



Economic Commission
for Africa

The African Gender and Development Index 2011

Promoting gender equality in Africa



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Foreword

AFTER OVER 15 years of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, African States have certainly become more aware of the need to eliminate gender inequality. This is evidenced from the numerous initiatives in legal, policy, institutional, communication and other programmatic initiatives which have evolved over the years.

Nevertheless, governments have found it difficult to assess the actual extent of gender inequality in their societies, whether progress is being made and if so to what extent. To assist governments achieve the goal of measuring gender equality in a timely and efficient manner, the ECA has developed a monitoring mechanism, the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI). This tool allows policy makers to assess their own performance in implementing policies and programmes geared towards ending women's marginalization. It also aims to improve knowledge on African women's issues and concerns, through analysis and visibility.

The AGDI is a composite index made up of two parts. The first, the Gender Status Index (GSI), measures relative gender inequalities based on readily available quantitative indicators on education and health; income time use, employment, and access to resources; and formal and informal political representation. The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS), which is the second, measures progress in women's empowerment and advancement. The realization of the Index has been as a result of two years of intensive work. It is crucial that any new product undergoes rigorous testing and it has therefore been piloted in twelve countries (also known as the "AGDI Phase I countries"): Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tunisia, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania. The

detailed results of these trials have been published in the 2009 African Women's Report of the ECA. Overall, the piloting exercises confirmed a strong correlation between policy implementation and improvements in the situation of women. Where a country was scoring highly on specific issues in the African Women's Progress Scoreboard, the gap between men and women was shown to have narrowed in the Gender Status Index.

The ECA is pleased to note the expansion of the AGDI to an additional 18 countries. These are: Algeria, Botswana, Burundi, Cape Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, The Gambia, Kenya, Libya, Malawi, Mali, Morocco, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Senegal and Zambia. These are known as the "AGDI Phase II countries" on whom an AGDI consolidated report would be produced by the end of 2011.

Now that a tool exists for demonstrating such progress, the challenge is for African governments to go beyond commitments to implementation. If they do so, they will not only be enhancing their development programmes but getting closer to the Millennium Development Goal of promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women, as well as NEPAD's commitment to the same goal.

Abdoulie Janneh

Executive Secretary UNECA

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THE AGDI DATES back from eight years of reflection and consultation with a wide range of institutions and actors whose interest and commitment made its development possible. They provided useful and thoughtful comments which enriched the tool. The development of the AGDI would not have been possible without the support of ECA's Executive Secretary Abdoulie Janneh who emphasized the need for a tool to monitor the extent of gender inequality in African societies. The AGDI was developed under the leadership of Josephine Ouédraogo, the former Director of African Centre for Gender and Development (ACGD) and has since been under the management and supervision Ms. Thokozile Ruzvidzo the new Director of the Centre who has energised the team to propel the Index to greater use among African countries.

A number of people in ACGD played key roles throughout the development of the index during both phase I and II of the AGDI's evolution. They are:

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The ECA is indebted to the intellectual contributions of Saskia Wieringa and Jacques Charmes who assisted in the development of the AGDI and the definition of the indicators during both phases of the project. Saskia Wieringa is currently a Senior Research Fellow at the University of Amsterdam and a consultant on issues of women's rights and empowerment and HIV/AIDS. She has published widely on gender planning, women's empowerment and sexual politics. She is the convener of the Kartini Network on Asian women's gender studies and the President of the International Association for the Study of Sexuality, Society and Culture. Jacques Charmes is an economist and statistician, currently Professor of Economics (labour economics, national accounts) at the University of Versailles - St Quentin in Yvelines in France. He was recently appointed director of the Department of Social and Health Sciences at the French Scientific Research Institute for Development (IRD, formerly ORSTOM). Jacques has been involved in the design and analysis of labour force, living standards and informal sector surveys in Africa. He is also co-director of the statistics programme of Women in Informal Employment: Globalising and Organising.

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Acronyms

AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
ACGD	Africa Centre for Gender and Development
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AWPS	African Women's Progress Scoreboard
AWR	African Women's Report
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
GAD	Gender and Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEI	Gender Equality Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GSI	Gender Status Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HS	Household Survey
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ILO	International Labour Office
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LSMS	Living Standard Measurement Study
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NPRS	National Poverty Reduction Strategy
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OP	Optional Protocol
PC	Population Census
PFA	Platform for Action (Beijing, 1995)
POA	Programme of Action (Cairo, 1994)
SDA	Social Dimension of Adjustment Survey

SDGEA	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa
SNA	System of National Accounts
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
VAW	Violence Against Women
WB	World Bank
WEM	Women's Empowerment Matrix
WID	Women in Development

Introduction

The 2010 fifteenth anniversary of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action marked the end of a period which was full of challenges for the implementation of the Twelve Critical Areas of Concern that the world committed itself to.

The mission statement of the Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration clearly states that ‘The success of the Platform for Action will require a strong commitment on the part of Governments, international organizations and institutions at all levels. It will also require adequate mobilization of resources at the national and international levels as well as new and additional resources to the developing countries from all available funding mechanisms, including multilateral, bilateral and private sources for the advancement of women; financial resources to strengthen the capacity of national, sub regional, regional and international institutions; a commitment to equal rights, equal responsibilities and equal opportunities and to the equal participation of women and men in all national, regional and international bodies and policy-making processes; and the establishment or strengthening of mechanisms at all levels for accountability to the world’s women’. However, not only does responsibility for the implementation of the Platform for Action lie with the governments and the global community, heavy responsibility also lies with the United Nations organisations to follow-up the implementation and monitoring of the Beijing Platform for Action. The Millennium Declaration reconfirmed the world’s commitment to gender equality.

In fulfilling its mandate to follow-up the translation of the Beijing commitments and the 8 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to action, in the Africa Region, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) has not only endeavoured to stimulate socio-economic development by ‘integrating’ women into development

processes but has also placed emphasis on monitoring and evaluating progress. Women have long been ‘integrated’ in all aspects of social, cultural, political and economic life, albeit under subordinate conditions. It is these unequal conditions that concern the ECA. Women’s progress into full and equal participation in all aspects of society is critically important for all aspects of human development. As the 1995 Human Development Report concluded, ‘human development if not engendered is endangered’. In its 2001 study ‘Engendering Development’, the World Bank concluded that while poverty exacerbates gender disparities, on the other hand gender inequalities also hinder development (2001: iii). Its 2007 Global Monitoring Report of the Millennium Development Goals reiterated this insight: ‘Poverty incidence tends to be lower in countries with more gender equality’.¹ However, women’s empowerment and progress is also an important goal in itself, as stated in the MDG3, ‘to promote gender equality and empower women’.

To facilitate an effective monitoring mechanism on gender equality and women’s advancement, the ECA introduced the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI), designed to measure the gap in the status of women and men in Africa and to assess the progress made by African governments in implementing the gender policies they have developed. The AGDI is a composite index consisting of two parts, a Gender Status Index (GSI) and the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (AWPS), rather than a collection of individual statistics. As an index, it gives a clearer political message and allows for easier comparison between countries.

The AGDI incorporates the major international and African charters and conventions, including the MDGs and integrates a number of variables that have a particular salience for African men and women. The ECA feels that the

1) *Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration – Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, China 4- 7, United Nations, Department of Public Information, P18*

existing global instruments used to measure gender and development issues and women's empowerment should be expanded to better reflect the realities of women and men on the African continent, so as to assess the gender gap in each African country and to help governments improve their performance on gender equality and equity.

The AGDI is a measure that focuses on the African continent. It is specifically an African index in three respects. First it takes into account the major African charters and documents that have a bearing on gender relations. Second it identifies gender gaps in the selected power blocks and facilitates the review of the underlying gender relations in Africa. Third, its findings will be specifically from the African countries, based on nationally available statistics.

The AGDI is constructed as a tool for women's empowerment and gender equality and is based on an analysis of gender gaps and the underlying gender relations in Africa. Effective gender policies can work towards greater gender justice and equality. Gender equality does not mean sameness between men and women, but refers to equality of rights, participation, opportunities, voice and access and control over resources. Gender relations are relations of social inequality. They are present in all aspects of life. Gender is related both to the use of public space and the domestic domain. The AGDI will present the level of inequality that exists between women and men through the gaps in the various indicators under review.

In developing the AGDI, the ECA hopes to achieve a number of objectives. In the first place, to provide African Governments with data and information on the status of gender equality and the effects of their gender policies in reducing women's marginalisation. The AGDI will measure the gender gap between women and men irrespective of a country's level of socio-economic

development based on nationally available data. Secondly most African countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), though many have made reservations that have far reaching consequences. Likewise some states have ratified other international and regional documents, which are built on CEDAW, such as the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) (Cairo 1994), the Platform for Action drawn up after the 1995 fourth Women's World Conference in Beijing the 2003 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of women in Africa and the Millennium Declaration. African states have also been actively involved in the aftermath of these conferences and the 'post' conferences in which progress on the implementation of these documents have been assessed. The AGDI thus facilitates monitoring of progress being made in this respect on the African continent. The index engenders a Rights Based Approach to the extent that it represents an "X-Ray" of the status of women in a given country, affording opportunities for both rights holders and duty bearers to appreciate and address short falls in women's rights.

The third objective is to democratize statistics and to provide both gender planners and NGO's with a monitoring tool that is effective, valid, reliable and easy to use. Lastly the AGDI is intended as a tool that is not only able to measure progress in quantitative ways, but also in qualitative terms. This combination of 'hard' data as contained in the Gender Status Index, and 'soft' data in the African Women's Progress Scoreboard capture the complex and dynamic reality of the lives of African women.

The scope of the African Gender and Development index



1.1 Introduction

THE AGDI CONSISTS of two parts, the Gender Status Index (GSI) and The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS). The GSI covers those aspects of gender relations that can be measured quantitatively, whereas the AWPS captures qualitative issues in relation to the performance of gender policies of African governments. By assessing progress on a three-point scale these qualitative issues can be measured quantitatively. The scoreboard takes into account all major international and African conventions and charters that address women's concerns, including the MDG's. The AGDI is best used in combination with other indices that measure human development and poverty and that are related to a country's national income, such as the Human Development Index (HDI) and the Human Poverty Index (HPI). These indices are computed annually by the UNDP. Both the GSI and the AWPS employ a user-friendly methodology, so that they can easily be adopted by both gender planners in governments, NGO's as well as experts, and donors. It encapsulates a wide range of gender issues, integrating many more variables than has been the case with other international tools previously developed.

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have been the first global instruments to demonstrate that the level of gender equality in a country is not solely dependent upon a country's economic performance. However, the GDI and GEM are still closely tied to a country's Gross

Domestic Product (GDP). Moreover the international database used by the UNDP is not always adequate to capture African realities. By focusing on quantitative issues the GDI and the GEM ignore qualitative issues such as women's rights. The AGDI builds on the UNDP indices by permitting an assessment of a country's gender status out side of the context of its GDP and further by making use of data sets that are nationally available. More distinctively and uniquely, the AWPS allows for a qualitative assessment of the social, economic, political and cultural rights of women in a given country.

In the annual GDI reports very few African countries rank close to or below number 100. In 2009 only 13 African countries were included in the GEM. For all other African countries there were not sufficient international data available to compute the GEM. In order to design adequate gender policies it is imperative that up to date, sufficient and relevant data are available. The AGDI provides these data and allows a comparison of the gender gap and government performance among African countries rather than with countries that have widely different development realities. African countries are thus given an opportunity to learn from good practices in neighboring countries that share a comparable socio-economic profile.

The GSI measures only the gender gap in countries. It assesses whether women have the same opportunities as men have to earn an income, and whether they have the same access to resources. It indicates whether women

have the same opportunities as men have to obtain an education and to live healthy lives. Furthermore, it assesses whether women have the same possibilities as men to achieve positions of power in both public and private sector and in civil society. The AWPS also allows a comparison of government performance on issues that have been globally and regionally agreed to be important for women's progress, including women's rights. Again, the AWPS assessment and its outcomes are not dependent or based on a country's national income.

The AGDI is built on the basis of the concepts of gender and power/empowerment as referred to in the introduction. Here the concepts of gender and women's empowerment are understood in a holistic way, incorporating the

full range of concerns which confront women, from the physical to the socio-cultural, religious, legal, political and economic issues (Wieringa, 1998)¹. The processes of empowerment of both women and men are related to revealing the unjust power of existing gender relations, critically challenging them, and creatively trying to shape different social relations. The AGDI aims to provide building blocks that can help these processes. Both the GSI and the AWPS have three blocks. The first block 'Social Power' explicitly refers to 'capabilities', the second 'block on 'Economic Power' refers to 'opportunities', and the third one on 'Political Power' to 'agency' or ability to influence and contribute to outcomes: organisation, bargaining power, or 'voice'. The AWPS has a fourth block, which focuses on women's rights.

1.2 Methodology

THE PROCESS OF the development of the AGDI included the following activities:

i. *Definition of the theoretical Framework:*

This activity included a review of existing indices and identification of their strengths and limitations as the first step towards defining the AGDI. The process also included reviewing global and regional agreements and conventions that African states are signatory to and specifically looking at the monitoring mechanisms for these. This activity was accomplished with the assistance of two experts, with experience in gender and women's issues, and statistics.

Based on the desk analysis of existing gender indices, the theoretical framework and the indicators of the AGDI were defined.

ii. *The working group*

The draft AGDI was subsequently presented for scrutiny to a working group of international experts. This working group was introduced in the methodology to ensure transparency and quality control. The experts included statisticians, economists, gender and development specialists and social development practitioners.

Relevant Divisions in ECA provided technical advice, while the working group assisted in reviewing and redefining the index.

iii. *The Regional Advisory Panel*

After the rigorous review by the working group, the AGDI was presented to a panel of advisors for validation. The panel was composed of representatives from 12 countries where the index would be tried as well as representatives from UNFPA, The World Bank and UNIFEM. The initial indicators proposed were numerous and of these a manageable size were selected for the final AGDI. ECA hopes when the AGDI is adopted in various countries, these can add indicators that are relevant to their specific situation.

This AGDI is a regional index and endeavors to take the regional context into consideration. The Regional Advisory Group played an important role in reviewing and validating the draft African Gender and Development Index on the basis of the following criteria:

Scope of the index;

- Relevance of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard in measuring progress in addressing gender inequality in Africa;
- Relevance of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard in focusing on issues specific to the African continent;
- Technical efficiency of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard globally;
- Robustness and applicability of the Gender Status Index and African Women's Progress Scoreboard; and

2) *Rethinking Gender Planning. A Critical Discussion on the Concept of Gender. In Journal for Gender, Technology and Development, AIT, Thailand 21-37.t*

- Choice of indicators and whether they incorporate all the fundamental variables to measure gender inequality in Africa as defined within the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action.

iv. *Field Trials*

The AGDI has been piloted in all the sub-regions of Africa. The selected countries included:

TABLE 1.1

Sub-region	Countries
East Africa	Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania
West Africa	Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana
Central Africa	Cameroon
Southern Africa	South Africa, Mozambique
North Africa	Egypt, Tunisia
Horn of Africa	Ethiopia
Islands	Madagascar

The trials were undertaken by selected independent institutions in each of these 12 countries. To test the index for workability at national level, representatives from these selected research institutions, consisting of statisticians, economists and gender specialists were invited to review the index prior to the pilot exercises.

