under 5 Mortality

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2011 (based on table 4)

have been attributed to education level, wealth and age of the mother as well as child



22 http://new.uneca.org/Portals/mdgreports/2012/MDGReport2012_ENG.pdf

» **Access to Anti-Retroviral Treatment (ART)**

– percentage of adults and children with advanced HIV infection currently receiving antiretroviral therapy according to nationally approved treatment protocols (or WHO/ Joint UN Programme on HIV and AIDS standards) among the estimated number of people with advanced HIV infection.

The GSI values that compare female to male achievement in relation to HIV prevalence were computed as the ratio of proportion of women in 15-24 age group **not living** with HIV to that of the male group, following the AGDI guidelines of 2011. The results have been shown in figure 11. The GSI, being less than one in all the eleven countries for which data are provided, is indicative of the fact that HIV prevalence is higher in women than in men.

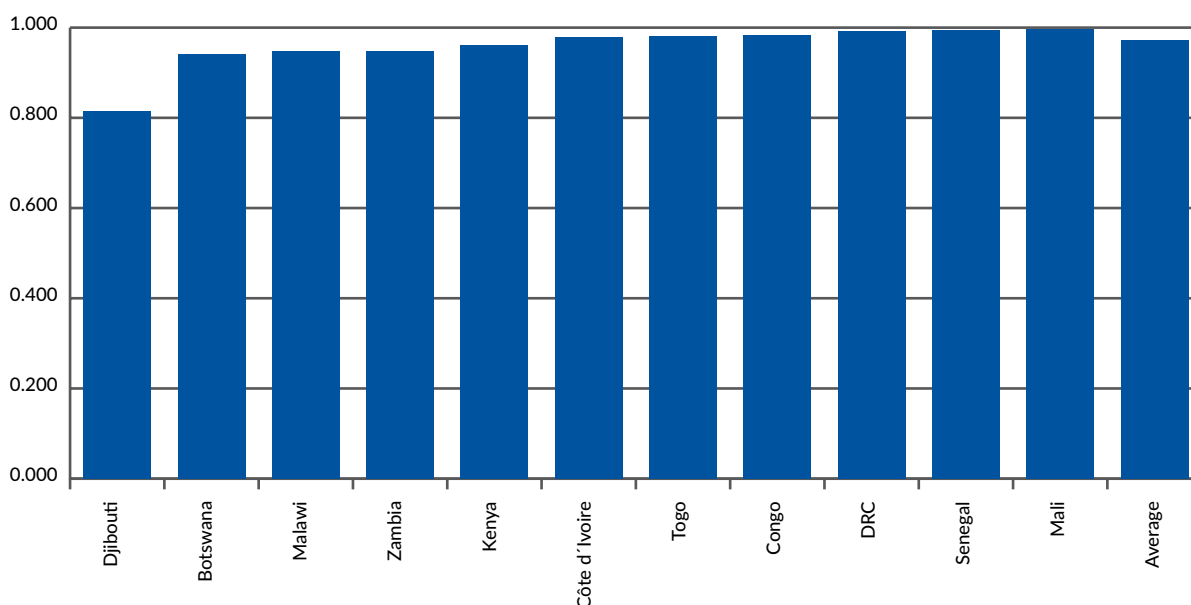
In relation to the access to ART indicator, there was no data in the country reports

on the estimated number of people with advanced HIV infections that could serve as the denominator in computing the percentage of people who had access to ART from those who need it by sex.²³ However data were available on the number of people who had access to ART by sex, from which the ratio of women to men on ART was computed and shown in figure 12.

The number of women who are on ART exceeded that of men significantly in all the eleven countries which have data, as depicted by the ratios which are much higher than one. In some cases, the number of women was more than double the number of men (Congo, Cabo Verde, Togo and Cote d'Ivoire). This may not be surprising as HIV prevalence is also higher in women than in men. The actual extent of gender disparity in access to ART would have been evident if it were possible to

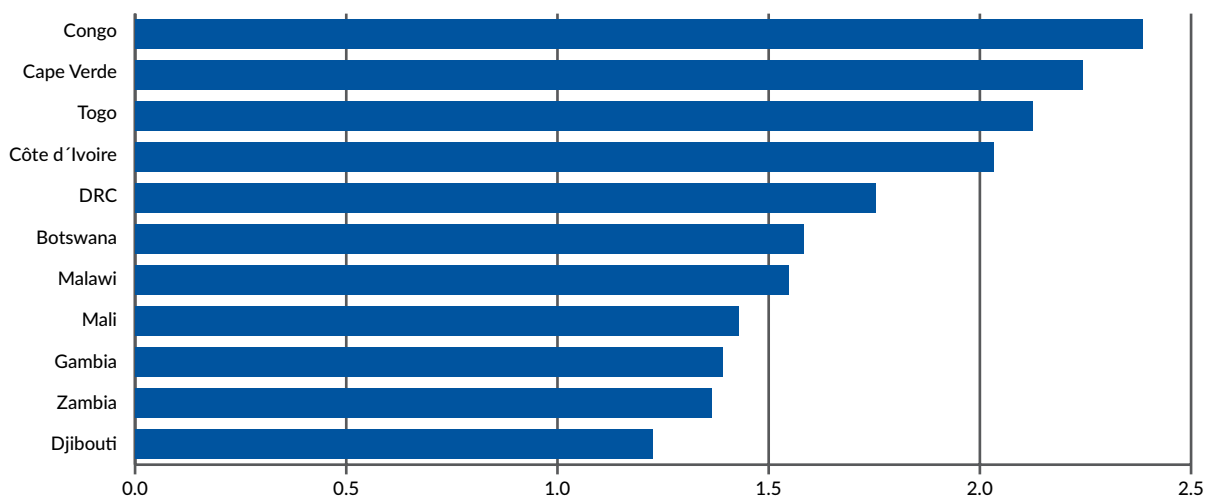
23 Since this indicator could not be computed according to the guidelines due to absence of the denominator, it is not included in the calculation of the Health GSI. Nevertheless, the ratio of women to men who have access to ART is shown separately to help depict the situation of access to ART by sex in African countries.

Figure 11 GSI of HIV/AIDS Prevalence Among 15-24 Years Olds



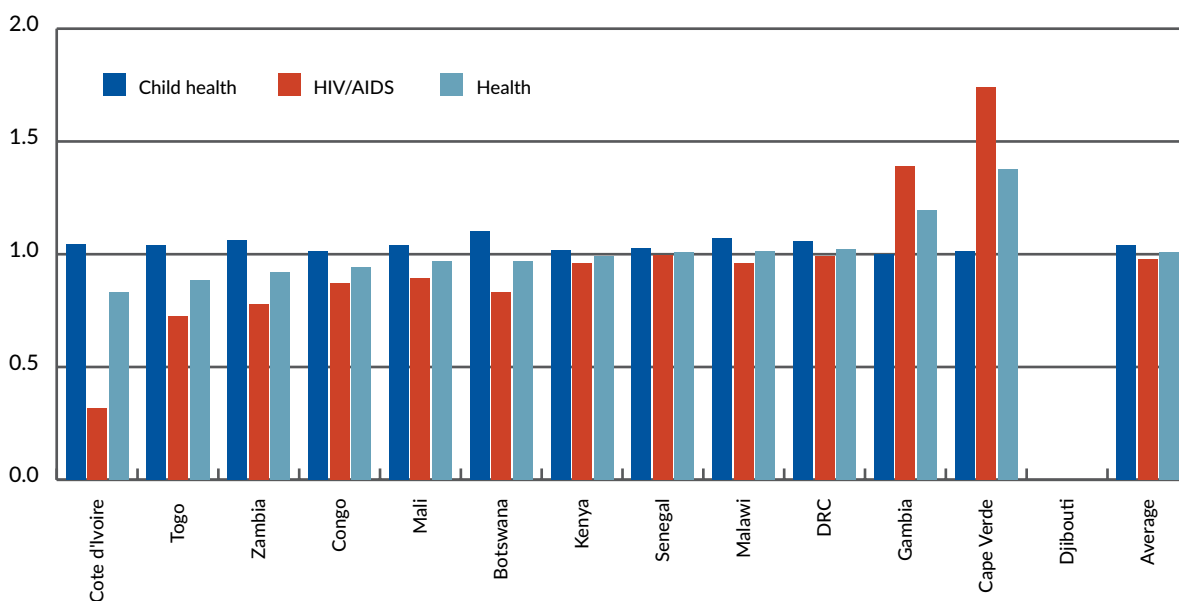
Note: The Gambia and Cabo Verde do not have HIV prevalence data by sex
Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

Figure 12 Access to ART - Female to Male Ratio



Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

Figure 13 GSI for Child Health, HIV/AIDS and Health



Note: The Gambia and Cabo Verde do not have data on HIV prevalence disaggregated by sex

Source: UNECA computations from country reports (based on table 4)

show how many were able to get access from those who have advanced HIV infection.

It is also recognized that, women get better access to HIV counseling and testing than men do and that was observed to be mostly in maternity clinics during antenatal care (ANC) which may eventually lead them to access ART (if they are found eligible) through Prevention of Mother To Child Transmission (PMTCT) programs.

The Millennium Development Report 2012

Assessing Progress in Africa Towards the Millennium Development Goals, stated that Africa (excluding North Africa) remains a region most heavily affected by HIV. Although it is home to only twelve per cent of the global population, it accounts for about 68 per cent of all people living with HIV in 2010.²⁴ It must be noted that there are certain disparities within regions and with regard to different population groups, for instance, the HIV prevalence rate in Djibouti is 2.9 per cent, which is low for the region but higher rates are reported amongst sex workers in the country. Recent estimates by UNAIDS showed that HIV prevalence has declined among young people (aged 15–24 years) in at least 21 of 24 African countries with a national HIV prevalence of 1 per cent or more. The drop in HIV prevalence was statistically significant in sentinel sites – of the AGDI Phase II countries, these were Botswana, Republic of Congo, Kenya, Malawi and Togo. Botswana and Malawi also had statistically significant declines in the general population, according to results from population-based surveys. In addition, a statistically significant decline in prevalence in the general population was observed in Zambia (UNAIDS 2011).²⁵

24 Opcit. 22

25 UNAIDS (2011) *Global HIV/AIDS Response: Epidemic Update and Health Sector Progress Towards Universal Access*. Geneva: UNAIDS

All countries demonstrated higher prevalence rates in females compared to men. Women, particularly young girls, are biologically more susceptible to HIV transmission – this biological vulnerability compounded with social, economic and cultural factors are driving the feminization of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Africa. For instance, in Zambia, the HIV prevalence among the youth was seen to be higher in females (9 percent) than among the male youth (4 percent). In addition, in Senegal, there is also a notable feminization of the epidemic, with 76 per cent of 15 – 24 year olds infected, being women. Within the 15 – 24 age groups, the trend appeared to be that the rates of infection rose with age – in other words, women of age 20-24 years have a comparatively higher infection rate than women below this age bracket.

The data also suggested that there seems to be a decrease in prevalence over time corresponding to an increase in the number of both adults and children on Antiretroviral Therapy (ART). Some countries, such as Cote D'Ivoire have reported a higher rate of access to Antiretroviral (ARV) of women at 63 per cent, versus men at 31 per cent. The attributing factors could be related to the firm activism by NGOs and other organizations to focus on infected women. Some of the reasons that may be linked to general improvement in access to ART across the continent may be the increase in the number of ART centres in countries, and also the free and readily available ARVs increasingly being provided by various Ministries of Health. Additionally, HIV/AIDS awareness campaigns appear to have had a gradual positive impact; for instance, The Gambia reported that the Behavioural Survey of 2010 revealed that for the population aged 15-24, 31.7 percent of males and 22.9 percent of females were knowledgeable of HIV prevention methods.

Box 5: Gender Dimensions of HIV/AIDS in Botswana

HIV and AIDS remain one of Botswana's major development challenges that have had significant, adverse impacts on all sectors of the country's economy. Substantial resources for development have since the advent of HIV and AIDS been diverted to address the epidemic. Botswana remains one of the hardest hit countries in terms of prevalence and incidence. Despite this, the country has made great strides in containing and managing the Epidemic through Prevention, Treatment, Care and Support Initiatives. (Upper case letters?)

Botswana AIDS Impact Surveys, (BAIS), the latest of which is BAIS III (2008) publishes statistical tables which provide gender disaggregated data on the scale of the Epidemic covering HIV prevalence and incidence. The latest survey estimated a National Prevalence of 17.6% compared to 17.1% in the previous one of 2004, thus estimating the new HIV infection rate at 2.9%. Females were in the latest survey once again shown to have a relatively higher prevalence rate at 20.4% while the male prevalence rate was at 14.2%. As depicted in the above GSI table 4 females in the 15-24 year old age category have a relatively higher prevalence rate than males at 10.7% and 4.8 respectively. This shows a similar trend to the national prevalence rate across the variables of age and gender. An analysis of HIV prevalence rates since the first BAIS Survey, however, shows a decline in prevalence among the 15-24 year age group.

Women in Botswana are more vulnerable to HIV infection but also "display greater health seeking behaviours than men," according to the National ARV Programme Co-coordinator in the Ministry of Health. Further more, women in Botswana test for HIV at significantly higher numbers than men. This finds possible explanation in the fact that reproductive health programmes have historically had a stronger leaning towards enrolling and engaging women in comparison to men. A general perception is that Botswana's health facilities are not male friendly and recent efforts to promote greater Male Involvement in the sector are commendable.

Source: Botswana AGDI Country Report 2012.

2.2 The Gender Status Index Economic Block

The aim of this section is to measure gender inequality and women's economic empowerment and their access to and control over economic opportunities. The Gender Status Index (GSI) captures issues related to gender that can be measured quantitatively, and focuses on three key areas, namely, Income, Time-use and Employment, and Access to Resources. The sub-components associated with these areas are wages, income, time-use, employment, means of production and management. In contrast, the Economic Block of the African Women Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) – the qualitative component – aims at assessing governments' performance on the implementation and enforcement of international conventions and national gender policies, as well as issues

of sustainable development and access to technology and land. The two blocks reinforce each other since commitments and policies implemented by governments are critical to achieve gender equality in income, employment and access to resources.

A total of 20 indicators have been used to assess issues of economic opportunities and women's empowerment. However, it is important to note that results from the sections below should be considered in view of the important indicators that could not be entered in the calculation due to the absence of data availability. It was indeed difficult for some countries to provide data, particularly in the area of time-use and informal employment, which limits to some extent the ability to calculate an explicit and heuristic value of the index. Tables 5, 6 and 7 show the summary of GSI on economic block indicators.

Table 5: GSI Economic Block – Wages and Income Indicators

| GSI – Economic Block (Wages and Income) | | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti |
|---|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|--------------|
| Wages | Wages in agriculture | 0.302 | 0.980 | | 0.634 | 0.176 | 1.387 | 0.096 | 0.141 | 0.962 | 0.530 | 0.500 | | |
| | Wages in civil service | 0.429 | 0.960 | | | | 0.629 | 0.353 | | 0.927 | 0.630 | 0.927 | | |
| | Wages in formal sector (public/private) | 0.403 | 0.960 | | 0.742 | 0.607 | 1.063 | 0.203 | | 0.486 | 0.660 | | | 0.854 |
| | Wages in informal sector | 0.372 | 0.930 | | 0.737 | 0.538 | 0.633 | | | 0.713 | 0.750 | | | |
| | Wages | 0.377 | 0.960 | | 0.764 | 0.440 | 0.928 | 0.218 | 0.141 | 0.772 | 0.643 | 0.714 | | 0.854 |
| Income | Income from informal sector | 0.083 | 0.806 | 0.491 | | 0.538 | 0.448 | | | 0.515 | 0.890 | 0.353 | | |
| | Income from small agricultural household enterprise | 0.451 | | 0.783 | | 0.961 | 0.698 | | 1.198 | 0.447 | 0.890 | | | |
| | Share of women under the poverty line | 1.007 | | 0.938 | 0.942 | 0.698 | 1.171 | 0.979 | 0.950 | 1.351 | 0.930 | | 0.816 | 0.813 |
| | Income | 0.729 | 0.806 | 0.737 | 0.942 | 0.732 | 0.772 | 0.979 | 1.074 | 0.771 | 0.903 | 0.353 | | 0.813 |
| Wages and Income | | 0.553 | 0.883 | 0.737 | 0.853 | 0.586 | 0.850 | 0.598 | 0.608 | 0.772 | 0.775 | 0.534 | | 0.834 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012

Table 6: GSI Economic Block – Time Use and Employment Indicators

| GSI- Economic Block (Time use and Employment) | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti |
|--|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Time-use | Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 0.657 | | | | | | 0.568 | 0.900 | 0.592 | | |
| | Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 1.007 | | | | | | 1.024 | 0.500 | 1.347 | 0.438 | |
| | Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | 0.156 | | | | 0.452 | | 0.090 | 0.280 | | | |
| Time-use | | | 0.607 | | | | 0.452 | | 0.561 | 0.560 | 0.970 | 0.438 | |
| Employment | Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0.429 | 0.740 | 0.266 | | 0.333 | 0.348 | 0.238 | 0.529 | 0.633 | | | 1.417 | 1.051 |
| | Youth unemployment rate | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 0.550 | 1.000 | 1.021 | 0.852 | 0.998 | 0.912 | 0.944 | 0.933 | 0.977 | 0.823 | 0.962 | 0.756 |
| Employment | 0.429 | 0.650 | 0.633 | 1.021 | 0.593 | 0.673 | 0.575 | 0.737 | 0.783 | 0.604 | 0.823 | 1.190 | 0.904 |
| Time-use and employment | 0.429 | 0.650 | 0.620 | 1.021 | 0.593 | 0.673 | 0.514 | 0.737 | 0.672 | 0.582 | 0.897 | 0.814 | 0.904 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports (2012)

Table 7: GSI Economic Block – Indicators of Access to Resources

| GSI – Economic block (Access to Resources) | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti | |
|---|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Means of production | Ownership of rural land/farms | 0.640 | 0.514 | | 0.429 | 0.249 | 0.053 | 0.511 | 0.244 | 0.034 | | 0.238 | 0.486 | |
| | Ownership of urban plots/houses | 0.960 | 0.250 | 0.663 | 0.282 | 0.256 | 0.240 | 0.853 | 1.134 | 0.940 | 1.024 | 0.848 | 0.275 | |
| | Ownership of livestock | 0.380 | 0.818 | 0.154 | 1.083 | 0.225 | 0.343 | 0.152 | 0.104 | 0.048 | | | 0.328 | |
| | Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit) | | | 0.764 | 1.117 | 1.041 | 0.799 | 0.446 | | 0.667 | 0.960 | 2.937 | 2.262 | |
| | Means of production | 0.660 | 0.587 | 0.645 | 0.709 | 0.382 | 0.282 | 0.517 | 0.537 | 0.496 | 1.981 | 0.545 | 0.838 | |
| Management | Employers | 0.520 | | 0.333 | 0.500 | 0.438 | 0.429 | 0.211 | | 0.478 | 0.170 | 0.500 | 0.366 | 0.317 |
| | Own-account workers | 1.184 | 0.410 | 0.796 | 0.713 | 1.222 | 1.145 | 0.585 | | 0.941 | 0.470 | 0.818 | 1.072 | 0.387 |
| | High civil servants (class A) | 0.355 | 0.950 | 0.298 | 0.304 | 0.193 | 0.182 | 0.242 | | 0.169 | 0.120 | 0.564 | 0.900 | |
| | Members of professional syndicates | | 0.500 | 0.177 | 0.148 | | 0.164 | 0.360 | | 0.094 | 0.490 | 0.556 | 0.852 | |
| | Management | 0.686 | 0.620 | 0.401 | 0.416 | 0.618 | 0.480 | 0.350 | | 0.421 | 0.313 | 0.609 | 0.780 | 0.521 |
| Access to resources | 0.686 | 0.640 | 0.494 | 0.531 | 0.664 | 0.431 | 0.316 | 0.517 | 0.479 | 0.404 | 1.295 | 0.663 | 0.679 | |

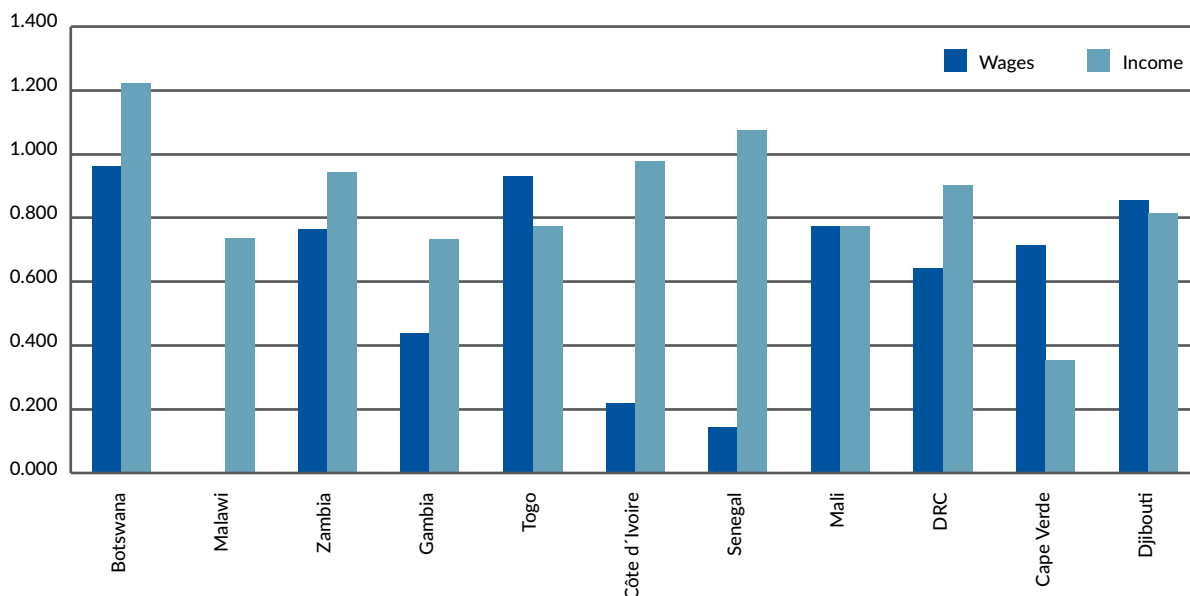
Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012

2.2.1 Income Levels

A cursory look across countries shows a certain progress in the direction of gender equality in the income distribution (figure 14). Countries like Zambia, Cote d'Ivoire and Senegal display an index close to or above one, thereby reflecting a situation of near parity. This contrasts with the weak performance of

Cabo Verde and Kenya, whose scores are both below average. Kenya's weak performance has been consistent with the previously available data. From the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2005/2006, results showed that women earned less than their male counterparts in both informal sector and small-scale agricultural household enterprises.

Figure 14 GSI Economic Power Block –Wages and Income



Source: UNECA own computations from country reports (2012).

While women earned only about one percent of their income from the informal sector, the men earned about 12 percent of their income from the informal sector. The KIHBS data also revealed that female workers from the small agricultural households' enterprises earned about 17.3 percent of the income, which was half of their male counterparts earning at about 38.4 percent of the income generated in the same sector (Republic of Kenya 2006). In Botswana, the total income earned from informal enterprises by women at the most aggregate level exceeded men's income from informal enterprises. However, when average incomes earned by women and men were approximated by shares of women and men in informal sector, there appeared a gender gap in favor of men since women dominated the informal sector.

2.2.1.1 Wages

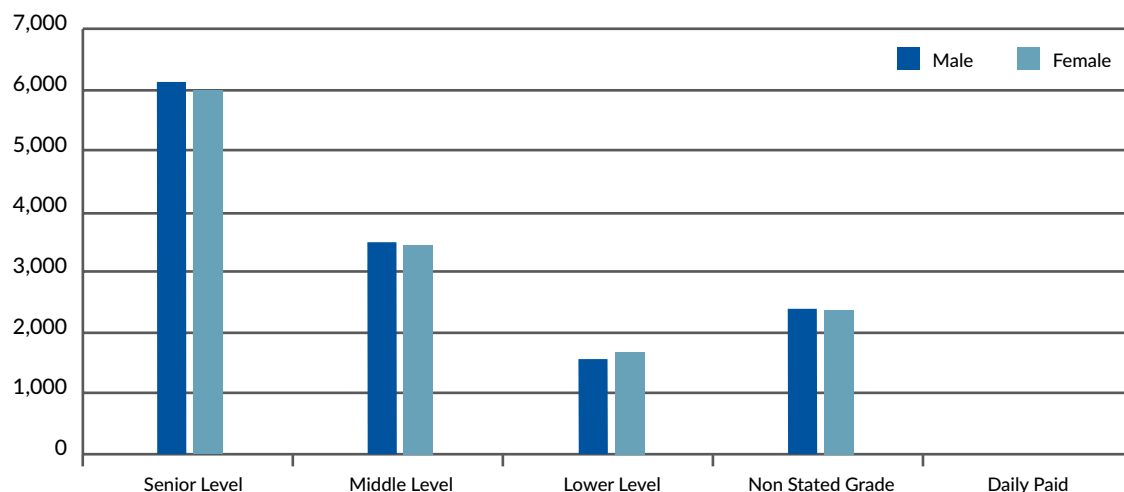
The statistics provided by countries on wages refer to estimated monthly average earnings or salaries and generally include social contributions of employees and employers.

The use of different methodologies to compute wages however, do not allow for cross-country comparisons.

Wages in Agriculture

Table 4 shows the average gender gaps in wages in agriculture across all countries. The highest levels of wage disparities were found in Senegal (0.141) and Cote d'Ivoire (0.096), where the share of men in the wage distribution was up to 5 times higher as compared to that of women. In Cote d'Ivoire, men earn an average salary up to 24 times higher than women, despite the fact that women still represent the highest percentage of employed human resource in this sector. Although some countries seem to have performed well, including Mali (0.962) and Botswana (0.980), the overall score was just above average (0.610). This result reflects the situation of many African countries, where women are engaged in low-paid or, most often, unpaid subsistence agricultural activities, which threaten their economic productivity and empowerment.

Figure 15 Average Wages in Civil Service Sector in the Gambia



Source: Personnel Management Office (2011).

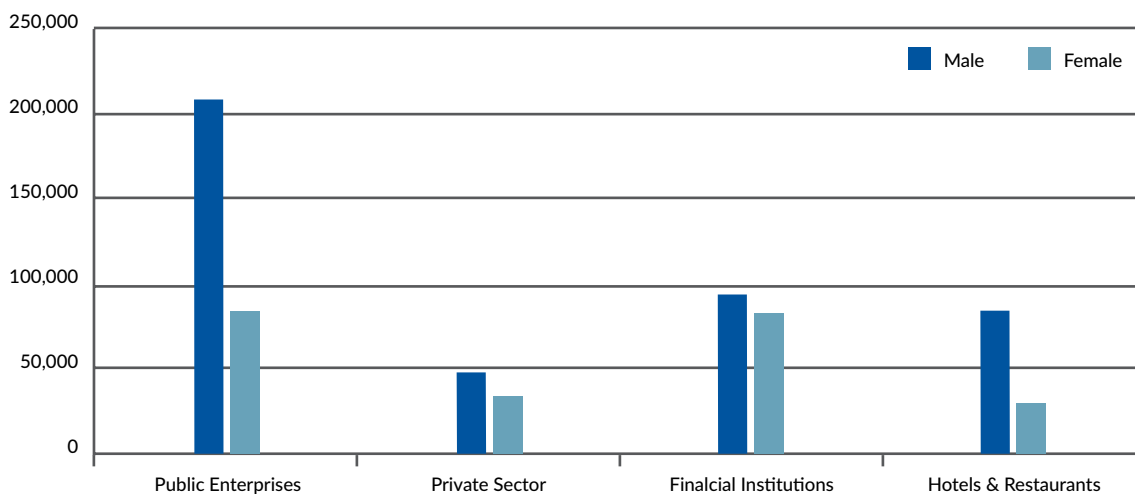
Wages in the Civil Service

Overall, countries seem to perform better in terms of wage distribution in the civil service. The average index across all countries is 0.762, which is the highest score in this subcomponent. In Botswana, there seems to be no major discrimination between men and women in salary levels in the civil service. The positive progress in some countries, however, may not reflect real progress towards gender equality. In Botswana, for instance, the fact that women constitute the majority of the population and their employment in the civil service is higher, masks the real wage inequalities between women and men. In fact, women in the civil service tend to occupy positions in the lower levels of organizational structures and are therefore at the lower end of pay structures. The same is observed in the Gambia, where higher gender equality is found in unskilled and lower grades of the employment status categories within the civil services (figure 15).

