



# **6. ACCESS TO ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES AND RESOURCES**

The Beijing Platform for Action recognizes that “women’s poverty is directly related to the absence of economic opportunities and autonomy, lack of access to economic resources, including credit, land ownership and inheritance, lack of access to education and support services and women’s minimal participation in the decision-making process”<sup>1</sup>. Moreover, it notes that discrimination in education and training, hiring and remuneration, promotion and horizontal mobility practices, lack of access to productive resources and inadequate sharing of family responsibilities, combined with insufficient services such as child care, restrict employment, economic, professional and other opportunities for women<sup>2</sup>. It calls on governments to ensure that the productive capacity of women is increased through access to capital, resources, land, technical assistance and training<sup>3</sup> and to take measures to promote women’s access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources<sup>4</sup>

Earlier, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women had obligated member States to ensure equal rights in all matters relating to marriage and family relations, including “the same rights for both spouses in respect to ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property”<sup>5</sup>. Member States have made similar commitments in the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa<sup>6</sup> (Maputo Protocol) in its Articles 9 and 13, and the Sustainable Development Goals (see Box 6.1). In addition, members of the International Labour Organization have adopted three conventions that commit them to undertake measures that ensure equal pay for work of equal value (Convention No. 100 of 1951), eliminate discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (Convention No. 111 of 1958) and mandate maternity leave of at least 14 weeks for pregnant women (Convention No. 183 of 2000).

#### **BOX 6.1 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND ACCESS TO ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES AND RESOURCES.**

**SDG 5.4:** Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

**SDG 5.A:** Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.

**SDG 5.B:** Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.

This chapter reviews the progress made by the countries covered by this report in meeting their commitments included in the Economic Block of the African Gender and Development Index. The Economic Power block of the Gender Status Index consists of twenty indicators organized in three components: Income; Time-use and employment; and Access to resources. The Income Component is further divided into the Wages and Income Sub-components, while Time-use and Employment sub-components make up the second component. Access to resources is divided into Means of production and Management. The indicators tracked under the various components are discussed in the relevant sections below. Under the Economic Power block of the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard, countries score their own performance on the implementation of the provisions in Conventions 100, 111 and 182 of the

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<sup>1</sup> United Nations (1995: para. 51).

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.* at para. 155

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.* at para. 55.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.* at Strategic objective F1.

<sup>5</sup> United Nations (1979: Article 16.1(h)).

<sup>6</sup> African Union (2003: Article 19).

International Labour Organization, three issues related to Article 9 of the Maputo Protocol, and access to technology.

## Income

The Income Component in the Gender Status Index is made up of the Wages and Income Sub-components. The indicators under the former are wages in agriculture, civil service, the formal sector and the informal sector. The Income Sub-component focuses on income earned from informal enterprises and small agricultural household businesses, as well as the proportion of population living under the poverty line. The International Labour Organization’s Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration in the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard is also discussed in this section.

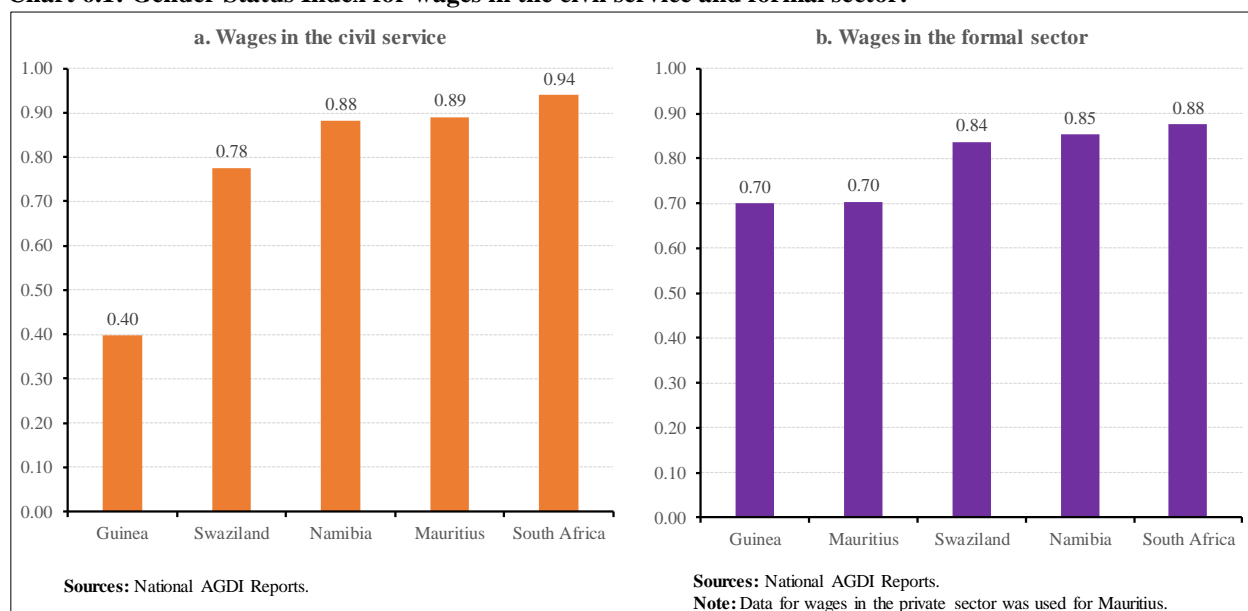
## Wages

In general, data on wages is not widely available for the countries under review.

*Wages in agriculture.* Data for wages in agriculture is available for only three of the countries covered by this report. In 2015, men working in agriculture in **Mauritius** earned more than twice what their female counterparts earned. There is significant gender disparity in favour of men in both **Mauritius** (GSI = 0.4) and **Swaziland** (GSI = 0.6). In **Namibia**, women earn more than men as reflected in a GSI of 1.11.

*Wages in the civil service.* Regarding wages in the civil service, **South Africa** has almost reached gender parity with a GSI of 0.94 (Chart 6.1a). **Mauritius** and **Namibia** have GSI values of just under 0.9, while there is significant gender disparity in favour of males in **Guinea** (GSI = 0.4).

**Chart 6.1: Gender Status Index for wages in the civil service and formal sector.**



*Wages in the formal and informal sectors.* Gender gaps at the expense of females exist for all countries where data is available, with GSI values ranging from least 0.7 for **Guinea** and **Mauritius** to 0.88 for **South Africa** (Chart 6.1b). Only **Guinea** and **South Africa** provided sex-disaggregated data on wages in the informal sector. The GSI values were 0.74 and 0.76 respectively. The AGDI Report for **Guinea** reports that

a survey undertaken in 2012 estimated that women accounted for 58 percent of workers in the informal sector.

*Factors affecting the gender wage gap.* A number of factors may explain the gender wage disparity which requires further analysis beyond the numbers reported above. In addition to discrimination, these include differences in education attainment, accumulated work experience, choice of educational specialization, occupational segregation and labour market institutions and policies including trade unions and minimum wage<sup>7</sup>. As discussed in Chapter 4, while girls in **Rwanda, Southern African countries** and the **Small Island Developing States** are doing well in terms of participation and progression at all levels of the education, girls in countries from the Central and Western African regions are less likely to be enrolled and complete education at all levels than boys. Furthermore, young women tend to study social sciences and humanities subjects at tertiary education institutions, while young men tend to focus on courses in science, engineering and computer sciences.