The trials included collection and analysis of data for the GSI, interviewing relevant government departments as well as examining documents to verify governments' performance in relation to the scoreboard. It was important to pilot the AGDI to confirm its applicability, relevance of the indicators, availability of the data at national level and to determine if the process would be transparent and inclusive of all major stakeholders. The results of the trials have been published in the AWR 2009.

The composition of each advisory panel per country reinforces and addresses the holistic nature of both international instruments on the rights of women in addition to that of the three blocks of the AGDI itself. It seeks to underscore the responsibility of each sector Ministry towards the achievement of women's rights. In each of the countries therefore a national advisory panel was set up comprising representatives from the following ministries or their equivalents: National Machinery for Women's Affairs or gender, health, agriculture, education,

justice and national bureau of statistics. It was also a requirement to include two independent experts with experience in gender and development in addition to an NGO representative.¹

The terms of reference of the National Advisory Panel were the following:

- Agreeing on the AGDI Country Road Map;
- Facilitating the work of the research institution or team during the AGDI field exercise by easing the collection of national data that is accurate of high quality and by reviewing the research methodology;
- Validating the results upon completion and to ensure that an AGDI country report of the highest quality is produced; and
- Ensuring localization of the AGDI and its integration into national development.

The effect of having the joint collaboration of national institutions/research teams and advisory panels has been to make certain of the collection of quality data directly from national data banks, guarantee national ownership of the process and foster close collaboration between governments and civil society. The inclusion of an independent expert within the research team has also been to ensure objective reviews of governments' performance.

3) *The AGDI process is however founded on national ownership and therefore takes account of country specificities and local conditions. For e.g. some countries have separate ministries of planning and finance, whilst others operate separate or joint institutions responsible for tertiary, secondary, technical, informal and primary education. The composition of a panel per country would be sensitive to such variations.*

1.3 Strengths and weaknesses of the AGDI

THE MAJOR STRENGTHS of the AGDI are the following.

- The AGDI is a combination of quantitative and qualitative indicators which reflect global and regional obligations.
- It includes the measurement of policies to promote women's rights and to combat violence against women, issues not addressed in other indices.
- The GSI focuses on the quantitative aspects of gender relations. It is divided in three blocks: social, economic and political aspects.
- Each of these blocks receives the same weight as ECA feels that these aspects of power relations are interrelated and that it is impossible to give one block a preferential weight and to determine an order of causality or priority.
- The GSI measures issues that so far are not included (or taken into account) in internationally comparative indices such as time use, unpaid care work and ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land. It also covers a broad range of levels political participation, including local councils. It is one of the most comprehensive gender indices at a global level.
- This is made possible because data are collected at the national level and that many of these data are not available internationally. The other gender indices are all based on international databases. Collecting national data may avoid the time lapse the use of international data sets entails.
- The AGDI measures issues of particular relevance to the African context, using African policy documents such as the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa and the African Charter on the Rights of the Child. It can thus become a tool for stimulating the monitoring of gender policies based on priorities set by African nations.
- The AGDI is useful to monitor both gender equality and women's empowerment, and thus can be applied to MDG3.
- The AGDI captures gender equality, economic and social justice, and reproductive rights, ensuring that these issues are not fragmented but considered in a holistic way.
- It is easy to use so that the AGDI brings statistics to the level where they are most useful, such as gender desks, and across civil society.
- It allows Governments and civil society alike to evaluate good practices in neighbouring countries and learn from them.

As any index the AGDI also has particular weaknesses.

- The AGDI does not assess gender relations in reference to absolute levels of well being. It only measures the gender gap, irrespective of the general socio-economic performance of a country. The AGDI must thus be used in combination with measures that do indicate such absolute levels, such as the Human Development Index (HDI) or the HPI.
- Although the AGDI captures a wider range of gender concerns than indices currently in use, there are still gaps in issues such as identity and personal choice that are not covered.
- The AGDI uses national data which allows the research teams to present a wider set of data than are used in the other indices, and that the data are more recent than data from these indices. However not all data that the AGDI ideally requires are always available and the use of national data may entail problems of harmonisation of these data.
- The AGDI focuses only on gender equality and the status of women. It does not refer to other intersecting factors of oppression, such as race, ethnicity, religion, ability, the rural/urban gap and age.

1.4 Periodic reviews of the AGDI

THE AGDI OPERATES as a dynamic tool in order to respond to changes in national, regional, sub regional and global situations. Regular reviews of its contents will therefore be carried out to ensure its continued relevance and response. Following the conclusion of its design in 2004 a review of the index was carried out from 23-25

March 2010, once again by a group international experts and countries which benefited from the piloting of its use. The outcome of this review is the present edition of this AGDI booklet which gives greater emphasis to MDG indicators and other international and regional human rights instruments.

1.5 Domestication and adaptation

BEING A REGIONAL tool notwithstanding, the ultimate goal is to ensure full domestication of the AGDI and its consequent integration into national development planning and local data collection and analysis. The tool can be integrated into national development planning through several ways, such as by means of National Poverty Reduction Strategies,

MDG reporting, CEDAW reporting and preparation of Human Development Reports. Ownership of the process and substance are critical and it is expected that countries would localise and even decentralise the process by using their own names (e.g. Kenya Gender Development Index or Tunisia Gender Development Index).

1.6 Assumptions

IN CONCEPTUALISING THE AGDI a number of assumptions have been made:

- That gender equality and equity are desirable imperatives for development.
- That the processes related to women's empowerment have both quantitative and qualitative dimensions and that to capture these dimensions for policy purposes it is essential to measure both aspects.

No assumptions are made that higher scores on the AGDI automatically lead to women's empowerment or to the increase of women's choices at all levels. Women's empowerment is not a linear process. There are various pathways to empowerment, which are culturally specific. The relation between the scores on the AGDI and women's equity and greater gender justice in any particular national context has to be analysed in greater complexity than the AGDI allows.

However, the AGDI will provide the information that can form a basis for such analyses, by indicating critical areas of concern, measuring the effects of gender policies, and by comparing the performances of African countries. National reports will be able to provide more specificity in this regard. There are various elements in the long process of women's empowerment such as the level of gender consciousness in a given society, the awareness of viable alternatives to inequalities and access to resources. The AGDI will help raise gender awareness and present alternatives in the form of good practices from neighbouring countries. In this way the AGDI will also help in giving women a voice to discuss gender inequalities, and it may help them to acquire the agency to start a process of meaningful and purposeful intervention. Women should be accepted as full and equal partners at all levels where decisions are made about their lives. This is why the AGDI looks at a broad range of decision-making structures, from the community level to national parliaments.

The value added of the AGDI



2.1 Cross-dimensional issues

THE COMPOSITE NATURE of the AGDI facilitates comparative analysis of qualitative and quantitative assessments, indicative of the fact that one segment of the analysis would not suffice in determining the performance of a country. In some situations, a country may reflect poorly under the GSI, while scoring impressively under the AWPS and vice-versa. Such discrepancies would have to be examined and scrutinized to determine the causes and implications and

Linkages between these two blocks may also be drawn with the economic power block, through which an assessment may be made of the impact of a situation such

what gaps need to be filled to address the identified inconsistencies or deficiencies.

There are also various connecting threads between the blocks. An example of this are the correlations between social power (capabilities) and political power (agency), from which one can make verifications of the linkages between the education status of women and their visibility in decision-making (e.g. box 2.1).

as poverty on access to education, health and effective participation.

BOX 2.1: Synergies between social and economic status of women in Ethiopia

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

(Source: Ethiopia DHS, 2006:81)

2.2 Synergies with the MDGs, PRSPs and NEPAD

FOR THE AGDI to be effective, it must be relevant to the pursuit of national, global and regional development targets. This section is devoted to an appreciation of the

usefulness of the AGDI as a monitoring tool of the gender dimensions of settings such as the MDGs, NEPAD and National Development Planning Frameworks (see fig. 2.1).

2.2.1 Using the AGDI, MDGs⁴ and PRSPs for pro-poor planning, implementation and monitoring

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

By Resolution 60/265 of 2006 which was a follow up to the 2005 UN World Summit and Midterm Review of the Progress towards the MDGs, the UN Secretary General, urged countries experiencing extreme poverty to prepare and implement MDG-based Poverty Reduction Strategies or National Development Plans.⁵ As of March 2008, forty-one countries had developed MDG-consistent poverty reduction strategies or national development plans, of varying comprehensiveness and efficacy.⁶ The formulation and implementation of these set of second generation of these frameworks provide a window of opportunity to design programmes and interventions that address only long term distributional consequences of economic growth (Gauci, 2009).

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

The interface between the MDGs and the AGDI

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) form the world's major commitment to the promotion of an action agenda which emphasizes sustainable, human development as the key to fulfilling social and economic progress. All 191 Member States of the United Nations have pledged to achieve these goals by the year 2015. Addressing poverty and the other goals outlined is only possible if a holistic, gender-sensitive approach is adopted. Although only one goal explicitly addresses gender equality and women's empowerment (MDG 3), and MDG 5 addresses maternal mortality, gender issues are key to achieving success on the other MDG's as well. For ease of appreciation of the interface between the AGDI and the MDGs, the latter are listed as follows:

1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;
2. Achieve universal primary education;
3. Promote gender equality and empower women;
4. Reduce child mortality;
5. Improve maternal mortality;
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
7. Ensure environmental sustainability;
8. Develop a global partnership for development.

They are accompanied by concrete targets and indicators. Although the AGDI is not intended to report directly on the MDGs it does serve as a critical tool for reporting on the gender dimensions of the MDGs. Both in a direct sense, where indicators such as income, education, child health and HIV/AIDS are concerned but also in a more holistic way, where issues such as violence against women and customary laws in which gender inequality are entrenched, are addressed. Women, half of the world's population, can only be empowered to participate fully in the immense effort needed to eradicate poverty and ensure environmental sustainability when they can act in an environment without fear and provided with the

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

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

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

tools (land rights, political power, access to technology) to act meaningfully. The next sections outline how the AGDI and MDGs interact.

The MDGs and the social block

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

The report findings draw a link between MDG 1, "Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger and child health", with particular reference to the *prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age* (MDG 1, Target 1.C, indicator 1.8). The focus for the GSI is also underweight children under-five years of age. Other AGDI child health issues are captured under MDG 4, "Reduce child mortality". In this instance, the GSI focuses on one MDG indicator, that of the under-five mortality rate. This is in addition to: stunting under 5, and underweight under 5.

The AWPS also specifically addresses issues captured under Goal 5, "Improve maternal health", through an assessment of implementation of ICPD commitments and ILO Convention 183 on maternity protection at the workplace. Another relevant dimension of the MDGs to

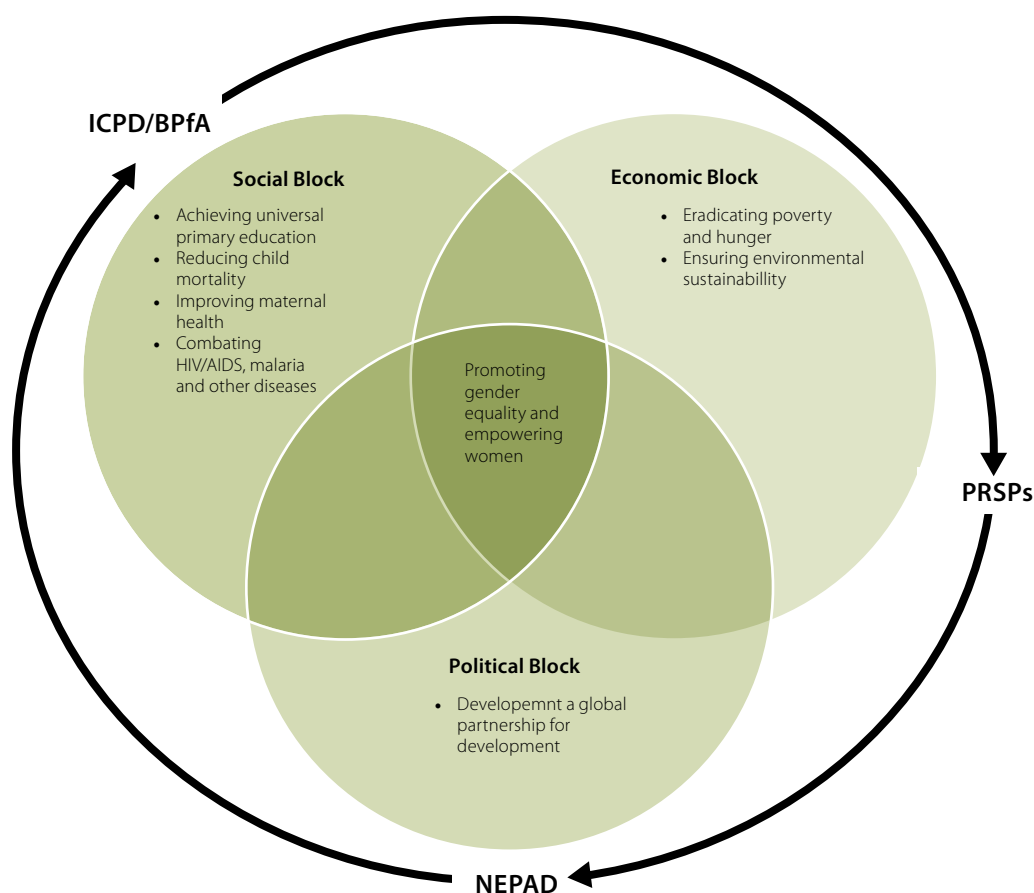
the social block is Goal 6, "Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases". The GSI facilitates appraisal of this goal's implementation by examining HIV/AIDS prevalence by sex among the population 15-24 years, replicating indicator 6.1 of MDG 6. Although not provided for in the AWPS, opportunities for assessing other issues of concern such as the proportion of the population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS are also provided.

The MDGs and the economic block

MDG commitments related to the economic block are captured under Goals 1, 3, and 7 ("Eradicate extreme hunger and poverty", "Promote gender equality and empower women"; and "Ensure environmental sustainability" respectively). All the targets under the first Goal are relevant as they address tackling poverty, hunger, and *achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*. Additional indicators in the GSI include *share of women in non-agricultural wage, share of women under the poverty line and youth unemployment rate*.

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

FIGURE 2.2.1: Synergies between the AGDI (ICPD and BPfA), MDGs, PRSPs and NEPAD



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

Some aspects of Goal 7 are covered in the AWPS review of government performance in the promoting women's access to agricultural extension services and land. Women's ownership of rural/urban plots, houses or land as compared to men's are also measured in the GSI.

The MDGs and the political block

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

of a new indicator of participation in traditional politics and traditional and religious justice.

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

Goal 8 is of critical importance to all the MDGs and AGDI indicators. Frameworks such as the BPfA and ICPD make demands for increasing Official Development Assistance (ODA) for the achievement of targets. The targets for MDG 8 place special emphasis on Least Developed Countries, most of which are in Africa. The related AGDI data will be a valuable asset for sound policy-making and targeted programming towards sustainable development. Financing for gender equality was a critical component of the 2008 African Development Forum (ADF), which observed that resource inadequacy was an obstacle to effective implementation of commitments to gender equality. It therefore, made a call on the international community and governments to intensify efforts at galvanizing resources (box 2.2.1).

BOX 2.2.1: Multilateral cooperation to ameliorate impact of recession on women

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

(Source: ADF Outcome Document, 2008. Para.21)

Indeed, one could readily argue that this crisis makes it all the more imperative to integrate women and gender equality issues into all economic stimulus arrangements.