Despite a number of measures and regulatory frameworks put in place in recent years to

reduce wage gaps in the formal sector – including minimum wage policies – important differences persist in the distribution of wages in the formal (public and private) sector across all countries. While this indicator does not allow disaggregating public and private enterprises, some countries could provide specific information on these two sectors. Generally, results showed that public sectors tend to offer better opportunities to obtain equal remuneration as compared to the private sectors. Indeed, wage gaps are higher in private sectors for the majority of countries under analysis. The arguments raised to explain this wage differential practice are generally related to childbirth, marital problems and household activities, as well as to individual skills in salary negotiation (Bourdet, 2011). A counter-example however is provided by the Gambia, where wage differences seem to be much higher in public enterprises as compared to private ones, which seems to be attributed to men having in general higher levels of skills and education, as well as the employers having preferences to hire males over females (figure 16).

Figure 16 Average Wages in Formal (Public and Private) Sector in the Gambia



Source: OVP (2011).

Source: Country AGDI report, The Gambia, 2012

In Malawi, findings indicated no discrimination or disparities existing in wage payments between women and men across all sectors, as long as they were on the same grade or were performing the same tasks. This supposedly wage parity in Malawi has been reinforced by law through an Act of Parliament on employment, which establishes and reinforces minimum standards of employment with the purpose of ensuring equity for enhancing industrial peace, accelerated economic growth and social justice. Specifically, the Employment Act of 2000 stipulates that: “Every employer shall pay employees equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction or discrimination of any kind, in particular, on basis of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, nationality, ethnic or social origin, disability, property, birth, marital or other status or family responsibilities” (Malawi Government).

Wages in the Informal Sector

The informal sector has grown significantly in recent years in Africa as well as in other parts of the world, and has become an alternative and important source of employment for

large number of individuals (see box 5). Despite its increasing importance, available data on informal employment remains scarce, as employment in this sector is predominantly casual, mainly based on social relations and reciprocity, as opposed to formal contractual obligations between employers and employees. Indeed, only 5 out of 13 countries could provide data on informal wage employment.

In these countries, results show that women generated systematically less earnings from informal enterprises than their male counterparts. In Kenya, women earn 37 percent less than their male counterparts involved in similar ventures. In Congo, an important share of salaried women across all sectors carry on a secondary activity in the informal sector. A study on women’s participation in development shows that upto 38.8 percent of salaried women living in semi-urban areas and 21.1 percent in the urban areas in Congo had some kind of secondary informal activity. However, despite the fact that the informal sector is heavily patronized by women, their earnings still lag behind those of men.

Based on the experience across the world, a number of arguments have been put forward to explain why women are more concentrated in informal and low paid wage employment. First, women's work may have been undervalued and underpaid because of the perception that women's lives follow different patterns than men's, which therefore pushes them into poorly remunerated forms of work. Factors accounting for low evaluation are: low valuation of skills and status (as restricted to being primarily mothers and caregivers), the assumption that women are second earners as opposed to being bread winners, and women's concentration in low-paying and low value-added firms. Second, women tend to have a lower reservation wages than men, which is a gender bias existing in the eligibility rules for claiming unemployment

benefits, social protection measures, etc., all of which weakens their wage bargaining position (ILO, 2009).

In addition, by being excluded from all legal and regulatory frameworks, the remuneration and working conditions in the informal sector are less favourable and more precarious than in the formal sector. With low productivity, insecurity of income and poor working conditions, such kind of employment mainly serves as a coping mechanism during periods of crisis or when seeking minimal jobs. However, its capacity to bring people out of poverty is limited. Efforts are therefore, expected to be directed at enhancing the sector's productivity and improving its pay and working conditions.

Box 6: Informal Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa

Over the last decades, the informal economy in Africa has become a growing source of employment for large numbers of individuals, particularly among the poorest (Vecker, 2006, Haan 2006, Fox and Gaal 2008). Today the informal economy in Africa largely dominates the economy, both in terms of output and employment: a recent assessment of its size and contribution by Charmes (2012) based on ILO compilations (2012), shows that it has increased over the last decades in Sub-Saharan Africa from 70 percent of non agricultural employment at the end of the 1980s, to more than 80 percent at the end of the 1990s and again 70 percent at the end of the 2000s, and it counts for more than 31% of total GDP and more than 50% of total non agricultural GDP. A look at countries in Sub-Saharan Africa shows that informal sector activities maintain a significant, and in some cases, dominant share of their respective markets. Informal employment is concentrated in retail and wholesale trade, including street vending and ambulant trading (34%) and in services (42%); only 24% are employed in manufacturing and construction (Charmes, 2012). Informal employment is comprised of the informal sector (80% in Sub-Saharan Africa) and also includes workers with precarious employment in formal sector enterprises, and certain employment in households producing goods exclusively for their own use or employing paid domestic workers (20%). Africa is the only region where women outnumber men in the informal economy (52%).

The large number of informal workers, which have become the prominent feature of labour markets across all Sub-Saharan Africa, is forcing governments to acknowledge their existence and importance to national economies (IMF, 2012). Initially viewed as a safety net for those unable to find employment in the traditional sector, the image of the informal sector has begun to change with time and the education of those entering it. More workers have begun to view it, not as a temporary stop while searching for employment in the formal economy, but as a preferred destination offering opportunities to those wanting to become entrepreneurs. In African countries where job growth in the formal wage sector has stagnated, making it difficult to absorb rising numbers of new entrants to the labour force, informal self-employment has opened opportunities for youths who are acquiring higher levels of education and skills (Fox and Gaal 2008). However, while informal employment can be seen as a first step towards better paid work, especially for young workers and women, it can also become a trap from which workers find it hard to free themselves, due to a lack of incentives and opportunities for developing skills. IMF (2012) estimates that, beyond having no labour contracts and no health or social security benefits, on average workers work longer hours, and their earnings per hour are generally lower than in the formal sector.

2.2.1.2 Income

This sub-component measures Income from informal sector enterprises, small agricultural household enterprises and the share of women under the Poverty Datum Line (PDL). Income from employment generally takes different forms, and accrues in cash, kind, services, benefits or even entitlements to deferred benefits.

Income From the Informal Sector

As mentioned in the previous section, the informal sector has significantly developed in Africa, as well as in other parts of the world, as a way to diversify sources of income, but also as a strategy for the most vulnerable – particularly women and youth – to cope with the effects of the recent global economic crisis. It is estimated that between 70 and 80 per cent of workers in Africa today have informal jobs – either as owners of informal-sector businesses or as contributing family workers or employees, and the majority of them are women. According to UNDP, about eight out of ten female workers are currently engaged in informal employment in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNDP, 2011). In Mali, they represent 90.7 per cent of the total, while only 2.9 per cent and 0.3 per cent of women are employed in the formal public and private sector respectively (African Development Bank, 2011).

While these activities represent a real source of income and to some extent, economic empowerment, they remain highly vulnerable and insecure, lacking formal contracts or social security benefits. Some countries have started to put in place social protection mechanisms to address the vulnerability of informal employment. However, progress is still slow, and women are largely exposed to the risks associated with informal employment ventures. Despite the large number of women gravitating in the informal sector in Africa, analysis from AGDI countries shows that their share of income from informal employment

is significantly lower than that of men in all selected countries, except that of Botswana. The gender disparities appear to be highest in Kenya and Cabo Verde, where women's incomes from informal activities account for about 10 to 30 per cent of the share of men. These findings are in part a reflection of the division of labour between men and women. While men in the informal sector are predominantly self-employed workers, most of whom are own-account workers, women are generally unpaid family workers, and who are often under-counted, since many are home-based. Charmes (2012), estimated that 70 per cent of the informal sector in Africa is comprised of those who are self-employed with the percentage rising to 81 per cent if South Africa is excluded.

Income from Small Agricultural Household Enterprises

In many African countries, women work predominantly in the agricultural sector, which remains the economic engine in most regions, contributing significantly to the production, transformation and distribution of subsistence crops and other farming activities. It is estimated that about 70 per cent of the agricultural workers and 80 per cent of food producers are women in Africa (UN, 2010). However, women still earn less from smallholder agricultural enterprises than their male counterparts in all selected countries, except Senegal. In Malawi, for instance, there are still noticeable disparities between men and women in terms of income from small agricultural household enterprises, with men earning nearly double the income of women. In Zambia, results from the agricultural sector show that females had the lowest earnings. The reasons for this disparity may be similar to those discussed for the informal sector. Apart from disposing of considerable less income than men across all sectors, research has found that a significant proportion of women in the less developed countries have no say on how their own cash earnings are spent

(UN, 2010). Women's lower control over household resources is further reflected in their limited participation in intra-household decision-making on spending, particularly on daily household needs, which are more likely to fall within the traditional areas of decision-making for women. Findings showed that the proportion of married women aged between 15–49 years not involved in decisions regarding how their own earnings are spent, is particularly high in some countries, notably in Malawi (34 per cent), Democratic Republic of Congo (28 per cent) and Zambia (21 per cent). This lack of decision-making power is more often associated with the poorest wealth quintiles.

Share of Women Under the Poverty Line

This indicator measures the number of women under the official poverty line in comparison to men. The welfare indicator used for measuring poverty in the majority of developing countries is generally based on household consumption. However, a number of challenges emerged while using this methodology. It is reported to be difficult to disaggregate information by individual and by gender, and therefore difficult to measure intra-household inequality using consumption. In fact, concerns are that within such households women may have a subordinated status relative to men, that they may have less decision-making power on intra-household allocation of resources, and that ultimately fewer resources may be allocated to them (UN, 2010). It is also not so easy to measure how much of the food or household common goods (such as housing,

water supply or sanitation) is consumed or used by each individual household member. In addition, when different patterns of consumption are observed it is not always clear if they are related to different individual needs, preferences or to unequal distribution of resources.

This means that results might be biased, and hide some important intra-household gender inequalities, as reflected by the high scores of the indicator, i.e. close to or above parity for most of the selected countries (table 8). While measuring poverty at individual level remains a challenging task due to the scarcity of data, empirical studies have however shown that household poverty is strongly related to the household head socioeconomic status, including income, educational level, and civil status – with poverty levels being much larger in female-headed households (Meenakshi and Ray, 2002, Morrison et al., 2007, Rajaram, 2009). To explain why female-headed households are poorer than their male-headed counterparts, Buvinic and Gupta (1997) identified three reasons, which still hold true in many developing countries, even today. First, female-headed households have generally more dependents and thus have higher non-worker to worker ratio compared to other households. Secondly, they have generally lower wages and access to productive resources due to the prevailing gender biases against women; and ultimately, they bear the holistic burden of household activities, which results in time and mobility constraints.

Table 8: GSI of Share of Women Under the Poverty Line

| Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo |
|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|---------------|---------|-------|-------|------------|-------|
| 1.007 | | 0.938 | 0.942 | 0.698 | 1.171 | 0.979 | 0.950 | 1.351 | 0.930 | | 0.816 |

Source: UNECA own computations from country reports.

2.2.2 Time Use and Employment

In recent years there has been a growing interest on Time-use studies as a way to assess how women and men spend their time in market, non-market and domestic activities. One of the major success of these studies has been to unravel the size of unpaid care work and recognize the overwhelming burden that women and girls face in household (unpaid) activities, which critically undermine their access to formal labour markets and participation in productive activities (see box 7). Often as a consequence of rooted traditions and social norms, women tend to specialize in the production of non-market activities, which are generally unrecognized and undervalued. Time-use surveys have thus made it possible to acknowledge and effectively value unpaid care work and women's contribution to economic production (Burchardt, 2010, Esquivel et al. 2008, Brunnich et al, 2005). However, as Time-use studies have only begun developing, monitoring progress in this area thus remains problematic, which calls for governments to increase their efforts to collect gender-disaggregated data on Time-use.

2.2.2.1 Time Use

This subcomponent provides information on gender differences in time spent in: i) market

economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer), ii) non-market economic activities, and iii) domestic, care and volunteer work. As mentioned in the introduction, data collection on Time-use remains problematic, as very few countries have recent data for this indicator. AGDI countries that have been undertaking Time-Use Surveys in our panel include Mali (2008), and very recently Djibouti (2012). Other countries collected data on Time-use through short modules in their household surveys: Botswana (1990), Malawi (2004) and Kenya (2009), the results of which are not strictly comparable with specific Time-Use Surveys. For the remaining countries, the time that men and women spend in market and non-market economic activities remains largely unknown.

Using the available information, cross-country results show that women spend most of their time on unpaid domestic tasks. In Malawi, women spend about six times as much time in domestic, care and volunteer activities, or as unpaid family worker in market activities, vis-à-vis their male counterpart, who specialize in productive market activities. Similarly, in Mali, women bear the burden of domestic unpaid activities, with men only spending 2 per cent of their time in this type of activities.

Box 7: Women as Primary Caretakers of the Family

In spite of the changes that have occurred in women's participation in the labour market in recent years, women continue to bear most of the responsibilities for the home: caring for children and other dependent household members, preparing meals and doing other housework. This work, while productive, is outside the boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA) and therefore not counted as an economic activity. Those who carry the burden of work for the home – mainly women – enter the labour market from a highly disadvantaged position, as the time they spend on domestic work restricts their access to full and productive employment and also leaves them with less time for education and training, leisure, self care, social and political activities. In general, women's increased participation in paid work has not been accompanied by an increase in men's participation in unpaid domestic work. Time-use studies show that in most regions, women dedicate much more time to domestic work than men do. This is particularly true in Latin America and Africa, where women spend far more than twice the time men spend on unpaid domestic work. Cultural conceptions of women's and men's roles no doubt play an important part in the unequal sharing of domestic work between the sexes. Change may be slow, but a trend towards a more equitable division of household work is so far only evident in developed countries.

Source: UN (2010).

The intensity of domestic work is pervasive, particularly in rural areas of Congo, Cote d'Ivoire or Botswana. In Congo, the gender division of labour suggested that traditional male activities, including hunting, fishing or tree cutting might be hard but more often limited in time. In contrast, for women traditional occupations are varied and, most of all, they are permanent. This daily burden of work (covering between 15-17 hours – as compared to 6-8 hours for men) triggered by lack of equipment and infrastructures, critically affects women's health status, leading to faster aging and higher risks of morbidity and mortality.

The predominance of women in domestic and social activities (ceremonies, paying social visits, etc.) constitutes another hindrance to their economic development, as they are prevented to access formal employment. Also, evidence shows that domestic activities have a significant crowding-out effect on time spent on studies and human capital accumulation, with consequential impacts on women's present and future economic opportunities (Bourdet et al., 2010).

This occupational segregation in access to economic opportunities triggers women's economic dependency on men, which in turn increases gender wage gaps. Further, when men with higher earnings or a pension are no longer around because of divorce, migration or death, women as lone mothers and older women living alone face a higher risk of poverty.

2.2.2.2 Employment

The employment variable measures the share of women in Non-Agricultural Wage Employment and the Youth Unemployment Rate.

Non-Agricultural Wage Employment

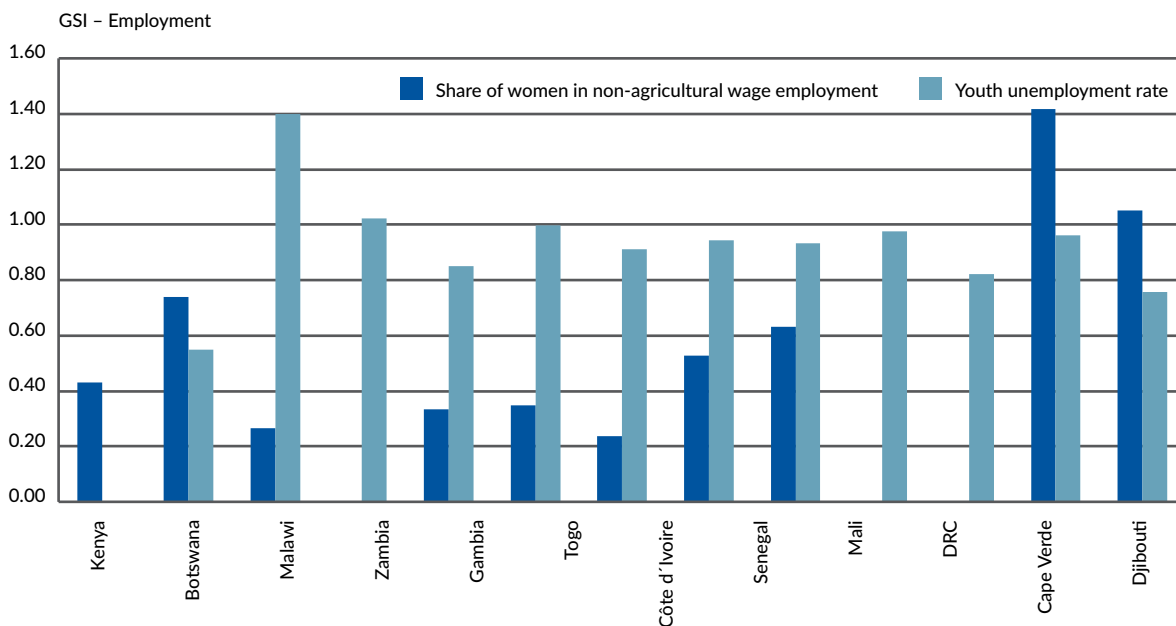
Wage employment is a key element for improving household well-being and remains

the most common form of employment worldwide. However, African women's employment in non-agricultural sectors is low relative to other parts of the world (UN, 2011). In 2009, this share was 18.8 per cent in North Africa and 32.6 per cent in the rest of Africa, compared to over 40 per cent in both Latin America and Eastern Asia. Cultural impediments have been stated to be key to this low trend. Evidence from Mozambique shows that women's participation and access to non-agricultural jobs are constrained by relations of power within existing "patriarchal bargains", with women having to negotiate with either their husbands or fathers (Ova and Sender, 2009).

Hence, despite the overall growth of the sector, women are still largely underrepresented. Indeed, results from the selected countries show persisting gender imbalances in wage employment in the non-agriculture sector across all countries. While gaps have been closing in some countries like Botswana (in line with findings from MDG African Reports for 2010 and 2011), however, in Cote d'Ivoire, the proportion of women's non-agricultural wage employment is still about four times lower than of men. Similarly, in Malawi, 79 per cent of men are engaged in non-agricultural activities, against a mere 21 per cent of women. Similar results are found in the Gambia (GSI=0.33) and Togo (GSI=0.348). Globally, and with the exception of Congo, all countries seem to display an index below average (figure 17).

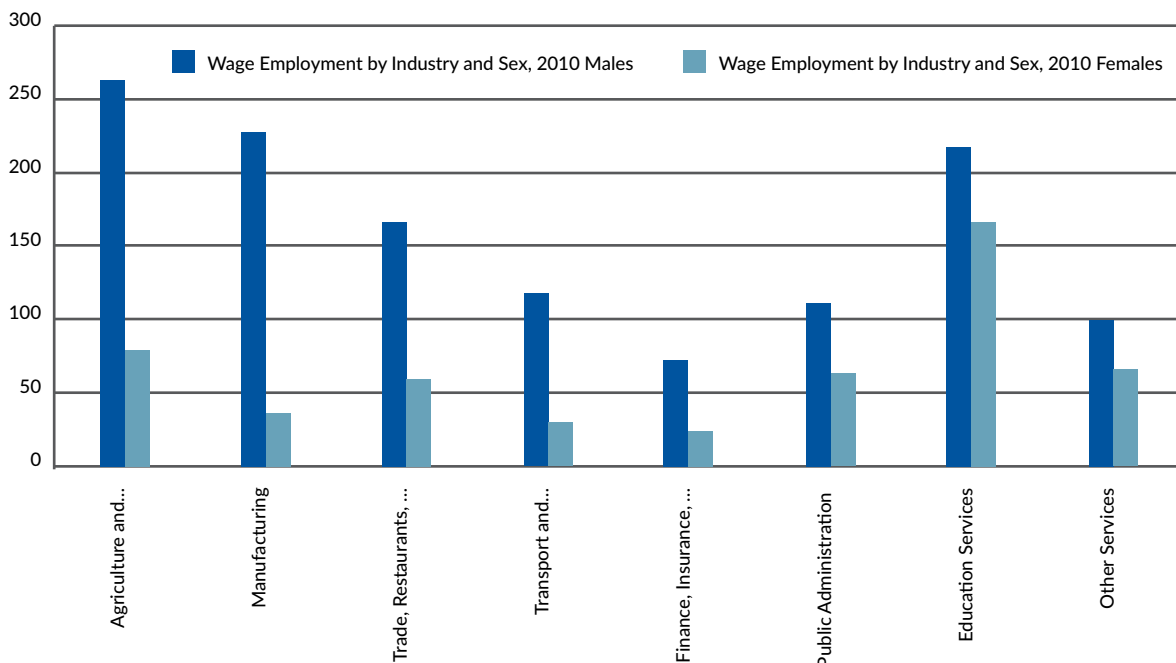
In Kenya, an analysis by sector indicates that wage employment is almost four times lower for women as it is for men in sectors such as Agriculture and Forestry, Manufacturing and Trade (figure 19). And as far as the modern sector is concerned, this share is particularly low, and has further declined in recent years, from 30 percent in 2006 to 28 percent in 2010 (table 9).

Figure 17 Gender Status Index for Employment



Source: UNECA own computations from country reports.

Figure 18 Wage Employment by Sectors and Gender, in Kenya (2010)



Source: Economic Survey by the Kenyan National Bureau of Statistics, 2011.

Table 9: Wage Employment in Modern Sector, by Sex, in Kenya, 2006-2010

| Year | Women | Men | Total | % Women | % men |
|------|-------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| 2006 | 562.2 | 1296.2 | 1858.4 | 30.3 | 69.7 |
| 2007 | 575.5 | 1334.3 | 1909.8 | 30.2 | 69.9 |
| 2008 | 586.8 | 1356.7 | 1943.5 | 30.2 | 69.8 |
| 2009 | 570.1 | 1430 | 2,000.10 | 28.5 | 71.5 |
| 2010 | 591.4 | 1469 | 2,060.40 | 28.7 | 71.3 |

Source: Economic Surveys by the Kenyan National Bureau of Statistics, 2011 (various issues).

The low education and literacy levels for women as highlighted above are major factors in maintaining the status quo in terms of women's participation in non-agricultural wage employment (see box 8). In this regard, the Southern African Development Community's (SADC) Gender Protocol Barometer for Malawi (2010) provides interesting insights on the relation between educational choices and occupational segregation. The report highlights that in the world of employment gender gaps are entrenched through recruitment, promotion, working conditions and workplace dynamics such as harassment. In fact, women in Malawi dominate in traditional low paying jobs such as nursing, teaching and administrative jobs, and very few are in non-traditional ones which

include engineering, architecture, surveying and others. The type of subjects that girls like and choose to study at secondary and tertiary levels of education are the main determining factors in their subsequent specialization. In fact, based on the types of jobs that women dominate in, more girls than boys enroll for non-science, non-technical subjects.

2.3.4.1 Youth Unemployment Rate

Youth unemployment is a major issue in Africa, as it has the largest share of youth to total population worldwide, in addition to a very high poverty incidence and low economic diversification. Youth unemployment rate is generally referred to as the number of unemployed aged between 15-24 years to the total active population of the same age.

Box 8: Women's Participation in the Labour Market

The participation of women in the labour market is often seen as an outcome of their relative disadvantage in educational attainment and skills. An interesting study from the World Bank (2012) shows that women's participation in the labour market tends to follow a U-shape with respect to countries' level of development. Female participation in employment is high and the gender gap low in many low-income countries where women are engaged in unpaid subsistence agriculture, although they are less involved in paid activities outside the household. Women also tend to be more active in high-income countries, where over two-thirds of the female adult population participates in the labor market, and the gender gap in labor force participation rates is less than 15 percent on average. This is especially true in countries with extensive social protection coverage and societies where part-time work is possible and accepted. In contrast, men's participation rates are rather stable across countries in different income groups. Notwithstanding, evidence shows that share of women in the labour force has stagnated over the last decade, in almost all developing regions. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the share increased of only 1 percentage point in one decade, from 43 per cent in 1990 to 44 per cent in 2010 (UN, 2010).

Source: World Bank (2012).

While data has been provided by all countries except Kenya, this indicator should be yet interpreted with caution, as labour markets in Africa are still highly segmented. The concept of unemployment does not always reflect the reality of these markets where underemployment and informal jobs are rife. An interesting result however comes from Malawi, where more boys than girls are unemployed (GSI=1.4). An explanation to this can be found in the segregation of labour markets. As there are more males than females who continue and finish school, there are likely to be more males than females looking for employment in the formal labour market, which is not expanding fast enough to absorb all the school leavers. In contrast, most female youth who had dropped out of school and opted for early marriages would not be on the job market as they would already be engaged either in subsistence farming, in the informal sector, or would be housewives.

2.2.3 Access to and Control over Resources

This last component of the GSI Economic Block is comprised of two subcomponents that are Means of Production and Management. The specific indicators are listed in table 10 and discussed in detail. Women’s individual control over resources is considered important not only because of the fairness of equal access to resources, but also because of the resulting

economic empowerment and increased bargaining power within the household.

2.2.3.1 Means of Production Ownership of Rural Land / Farms

A considerable number of studies show that women in developing countries are significantly disadvantaged with respect to men in terms of land property rights (FAO 2010). Evidence shows that in the majority of African countries and about half of Asian countries women are still largely disadvantaged by statutory and customary laws in their access to and ownership of land and other types of property (UN, 2010).

A number of methodological constraints emerged in the assessment of this sub-component. The first was the lack of information at individual level, as data on property ownership are usually recorded at the household level in both censuses and household surveys. A second hurdle was that data provided by countries more often referred to the *access* and *use* of land, rather than the *ownership* of land, which introduces an important difference in the analysis of the situation. However, wherever data are collected at individual levels and disaggregated by sex of the owner, gender inequality became apparent. Women were seen to own land, houses and livestock less often than men,

Table 10: GSI Economic Block – Access to Resources

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Means of production | Ownership of rural land/farms |
| | Ownership of urban plots/houses |
| | Ownership of livestock |
| | Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit) |
| Management | Employers |
| | Own-account workers |
| | High civil servants (class A) |
| | Members of professional syndicates |

bearing important implications on farming productivity and overall household welfare (FAO, 2011)

The gender asset gap is particularly wide in Sub-Saharan Africa, and four key factors have been put forward by recent studies to explain this gap: male preference in inheritance, male privilege in marriage, male bias in both community and state programs of land distribution, and male bias in the land market (UN, 2010).

In Botswana, a striking pattern of gendered access to resources has been observed. Although women constituted a significant majority amongst subsistence farmers, ownership and control over land resources reflected a male predominance. This lower access to resources increases women's economic dependency on men and makes them more vulnerable to various economic and environmental shocks. Access to land ownership also favors men to women in Malawi, so much so that average land holding size for female-headed households is lower at 0.803 hectare than 1.031 hectares for male-headed households.

In Cote d'Ivoire, the right to land ownership remains completely closed to women. It is estimated that women only possess 5 per cent of total land. This is often a consequence of the predominance of traditions and customary practises in lands' management, which hamper women's economic empowerment and full participation in economic development. In Togo, the ownership of land and means of production in the agricultural sector is also a prerogative of men. Men are the first owners of land. Women neither possess nor inherit land.

The Maputo Protocol and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) have encouraged Member States to adopt laws that enable

equal access to land for women. In many countries however, such laws are not yet in place. Even where laws exist, as in Congo, men are often reluctant to give away their land to women. Efforts are being made by Ministries of Women in countries like Cote d'Ivoire and Congo to revise customary laws and encourage traditional chiefs to recognize and take in the interests of women in land succession and inheritance rights.

Ownership of Urban Plots/Houses

In many countries, it has been observed that rules on ownership of properties (land and plots) vary significantly between rural and urban areas. While in rural areas, land management is generally seen to be based on customary rules, which still consider land as a collective good, in urban areas, on the other hand, land management falls under the law and land becomes an individual property, which should be equally accessible to all men and women alike.