**Chart 6.2: Proportion of women by income bracket in Mauritius and South Africa, 2001-2015 (%).**

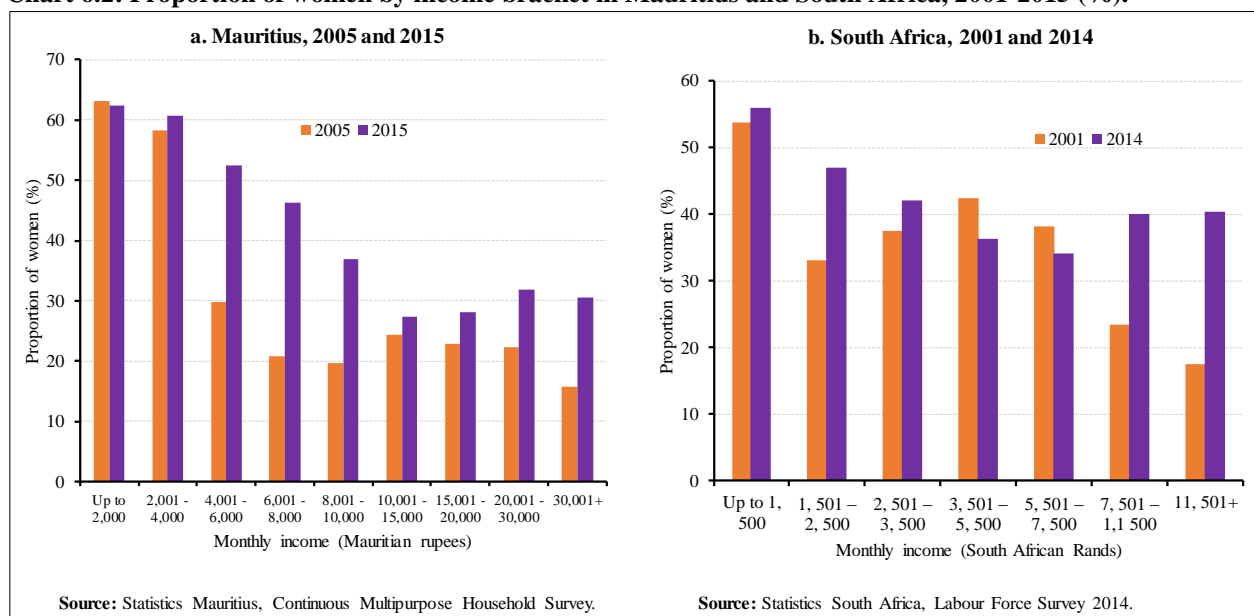


Chart 6.2 shows that a higher proportion of women than men find themselves in the lowest income brackets in **Mauritius** and **South Africa**. In higher income brackets, men dominate. On a positive note, the proportion of women in the highest income brackets has increased significantly in both countries in the last decade or so. The gender wage gap also varies across industries. In **Mauritius**, gender disparity in earnings at the expense of females is more pronounced in the agricultural sector, elementary occupations and service and retail industries.

## Income

Like for wages, there is a paucity of data for the indicators under the Income Sub-Component.

*Income from informal enterprises.* Data on income from informal enterprises is available only for **Guinea**. On average, female-owned informal enterprises earn a lower income than male-owned informal enterprises, with a GSI of 0.6. The AGDI Report for **Guinea** reports that 92 percent of female-owned informal

<sup>7</sup> International Labour Organization (2016).

enterprises earn less than one million Guinean Francs per month, whereas 80 percent of male-owned informal enterprises earn at least two million Guinean Francs per month.

*Income from small agriculture household enterprises.* Data on income from small agricultural household enterprises is available for **Guinea**, **Namibia** and **Swaziland**. There is gender disparity in favour of males in all three countries, with moderate disparity in **Namibia** (GSI = 0.79) and **Swaziland** (GSI = 0.75), and severe disparity in **Guinea** (GSI = 0.13).

*Share of population living under the poverty line.* The gender dimensions of poverty are most commonly analysed by comparing the poverty level of female-headed households with that of male-headed households. For the five countries with data, there is a greater proportion of female-headed households under the poverty line in **Mauritius**, **Namibia** and **Seychelles** compared to male-headed households, while the reverse is true for **Guinea** and **Niger** (Table 6.1). The GSI values for **Mauritius** and **Seychelles** fall in the range (0.97 to 1.03), which denote gender parity. In general, the proportion of the population living under the poverty line is high for both females and males, particularly in **Guinea** and **Niger** where it is above 40 percent for both sexes.

**Table 6.1: Proportion of the population living under the poverty line by sex (%) and Gender Status Index.**

	Female	Male	Gender Status Index
<b>Guinea</b>	49.3	55.9	1.15
<b>Mauritius</b>	10.5	9.0	0.98
<b>Namibia</b>	32.2	26.2	0.92
<b>Niger</b>	40.3	48.9	1.17
<b>Seychelles</b>	20.6	18.7	0.98

Sources: National AGDI Reports.

## International Labour Organization Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration, 1951

“Each Member shall, by means appropriate to the methods in operation for determining rates of remuneration, promote and, in so far as is consistent with such methods, ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value.

This principle may be applied by means of: (a) national laws or regulations; (b) legally established or recognised machinery for wage determination; (c) collective agreements between employers and workers; or (d) a combination of these various means.”

[Articles 1 & 2, Convention 100, 1951]

The International Labour Organization’s Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration (C100) calls on member States to take measures to ensure that men and women receive the same remuneration for work of equal value. The Convention also deals with basic and/or minimum wages. All countries covered by this report have ratified C100, except for **Liberia**.

Countries have taken a number of measures to apply the provisions of the Convention. These are discussed below, organised by the main provisions of the Convention.

### National laws or regulations on equal remuneration

- In **Rwanda**, *Law N° 86/2013* (2013) provides that salaries in the public service shall be based on the weight of the work done and not the person performing it.

- **Seychelles** has revised the *Employment Act* (1995), which is under consideration, to align the definition of the concept of 'equal work for equal pay' to that of the Convention.
- In **South Africa**, the section of the *Employment Equity Act* (1998) that deals with remuneration for work of equal value was amended in 2014. The amendment provides that differentials in wage and other conditions of employment will be deemed as unfair discrimination unless the employer can show that they reflect fair criteria such as experience, skill, and responsibility. Claims of unfair sex and gender discrimination based on unequal pay can be heard by the Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration, the Labour Court and the Equality Courts.

#### Machinery for wage determination

- In **Mauritius**, a National Remuneration Board has been established to make recommendations to Government on rates of remuneration and conditions of employment in the private sector.
- In **South Africa**, the National Economic Development and Labour Council was established in 1994 as a national social dialogue institution to address economic, labour and development issues. It consists of representatives of government, business, organised labour and civil society organizations.

#### Minimum wage

- In **Mauritius**, the National Wage Consultative Council began operations in 2017 to introduce a national minimum wage.
- In **South Africa**, the *Basic Conditions of Employment Act* (1997) allows the Minister of Labour to set minimum terms and conditions of employment, including a minimum wage for vulnerable workers.

Article 2 of the Convention recommends using collective agreements between employers and workers as one of the avenues to apply the principle of equal pay for work of equal value. However, in **Seychelles** the two main trade unions have issues of legitimacy. In **South Africa**, women are underrepresented in senior positions in trade unions and trade unions have a historical undertaking to address racial discrimination in the workplace. This situation limits the effectiveness of trade unions in addressing sex discrimination in the workplace.

[To update] Overall, countries scored themselves high on ratification of the Convention, reporting, enacting legislation and policy commitment on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (Table A6.1). From the point of view of countries, weak areas were research and monitoring and evaluation. The AGDI Report for **South Africa** noted that while the measures taken to integrate the provisions of C100 in laws are based on research, monitoring and evaluation remains a challenge. Research to assess the impact of the *Employment Equity Act* (1998) recommended setting benchmarks and targeting policy interventions at the sector level. Several national reports highlight inadequate compliance and enforcement of laws under this area.

**Seychelles** scored itself highest at 100 percent on implementation of the Convention, followed by **Mauritius** on 90 percent. **Guinea** and **South Africa** scored themselves below 70 percent. Box 6.2 highlights the measures taken by **Mauritius** to domesticate the provisions of the Convention.

#### **BOX 6.2 IMPLEMENTATION OF ILO CONVENTION 100 IN MAURITIUS.**

- The provisions of the Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration (1951) are enshrined in the *Employment Rights Act* (2008). Section 20 states that: “Every employer shall ensure that the remuneration of any worker shall not be less favourable than that of another worker performing work of equal value.” Section 4 aims to combat, prohibit and curb all forms of discriminatory practices at the workplace and section 38(1) provides for the protection of workers against unlawful dismissal including dismissal on the basis of discriminatory practice. The latter provides protection against dismissal by reason of pregnancy, sex, sexual orientation, marital status, family responsibilities or absence from work during maternity leave.
- The National Remuneration Board make recommendations to Government regarding minimum remuneration and terms of employment in the private sector in line with the *Remuneration Order Regulations*.
- The National Wage Consultative Council has been established under the *National Wage Consultative Council Act* (2016) to make recommendations to Government regarding the introduction of a national minimum wage in both the public and private sectors. The Council is managed by a board consisting of representatives of the government, trade unions and employers’ associations.
- Labour and Industrial Relations Officers of the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations, Employment and Training carry out regular inspections at work sites to ensure compliance with laws and regulations.

**Source:** AGDI Report for Mauritius.

## Promoting equitable access to employment

This section analyses the results of indicators under the Time-use and employment component of the Gender Status Index and International Labour Organization’s Conventions 111 and 183 in the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard. There are five indicators under the Time-use and employment Component. The Time-use Sub-component is made up of three time-use indicators, while the Employment Sub-component consists of the share of population in non-agricultural wage employment and youth unemployment. Because of a lack of data for the indicators included in the Gender Status Index, analysis of the rate of labour force participation is included to complement the analysis and add further insights.

### Time-use

Women continue to shoulder the heavy burdens of unpaid work including those related to caring for children, the elderly and the sick, cooking, and household chores. This state of affairs leaves less time for them to devote to remunerative employment, participation in political and public life and learning. Time-use surveys provide comprehensive information about how individuals allocate their time among a range of paid and unpaid productive activities, as well as personal care, leisure and learning.