The acceptance of the index by a number of development partners is also significant in this context in several ways. Firstly, at the July 2005 meeting of ECOSOC, the European Union commended the AGDI as a tool to ‘*help policy makers better assess how they are achieving compliance with*

international norms and legislation in respect of gender parity’. Secondly, the 8th Meeting of the Africa Partnership Forum of Berlin 22-23 May 2007 described it as an effective measurement of government performance in the fulfillment of women’s rights. Thirdly, the African Union endorsed the AGDI as a vital source of information for the reporting processes of Heads of States during the launch of the index at the ADF IV of 2004.

2.2.2 The AGDI and NEPAD

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

“Promoting the role of women in social and economic development by reinforcing their capacity in the domains of education and training; by the development of revenue-generating activities through facilitating access to credit;

and by assuring their participation in the political and economic life of African countries.” (NEPAD, Para. 49)

The APRM (African Peer Review Mechanism) is a core feature of NEPAD and serves as a voluntary peer accountability framework for African countries to establish their commitment to the goals of this partnership. States are required to report on their achievements along four thematic lines; namely democracy and good political governance, economic governance and management, corporate governance, and socio-economic development. The APRM reporting process requires governments to take account of gender equality issues and includes guiding questions to facilitate this assessment. Objective 7 of this self-assessment process clearly indicates African government responsibilities in this area (box 2.2.2).

BOX 2.2.2: Synergies between the APRM and AGDI

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

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

The APRM framework includes a number of international treaties. This is done with the objective that the extents to which responsive institutional arrangements in addition to human and financial capacity for implementation are in place are determined. It is noteworthy that among the treaties included in the APRM assessment are: CEDAW; the Declaration on Violence Against Women; the Convention on the Political Rights of Women; UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security; and the African Protocol on Women's Rights.

The AGDI is also relevant within the context of NEPAD and APRM, given that the latter is based on thematic areas of relevance to women's empowerment. Key among these is the issue of governance, which under the AWPS, is addressed by assessing the relevance, efficiency and impact of policies, plans, budget allocation, and monitoring and evaluation, to address gender gaps and social demands. At its meeting on 12 October 2002 in Johannesburg, the Committee on Women and Development⁷ (CWD) endorsed the use of the AGDI within the context of the NEPAD Peer Review Mechanism as a tool to measure the status of gender inequality and the situation of women in Africa.

The AWPS is therefore appropriate in as much as it provides a framework for assessing the adequacy of state responses to issues of particular importance to African women. This is inclusive of government efforts to involve Civil Society Organizations and in providing space for democratic governance. The index can therefore serve as a means of measuring gender-related targets set out under the NEPAD process.

Lack of sex-disaggregated data makes progress on poverty eradication (MDG 1) and ensuring environmental stability (MDG 7) difficult to monitor, as it conceals inequalities between the sexes and ignores power relations. Many decisions in these critical areas are taken at the household level and it is thus vitally important to assess the intra-household resources and capabilities that impact the responses to policies implemented at higher levels. The 2008 World Development Report stressed that when women have ownership and control over resources (land, credit) and higher education levels it leads to higher productivity. Yet discriminatory laws and practices may impede access of women to land and other resources. The AGDI measures both the gender gap in income levels and education in the GSI and the (eradication of) discriminatory laws and women's access to land in the AWPS.

Likewise progress on reducing child mortality (MDG 4), maternal mortality (MDG 5) and on combating infectious diseases can only be monitored when sex/disaggregated data are available. Both quantitative data are needed, on incidence for instance and stunting, and on qualitative data on policies affecting these goals. The AGDI is relevant for the measuring the progress on the MDGs in yet another way, in that it measures the time spent on both productive activities and care work: overburdening and time poverty can thus be made visible

In several indicators the AGDI, particularly the AWPS, assesses the level of gender-based violence. Gender based violence against women is a factor negatively impacting women's access to resources, their employability,

7) *The Committee on Women and Development is an advisory body of the Economic Commission for Africa and African Center for Gender and Development, composed of African Ministers and Experts.*

their school careers, child and maternal mortality, their chances of being infected with an infectious disease and their achieving the political power to fight for sustainability and to participate in development efforts.

Lack of sex-disaggregated data hampers the ability to monitor progress, learn from successes and to make informed decisions to scale up investments and tighten policies. The AGDI will help African governments and international organizations to propose more effective measure to achieve the MDGs.

Gender status index (GSI)



3.1 Introduction

THE GENDER STATUS Index as indicated in Chapter 1 is a measure of relative gender equalities, capturing gender related issues in a quantitative manner. The Gender Status Index is based on three blocks, social power, economic power and political power.

The first block, which is ‘**social power**’, includes indicators on education and health; the second block refers to ‘**economic power**’ and contains indicators on income, time use, employment and access to resources; the third block refers to ‘**political power**’ and consists of indicators on political power within the private and public spheres.

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. In view of the fact that the GSI measures gaps in equality between men and women in quantitative terms, issues which are more specific to such as maternal mortality are not included in the GSI but in the scoreboard.⁸

The various indicators receive equal weight within the particular sub-component and component. This principle is upheld for the components within each block. Thus the three blocks receive an equal weight in computing the GSI.

The proposal is to use simple indicators comparing women’s achievement to men’s, and ignore population-weighted harmonic means as a basis of computation. In this way the GSI is kept as simple as possible, as one of the aims of the index is to democratise and simplify statistics. In countries where there is a serious demographic problem and where the balance between women and men is heavily distorted, the GSI can be adapted so that weighed averages between women and men can be used. As often as possible, data disaggregated by age group, urban/rural and race where available and relevant (e.g. in South Africa, race is relevant) must be included in the national reports.

Preference is given to flow indicators (with few exceptions: life expectancy (an indicator which was included in the first trial countries, but abandoned in the next stage) and literacy): for instance the enrolment rates (flow indicators) have an impact on the literacy rate. This is done so as to enable policy makers and activists to see direct results of particular interventions: a policy measure (for instance gratuity of school fees for girls) can have a direct and immediate impact on enrolment rates (flow indicator), but only an indirect one and in the long run on female literacy (stock indicator). This is done so as to enable policy makers and activists to see direct results of particular interventions.

8) The AWPS therefore would deal with the social cultural and institutional barriers to maternal health.

3.2 Components of the Gender Status Index

THE GSI IS divided into three components, following Sen's⁹ division into capabilities, opportunities and agency. Sen's vision also underlies the Human Development Reports and is the basis of the construction of the GDI. According to Sen, to measure the 'success' of development processes it is not sufficient to indicate an increase in income alone. The three components mentioned above must be included as well. Therefore he suggests that the capabilities people have to enter into a development process are indicated as follows; first people must be healthy and knowledgeable; second, they must have sufficient economic opportunities and third they must have voice, or political power (agency) to successfully engage in development processes.

A list of 42 indicators (divided into 7 components and 12 sub-components) was previously agreed upon after discussions by the working group and the Regional Advisory Panel for the first phase of the AGDI rollout (as discussed in chapter 1). Further to the 12 countries trials and the expert review meeting in March 2010, in addition to an AGDI training provided to Phase II countries, a new list of 44 indicators (divided into 7 components and 13 sub-components) agreed upon after taking the lessons of the first stage of implementation of the AGDI into account. Table 3.1 below synthesises the full list of indicators as well as possible sources of data collection.

The preparation of the GSI gave opportunities for extended discussions on which indicators to select for measuring gender inequalities. The current list of 44 indicators results from a balance between the availability of data or variables required and the necessity to cover all major domains and issues where gender inequalities are most prominent. The project and the construction of the GSI has been and will also be used to point out the gaps in data collection. GSI outcomes should therefore also be used for lobbying for better data collection.

Among the indicators that were initially proposed but finally not used, several deserve special mention. In the education component, enrolment variations in the 'Arts' and 'Science' or 'natural' and 'human' sciences at both secondary and tertiary levels; access to means of production, among which agricultural inputs, information

technologies and communication, market information, access to professional training; numbers of women and men registered on electoral rolls and numbers of women and men who have identity cards. However, there is a limit to the number of indicators that can be included in the GSI. The value added of each additional indicator had to be seriously addressed, especially in relation to the possible correlation between indicators, the necessary clear distinction between dependent and independent variables and the necessity to avoid redundancies. The current list of indicators represents a good balance between these contradictory tendencies. These other important indicators can be included at national level when countries adopt and adapt the AGDI.

9) Sen, Amartya, 1985, *Commodities and Capabilities, Lectures in Economics Theory Policy*. New York: Oxford University Press.

TABLE 3.1: Gender Status Index (GSI)

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator		Sources		
			Early Childhood enrolment		Ministries of Education and PC, HS		
Social power 'capabilities'	Education	Enrolment	Primary enrolment rate (net)		Ministries of Education and PC, HS		
			Secondary enrolment rate (net)		Ministries of Education and PC, HS		
			Tertiary enrolment rate (gross)		Ministries of Education and PC, HS		
		Completion	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary		Ministries of Education		
		Literacy	Literacy rate of 15-24 years old		PC, DHS or HS		
	Health	Child health	Stunting under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation		DHS, LSMS		
			Underweight under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation		DHS, LSMS		
			Mortality under 5		PC, DHS, LSMS		
		HIV/AIDS	HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 years old		Ministries of Health		
			Access to anti-retroviral treatment		Ministries of Health		
Economic power 'opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture		Agricultural surveys		
			Wages in civil service		Ministries of Civil Service		
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)		Enterprise surveys		
			Wages in informal sector		Informal sector surveys		
		Income	Income from informal enterprise		Informal sector surveys		
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise		Agricultural surveys, LSMS		
			Share of women under the poverty line		HS, LSMS		
		Time-use and employment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)		Time-use variables are disaggregated by age group and urban/ rural	Time-use surveys
	Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities			Time-use surveys			
	Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities			Time-use surveys			
	Employment		Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment		PC, LFS or HS		
			Youth unemployment rate *		PC, LFS or HS		
	Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of	rural land/farms		To be collected	
				urban plots/houses		To be collected	
				Livestock		To be collected	
			Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit)		To be collected and informal sector surveys		
		Management	Employers		PC or LFS		
			Own-account workers		PC or LFS		
			High civil servants (class A)		Ministries of civil service		
			Members of professional syndicates		To be collected		

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator		Sources
Political power 'agency'	Public sector		Members of parliament		To be collected
			Cabinet ministers **		To be collected
			Higher positions in civil service and parastatals		To be collected
			Employment in the security forces		To be collected
			Judges of	higher courts	To be collected
				lower courts	To be collected
				traditional and religious courts	To be collected
	Civil society		Members of local councils		To be collected
			Number of male/female traditional rulers		To be collected
			Senior positions in	Political parties	To be collected
				Trade unions	To be collected
				Employers' associations	To be collected
				Heads or managers of NGOs	To be collected

DHS: Demographic and Health Survey; HS: Household Survey; LFS: Labour Force Survey; LSMS: Living Standard Measurement Study; PC: Population Census;

Sources: these include possible sources of data in the trial countries. However, countries could go beyond these and look at other existing sources.

* Age to be determined by each country.

** Countries specificities, particularly those of the civil tradition (versus customary law) should be taken into account.

3.2.1 Social Power, 'Capabilities'

THE SOCIAL POWER block consists of two components, education and health.

EDUCATION is measured by six indicators all of which are flow indicators, except for literacy. This component not only includes the ratios of early childhood enrolment, primary (net), secondary (net) and tertiary (gross) school enrolment, literacy of the 15-24 years old, but also completion rate for the primary. The combined ratio of primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio is not used because it can be misleading for countries where the number of 'over-aged' (i.e. boys and girls enrolled in an education level although their age is above the official age for this level) is generally high. This characteristic can make the combined ratio artificially high.

Tertiary school enrolment is taken as an independent indicator because it is at this level that gender discrimination becomes pronounced as education becomes more expensive. The gross rate is preferred to the net rate because it is difficult to fix an age limit to higher education.

The dropout ratios for primary and secondary levels are important to follow as studies have shown that girls tend to drop out earlier than boys in cases of socio-economic crisis, when they become pregnant, or because of the death of parents due to HIV/AIDS. However they are too complex to collect and therefore too rarely available and therefore the completion rate for primary level (proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary) has finally been preferred to the dropout ratios, used in the first trials.

The primary, secondary and tertiary school enrolment ratios are the usual indicators of education. They are annually provided by the Yearbooks of Education Statistics published by education ministries. As noticed above, it is not the ratio itself that will be looked for in the yearbook, but the actual numbers of boys and girls (for the corresponding age groups) enrolled in primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The reference population will be calculated from the official projections of population based on the most recent population census.

Discrepancies between population figures by different ministries in the same country are quite common. Each time a population census is undertaken, the time series for education statistics should be revised for the past

inter-census period and the next period. This rarely occurs and education statistics continue to be established on incorrect figures of the population age groups. This is why the indicators may have to be re-calculated.

Population censuses and household surveys provide values for these indicators through the response to the question on the current enrolment of the person. The resulting ratio may show the difference between the surveys and the education statistics and provide an indication on the quality of education by showing the gap between enrolments at the beginning of the school year and actual attendance. The official statistics result from the count of the pupils enrolled at the beginning of the school year, but in poor rural areas, this is the only period when most pupils are present. Later in the year, many may not come back because they are working in the fields or because the school has stopped functioning due to various reasons such as decay of school buildings or non/underpayment of teachers. The enrolment ratio in household surveys may take such situations into account and it is important that national reports allow such comparisons. The enrolment ratio is calculated gross, regardless of age or adjusted to school age for that level, and compared to the population of official school age. In the GSI computation, it is the adjusted ratio that will be used, except for the tertiary level which will be calculated gross.

This enrolment ratio in the GSI is calculated as follows:
$$\frac{\{(Number\ of\ girls\ of\ primary\ school\ age\ who\ are\ enrolled\ in\ primary\ school)\}}{\{(Total\ number\ of\ girls\ of\ primary\ school\ age)\}} \div \frac{\{(Number\ of\ boys\ of\ primary\ school\ age\ who\ are\ enrolled\ in\ primary\ school)\}}{\{(Total\ number\ of\ boys\ of\ primary\ school\ age)\}}.$$

Official school age may vary from country to country.

The tertiary school enrolment ratio gives rise to similar comments and difficulties. However, Yearbooks of Education Statistics do not provide required figures as systematically as they do for primary and secondary levels:

- Firstly, higher education statistics are very often gathered by a separate ministry and statistical production is not regular as is the case for primary and secondary levels.
- Secondly, statistics disaggregated by sex are even rarer and it may be required to gather the statistics of the

numbers of enrolled boys and girls for the various tertiary institutions and even to check the registries of the various institutions.

Dropout ratios for primary and secondary levels affect boys and girls differently. However the first trials on 12 countries revealed that these indicators were more rarely available than expected because they require the follow up of cohorts of pupils and the implementation of specific surveys. In the revised GSI, the dropout ratios have been replaced by the proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary.

The proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary education, known as the Survival Rate to last Grade of primary, is the percentage of a cohort of pupils enrolled in grade 1 of the primary level of education in a given school year who are expected to reach the last grade of primary school, regardless of repetition. It is one of the indicators of MDG 2. The indicator is estimated from data on enrolment and repetition by grade for two consecutive years, in a procedure called the reconstructed cohort method. This method makes three assumptions: drop-outs never return to school; the promotion, repetition and drop-out rates observed in the last two years remain constant over the entire period in which the cohort is enrolled in school; and the same rates apply to all pupils enrolled in a given grade, regardless of whether they previously repeated a grade. This method requires data on the number of enrolments and repeaters in each grade of primary education in two consecutive school years.