These important gender disparities are reflected in the GSI scores in Table 7 for these two indicators. One can indeed note an overall index for ownership of property (plots/houses) in urban areas to be significantly higher (0.624) as compared to ownership of property in rural areas (0.321). The lowest scores in ownership of urban plots have been observed in Malawi (0.250), the Gambia (0.282) and Cote d'Ivoire (0.240). Promoting access and ownership of land and plots in both rural and urban areas for women remains a challenge. Factors such as rooted traditions and inequitable inheritance practices, fewer economic opportunities for women and too little political will and commitment still impede this progress.

Ownership of Livestock

Livestock farming is an important source of livelihood in many African countries. Yet, female farmers in all regions are less likely to own and have control over livestock (FAO, 2011). In rural Botswana, where the majority

Table 11: Access to Resources – Means of Production in Botswana

| Indicators | Data | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | Women | Men | Indicator |
| Ownership of rural farms | 31,866 | 50,112 | 0.64 |
| Ownership of urban houses/plots | 1,896 | 1972 | 0.96 |
| Ownership of livestock | 1,040,789 | 2,711,096 | 0.38 |
| Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit) | X | X | X |

Source: Botswana AGDI, 2012 report.

of the population resides, livestock constitutes the major source of income. However, a lack of disposable income and animal husbandry skills, and the disinheritance of women from land and property assets, all combine to reduce women's access to livestock resources (table 11). Government agricultural subsidy schemes such as the Financial Assistance Policy (FAP), which is no longer in force, was a commendable effort of the government to increase women's access to small stock.

In a different context, results from Mali show that land, livestock and equipment are generally owned by agricultural family farms. They are a family property, which in theory all family members should have access to, but whose management is controlled by the farms' holders. Notwithstanding, in Mali women only represent 3 per cent of the total farms holders, and are generally widows or divorced who do not have an adult male son.

Access to Credit (Commercial and Micro-credit)

Some of the known limiting factors to accessing credit and microfinance institutions remain the issues of collateral and security guarantees. A number of studies in microfinance have found that formal lenders, including rural banks, savings and credit cooperatives and special credit programs supported by the government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) prefer to give loans to households with diversified asset portfolios. This usually

puts women at a disadvantage compared to their male counterparts and has important implications on their economic opportunities and welfare. Also, studies have shown that because women cultivate smaller plots as compared to men, they generate lower yields and incomes that are necessary to obtain credit and to guarantee repayment (Gilbert et al., 2002, FAO, 2011).

Despite such constraints, women's access to credit has improved in many countries in Africa, due to resource mobilization projects from small and medium enterprises among other things. Microfinance is certainly more accessible to women today than it was in the past, and recent evidence have shown that facilitating women's access to credit increases total household expenditures on food and improves the long-term security of young female children (Hazarika and Guha-Khasnobis, 2008). A number of initiatives have been put in place in many countries to facilitate women's access to credit. In Democratic Republic of Congo, a commercial bank specifically for women has been created with an estimated social capital of 15 million US Dollars. The goal of this initiative is to reduce credit crunch and foster women's entrepreneurship.

In Gambia, several micro-credit schemes are also being provided under the Village Savings and Credit Association (VISACA), Gambia Women's Finance Association (GAWFA)

and National Women's Farmers Association (NAWFA) from which women farmers can access loans. However, just like their female peers in the business sector they are also experiencing hindrances in obtaining micro-credits in the formal banking system owing to the collateral conditionality and exorbitant interest rates that are inhibiting their access as petty traders, to credit facilities.

In Djibouti, two saving institutions and a program under the *Agence Djiboutienne de Développement Social* (ADDS) have been put in place to facilitate access to credit for women, other most vulnerable groups of population, as well as female community organizations. Between 2007 and 2010 these mechanisms have enabled over 800 women to benefit from microfinance services of up to 75 million Djiboutian Francs. Today, women constitute the largest beneficiaries, covering 85 per cent of the total fund. Further to these recent initiatives, other actions have been initiated by a number of NGOs, including Caritas and United Nations Fund for Development (UNFD, and development institutions like the FDED (*Fond de Développement Economique de Djibouti*).

In Mali, according to a recent government report (Ministère de la Promotion de la Femme, de l'Enfant et de la Famille/ *Projet de Renforcement des Capacités des Organisations Féminines*, 2011), a large number of women are still excluded from the formal financial system (savings, credit, money transfer), which remains a prerogative of men. This can be attributed to lower levels of education and lower access to extensive services, which make it more difficult for women to gain access to other resources, including that of land and credit (FAO, 2011). Hence, microfinance represents an answer to financial inclusion for the largest and most vulnerable groups of population. In Mali today, the coverage rate of the formal banking system is still extremely low at 20 per cent, of

which 12 per cent stems from microfinance institutions.

Similarly in Congo, a number of initiatives have been developed, including *la Mutuelle congolaise d'épargne et crédit* (MUCODEC) targeting firms and individuals gravitating in the informal sector, and offering them short-term loans at affordable interest rates (between 2 and 7 per cent). Other forms of credit have also been created to target the most vulnerable groups of population. These include *les Caisses féminines d'épargne et de crédit mutuel* (CFECM), which emanate from the UNDP-supported project « *Système de crédit pour les femmes du secteur informel* ». Today, Congo has more than 20 funds of this nature disseminated across the country. Further, the government has put in place the Support Fund to Agriculture, to help out individual and collective initiatives in the agricultural sector. However, results show that in two years, the number of women benefiting from this fund remained weak (11.4 percent in 2009 and 8.4 percent in 2010).

2.2.3.2 Management

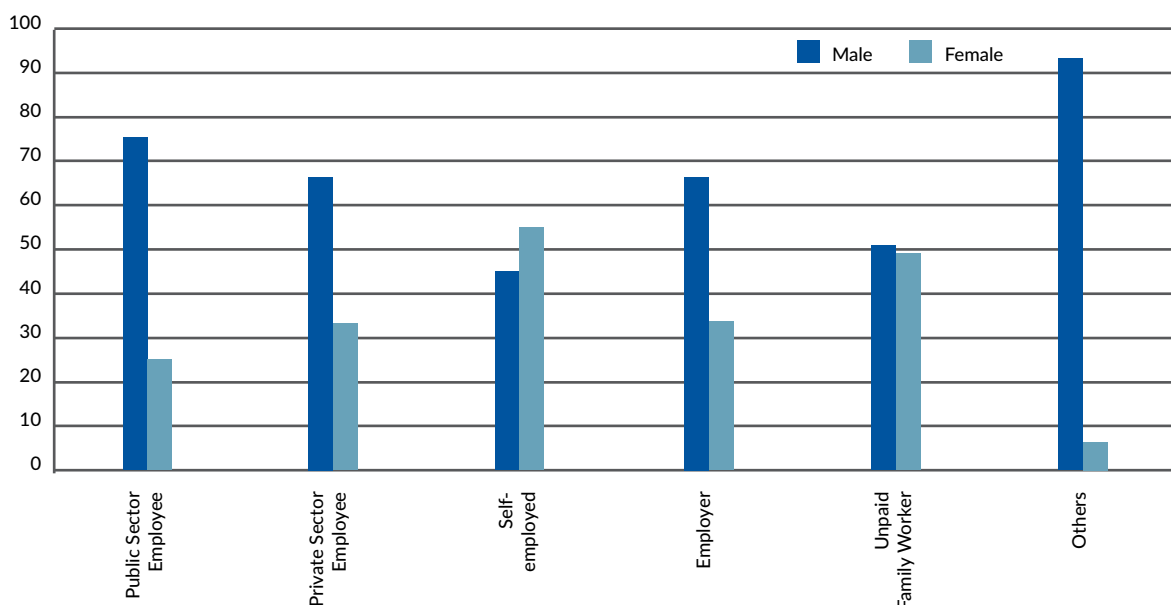
This subcomponent measures the degree of women's economic empowerment and participation in management. The specific indicators include Employers, Own Account Workers, High Civil Servants (Class A) and Members of Professional Associations.

Employers

According to International Labour Organization (ILO) statistical definitions, *employers* are defined as individuals working on their own account or with one or several partners, holding self-employment jobs and engaging on a continuous basis one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Despite progress made in many countries towards increasing female employment, men still dominate women as paid-employees,

Figure 19 Share of Women who are Paid Employees, Own-account Workers and Employers in Total Employment (%) in the Gambia



Source: Integrated Household Survey, 2010, Gambia Bureau of Statistic (GBoS).

self-employed/own account workers and employers. The reasons for this segregation are often attributed to a strong influence of social and cultural norms, low access to property and productive resources for women, low levels of education, and weak public interventions to ease for instance their access to credit. In the Gambia, men's share in this broad category is 75 percent compared to the 25 percent for females. In the private sector, males account for 56 percent in contrast to 34 percent for females in employment as shown in figure 19. For the more specific category of the self-employed/own account worker, women constitute 55 percent of employment in contrast to the 45 percentage share for males. This is explained by the fact that the self-employed/own account worker category is mostly made up of petty trading, small business ventures such as hair dressing, sewing and small ruminant husbandry. Males constitute 66 percent of employment in

the employer category compared to the 34 percent for the female employers.

The average score for this indicator remains critically low (0.387), driven by poor performance of countries including Cote d'Ivoire (0.211), Malawi (0.333), Democratic Republic of Congo (0.170) and Djibouti (0.317).

Own Account Workers

Own account workers are defined as individuals working on their own account or with one or several partners, holding self-employment jobs and not having engaged any employees on a continuous basis (ILO, 2003). A UN report²⁶ estimates that own-account workers make up 47 per cent of female employment and 56 per cent of male employment in Eastern and Western Africa. In some countries like Cote d'Ivoire, there has been some progress in this component (index: 0.585) due to a number of

26 UNDESA (2010). The World's Women 2010: Trends and Statistics. New York: UN.

individual initiatives from women, particularly in the informal/small trade sector. In Ghana, using data from the 2005 Living Standards Survey, the comparison of earnings estimated with multiple regression analysis shows returns for self-employed workers in the urban non-agriculture sector that approach or match those of wage workers in the urban non-agriculture sector (World Bank, 2008).

High Class Civil Servants (Class A)

In the majority of countries results show that there are more men than women who occupy high decision-making positions in companies and organizations, and may also own companies and organizations. One explanation could be that there are lower numbers of qualified women within many organizations to occupy the managerial positions, but to a large extent, the disparity is due to discriminatory tactics employed by employers who are mainly men.

In Malawi, the score is very low (0.298), but substantially higher than in 2010 (0.109). Whilst this is a significant improvement, the disparity remains high at a ratio close to 1:3. In the Gambia, women are generally expected

to take a secondary, passive role in public and political life and are usually considered less suitable than men for high responsibility jobs. This is, however, slowly changing. Although women are considered less “economically active” than men, their number is growing. Figure 20 shows the level of women’s participation in the Civil Service institutions in the Gambia, as of January 2011.

In Botswana, although the gender gap in High Class Civil Servants is narrowing, women are predominantly located at the lower levels of the High Civil Servants category. The implications of this is that women in the civil service are not fully involved in the decision making processes and do not earn the highest salaries. A study conducted by the Women’s Affairs Department (WAD) in 2008 on Gender Disaggregated Data on Positions of Power and Decision Making found that “63% of men occupied the Civil Service decision making positions compared to women who occupied 37% of the Public Service decision making positions. Women were also found not to be very few in the highest band salary grade (18%), while men had the highest score of appointment to the same salary grade (82%)”.

Figure 20 High-class Civil Servants in the Gambia, by Gender (2011)

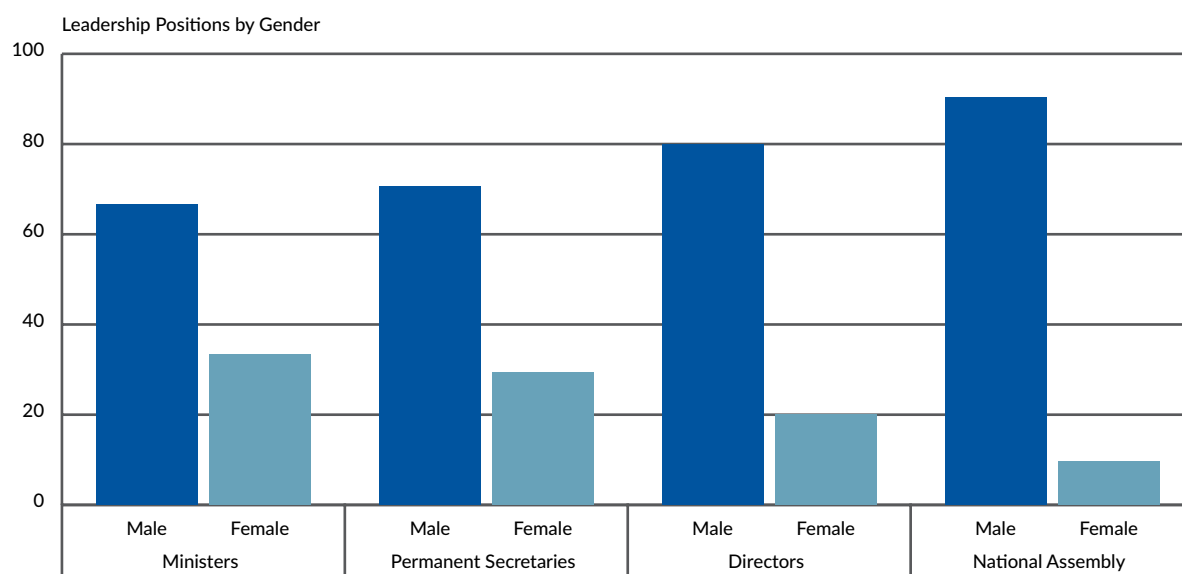


Table 12: Trends in High-Class Civil Servants in Togo (2006-2011)

| High-class civil servants (classes A1 et A2) | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Female (%) | 13,3 | 12,8 | 12,9 | 14,3 | 15,1 | 15,4 |
| Male (%) | 86,7 | 87,2 | 87,1 | 85,7 | 84,9 | 84,6 |
| Ratio | 0,153 | 0,147 | 0,149 | 0,167 | 0,178 | 0,182 |

Source: Ministère de la fonction publique et de la réforme administrative. 2012.

In Togo, the number of women employed in the A category has only slightly increased between 2006 and 2011, and remains very low (table 12). Indeed, there is still less than 1 woman out of 5 men employed in this category. In Democratic Republic of Congo, this proportion is even lower, accounting for 16 women for 132 men. Similar issues of women being discriminated against during recruitments and promotions would come into play here. To address the gender gaps in the high civil servant position, there is a need for Governments to take deliberate steps to recruit and promote more women into high positions. Affirmative action is required to achieve parity within the public as well as in other sectors.

An example of good practices in many countries has been the introduction of a gender quota legislation, which has dramatically increased the number of women in high-civil servant positions. In Senegal, the number of women in the General Assembly over 50 years has increased from nil to representing nearly a quarter of the total representatives.

Professional Associations

In the majority of countries around the world, professional associations are dominated by men, and this is well reflected in the extremely low average score for all AGDI countries (0.387). In Togo, men make up 86 per cent of the total associations' members. In Botswana, a dramatically low gender gap is found in Engineering (0.06), followed by Architects (0.16), Physicians (0.53) and Lawyers (0.57).

The Association of Accountants, however, shows an interesting difference with a predominance of females (index=1.06).

The lowest country score is observed in Mali (0.094). Here, besides a scant number of women's doctors, women are virtually absent from all other orders, which generally require a technical and scientific background. There is therefore a critical need to challenge cultural norms and encourage women towards engaging in scientific areas and acquiring the essential and technical skills enabling them to have equal access to labour markets. After all, membership in such associations are likely to widen women's network and provide opportunities for advancement in their careers.

2.3 The Gender Status Index Political Power Block

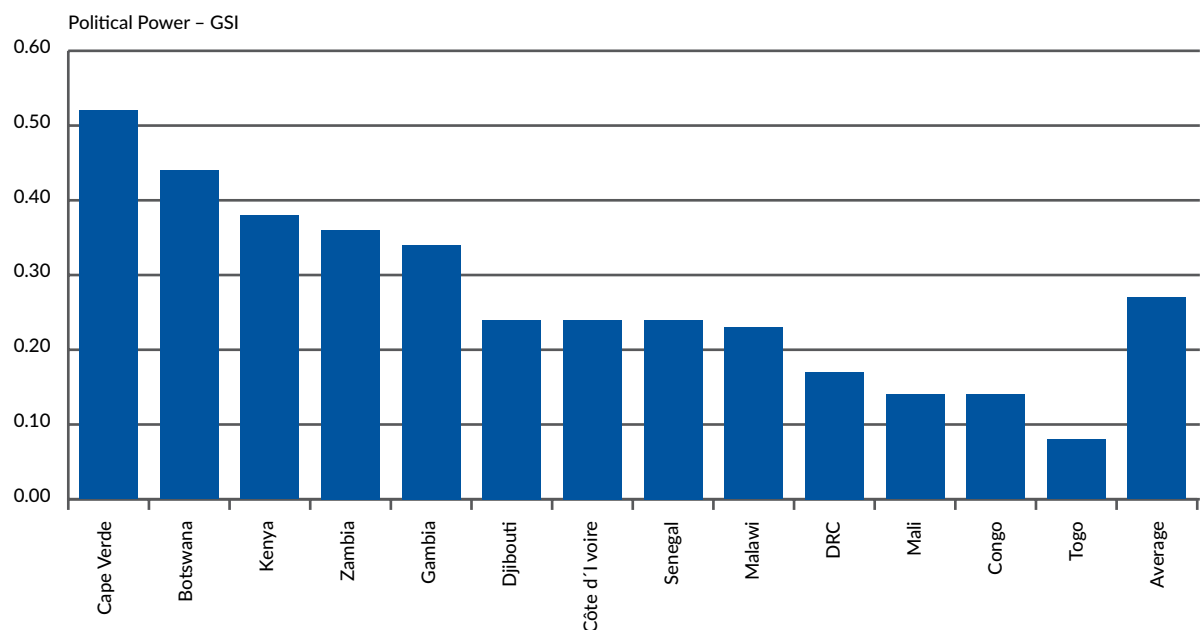
The gender status index in the political block reflects the status of women's agency. It is the analytical framework of the representation of women and men in decision-making. It measures the participation of women in two major categories, namely, women's level of participation in the public sector and in civil society. In the public sector, an assessment of how power is distributed in cabinet, legislature and judiciary is made while in civil society a review of representation is made in political parties, trade unions, employers' associations, professional syndicates and in leadership and management of NGOs as well as community

based organizations. Nine indicators for the public sector and four indicators for civil society participation were identified to assess parity levels. The indicators were intended to show the level of women's political participation and decision making by way of occupying high and meaningful posts in both the public sector and civil society categories. The gender status index is measured as female to male numbers in each case. Under the public sector, indicators used were the numbers of men and women in; parliament, ministerial positions, judicial posts, high posts in the civil service and local councils and traditional rulers. Women's civil society participation is shown by occupation of senior positions in political parties, trade unions, employers' associations, professional syndicates and as managers of NGOs. The results for the thirteen African countries included in the AGDI II phase, are shown in Figure 21.

Overall, the Figure 21 shows that, women's political participation and decision making status is dismally low for most of the countries. While the expected GSI value for equal status

of women and men is one (as ratio of women to men in numbers), the figure shows that for all the countries the GSI is far lower than that. The highest attained by Cabo Verde, at 0.52, implies that women's participation is limited to half the number of men. The average GSI, computed by considering all thirteen countries, being 0.27 shows that on an average women's participation is as low as a quarter of men's numbers. It is noted that eight of the countries from the thirteen (Togo, Congo Republic, Mali, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi, Senegal, Cote d'Ivoire and Djibouti) are actually below this average showing a more depressed women's status in the political power arena. Compared to the first AGDI trial countries, the political block GSI for Phase II didn't show much improvement as a group. The average political block GSI in AGDI I countries was 0.25, where as in the current phase it is 0.27. The range then was between 0.06 to 0.47 while it is now 0.08 to 0.52 for the present AGDI II countries. Comparing the GSI of political block to that of the social and economic blocks, it has been observed that invariably in all of

Figure 21 Summary of the GSI Political Power Block



Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

the countries the political power GSI is much lower than that of the other two (Figure 22). The wide gender gaps observed in the political power block point to a far bigger challenge of entrenched patriarchal values and patronage around political power being largely a domain of men. Intensified advocacy and leadership commitments are needed in this area to balance the political power sharing arrangements and specifically to empower women to attain agency in this area. This calls for Governments and the civil society to strengthen their efforts to enhance women's political participation and leadership in decision making structures both in the public sector and civil society arenas.

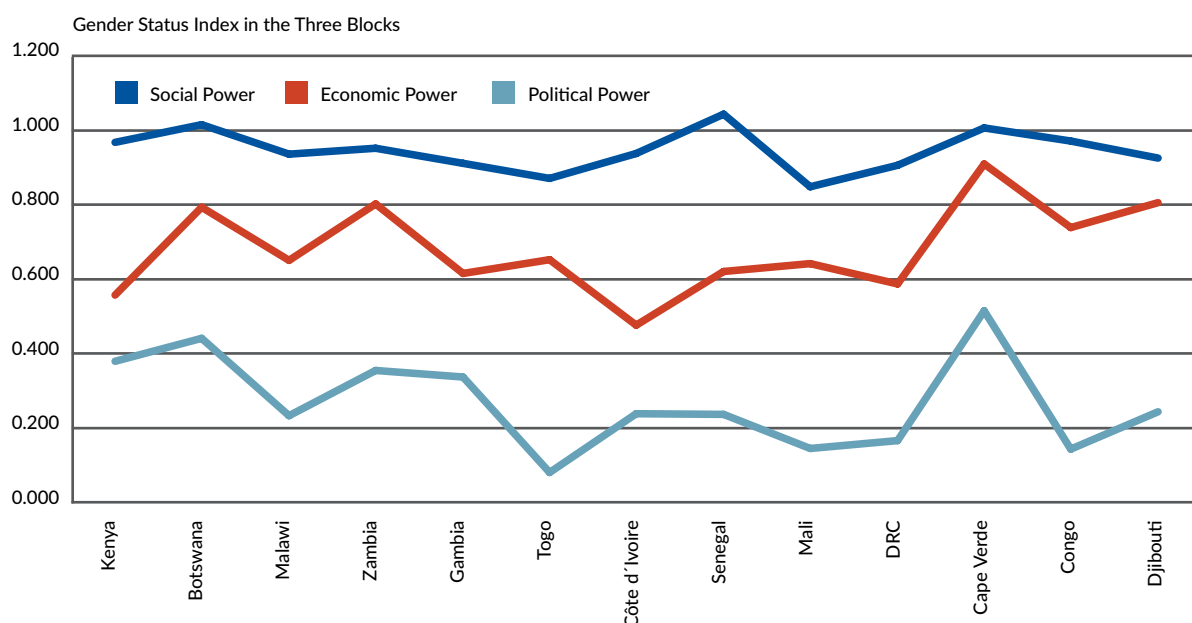
Overall, women's participation in decision making positions in the civil society is generally better than that of their status in the public sector as observed from the GSI results (figure 23). The GSI for women's participation in decision making positions in the civil society comes up to 0.28, which means it is 28 women for every 100 men, where as that of participation in public sector decision making

positions is at 0.26 (26 women for every 100 men), this is with exception of Cabo Verde which has a GSI for this component at 0.68 for public sector and 0.35 for civil society sector. There is a marked advance in leadership participation of women in civil society compared to public sector in Botswana, Kenya, Zambia, Cote d'Ivoire and Mali. In contrast, Cabo Verde and Senegal are leading this cohort in public sector participation of women as opposed to women's leadership in civil society organizations. Since more political power can be exercised in policy formulation and decision making through significant participation of women at higher positions in the public sector, countries need to work more towards bringing an increasing number of women to public sector leadership. Further examination of indicators included in each component is discussed in Figure 23.

2.3.1 The Public Sector Participation

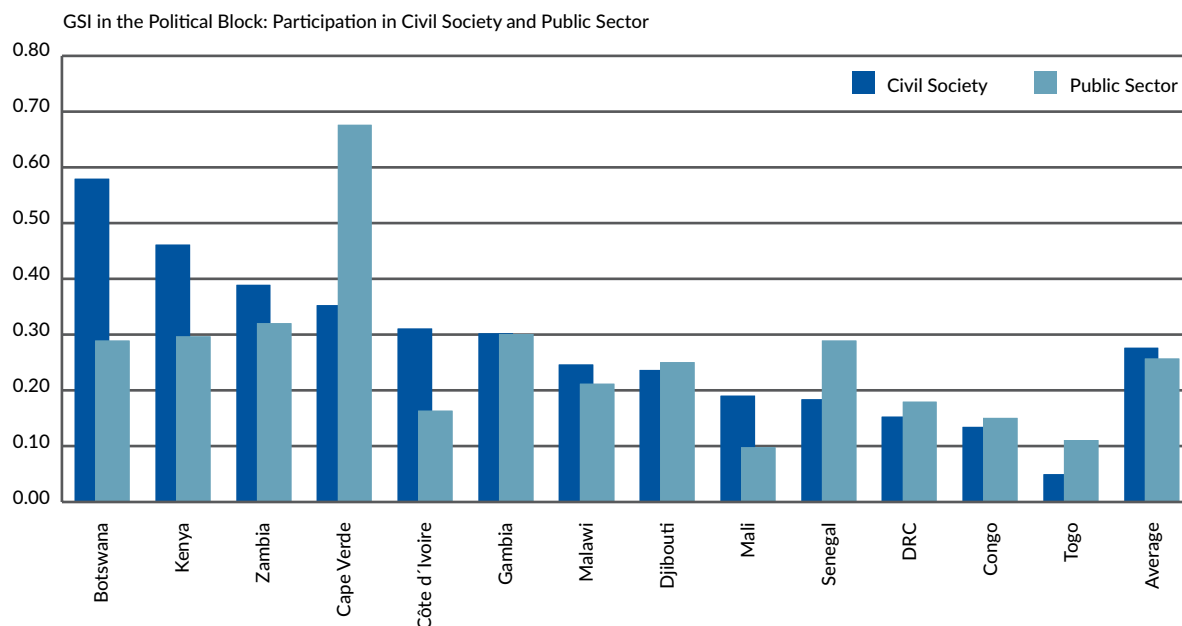
Africa has two women heads of State with Malawi joining Liberia to this historic appointment. The Gambia is the only AGDI

Figure 22 Summary of the GSI in the Three Blocks



Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

Figure 23 Participation in Civil Society and Public Sector



Source: UNECA computation from country AGDI reports, 2012.

It country with a woman deputy president. Women's participation in politics and decision making is measured among others, by their share of parliamentary seats, cabinet positions, local council or municipal council and management positions and professional and technical jobs. However, emphasis on representation in parliaments is premised on the fact that it is in these domains where key decisions on allocation of resources, and strategies and directions for development are made. Women's entry into these areas would therefore demonstrate the existence of equity and justice in the country, while at the same time allowing diversity of voices which will in turn enrich the legislative process as women would bring into the space their lived experiences and perspectives. Women's absence in this space therefore suggests that they have not yet been able to contribute to key decision-making mechanisms and processes that have a direct bearing on their lives and that of their children. The Gender Status Index result for women's participation

in the public sector that comprises of nine indicators is summarized in Table 13.

The GSI values are observed to be much less than 1.00, indicating that parity for women and men in the public sector senior positions is still a long way to go. The graphical illustrations in figures 25 to 35 show the gap for each indicator as percentage of women in leadership positions.