Table 6.2 shows that males spend more time in market economic activities than females in all countries where data is available. There is significant gender disparity in favour of males in **Mauritius**, with a GSI of 0.39. There is moderate gender disparity in the other countries with data, with GSI values ranging from 0.73 in **Niger** to 0.92 in **Namibia**. Women spend less time than men in non-market economic activities in all countries with data, except in **Niger** where women spend more than three times longer engaging in non-market economic activities than men. Females tend to spend considerably more time in domestic, care and volunteer activities than males as reflected in GSI values below 0.5, except in **Namibia** where the GSI value is 0.93.

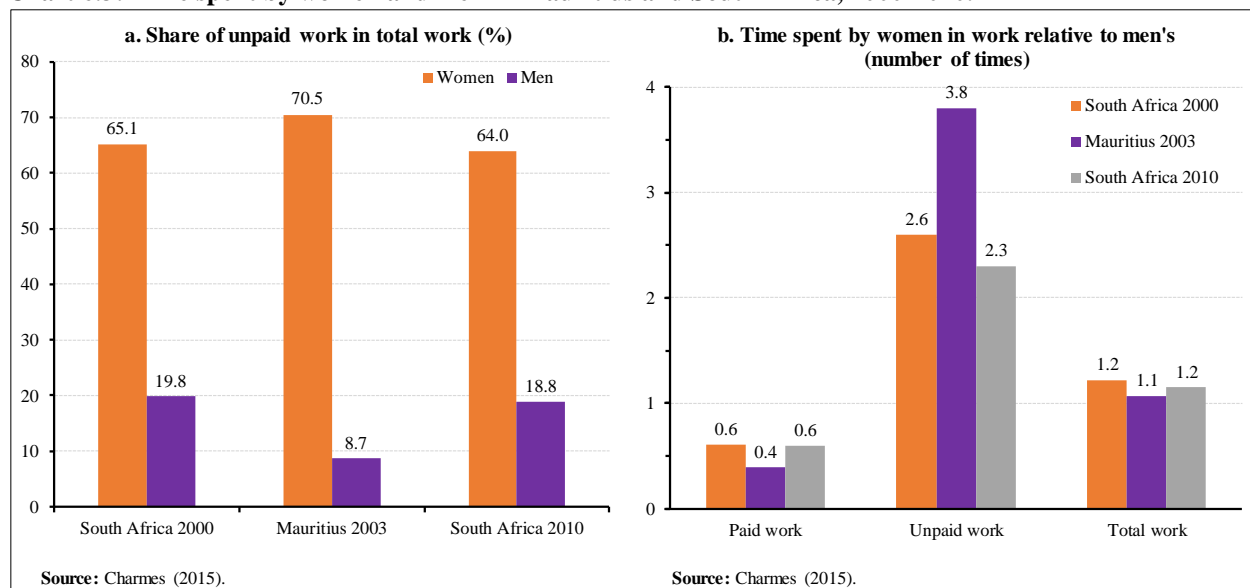
**Table 6.2: Gender Status Index of time spent in economic, domestic care and volunteer activities, selected countries.**

	Guinea	Mauritius	Namibia	Niger	Rwanda	South Africa	Swaziland
Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own account or employer)	0.88	0.39	0.92	0.73	0.89	0.88	0.87
Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	1.26	1.02	1.16	0.33	(-)	1.24	(-)
Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	0.46	0.26	0.93	0.18	0.32	0.40	(-)

Sources: National AGDI Reports.

**Mauritius** (in 2003) and **South Africa** (in 2000 and 2010) have undertaken nationally representative time-use surveys that allow for further analyses of the relative time spent by women and men in unpaid and paid work. In **Mauritius**, the time spent by women in unpaid work account for 71 percent of their total work (defined as the sum of unpaid and paid work) (Chart 6.3 a). This is more than seven times the share of unpaid work in total work for men. In **South Africa**, women spent almost 65 percent of total work time in unpaid work, while men spent just under 20 percent. The time spent by women doing unpaid work in **South Africa** and **Mauritius** are two and four times that for men respectively (Chart 6.3b). Women work longer hours than men in both countries.

**Chart 6.3: Time spent by women and men in Mauritius and South Africa, 2000-2010.**



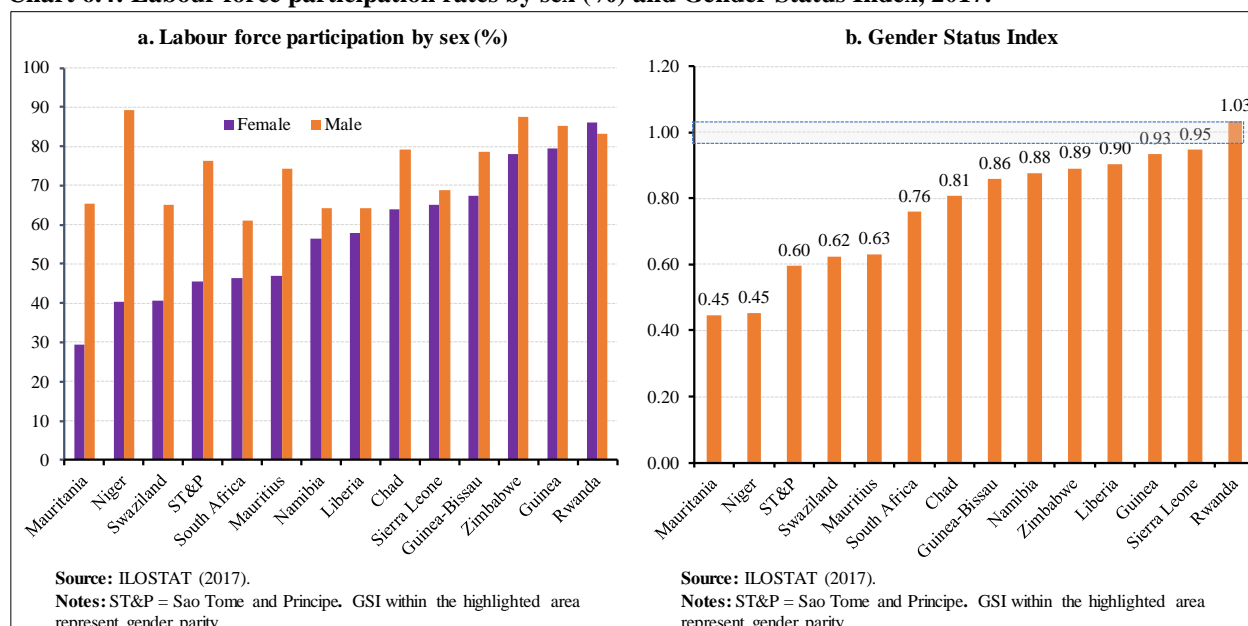
## Employment

*Labour force participation.* According to data from the International Labour Organization, labour force participation rate for women is lower than that for men in the countries covered by this report, except for **Rwanda** (Chart 6.4). Female labour participation rate is below 50 percent in **Mauritania**, **Mauritius**, **Niger**, **Sao Tome and Principe**, **South Africa** and **Swaziland**, and above the average for sub-Saharan



Africa of 65 percent<sup>8</sup> in **Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe**. There is gender parity in **Rwanda**, and significant gender disparity at the expense of females in **Mauritania and Niger**.

**Chart 6.4: Labour force participation rates by sex (%) and Gender Status Index, 2017.**



The relatively high labour participation rates for women and men reflect poverty and a lack of access to social protection, leaving them with limited choice but to work out of necessity<sup>9</sup>. In addition, because women in general have limited access to education and vocational opportunities than men, relatively more of them end up working as either own account workers or contributing family workers<sup>10</sup>. In **Niger** in 2012, three percent of women were employed in the formal sector and covered by social protection<sup>11</sup>. Furthermore, women were “concentrated in low-paid domestic work, where they are often exploited, exposed to precarious working conditions and subject to abuse by their employers”<sup>12</sup>. Box 6.3 highlights ways to increase women’s participation in the labour force.

### BOX 6.3 INCREASING WOMEN’S PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR FORCE.

African women continue to face a number of barriers that limit their access to paid, formal employment. Factors that prevent the creation of an enabling environment for women employment include: discriminatory practices against women by employers; unequal pay for equal work; cultural and legal restrictions on certain types of jobs for women; unpaid work that compensates for a lack or weak infrastructure especially energy, transportation, sanitation, and water borne largely by women; unpaid care work including the caring for children, the elderly and the sick that is performed mainly by women; weak and insecure property rights for women; and lack of access to financial services, land, and technology.

Countries can increase the participation and effectiveness of women in the labour force by pursuing policies that prepare women for and enable them to join, the labour force. Having been empowered through education and the acquisition of relevant skills, women have to be supported through a broad range of policies to enable them to join the labour force. These policies include: (a) Investing in women’s skills and education including tertiary education and vocational training; (b) According women equal rights in terms of inheritance, property ownership, family law,

<sup>8</sup> International Labour Organization (2017).

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>11</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2017).