The quality of education the boys and girls receive is an important indicator. It is nevertheless complex and where available is usually not disaggregated by sex. For these reasons such indicators have not been included in the GSI. However, it is suggested that national reports address this issue, where data are available and where surveys have been implemented. There are various ways of measuring the quality of education, the main one being to test the knowledge of pupils at the end of the primary or the secondary school. There are also indirect measures of the quality of education by measuring the number of pupils per class or per teacher, the quality and the adequacy of equipment, resources and facilities provided, the quality of the teachers, the employability of school graduates, etc.

The literacy rate for 15-24 years old is replacing the adult literacy rate which is the usual indicator used in Human

Development Reports and the total primary school completed. The figure for the population aged 15-24 can be taken directly from the demographic source. It should be noted that recently some surveys have introduced a check on respondents to see if they can read or write by asking them not only if they can write, but also to actually read and write a short statement about their everyday life.

The source for the adult literacy rate is the population census usually undertaken every 10 years. Other household surveys (demographic, health or living conditions) may provide the indicator during an inter-census interval.

The weighting of the three indicators presented above (enrolment, completion and literacy) are discussed in a special section below.

HEALTH includes five indicators. The sub-component on child health is divided into three indicators; stunting, underweight of young children and child mortality rate. The first two indicators point to the preferences parents have for boys or girls.

Malnutrition and child mortality are very sensitive indicators for health as they vary greatly depending on the economic situation. The three main indicators that measure malnutrition are; Height for age called stunting; weight for age, which measures underweight; and weight for height also called wasting, the latter is not used in the GSI. The two first indicators are systematically collected by health surveys for children under five or three. Although the Human Development Report defines these two indicators by the population under five years of age, most available data today is provided by the Demographic and Health Surveys which use the age group under three. However, the section 'anthropometrics' of the Integrated Surveys of the Social Dimension of Adjustment programme of the World Bank refers to children aged three to sixty months (five years), and the corresponding section of the Living Standard Measurement Surveys (LSMS) of the World Bank collects data for all members of the selected households. However, to do this requires access to the database.

Stunting is measured by the proportion of children under five years of age with a height for age below minus two (moderate) or three (severe) standard deviations from the median height for age of the reference population. The revised GSI calculates the indicator for minus two and for the under five years of age.

Underweight of children under three is 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. The revised GSI calculates the indicator for minus two and for the under five years of age.

Under five-mortality rate is also a very sensitive indicator. It is provided by Population Censuses and Demographic and Health Surveys.

The three indicators above have an equal weight and refer to child health which constitutes one of the two sub-components of Health.

The HIV prevalence rate, among 15-24 years old, is the percentage of women and men aged 15-24 living with HIV, as measured in national based surveys. It is an indicator of MDG 6 and has been preferred to the rate of new cases of HIV for the preceding year used for the first trial countries. It will be supplemented by another indicator

of MDG 6: **access to anti-retroviral treatment**, which is the 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 numerator (the number of people receiving antiretroviral therapy) is derived from national programme reporting systems, aggregated from health facilities or other service delivery sites. The denominator (the total number of people who need antiretroviral therapy) is generated using a standardized statistical modelling approach.

HIV prevalence rate, among 15-24 years old and access to anti-retroviral treatment are to be used disaggregated by sex first of all because the disease is ravaging large parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, and also because women are more vulnerable than men.

3.2.2 Economic Power

THE BLOCK ON economic power has three components: income; time-use and employment; and access to resources. All indicators measure gender differentials only. The first variable of this block, which is the second, deals with income. Statistics on wages in Africa are rarely available at international level and statistics on entrepreneurs' income are even rarer. It is not to be expected that these statistics will be more readily available for the formal employment sector. However, it is likely that more information is available at national level. Although it is not published, such data can be obtained from various ministries. Also, labour force surveys may provide data on wages. It is usually quite difficult to obtain from enterprises based on a disaggregation of their wage bill by sex, because such information is not available from the enterprise accounts and requires that the enterprises make extra calculations. Statistics on male-female wage differentials for civil servants are more often available but they are not always published and it is often necessary to seek them from statistical departments of ministries.

Surprisingly, statistics on wages and income are more likely to be available for the informal sector where surveys are more common.

INCOME For the income variable, the index uses the gender differences in wages for the formal sector (civil service, public, private) and wages and income from the

informal sector and from small agricultural enterprises. This is because in the informal sector, inclusive of agriculture, many are self-employed workers and are not dependent on wages. These indicators are not related to any absolute level of national income, as the GDI and the GEM are.

Statistics on wages can be comprised of salaries and of social contribution of employees and of employers. It is therefore important to clearly indicate what the statistics presented refer to. For instance, a distinction must be made between net monthly wages with or without social contribution from employees, or gross wages and salaries including contribution of employers. Here again, data available at national level will be very heterogeneous across countries. This is why it is necessary to highlight the content of the variable in the country report.

The selected indicators are:

- Wages in agriculture,
- Wages in civil service,
- Wages in formal sector, both public and private,
- Wages in informal sector,
- Income from informal sector enterprises,
- Income from small agricultural household enterprises, and
- Share of women under the poverty line.

It is very unlikely that all these indicators will be available, but at least one or two wages in civil service and wages in the formal sector for instance, will have been collected and disaggregated by sex so that the weight of each will depend on the number of available indicators. Despite these difficulties which explain why the international database is so poor in this domain, it is to be expected that information does exist which is not usually published but is available to those looking for it.

Statistics on wages in agriculture may be found in agricultural surveys or censuses and also in surveys on household living conditions, such as the LSMS. Statistics on wages in the formal sector for public and private or for private alone may be found in enterprise surveys on the formal sector conducted by the statistical institutes or departments. Because this data is not usually published by sex for reasons mentioned above, it may be necessary to ask for special analysis of it. This table is not usually published because many enterprises do not respond to this question, but it is interesting to have the results from the enterprises which have responded.

Data on wages in the informal sector is available from surveys on this sector and can be processed from existing surveys, even where these surveys have been conducted at local level, such as for the capital city. Data on income from informal enterprises are also available from the same sources, but data on income from small agricultural household enterprises will be difficult to obtain. This is why a proxy is proposed for this indicator.

Household living conditions surveys usually publish income or expenditure per head or per household by socio-economic category of the household head, and among the socio-economic categories, there is the category of small farmers. The income of households headed by a small farmer will be taken as a proxy of farm income and compared between both sexes. To do this the appropriate table has to be disaggregated by sex. This applies to those surveys which have collected and published data on income. Note that the socio-economic categories classification is also the classification used by the World Bank in the publications of LSMS or living conditions surveys and that this classification may be slightly different from one survey to another.

The former indicator on income from remittances used in the first trials is replaced by **the share of women under the poverty line**. This indicator refers to the “feminisation of poverty” phenomenon and is based on national

household surveys (living standards or income and expenditure surveys). Because these surveys do not usually collect data on consumption and expenditures at individual level, but rather at household level, the indicator will be based on statistics on household heads and measures the proportion of female-headed households below the poverty line.

TIME USE AND EMPLOYMENT. Although time-use surveys are not yet available for many countries, the indicators for time-use are preferable to the indicators on labour force and employment which generally underestimate women's participation.

It is widely acknowledged that the economic participation of women in the labour force and their contribution to national income is underestimated in household surveys and in national accounts procedures. There are various reasons. One is that their economic activities are often looked at as ‘domestic’ rather than ‘economic’, even when the international definition of economic activities has been expanded. According to the 4th revision of the System of National Accounts (SNA, 1993) all primary, manufacturing and construction activities, even though non-market oriented fall within the boundaries of production measured by the GDP. But social and cultural habits are so strongly embedded in the mentalities that women, or the respondents to the surveys, or the interviewers, or the statisticians in charge of the surveys, continue to accept that such activities go unrecorded. Although progress has been made during the past decade and the computation of female participation rates has increased, women's documented share of the labour force remains far beyond the level it should measure.

Time use

Time use surveys do justice to the invisibility of women in the labour force. Where such surveys have been undertaken and where the SNA production boundaries are not embedded in the survey questions, but are delineated on the basis of time use, the share of women in the labour force tends to equal their share in the total population. This is why time use data must be given a more prominent role and time-use surveys popularised.

The UNDP and UN statistics division have recently given higher priority to these surveys and provided financial and technical support for the implementation of such surveys in the developing countries. The number of African

countries that have undertaken time-use surveys has grown in recent times (Benin, 1998; South Africa 2000; Madagascar, 2001; Mauritius, 2003; Tunisia, 2005; Tanzania: 2008; Mali, 2009 and Ghana, 2010). The experiences of Benin and Madagascar prove that the inclusion in permanent or ad-hoc household surveys of a specific section on time-use is a solution which has a low cost, does not compromise the core survey and provides rapid results for a better estimation of women's non-market work activities.

Time-use surveys help account for women's work and contribution to production. Women are involved, at home or on the farm, in the processing of agricultural and food products, but these secondary activities are not recorded by usual surveys and censuses.

Lastly, most female activities in agriculture and in agricultural processing activities are undertaken as unpaid family work. Women's contribution is therefore estimated on the basis of minimum wages rather than average earnings in the activity. Here again, by recording the number of hours worked in the activity, time-use surveys provide useful information for a better measurement of women's contribution.

Consequently **time use** is, in parallel with employment, one of the three components of the block on 'economic power'.

Employment

Three indicators measure employment:

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

It is proposed to distinguish within the time use variables time-use for children in labour who are defined as workers under fifteen and adult labour, defined as more than fifteen years old. It is also proposed to distinguish between urban and rural areas.

For non-market activities and non-SNA activities, the ratio of females to males will be over 100 percent. Women are over-represented in these categories. As these activities generally are low remuneration jobs, women's over-representation in this sector is an indication of their limited entry into the more formal sectors. Thus in order to discover the gender gap and the power inherent differentials in this case we use the ratio of males to females.

Unfortunately, there are few time-use surveys available and, although the AGDI project intends to push data collection in this direction, for many countries it will still be necessary to rely on data on labour force, and more especially on employment.

Employment: There are many indicators that can be used in this respect. Two are now on board in the revised GSI, in replacement of the share of women who are paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment, which by contrast was the complement to 100% of the share of unpaid family workers, i.e. the most dependent workers.

The share of women in non-agricultural wage employment is an indicator of MDG 3 "Promote gender equality and empower women".

The youth unemployment rate is also a MDG 1 indicator (target 1B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people). It should be calculated for the population aged 15 to 24. However some countries do not calculate the unemployment rate for population under the legal minimum working age (18 years old): consequently it was decided to leave to each country to determine the age group for this indicator (with a preference, where possible, for the 15-24 age group).

These figures are easily available. Both indicators are available in population censuses, labour force surveys and other household surveys.

There may be a difficulty in deciding whether a high ratio in paid employment is a positive achievement because paid employment can be of low quality and may not fulfil the criteria of decent work, while self-employment or informal employment can be of better quality.

ACCESS TO RESOURCES. The third component of the second block, 'economic power', refers to **access to resources**. It is comprised of two sub-components: means

of production and management. The following indicators are to be measured within access to resources:

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

Ownership of urban plots/houses and land can be known by sex through the manual compilation of real estate registers. Certainly such a task cannot be undertaken at national level, but in many countries it can be done at least for some areas in the capital city and in other cities. In rural areas, it is unlikely that registers are available, but some comprehensive, although geographically limited, studies may exist in some countries. It certainly may happen in some situations or countries that registration of that female ownership is used for hiding male ownership in order to avoid taxation for example, but such cases will have to be taken into account in the narrative of the interpretation of the collected data. In this area, national reports will have to investigate what can reasonably be done, depending on what is available and accessible. Discussions of the March 2010 expert review meeting highlighted that for agricultural lands, usufruct or loan/sharecropping should be added to ownership, such information being available from agricultural censuses. It should also be mentioned that ownership can be understood and measured in a collective sense (household heads) as well as in an individual sense (household members). The final indicator could include all these possibilities, depending on availability of data. Ownership of livestock should also be available from agricultural censuses.

Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit) unfortunately cannot be determined through compilation of banks' files, because these files are generally not accessible for survey use and also because the formal banking system only covers a small proportion of those having access to

any form of credit, the informal banking systems being much more extended. However, a possibility would be to get from the banks, at least from the major ones, the ratio of females to males among the beneficiaries of credits for enterprises. Informal sector surveys have generally introduced this question in their investigation, in the form of utilisation of credit at the creation of the enterprise, but also for current use of credit. It is then necessary to compile the information by sex of the entrepreneur. The indicator is based on the number of beneficiaries, not on the total amount borrowed. In this sense it has to be interpreted with caution, as men tend to obtain from banks larger amounts of money than women do in micro-credit schemes.

Management is included in the block on 'economic power', as managerial positions are an important indicator for high incomes. This group is considered to have access to high income and therefore a high standard of living. The management component is comprised of four indicators which have been selected for their availability or the possibility of collecting them easily: First the number of **employers** disaggregated by sex is known from population censuses and labour force surveys, as well as, secondly, the **number of own-account workers**. Here again, it may be difficult to decide whether the situation of an own-account worker is decent or not. However the independency of the job can be considered as a compensation for the uncertainty in income level. Thirdly, the **number of women as high civil servants (class A) disaggregated by sex** is generally available in the statistics of the Ministry of Civil Service. Thirdly the **number of persons engaged in administrative, scientific and technical jobs disaggregated by sex** can be found in the results of population censuses and only requires the disaggregation of the International Standard Classification of Occupations at the 1-digit level. It is comprised of the first group of the international classification. Fourthly the **number of members of professional syndicates disaggregated by sex** will be collected from the main associations of professionals: physicians, lawyers, architects, accountants and engineers. It should be noted that data collection for professionals is strictly limited to this list of 5 professions. As relating to high-level civil servants, national teams will determine the levels and explain how they defined them.

3.2.3 Political Power

THE THIRD BLOCK is political power and compares the extent to which men and women are participating in decision-making in a country. Two components have been selected. First **Public Sector** which is defined as ‘Executive, legislative and judiciary power’ and the second, **civil society**. The boundaries between Public Sector and Civil Society are left open as in some countries they tend to spill into each other. Therefore, there can be a shift depending on the political context, and consequently there is no clear separation between the two.

The indicators used for public power are not only women’s share of seats in parliament (as in the GEM), the number of women cabinet ministers, the number of women who are Higher Court judges, but also in the lower courts, the traditional and religious courts. In most countries the administrative power lies in the hands of cabinet ministers at a national level. The government security sector has also been included.

PUBLIC SECTOR. The first indicator of public power is the **number of seats in Parliament** held by women (completed by the number of women chairing commissions and committees in Parliament) and the second indicator is the **number of cabinet ministers (including under-secretaries of State)** who are women. The definition of cabinet ministers will take national specificities into account, particularly the differences between Anglophone and Francophone countries. This indicator will be complimented by a narrative which details the number of women who are ministers of ministries other than those dealing with social affairs (health, education, social affairs, employment, etc.). The third indicator used is **the number of directors and secretary general in the various ministries**: here also, data collection is needed but it is generally easy to obtain the information from the organisation charts of the ministries or by telephone calls surveys. The **number of ambassadors** will be included in this last indicator, as well as the **regional governors** and also the **directors of government institutions** such as national institutes of statistics for example. All these indicators will compare the number of women in these positions to the number of men. The definitions of government institutions, of cabinet ministers and of directors may vary widely across countries. National reports will have to investigate the definitions used in the country for further harmonisation processes. The list of government institutions can be provided by the department of national accounts: It is the list of

institutions to be included in the government sector in the national accounts.