2.3.1.1 Cabinet Participation

Gender parity has been achieved in Cabo Verde in respect of women's representation in the cabinet. The Gambia has the second highest numbers of cabinet ministers at forty percent followed by Malawi at thirty percent. Zambia has the least number of women cabinet ministers at eleven percent (figure 24). African member States need to aggressively implement the continental and sub-regional commitments to increase the numbers of women in all critical decision making bodies like the cabinet. Any slow pace

Table 13: Gender Status Index: Women's Participation in the Public Sector

| Gender Status Index | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti | Average |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Members of parliament | 0.110 | 0.070 | 0.287 | 0.130 | 0.116 | 0.110 | 0.110 | 0.293 | 0.114 | 0.100 | 0.220 | 0.094 | 0.163 | 0.147 |
| Cabinet ministers | 0.176 | 0.200 | 0.429 | 0.118 | 0.667 | 0.226 | 0.176 | 0.333 | 0.261 | 0.160 | 1.000 | 0.156 | 0.167 | 0.313 |
| Higher positions in civil service and parastatals | 0.441 | 0.720 | 0.098 | 0.439 | 0.473 | 0.064 | 0.268 | 0.123 | 0.116 | 0.200 | 0.536 | 0.136 | | 0.301 |
| Employment in the security forces | 0.133 | 0.610 | 0.250 | | 0.500 | 0.047 | 0.130 | 0.033 | 0.086 | 0.100 | | | 0.042 | 0.193 |
| Judges of higher courts | 0.433 | 0.200 | 0.160 | 1.136 | 0.714 | 0.241 | 0.280 | | 0.111 | 0.330 | 0.750 | 0.250 | 1.031 | 0.470 |
| Judges of lower courts, | 0.600 | 1.060 | 0.310 | 0.452 | 0.111 | 0.125 | 0.295 | | 0.103 | 0.430 | | | 0.281 | 0.377 |
| Judges of traditional and religious courts | | | | 0.143 | 0.000 | | | | 0.000 | 0.048 | | 0.037 | 0.000 | 0.038 |
| Members of local councils | 0.188 | 0.240 | 0.099 | 0.066 | 0.126 | 0.078 | 0.048 | 0.667 | 0.094 | 0.180 | 0.286 | 0.248 | 0.262 | 0.199 |
| Number of male/female traditional rulers | | 0.090 | 0.064 | 0.083 | 0.003 | 0.001 | 0.001 | | 0.000 | 0.067 | 1.262 | 0.135 | 0.044 | 0.159 |
| Public sector | 0.297 | 0.290 | 0.212 | 0.321 | 0.301 | 0.111 | 0.164 | 0.290 | 0.098 | 0.179 | 0.676 | 0.151 | 0.249 | 0.257 |

Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

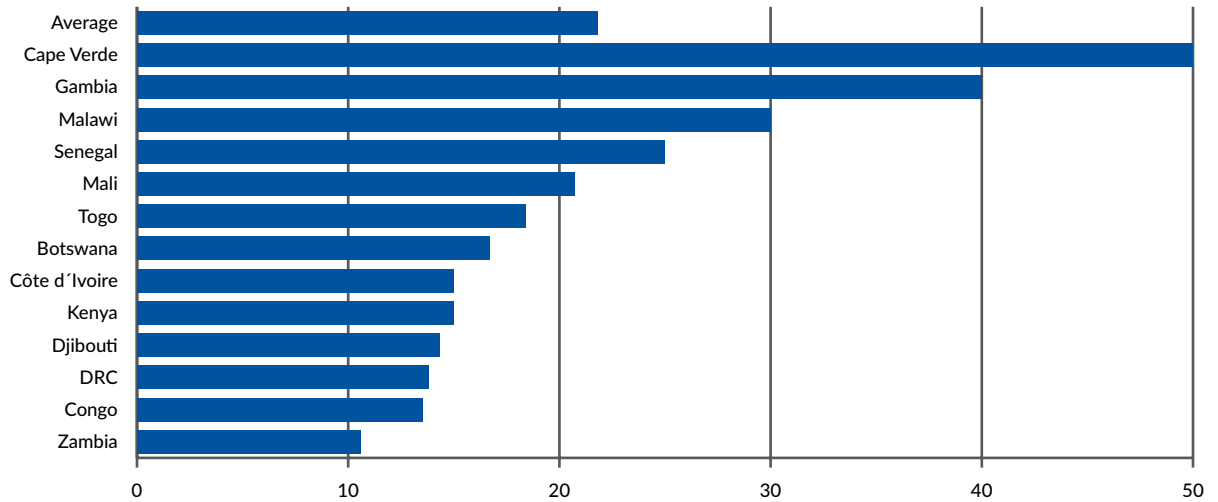
in this area would be deemed as a move away from commitment and towards elusive action.

2.3.1.2 Participation of Women in Higher Positions in Civil Service and Para Statal

The findings in the corresponding Figure 25, show that more women are being appointed to senior and managerial positions in the civil services and in para statals. Botswana has the highest number of women in senior positions at 41.9 percent followed by Cabo Verde, the Gambia, Kenya and Zambia with

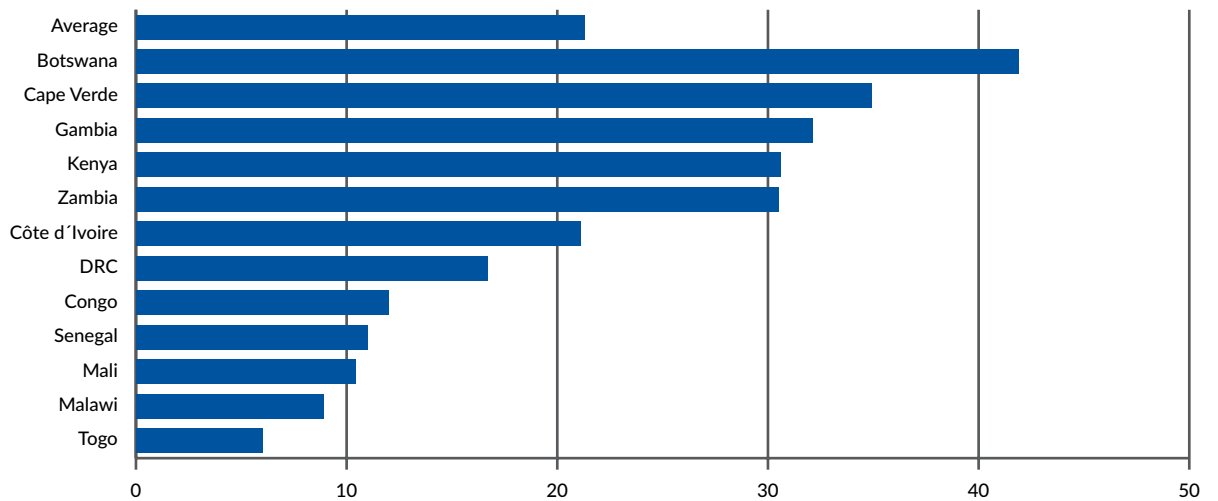
women making up more than 30 percent of decision makers in this category. The rest of the countries had percentages ranging from 6 percent in Togo to 21.1 percent in Cote d' Ivoire in this category. The figures point to a bigger picture of lower educational attainments by women, rigid patriarchical values and the slow pace of implementing the provisions of CEDAW and other regional and international instruments that promote gender equality and women's empowerment.

Figure 24 Percentage of Women Cabinet Ministers



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

Figure 25 Percentage of Women Employed in Higher Positions in Civil Service and Parastatals



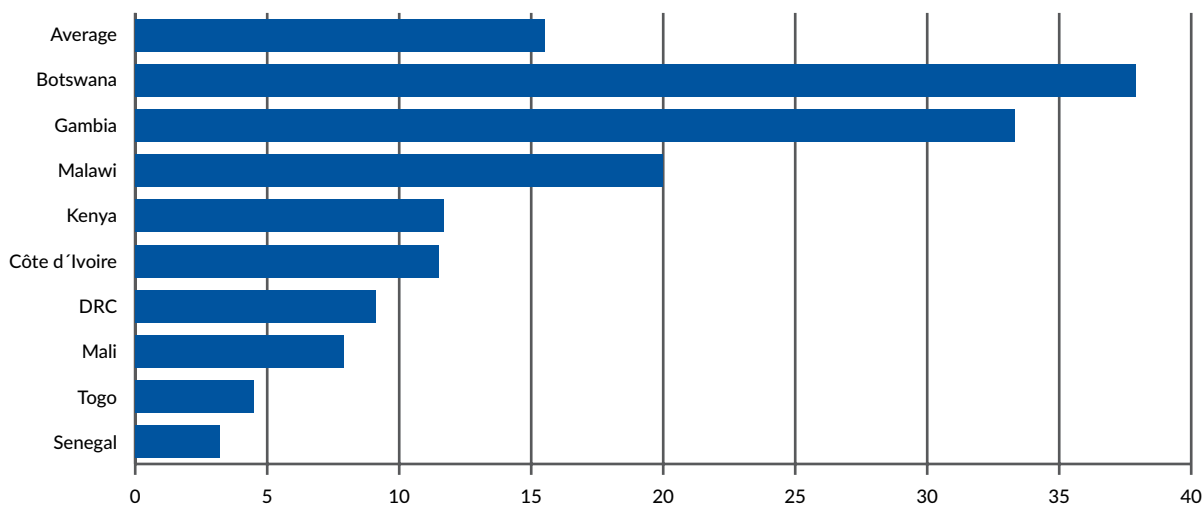
Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

2.3.1.3 Participation of Women in Security Forces

Figure 26 illustrates the participation of women in the security forces. The trend is no different from the other public sector participations where the numbers of women are low. But, in this category, Botswana has 37.9 percent women in decision making, followed by the

Gambia at 33.3 percent while the rest of the AGDI II countries have women participation ranging from 3.2 to 20 percent. There is need to transform participation of women in the security forces into one of the provisions of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) 1325 that calls for Governments to take actions to include women in all processes of

Figure 26 Percentage of Women Employed in the Security Forces



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

safety, security and peace initiatives and the starting point might be to ensure that they fully participate and get to be appointed to senior positions in the security forces.

2.3.1.4 Participation in Legislation

There is evidence to show that Africa is registering dramatic changes in women's representation in parliaments with Rwanda topping the list with 56.3 percent while a number of other African countries are among the top best performers in the world with percentages of women in decision making exceeding 40 percent (Seychelles 45.16 percent, Senegal and South Africa at 42.7 percent). Further, nine²⁷ countries in Africa have surpassed the critical mass of 30 percent representation (bench marked by the Beijing Declaration as the required minimum needed to make a difference) in parliaments mainly as a result of innovative affirmative action, quotas and progressive laws that have set clear targets to advance gender equality in governance. While the global figure of women's representation is estimated at 20.0 percent,

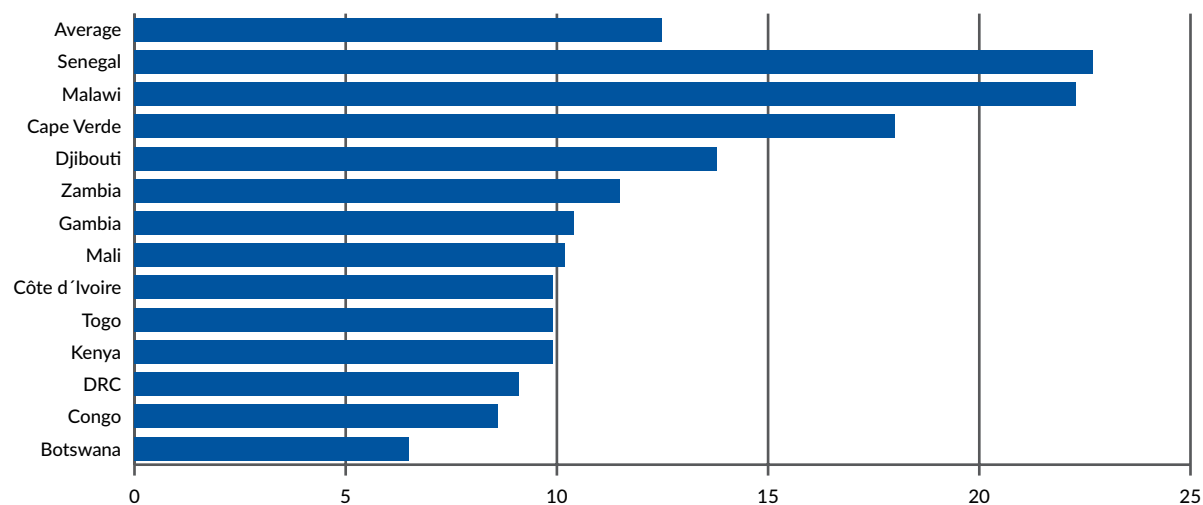
Sub-Saharan Africa stands at 19.8 percent with Southern, East and Central Africa in the top list. Notably, within these regions, performance differs with regression in percentages noted in some countries (Botswana and Zambia). It is the regression that raises serious concerns as the low figures would result in women being unable to influence decisions at critical levels. Notwithstanding, challenges remain in attaining gender equality in this area, including; lack of resources, insufficient political participation and thus experience, and lack of political connections by women to run for public office. The findings show a mixed progress among the thirteen AGDI II participating countries towards attaining the 50 percent African Union (AU) set gender parity target in politics and decision making (figure 27).

2.3.1.5 Judiciary Representation

Judiciary appointments seem to be on the increase across Africa with Zambia leading the thirteen countries with 53.2 percent, while Djibouti, Cabo Verde and the Gambia have well over 40 percent of women judges. Kenya

²⁷ Rwanda 56.3%, Seychelles 45%, Senegal 42.7%, South Africa 42.7%, Mozambique 39.2%, Tanzania 36%, Algeria 31.6% and Burundi 31%

Figure 27 Percentage of Women in National Assembly in AGDI II Countries

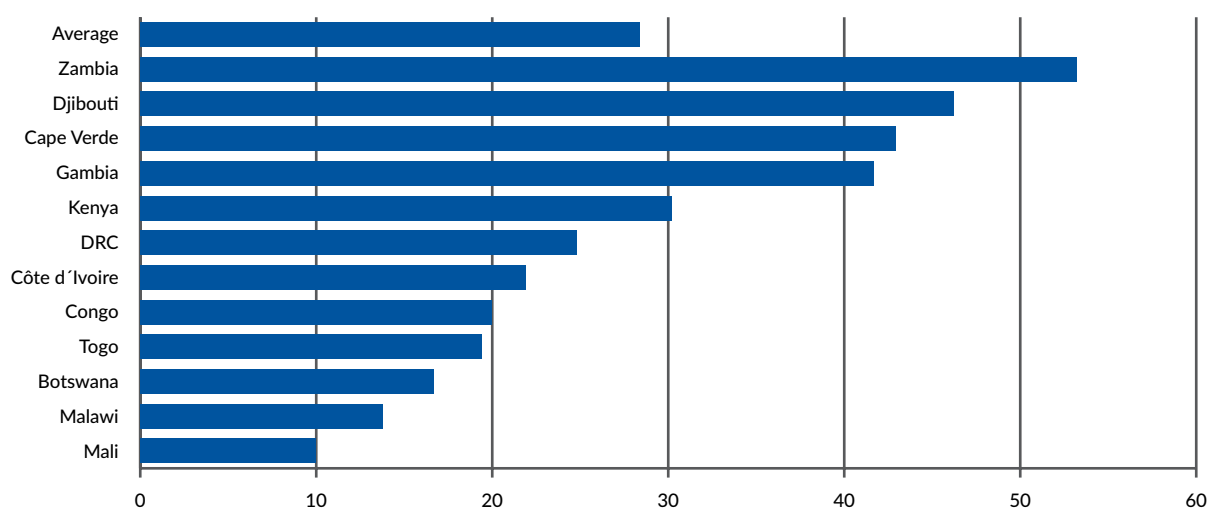


Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

has 30 percent women in the judiciary and Mali has the least number of women at 10 percent. Botswana has the highest number of women in the lower courts at 51.5 percent followed by Kenya at 37.5 percent, whereas Mali has the least numbers at 9.3 percent (figures 28 and 29). The persisting trend of low numbers of women in the judiciary may be accounted for by the low numbers of women lawyers and

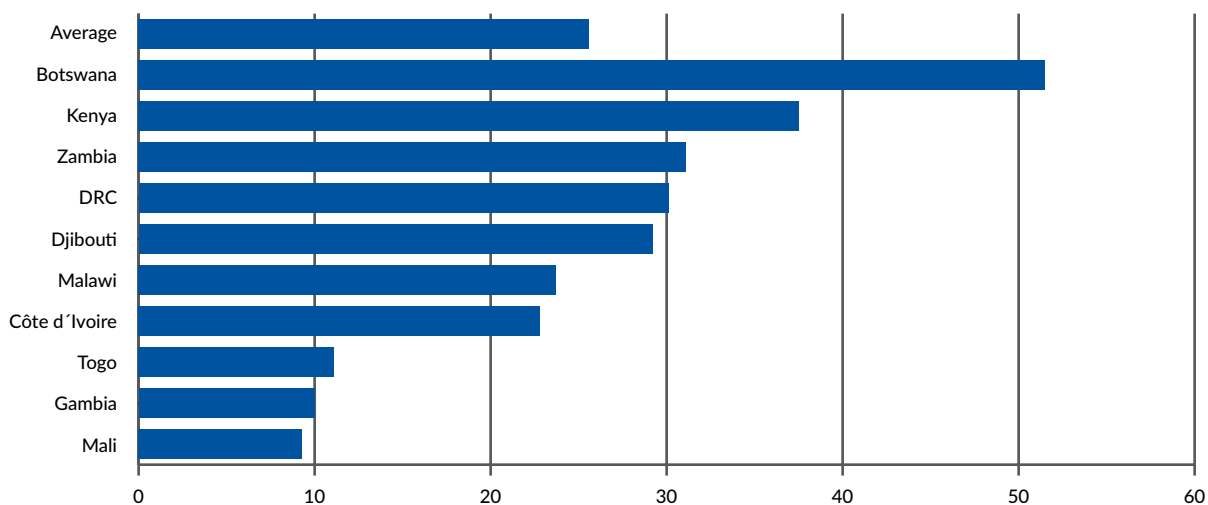
also restrictive patriarchal values that tend to influence favourable appointments of men to higher offices and posts. A mixed picture is portrayed by the AGDI participating countries regarding women's appointment as judges of higher and lower courts, as shown by the GSI indices. Another observation is that there seems to be a better representation of women judges in the higher courts compared to that of

Figure 28 Percentage of Women Judges of the Higher Courts



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

Figure 29 Percentage of Women Judges in the Lower Courts



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

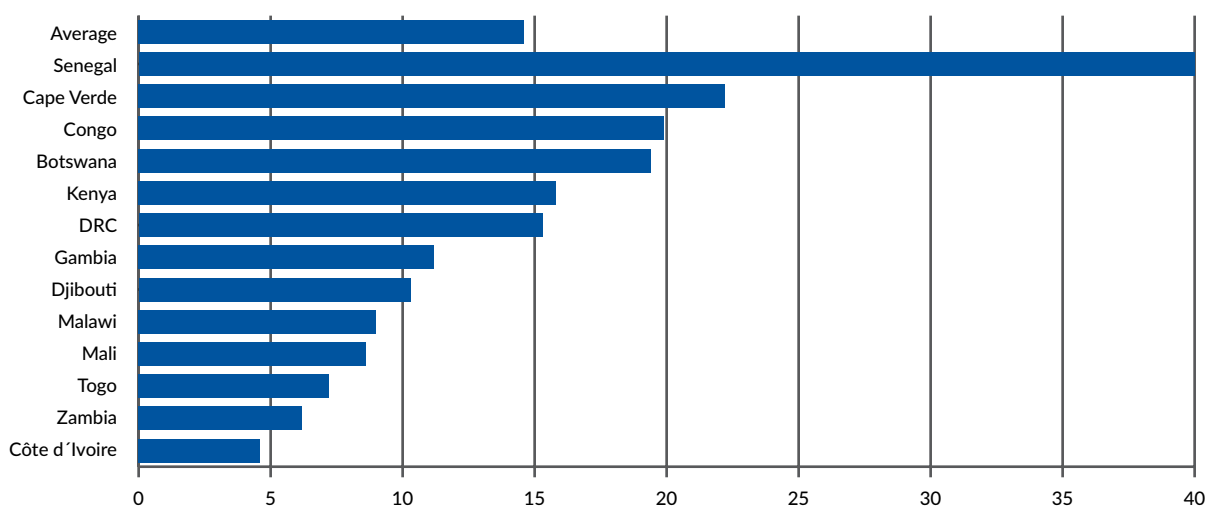
in lower courts. This could be due to a recent shift of women judges from lower to higher courts, which whilst has thus been depleting women's representation from the lower courts.

2.3.1.6 Women's Participation in Local Councils

It is expected that a fair representation of women in the local councils can foster

and strengthen women's empowerment at community level as local government is at the coalface of service delivery. This indicator therefore is important to show the extent of achievement in gender development at the community level. The GSI results as well as percentage of women in the local councils in the AGDI II countries show that with exception of Senegal which reported a

Figure 30 Percentage of Women in Local Councils



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

40 percent representation of women in local councils, for the rest of the countries, women's representation was found to be below 23 percent. Seven of the countries have scored below 12 percent representation (figure 30).

2.3.2 Civil Society Participation

To show women's participation in decision making in the civil society, four indicators were identified in the AGDI framework; namely the numbers of women who are at senior positions in the political parties, trade unions, employers' associations and as heads of NGOs were compared with those of men in similar positions. The measure of participation, GSI in each case, is the ratio of women to that of men in senior positions. Women's participation is favorable if the GSI is close to one or above. The result for the four indicators of participation in civil society is summarized in Table 14 below. Overall, the Gender Status Index values, all being much less than one, indicated that women's participation is far from parity.

2.3.2.1 Political Parties

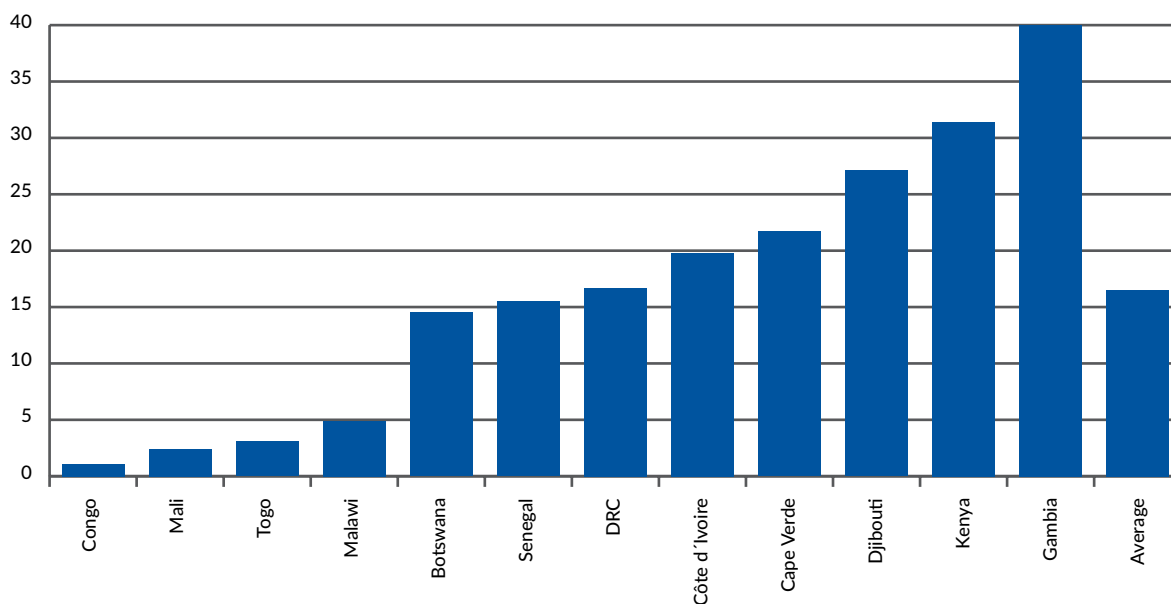
Percentage of women in senior positions in political parties is very low for most of the AGDI II participating countries (figure 31). Only 16.5 percent of senior positions were occupied by women, considering the average for all of the twelve countries for which data are available and half of the countries actually fall below this percentage. In four countries, (Congo, Mali, Togo and Malawi) women's representation at senior party positions is even below five percent. On the higher side are the Gambia (40 percent) followed by Kenya (31.4 percent). Political parties are at the heart of decisions that determine whether women would occupy influential positions, and thus it is essential that transformative strategies are specifically targeted at them in order to change this mind set and practice that would lead to the required developments. Specific advocacy programs are needed to target political party leaders to introduce and enforce affirmative action strategies and other cutting edge programmes to promote women's leadership.

Table 14: Gender Status Index: Women's Participation in Civil Society

| Gender Status Index | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti | Average |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Political parties | 0.458 | 0.170 | 0.051 | | 0.667 | 0.032 | 0.247 | 0.184 | 0.025 | 0.200 | 0.277 | 0.011 | 0.371 | 0.224 |
| Senior positions in Trade unions | 0.403 | 0.340 | 0.462 | 0.400 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.506 | | 0.427 | 0.190 | 0.250 | 0.300 | 0.333 | 0.301 |
| Employers' associations | 0.366 | | 0.222 | 0.500 | 0.500 | 0.167 | 0.091 | | 0.051 | 0.020 | 0.263 | 0.093 | 0.125 | 0.218 |
| Heads or managers of NGOs | 0.618 | 1.220 | 0.254 | 0.268 | 0.515 | | 0.400 | | 0.259 | 0.200 | 0.375 | | 0.120 | 0.423 |
| Civil society | 0.461 | 0.580 | 0.247 | 0.389 | 0.302 | 0.050 | 0.311 | 0.184 | 0.191 | 0.153 | 0.353 | 0.135 | 0.237 | 0.276 |

Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

Figure 31 Percentage of Women in Senior Positions in Political Parties



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

2.3.2.2 Trade Unions

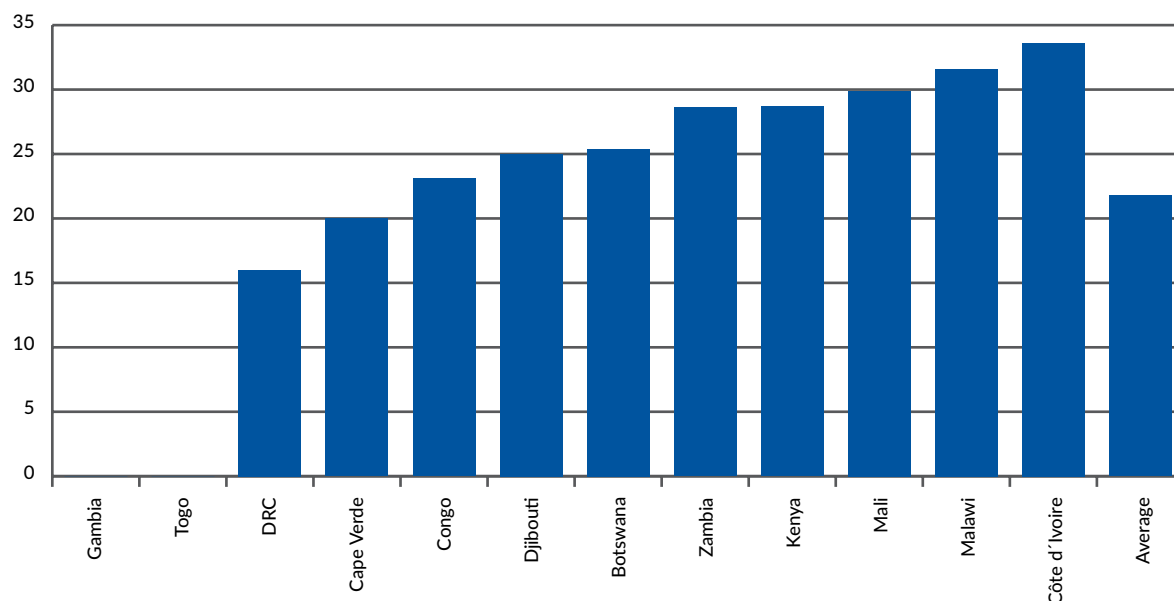
Participation of women in the leadership of trade unions was found to be more promising than it was for political parties. The low number of women in trade unions is consistent with the generally low number of women in politics and decision making arenas where their effective participation is constrained by myriad socio, cultural and economic issues which need wide advocacy and state support. As observed in Figure 32, about 22 percent of senior positions in trade unions are occupied by women in the twelve countries for which data was available. Interestingly, eight out of the twelve of the countries lie above this average and only with narrow differences among them (ranging from 23 to 34 percent), suggesting that the pattern of women's participation in trade union leadership is emerging more or less uniformly across countries. Nevertheless, the Gambia and Togo were found at the other end with no women in leadership positions in trade unions. This calls for due consideration and effort by these countries to uplift women's representation so that women's voices and concerns are heard in this sector.