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*

and economic independence; (c) Providing support to encourage women to move from low-productivity, low-income and vulnerable jobs in the informal sector with little job security and fewer social benefits such as unpaid work, casual agricultural labour, and most domestic service to higher-productivity jobs in the formal sector; (d) Investing in female entrepreneurs by promoting their access to financial and business support services; (e) Reducing the burden of household work through better infrastructure – principally energy, water, sanitation, and transportation; (f) Reducing the burden of unpaid care work through provision of affordable care services for children the elderly and the sick; (g) Balancing the gender division of paid and unpaid work aimed at dividing unpaid care work more equitably between men and women; (h) Compensating for unequal employment opportunities based on gender – principally compensating for the adverse impact of career breaks through paid leave and right of return to post; (i) Public campaigns to challenge gender stereotypes, and for proper implementation of legislation against discrimination; and (j) Producing quality gender-disaggregated data on the situation of boys, girls, men and women.

These policies have the potential to boost women’s participation in the labour force and, as a consequence, increase economic growth. Booz & Company has estimated the effect of raising female employment to the male employment level, taking into account of the lower productivity of the new entrants as a result of limited experience and lower educational attainment, and lower average hours worked across the overall population on account of women more likely to work part-time and to be primary caregivers for children, the elderly and the sick. In **South Africa**, raising female employment to the male employment level is estimated to raise gross domestic product by 10 percent over time.

**Sources:** Booz & Company (2012), ECA (2009) and International Labour Organization (2012).

*Share of population in non-agricultural wage employment.* A lower share of women than men were employed in the non-agricultural wage sector in the four countries where data was available. The GSI was almost 0.6 in **Mauritania** and **Zimbabwe**, 0.8 in **Niger** and 0.9 in **Guinea**. According to the AGDI country reports, the share of women in the non-agricultural wage employment was below 5 percent in **Niger**, around 40 percent in **Mauritania** and **Zimbabwe**, and 78 percent in **Guinea**. Box 6.4 showcases the Back-to-Work Programme in **Mauritius** targeting women over 35 years.

#### **BOX 6.4 BACK-TO-WORK PROGRAMME FOR WOMEN IN MAURITIUS.**

Female unemployment in Mauritius is approximately twice than that of their male counterpart. In June 2017, the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations, Employment and Training introduced the Back-to-Work (BTW) Programme for women above 35 years old who wish to join or rejoin the labour force.

The objectives of the BTW Programme is to:

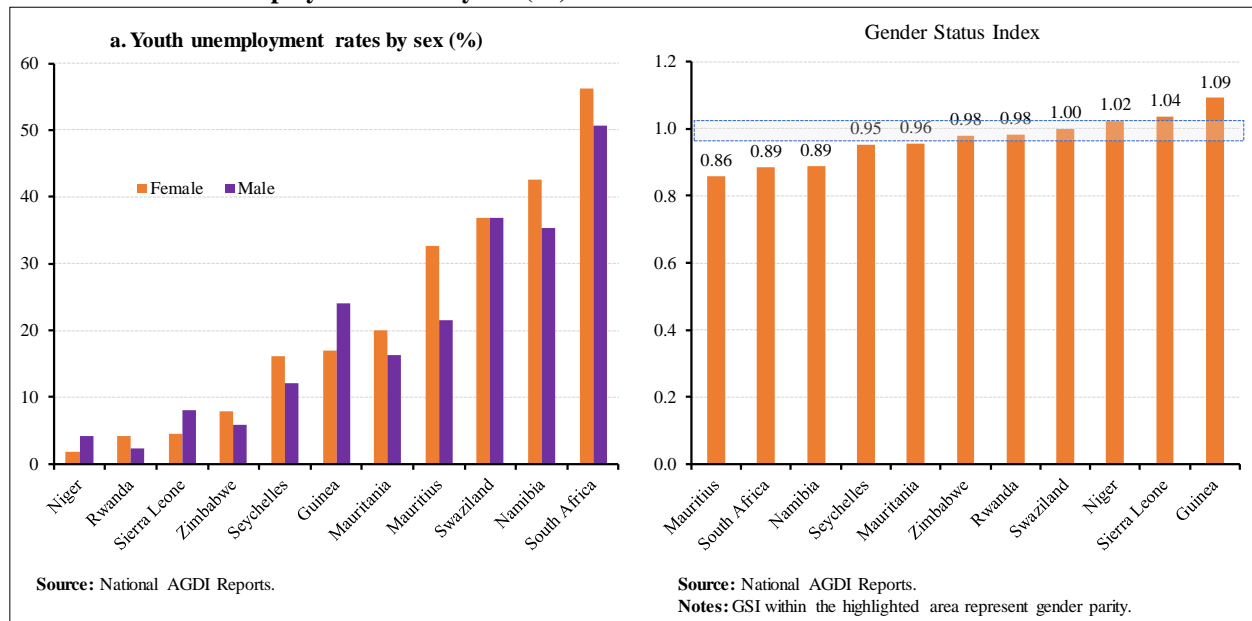
- Ensure that Mauritian women above 35 years of age can have employment in private enterprises or with individual employers; and
- Help women gain back their self-confidence and learn to integrate or re-integrate the labour market by undergoing a training programme designed to build or re-build self-awareness, self-esteem, social responsibility and entrepreneurial skills and to strengthen interpersonal and communication skills.

As at April 2017, 580 women out of 1, 388 registered had secured a placement opportunity in 165 private sector organizations. In addition, 249 unemployed women had followed the training course “Induction to World of Work” under the BTW programme delivered and sponsored by the Mauritius Institute of Training and Development.

**Source:** AGDI Report for Mauritius.

*Youth unemployment rate.* For young people aged between 15 and 24, female unemployment rates tend to be higher than for males in countries where unemployment rates are high (Chart 6.5). Youth unemployment rates for females are above 30 percent in **Mauritius**, **Namibia**, **South Africa** and **Swaziland**, and below 10 percent in **Niger**, **Rwanda**, **Sierra Leone** and **Zimbabwe**.

**Chart 6.5: Youth unemployment rates by sex (%) and Gender Status Index.**



There is gender parity in youth unemployment rate for **Niger, Rwanda, Swaziland** and **Zimbabwe**, with GSI values between 0.97 and 1.03 (Chart 6.5b). There is a slight gender disparity in favour of females in **Sierra Leone**, and in favour of males in **Mauritania** and **Seychelles**. The GSI values for **Mauritius, Namibia** and **South Africa** are just below 0.9, while there is significant gender disparity to the advantage of females in **Guinea**. The status of women in employment in **South Africa** is summarized in Box 6.5.

#### **BOX 6.5 STATUS OF GENDER EQUALITY IN WORK IN SOUTH AFRICA.**

Gender equality in work is still a long way from being achieved. Some of the main challenges are as follows.

- Women's share of employment has risen, but men still form the majority of the employed.
- African women and black women in general are least likely, of all women and men, to be in paid employment. They are most likely to be counted as 'economically inactive' meaning that they have never had a paid income of their own, nor are they seeking one.
- The growth in women's employment has not reflected an improvement in the quality of jobs and economic position of women.
- The new areas of employment for women have tended to be insecure, with increased flexibility, low pay and low status, thus the 'feminisation' of work has been accompanied by declining quality of jobs, pay and working conditions.
- Unemployment remains high for women, young African women in particular.
- African women are still clustered within the lowest income groups.
- Women in general, and African women particularly, continue to occupy jobs associated with 'women's work' and the gendered division of labour in the home, such as domestic work, cleaning, nursing and teaching.

**Source:** Orr and van Melees (2014: pp. 31-2).

## International Labour Organization Convention 111 Discrimination, 1958

“Each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to declare and pursue a national policy designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice, equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation, with a view to eliminating any discrimination in respect thereof.

Each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice: (a) to seek the co-operation of employers' and workers' organisations and other appropriate bodies in promoting the acceptance and observance of this policy; (b) to enact such legislation and to promote such educational programmes as may be calculated to secure the acceptance and observance of the policy; (c) to repeal any statutory provisions and modify any administrative instructions or practices which are inconsistent with the policy; (d) to pursue the policy in respect of employment under the direct control of a national authority”.

[Articles 2 & 3, Convention 111, 1958]

[To update] All countries have ratified Convention 111. Overall, countries scored themselves high on ratification of the Convention, enacting legislation, policy commitment and institutional mechanism on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (Table A7.2). Countries scored research and monitoring and evaluation as the weakest areas, followed by budget allocation and capacity enhancement. **Mauritius, Niger, Seychelles** and **Swaziland** scored themselves 80 percent and above on implementation of the Convention. **Rwanda** and **South Africa** scored themselves below 70 percent.

Some of issues raised in National AGDI Reports in terms of implementation of Convention 111 are discussed below.