The fourth indicator is the **number of women in security forces**. This indicator is newly introduced in the revised GSI to take into account resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, and 1889 of the UN Security Council on participation in peace process and negotiations. An increasing number of women in the security forces can be considered as a guarantee for more peaceful treatment of conflicts whether individual or collective. Data are currently easier to obtain than in the past, considering that countries have been reporting on this to the CEDAW committee. However some countries may consider these figures as confidential and therefore, it should be noted that it is only the proportion of women which is sought for.

The fifth category of indicator is the **number of women who are members of Higher Courts, lower courts, traditional and religious courts**. These three indicators are gathered separately. This information is easily available in the countries from the Ministries of Justice; for the traditional and religious courts, data will have to be collected. The question could be raised of whether women’s involvement in traditional and religious courts is an indicator of women’s empowerment and participation. What is looked for here however is women’s participation, regardless of their personal orientation or the orientation of the institutions concerned.

The number of women in local councils is of particular relevance in a period when decentralisation and local development have gained a high priority in most countries of the continent. This indicator is at the border of the public sector and the civil society and it will require more research if not readily available.

Finally, in present times, public power has to come to terms with new forms of power residing in the civil society. The sub-component power in civil society will be measured by the **number of women traditional rulers** and the **number of women in senior positions of political parties, trade unions, employers’ associations and NGOs**.

Such information does exist at the Ministries of Interior/Local Government where these associations have to register. But many registrations are not up-to-date and there is usually not an exact count of active associations in the countries. The country teams will have to check the possibility of obtaining such information

3.3 Calculating the GSI

PROVISIONALLY, EACH BASIC indicator has the same weight in each sub-component and each sub-component has the same weight in each component. Furthermore each component has the same weight in each block and each block has the same weight in the GSI.

Each indicator is calculated the same way: It consists in the comparison (i.e. the calculation of the index or the calculation of the proportion) of female achievement to male achievement for the given variable. For instance, if in a country the primary enrolment rate for girls is 35% and the primary enrolment rate for boys is 53%, then the indicator will be: $35/53 = 66\%$ or 0.66. The share of females in the total value (number of women and men) is used for these indicators which refer to numbers or to shares. For instance, the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment.

In the methodology of the GSI for the first trial countries, it had been decided that if an indicator is missing, the other indicators of the sub-component are re-weighted, to take account of the actual number of available indicators. For instance, it may happen that the only available indicator for income will be wages in civil service or income in the informal sector, and then it will be the only indicator used for the sub-component income. However in the case of wages and income, the basic indicators may be weighed according to the numbers engaged in the various categories of employment. The experience has shown that this resulted in penalising the countries with more indicators and benefiting to countries with missing values. Although the expert review meeting stressed the reluctance of the countries for ranking, it could be proposed to rank the countries with missing values (in the time-use or income sub-components for instance) by comparing them with the other countries on the basis of the same list of available indicators.

The indicators can be collected through a questionnaire sent to the relevant national institutions. More often they will be collected by:

- Referring to the existing and most updated publications of survey results or statistical yearbooks and recalculating the indicators on the basis of raw data provided in the tables (see for instance for the enrolment rates);
- Referring to unpublished reports or tables available for the users as soon as they require them from the right person or institution, for instance data on average wages in the civil service;
- By interviewing personally the resource-persons in the various institutions: for instance the number of women in higher and lower courts will be obtained by asking the question to the head of the department of human resources in the corresponding Ministry; all indicators on political power will be obtained by such a method, as well as the number of members in professional syndicates;
- By manual and personal compilation of administrative records, for instance the ownership of urban plots or houses will be obtained by consultation of the official register in the municipalities, and counting the number of names per page, and the number of pages per register, then counting page by page the number of female names; and
- By secondary analyses of raw data from the surveys.

A concrete example of calculation is shown in chapter 4. It does not refer to a specific country but uses the indicators extracted from various national reports to provide a figure for the index.

3.4 Weighing the indicators and components of the GSI.

THE WEIGHING IS complex. At this stage of the programme, 44 indicators have been selected for their adequacy to the measurement of gender inequalities and also for their availability. Certainly all these 44 indicators cannot have the same weight in the Gender Status Index. The solution is that each indicator has the same weight in a sub-component: The final weight of an indicator depends on the number of variables in the sub-component,

on the number of sub-components in a component and the number of components in a block; the more sub-components and components there are in a block, the less each individual indicator weighs.

Finally the whole system is based on 3 blocks, 7 components and 13 sub-components: If it is decided for example that each component has the same weight in the GSI, it

would mean that the block 'economic power' has a greater weight than the 'social' and the 'political' as it includes three components against two for each of the other blocks. The exact weight can be calculated for each variable.

For each indicator, a simple arithmetic compares the number of women to the number of men. The gap will be the measure of the progress still to be made to reach equality, with the exception of 8 indicators with negative connotations, on health (stunting, underweight, mortality and prevalence of HIV/AIDS), income (share of women under the poverty line), time-use (non-market economic activities; domestic, care and volunteer activities, however these two indicators being measured by a number of hours, it is the ratio of men's performance by women's performance which will be used), employment (youth unemployment rate): the expert review meeting has proposed to calculate the indices as follows: $(1-r_w)/(1-r_m)$ where r_w and r_m are respectively the values of the ratio for women and for men. It will also be the case each time women perform better than men for a given indicator. This solution has two merits: firstly, it is more logical than the solution adopted for the first trial countries (reversing the ratio from "women to men" to "men to women"); secondly it avoids the problem of small values which may result into high but insignificant ratios (see the HIV/AIDS prevalence results in the African Women Report 2009, table 5.4).

In the first trial countries, the required data have been collected for two periods, ideally 1995 and 2000, and more realistically 1990-1995 and 1996-2001. For this second round of the AGDI, the two periods: 2000-2005 and 2006-2010 have been considered.

The African women's progress scoreboard (AWPS)



4.1 Introduction

THE SECOND COMPONENT of the AGDI is the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) which complements the GSI. The African Women's Progress Scoreboard is a measure of government policy performance regarding women's advancement and empowerment and deals with qualitative issues. It tracks government progress in ratifying relevant conventions such as Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights (the African Women's Protocol), and in implementing policies, in line with international documents, such as the Beijing Platform for Action (PFA) on such issues as violence against women, maternal mortality, reproductive rights, HIV/AIDS, women's land rights, women's right to equal wages and access to new technologies and agricultural extension services. Lastly it looks at measures governments have or have not taken in relation to women's political agency. Its common methodology allows for cross-country comparison. The scorecard indicates both where particular governments are performing well and where there are gaps in implementation. The African Women's Report 2009, based on the results of the field trials in 12 countries, also highlighted best practices. The AWPS, together with the GSI, provides the information on the basis of which progress in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's) and the African Women's Protocol can be tracked.

The AWPS captures those elements of the situation of women that are within the mandate of African governments

to address. It is based on the salient points of the various conventions, charters and other documents on which it is based. As far as possible the variables have been selected and formulated in such a way that they fit the national level at which the AGDI will be measured. Explanations are provided below on the variables selected, by referring to the most relevant documents in which they appear. It should be noted that specific issues are mentioned in several documents. In order to avoid repetitions, those overlaps are not always indicated. A major advantage of the AWPS is that it integrates the various points related to women's advancement and empowerment that are scattered through these various documents. In this way the AGDI will stimulate co-operation between ministries within the countries in which it will be applied, as the various conventions, charters and documents are dealt with by different departments.

The AWPS fills the gap between purely quantitative indicators, such as those contained in the GSI, and more country-specific or sector-specific indicators, or those related to decision-making and well being at household and individual level. Within this broad space, it focuses on those issues that cannot be quantified in the conventional sense, such as women's rights and violence against women. It incorporates some aspects of what is often considered as the private domain, such as marriage regulations, harmful practices or laws on violence against women. It also points to particular elements in the economic and social spheres that usually escape quantification, such as policies and

laws. All these issues are quantified using a simple scoring mechanism. This allows for cross-country comparison.

The AWPS presents the information it collects in a comprehensive way, making it user-friendly. Apart from governments, users include NGOs, donors, research institutions, universities and other members of the international community. It is a tool that all these stakeholders can use in assessing the major issues confronting women in a particular country and determining where interventions may be best placed. As such it gives systematic background information for national co-ordination between donors, NGOs and governments. It offers critical prospects for linking research, advocacy and policy dialogue on gender equality and women's empowerment. It provides material for identifying the benefits and constraints of gender mainstreaming in individual countries and across Africa. The 2009 African Women's Report based on the GSI and the AWPS provides a picture of governance across several issues, allowing us to identify what works and what does not.

Because of its systematic use of data collection, the AWPS stimulates regional co-ordination on gender issues,

involving various regional and international institutions and the governments concerned. It is expected that it will also facilitate co-ordination on regional documents such as the African Women's Protocol and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child.

Due to its simple and transparent arithmetic and because it focuses on national data, the AWPS can be used by a wide variety of actors, that include state actors and those in civil society. In this way statistics are democratized. Data will be collected by national teams, as they have been done in the 12 trial countries, and validated following national procedures. Because the national advisory panel is composed of representatives of government, the NGO sector and the team of researchers involved in data collection, this ensures the ownership of the AWPS by all those involved with it, both researchers and users. This process of validation, combined with a rigid application of the scoring procedures as outlined below, can reduce the inevitable biases involved in working with qualitative data. This process enhances engagement between government and NGOs over issues of gender and governance.

4.2 SCORING the AWPS

THE AWPS USES a simple scoring system that is sensitive to progress made. For all cells where it is possible (see discussion below) a three point score, 0 – 1 – 2, will be used. In this way progress or deterioration will be visible. Because of its transparent nature, this will facilitate lobbying and advocacy efforts of parliamentarians working on gender issues as well as NGOs lobbying governments for better performance.

The country reports accompanying the AWPS will contain the methodology that has been used to collect the data. If there are gaps in data collection they must be shown. This may lead to recommendations on how to improve the collection process. The narratives will also point out the various national specificities.

The AWPS is composed of four blocks. The first block is **women's rights**, focusing on CEDAW, the CEDAW Optional Protocol, the African Women's Protocol, the BPfA, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. The next three blocks are similar to the three blocks of the GSI: **social power**, or capabilities; **economic power**,

referring to opportunities; and **political power**, pointing to agency, the ability to influence decision-making.

Explained below, these blocks capture the qualitative issues of gender relations that the GSI attempts to capture in a quantitative way. The computation of the AWPS is no different from the GSI, where the blocks receive equal weight. In the AWPS all the variables also receive the same weight. The AWPS is measured in percentages set to a possible maximum score, in which each column is seen to have a possible maximum score set at 100%. The total score of the AWPS is similarly computed from the total of all 15 columns, which again is set at 100%. The scoring is done on a three-point scale:

- 0 (zero) indicates a zero performance on the measures on the horizontal axis such as budget, law, or policy commitment;
- 1 (one) indicates a poor - fair performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as the budget in which some money is allocated to the issue addressed, or a law or policy commitment that is being drafted

or discussed but that is not yet ratified by parliament; and

- 2 (two) indicates a good – to excellent performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as an adequate budget, or a law or policy commitment that has been passed in parliament.

In order to make the scoring process as transparent and reliable as possible specific guidelines for scoring are discussed below in the section covering the vertical axis. Each cell has to be scored for the specific variable that it refers to. Reference to general laws or regulations that aim to promote gender justice is not sufficient. They may be mentioned in the narrative of the report but cannot be used as a substitute for a specific law mentioned on the scorecard.

As the AWPS only scores government performance in itself, it is unable to indicate the prevalence or incidence of certain issues. In many cases the GSI will provide that. It is possible that some countries have such a low rate of incidence that no policy is developed in relation to that issue. In such cases the score on that issue will be low. The AWPS does not measure the performance of the national gender or women's machinery only, but the whole government is under scrutiny as gender mainstreaming calls on all government departments to be involved.

In some instances not all cells in the columns under for example, 'law' or 'convention' can be filled, as there are some issues for which no international resolution or convention exists or for which no laws have been formulated. In the case where some cells remain empty, the maximum possible score will automatically decrease. The system of measuring will remain the same though, with the percentage of the total score in this row being set against the possible maximum score. The cells in which scoring is not applicable have been filled in already and are indicated with an "X" in the AWPS scoreboard given below.

TABLE 4.1: The African Women's Progress Scoreboard

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	
Women's rights	CEDAW	CEDAW								
		Article 2	X	X						
		Article 16	X	X						
		Optional Protocol		X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa									
	Beijing Platform for Action		X	X						
	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality		X	X						
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child									
		Harmful Practices: ¹⁰ FGM Early/Forced Marriage Widowhood Rites	X	X						
		Review and modification of customary law	X	X						
	Violence against Women And children	Domestic violence	X	X						
		Rape	X	X						
		Statutory Rape/Defilement	X	X						
		Sexual harassment	X	X						
		Protocol on the Suppression and Punishment of Trafficking in Persons Especially in Women and Children								
		Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography								
		Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict								
School	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						

10) Countries are not restricted from reporting on other practices where these specific ones do not exist.

[illegible]

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	
Economic	ILO Conventions	Convention 100								
		Convention 111								
		Convention 183								
	Sustainable Development (Article 19 of the African Women's Protocol)	Engendering NPRS	X	X	X					
		Access to agricultural extension services	X	X	X					
		Access to technology	X	X	X					
	Access to land		X	X						
Political	UN Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Women, Peace and Security		X	X						
	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										

X= Not applicable

Scoring range remains at 0-2

CRC=Convention on the Rights of the Child

NPRS= National Poverty Reduction Strategies

4.3 AWPS Vertical Axis

THE VERTICAL AXIS of the AWPS (the rows of table 2) lists the specific items that will be measured. These consist of issues that cannot (yet) be measured quantitatively in the conventional sense and of qualitative aspects of issues that are also measured in the GSI. As much as possible the various conventions, charters or policy documents that originate from the African context are included. In other cases international conventions or documents are used,

such as those by the ILO. MDG3 (gender equality and women's empowerment) and MDG5 (maternal mortality) are also included. For each convention, charter or document listed a selection of the most salient issue(s) is made, taking care to avoid overlapping as much as possible. The ways in which the documents referred to overlap are not listed exhaustively. The AWPS consists of four blocks, Women's Rights, Social, Economic and Political Power.

4.3.1 Women's Rights

THE WOMEN'S RIGHTS Bloc of the AWPS scores five major documents that address women's rights. The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Each of these is considered into more detail.

CEDAW

By the end of 2009, all African countries, with the exception of Sudan and Somalia, had ratified CEDAW. These nations are therefore bound by law to eliminate discrimination against women and promote their advancement. Yet compliance with CEDAW is often unsatisfactory. This is particularly caused by far-reaching reservations entered into by a number of States, particularly on articles 2 and 16. By accepting the Convention, States nevertheless commit themselves to incorporating the principle of full equality into their legal system and to establish tribunals and other institutions to ensure the protection of women against discrimination. Four items under CEDAW are measured. Other areas of CEDAW are dealt with in the indicators of the GSI (such as employment and political participation), while the issues of violence against women, harmful traditional practices and reproductive rights are the focus of other items of the scoreboard.