2.3.2.3 Employers' Associations

Women's visibility in higher decision making positions, be it in political, economic or civil society sphere, is important not only to promote, protect and ensure women's concerns and rights but also it has added value in creating and sustaining the society's positive attitude towards women's capacity. The findings in Figure 33 depict that, participation of women in leadership positions in employers' associations is not as minimal.

For the eleven AGDI II countries where data was available, the Gambia and Zambia were in the lead with 33 percent of women represented in senior positions within the employers' associations. The Democratic Republic of Congo had the least number of women at 2 percent in decision making posts in this category. There was no data available for Botswana and Senegal. With the average percentage of 16.5 percent representation, the trend of women's agency in this category was similar to that of the other categories in the civil society (figure 33). The underlying reasons for low figures in this sector are

Figure 32 Percentage of Women in Senior Positions in Trade Unions



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

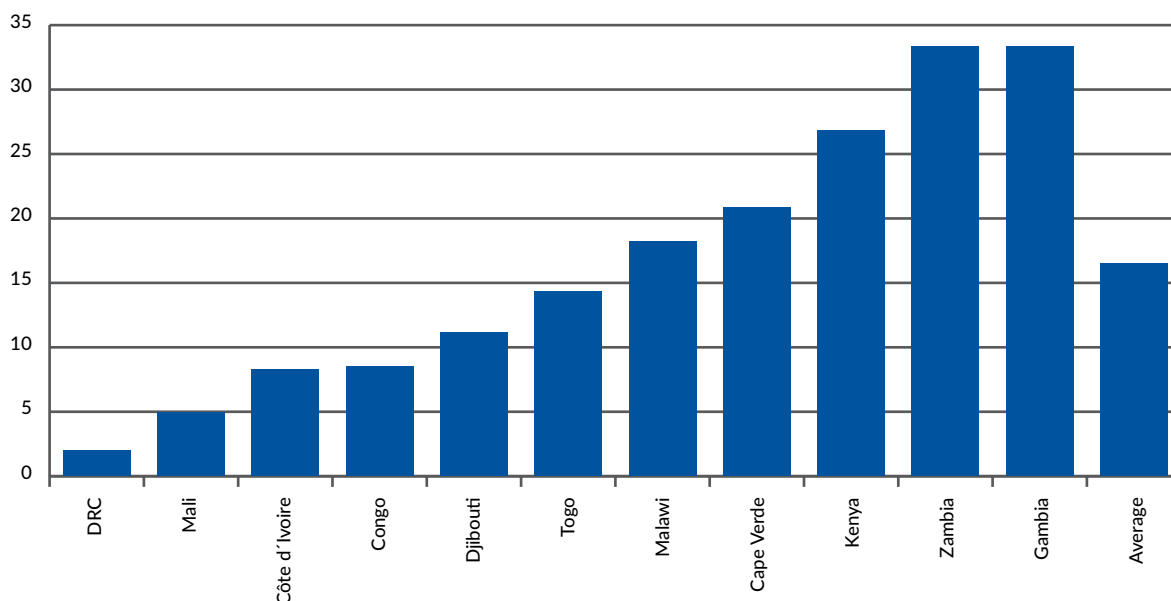
consistent with the general absence of women in decision making roles and also for insufficient numbers of women in the formal sector; a factor which has a bearing on the small numbers of women employers. Women tend to dominate in the informal sector and their entry into the formal sector is restricted by insufficient legal and policy frameworks as well as various socio-cultural and economic challenges perpetuating widening gender gaps in women's economic empowerment. More efforts including aggressive advocacy are needed to ensure inclusive governance and gender parity in this area.

2.3.2.4 Heads of Managers of NGOs and Community Based Organizations

This is the sphere where women's leadership participation was found to be most visible. Taking the average for all the countries where data was available, the percentage of women managers of NGOs was found to be 27 percent. Botswana showed the highest number of women NGO managers at 55 percent, followed by Kenya, the Gambia, Cote

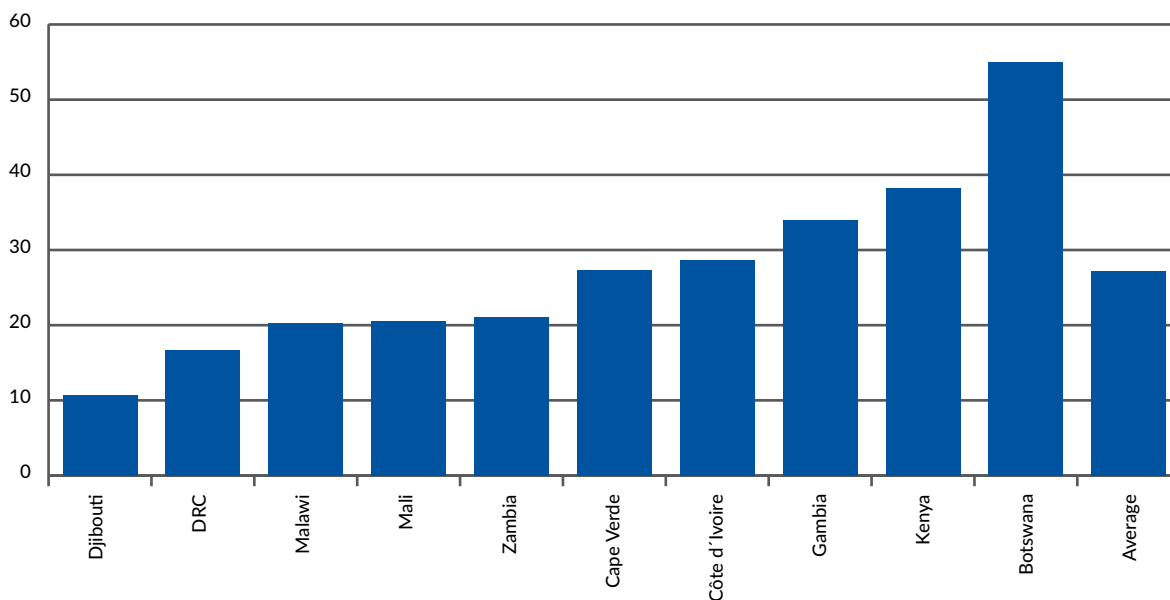
d'Ivoire and Cabo Verde. Only two countries, Djibouti and Democratic Republic of Congo, fell below 20 percent participation in having women managers of NGOs. Data was not available for Togo, Senegal and Congo (figure 34). The thirteen national AGDI reports have unearthed widening gender gaps in the public sector (the gaps are more glaring in this sector than in the civil society organizations). This, is however, not peculiar given that a significant number of civil society organizations work in the areas of social development and the care economy both of which are usually female dominated. The high numbers of women in NGO and Community Based Organization (CBO) management can be accounted by the fact that these organizations are mostly dealing with care and welfare related issues, which are sectors that have been usually dominated by women. There is thus need to target the NGOs and CBOs to balance the management arrangements in order to dispel the stereotypes of associating and entrenching care and welfare management exclusively to women.

Figure 33 Percentage of Women in Senior Positions in Employers' Associations



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

Figure 34 Percentage of Women as Heads or Managers of NGOs



Source: UNECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012.

Conclusion

The GSI on political power is the lowest of the three AGDI power blocks and rates below the

average score of all the GSI blocks at **0.44**. The underlying reasons could be related to the slow changes in the political empowerment

area in general in the continent. This score is reflective of African women's limited political power and also demonstrates the continent's under-performance in promoting women's political agency at all levels of political decision making. Notwithstanding, in the last decade some staggered progress has been registered in the representation of women in political and public life. There is however a need to work towards sustaining the momentum of women in leadership, especially in political decision making as some level of regression of gains made is also being noted. This is particularly so for Botswana and Zambia (7.9 percent and 10.8 percent respectively) where the percentages of women in parliament have been nose diving in the last decade. Four of the thirteen AGDI II (Congo Republic 7.4 percent, the Gambia 7.5 percent, Botswana 7.9 percent and Zambia 10.8 percent) are at the bottom of the rank of African member States with the least number of women in the National Assembly. Overall, there is a huge gender gap in women's political participation as registered in the GSI of the political block (the average political block GSI of the fourteen of the countries is 0.27 which means,

women's number is about a quarter of that of men on an average, in the political arena). There is a wide variation over the countries. Eight of the thirteen countries have indexes below the average showing that political participation is even lower for most of the countries. At the lower end we find Togo at 0.08 (8 women to 100 men), followed by Mali at 0.15 (15 women to 100 men). At the upper end is Cabo Verde, at 0.52 (52 women to 100 men). There is a general pattern emerging across the thirteen AGDI countries of low representation of women in the governing bodies of parastatal institutions. A similar pattern of male dominance was also found in employment in security forces, in higher and lower courts, in the executive committees of political parties and trade unions. The NGO/CBO sector Governing Boards were also male dominated, albeit to a lower degree than the public sector institutions. The executive management of NGOs and CBOs, however, shows a predominance of women which is not surprising given the voluntary nature of such organizations and their social development mandates.

Chapter Three

The African Women Progress Score Board

The African Women Progress Score Board (AWPS) addresses and measures member States' efforts on policy, planning and program implementation in accordance with global and regional commitments through the gender lens of the social, economic, political and women's rights blocks. AWPS enables member States to review and score interventions (in terms of timely delivery, quality and effectiveness of such interventions to bring positive changes to women's and girls' lives) and to empower them in the legal, policy reforms, institutional capacity, research, civil society participation as well in monitoring and evaluation. (Table 63 in Appendix VI shows the AWPS indicators). Implementation status of each of the commitments and issues listed in the vertical axis of the scoreboard is assessed against each intervention and scored as 0, 1 or 2. The scores respectively indicate no action, some or partial action or full action being taken. The sum of scores are taken horizontally and its percent distance from maximum score possible for an indicator shows the extent of government's effort with regards to pertinent interventions.

3.1 Overview of Women's Rights Situation in Africa

The women's rights block captures a review of ratification and implementation arrangements of the following international and regional instruments; CEDAW, the African Women's Rights Protocol, and Beijing Platform for Action (BfPA). The block also critically reviews measures undertaken by African member States in addressing violence against women. The women's rights block determines the rigor,

vibrancy and the extent to which member States are protecting and promoting women's rights in the continent. This report confirms consistency and a steady momentum with which African member States are acceding to the international and regional instruments that promote gender equality, women's empowerment and the human rights of women. For instance, by 2012 a total of thirty two out of fifty four African countries had ratified the protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights in Africa on the Rights of Women and the same number had submitted reports to the African Union Commission on the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa. Undoubtedly, the level of political will for transforming the gender equality and women's rights landscape in the continent is impressive but the slow pace with which the stated commitment is translated into concrete actions is a cause for concern. All the thirteen AGDI II countries have confirmed ratification of CEDAW and are at varying levels of integrating its principles into the policy, institutional, constitutional and legislative frameworks as per table 15 below. Overall, there seems to be some progress made by AGDI II countries in integrating articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW in the national laws, policies and programs. Regarding the optional protocol to CEDAW, there is a mixed picture with lack of data and insufficient efforts by member States to accede and to accelerate implementation of this instrument. For instance, eight of the thirteen (Botswana, Congo Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, the Gambia, Malawi, Cote d'Ivoire, Senegal and Mali) countries have scored favorably for ratification while the rest have scored zero or there is no data to indicate the status for ratification.

Table 15: Summary of Scores on CEDAW Implementation

(Percentage of achievements out of maximum possible score)

| CEDAW indicators | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|-------------------|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| CEDAW | 87 | 70 | 70 | 63 | 80 | 57 | 60 | 87 | 70 | 57 | 62 |
| Article 2 | 69 | 69 | 65 | 38 | 81 | 46 | 54 | 85 | 69 | 50 | 48 |
| Article 16 | 69 | 77 | 65 | 35 | 42 | 46 | 38 | 15 | 50 | 50 | 48 |
| Optional protocol | 0 | 57 | 71 | 7 | 50 | - | 14 | 14 | 64 | 50 | 62 |
| Average | 56 | 68 | 68 | 36 | 63 | 50 | 42 | 50 | 63 | 52 | 55 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

Regionally, the twelve AGDI II countries with the exception of Botswana have ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (African Women's Rights Protocol) and the same countries have submitted their reports on the implementation of the

Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA, 2004) to the African Union Commission (AUC). Both the African Women's Protocol and the SDGEA have provided for protection and promotion of the rights of women in conflict and post conflict situations.

Table 16: Summary of Scores on Implementation of International Conventions and Policy Instruments

(Percentage of achievement out of maximum possible score)

| International conventions and policy instruments of Africa | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|--|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| African Women's Right Protocol | 40 | 0 | 57 | 50 | 80 | 63 | 27 | 63 | 53 | - | 59 |
| Beijing Platform for Action | 88 | 69 | 62 | 69 | 96 | 77 | 65 | 73 | 73 | 46 | 48 |
| Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality | 50 | 0 | - | 54 | 96 | 46 | 62 | 92 | 42 | 50 | 52 |
| African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child | 83 | 83 | 73 | 3 | 73 | 80 | 90 | 47 | 80 | 53 | 62 |
| Average | 65 | 38 | 64 | 44 | 86 | 67 | 61 | 69 | 62 | 50 | 55 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

The AGDI II has confirmed an emerging and positive trend of constitutional and legislative

reforms across the continent entrenching women's rights as provided for in the different

CEDAW articles, Beijing Platform for Action as well as in the African Women's Protocol. For instance, Malawi's Constitution has explicitly protected women against violence, sexual abuse and harassment and has clearly defined the rights of women in addition to the general human rights provisions.

The overall score for the women's rights block is 60 percent. These results show an overall satisfactory average performance, especially in the areas of policy, legislation and institutional arrangements. This trend points to an evolving continental shift from low policy prioritization for gender equality mode to a more robust regulatory, policy and institutional frameworks. Despite the promising policy environment, the findings point to low scores on budget and human resource allocations, deficient civil society involvement, information dissemination, monitoring and evaluation as well as capacity enhancement arrangements. The lower scores in these areas show a clear evidence of the general deficiency in the implementation status of the international commitments under review.

3.2 Violence Against Women and Children

Violence against women (VAW) remains one of the biggest challenges facing humanity in the 21st Century. Advocacy to end violence against women has intensified at international, regional and sub-regional levels. There is general consensus on the link between ending violence against women and safe guarding the human rights of women. Despite widespread advocacy and actions by different stakeholders to end violence against women, the level and magnitude of violence against women remains high in all its different forms

which include but are not limited to physical, psychological and economic suffering endured by the victims.

There is evidence to show that approximately 6 out of 10 women have faced some form of violence at one stage or other in their lifetime²⁸ and awareness has continued to be raised on a global scale. However given its complex nature, it has proved to be a challenge to effectively combat the different forms of violence against women in Africa. The findings indicate the validity of the AGDI as a tool to monitor national efforts to end violence against women.

On an international scale, the tremendous efforts to end violence against women include the 'UNiTE to End Violence against Women' campaign²⁹. By working with broad based stakeholders including institutions, civil society organizations and governments, the UN has shown its commitment to develop programs and policy guidelines in support of member States to reverse the trend and mitigate the impact of VAW to survivors. This campaign draws its foundations from the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)³⁰ adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979. The findings show that although the AGDI II countries have committed themselves to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment, still concrete actions to root out violence against women are slow to unfold. While there is progress in some areas such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), the magnitude of the other forms of violence against women is still a major issue of concern.

Regionally, the African Union Commission has launched the African Women's Decade (AWD)³¹, a road map that has put women at the centre of development. Africa UNiTE

28 UN Women "Violence Against Women" UN Women – http://www.unifem.org/gender_issues/violence_against_women/

29 UN campaign www.endviolence.un.org

30 UN document found at – <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/cedaw.htm>

31 AU found at <http://www.africa-union.org/root/AU/Conferences/2010/april/wgd/wgd.html>

was launched in 2010 by the UN Secretary General and the African Union Commission. The campaign builds on the African Union's (AU) policy commitments on ending violence against women and girls, within the spirit of the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa and the AU Protocol on Women's Rights in Africa. The overall objective of the campaign is to address all forms of violence against women and girls in Africa through prevention, adequate response, policy development, implementation, and ending impunity for the perpetrator. With the ultimate goal of reducing the prevalence of violence against women and girls, the Africa UNiTE campaign aims to create a favorable and supportive environment for governments, in partnership with civil society experts, to be able to fulfill existing policy commitments. Within the framework of UNiTE campaign and related international instruments, the findings indicate some level of insufficient progress in addressing violence against women with Kenya and Zambia scoring 70% and above followed by the Gambia at 62% and Togo and the Democratic Republic of Congo scoring the lowest scores at 37% and 39% respectively for insufficient policy and legal framework on the same. Clearly, more needs to be done to institutionalize mechanisms to address violence against women and girls in order to entrench their human rights and safe guard their access to protection and safety.

3.2.1 Domestic Violence

Despite the efforts made by Africa as a whole, the 2011 report on Progress of World's Women by UN Women stated that only twenty- one Sub-Saharan African countries had specific laws against domestic violence as well as strategies to combat VAW. Some of these countries have established gender desks staffed by trained

women officers at police stations to attend to cases of VAW. According to UN Women, this has improved reporting of VAW. According to a WHO multi-country study, "between 15-71% of women between the ages 15 to 49 years have been reported to have experienced physical and/or sexual violence at some point in their lives from an intimate partner". The necessity to shift the focus on this growing type of violence means that more women will begin to be protected. In a study conducted by the International Rescue Committee (IRC)³², it is reported that the biggest threat of VAW is one from their own husbands rather than from strangers. The study shows that over 60 percent of survivors of VAW have reported the perpetrators as intimate partners. In Cote d'Ivoire for instance, the law does not protect women from domestic violence³³. In Zambia, the findings show that despite existence of the laws prohibiting violence against women, they still suffer at the hands of the perpetrators³⁴. A similar case subsists in Cabo Verde where domestic violence is an offence (2 to 13 years imprisonment) but cultural and social values dissuade women from reporting it³⁵.

Commitment to ending VAW by a number of countries in Africa is acknowledged, however, there needs to be more efforts on promulgation and enforcement of legislation. According to the 2008 Kenya Demographic Survey (KDS), out of the women who were surveyed, 39% of them were abused by their partners. Another survey carried out by the Federation of Women Lawyers (FWL), shows that a figure as high as 75 percent of women have been subjected to VAW. This is an example of a country that has laws against domestic violence yet perpetrators were not sufficiently deterred. The AGDI II countries

32 IRC Report 'Let me not die before my time: Domestic Violence in West Africa' found at <http://www.rescue-uk.org/domestic-violence>

33 Cote d'Ivoire: Law Offers Battered Women Little Protection found at <http://allafrica.com/stories/201207190210.html>

34 Violence against women in Africa found at <http://www.umes.edu/cms300uploadedfiles/ajcjs/vol2issue1okereke.pdf>

35 Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor 2008 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices found at <http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/2008/af/118991.html>

have not scored sufficiently in terms of putting in place policy, legal, institutional frameworks, monitoring and evaluation as well as capacity building and research mechanisms to address domestic violence. The average score attained was 58% with the Gambia and Zambia scoring the highest points at 92% and 81% respectively with Togo and the Democratic Republic of Congo requiring overhauling their policy and legal frameworks in order to effectively address domestic violence at 27%. There seems to be paucity of data in this area; a matter that requires timely intervention by member States to inform policy direction and provoke efficient response.

3.2.2 Female Genital Mutilation

Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/FGC) is a common practice that demonstrates a form of VAW and is prevalent in an estimated 28 countries of Africa with rates varying from 5% in the Democratic Republic of Congo to as high as over 90% in Djibouti and Somalia³⁶. In 1997, the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) issued a joint international statement against the practice of FGM; a statement that was re-enforced in 2008 with a greater focus on human rights, legal and policy dimensions. Over the years, noticeable progress has been made to eliminate FGM, for instance, in Burkina Faso legislation passed in the late 1990s has reduced FGM cases through higher conviction rates and by including FGM as a topic for learning in the national curriculum. Senegal has also managed to decrease the percentage of FGM from 28 percent in 2005 to 26 percent in 2011 by enacting a law to criminalize it. In Kenya, women from the Kisii, Masaai and Kuria tribes have a long tradition of performing

this ritual and the practice still remains high. However, there has been extensive awareness raising against the practice and legislation was passed making it illegal to circumcise girls under the age of 18 years. Under the Children's Act 2001, FGM is punishable by up to twelve months imprisonment and/or a fine of up to 500,000 shillings (\$600). Other countries where FGM has been banned include Djibouti, Togo and Cote d'Ivoire. Despite the encouraging continental efforts including the Maputo Protocol adopted in 2003³⁷ that recognizes FGM as a harmful practice, some challenges still remain. Legislation can only be effective where members of society are convinced that a wrong has been committed. Therefore, regarding FGM, the law has had negligible effect as the practice is still deeply rooted in traditional practices. These practices are believed to give a girl the rite of passage to womanhood and therefore it will take more than laws alone to abolish the practice altogether. Djibouti passed legislation prohibiting FGM; however, there is indication that over 70% of girls and women between the ages of 15-49 have undergone FGM³⁸.

Beliefs such as FGM being regarded as a religious requirement, one that makes women pure (e.g. in Somalia) hinders abolishment further. Efforts such as Alternative Rite of Passage (ARP)³⁹ have been introduced as deterrence from FGM, however; this cultural contextualization is far from being entirely effective in ending FGM. Many countries continue to practice FGM in a more private manner due to religious, cultural and/or traditional beliefs (figure 4); they do so to avoid prosecution and there is still no exclusive law against FGM for girls over the age of 18 in Kenya for example.

36 WHO – Sexual and Reproductive Health: Female Genital Mutilation and Other Harmful Practices

37 Details on African Union can be found at <http://www.africaunion.org/root/au/Documents/Treaties/Text/Protocol%20on%20the%20Rights%20of%20Women.pdf>

38 2008 UN Joint Statement

39 Female Genital Mutilation Practices in Kenya: The Role of Alternative Rites of Passage, A Case Study of Kisii and Kuria Districts, http://www.feedtheminds.org/downloads/FGM%20Report_March2011.pdf

The case of Cote d'Ivoire shows that one's educational status is another factor that determines FGM rates; women with no education are more likely to undergo FGM than those with primary and secondary education⁴⁰. Having some education also increased the tendency for women to oppose the practice of FGM⁴¹ – the same can be said about countries across the rest of the continent⁴². There is generally lack of sufficient political will to enforce the law as well as the challenge of lack of motivation by law enforcement agents to be seen to 'interfere' in a practice perceived to be deeply rooted in ancient traditions⁴³. Moreover, weak and/or inadequate judicial systems as well as costly legal processes add to the lack of enforcement of legislations.

3.2.3 Conflict

A number of African countries are experiencing or have just emerged out of political instability and conflicts that, in most cases, escalate or are on the brink of civil wars. While civilians tend to be the group that suffers the most, women and children also end up being disproportionately affected by these conflicts. With conflict comes displacement and lack of security; this has tended to rise with the increased number of refugee camps that have been set up to cater to Internally Displaced Person in various countries affected by conflict. Rape has been known to be used as a weapon of war^{44/45} and rape cases have shot up parallel to the heightening tensions that lead up to full blown wars. Conflict tends

to exacerbate existing violence and manifest new forms of violence against women; such is the case even after the conflict has subsided. In post conflict Cote d'Ivoire, the number of domestic violence cases rose greatly shortly after the 2010 elections^{46/47} and the same can be said for the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Mali where both countries are in a fragile state. The city of Gao in Mali "has recorded the worst cases of gang rape or rape by an individual"⁴⁸ while an estimated 12,226 women were subject to rape in the two Kivus (DRC) between January and August 2007⁴⁹. Table 17 below shows that countries are at various levels in trying to modify customary laws and put statutory laws in place to address harmful practices and violence against women. There is need for aggressive advocacy measures for the thirteen countries to put protective laws and policies that ensures safety and human rights of women and girls. In terms of the three blocks under analysis, it is evident that all forms of violence against women and girls consequently destabilize them on all three levels. According to the regional report on Violence against Women in Informal Cross Border Trade⁵⁰, women also face various types of violence; an indication that VAW does not limit itself to domestic violence, FGM and conflict. Given its manifestation in different environments, it is imperative that existent initiatives undergo vigorous monitoring in order for positive results to become more apparent.

40 UNICEF, 2005a

41 UNICEF, 2005a

42 Details of FGM and Education (Africa Department Sahel and Western Africa 1) can be found at: [http://www.intactnetwork.net/intact/cp/files/1290689250_FGM%20&%20Education-%20GTZ%20\(2009\).pdf](http://www.intactnetwork.net/intact/cp/files/1290689250_FGM%20&%20Education-%20GTZ%20(2009).pdf)

43 FGM and Legislation (Africa Department Sahel and Western Africa 1) found at [http://www.intact-network.net/intact/cp/files/1291028777_FGM%20&%20Legislations%20against%20-%20GTZ%20\(2009\).pdf](http://www.intact-network.net/intact/cp/files/1291028777_FGM%20&%20Legislations%20against%20-%20GTZ%20(2009).pdf)

44 Card, C. (1996). Rape as a Weapon of War. *Hypatia*, 11 (4): 5-18

45 OHCHR

46 UNICEF

47 Peace Women

48 UN Women – <http://www.unwomen.org/2012/11/women-of-mali-call-for-increased-protection-and-involvement-in-resolving-the-conflict/>

49 UNICEF and partners

50 VAW in informal Cross-Border Trade in Africa

Table 17: Summary of Scores: Percentage Achievements from Maximum Score Possible for Violence Against Women (VAW)

| VAW- Indicators | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|--|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| Harmful practices FGM/ Early Marriage/ Widow Inheritance | 92 | 50 | 58 | 73 | 50 | 58 | 85 | 92 | 77 | 38 | 50 |
| Review and modification of customary law | 58 | 58 | 58 | 58 | 15 | | 50 | 46 | 8 | 19 | - |
| Domestic Violence | 69 | 62 | 65 | 81 | 92 | 27 | 50 | 69 | 50 | 27 | 42 |
| Rape | 73 | 62 | 65 | 73 | 92 | 31 | 77 | 69 | 46 | 62 | 46 |
| Statutory rape/ Defilement | 73 | 62 | 73 | 77 | 92 | 46 | 69 | 69 | 46 | 54 | 54 |
| Sexual harassment | 73 | 62 | 65 | 58 | 46 | 23 | 12 | 35 | 27 | 35 | 46 |
| AVERAGE | 73 | 59 | 64 | 70 | 67 | 37 | 57 | 63 | 42 | 39 | 48 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

3.3 Overview of the Social Power Block

3.3.1 The Health Component

Under the health component, the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) measures the performance of countries against the indicators on HIV and AIDS, maternal mortality, family planning and safe abortions. Those indicators were included, with reference to the International Conference on Population and Development's (ICPD) 20 year Programme of Action (PoA) from 1994 to 2014. The ICPD Programme of Action highlights the relationship between gender inequality and poverty, poor health, poor educational attainment and sustainable economic development. It recognizes that women and young people are often less able to access their human rights and thus also less likely to gain from the benefits of economic development. Therefore, the programme has recommended that countries needed to focus on the human rights and needs of women and young people. Since the original commitment was made in Cairo in 1994, governments of member States

have re-affirmed their commitment to action on the ICPD Programme of Action every five years. African member States most recently reaffirmed their commitment during the fifteen-year regional review meeting in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in 2009.

At the ICPD+15 meeting, evidence was presented to show that insufficient progress had been made, particularly in the following areas: health and reproductive health, including maternal mortality, family planning and HIV/AIDS, gender and development, youth (education, skills development and productive employment) and that insufficient resources (human and institutional capacity, finance, with an emphasis on domestic resource mobilization) were made available to achieve the ICPD PoA's objectives by 2014. As the ICPD Beyond 2014 Review draws closer, there is growing interest to see the progress and achievements that countries have made towards the goals set out in the landmark ICPD PoA. This chapter will also make reference to the ICPD targets, in order to be able to make a better evaluation as to where countries are

on the road to achieving access to and quality in health in their respective contexts.

3.3.1.1 HIV and AIDS

Paragraph 70 of the Key Actions for the implementation of the ICPD PoA (2009), states that when addressing HIV/AIDS, young people should be given specific attention. The target set was that by 2010, at least 95 percent of young people should have access to the necessary information, education and services. This includes access to preventive methods such as female and male condoms, voluntary testing and counselling. Tables reported in Appendix 1 illustrate that countries show a generally high level of policy commitment in the prevention of the spread of this disease. However, there are more varied results in other areas, particularly with regard to monitoring and evaluation and accountability.