- According to the National AGDI Report for **Mauritius**, the current legislative framework does not cover the following provisions in Convention 183: (i) Additional leave in case of illness, complications or risk of complications arising out of pregnancy or childbirth; (ii) Entitlement of women workers with less than 12 months of service to cash benefits from employers or out of social assistance funds; and (iii) Prohibition of terminating employment on grounds of “*nursing of unweaned child*” or else during a period following her return from work from maternity leave.
- *Law N° 13/2009* (2009) which regulates labour issues in **Rwanda** forbids any discrimination, directly and indirectly, that aims to deny an individual worker the right to equal opportunity or to the salary under Article 12. The bases on which discrimination is prohibited include sex, marital status, family responsibilities and previous, current or future pregnancy.
- In **South Africa**, the *Employment Equity Act* (1998) require employers to compile and implement an employment equity plan, submit statutory employment equity reports, conduct employment equity and diversity awareness training. The Labour Court may impose penalties on non-compliant employers.

## International Labour Organization Convention 183 on Maternity Protection, 2000

“[A] woman to whom this Convention applies shall be entitled to a period of maternity leave of not less than 14 weeks.”

[Article 4(1), ILO Convention 183, 2000]

The availability of maternity leave and income security ensures that women workers do not have to interrupt or reduce their participation in paid work to give birth and take care of a new-born<sup>13</sup>. Furthermore, without adequate maternity protection, women may continue to work too far into their pregnancy and return to work

<sup>13</sup> This paragraph draws on Addati et al. (2014: p. 8).

too soon after childbirth, increasing the risks to themselves and their children's health. Lack of time off and income replacement reduce women's access to prenatal, childbirth and postnatal care and the duration of breastfeeding, which is crucial in the first six months of life. Adequate job-protected leave is also important to avoid labour dismissal, loss of pay and loss of employment status for pregnant and parenting workers.

The International Labour Organization's Convention on Maternity Protection (2000) focuses on issues of maternity, paternity, parental and adoption leave, protection against dismissal during pregnancy, birth and nursing of infants, gender-specific interventions for pregnant and breastfeeding workers and support for breastfeeding at work. Among the countries covered by this report, only **Sao Tome and Principe** has ratified the Convention, which will enter into force in the country in June 2018.

Table 6.3 shows that **South Africa**, with a leave period of 17 weeks, has the longest leave period among the countries covered by this report, as well as in Africa. In addition, **Chad, Guinea, Mauritania, Niger, Seychelles** and **Zimbabwe** meet the 14-week minimum standard set by the Convention. **Guinea-Bissau** and **Sao Tome and Principe** have the shortest leave period of 9 weeks.

**Chad, Mauritania, Mauritius, Rwanda** and **Seychelles** provide for paternity leave, while **Chad, Guinea** and **South Africa** provide for parental leave. **Guinea-Bissau, Sao Tome and Principe** and **Zimbabwe** offer women no protection from unlawful dismissal. Women have the right to return to work in the same or equivalent position in **Rwanda, South Africa** and **Swaziland**. Box 6.6 highlights the relevant provisions of the legal frameworks **Seychelles** and **South Africa** that relate to the Convention.

#### **BOX 6.6 MATERNITY PROTECTION MEASURES IN SEYCHELLES AND SOUTH AFRICA.**

**Seychelles.** According to a research undertaken by the Seychelles' Institute for Early Childhood Development in 2013, over 90 percent of women were working mothers, of whom 60 percent were single parents. About 36 percent of women took additional leave and over 10 percent stopped work or took leave without pay to complement maternity leave. The Institute recommended for maternity leave for a period of six months to elevate the role of the mother as the first provider of early childhood care and education. The *Employment Act* allows the mother three-months maternity leave. The Public Service Orders makes provision for paid maternity leave of 14 weeks and 4 weeks' unpaid leave for all female workers in full time or part time employment (Reg 16 (1)); regulates overtime and night duty for women from the time they are six months pregnant up to three months after confinement (Reg 16 (1)); and provides for job transfer without loss of wages upon production of a medical certificate if current work is detrimental to the health of mother and child (Reg 23). The *Employment Policy* under Strategy 8: Non-discrimination in the workplace, the Government commits to monitor discrimination against pregnant and lactating female workers in the private sector, and ensuring compliance with the law.

**South Africa.** The *Basic Conditions of Employment Act* (1997) stipulates that all employees are entitled to maternity leave, including both biological parents and parents who have adopted. It prohibits an employer from permitting a pregnant female employee to work in the period commencing four weeks before her expected date of childbirth and in the eight weeks after her childbirth. It provides for 4 months' maternity leave with a cash benefit sourced from the Unemployment Insurance Fund. The female employee must work a minimum of 24 hours a month for her employer to be required to grant her maternity leave. Some private sector employers provide maternity leave ranging between 6 and 11 months. In 2014, trade unions and non-governmental organizations called for an increase in the length of maternity leave to 11 months. Parental leave also makes some provision for 3 days' paternity leave, which provides fathers with time off after the birth of the child.

**Source:** AGDI Reports for Seychelles and South Africa.

**Table 6.3: National statutory provisions on maternity and paternity leave, 2013.**

Country	Maternity leave	Paternity leave*	Parental leave#	Employment protection			Non-discrimination	Health protection
	Duration (weeks)	Duration (days)	Duration (days)	Protection from unlawful dismissal	Burden of proof	Right to return to work	Non-discrimination provision	Dangerous or unhealthy work
<b>Chad</b>	14	10	Up to 52 weeks (6 months, renewable once) (either parent)	Pregnancy	Employer	Not guaranteed	Sex	No protection
<b>Guinea</b>	14	×	38 weeks (only mothers)	Pregnancy, Leave, Additional period	Not provided	Not guaranteed	Sex	Prohibition
<b>Guinea-Bissau</b>	9	×	×	No protection	Not provided	Not guaranteed	Sex	No obligation
<b>Mauritania</b>	14	10	×	Pregnancy, Leave, Additional period	Employer	Not guaranteed	Sex	No obligation
<b>Mauritius</b>	12	5 working days	×	Pregnancy	Not provided	(..)	Sex, Pregnancy, Family responsibilities	Prohibition
<b>Namibia</b>	12	×	×	Pregnancy, Leave, Additional period	Worker	Not guaranteed	Sex, Pregnancy, Family responsibilities	No protection
<b>Niger</b>	14	×	×	Pregnancy, Leave	Not provided	Not guaranteed	Sex	No protection
<b>Rwanda</b>	12	4	×	Leave	Not provided	Same position or equivalent	Sex, Pregnancy, Family responsibilities	No obligation
<b>ST&amp;P</b>	9	×	×	No protection	Not provided	Not guaranteed	Sex	No obligation
<b>Seychelles</b>	14	4	×	Leave	Not provided	Not guaranteed	No prohibition	No protection
<b>Sierra Leone</b>	12	(..)	(..)	(..)	(..)	(..)	(..)	(..)
<b>South Africa</b>	17	×	3	Pregnancy	Employer	Same position	Sex, Pregnancy	Prohibition
<b>Swaziland</b>	12	×	×	Pregnancy, Leave, Additional period	Not provided	Same position or equivalent	Sex	No protection
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	14	×	×	No protection	Not provided	Not guaranteed	Sex, Pregnancy	No protection

Source: ILO (2014) and AGDI Report for South Africa.

Notes: ST&P = Sao Tome and Principe. A cross (×) indicates that paternity and parental leave are not available. (..) means information is not available or could not be identified, no data is available. \* Paternity leave includes “special” leave provisions in addition to annual leave that may be used by fathers at the time of birth but which are not strictly “paternity leave” (e.g., Seychelles). # Parental leave provisions can be used by the father or mother or parts of maternity leave entitlements that the mother can transfer to the father.

[To update] Overall, countries scored themselves high on institutional mechanism and enacting legislation on the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (Table A6.3). Ratification, reporting and research were the weakest areas, followed by information and dissemination. **Guinea** and **Swaziland** scored themselves 2 on ratification even if they have not ratified the Convention. In general, countries scored themselves lower on their performance to meet their commitments under this Convention compared to Conventions 100 and 111. **Mauritius** and **Niger** scored themselves above 85 percent on this indicator. **Rwanda** scored itself zero as it has not ratified the Convention.

## Promoting equitable access to economic resources

“Women shall have the right to fully enjoy their right to sustainable development. In this connection, the States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to:

- a) introduce the gender perspective in the national development planning procedures;
- b) ensure participation of women at all levels in the conceptualisation, decision-making, implementation and evaluation of development policies and programmes;
- c) promote women’s access to and control over productive resources such as land and guarantee their right to property;
- d) promote women’s access to credit, training, skills development and extension services at rural and urban levels in order to provide women with a higher quality of life and reduce the level of poverty among women.”<sup>14</sup>

In addition to inadequate time and opportunities to participate effectively in education and the formal labour force, one of the main factors affecting women’s economic autonomy is a lack of access to productive economic resources including land, capital and credit. This section of the report assesses countries’ performance in promoting equitable access to economic resources. The Access to resources component on the Gender Status Index includes the Means of production and Management Sub-components. The former includes indicators on ownership of rural land/farms, urban plots/houses and livestock, and access to credit. The extent of gender parity in the number of employers, own-account workers, high level civil servant and members of professional syndicates are addressed in the Management Sub-component. The African Women’s Progress Scoreboard covers engendering national poverty reduction strategies, and access to land, agricultural extension services and technology.