First to be measured is whether states have **ratified the Convention**. Of particular importance is whether State Parties comply with the regular reporting conditions (every four years), draw up a policy and implement measures

to deal with the recommendations made by the Commission on the Status of Women.

The second and third variables refer to specific issues that are not measured in other parts of the AWPS, including adherence to articles 2a and 16.

Article 2a calls for state parties to embody the principle of equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other legislation and to ensure, through law and other means, the realisation of this principle. Article 2a is included as not all African countries have an anti-discrimination clause in their constitution. Those who do may not be implementing this provision. Or if full equality is guaranteed in the constitution other laws may not yet be based on the principle of equality, such as inheritance laws.

Article 16 refers to all matters relating to marriage and family relations. It calls for revisions to family laws that are not consistent with the principles of equality between the sexes. Under article 16.1.a women and men shall have the same right to enter into marriage. Polygyny can thus only be accepted if polyandry is also accepted. As this is nowhere the case on the African continent, article 16.1.a effectively prohibits polygyny. Article 16.1.c grants both spouses the same rights and obligations at the dissolution of their marriage. Article 16.2 prohibits child marriage. Many African state parties have ratified CEDAW with reservations related to this article. These may originate from the various monotheistic religions in the continent or from customary or spiritual practices. Several African countries adhere to a system of customary laws in which women may be discriminated against, such as in matters of marriage, divorce and inheritance. In several cases the constitution guarantees equality, but this is then being denied by particular family laws.

The last item focuses on the ratification and implementation of the **Optional Protocol (OP)** to CEDAW. To date 28 African states have signed the Optional Protocol, out of 79 state parties in total.¹² The OP to CEDAW provides for the mechanisms under which complaints from civil society to the state can be raised, namely the Communications and the Inquiry procedures. The OP invests the CEDAW Committee with some powers to investigate into gross violations of women's human rights.

Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa:

The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa was adopted by the Heads of State in Maputo – Mozambique in July 2003. By 2009, 17 African countries had ratified the CEDAW Protocol and in addition, 27 have ratified the Protocol to the ACHPR on Women's Rights.¹² It specifies various elements relevant to Africa following international declarations and conventions. Apart from referring to all the international human rights instruments that recognise women's rights, this protocol also reaffirms the principle of promoting gender equality as enshrined in the Constitutive Act of the African Union and other declarations and conventions that aim to ensure the full participation of African women as equal partners in Africa's development. The protocol recognises the crucial role of women in the preservation of African values based on the principles of equality, peace, freedom, dignity, justice, solidarity and democracy. It states that women are still the victims of discrimination and harmful practices, which should be condemned and eliminated.

Beijing Platform for Action (PFA)

In this instance measurement is being made of governments' implementation of their commitments to the Critical Areas of Concern of the Beijing Platform for Action. Some countries have prioritised some issues within the twelve Critical Areas of Concern that they would address. Therefore, the country reports will look specifically at those areas that the government is addressing within the

Beijing Platform for Action. Countries are also expected to report at African Regional Conferences on Women.

The Political Declaration and Outcome Document adopted during the UN Special Session on 'Women 2000, Gender Equality, Development and Peace for the Twenty-First Century' affirmed that the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) would remain the basis for actions to be taken at the national level. In the +15 meeting which took place in Banjul, The Gambia, violence and poverty were singled out as the issues that continue to be major obstacles to gender equality worldwide. The legal issues related to gender equality are already incorporated under CEDAW, while issues related to education are included in the AWPS and sexual and reproductive health fall under the ICPD +5 PoA. Issues of women's poverty and women's work are addressed in the AWPS indicators related to the ILO and NPRS (National Poverty Reduction Strategies) and in various indicators in the GSI. The measurement here is in how far governments incorporate the Beijing PFA in their national plans of action and implement them.

Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa

At the Third Ordinary Session of the African Union (AU) Assembly of Heads of State and Government in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in July 2004, the Heads of State and Government adopted the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA).

The Declaration is an important African instrument for promoting gender equality and women's empowerment as it strengthens African ownership of the gender equality agenda and keeps the issues alive at the highest political level in Africa. Specific issues in the SDGEA are the establishment of the AIDS Watch Africa and the African Trust Fund for Women for the purpose of building the capacity of African women. The SDGEA calls particular attention to combating the HIV/AIDS pandemic, malaria, tuberculosis and other infectious diseases, promoting women's participation in peace processes and protecting all human rights for women and children. Girls' education, the literacy of women and women's land and inheritance rights are other critical areas.

11) Status as at 17-10-2009 (<http://treaties.un.org/>)

12) Status as at 12/02/2009 ([http:// www. Africa- union .org](http://www.Africa-union.org))

African countries are requested to report regularly on progress being made in implementing the Declaration. Report findings from 18 African countries out of the 53 indicate that only 34 per cent of the member states have honored the commitment of subsequent reporting on progress made in implementation as required under article 12.¹³

4.3.2 Social Power

THE SOCIAL COMPONENTS of the AWPS measure the following issues: policies related to violence against women, as measured by the eradication of harmful practices and the review of customary laws. The next issues relate to domestic violence, rape, statutory rape or defilement, sexual harassment and trafficking in women and the Optional Protocols to the CRC on Child Prostitution and Child Pornography in addition to that of the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflicts. Under health the following variables are tested: policies on the prevention and treatment of HIV/AIDS, Maternal Mortality, family planning and safe abortions; these refer to the ICPD Program of Action, as reaffirmed during the +15 meeting in Addis Ababa in 2009. The variables on education deal with policies on girl school dropouts and education on human/women's rights in the school system.

Violence against women

The social power bloc consists of three components, violence against women, health and education. The first component of the social block of the AWPS is violence against women. All documents mentioned in the women's rights are concerned with various forms of violence against women. Violence against women takes on epidemic proportions in many countries. Violence against women is therefore one of the most pervasive violations of human rights in all societies. It is also a major threat to social and economic development. The prevention of violence against women is linked to the achievement of the MDGs, in the sense that working towards the MDG's will reduce violence against women, and conversely, preventing violence against women will contribute to achieving the MDGs. Violence against women is a critical area of concern in

African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

This Charter contains some important articles to protect children. State parties commit themselves to undertake measures to prevent the abuse of children's rights in line with the ILO Convention 182 on Child Labour and with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

the Beijing PfA. In Article 112 (of Section D, Part Four), violence against women is recognised as an obstacle to the achievement of equality, development and peace. In all societies, to a greater or lesser degree, women and girls are subjected to physical, sexual and psychological abuse that cuts across lines of income, class and culture. Article 113 defines violence against women as 'any act of gender-based violence that results or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life'. In the following section violence against women is further specified, containing such issues as violence occurring in the family, including assault, marital rape, Female Genital Mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, violence occurring within the community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forcible prostitution. CEDAW also addresses violence against women, in Recommendation 19. In 1998 a SADC Conference was held on the Prevention of Violence Against Women, which resulted in a regional Declaration. States were called upon to take 'all appropriate measures to eliminate...violence against women by any person, organisation or enterprise.' In the AWPS the measurement is on whether states have enacted legislation, adopted policy documents and/or (adequately) implemented specific measures to combat the following forms of violence against women:

Harmful practices

These practices include Female Genital Mutilation, forced marriages/early marriage and widowhood rites such as

13) <http://www.pambazuka.org/aumonitor/comments/2613/>

wife inheritance the banning of old women into so-called witch camps.¹⁴ As FGM is usually carried out on minors, it is also a violation of the rights of the child. The WHO (2008) estimates that worldwide between 100 and 140 million girls and women have been subjected to a form of genital mutilation, the majority of whom live in Africa.

Not all countries practice these harmful practices. In the implementation of the AWPS, each country team should look at whether any harmful practices occur in their country and then consider it in this row. Article 69 (e) of the Beijing +5 commitment framework calls for states to ‘develop, adopt and fully implement laws and other measures, as appropriate, to eradicate harmful customary or traditional practices...which are violations of the human rights of women and girls...’ The Protocol calls for the prohibition, through legislative measures backed by sanctions, of all forms of Female Genital Mutilation, scarification, medicalisation and para-medicalisation of Female Genital Mutilation and all other practices in order to eradicate them (article 5b).

Review and modification of customary law

Various African countries adhere to customary laws in specific contexts which run counter to the Constitution and to international human rights documents such as CEDAW. These laws typically regulate certain marriage and inheritance practices. This variable measures whether governments have taken measures to review these discriminatory laws and modify them to bring them in line with the Constitution and the international conventions the country has ratified.

Domestic violence

The Beijing PfA makes specific mention of domestic violence. This is reconfirmed in the Beijing +5 framework and subsequent documents. States are called upon to take all necessary measures to ensure that women and girls are protected against violence and to guarantee that there is recourse to justice. This includes policies that ‘provide for prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, ...introduce [e] actions to motivate perpetrators to break the cycle of violence... and introduce legislation... to handle criminal matters relating to all forms of domestic violence’ (Beijing

Plus Five paragraph 69(d)). States are also called upon to establish appropriate mechanisms to handle criminal matters relating to all forms of violence and to ensure case are brought to justice swiftly (paragraph 69(d)). Beijing +5 also calls for continued research to develop a better understanding of the causes of violence against women in order to design programmes towards eliminating this violence (paragraph 69(F)). Some African countries have passed Domestic Violence Acts (e.g. Botswana, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Uganda and Zimbabwe).

Rape

The 1993 Vienna Declaration on Violence Against Women and the Beijing PfA and subsequent documents set out a range of actions required by states to reduce and eliminate sexual violence, including rape. These include the development and strengthening of laws that provide swift and effective access to courts, just and effective remedies and sanctions to punish perpetrators and redress harm caused to women. Other actions called for include the development of preventive approaches to promote the protection of women and to ensure that re-victimization of women does not occur. States should ensure that law enforcement personnel are sufficiently trained and that women are informed of their legal rights in seeking redress. Para 79 (d) of the Beijing PfA calls for states ‘to establish legislation and/or strengthen appropriate mechanisms to handle criminal matters relating to all forms of domestic violence, including marital rape and sexual abuse of women and girls and ensure that such cases are brought to justice swiftly’. States are also to promote research and include civil society in combating the offence.

14) *Levirate which is cited in the AWPS is the practice of marrying the widow to her brother-in-law. In most cases where this is customary the husband does not have sons to maintain his line. Often the widow is coerced to consent to this marriage.*

BOX 4.3.2: Some definitions

Violence against women (VAW) is the umbrella term used in international and national documents to refer to all forms of gender-based violence that results in or are likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life (Beijing PFA art 113). It is a wide-ranging concept that also includes violation of the human rights of women in armed conflict, such as murder, sexual slavery, systematic rape and forced pregnancy. Under this definition of VAW perpetrators can be individual men, groups of men, police, the military or the State itself when it does not protect women against (threats of) VAW but condones or even actively pursues violent practices, such as forced sterilization and trafficking.

Domestic violence refers to all forms of violence taking place within the household, such as wife-beating, forced sexual intercourse (rape, incest) or psychological forms of violence. Sometimes the definition is restricted to violence occurring between family members. In other cases members of the extended family, or other persons belonging to the household (servants, tenants) may be included.

Rape refers to coerced sexual intercourse. Usually the definition stipulates that intercourse has taken place, vaginally, orally or anally. If intercourse cannot be proven it is often assumed that it is a case of sexual harassment.

Statutory rape or defilement

Statutory rape refers to sexual activities where one participant is below the age required to legally consent to the behavior. Different jurisdictions use many different statutory terms for the crime, such as “sexual assault,” “rape of a child,” “corruption of a minor,” “carnal knowledge of a minor,” “unlawful carnal knowledge”, or simply “carnal knowledge.” Statutory rape differs from forcible rape in that overt force or threat need not be present. The laws presume coercion, because a minor is legally incapable of giving consent to the act. The definition of statutory rape depends on the age of consent stated in a country’s (marriage) law. There are no international laws or guidelines on the age of consent, although the Convention on the Rights of the Child protects children from all forms of sexual abuse and exploitation (e.g. articles 19 and 32). In addition, the Committee on the Rights of the Child, which keeps track of how children’s rights are being implemented around the world, argues for the need for countries with a low legal age of consent should raise it in order to broaden the net of protection.

Sexual harassment at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere

The 1993 Vienna Declaration on Violence Against Women and Beijing instruments include sexual harassment at work, educational institutions and elsewhere under their provision dealing with violence against women. Sexual harassment is defined as unwelcome sexual advances,

requests for sexual favours and verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Ministries of labour and education are the obvious institutions to be involved in its eradication. Specific measures to be taken include the development of legal instruments, research, monitoring, training of staff and information.

Protocol to the Suppression and Punishment of trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children

Trafficking in women is included in various documents. Article 70(b) of The Beijing +5 calls upon states to ‘devise, enforce and strengthen laws on all forms of trafficking in women and girls through a comprehensive anti-trafficking strategy consisting of, inter alia, legislative measures, prevention campaigns, information exchange, assistance and protection for and reintegration of the victims and prosecution of all the offenders, including intermediaries’.

A Trafficking Protocol has been developed to supplement the UN Convention Against Transnational Organised crime that requires states to adopt legislative and other measures to establish criminal offences relating to trafficking, as defined in art 5(1). Laws are also required to assist and protect victims of trafficking, their repatriation and for prevention measures (articles 6–13). Women’s lack of access to resources, poverty and gender discrimination, as well as civil unrest and wars all contribute to women’s vulnerability to trafficking.

Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography

This Protocol entered into force in 2002. Article 1 states that States Parties shall prohibit the sale, child prostitution and child pornography. It is intended to prevent sexual exploitation, the sale of organs and the engagement in forced labour of children. Under the Protocol States Parties are also obliged to afford one another the greatest measure of assistance in connection with investigations or criminal or extradition proceedings related to the above.

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

This Protocol entered into force in 2002. It stipulates that States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that members of their armed forces who have not attained the age of 18 years do not take a direct part in hostilities. States Parties must also ensure that persons who have not attained the age of 18 years are not compulsorily recruited into their armed forces.

International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo 1994), +15 Plan of Action (2009)

The global 1999 ICPD +5 meeting agreed to revise the Platform of Action (PoA) agreed on during the 1994 Cairo International Conference on Population and Development, as discussed in Chapter II of this report. Three indicators are used to measure the PoA goals of access to universal sexual and reproductive health, contraception, maternal mortality and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and HIV/AIDS. In the AWPS the focus is on these indicators; the indicator on STIs and HIV/AIDS education has been split, to emphasize the relative importance of each disease. Following the ICPD, the focus is on adolescents. Although the indicators discussed below do not single out young women the ICPD's PoA is very gender-sensitive. Hence they are included as formulated in the PoA (1994) and the +5 document on Key Actions (1999).

Various paragraphs in the ICPD PoA (notably 7.41 – 7.48) and in the Key Actions for the implementation of the PoA (1999, notably section IV E) stipulate that governments take appropriate actions to ensure that adolescents receive adequate health education, information, counselling

and care regarding sexually transmitted diseases. These services should safeguard the rights of adolescents to privacy, confidentiality and informed consent, respecting their cultural values and religious beliefs (paragraph 73 E Key Actions).

At the meeting on the fifteen-year review of the ICPD in Addis Ababa in 2009 it was found that insufficient progress had been made particularly on 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 reach the ICPD objectives in 2014.