As alluded to in the GSI component on HIV/AIDS, there is a strong gender dimension to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. Power imbalances, harmful social gender norms, gender-based violence and marginalization clearly increase the vulnerability of both women and men to HIV infection. For instance, research from Africa and India has consistently found that women who have experienced partner violence are more likely to be infected with HIV.⁵¹ Generally, high scores are evident with regard to National HIV and AIDS policies. Countries have developed these national policies or strategic plans (e.g. Botswana, Malawi, Kenya, The Gambia), in order to ensure a comprehensive and well-coordinated response to the epidemic. There are also generally high scores with respect to civil society involvement. For instance, in Zambia, where there is no specific policy commitment, since HIV is included as part of the Gender-Based Violence Act on Wilful Infection, NGOs such as Zambia AidsLaw

Research and Advocacy Network (ZARAN) are champions in advocating for the critical need for policy legislation.

It is also clear that countries are also making progress in the dissemination of information on HIV/AIDS amongst their populations. For example, in Malawi, in terms of the knowledge gap, by 2010, 42.1 percent of women against 41.9 percent men were knowledgeable about HIV and AIDS compared to 23.6 percent and 36.3 percent for women and men respectively in 2004 (UNAIDS 2010). The increase in the level of knowledge has also translated into an increase in the uptake of Prevention of Mother To Child Transmission (PMTCT) services and an increase in number of women who go for Voluntary Counseling and Testing (VCT) services. Treatment programmes are underway in most countries. UNAIDS (2010), states that in 2009, nearly 37 percent [34–40 percent] of adults and children in sub-Saharan Africa who were medically eligible for antiretroviral therapy received it, compared to just 2 percent who received it seven years earlier. More specifically, in Botswana, where treatment coverage exceeds 90 percent, the estimated annual number of AIDS-related deaths fell from 18 000 [15 000–22 000] in 2002 to 9100 [2400–19 000] in 2009—a decrease of about 50 percent. In rural Malawi, the provision of antiretroviral therapy has been linked to a 10 percent drop in adult mortality between 2004 and 2008.⁵² Additionally, some countries, such as Cabo Verde report that the number of women with access to retroviral treatment is greater than the number of men – however, this is mainly due to treatment against vertical mother-to-child infection as part of the programme to prevent vertical transmission. There has also been growing emphasis on the benefits of multi-sectoral programmes to address HIV/AIDS. For instance, the Government of Malawi is ensuring an integrated approach

51 UNAIDS & WHO. 2010. Addressing Violence Against Women and HIV/AIDS, What Works?

52 UNAIDS. 2010. Global Report – Fact Sheet on sub-Saharan Africa. http://www.unaids.org/documents/20101123_FS_SSA_em_en.pdf [Accessed 12 November, 2012]

Box 9: HIV/AIDS Initiatives

BOTSWANA

The Prevention of Mother-to-Child-Transmission (PMTCT) of HIV and AIDS Programme was introduced in 1998 and launched in April 1999 as a pilot initiative. Currently, the PMTCT Programme is providing drugs to 73 per cent of pregnant women who are HIV positive. Through the PMTCT programme the following services are provided and are having a positive effect: counseling; testing, educating the patient on PMTCT, tracing partners, enrolling pregnant patients and monitoring them.

KENYA

The Government of Kenya has put in place a number of measures to tackle HIV/AIDS, which include the formulation of HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan to guide implementation of programmes and the setting up of multi-sector, multi-level approach coordinated by the National AIDS Control Council (NACC) and the National AIDS/STD Control Programme, (NASCOP) that extends to provincial, district, and constituency levels. AIDS Control Units in Ministries have also been established, strengthening the institutional framework (Republic of Kenya 2010 ICPD Report). There is also the development of the National home based care programme, and development of policy guidelines NGOs are mainly involved in information dissemination (NCAPD 2010).

MALAWI

Notable policies and strategic documents that have been developed by Government of Malawi to ensure an effective response to the HIV/AIDS include the following:- the Policy on Equity in Access to ART (2005), National HIV and AIDS Prevention Strategy (2009), Malawi Public Service HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy Guidelines for HIV and AIDS Workplace Programmes, Guidelines for Service Providers on Management of Sexually Transmitted Infections Using Syndromic Management Approach (2007) and the National Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Policy (2009) where Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and HIV and AIDS are considered together because of their close relationship, among others.

THE GAMBIA

Case management and awareness creation information and capacities are being developed, which is making for greater efficiency and eradication of the denial syndrome, in the nation. As a result, there is enhanced transparency among women, who are inclined to show greater gender pragmatism, despite the stubborn reluctance by men to come forward for Voluntary Counseling and Testing, nation-wide.

Source: AGDI Country Reports (2012)

by addressing HIV and AIDS and Nutrition as a package – in this vein, a Department of Nutrition and HIV and AIDS (DNHA) in the Office of the President and Cabinet, headed by the President was established. Both the DNHA and National Aids Council provide a comprehensive institutional mechanism for an effective response to tackling HIV/AIDS (Malawi Country Report, 2012).

Although African countries are showing some good initiatives in addressing HIV/AIDS (see box 9), it must be noted that, as indicated by the GSI health indicators, women and girls remain the most affected by HIV/AIDS in comparison to their male counterparts.

However, they are often still the least served, in terms of prevention and treatment, due to inadequate mainstreaming of gender into HIV/AIDS service provision. Within this group, as also shown by the GSI results, the youth and young women are particularly marginalised. For instance, in Kenya, despite the fact that the youth face several challenges with regard to the prevention of HIV/AIDS, only 7 percent of facilities in Kenya offer youth friendly HIV counseling services (NCAPD, 2010). This suggests that there is still some way to go in getting close to achieving the ICPD targets.

The brain drain in the human resources for health has also had adverse impacts on the

efficient and effective delivery of HIV and AIDS programmes. For instance, The Gambia reports that the nursing sub-sector, with its preponderance of trained women, has been hit the hardest by the brain drain to Europe and the Middle East, during the past four decades. This has been to the detriment of the demands of the Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) services, including for HIV/AIDS.

Additionally, although some countries have made steps in this area – for instance, Botswana; there needs to be further advocacy to increase the involvement of men in VTC and PTCT acceptance and practice. Moreover, the high costs of anti-retroviral drugs are still a challenge in ensuring its wide distribution and use.

3.3.1.2 Maternal Mortality

With respect to the stipulations to address maternal mortality, as laid out in the ICPD PoA Key Actions (par.64), the importance of providing obstetric care and of having skilled attendants present at birth is recognized. In countries where maternal mortality is very high, skilled attendants should assist at least 50 percent by 2010 and 60 percent by 2015. Additionally, MDG 5 stipulates that countries should reach a 75 percent reduction in the maternal mortality rates by 2015. Moreover, it is noted that not only is maternal mortality related to a shortage of trained medical professionals, but it is also related to women's lack of control over household resources, their lack of decision-making power and restrictions on their mobility.

There is a major challenge with regard to availability of data on indicators relating to maternal mortality in Africa. This is due to the fact that routine recording of deaths is not systematic within civil registration systems and consequently, the death of a woman of

reproductive age might not be recorded. Where systems or processes for the medical certification of cause of death do not exist, the attribution to pregnancy related health issues tends to be less accurate and quite problematic. The *The Millennium Development Report 2012: Assessing Progress in Africa towards the Millennium Development Goals*, states that no new comprehensive data for maternal health indicators has appeared since 2008. Without proper data, countries cannot fully know what interventions are most effective and where to concentrate financial and programme efforts.⁵³

Studies show that a 1 per cent increase in proportion of births assisted by a skilled birth attendant is associated with a 0.21 per cent decline in maternal mortality. Despite this conclusive evidence, the available data shows that, for some countries, only a small but gradually increasing proportion of babies are delivered in health facilities or with the assistance of skilled health personnel. In addition, post-natal care is extremely low in most Sub-Saharan African countries. This is combined with the fact that poverty reduces access to balanced nutrition, a factor critical to the health and survival of the child. The access to skilled birth attendants and other reproductive health services highlights the gaps between urban and rural women, and between high- and low-income women. The world's widest urban-rural gaps are in Africa (excluding North Africa) where women in urban areas are almost twice as likely as those in rural areas to deliver with a skilled health attendant, and where 80 per cent of those in the highest income quintile deliver this way against only 24 per cent for the lowest quintile (MDG Report Africa, 2012).

As the high trends of maternal mortality in Africa continue, the AWPS provides a framework for investigating country initiatives, which are aimed at achieving the MDG 5. The

53 http://new.uneca.org/Portals/mdgreports/2012/MDGReport2012_ENG.pdf

majority of countries obtain most of their scores in the areas of legal, policy, planning, target setting and the creation of institutional mechanisms. For instance, the institutional mechanisms for addressing maternal mortality in Botswana are highly rated largely because of its strong Primary Health Care System wherein the majority of the population (95 percent) lives within a radius of 8 kilometres from a health facility.

In some countries, efforts have been made to ensure the decentralization of maternal health policies and programmes right down to the district level. For instance, in Kenya, the government has developed the Annual Operational Plan 3, 2007-2008 (AOP-3) as the main instrument by which the Ministry of Health would affect the Second National Health Sector Strategic Plan, 2005-2010 (NHSSP-2). The Plan details the outputs to be realized at district, provincial and national levels and their respective resource requirements. Additionally, in Malawi, at the District level there is a Coordinator under the Reproductive Health Unit (RHU) of the Ministry of Health who monitors and reports on issues of safe motherhood.

However, it is worth noting that in a number of countries, the government does not actively involve civil society in this area of addressing maternal mortality. For instance, in Zambia, civil society action has been mostly limited to the training and use of Traditional Birth Attendants (TBA).

Amidst some progress made, the AWPS table reported in Appendix 1 highlights that inadequate health financing and the shortage of trained medical staff are major structural reasons for the existing high rates of maternal deaths in Africa. Although, the Abuja Declaration (2001) pledges to allocate

at least 15 per cent or more of annual budgets to health care, this is yet to materialize for all countries, with the exception of a few. The average government expenditure on health in Africa is approximately 9 per cent – within this, the allocation to maternal health is an even smaller percentage and thus not enough to effectively address the access, delivery and quality issues related to maternal health services.⁵⁴

Amongst the AGDI Phase II countries, there are some positive examples of financing maternal health. For instance, in 2009, Kenya made significant allocations in their budgets towards improving maternal health. The Kenyan Government allocated KSh4 billion (\$49.6 million) to improve health infrastructure and hire 4,200 additional nurses.⁵⁵

3.3.1.3 Family Planning

This component of the AWPS is concerned with ensuring that family planning and sexual reproductive health services are core components of basic health services. The ICPD PoA (paragraph 58) set the targets for family planning as being focused on closing the 'gap between contraceptive use and the proportion of individuals expressing the desire to space or limit their families' by at least 75 percent by 2010 and 100 percent by 2050. The ICPD + 15 meeting in 2009 also declared that efforts to build functional health systems for equitable, efficient and sustainable delivery of basic health services should be hastened.

Studies show that there are both demographic and socioeconomic factors, which affect the levels of family planning in Africa. The former include the woman's income level, proximity to the provider and the religious background of the woman. Whilst the latter can be related to the partner's approval, perceived quality

54 Africa Public Health Alliance (2010) 2010 Africa Health Financing Scorecard

55 Uhuru Kenyatta (2009) Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Finance Budget Statement for 2009/2010 Fiscal Year, Republic of Kenya

of the services, friendliness of the staff administering the services and the woman's knowledge about family planning services are important determining factors.⁵⁶ Beyond the micro-level, national policies, institutional frameworks, and service delivery strategies also play a key role in the success of family planning programmes.

The Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR) for married people in Africa averages 29.3 percent, but with huge disparities – amongst the AGDI countries, it ranges from 61.3 percent (Cabo Verde, 2005) to 8.2 percent (Mali, 2006).⁵⁷ However, the general trend of CPR has been a gradual increase over the last 20 years. This is partly due to interventions that targeted increased access to family planning services, improved awareness of the benefits of family planning and enabling women to space or limit births. Additionally, the changes in attitudes to family planning are noteworthy. For instance, there was much faith-based opposition to what was perceived as interference with God's gift of procreation. Attitudes have now experienced a paradigm shift to the present perspective that fertility management can be improved through better regulated child-spacing to benefit the health and development of both mother and child. Moreover, governments are increasingly recognizing the importance of involvement of husbands and fathers in family planning – in this regard, The Gambia is increasing awareness through the change in nomenclature from "Preventing Mother-to-Child-Transmission (PMTCT) of HIV/AIDS" to the more inclusive "Parent-to-Child Transmission (PTCT)" perspective.

An indicator of progress in family planning adoption is the change in the type of contraceptive methods used by family planning acceptors. The use of traditional methods tends to be higher in settings where acceptance of family planning is low and use of family planning programs is weak. Trends in contraceptive choice show that in many countries of the region, use of traditional methods has declined and the use of modern methods has increased. The use of modern methods has increased most markedly in countries that had the greatest increases in CPR (Malawi, Zambia). Kenya showed increases in use of modern methods while maintaining use of traditional methods – an indication of the former has been the development of Contraceptive Commodity Security Strategy (2007-2012), in order to ensure uninterrupted and affordable supply of contraceptives. Whereas, in West African countries such as Senegal and Togo, traditional method use has declined and relatively modest gains in modern method use were observed.⁵⁸

Despite some progress in this area, the proportion of women with an unmet need⁵⁹ for family planning has not changed, staying at around 25 per cent (UN, 2011).⁶⁰ Changes in unmet need provide an estimate of the gap between demand and utilization of family planning. This is related to a complex myriad of factors. Creanga et al. (2011), for example, found that access to contraceptives may be skewed toward higher income levels.⁶¹ Additionally, contraceptives may be available, and women may wish to space or limit births, but owing to cultural, economic or social factors, they do not use available methods of family planning. There is also the

56 Okech, C, Wawire, N and Mburu, T. 2011. Contraceptive Use among Women of Reproductive Age in Kenya's City Slums. *International Journal of Business and Social Science* Vol. 2 No. 1; January 2011

57 http://new.uneca.org/Portals/mdgreports/2012/MDGReport2012_ENG.pdf

58 http://siteresources.worldbank.org/AFRICAEXT/Resources/258643-1271798012256/YAC_chpt_25.pdf

59 Unmet need is defined as the percentage of currently married women aged 15–49 who want to stop having children or to postpone the next pregnancy for at least two years, but who are not using contraception.

60 UN (2011). The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011. New York: UN.

61 Creanga, A.A., D. Gillespie, S. Karklins and A.O. Tsui (2011). Low Use of Contraception among Poor Women in Africa: An Equity Issue. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, Vol. 89, pp. 258–266.

consideration that there may be a mismatch between the types of contraceptives desired and provided (MDG Report, 2012). Trends in modern CPR and unmet need indicate that in countries such as Kenya, Malawi, and Zambia, the decline in unmet need has corresponded with an increase in family planning suggesting a convergence of demand and supply of family planning. In contrast, in other countries, such as Mali, and Senegal, the gap has remained wide and consistent. Increases in satisfied demand for family planning correspond with a decrease in the unmet need for family planning in certain countries in the region. The percentage change in satisfied demand has increased most in countries, including Zambia, where contraception prevalence rates are increasing (Sharan et al, 2011).⁶²

The results of the AWPS analysis illustrate general high policy commitment across all countries in addition to effective planning in the area of family planning. However, for some countries, translating such commitments into action has been more difficult in comparison with others. This is related to factors, such as financial and human resource limitations. In such cases, civil society involvement has been encouraged to fill these gaps – for instance, in Zambia, the Planned Parenthood Association of Zambia (PPA) and Society for Family Health (SFH) play a key role as proponents of family planning cause, whilst other partners ensure wider coverage of different catchment areas.

There are still some areas which require further work, including breaking down the attitudinal barriers and up-take of family planning measures, conducting further research on the use, effectiveness and sustainability prospects as well as strengthening monitoring mechanisms to measure impact and learning lessons for improved performance in the future.

3.3.1.4 Safe Abortions

The ICPD PoA calls attention to the health consequences for women of unsafe abortion and recommends urgent actions to address this critical public health issue. Paragraph 7.6 of the PoA states that abortion care should be an integral part of primary health care, and Paragraph 8.25 adds that, “In circumstances where abortion is not against the law, such abortion should be safe”. However, this remains a critical challenge for African countries since abortion is still considered an illegal act, except in rare cases. For instance, in Botswana, abortion is illegal except in a few exceptions of proven rape and defilement cases, incest and medical conditions that put the mother and child at risk. Although no accurate data is available to fully understand the nature and extent of illegal abortions in Botswana, health facilities attend to a significant number of females who have possibly committed back street abortions. According to the Botswana MDG Status Report (2010), abortions are believed to be the third leading cause of maternal deaths at a significant 13 percent dying after haemorrhage (28%), hypertension (16%), sepsis (12%) and HIV related complications (10.2%).

Similarly, in Kenya, abortion is not permitted by law except in circumstances where the health of the mother is in danger. However, Zambia, Cabo Verde and the Gambia have more liberal laws on this aspect. In Zambia, safe abortions are enshrined in the reproductive health policy. However, there is a contradiction in the Zambian constitution which states that life begins at conception and thus could be used by “gatekeepers” of health services to deny the provision of such service. Cabo Verde allows pregnancy termination without restriction as to reason, but with gestational limits. The Gambia goes

62 Mona Sharan, Saifuddin Ahmed, John May, and Agnes Soucat. (2011). Family Planning Trends in Sub-Saharan Africa: Progress, Prospects, and Lessons Learned. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/AFRICAEXT/Resources/258643-1271798012256/YAC_chpt_25.pdf

one step further where the law allows for safe medical termination of pregnancies that are under three months, but has also criminalized back-street abortion.

However, there still remains a gap between policy and practice. The increased reporting and prosecution of teenage perpetrators of “baby dumping” in the peri-urban areas of the country, suggests that social taboos still prevent women from seeking abortions. This situation is also indicative that issues related to the high adolescent birth rates across Africa still remain a major cause for concern. Even in the few countries where attitudes and legal measures are slowly shifting towards facilitating safe abortions, there is still a limited focus on funding, training and institutional support. Therefore, abortion remains a controversial issue for a number of African countries and even if legalized, it is likely that only few women in these countries are able to navigate the processes required to obtain a safe, legal procedure. However, the direct costs of treating abortion complications often burden impoverished health care systems, and indirect costs also drain struggling economies.

Thus, as seen from the experiences highlighted, in order to ensure safe abortions, more action is needed than just a liberal law. Governments must be committed to ensuring that safe abortions are available within the bounds of the law, through measures such as the training and sensitization of service providers and the dissemination of guidelines, to name but a few (Guttmacher Institute, 2012).⁶³

3.3.2 The Education Component

The African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) is a qualitative measure of progress that in this component of education will assess the existence and effectiveness of policies and programmes on girls’ school drop-outs and Human Rights Education (HRE). This

is designed to give an overview of country initiatives targeting the retention of girls in school and other behaviour communication and change measures that have been instituted to combat negative stereotypes and attitudes on girl’s education.

3.3.2.1 Policies on Girl School Drop-outs

This policy analysis of the countries under study is aimed at assessing the existence and effectiveness of measures to prevent girls’ school dropout, thereby improving their future outcomes through retention. This also sheds light on the ability of the countries to safely re-integrate and protect those who have previously dropped out.

3.3.2.2 Specific Measures for School-aged Girls Affected by Pregnancy

The 1990 African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child is categorical that the State parties to the charter shall put in application appropriate measures to ensure that children who become pregnant before completing their education have an opportunity to continue with their education on the basis of their individual abilities. Only three of the thirteen countries studied have put in place specific measures to guarantee re-integration of child-mothers into the education system after pregnancy. Some best practices to be emulated include The Gambia’s Women’s Act of 2010 which allows re-admission for female drop-outs due to pregnancy while prohibiting withdrawal from school of teenagers under the statutory age of adulthood-18 years- for marriage. The ‘Re-entry’ policy for victims of teenage pregnancy is a landmark initiative by the Gambian Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MOBSE), which is likely to yield sizeable dividends in the future. The non-discrimination against girls in education is emphasized in the constitution of the Democratic Republic of Congo. As a result, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education authorized, through a circular,

⁶³ http://www.guttmacher.org/pubs/IB_AWW-Africa.pdf

the heads of education institutions to allow pregnant girls / mothers to continue their education normally. Additionally, the Congo Republic has in place a 1964 law designed to protect the girls who were once excluded from the school system due to pregnancy, though it has had little impact thus far.

Contrary to the good practices cited, Cabo Verde is urged to review its *Guidelines for better management of the issue of pregnancy in schools* (2001) which "advised the students to stop attending school in case of pregnancy." The reason for the implementation of this decree is that "the pregnancy of female students has created constraints in the operation of the schools, as these do not have the conditions (neither in terms of physical infrastructure and equipment, nor in terms of psychological or other support / counseling) and, moreover, many teachers are not prepared to deal with this situation".

3.3.2.3 Prevention and Protection of Girl School Dropouts

Policies and programmes to prevent and protect girl school dropouts have been put in place by twelve of the thirteen countries studied. In order to boost the retention of girls in school in Togo, schooling is compulsory until the age of 15 years with the abolishment of school fees in pre-school and public primary education. Djibouti and the Congo Republic on the other hand have compulsory basic education from the age of 6 to 16 years. Senegal has the SCOFI (la Scolarisation des Filles) programme which has implemented several strategies for the retention of girls in school such as the joint project with Plan-Senegal to support 1000 girls aged between 10 and 16 years in 10 villages of WackNgouna district. It is aimed at paying school fees for girls in scientific disciplines, their medical fees as well as the construction of school infrastructure. The creation in 1993 of a cell responsible for the education of girls in Mali has boosted the completion rates for girls from previous years. This has been

complemented by encouragement awards and scholarships for child- mothers. The Democratic Republic of Congo has a raft of measures aimed at retaining girls in school, notably; measures on elimination of barriers to education access for girls and boys; measures to strengthen the presence and retention of girls and women in higher education (science, mathematics and technology); measures to bridge the gap between men and women's basic functional literacy and measures to remove barriers to the enrolment of pregnant teenagers as mentioned previously. A Strategic Plan for the education of girls in Côte d'Ivoire was approved in September 2006. This also complemented the provision of school meals since 1997, which not only ensures food security but also promotes the education of girls. Several measures have been put in place in Malawi to ensure the retention of girls in school such as the introduction of free primary education (FPE) in 1994; introduction of school feeding programme in primary schools; a two-year cash transfer programme targeting girls aged 13 to 22 with small stipends paid directly to young girls to encourage their school attendance and prevent them from dropping out; bursaries for girls to continue with their education especially at secondary school level. The existence of a gender policy in education to provide a framework for planning and implementing gender responsive education sector programmes; the establishment of the National Taskforce for Gender and Education; the establishment of ministerial taskforce on girls' education and the establishment of gender desk within the ministry of education are indicators of institutional framework for implementing policies to protect and prevent female dropouts in Kenya. The Girl's Scholarship Trust Fund in the Gambia, caters for school fees, books and exam fees for girls in Regions 2 to 6 and continues to run successfully with over 25 percent increases, annually. In the 2007/2008 academic year, 14,246 girls were sponsored and a total of 10,761,333 Dalasis was disbursed.

3.3.2.4 Human Rights Education

Box 10: The UN declaration on human rights education and training

This declaration asserts that everyone has the right to know, seek and receive information about their human rights and fundamental freedoms. It is a call to the United Nations, governments, non-governmental organizations and other bodies to intensify their efforts to promote the universal respect and understanding of HRET.

Source: UN General Assembly, 2011.

The United Nations Declaration on human rights education and training defines Human Rights Education and Training (HRET) as comprising “all education, training, information, awareness-raising and learning activities aimed at promoting universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms.” It also states that HRET encompasses: education **about** human rights; education **through** human rights and education **for** human rights.

In contrast to policies and programmes aimed at retaining girls in school, human rights education and training has received negligible attention with only five countries under the current study demonstrating some elements of HRET. Human/women’s rights education is integrated into the Primary and Secondary education curriculum in subjects such as Social Studies, Cultural Studies, Moral and Religious education, Languages as well as Guidance and Counselling in Botswana. Additionally, it has as a key target to be achieved by 2016, “strengthened capacity to develop and deliver human rights education” and intends to “lobby and advocate for policy review and curriculum development at schools (primary and secondary) which covers human rights education for teachers.” Another stated target is to have “sensitized and capacitated education stakeholders on human rights education.” The programs for Personal and Social Development at the University of

Cabo Verde and the Pedagogical Institute for teacher training includes a module on Gender Relations. The Directorate General of adult education and literacy has implemented a nationwide radio course on family relations from a gender perspective.

Box 11: Human Rights Education and Training in the Gambia

The TOSTAN Community Led Development Project for 2006-2011 is being implemented by the Women’s Bureau with funding from UNICEF. It is designed to equip primarily women and adolescents with knowledge related to human rights awareness and ways of asserting those entitlements. The expected outcomes of the Project include increased knowledge and application of human rights and responsibilities and the abandonment of harmful traditional practices, such as FGM/C and child marriage.

Source: The Gambia 2012 AGDI report.

The Child Protection Alliance in the Gambia also engages in information and training of children and adolescents on issues that reflect human rights ethics, the obligations of the State, adults and themselves. Additionally, the Centre for Democracy and Human Rights Studies provides funding to assist key women’s stakeholder institutions and mounts its own periodic seminars, media publicity programmes and studies for women and sensitization of the general public. In Malawi, civic education on human rights in education is carried out by talking to parents and learners on the importance of education. Mother Groups are made up of women from schools’ local communities – the mothers and grandmothers of the learners. Their role is to advocate for girls’ education in the community and support girls. The introduction of education, culture of peace, human rights and democracy programs in primary and secondary education in Mali as well as the creation of the UNESCO Chair for the promotion of a culture of peace and human

Table 18: Percentage Scores achieved from Maximum Score Possible – Education

| Commitment to girls education | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|---|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| Policies to prevent and protect female dropouts | 88 | 88 | 58 | 58 | 65 | 58 | 69 | 100 | 58 | 54 | 73 |
| Education on human/women's rights | 81 | 46 | 54 | 54 | 96 | 62 | 58 | 85 | 50 | 46 | 0 |
| Education average | 85 | 67 | 56 | 56 | 81 | 60 | 64 | 92 | 54 | 50 | 37 |

Source: UNECA computations based on country reports, 2012.

rights in 2006 at the University of Bamako has given impetus to human rights education and training. Senegal's National Consultative Commission of Human Rights (CNC DH) has developed a *Guide to education rights* for teachers of primary and secondary education levels, to support all teachers in primary and secondary school levels in francophone countries in their interventions to promote the culture of human rights in schools.

3.4 The Economic Power Block

The Economic Block of the Women's Progress Scoreboard highlights commitments made under the International Labour Organization's protocols that countries have ratified, as well as the integration of gender in the national poverty reduction strategies. It also measures progress achieved on issues of sustainable development, i.e. access to new technologies and agricultural extension services, and women's access to land.

3.4.1 ILO Conventions (100, 111, 183)

Three important ILO Conventions are considered in the Economic Block of the AWPS. The ILO Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration (1951) stipulates the principal of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value. Convention 111 (1951) promotes equal opportunity and treatment with a view to eliminate

discrimination based on race, religion, colour, sex, and political opinion. Convention 183 (2000) focuses on Maternal Protection at the workplace and seeks to promote equality for all women in the workplace and the health and safety of the mother and child. It applies to all women including those in atypical forms of independent work such as part-time and seasonal work. It states that women are entitled to a maternity leave not less than 14 weeks including 6 weeks of compulsory leave after childbirth.

While virtually all countries have ratified these three international conventions (with the exception of a few countries which have not yet ratified Convention 183), the lack of financial and human resources hampers the effective reporting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of countries' commitments. In Malawi, beyond the ratification of the three conventions, there is an Employment Act to ensure equity and non-discrimination against any employee on the basis of sex, race, colour, disability, marital or other status, family responsibility etc. In Kenya, a number of legislative measures have been implemented for protecting employment security of pregnant mothers. An Employment Act endorsed in 2007 also provides legal prohibition of discrimination in employment and requires that all men and women performing work of equal value shall be paid equal remuneration.