### Means of production

Women make essential contributions to agriculture and to the rural economy in most African countries. The share of women in the agricultural labour force range from 36 percent in **Niger** to over 60 percent in **Sierra Leone**<sup>15</sup>. However, they produce less per hectare on average than men. The main reasons for women’s lower agricultural productivity include differences in access and use of agricultural inputs; tenure security and incentives to invest in land improvements and adopt improved technologies; market and credit access; human and physical capital, and cultural and social norms that assigns different roles to females and males<sup>16</sup> (see Box 6.7). A report prepared by the Food and Agriculture Organization in 2011 indicated that if women had the same access to productive resources such as land, livestock, extension and financial services, and technology as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20–30 per cent which could raise total agricultural output in developing countries by between 2.5–4 per cent.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>14</sup> African Union (2003: Article 19 Right to Sustainable Development).

<sup>15</sup> Food and Agriculture Organization (2011a: p. 7-8)

<sup>16</sup> Kilic et al (2013 : p. 3).

<sup>17</sup> Food and Agriculture Organization (2011a).

Men control and operate, on average, 85 per cent of agricultural landholdings in sub-Saharan Africa, and as high as 95 per cent of agricultural landholdings in North Africa<sup>18</sup>. In addition, the land that women have access to in Africa, is often smaller and of lesser quality than that which is available to men<sup>19</sup>. Generally, on farms which grow both cash and food crops, the fields dedicated to food crops, in which women and girls are more likely to be active, are often located farther away.<sup>20</sup> This places an additional time burden on women. Goldstein and Udry found evidence to show that weak property rights for women in Ghana result in lower productivity for their land and lower output.<sup>21</sup>

#### BOX 6.7 GENDERED DIFFERENCES IN AGRICULTURE.

Compared with their male counterparts, women:

- operate smaller farms, on average only half to two-thirds as large;
- keep fewer livestock, typically of smaller breeds, and earn less from the livestock they do own;
- have a greater overall workload that includes a heavy burden of low-productivity activities like fetching water and firewood;
- have less education and less access to agricultural information and extension services;
- use less credit and other financial services;
- are much less likely to purchase inputs such as fertilizers, improved seeds and mechanical equipment;
- if employed, are more likely to be in part-time, seasonal and low-paying jobs; and
- receive lower wages for the same work, even when they have the same experience and qualifications.

**Source:** Food and Agriculture Organization (2011b).

#### *Access to land*

Land is the most important asset for agricultural communities. Chart 6.6a shows that a greater proportion of men owned rural land/farm than women in the seven countries where data is available. There is severe gender disparity for **Guinea, Seychelles and Sierra Leone**, and moderate gender disparity in **Mauritania, Niger and Zimbabwe**. In **Rwanda**, Law N° 22/99 (1999) allowed women to inherit from their parents' properties, and contributed to close gender gaps in land ownership. According to the AGDI Report for **Rwanda**, currently 88.8 percent of women own land compared to 89.5 percent of men, representing a GSI of 0.99 and gender parity.

Inheritance remains the main regime through which women acquire and control property. Some countries have adopted formal legislation to guarantee women's land rights. For example, **Mauritius** is a Forced Heirship jurisdiction, whereby men and women have an equal right to inheritance. The AGDI Report for **Rwanda**, indicated that around 90 percent of legally married couples are married under the community of property matrimonial regime for which Law N° 22/99 (1999) provides that spouses share equality in the common property in the event that the regime is altered.

<sup>18</sup> Food and Agriculture Organization (2011a: pp.23 & 25).

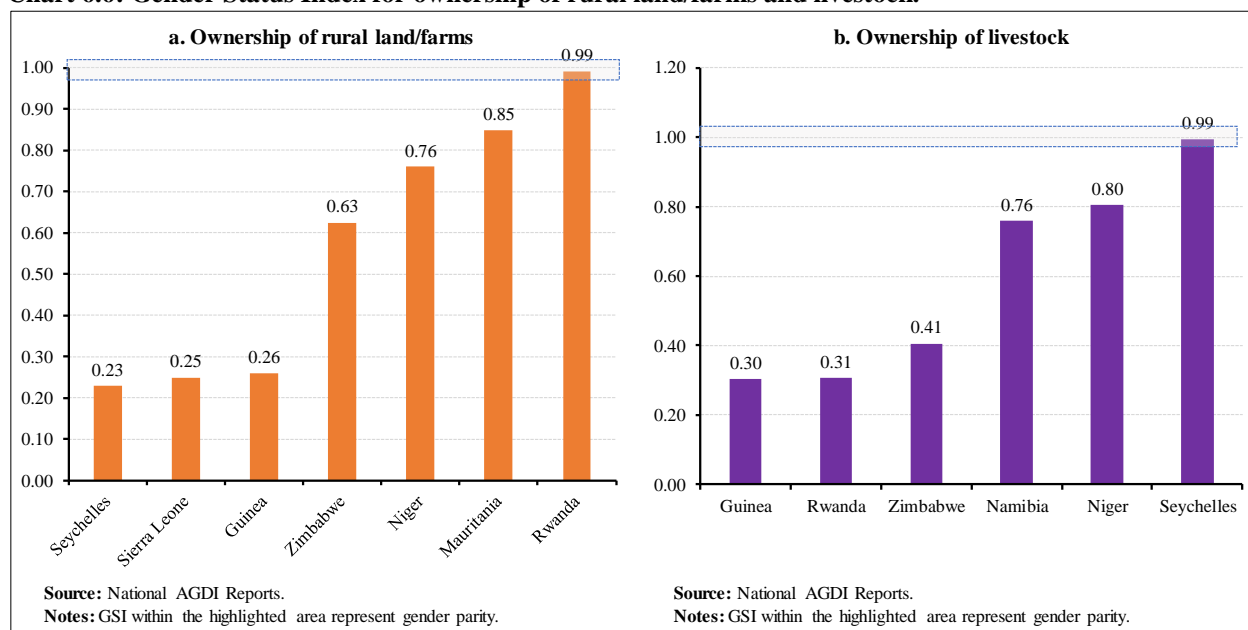
<sup>19</sup> Food and Agriculture Organization (2011a).

<sup>20</sup> Chicago Council. 2011. Girls Grow: A Vital Force in Rural Economies

<sup>21</sup> Goldstein and Udry (2008).



**Chart 6.6: Gender Status Index for ownership of rural land/farms and livestock.**



However, adoption of formal legislation need not guarantee women’s equal land rights. Implementation often remains problematic due to a number of factors, including women’s inadequate access to information, their poor representation on local decision-making bodies, and their lack of access to complementary assets and capital to make productive use of ownership of land.<sup>22</sup> As discussed in Chapter 2, customary laws that are recognized in some countries undermine statutory laws that give equal rights to women and men to property inheritance and ownership.

**[To update]** Overall, countries scored themselves high on involvement of civil society and information and dissemination in terms of promoting access to land on the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (Table A6.4). Weak areas from countries’ perspectives were development of a plan, budget allocation and human resources. **Namibia, Niger** and **Rwanda** scored themselves above 80 percent on this indicator, while **Guinea** and **Swaziland** scored themselves the lowest at 42 percent.

#### *Access to urban plots/houses*

Data on access to urban plots and houses is available for three countries covered by this report. There are large gender gaps in favour of female in **Niger** (GSI = 1.34), and in favour of males in **Guinea** and **Swaziland** (GSI = 0.26). Ownership of urban plots/houses is low for both sexes in **Guinea** (3 percent of females compared to 13 for males) and relatively high in **Niger** (50 percent of females compared to 37 for males). In **Swaziland**, females own 20 percent of all urban plots/houses.

#### *Access to livestock*

Particularly in rural areas, livestock is an important source of income, wealth and power for ploughing, land clearing and transportation, as well as a coping mechanism against shocks<sup>23</sup>. Chart 6.6b shows that there are gender inequalities for countries where data is available on the ownership of livestock. The inequalities are particularly acute in **Guinea, Rwanda** and **Zimbabwe** where the GSI values are below 0.5. There is

<sup>22</sup> Chicago Council (2011).

<sup>23</sup> Food and Agriculture Organization (2011a: p. 24)

moderate gender disparity at the expense of women in **Namibia** and **Niger**, and gender parity in **Seychelles**. According to the AGDI Report for **Rwanda**, men tend to own large animals such as cattle, goats, sheep and pigs, while women own smaller animals like chicken and rabbits.

#### *Access to credit*

Access to credit is important in enabling enterprises to grow and become more efficient. As a result of poverty and a lack of suitable assets to act as collateral, women tend to have less access to credit markets than the male counterparts. Although a larger proportion of males has access to credit for the three countries where data is available - **Guinea**, **Niger** and **Rwanda**-, the GSI on access to credit is above 0.85 in all three.