Regarding **HIV/AIDS** (paragraph 70 Key Actions), states agreed that young people should be given specific attention. Targets set were that by 2005 and by 2010, 90% and at least 95% respectively 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. HIV infection rates among young people should decline by 2005, by 25% in the most affected countries, globally by 25% in 2010 for the age group between 15 to 24 years of age.

The Millennium Declaration in 2000 set as target for Goal 6, "Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases": to have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the spread of HIV/AIDS. However, poverty, stigma, religion and socio-cultural factors continue to be key factors that exacerbate the spread of HIV/AIDS on the continent. Various reports further indicate that although women and girls are the most affected by HIV/AIDS, they are still the least served. This is mainly due to inadequate mainstreaming of gender into HIV/AIDS service provision.

With respect to **maternal mortality** (paragraph 64 Key Actions), 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 40% of all births by 2005, 50% by 2010 and 60% by 2015. MDG 5 stipulates that countries should reach a 75% reduction in the maternal mortality rates by 2015. Not only a shortage of trained medical professionals accounts for the slow decline in the rate of maternal mortality, but also women's lack of control over household resources, their lack of decision-making power and restrictions on their mobility.

The targets set for **family planning** (paragraph 58 Key Actions) are to close the 'gap between contraceptive use and the proportion of individuals expressing the desire to space or limit their families' by at least 50% by 2005, 75% by 2010 and 100% by 2050. Since 2005 MDG 5 includes universal access to reproductive health. The ICPD plus 15 meeting in 2009 declared that efforts to build functional health systems for equitable, efficient and sustainable delivery of basic health services should be hastened. Family planning and sexual and reproductive health services must be acknowledged and positioned as core components of basic health services.

Unsafe abortions

The ICPD aims to reduce the number of deaths and morbidity due to unsafe abortions. The PoA calls attention to the health consequences for women of unsafe abortion and calls for 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 declares that "In circumstances where abortion is not against the law, such abortion should be safe. MDG 5 can be met only if unsafe abortion is effectively addressed.

Education

Policy on girl school dropouts: Socio-economic factors such as structural adjustment policies may contribute to the rising numbers of girls who do not receive any form of training. Although both boys and girls may drop out of school, the reasons are gender specific. In many countries pregnant schoolgirls are sent away from school. Another factor which contributes to the often larger number of girl school dropouts than boys is the effect of HIV/AIDS. Girls are more likely to be called upon to care for sick relatives or to replace dead parents to care for younger siblings than boys. Due to these factors in several African countries large numbers of young women will enter

the labour market with hardly any schooling. Several countries have policies to address this issue, to provide these young women with professional training and to prevent girls dropping out from school. Under this item whether or not a country has specific policies to address the issue of training these young women is indicated, as is whether or not and to what extent these policies are implemented. MDG3 measures gender parity in education and to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015. Specific measures may include reduced school fees, targeted scholarships, making schools girl-friendly and accessible and providing a gender-sensitive curriculum.

Education on human/women's rights: Education can be used to promote social and gender justice and empowerment, including women's empowerment, but it can also be used to justify repression, including religious intolerance. Particular policies need to be put in place to ensure that human rights including women's rights education are integrated into educational strategies and monitoring. This indicator measures whether or not the ministry in charge of education or any other relevant ministry has a policy on the integration of human rights including women's rights in education, and whether or not and to what extent this policy is implemented. This indicator is in line with the Beijing PfA Strategic Objective B.72: 'Creation of an educational and social environment, in which women and men, girls and boys, are treated equally and encouraged to achieve their full potential, respecting their freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief, and where educational resources promote non-stereotyped images of women and men...'. Strategic objective 1.3 (g) says: 'Promote education on the human and legal rights of women in school curricula at all levels of education and undertake public campaigns, including in the most widely used languages of the country, on the equality of women and men in public and private life, including their rights within the family and relevant human rights instruments under national and international law'.

4.3.3 Economic Power

ILO Conventions

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR Organization (ILO) has produced several conventions that address women's rights. Conventions 100, 111 and 182 are all 'fundamental' conventions as they are given top priority for ratification

and implementation by member states. Crucial elements relating to the Convention on Child Labour are already included above in the indicator on the African Charter on the Rights of the Child, so Convention 182, that addresses that issue, is not included here.

Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration, 1951: This Convention stipulates the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value. It deals with basic and/or minimum wages, as well as any additional emoluments that arise out of the employee's work, payable in cash or in kind to the employee directly or indirectly by the employer. In addition it also emphasizes remuneration based on non-discrimination on the grounds of sex.

The indicator for the AWPS measures whether or not nations have ratified this convention and whether this has been translated into a national law on equal remuneration for men and women, or any other legally established machinery for wage determination or a collective agreement between employers and workers. It also measures whether or how far equal wage policies are implemented. This includes co-operation with employers' and workers' organizations.

Convention 111 Concerning Discrimination, 1958: This convention calls upon member states to pursue a national policy designed to promote equality of opportunity and treatment for employment with a view to eliminating discrimination (Article 2). Discrimination is defined to include any 'distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation' (Article 1.1). The indicator used in the AWPS focuses on discrimination on the basis of sex and measures whether or not appropriate laws and policies have been put in place, and whether or not and to what extent these policies are being implemented.

Convention 183 Concerning Maternity Protection at the Workplace, 2000: This Convention seeks to promote equality for all women in the workplace and the health and safety of mother and child. It applies to all employed women, including those in atypical forms of dependent work, such as part-time and seasonal work (Article 2.1). It stipulates that women are entitled to maternity leave of not less than 14 weeks, which shall include a period of six weeks compulsory leave after childbirth (Articles 4.1 and 4.4). Women shall not be dismissed because of pregnancy. The indicator in the scoreboard measures whether or not states have ratified this convention, put in place a law and/or policy to implement it and whether or not and to what extent the provisions under this Convention are implemented.

The second component of the economic rights bloc concerns women's right to sustainable development, which is contained in article 19 of the African Women's Protocol. Four variables are included in the AWPS. The first one is on engendering the National Poverty Reduction Strategies. Next are access to agricultural extension services and technology and to land.

Equal Access to Resources

When women have ownership and access to resources and have higher education levels, it leads to greater productivity and therefore poverty reduction. Women's empowerment is also a Goal in itself, as MDG 3 states. Under this heading three variables are included in the AWPS, engendering National Poverty Reduction Strategies, and ensuring that women have equal access to agricultural extensions services and technology.

Engendering National Poverty Reduction Strategies (NPRS): Poverty remains a core issue in Africa. Rural households and female-headed households are among the poorest groups as are the dwellers in urban shantytowns. Poverty reduction is one of the central elements of development in Africa and is central both to the MDG's and to NEPAD (New Partnership for Africa's Development). The NEPAD document, adopted in October 2001, focuses on Africa's economic and cultural development. In various places attention is paid to gender issues. NPRS are generally supported by international agencies. However so far they remain largely gender-blind, as the UNDP and the World Bank found. Yet they are the major instruments for achieving the MDGs. Almost all African countries have drawn up National Poverty Reduction Strategies. To ensure that the gender dimensions of poverty are taken into account, and to assist poor women, who are the majority of Africa's poor, NPRSs must be engendered. This indicator measures whether governments have adopted policy commitments to engender their NPRSs, whether they have been integrated accordingly and whether or not or to what extent the measures and strategies proposed are being implemented.

Access to agricultural extension services: Agriculture is a major component of African economies. Large numbers of women are farmers. Yet agricultural extension services are often only directed at men. Due to prevailing gender ideologies many countries uphold a sexual division of labour in which women and men carry out different tasks in agriculture. Agricultural extension services must take

these differences into account. The barriers to adoption of relevant agricultural technology and methods are not the technology itself but originate in gender-related factors. In some regions women's mobility is more restricted than men's, which may make it more difficult for women to travel to meetings or offices. To increase women's productivity and their incomes women must have access to agricultural extension services. This indicator measures whether or not the specific barriers women face in a particular country in relation to access to agricultural extension services are addressed in a policy document, and whether or not or to what extent the measures proposed are being implemented. This is complemented by the GSI indicator on credit and includes credit that women access for agricultural inputs.

Access to Technology: The NEPAD document recognizes that access to Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is a priority area for Africa. The 2001 Human Development Report concludes that new technologies can be a tool for development. The Beijing +5 framework declared that a fundamental and necessary component of development is to ensure that equal opportunity is afforded to women to access science and technology. The indicator used here measures women's access to technology in general, including ICT. It assesses whether governments have adopted a policy document to this effect, and whether or not or to what extent the measures proposed therein are being implemented.

4.3.4 Political Power

THE BLOCK ON political power of the AWPS has five variables. The first concerns the UN Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security. The next variables relate to effective gender machineries and the role of women in traditional governance. The last two variables deal with policies on gender mainstreaming and on support for affirmative action and quotas.

UN Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Conflict Prevention 2000: Several African countries have been ravaged by wars, whether cross-country conflicts or civil strife. Some wars are continuing. Women have been killed, raped, maimed and driven from their homes. Their land, houses and enterprises have been destroyed, the social and physical infrastructure has been ravaged. It is therefore important that women have an equal voice in the negotiations on peace and conflict prevention, both of a political

Land rights

Both the Beijing PfA and CEDAW (Article 14) stress the importance for women to have equal access to land, including equal tenure rights. In its Strategic Objective A.2, the former calls on governments 'to revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources...including the rights to inheritance and to ownership of land and other property...' As land often serves as collateral for loans, women's unequal access to land effectively means they are less likely to apply for and to get a loan. The SDGEA also stipulates, in article 7 that states parties should actively promote the implementation of legislation to guarantee women's land, property and inheritance rights. Although there are insufficient records to measure the extent to which women own land it is possible to assess the legal situation. Under this item the scoreboard measures whether women have equal access to and control of land or whether there are rules of inheritance or other practices which prevent women from having the same access/control of land and of land of the same quality as their male family members have. As the majority of African women are (part time) farmers this is a crucial issue. The indicator measures whether governments have adopted laws and policy documents to ensure women can have equal access to land, and whether or not or to what extent the measures proposed are being implemented.

and a material nature. It is also critical to engender rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes in post conflict situations by ensuring an equal access, participation and control by women over these initiatives. Research indicates that gross violations of human rights, including sexual violence, forced displacement, loss of life and livelihoods, as well as impunity, remain widespread. This situation has been compounded by women's marginalization in peace processes and post-conflict reconstruction and development programmes. To address these situations three new resolutions in addition to that of 1325 (2000) have been passed. They cover: Security Council Resolution 1820, passed in 2008; it establishes a strong link between sexual violence and sustainable peace and security. In 2009 two resolutions were passed by the Security Council, 1888 and 1889. The first one signals a strong political commitment to addressing conflict-affected sexual violence. Resolution

1889 pays particular attention to the immediate post-conflict peace building periods.

This indicator measures whether or not states have ratified UN Resolution 1325 of 2000, 1820 of 2008 and 1888 and 1889 of 2009 and whether or not and to what extent measures have been taken to implement them. Reporting is required according to resolution 1889 which calls for a set of indicators to be built. The Resolutions address both the impact of war on women and women's contribution to conflict resolution and sustainable peace.

Role of women in traditional governance

African traditional political values and customary laws are essential to the continent's transformation; therefore the role of the authorities who are engaged in the practice and maintenance of those values is indispensable. Chiefs, especially those at the grassroots level, and elders in the decentralized political systems, are leaders in the practice of those values and they form an integral albeit informal part of the governance structures of rural Africa.

Chiefs and village heads under civil chieftaincy constitute a forum where local interests are debated and articulated. Thus, they potentially constitute a valuable resource in informing the state about the interests of local communities as well as in mobilizing rural populations for active engagement, not only in development activities and the distribution of public services, but also in the national political process. Women also are or have been in such positions of authority, particularly in matrilineal systems. However, colonialism and modernization have eroded women's power base in some contexts. To strengthen women's role in traditional governance, so they can represent women's interests, a combination of legal changes and revitalization of customary laws along with transformation through education and poverty alleviation are required.

Gender mainstreaming policy for all government departments

Apart from an effective national machinery it is also important that gender issues are mainstreamed in all

government departments. This is to ensure that gender desks or gender focal persons are set up, at a sufficiently high level and with a sufficient budget to be effective. This indicator is in line with Beijing PFA Strategic objective H.2, which states that 'governments should integrate gender perspective in legislation, public policies, programmes and projects'. This indicator measures whether or not a government has adopted a policy commitment, strategy and framework related to gender mainstreaming, and whether or not and to which extent the measures proposed are being implemented.

Support for women's quota and affirmative action

This indicator measures whether governments have adopted a policy commitment on the establishment of affirmative action programmes in those areas where women's participation, for example in the labour force, is very low, to ensure processes of hiring and promotion in which priority is given to women, when they have equal capacities as male candidates. It also indicates whether or not and to which extent the measures adopted are being implemented. It also assesses support of quotas to increase women's power in parliaments.

The Beijing PFA Strategic Objective G.1 stimulates government to take 'measures to ensure women's equal access to and full participation in power structures and decision-making'. The SADC Gender Declaration stipulates a target of 'at least thirty percent' in political and decision-making structures by the year 2005 (Article Hii). The Sixth African Regional Conference on Women, 1999, sees as one objective of government policy to 'ensure that there is an irreversible critical mass of women in decision-making positions' (1999: 6).

This indicator measures whether or not states have adopted legal measures or policy commitments that support the increase of women's political power, whether by restoring the traditional power bases of women or by adopting a quota system of minimally 30 % for women's representation in a country's highest decision making body such as the parliament. It also indicates whether or not and to which extent specific measures are being undertaken.

4.4 AWPS: Horizontal Axis

The horizontal axis of the AWPS (columns of table 4.1) is based on other scorecards on gender mainstreaming such as those proposed in the UNIFEM 2000 Progress of the World's Women report. However, the variables have been adapted to suit the particular purpose of the AGDI and new elements have been added. As the AGDI emphasizes national performance in relation to international and regional conventions or charters, the adoption or ratification of these conventions or charters is the first point on the horizontal axis. The next issue is reporting, as various conventions require regular reporting. Next, the existence of laws at national level will be scored. This is followed by the commitment a government has expressed to implement a policy relevant to the variable being scored. In cases where there is no need for a law on the specific area of measurement, or when there is no international convention or charter covering that particular issues, those squares remain empty, and the first issue to be measured is the policy commitment of the government.

The next issues to be scored on the horizontal axis are whether government has developed a plan to cover the variable under discussion, and whether that plan has clearly spelt out measurable objectives and targets. Scoring is continued on the existence of an institutional mechanism to implement the plan, whether there is a sufficient budget allocated to it, and whether there are sufficiently qualified human resources available to implement the plan or not. The next issue is related to the commissioning of research by the government on the issues concerned. Another critical issue is whether the government involved civil society including women's NGOs in government programmes. The last issues on the horizontal axis of the scorecard are monitoring and evaluation, training and information and dissemination. Whether women are really able to enjoy the fruits of a particular law or policy depends on whether the government of their country has seriously elaborated a plan for gender mainstreaming and implemented the activities listed. Below the scoring for the activities listed on the horizontal axis of the AWPS is specified.

a. Ratification of International or Regional Convention or Charter

This column measures whether the international conventions or charters listed on the vertical axis (the rows of the table) have been ratified, with or without reservations.