3.4.2 Engendering the National Poverty Reduction Strategies (NPRS)

The AWPS recognizes the critical importance of integrating a gender dimension in the National Poverty Reduction Strategies (NPRS). However, in most countries under analysis, gender only appears as a cross-cutting issue of the national development strategies, and is not systematically integrated in the development phase and areas of concern of the NPRS. Kenya represents perhaps an exception, as its Vision 2030 has included gender as a priority area and contains specific provisions for women's empowerment. The First Medium Term Plan 2008-2012 has also recognized the need to introduce gender indicators in the macroeconomic framework. However, it has been observed that mainstreaming gender in these development blueprints face challenges. While there were efforts to mainstream gender in the Economic Recovery Strategy, constraints in realizing this goal exist in the form of lack of gender-disaggregated analysis. The gender specific targets for defining improvements in the economic, social and legal situation are still lacking, while the macroeconomic framework that forms the core of the Economic Recovery Strategy is still analyzed in gender-neutral terms (IMF, 2005). However, the institutional framework and monitoring for the Vision 2030 medium term plan (MTP) has selected indicators for flagship projects, 30 of which are for gender monitoring (IMF 2012).

In Agriculture, the National Agricultural Sector Extension Policy (NASEP) has among its objectives the mainstreaming of gender issues in schools and training institutions curricula, and the Ministry of Agriculture has developed a mainstreaming strategy for the sector. The same Ministry has conducted studies to identify gender imbalances in agricultural extension. Institutionally, the Ministry of Agriculture has a Gender Section in Extension Services Division to spearhead gender mainstreaming in the ministry's

policies. As a result of this strategy, there has been staff capacity building by the Gender Office, and training of staff at Masters' level in gender and agriculture (Republic of Kenya).

In Malawi, as in the majority of countries, in both MGDS I and II gender is considered as a cross-cutting issue affecting all sectors of development, and making it a fundamental area for the effective realization of all development goals. It is also worth noting that Malawi has used the results from the AGDI to integrate gender into its National Poverty Reduction Strategy (NPRS). Notwithstanding, several challenges have compromised the intended objective of engendering the NPRS. Firstly, there is still wide acceptance that most sector plans are not clear on strategies to address gender disparities, although this is recognized as being critical. Secondly, there is lack of gender disaggregated data, poor commitment to resource allocation towards gender mainstreaming as well as weak institutional capacity to analyze and systematically mainstream gender in all sectors (Malawi Government, 2011).

The analysis in Cabo Verde has revealed that in terms of political commitment, plans and institutional implementation mechanisms, the involvement of civil society in the economic promotion of women and the dissemination of information about economic opportunities is considered to have an average performance. More so, with regard to reporting, resource allocation, and monitoring and evaluation, the situation is considered extremely precarious. In fact, a closer data analysis suggests a dissonance between the legal measures, which the institutions involved in the study considered excellent, and the implementation of policies to promote women's economic independence.

In most countries, the institutional mechanism for policies on gender mainstreaming and affirmative action is provided by the Ministry

of Gender (or otherwise called) Ministry of Women's Affairs, which is the national machinery to drive gender mainstreaming and promote the implementation of international agreements that address gender equality. In Kenya, the Department of Gender and Social Development has been strengthened through the recruitment of professional staff that has been deployed throughout the districts to spearhead and coordinate gender equality work. The National Gender and Equality Commission has been established with the role of effectively monitoring gender equality initiatives across the country. Gender Desks/Focal Points in Government Ministries and State Corporations have been created to spearhead gender mainstreaming in their sectors at all levels.

Political and public action for women in Kenya is guaranteed by the Constitution, which has entrenched affirmative action in a number of provisions intended to benefit different marginalized groups, including women. The Government has committed itself to develop and implement a national affirmative action policy to legitimize actions, to ensure that women have at least 30 per cent representation in recruitment, promotion and appointment at all decision-making levels, with a Draft National Affirmative Action Policy (2012) already in place.

In terms of research, continuous gender research has been carried out in collaboration with Kenya National Bureau of Statistics to produce sex-disaggregated data to highlight gender disparities and concerns and to inform policy development. The Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development in 2012 conducted assessment of various government ministries and departments to determine if gender has been mainstreamed, the situation of women's participation in various sectors as well as their current level of participation.

Yet, these set of measures and commendable efforts made by the Kenyan government to

promote gender equality across all sectors do not seem to match the results found in their GSI. This no doubt shed light on the large gap existing in many countries between political will and political action, as well as on the lack of timely monitoring and evaluation frameworks to assess real progress towards gender equality.

3.4.3 Access to Agricultural Extension Services

This indicator measures the extent to which women have equal access to and control over Agricultural Extension Services. These services have become widespread in many developing countries in recent years, as a way to enhance research, education and know-how on agricultural practices through communication and learning activities. However, low literacy rates and marital/family constraints constitute a serious hindrance for women's empowerment in this area, as husbands too often refuse to let their wives have access to agricultural extension services.

As mentioned earlier, women are the backbone of agricultural production the world over. A recent study conducted by FAO shows that women provide almost 50 per cent of the agricultural labour force in Sub-Saharan Africa, i.e. the highest participation rates in the world (FAO, 2011). So their access to agricultural extension is crucial to enhance productivity and food security, particularly in regions where the majority of women are subsistence farmers. Yet, many studies indicate that women have a limited access to agricultural assets such as land, credit, extension services and training.

Results from Malawi indicate that still fewer women (14 percent) than men (18 percent) have access to extension services. To enhance the access and the know-how of women in the agricultural sector, an Agriculture Sector Wide Approach (ASWAp) has been developed in Malawi as a medium term investment

framework to enhance growth in the sector. The ASWAp recognizes the importance of mainstreaming gender as a cross-cutting issue. Although the sector does not have consolidated targets, the annual work plans and budgets for the various sub-sectors indicate targets to be achieved within a year. Work is underway to have sector-wide targets.

Further, the agriculture sector in Malawi has got officers deployed at national, regional, district, and community levels for the delivery of agricultural extension services. Most of these officers, including senior managers, have been trained to enhance their capacity in mainstreaming gender in the different sectoral programmes, projects and activities. All the 1,200 extension workers in the Ministry are trained in gender to ensure that all programmes that are being delivered to farmers are gender-sensitive and women farmers are deliberately targeted.

3.4.4 Access to Technology

This indicator measures the extent to which African countries have adopted policies that promote women's access to technology. As agricultural techniques become increasingly mechanized and innovative, access to technology today is essential as it allows to dramatically reduce labour costs and time, thereby increasing agricultural productivity—so much so for women, who largely dominate the agricultural sector. In many countries however, particularly in rural areas, women's access to technology is still meager, since it is determined by their levels of basic literacy in English (the language of science and technology) and in science education.

Across all countries, only four have scores above average, i.e. Botswana, Mali, Malawi and Congo (Figure 31, Appendix 2). In most of the countries, women cannot read instruction manuals and brochures, which provide guidelines for operating technological appliances and equipment. Consequently,

they are either constrained to depend on their sons or other men folk for assistance to operate technological equipment, or they shy away from the use of them, completely. The lack of financial resources by women, especially in the rural areas, renders them unable to procure labour-saving livelihoods resources, such as tractors, milling machines and water pumps for irrigation or supply of potable water for domestic use. Also, lack of energy access prevents the use of motorized equipment, intensifying the length and load of activities. Working under these conditions reduces their resting time, and hampers considerably their health status, leading to weaker production and increasing morbidity and mortality rates, bearing significant costs for the country as a whole.

While many countries still do not have specific policies dealing with gender mainstreaming in science and technology, there are efforts to improve access to technology by women. In Kenya, the Gender Policy in Education (2007) has among its objectives, the promotion of gender balance in access to ICT training and education. Similarly, the National Science, Technology and Innovation Policy and Strategy (2008) aims at promoting progressive gender parity in national ST&I initiatives, and developing and mainstreaming a policy framework to entrench and address gender parity in the ST&I sector.

Also, in the Gambia, there is a perceptible trend of a growing number of males in rural households who can afford transistor radios and mobile phones from which women can benefit, to receive personal and development-oriented messages and publicity. The value of the 'community radio' infrastructure that is being provided currently by government departments and NGOs is critical in bridging one aspect of the existing technology gaps. Further, the provision of ambulances at major health facilities by the Ministry of Health is addressing an area of essential

needs by pregnant and lactating mothers and their under-five infants. Some remedial interventions, though rather perfunctory, have been offered to address the RCH needs (haemoglobin storage, etc.) of women, by the provision of solar energy at Health Centers, up and down the country side.

3.4.5 Access to Land

The Beijing Platform for Action and CEDAW place special emphasis for women to have equal access to land resources. Under this component of the AWPS, countries performance is measured against the extent to which women have equal access to and control of land. Much of the land use practices involving rural women in many parts of Africa is based on 'usufruct', that is, land 'holding' as determined by usage on behalf of the family, not land 'owning' as a personal citizenship-endowed right. This inability to own fertile and sizeable land for extensive, commercial cultivation of subsistence crops by rural women has condemned them to continue to be citizens with a 'landless' and by extension, an economically 'limited' identity. Apart from the economic possibilities that land ownership would confer on women farmers, land could resonate into political power and a voice to be reckoned with, when citizenship rights are contested. Witness the fact that, in some countries like the Gambia, if they are not rate payers for land (as they are not land owners) the Local Government Act (2002) does not allow women to qualify to sit in Area Councils. In Senegal, despite existing national legislation on equal access to land, men refuse to give away land to women. Customary laws continue to prevail over national laws, particularly as regards to inheritance and land's rights in rural areas.

As highlighted above, access to land is critical for women's economic empowerment and sustainable development, particularly in rural Africa. Despite recent efforts made by some countries to reform their system of inheritance and land's rights, overall performance in this

regard is still poor. A number of challenges continue to hinder women's effective access to land in many countries. Among them, there are no doubt the weight of traditions, the low literacy rates and women's economic dependence, the burden of domestic work, the lack of financial and material resources, the lack of knowledge and fear to claim their rights, and so forth. In this regard, there is therefore critical need for all countries to step up efforts and reform customary laws that profoundly discriminate between men and women in the access to land.

Overall, there has been some progress across all countries to improve women's economic empowerment and access to economic opportunities. Yet, gender gaps persist in many regions, and international instruments are not effectively followed up with the required national legislations. For instance, although many countries have adopted minimum wage policies, very few have explicit policies designed to counter female wage discrimination. This needs to change if countries are to fully attain their goals of achieving gender equality and women's economic empowerment.

Some countries have taken important steps towards bridging gender imbalances, particularly in the legislative reforms that seek to improve the status of women and promote gender equality. Socio-economic policies and programmes in many countries increasingly integrate gender perspectives. Yet, some countries of Western Africa still display a poor performance, particularly in the access to land and management, hindered by rooted traditions and cultural norms.

3.5 Overview of Political Power Block

This section on political power of the AWPS reviews and scores the African member

Table 19: AWPS: Economic Power – Percentage Scores Achieved from Maximum Score

| Economic Power | | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|--|---|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| ILO Conventions | Convention 100 | 30 | 83 | 63 | 53 | 73 | 50 | 43 | 47 | 73 | 50 | 60 |
| | Convention 111 | 27 | 77 | 63 | 57 | 73 | 43 | 43 | 47 | 73 | 50 | 60 |
| | Convention 183 | 27 | 60 | 60 | 0 | 50 | 20 | 50 | 47 | 93 | 50 | |
| Sustainable Development (Article 19 of the African Women's Protocol) | Engendering NPRS | 79 | 79 | 63 | 71 | 50 | 42 | 96 | 50 | 79 | 46 | 71 |
| | Access to agricultural extension services | 29 | 83 | 79 | 67 | 50 | 54 | 50 | 79 | 63 | 17 | 63 |
| | Access to technology | 17 | 83 | 71 | 50 | 38 | 13 | | 21 | 79 | 21 | 63 |
| Access to land | | 46 | 65 | 62 | 42 | 42 | 31 | 62 | 19 | 54 | 12 | 62 |
| Economic power | | 36 | 76 | 66 | 49 | 54 | 36 | 57 | 44 | 74 | 35 | 63 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

States on their policy readiness, efficiency, effectiveness and their progress in the implementation of the UN Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Women, Peace and Security. These UNSC resolutions underline the importance of member States creating an enabling environment for women to be fully involved and have decision-making powers in the negotiations of peace building and conflict resolutions. The UNSC resolutions also underscore the importance of engendering rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes in post-conflict situations, by ensuring women's full and equal access, participation and decision-making over these initiatives. Member States are required under UNSC resolutions to develop comprehensive action plans that spell out concrete actions on the implementation of the UN Security Council Resolution 1325. These action plans serve as effective implementation tools and a monitoring and evaluation instrument that oversees achievements, progress and persisting challenges. The UNSC resolutions also guide formulation of policies and strategic

actions that promote and protect the rights of women in conflict and post-conflict situations.

The political power block also reviews achievements made with regard to providing support towards women's quota and affirmative action, women's participation in traditional governance decision-making positions, and gender mainstreaming and support to women's quotas and affirmative action. The equal and effective participation of women in public decision making is affirmed under all major international and regional legal and policy institutions including the CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action, the Africa Women's Protocol and the Solemn Declaration on Gender and Development.

3.5.1 Implementation of Women in Peace and Security Resolutions

Security Council Resolution 1325 is the first resolution on women, peace and security; it was unanimously adopted by United Nations Security Council on 31 October 2000. This resolution marked the first time the Security Council addressed the disproportionate and

unique impact of armed conflict on women; the resolution recognized the under-valued and under-utilized contributions women make to conflict prevention, peacekeeping, conflict resolution and peace-building. It also stressed the importance of women's equal and full participation as active agents in peace and security. Its key provisions include; increased participation and representation of women at all levels of decision-making and paying attention to specific protection needs of women and girls in conflict. In addition, it provides for embracing of gender perspective in post-conflict processes gender perspective in UN programming, reporting and training in UN peace support operations.

The findings from the national reports show an array of different approaches and practices in the implementation of UNSC peace and security resolutions across AGDI II participating countries. The findings indicate that member States are at different levels of implementation of the resolutions largely because not all countries have experienced conflicts to the same degree and therefore resulting in differential post conflict strategies. In the Gambia for instance, the AGDI study shows that, Gambian women have not been playing a significant role in peace-making, peace-keeping and security issues. Notwithstanding, since the inception of a military-led regime in the Second Republic (1994/6 to 2011), there has been a heightened perception of the important role that women could play in peace and security matters. As a result, a growing number of women have been commissioned into the national armed forces at regular troop level and recently at the top echelons, up to the Lieutenant cadre. In addition, the Vice-President of the republic who is a woman has been appointed the Chairperson of the National Armed Forces Council. The Gambian government has permitted the setting up of a local Office of West African Network for the Elimination of small arms Proliferation

(WANEP) for advocacy and monitoring with a view to reducing the proliferation of Small Arms in West Africa. It is of significance that this institution is headed by a woman. Similarly, in Kenya, the development of a comprehensive national plan of action to roll out UNSC 1325 involved efforts from various stakeholders including civil society organizations. Capacity building initiatives formed part of the process to enhance the command and capacity of the members of the national steering committee. It is clear from the foregoing that continental efforts are overdue to scale up implementation of UNSC 1325 and ensure that participation of women is guaranteed at decision making levels. Member States need to expedite their efforts to draw plans of actions and become proactive in implementing the resolutions irrespective of whether they have not experienced conflict or are in active or post conflict stages.

3.5.2 Institutionalization of Gender Mainstreaming

African member states have put measures in place to institutionalize gender mainstreaming; these measures include setting up national gender machinery with the responsibility for coordination, monitoring and evaluation and policy direction for gender equality and women's empowerment. The architecture for the national gender machineries across the continent differs from country to country, but the mandates are largely similar; namely; overseeing gender mainstreaming in all the development sectors. All the AGDI II countries have reported an establishment of a gender ministry, department of body managed by professional gender experts with specific mandates to implement policy and programs that mainstream gender in all government departments. The national gender machineries also include gender focal persons in the different line ministries who have been entrusted with the responsibilities of integrating gender in their sectors. In addition, supportive structures (gender steering or

technical committees) with representation from broad based stakeholders have been set up to guide government priorities and ensure government accountability in these areas. The findings indicate continuance of persisting challenges and set-backs thus slowing down gender mainstreaming efforts. These are; challenges of inadequate finance allocations for the national gender machinery, under staffing and inadequate capacity building initiatives. These have persisted to undermine efficient policy implementation and institutionalization of gender mainstreaming. Nevertheless, laudable efforts have been registered and good practices to be replicated have been noted as follows;

In Kenya, monitoring and evaluation framework on gender mainstreaming has been developed and is being used to track progress, document experiences, challenges and lessons learned as well as establish impact and review the achievement in gender equality. As a way of measuring the impact of the country's gender mainstreaming efforts, Zambia adapted the AGDI status index developed by ECA as one of the impact indicators. The Gender and Child Development Division through the Joint Gender Support Programme (JGSP) developed the National Monitoring and Evaluation Plan 2011 - 2015. The goal of the M&E plan is to provide mechanism through which the performance of the implementation will be measured. In implementing the M&E Plan, the Division has adapted the African Gender and Development Index to the national specificities.

3.5.3 Support for Women's Quotas and Affirmation Action

Of the forty countries across the globe to have reached the Beijing Platform for Action's recommended 30 percent minimum representation of women in decision making marker for female representation in parliament, less than ten percent of them have achieved this without affirmative action

initiative. Out of the world's top twenty countries with the highest women's political representation at more than eighty percent, have some form of a quota system. Gender-based quotas are implemented to bring more women into the political space and they may take various forms. Quotas are also seen as a temporary measure that must be uplifted once barriers to women's political representation are removed. The 2011 World Development Report on gender equality highlights that female representation among legislators stands at 22 percent among countries with any type of gender quotas versus 13 percent in countries without any quota of some form. This has led to the conviction that quotas can be used as 'a transformative mechanism'. All the African countries that appear in the world's top list were found to use some form of quota to address parity deficiency. In Africa 10 countries have achieved the 30% minimum threshold required for the critical mass; these are; Rwanda, Seychelles, Senegal, South Africa, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda, Angola, Algeria and Burundi. Out of the countries covered by the AGDI II, Senegal is the only one to have surpassed the threshold with 42.7% of women's participation in the national parliament. When quota systems are complemented with the right electoral systems, studies show that they will result in visible female representation in Parliament hence quotas serve as a tool for consolidating strong female representation. Quota systems have become a popular tool to encourage women's participation due to growing international and regional demand for equitable participation of women as well and the push from women led civil society groups. However, countries like Rwanda introduced the measures during the period of transition to democracy to prevent historical backlashes.

In Kenya, women's participation in political and public decision making for women is guaranteed by the Constitution as adopted

in 2010. The Constitution has entrenched affirmative action in a number of provisions intended to benefit different marginalized groups including women. The Government has committed itself to developing and implementing a national affirmative action policy to legitimize actions that ensure that women have at least 30 per cent representation in recruitment, promotion and appointment at all decision-making levels, with a Draft National Affirmative Action Policy (2012). The draft policy provides a framework for addressing imbalances in opportunities for women's progress and advancement. However, instead of pushing the law makers

to pass a new gender parity law that would be used for implementing the affirmative action guaranteed in the 2010 Constitution, the Supreme Court of Kenya has made a decision to enact such laws "progressively". The call for embracing affirmative action and the use of quotas to attain gender parity in decision-making as contained in major international instruments need to be heeded by African member States in order to address the gender gaps persisting in this area. The strategy to implement quotas must be clearly thought out and negotiated at all levels to avoid the counter effects of the intended benefits.

Table 20: Percentage Achievements from Maximum Score Possible – Political Power

| Commitment and Implementation | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|--|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| UN Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Women, Peace and Security | 69 | 50 | 35 | 4 | 92 | 50 | 65 | 96 | 54 | 69 | 46 |
| Participation of women in traditional governance | 4 | 38 | 50 | 0 | 42 | 12 | 19 | 77 | 35 | 38 | |
| Policies – Gender mainstreaming in all department | 88 | 54 | 62p[p | 62 | 92 | 12 | 54 | 85 | 46 | 35 | 58 |
| Policies-Support for women's quotas and affirmative action | 92 | 19 | 62 | 42 | 42 | 15 | 54 | 88 | 50 | 35 | 58 |
| Political power | 63 | 40 | 52 | 27 | 67 | 22 | 48 | 87 | 46 | 44 | 54 |

Source: UNECA computations from country reports, 2012.

Chapter Four

Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1 The Social Power Block

4.1.1 Education

Thorough analysis of indicators under the education component of the social block confirm that the massive success in net enrolment rates at the primary school level were attributed to the implementation of compulsory and free basic education for the vast majority of the AGDI II participating countries. Reversals of the gains have however been experienced by the low completion rates of girls and boys (particularly girls in majority of the countries) as well as their transition into secondary schools and tertiary institutions. The findings have pointed to an urgent need for re-vamping the policy framework in order to address gender disparities, access, quality and relevance of education. There is urgency to address the problem of retention especially of girl children because failure to reverse it would compound transitional ratios to higher education levels.

Recommended Actions

The following measures are therefore proposed for African governments and stakeholders in the field of education;

- » Ensure the recognition of education as a human right in all relevant legal and policy frameworks and fast track eradication of harmful traditional/cultural practices that hinder access to education for both girls and boys.
- » Increase funding for the education sector to ensure improved quality of education

as well as access by girls, and in particular, disabled children and pupils from indigenous communities.

- » Integrate human rights education into the school curricular from the basic (primary) level and ensure that it is mainstreamed into inductions and core programmes at higher education levels.
- » Improve retention rates and reverse school dropout rates in the form of improved girl-child-friendly teaching and learning environment through the construction of gender segregated toilet facilities, availability of clean water in schools, institution of school feeding programmes, making use of cash transfer programmes (social protection safety net) for poor parents.

4.1.2 Health

The findings have unveiled an array of challenges around equitable access to health services and facilities. The challenges persisted despite signing of numerous commitments by African member states to address child and maternal health, sexual and reproductive health rights. It is clear that African countries need to re-think embracing of a comprehensive approach that integrates gender and human rights and also strengthening institutional and policy coordination in order to ensure delivery of life-saving and dignified health services and care to avert unjustifiable child and adult mortalities. A set of actions are recommended for African governments to turn around the situation;

Recommended Actions

- » African countries should revitalize a comprehensive and integrated effort against the main diseases that cause child mortality, such as measles, pneumonia, diarrhoea, malaria and HIV/AIDS and integrate the approaches (programmatically and financially) to address HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB, since this will have positive spill over effects on maternal and child mortality.
- » Child morbidity and nutrition should be tackled through strengthening previous successful efforts for priority interventions in this area, such as the Expanded Programmes of Immunization (EPI); Vitamin A supplementation; and the use of insecticide-treated bed nets (ITNs), especially in deprived areas of African countries.
- » Capacity of national health systems and resource gaps need to be addressed as well as tackling inequities in access and use, particularly among low-income groups, rural populations and women.
- » In order to address the brain drain among medical personnel, countries are encouraged to develop effective strategies of retention as well as considering the training and deployment of Non-Physician Clinicians.
- » Increase government funding for maternal health as a priority to encompass national insurance schemes, deployment of health workers, tools for health workers, education, family-planning activities and investments in infrastructure.

4.2 The Economic Power Block

The overall results of the AGDI depict strengths in the policy and regulatory frameworks, which in turn offer opportunities for African countries to deliver on their commitment to

gender equality and women's empowerment. The findings have revealed that the main challenges faced by most countries in achieving gender equality and women's empowerment is largely weak policy, institutional and legislative frameworks which have negatively affected effective implementation of international and regional instruments. In addition, countries were found to be struggling with weak capacities to adequately monitor and evaluate progress made in implementing policies, laws and programmes to advance gender equality in the social, economic, political as well as in women's rights sectors. What came out clearly from the findings is the inadequacy of concrete measures to finance gender equality and women's empowerment. This was clearly shown in the Democratic Republic of Congo where the budget share allocated to the Ministry of Gender was 0.06 per cent of the total national budget. Even in countries where this share is larger, there is no indication from budgetary institutions on how to mainstream gender in the elaboration of budget, both at national and local level. Further, many countries still rely exclusively on external resources to support gender policies. In Democratic Republic of Congo, all gender equality projects and programmes depend on resources from bilateral and multilateral partners. This situation critically hampers national leadership, jeopardizing the sustainability and overall coherence of development policies. AGDI II has brought to the surface a number of common challenges and hindrances to women's economic empowerment as follows; strong influence of cultural and social norms, limited access to formal and micro-credits for women, lack or limited political commitment from governments, lack of accountability and strategic planning, poor gender-sensitive budget allocation and limited allocation of resources, poor access to land for women and absence of effective monitoring and evaluation frameworks.

Based on these challenges and the analysis of both the GSI and the AWPS, it can be argued that policies conducive for women's economic

empowerment and access to opportunities and decision-making need to be emphasized. In the short-run, policies on support for women's quotas and affirmative action should be maintained. In the long run however, gender equality and women's empowerment will be more meaningfully achieved if women's capabilities are enhanced. Emphasis therefore needs to be on access to tertiary education as a long-term goal for achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. Further, in order to fast-track progress related to gender, there is need to put in place and implement laws and policies leading to long-term commitments to empower females of all ages, irrespective of their occupational status. Such policies will help to ensure that gender equality remains a top priority. Finally, since gender issues affect all segments of the society, involving males in programs, clubs, social networks, and organizational activities that target females is critical.

Recommended Actions

- » There is need for African Governments to review existing laws and enacting those that promote gender equality in access to and control of productive resources, especially legislation that promotes equitable distribution of land, housing, livestock and equitable access to credit facilities.
- » There is need to develop training and empowerment programmes, particularly agricultural extension services that will provide women with the requisite skills for gainful and income-generating employment.
- » Effective strategies for mainstreaming of gender in poverty reduction plans are called for and also ensure that effective monitoring and evaluation frameworks are put in place.
- » Governments have to take affirmative action to reform customary laws in the area of access to and control over land rights.

- » Strengthen national statistical bodies to generate and collect gender disaggregated data to inform policy formulations and integrate Time-use and unpaid domestic work in national statistical accounts.

4.3 The Political Power Block

Overall, the findings point a picture of staggered progress of African women's political power and agency, with some countries recording high numbers of women in specific sectors and lower numbers in other areas of decision making. The GSI on political power was found to be the lowest of the three blocks. This is an indication of women's limited power and the continent's under performance in its efforts to promote women's political agency. Despite the noted diversity between ADGI II participating countries, the findings point to narrowing gender gap in the past decade with the average GSI political block at 0.27. The continent is however experiencing systematic regression on numbers of women especially in parliaments with new sets of elections, a factor pointing to deeper underlying factors like backlash, or other challenges undermining women's leadership. It is clear that there is a need to strengthen institutional, structural, legislative and policy frameworks that will ensure sustainable, inclusive and participatory democracy that includes women representatives.

From the results of the GSI, it can be concluded that policies that enhance women's access to and control over opportunities and decision making roles need to be scaled up. Yet, policies on support for women's quotas and affirmative action should be maintained. In the long run however, gender equality and women's empowerment will be more meaningfully achieved if women's capabilities are enhanced. Emphasis therefore needs to be on access to tertiary education as a long term goal for achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. There is need to

move from commitment to action by putting in place measures that will ensure an increase in women's participation in politics and decision making both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The findings also indicate the different innovative strategies with which different AGDI II countries were found to be implementing UN Security Council Resolutions to promote the role of women in peace building and security initiatives with other countries having appointed women in senior and influential positions in this previously male dominated sector. Progress is slow regarding institutionalization of quotas and other affirmative action strategies to ensure presence of women in positions where they were previously under-represented, since the good practices do not seem to be replicated to the rest of Africa.

Recommended Actions

- » Countries need to accede to and expedite implementation of global and regional instruments to guide policy, legislation and programs that will improve African women's agency.
- » Member States need to strengthen their efforts to enhance participation of women in politics and decision making by developing national road maps that will guide their attainment of gender parity in this area.
- » There is need for expeditious development of national action plans to roll out implementation of UNSC Resolution 1325 to ensure participation of women in peace and security decision making processes.