#### *Access to agricultural extension services*

Extension services provide information to farmers on the most effective agricultural technology and techniques with the ultimate aim to increase agricultural productivity. One of the factors that limit the access of female farmers to extension services is the lack of female extension agents. The AGDI Report for **Rwanda** reports that female extension agents represent less than 25 percent of all agents in all the agricultural zones across the country. In **Mauritius**, the Ministry of Agro Industry and Food Security has set up a Women and Youth Unit in the Extension Department of the Food and Agricultural Research and Extension Institute to promote agriculture among women and the youth, as well as to encourage women entrepreneurship. According to the AGDI Report for **Mauritius**, the Institute's support is provided mainly through the activities of Agricultural Clubs, training in agricultural production and value addition through agro-processing.

[To update] Overall, countries scored themselves high on policy commitment and institutional mechanism in terms of promoting access to agricultural extension services on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (Table A6.5). Weak areas were human resources, involvement of civil society, information and dissemination, monitoring and evaluation and accountability/transparency. **Mauritius** and **Rwanda** scored themselves above 80 percent on this indicator, while **Swaziland** scored itself the lowest at 67 percent.

#### *Access to technology*

Access to technology is important for improving the productive capacity of women and men. [To update] Overall, countries scored themselves high on policy commitment, development of a plan, setting targets and institutional mechanism in terms of promoting access to technology on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (Table A7.6). Countries scored themselves low on budget, of involvement civil society, information and dissemination and capacity enhancement. **Mauritius**, **Rwanda** and **South Africa** scored themselves at least 80 percent on this indicator, while **Swaziland** scored itself the lowest at 67 percent.

#### **BOX 6.7 PROMOTING ACCESS TO ICT IN MAURITIUS.**

One of Mauritius' national objective is to make ICT one of the major pillars of the economy. In line with that objective, the National Computer Board (NCB) aims to create an information society by promoting ICT literacy; democratizing access to ICT and free Internet services and promoting ICT for social development. The *National Broadband Policy 2012 – 2020* facilitates the provision of affordable, accessible, universal access to broadband infrastructure and services. Under the Community Empowerment Programme, NCB has set up 270 Computer Clubs to provide free access to ICT tools and Internet. Fifteen of these Clubs have been set up in Women's Clubs, contributing to improved communication, knowledge sharing, networking, electronic commerce activities and e-learning for women. NCB also operates three Cyber Caravans to provide basic ICT training to various segments of the community, including women.

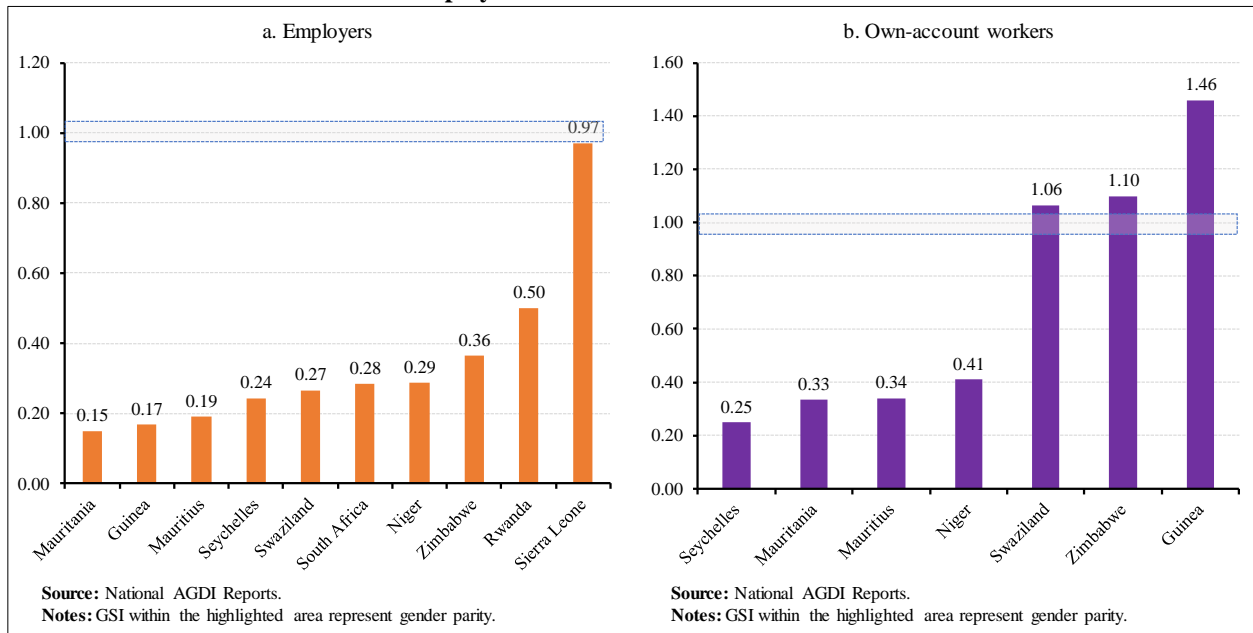
Source: AGDI Report for Mauritius.

## Management of resources

### Employers and Own-account workers

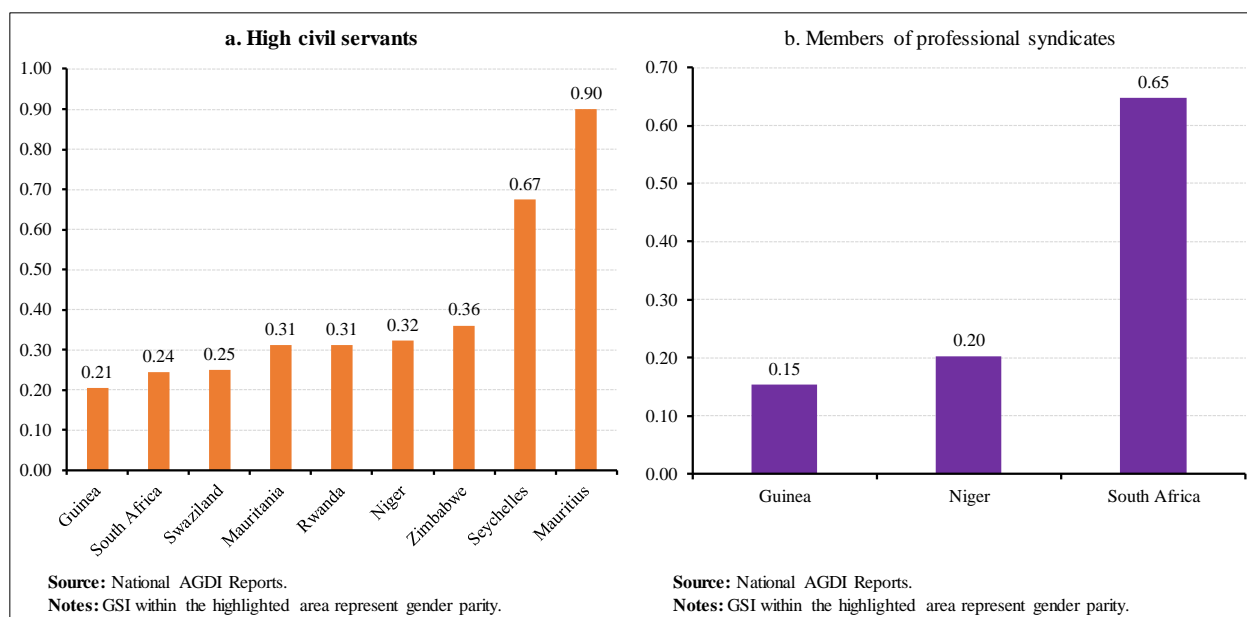
There is gender parity in the number of employers for **Sierra Leone** (Chart 6.7a). For the rest of the countries where data is available, there is significant gender disparity at the expense of women. There is a higher proportion of women own-account workers than men own-account workers in **Guinea**, **Swaziland** and **Zimbabwe**. In **Mauritania**, **Mauritius**, **Niger** and **Seychelles**, women are at a severe disadvantage compared to men when it comes to being employers.

Chart 6.7: Gender Status Index for employers and own-account workers.



### High civil servants and Members of professional syndicate

Apart from **Mauritius** and **Seychelles**, there is acute gender disparity in the number of high civil servants in countries where data is available (Chart 6.8a). The GSI ranges from 0.21 in **Guinea** to 0.9 in **Mauritius**. In terms of members of professional syndicates, the GSI for the three countries with data is 0.15 (**Guinea**), 0.2 (**Niger**) and 0.65 (**South Africa**).