4.4 Women's Rights

The AGDI II has confirmed an emerging and positive trend of constitutional and legislative reforms across the continent entrenching women's rights as provided for in the different

CEDAW articles, Beijing Platform for Action as well as in the African Women's Protocol. This trend points to an evolving continental shift from low policy prioritization for gender equality mode to a more robust regulatory, policy and institutional framework. Despite the promising policy environment, the findings point to low scores on budget and human resource allocations, deficient civil society involvement, information dissemination, monitoring and evaluation as well as capacity enhancement arrangements. The lower scores in these areas show a clear evidence of the general deficiency in the implementation status of the international commitments under review. Commitment to ending VAW by a number of countries in Africa cannot be doubted, however, there is need to put more efforts on promulgation and enforcement of legislation.

Recommended Actions

- » There is need for renewed and strengthened advocacy for member States to prioritize implementation of international and regional instruments that promote the human rights of women.
- » African Member states need to maintain the vigilance and strengthen surveillance mechanisms to prevent the widespread of VAW and address its underlying causes.
- » Heightened advocacy on the prevention of VAW needs to be mounted with governments and civil society working as partners.
- » Promulgation and enforcement of laws need to be prioritized alongside an aggressive strategy to involve broad based stakeholders in the campaign to end violence against women.
- » Regional Economic Communities and member States need to play a bigger role in the monitoring of progress and adherence of agreements to end violence against women.

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Appendices

African Women Progress Scoreboard – Summary Results^{64 65}

64 For all tables, results are from UNECA computations based on country data.

65 Data not available for Cabo Verde and Djibouti

Appendix I: AWPS Summary Result on the Social Block

A. Education Indicators

Table 21: Policies to Prevent and Protect Female Dropout

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|-----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Zambia | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Malawi | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Togo | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 58 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 26 | 100 |
| Mali | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| DRC | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Cabo Verde | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Djibouti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26

Table 22: Education on Human/Women's Rights

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|--------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 46 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 21 | 81 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Zambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Malawi | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Togo | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 62 |
| Coted'Ivoire | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 85 |
| Mali | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 46 |
| Congo | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cabo Verde | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Djibouti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26.

B. Health Indicators

Table 23: ICPD PoA+15 (HIV/AIDS)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|-----|
| Botswana | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 23 | 88 |
| Zambia | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Malawi | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| Togo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 23 | 88 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 26 | 100 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| DRC | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | | 1 | 23 | 88 |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26

Table 24: ICPD PoA+15 (Maternal Mortality)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Kenya | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 20 | 77 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Zambia | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Malawi | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Togo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 22 | 85 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 77 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Congo | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | | 1 | 20 | 81 |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26

Table 25: ICPD PoA +15 (Family Planning)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 89 |
| Kenya | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 21 | 81 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 23 | 88 |
| Zambia | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Malawi | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 21 | 81 |
| Togo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 21 | 81 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 81 |
| DRC | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 23 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 17 | 65 |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26

Table 26: ICPD PoA +15 (Safe Abortion)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 89 |
| Kenya | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 39 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 15 |
| Zambia | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 27 |
| Malawi | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 31 |
| Togo | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 2 | 8 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Senegal | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 15 |
| DRC | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 19 |
| Congo | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: Maximum score per country is=26

Table 27: AWPS – Percentage Scores Achieved from Maximum Score Possible – Health

| ICPD PoA + 15 Commitments and implementation | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo |
|---|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|------|------------------|---------|------|-----|-------|
| HIV/AIDS | 92 | 96 | 88 | 73 | 88 | 88 | 65 | 100 | 88 | 65 | 88 |
| Maternal Mortality | 77 | 96 | 73 | 58 | 96 | 85 | 58 | 96 | 77 | 50 | 77 |
| Family Planning | 81 | 92 | 81 | 62 | 88 | 81 | 73 | 92 | 81 | 23 | 65 |
| Safe Abortions | 38 | 81 | 31 | 27 | 15 | 8 | | | 15 | 19 | 0 |
| Health average | 72 | 91 | 68 | 55 | 72 | 65 | 65 | 96 | 65 | 39 | 58 |

Appendix II: AWPS Summary Result on the Economic Block

Table 28: Summary Scores on Commitment to ILO Convention 100

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 25 | 83 |
| Kenya | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 30 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 73 |
| Zambia | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 53 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 63 |
| Togo | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 50 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 43 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 46 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 73 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Congo | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 18 | 60 |

Note: Maximum score per country is= 30

Table 29: Summary Scores on Commitment to ILO Convention 111

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 23 | 77 |
| Kenya | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 27 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 73 |
| Zambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 57 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 63 |
| Togo | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 43 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 43 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 46 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 73 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Congo | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 18 | 60 |

Table 30: Summary Scores on Commitment to ILO Convention 183

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Kenya | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 27 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Zambia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Malawi | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Togo | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 20 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 46 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 28 | 93 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Congo | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: 1. Maximum score per country is = 30

Table 31: Engendering NPRS (max score=24)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 79 |
| Kenya | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 19 | 79 |
| The Gambia | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 50 |
| Zambia | X | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 17 | 71 |
| Malawi | X | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 63 |
| Togo | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 42 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 23 | 96 |
| Senegal | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 50 |
| Mali | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 79 |
| DRC | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 42 |
| Congo | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | | 1 | 17 | 71 |

Table 32: Access to Agricultural Extension(Maximum Total Score =24)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 74 |
| Kenya | X | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 29 |
| The Gambia | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 50 |
| Zambia | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 67 |
| Malawi | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 19 | 79 |
| Togo | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 13 | 54 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | X | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 50 |
| Senegal | X | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 19 | 79 |
| Mali | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 54 |
| DRC | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 17 |
| Congo | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 15 | 63 |

Note: Maximum score per country is=24

Table 33: Access to Technology (Maximum Score = 24)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 83 |
| Kenya | X | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 17 |
| The Gambia | X | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 38 |
| Zambia | X | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 50 |
| Malawi | X | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 71 |
| Togo | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 13 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Senegal | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 21 |
| Mali | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 79 |
| DRC | X | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 21 |
| Congo | X | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 15 | 63 |

Table 34: Access to Land (Maximum Score = 26)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Kenya | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 42 |
| Zambia | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 11 | 42 |
| Malawi | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Togo | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 31 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Senegal | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 19 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| DRC | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 12 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Cabo Verde | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Djibouti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Appendix III: AWPS Summary Result on the Political Block

Table 35: UN Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 18 | 69 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| Zambia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| Malawi | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 35 |
| Togo | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 50 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 85 |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| DRC | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 12 | 46 |

(Maximum score per country is 26)

Table 36: Participation of Women in Traditional Governance

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 38 |
| Kenya | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 11 | 42 |
| Zambia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Malawi | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Togo | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 12 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 19 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 20 | 77 |
| Mali | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 35 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 39 |
| Congo | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Table 37: Gender Mainstreaming in All Departments

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| Zambia | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Malawi | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Togo | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 12 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Senegal | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 12 | 46 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 35 |
| Congo | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 15 | 58 |

(Maximum score per country is 26)

Table 38: Support for Women's Quota and Affirmative Action

(Maximum Score per Country is 26)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 19 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| The Gambia | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 42 |
| Zambia | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 42 |
| Malawi | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Togo | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 15 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 23 | 88 |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 42 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 35 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 15 | 58 |

Table 39: Participation in Peace Negotiations and Processes

(Note: Maximum Score per Country is 26)

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 22 | 84 |
| Malawi | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 31 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 84 |
| Mali | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 35 |

Note: Data not available for Botswana, Kenya, Zambia, Togo, Congo, Cabo Verde and Djibouti

Appendix IV: AWPS Summary Result on the Women's Right Block

Table 40: CEDAW

| CEDAW | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/ Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 70 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 26 | 87 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 80 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 63 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 70 |
| Togo | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 17 | 57 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 26 | 87 |
| Mali | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 70 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 57 |
| Congo | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 18 | 62 |

Total score per country = 30

Table 41: Article 2 in CEDAW

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Kenya | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 69 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 21 | 81 |
| Zambia | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 38 |
| Malawi | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Togo | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 85 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 12 | 48 |
| Cabo Verde | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Djibouti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Maximum score per country = 26

Table 42: Article 16 of CEDAW

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 77 |
| Kenya | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 69 |
| Gambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 11 | 42 |
| Zambia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 35 |
| Malawi | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Togo | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 38 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 15 |
| Mali | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 12 | 48 |

Table 43: Optional Protocol

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 57 |
| Kenya | 0 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Gambia | 1 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 50 |
| Zambia | 0 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 |
| Malawi | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 71 |
| Togo | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 14 |
| Senegal | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 14 |
| Mali | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 64 |
| DRC | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 50 |
| Congo | 2 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 8 | 62 |
| Cabo Verde | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Djibouti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Maximum total score per country = 14; X = not applicable

Protocols and Charters on Rights of Women and Children

Table 44: The African Women's Protocol

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kenya | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 12 | 40 |
| Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 80 |
| Zambia | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Malawi | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 57 |
| Togo | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 19 | 63 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 27 |
| Senegal | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 19 | 63 |
| Mali | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 53 |
| DRC | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Congo | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 59 |

Maximum total score per country = 30

Table 45: Beijing Platform for Action

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 23 | 88 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Zambia | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Malawi | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 16 | 62 |
| Togo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 20 | 77 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 19 | 73 |
| Mali | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 46 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 48 |

Maximum total score per country = 26

Table 46: Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kenya | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 50 |
| The Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25 | 96 |
| Zambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Malawi | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Togo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| Mali | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 42 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Congo | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 13 | 52 |

Maximum total score per country = 26

Table 47: African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 25 | 83 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 25 | 83 |
| Gambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 22 | 73 |
| Zambia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 22 | 73 |
| Togo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 24 | 80 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 27 | 90 |
| Senegal | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 47 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 24 | 80 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 53 |
| Congo | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 18 | 62 |

Total score per country = 30

Violence Against Women

Table 48: Harmful Practices FGM/ Early Marriage/Widow Inheritance

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/ Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 24 | 92 |
| The Gambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Malawi | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Togo | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 15 | 58 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 22 | 85 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 24 | 92 |
| Mali | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 77 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 38 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |

Maximum total score per country = 26

Table 49: Review and Modification of Customary Law

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/ Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Kenya | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 15 | 58 |
| Gambia | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 15 |
| Zambia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Malawi | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 58 |
| Togo | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Senegal | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 12 | 46 |
| Mali | X | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 8 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 19 |
| Congo | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Maximum total score per country = 26

Table 50: Rape

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 19 | 73 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 24 | 92 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Togo | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 31 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 20 | 77 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 46 |
| DRC | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 12 | 46 |

Total score possible = 26

Table 51: Statutory Rape/ Defilement

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 19 | 73 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 24 | 92 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 77 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 73 |
| Togo | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Mali | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 46 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 54 |
| Congo | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | | 1 | 14 | 54 |

Maximum total score possible = 26

Table 52: Sexual Harassment

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Kenya | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 19 | 73 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 12 | 46 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 58 |
| Malawi | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Togo | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 23 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 12 |
| Senegal | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 35 |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 27 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 35 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 12 | 46 |

Maximum total score possible = 26

Table 53: Domestic Violence

| | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 16 | 62 |
| Kenya | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 69 |
| Gambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 24 | 92 |
| Zambia | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 21 | 81 |
| Malawi | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 65 |
| Togo | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 27 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| Senegal | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 69 |
| Mali | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 50 |
| DRC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 27 |
| Congo | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | | 1 | 11 | 42 |

Maximum total score per country = 26

Protocols to Protect the Dignity and Security of Children and Women

Table 54: Protocol on the Suppression and Punishment of Trafficking in Persons

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/ Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Kenya | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 23 | 77 |
| Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 24 | 80 |
| Zambia | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 73 |
| Malawi | X | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 43 |
| Togo | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 67 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 26 | 87 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 24 | 80 |
| Mali | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 63 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Congo | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 22 | 79 |

Maximum total score possible = 30

Table 55: Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution & Pornography

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/ Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 19 | 63 |
| Kenya | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 24 | 80 |
| Zambia | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 20 | 67 |
| Malawi | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Togo | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 25 | 83 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 25 | 83 |
| Mali | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 47 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 50 |
| Congo | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 17 | 61 |

Table 56: Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in the Armed Conflict

| | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity Enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | % |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----|
| Botswana | 2 | 1 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 3 | 10 |
| Kenya | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 30 |
| Gambia | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Zambia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Malawi | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Togo | 2 | X | 1 | 1 | X | X | 1 | X | 1 | X | 1 | X | X | X | X | 7 | 23 |
| Cote d'Ivoire | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 17 | 57 |
| Senegal | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 56 |
| Mali | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 30 |
| DRC | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 60 |
| Congo | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 17 | 61 |

(Maximum total score possible per country = 30)

Table 57: Summary of the Achievements in Terms of Protocols on Dignity and Security (in %)

| Indicators | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Congo | Average |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Protocol on the Suppression and Punishment of Trafficking in Persons Especially in Women and Children | 77 | 60 | 43 | 73 | 80 | 67 | 87 | 80 | 63 | 50 | 79 | 68 |
| Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography | 0 | 63 | - | 67 | 80 | 60 | 83 | 83 | 47 | 50 | 61 | 59 |
| Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in the Armed Conflict | 30 | 10 | - | 3 | - | 23 | 57 | 56 | 30 | 60 | 61 | 37 |
| Average | 36 | 44 | 43 | 48 | 80 | 50 | 76 | 73 | 47 | 53 | 67 | 56 |

Appendix V: Gender Status Index – Summary and Values of Indicators

Table 58 – Gender Status Index in the Three Blocks and the Average Index

| Gender Status Index | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti | Average |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| SOCIAL POWER | 0.968 | 1.015 | 0.937 | 0.951 | 0.912 | 0.871 | 0.938 | 1.043 | 0.848 | 0.906 | 1.007 | 0.971 | 0.926 | 0.945 |
| ECONOMIC POWER | 0.556 | 0.793 | 0.650 | 0.802 | 0.614 | 0.651 | 0.476 | 0.621 | 0.641 | 0.587 | 0.909 | 0.739 | 0.806 | 0.680 |
| POLITICAL POWER | 0.379 | 0.440 | 0.232 | 0.355 | 0.336 | 0.080 | 0.238 | 0.237 | 0.145 | 0.166 | 0.515 | 0.143 | 0.244 | 0.270 |
| GSI | 0.634 | 0.749 | 0.606 | 0.702 | 0.621 | 0.534 | 0.551 | 0.633 | 0.545 | 0.553 | 0.810 | 0.617 | 0.659 | 0.632 |

Source: UNECA computation from country reports, 2012

Table 59: Values of Education Indicators (Percent) – Used in GSI Calculations

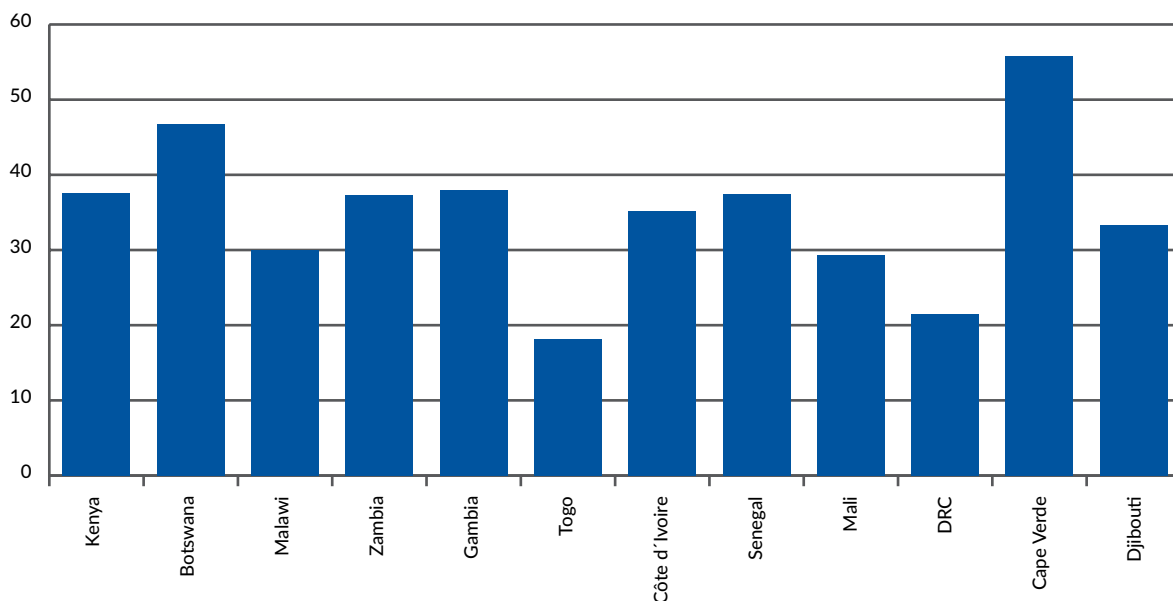
| Education Indicators | Sex | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti |
|-----------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|---------------|---------|-------|-------|------------|-------|----------|
| Early childhood enrolment rate* | Female | - | - | - | - | 9.20 | 10.40 | 6.30 | 10.30 | 11.50 | 2.90 | - | 13.85 | 2.00 |
| | Male | - | - | - | - | 9.40 | 10.80 | 4.70 | 9.30 | 10.70 | 3.10 | - | 13.21 | 2.00 |
| Primary enrolment rate (net) | Female | 91.20 | 86.4 | 84.00 | 50.10 | 76.10 | 76.1 | 51.30 | 76.00 | 55.00 | 72.00 | 87.60 | 80.00 | 47.00 |
| | Male | 94.10 | 84.4 | 82.00 | 49.90 | 77.50 | 77.5 | 58.60 | 74.00 | 63.60 | 78.00 | 89.80 | 82.70 | 52.00 |
| Secondary enrolment rate (net) | Female | 30.10 | 67.90 | 15.00 | 44.90 | 60.40 | 23.90 | 20.10 | 35.00 | 21.30 | 29.90 | 67.00 | 20.10 | 17.00 |
| | Male | 32.20 | 58.60 | 12.00 | 55.10 | 72.10 | 32.90 | 28.20 | 40.00 | 31.10 | 33.40 | 57.10 | 37.79 | 24.00 |
| Tertiary enrolment rate (gross)** | Female | - | - | 0.30 | - | - | 3.10 | - | 6.00 | 3.40 | - | 15.40 | - | 3.00 |
| | Male | - | - | 0.70 | - | - | 14.00 | - | 10.00 | 8.20 | - | 12.10 | - | 6.00 |
| Primary completion rate | Female | 76.30 | 91.00 | 68.00 | 89.61 | 23.00 | 53.70 | 50.20 | 60.90 | 29.00 | 40.70 | 90.20 | - | 45.00 |
| | Male | 77.60 | 93.00 | 73.00 | 90.88 | 22.00 | 73.10 | 53.90 | 57.40 | 45.50 | 47.30 | 88.50 | - | 50.00 |
| Literacy rate of 15-24 years old | Female | 90.50 | 95.60 | 60.00 | 65.50 | 28.00 | 59.30 | 32.90 | 66.10 | 30.40 | 62.30 | 73.10 | 86.00 | 82.20 |
| | Male | 93.00 | 92.01 | 79.00 | 75.40 | 56.00 | 80.00 | 41.20 | 54.90 | 47.80 | 83.10 | 87.00 | 89.10 | 70.00 |

*Data on early childhood enrolment rate are not available for Kenya, Malawi, Zambia and Cabo Verde . Botswana gave actual number enrolled by sex.

** Kenya, Botswana, Zambia, The Gambia, Cote d'Ivoire and DRC reported only number or percent of women enrolled (see figure below) in higher education and not the GER

Source: Compiled from Country AGDI reports, 2012

Figure 35 Percent of Women in Tertiary Education



Source: ECA computations from country AGDI reports, 2012

Table 60: Values of Health Indicators used in GSI Calculation

| Health Indicators | Sex | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia ** | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo * | Djibouti |
|---|--------|-------|----------|--------|--------|-----------|-------|---------------|---------|-------|-------|------------|---------|----------|
| Stunting under 5 (percent) | Female | 28.30 | 6.60 | 43.30 | 42.00 | 26.60 | 27.90 | 31.40 | 24.90 | 25.60 | 43.10 | 13.50 | 24.30 | 29.00 |
| | Male | 30.50 | 7.70 | 51.10 | 48.00 | 28.60 | 31.50 | 36.40 | 28.10 | 29.90 | 48.80 | 15.40 | 27.60 | 32.00 |
| Underweight under 5 (percent) | Female | 19.80 | 13.10 | 11.70 | 13.00 | 15.00 | 14.50 | 18.80 | 16.70 | 17.40 | 30.00 | 5.70 | 14.00 | 22.50 |
| | Male | 20.70 | 13.90 | 14.00 | 17.00 | 16.70 | 18.50 | 21.60 | 18.60 | 20.30 | 32.80 | 7.10 | 15.00 | 23.30 |
| Mortality under 5 (per 1000) | Female | 77.0 | 610.0 | 117.0 | 124.0 | -- | 117.0 | 122.0 | 83.00 | 207.0 | 149.0 | 0.70 | 117.0 | 80.8 |
| | Male | 90.0 | 692.0 | 138.0 | 151.0 | -- | 131.0 | 134.0 | 91.00 | 222.0 | 162.0 | 1.20 | 129.0 | 103.4 |
| HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 (percent) | Female | 8.00 | 10.70 | 12.90 | 9.00 | -- | 2.40 | 2.40 | 0.70 | 0.90 | 1.60 | -- | 2.40 | 30.00 |
| | Male | 4.30 | 4.80 | 8.10 | 4.00 | -- | 0.60 | 0.30 | 0.10 | 0.50 | 0.90 | -- | 0.70 | 14.00 |

* For Congo data on stunting and Under 5 mortality are from DHS 2005

** For Gambia data on Stunting and Underweight for Under 5 are from WHO Global database on child growth and malnutrition

Source: Compiled from country AGDI reports, 2012

Table 61: Values (in percentage) of Some Economic Status Indicators Used in GSI Calculation

| Indicator (in %) | sex | Kenya | Botswana | Malawi | Zambia | Gambia | Togo | Cote d'Ivoire | Senegal | Mali | DRC | Cabo Verde | Congo | Djibouti |
|---|--------|-------|----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|---------------|---------|-------|-------|------------|-------|----------|
| Share of women under the poverty line | Female | 31.90 | - | 51.60 | 62.40 | 63.00 | 52.00 | 49.50 | 50.60 | 25.40 | 62.20 | - | 58.20 | 41.80 |
| | Male | 32.40 | - | 48.40 | 60.10 | 47.00 | 59.00 | 48.40 | 48.00 | 44.80 | 59.30 | - | 48.80 | 41.90 |
| Youth Unemployment rate | Female | - | 34.40 | 3.00 | 13.10 | 31.00 | 10.40 | 19.80 | 2.80 | 14.10 | 32.80 | 38.30 | 26.40 | 82.90 |
| | Male | - | 21.50 | 5.00 | 14.90 | 19.00 | 10.20 | 12.10 | 8.20 | 7.90 | 31.20 | 25.00 | 23.50 | 76.20 |
| Share in non agricultural wage employment | Female | 30.00 | 42.60 | 21.0 | --- | 25.00 | 25.80 | 19.25 | 35.00 | 30.00 | 2.80 | - | 68.00 | 28.80 |
| | Male | 70.00 | 57.40 | 79.0 | --- | 75.00 | 74.20 | 80.75 | 65.00 | 47.40 | 12.00 | - | 48.00 | 71.20 |

Source: Compiled from country AGDI reports, 2012

Appendix VI: The GSI and AWPS Indicators List

Table 62: Gender Status Index – List of Indicators

| Block | Component | Sub-component | INDICATOR | Female | Male | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|---------------|---|--|------|--|
| <i>Social power 'Capabilities'</i> | Education | Enrolment | Early childhood enrolment | | | |
| | | | Primary enrolment rate (net) | | | |
| | | | Secondary enrolment rate (net) | | | |
| | | | Tertiary enrolment rate (gross) | | | |
| | | Completion | Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary | | | |
| | | Literacy | Literacy rate of 15-24 years old | | | |
| | | Health | Child health | Stunting under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation | | |
| | | | | Underweight under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation | | |
| | | | | Mortality under 5 | | |
| | | | HIV/AIDS | HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 years old | | |
| Access to anti-retroviral treatment | | | | | | |

| Block | Component | Sub-component | INDICATOR | Female | Male | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|--------------------|------|--|
| Economic power 'Opportunities' | Income | Wages | Wages in agriculture | | | |
| | | | Wages in civil service | | | |
| | | | Wages in formal sector (public and/or private) | | | |
| | | | Wages in informal sector | | | |
| | | Income | Income from informal enterprise | | | |
| | | | Income from small agricultural household enterprise | | | |
| | | | Share of women under the poverty line | | | |
| | Time-use and employment | Time-use | 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 | | | |
| | | Employment | Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment | | | |
| | Youth unemployment rate | | | | | |
| | Access to resources | Means of production | Ownership of | rural land/farms | | |
| | | | | urban plots/houses | | |
| | | | | livestock | | |
| | | Management | Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit) | | | |
| | | | Employers | | | |
| Own-account workers | | | | | | |
| High civil servants (class A) | | | | | | |
| Political power 'Agency' | Public sector | Members of parliament | | | | |
| | | Cabinet ministers ** | | | | |
| | | Higher positions in civil service and parastatals | | | | |
| | | Employment in the security forces | | | | |
| | | Judges of | higher courts | | | |
| | lower courts | | | | | |
| | Civil society | Senior positions in | traditional and religious courts | | | |
| | | | Members of local councils | | | |
| | | | Number of male/female traditional rulers | | | |
| | | | Political parties | | | |
| Trade unions | | | | | | |
| | | Employers' associations | | | | |
| | | Heads or managers of NGOs | | | | |

Table 63: The AWPS indicators – The Vertical and Horizontal Axes

| | | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | Percentage | | | |
|----------------|--|---|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|------------|--|--|--|
| Women's rights | International and regional legal instruments on women's rights | CEDAW, 1979 (Article 2) | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | CEDAW, 1979 (Article 16) | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Optional Protocol to CEDAW, 1999 | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR) on the Rights of Women in Africa, 2003 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Beijing Platform for Action, 1995 | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa, 2004 | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | Percentage | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|------------|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Violence against women and children | Harmful practices: FGM; early/forced-marriage; widowhood rites | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Review and modification of customary law | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Domestic violence | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Rape | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Statutory rape/defilement | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Sexual harassment | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish of Trafficking in Persons especially in Women and Children, 2000 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography, 2000 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflicts, 2000 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Health – ICPD Plan of Action | HIV/AIDS | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Maternal mortality | | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Family planning | | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Safe abortions | | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Education | Policies to prevent and protect female dropouts | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Education on human/women's rights | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | Ratification | Reporting | Law | Policy commitment | Development of a plan | Targets | Institutional mechanism | Budget | Human resources | Research | Involvement of civil society | Information & dissemination | Monitoring & evaluation | Capacity enhancement | Accountability/Transparency | Total | Percentage | | |
|--|----------------------|--|--|-----|-------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------|------------|--|--|
| Economic power 'opportunities' | Employment | ILO Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration, 1951 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | ILO Convention 111 on Equal Remuneration, 1958 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | ILO Convention 183 Concerning Maternity Protection at the Workplace, 2000 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sustainable development (Article 19 of the Protocol to the ACHPR on the Rights of Women in Africa, 2003) | | Engendering national poverty reduction strategies to ensure that gender dimensions of poverty are taken into account | X | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Access to agricultural extension services | X | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Access to land | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NEPAD Framework Document, 2001 | Access to technology | X | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Political power 'agency' | Peace and security | UN Security Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Women, Peace and Security | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Participation in decision-making | Participation of women in traditional governance | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Policies | Gender mainstreaming in all departments | X | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Support for women's quotas and affirmative action | X | | X | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total score | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Notes: X = Not applicable. The abbreviations used in the table stand for: ACHPR – African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights; CEDAW – Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; CRC – Convention on the Rights of the Child; FGM – Female Genital Mutilation; HIV/AIDS; ICPD – International Conference on Population and Development; ILO – International Labour Organization; NEPAD – The New Partnership for Africa's Development; and UN – United Nations.