## Engendering the national poverty reduction programme

**[To update]** Overall, countries scored themselves high on development of a plan and institutional mechanism in terms of integrating gender perspectives into their national development programmes on the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (Table A6.7). Policy commitment, setting of targets and involvement of civil society also received relatively high scores by countries, overall. Countries gave themselves low scores for budget, human resources, research, information and dissemination and capacity enhancement. **Mauritius** and **Rwanda** scored themselves 100 percent, while **Swaziland** scored itself the lowest at 62 percent. No country gave itself a zero on any of the areas on which scoring is based.

## Concluding remarks

This chapter reviewed the progress made by the countries covered by this report on the indicators under the Economic Power block of the African Gender and Development Index. It assessed the extent to which countries are meeting their commitments in promoting access to economic opportunities and resources.

**Women’s access to economic opportunities and resources.** Women continue to face limited access to economic opportunities and resources, including land and credit. In general, a lack of sex-disaggregated data is a major challenge in this area.

**Wages and income.** In general, there is gender disparity in favour of males in terms of wages and income, with a higher proportion of women in the lowest income brackets. This is a result of differences in education attainment, accumulated work experience, choice of educational specialization, occupational segregation and labour market institutions, which favour men in the main.

**Time use.** Women spend more time engaging in unpaid work than men, leaving them less time to devote to remunerative employment, participation in political and public life and learning.

**Employment.** Labour force participation rates are generally high for both women and men. This reflects poverty and a lack of access to social protection that leave them with limited choice but to work out of necessity. Limited access to education and vocational opportunities compared to men, contributes to women being overrepresented in low-paid domestic work with limited social protection and precarious working conditions. Female unemployment rates tend to be higher than that of males in countries where unemployment rates are high.

**Access to the means of production.** Differences in access and use of agricultural inputs, tenure security and incentives to invest in land improvements and adopt improved technologies, market and credit access, human and physical capital, and cultural and social norms that assigns different roles to females and males contribute to relatively low productivity for women in agriculture and the economy as a whole. The lack of participation of women in the delivery of services is important in limiting women's access to extension services.

**Management of resources.** Like for the other areas in the Economic Power block, sex-disaggregated data is not readily available on the indicators in this component. The data that is available suggests that women are disadvantaged in terms of managing economic resources for the countries covered by this report.

**Conventions of the International Labour Organizations.** **Liberia** is the only country covered by the report that has not ratified Convention 100 on equal pay for work of equal value. All countries have ratified Convention 111 on discrimination. Although **Sao Tome and Principe** is the only country that has ratified Convention 183 on maternity protection, other countries have taken some measures, which are in line with the main provisions of the Convention.

**Scoring on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.** Overall, countries score themselves well on policy commitment and institutional mechanism in terms of promoting women's access to economic opportunities and resources. Weak areas were information and dissemination, budget, research and capacity enhancement.

## Recommendations

Governments should undertake the following interventions to promote women's access to economic opportunities and resources.

- **Women's land rights and access to property ownership.** Strengthen women's property and land ownership and land rights by, among others, increasing tenure security and reforming family, property ownership and inheritance laws.
- **Women's entrepreneurship.** Undertake new measures and strengthen existing ones to promote women's entrepreneurship through greater access to skills, and financial and business support services.
- **Unpaid care work.** Undertake new measures and strengthen existing ones to reduce the burden of unpaid work through better infrastructure, particularly energy, water, sanitation, and transportation, the provision of affordable care services for children the elderly and the sick, and maternity, paternity and parental leave programmes.
- **Gender-sensitive delivery of public services.** Take steps to increase the number of women at the frontline of services delivery, including in agricultural extension.

- **International Labour Organization Conventions.** Ratify International Labour Organization's Convention 100, 111 and 183, and take steps to domesticate their provisions in the national legal framework.
- **Implementation and enforcement.** Strengthen the implementation of policies and programmes and the enforcement of legislation aimed at promoting women's access to economic opportunities and resources.
- **Awareness raising 1: Rights and services.** In collaboration with civil society organizations, undertake awareness-raising campaigns targeting the general public, the judiciary, law enforcement institutions and traditional and customary institutions on the legislation, policies and programmes to promote women's access to economic opportunities and resources.
- **Awareness raising 2: Conventions.** Conduct awareness-raising campaigns targeting employers' association, trade unions officials and the general public on the main provisions of the Conventions 100, 111 and 183 of the International Labour Conventions.
- **Resources.** Allocate adequate organizational, human, technical and financial resources to implement plans, programmes and policies, and enforce legislation aimed at promoting women's access to economic opportunities and resources.
- **Data.** Enhance the collection, analysis and dissemination of comprehensive data, including time-use data, disaggregated by sex, age, geographical location and educational attainment on income, participation in the labour market, and access to and management of economic resources.

# ANNEX

**Table A6.1: Scores for International Labour Organization Convention 100, 1951 on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad																	30	
Guinea	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	20	30	67
Guinea-Bissau																	30	
Liberia																	30	
Mauritania																	30	
Mauritius	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	27	30	90
Namibia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	23	30	77
Niger	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	24	30	80
Rwanda	2	2	2	2	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	2	0	2	2	22	30	73
STP																	30	
Seychelles	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	30	30	100
Sierra Leone																	30	
South Africa	2	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	19	30	63
Swaziland	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	24	30	80
Zimbabwe																	30	

Source: AGDI National Reports.

**Table A.6.2: Scores for International Labour Organization Convention 111, 1958 on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad																	30	
Guinea	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	23	30	77
Guinea-Bissau																	30	
Liberia																	30	
Mauritania																	30	
Mauritius	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	29	30	97
Namibia	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	23	30	77
Niger	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	26	30	87
Rwanda	2	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	2	0	2	2	20	30	67
STP																	30	
Seychelles	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	30	30	100



Sierra Leone																		<b>30</b>
South Africa	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	<b>19</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>63</b>
Swaziland	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	<b>24</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>80</b>
Zimbabwe																		<b>30</b>

Source: AGDI National Reports.

**Table A6.3: Scores for International Labour Organization Convention 183, 2000 on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad																		<b>30</b>
Guinea	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	<b>23</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>77</b>
Guinea-Bissau																		<b>30</b>
Liberia																		<b>30</b>
Mauritania																		<b>30</b>
Mauritius	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	<b>27</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>90</b>
Namibia	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	<b>18</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>60</b>
Niger	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	<b>26</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>87</b>
Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>0</b>
STP																		<b>30</b>
Seychelles	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	1	2	2	2	<b>18</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>60</b>
Sierra Leone																		<b>30</b>
South Africa	0	0	2	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	<b>16</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>53</b>
Swaziland	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	<b>18</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>60</b>
Zimbabwe																		<b>30</b>

Source: AGDI National Reports.

**Table A6.4: Scores for engendering national poverty reduction programme on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															<b>24</b>	
Guinea	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	<b>17</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>71</b>
Guinea-Bissau															<b>24</b>	
Liberia															<b>24</b>	
Mauritania															<b>24</b>	
Mauritius	X	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	<b>24</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>
Namibia	X	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	<b>17</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>71</b>
Niger															<b>24</b>	
Rwanda	x	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	<b>24</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>

Sao Tome and Principe																		24		
Seychelles																			24	
Sierra Leone																			24	
South Africa	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	16	26	62				
Swaziland	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	17	24	71				
Zimbabwe																			24	

Source: AGDI National Reports. Notes: Awaiting Niger's and Seychelles' scores.

**Table A6.5: Scores for access to agricultural extension services on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															24	
Guinea	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	17	24	71
Guinea-Bissau															24	
Liberia															24	
Mauritania															24	
Mauritius	x	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22	24	92
Namibia	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16	24	67
Niger															24	
Rwanda	x	2	1	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	21	24	88
STP															24	
Seychelles															24	
Sierra Leone															24	
South Africa	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	17	26	65
Swaziland	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16	24	67
Zimbabwe															24	

Source: AGDI National Reports. Notes: Awaiting Niger's and Seychelles' scores.

**Table A6.6: Scores for access to technology on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															24	
Guinea	x	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	18	24	75
Guinea-Bissau															24	
Liberia															24	
Mauritania															24	
Mauritius	x	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	23	24	96
Namibia	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	19	24	79
Niger															24	
Rwanda	x	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24	24	100
STP															24	

Seychelles																		24		
Sierra Leone																			24	
South Africa	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	24	26	80				
Swaziland	x	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16	24	67				
Zimbabwe																			24	

Source: AGDI National Reports. Notes: Awaiting Niger's and Seychelles' scores.

Table A6.7: Scores for access to land on the African Women's Progress Scoreboard.

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															26	
Guinea	X	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	10	24	42
Guinea-Bissau															26	
Liberia															26	
Mauritania															26	
Mauritius	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	16	26	62
Namibia	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	21	26	81
Niger	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	23	26	88
Rwanda	2	2	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24	26	92
Sao Tome and Principe															26	
Seychelles															26	
Sierra Leone															26	
South Africa	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	17	26	65
Swaziland	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	11	26	42
Zimbabwe															26	

Source: AGDI National Reports. Notes: Awaiting Seychelles' scores.

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