This is particularly relevant for CEDAW and the ILO Conventions. In certain cases where there is no international or regional convention or charter or other document based on international consensus (such as the ICPD or Beijing Platform for Action) the squares in this column will remain empty.

Scoring:

0 - not adopted.

1 - adopted with reservations.

2 - adopted without reservations.

b. Reporting

This column refers to the reporting that States make on specific conventions that they have signed. In the case of CEDAW, countries report to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned. Thereafter, at least four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.

Scoring:

0 - no reporting.

1 - not all reporting done, but some has been done.

2 - reporting is up to date.

c. Law or other legal measure

This column indicates whether the parliaments of African nations have passed laws on the issues specified in the vertical axis of the scorecard.

Scoring:

0 - no law or legal measure.

1 - draft law.

2 - law or measure ratified in parliament.

d. Policy commitment

After an international convention, charter or national law has been ratified related to a specific variable of the scorecard, or before any of the other issues mentioned in the AWPS can be implemented, governments have to pass policy documents specifying their particular intentions and the activities to be undertaken to reach their goals.

This column measures whether or not governments have drafted such a policy document and whether such a document has been implemented, and if applicable, whether it has been approved by parliament.

Scoring:

- 0 - no policy.
- 1 - draft policy, not fully elaborated.
- 2 - fully elaborated policy, approved by parliament.

e. Development of a plan/gender plan

The staff of the institution in charge of implementing the variable mentioned in the vertical axis are responsible for developing a plan/gender plan in which clear objectives are set and particular activities are specified. This item measures whether such a plan/gender plan has been developed.

Scoring:

- 0 - no plan has been prepared.
- 1 - the development of a plan/gender plan is in process or an inadequate plan has been developed.
- 2 - the plan/gender plan has been fully elaborated with clear objectives and targets set and the plan is in use.

f. Targets set

This item measures whether realistic and measurable objectives or targets have been set in the plan/gender plan developed. The targets could be set within the Plan of Action of a particular convention or document, such as the ICPD Plus Five. They could also be set within other government Plans of Action such as the Economic Development Plan. For example on new infection rates of HIV/AIDS, maternal mortality and contraception, internationally agreed targets have been set. If applicable these targets are spelled out in the discussion on the relevant variables

Scoring:

- 0 - no targets or measurable objectives specified.
- 2 - general objectives specified but no targets set.
- 3 - specific objectives identified and measurable targets set.

g. Institutional mechanism

This column measures whether or not government departments or institutions have organised adequate institutional mechanisms, such as gender desks or focal points, at appropriate levels to implement the items listed. The appropriate level of each variable may vary. In some cases such as contraception and maternal mortality this means that officials at local level must be involved.

Scoring:

- 0 - no institutional mechanism identified.
- 1 - within a general department, focal person appointed without special mandate or only at the national level while implementation should reach down to the local level.
- 2 - specific department or focal point or gender desk within departments or regional or local administration are identified at appropriate level to be effective.

h. Budget

Several countries, including Tanzania and South Africa have implemented a gender-sensitive analysis of budgets. A gender-sensitive budget analysis allows one to assess how a budget impacts on women and men. Without such an analysis the gendered impact of particular budget items may not be recognised.

This column calls attention to the question of whether governments have paid attention to the gendered impact their budget has on the specific item listed by allocating requisite financial resources for implementation of the gender plan specified earlier. This item reviews the allocation of financial resources by governments to gender related activities. It does not relate to a general budget only.

Multi- and -bilateral donor agencies in Africa typically supply part of the budget needed to implement the items listed in the scorecard. Under this item however only government funds are considered. ODA funds as far as they relate to government spending will be recorded in the notes of the country reports. Also not included are the funds spent by the private sector. .

Scoring:

- 0 - no government budget allocated for this item.
- 1 - some funds allocated, but not sufficient to cover the costs needed to meet the targets set in the gender plan or unclear what kind of total budget is allocated to gender-related issues.

- 2 - sufficient government budget allocated to cover the targets set in the gender plan.

i. Human resources

This column measures whether sufficient and qualified staff is employed to implement gender related activities. This includes whether or not adequate efforts are undertaken to train staff responsible for implementing the specific item under consideration. This might involve both legal training on issues related to women's rights, as well as specific training for officers involved in departments or institutions entrusted with implementing specific items mentioned in the Scoreboard. Another item assessed here is whether the staff has sufficient support to carry out their tasks. Lastly the staff assigned to implement the gender plan related to this variable must be located at a sufficiently high level in the administration to work effectively.

Scoring:

- 0 - no specific staff assigned.
- 1 - some staff assigned, but with insufficient gender expertise and without sufficient support or at too low a level in the administrative hierarchy.
- 2 - sufficient, qualified staff employed, who have sufficient support and at an adequately high level in the administration.

j. Research

Gender policy and a gender plan can only be effectively implemented if there is sufficient data to support them. This column measures whether or not governments take sufficient care to ensure that data collection and analysis on the items concerned take place. The research may be undertaken by specific government agencies, by research institutions or by independent researchers. This item only measures research that has been stimulated or commissioned by government agencies, not whether research has been done independently of the government.

Scoring:

- 0 - no research needs identified and no research commissioned.
- 1 - some research areas are identified and implemented.
- 2 - research needs identified and adequate research conducted or commissioned.

k. Involvement of civil society

NGOs are involved in a wide range of activities related to the issues mentioned in the Scorecard. It is therefore important that NGOs are involved in the process of consultation, both because of their expertise and because they are major stakeholders. Many of their efforts are not self-financing, such as shelters for women who are victims of abuse. NGOs can operate most effectively if governments ensure a sufficiently enabling climate, including financial, legislative, and bureaucratic support. NGOs can together with governments play an important role in activities aimed at addressing gender inequality and fostering women's advancement. During the process of the preparation for the World Conference on Women – Beijing, governments were encouraged to work closely with NGOs.

This column measures how far governments are working with NGOs in the particular item being scored. It does not measure whether there are NGOs working in this field independently of the government.

Scoring

- 0 - no attention paid to civil society, no consultation has taken place, no support foreseen.
- 1 - some attention paid to civil society.
- 2 - extensive process of consultation has taken place, with the appropriate NGOs, and support for and collaboration with civil society incorporated in key activities.

l. Information and dissemination

Laws, conventions, charters as well as gender policies and plans can only be enjoyed by women if they know about their rights and the support they are entitled to. This column measures whether governments undertake sufficient efforts to ensure that the population is aware of the issues listed, and whether the information spread is correct and will reach people in a language they understand. This might include support to specific NGOs to undertake information campaigns.

Scoring:

- 0 - no information efforts undertaken.
- 1 - some campaigns undertaken, but limited in coverage, because of language, media or other constraints such as the wide divergence between ethnic groups in a country.

2- extensive campaigns conducted which reach wide sectors of the population.

m. Monitoring and evaluation

In order to ensure efficient implementation of targets set, policies and activities need to be monitored regularly. This column measures whether or not the gender policy or plan under consideration is monitored, and whether appropriate indicators to measure progress are being used for the specific item.

Scoring:

- 0 - no monitoring and evaluation mechanism in place, no tools and appropriate indicators put in place.
- 1 - monitoring and evaluation tools identified and process put in place but not in an adequate or sufficient way.
- 2 - adequate monitoring and evaluation under way / undertaken.

N. Training

In order to ensure that the people who are engaged in implementation of the issue at stake are fully enabled to work as affectively as possible their capacity to do so must be regularly enhanced. Under this heading the extent is measured to which the government provides regular training and retraining opportunities to enhance work performance. The training provided may be technical or more related to the content of the issues mentioned in the Scorecard. The training may be provided to regional or local actors, and/or to NGO's active in this particular

field. Training of employees at the national level is already covered under i. Human Resources.

Scoring:

- 0 – no training opportunities provided by the government
- 1 - some training opportunities provided, but insufficient to maximize the capacity of staff to work effectively
- sufficient training and retraining opportunities provided by the government to maximize the capacity of staff to work effectively.

O. Accountability and Transparency

Stakeholders should be provided with full information on government intentions, plans, programmes and the budgets available to implement these programmes. This indicator measures whether full information on these issues is regularly made available by the relevant government agencies. Examples of government measures to ensure transparency are the passage and implementation of a right to information law, regular information sessions for instance in town halls or the provision of such information in leaflets or other material in the local language. The plan or action must also be regularly subjected to an independent auditing process.

Scoring:

- 0 – government has made no efforts to ensure accountability and transparency
- 1 – government has made limited efforts to ensure accountability and transparency
- 2 – government ensures that stakeholders are fully informed on intentions, plans, programmes and budgets available.

An example of a completed GSI and AWPS

5

5.1 Introduction

THE AGDI HAS undergone an extensive process of validation and checking. As noted, it has been tested in 12 African countries. On the basis of the results of this first round, the AGDI has been further refined and revised and has acquired its present shape. The final analysis of the test results have been presented in the African Women's Report published in 2009. Generally the data needed to fill in both the GSI and the AGDI were available. In cases where it was not available, the researchers have made recommendations on how to improve data collection. The results of the national reports have been discussed with the major stakeholders who found the comprehensive nature of the reports useful.

Below two examples of how both the GSI and the AWPS might look like are presented based on results of one of the 12 country reports. The tables are based on actual data from one of these reports. The country name has been left out. A preliminary analysis of these tables gives an indication of the usefulness of data gathered and presented in this way.

The research teams found that the data for the GSI were generally available. As expected most problems were

encountered in accessing data on land use, while many countries do not employ time use data yet. Also not all countries were able to present data in the two periods stipulated for the GSI. Where data on these periods was available they differed per country. Once the data was collected the computation of the GSI posed no problem.

The researchers likewise found that the scoreboard is easy to use by both government and civil society. Most teams held consultations with researchers, sector policymakers and activists, to reflect on the national scores and discuss ways to compute the total national score. In this way the scoreboard can be used as a strategic tool for the enhancement of political awareness of gender issues. In some cases the AWPS will arouse more controversy and debate than the GSI, due to differences of interpretation between government, private and other interested participants, such as donors. In those cases where a national validation meeting was held these differences were discussed and a consensus reached on scoring. In the final country reports these differences will be explained.

5.2 Example of a completed GSI from one country

IN THE FOLLOWING tables 3 and 4 the GSI is presented.

TABLE 5.1: Gender Status Index (GSI)

Block	Component	Sub-compo- nent	Indicator	Data		
				Women	Men	Indicator
Social power 'Capabilities'	Education	Enrolment	Early childhood enrolment	11.2	20.5	0.546
			Primary enrolment rate (net)	58.6	83.7	0.700
			Secondary enrolment rate (net)	19.0	39.5	0.481
			Tertiary enrolment rate (gross)	2.4	9.6	0.250
		Completion	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary	56.1	75.9	0.739
		Literacy	Literacy rate of 15-24 years old	33.2	57.4	0.578
	Health	Child health	Stunting under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation	27.0	27.3	1.004
			Underweight under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation	22.1	25.4	1.044
			Mortality under 5	163.3	162.3	0.999
		HIV/AIDS	HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 years old	1.5	0.8	0.993
			Access to anti-retroviral treatment	40	44	1,902

Block	Component	Sub-compo- nent	Indicator		Data			
					Women	Men	Indicator	
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture		64.6	95.9	0.674	
			Wages in civil service		396.38	502.28	0.789	
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)		568.65	609.34	0.933	
			Wages in informal sector		50.75	62.25	0.815	
		Income	Income from informal enterprise		274.18	688.88	0.398	
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise		447.68	499.13	0.897	
			Share of women under the poverty line		28.7	13.8	1.573	
	Time-use and employment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)		3.3	3.7	0.892	
			Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities		0.6	0.3	0.500	
			Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities		3.3	1.0	0.303	
		Employment	Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment		24.3	75.7	0.321	
			Youth unemployment rate *		14.1	17.5	1.041	
		Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of	rural land/farms	235,144	1,315,232	0.179
					urban plots/houses	81,603	413,205	0.197
	livestock				235	2,503	0.273	
	Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit)			39,205	72,905	0.538		
	Management		Employers		2,822	16,442	0.172	
			Own-account workers		35,237	72,583	0.483	
			High civil servants (class A)		1,360	9,140	0.149	
			Members of professional syndicates		297	3,211	0.092	
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector	Members of parliament		42	505	0.083		
		Cabinet ministers **		6	46	0.130		
		Higher positions in civil service and parastatals		75	342	0.766		
		Employment in the security forces		1,325	15,233	0.087		
	Civil society	Judges of	higher courts	12	53	0.226		
			lower courts	42	305	0.138		
			traditional and religious courts	3	105	0.029		
		Members of local councils		8,246	27,965	0.295		
		Number of male/female traditional rulers		241	1,352	0.178		
		Senior positions in	Political parties	6	33	0.182		
	Trade unions		226	679	0.333			
	Employers' associations		11	42	0.262			
	Heads or managers of NGOs		29	370	0.078			

TABLE 5.2 : Indices for components and sub-components and aggregate GSI

Social power 'Capabilities'	Educa- tion	Enrolment	Early childhood enrolment	0,546	
			Primary enrolment rate (net)	0,7	
			Secondary enrolment rate (net)	0,481	
			Tertiary enrolment rate (gross)	0,25	
			Enrolment		0,494
		Completion	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary	0,739	
		Literacy	Literacy rate of 15-24 years old	0,578	
			Education		0,604
	Health	Child health	Stunting under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation	1,004	
			Underweight under 5 using minus 2 standard deviation	1,044	
			Mortality under 5	0,999	
			Child health		1,016
		HIV/AIDS	HIV/AIDs prevalence among 15-24 years old	0,993	
			Access to anti-retroviral treatment	1,071	
			HIV/AIDS		1,032
			Health		1,024
	SOCIAL				0,814
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture	0,674	
			Wages in civil service	0,789	
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	0,933	
			Wages in informal sector	0,815	
			Wages		0,803
		Income	Income from informal enterprise	0,398	
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise	0,897	
			Share of women under the poverty line	0,827	
			Income		0,707
		Income			0,755
	Time- use and employ- ment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	0,892	
			Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	0,500	
			Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	0,303	
			Time-use		0,565
		Employment	Share of women in non-agricultural wage employment	0,321	
			Youth unemployment rate	1,041	
			Employment		0,681
		Time-use and employment			0,625

	Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of rural land/farms		0,179	
			Ownership of urban plots/houses		0,197	
			Ownership of livestock		0,273	
			Access to credit (commercial and micro-credit)		0,538	
			Means of production			0,297
		Management	Employers		0,172	
			Own-account workers		0,483	
			High civil servants (class A)		0,149	
			Members of professional syndicates		0,092	
			Management			0,224
		Access to resources				0,261
	ECONOMIC				0,547	
	Political power ‘Agency’	Public sector	Members of parliament		0,083	
			Cabinet ministers		0,130	
			Higher positions in civil service and parastatals		0,766	
Employment in the security forces			0,087			
Judges of higher courts			0,226			
Judges of lower courts,			0,138			
Judges of traditional and religious courts			0,029			
Members of local councils			0,295			
Number of male/female traditional rulers			0,178			
Public sector				0,215		
Civil society		Senior positions in	Political parties	0,182		
			Trade unions	0,333		
			Employers’ associations	0,262		
			Heads or managers of NGOs	0,078		
		Civil society			0,214	
POLITICAL				0,215		
GSI				0,525		

The higher the indicators and the indices, the greater gender equality in the country is.

In the specific country for which the GSI has been computed, the gender gap is increasing, and the computed indices are decreasing, according to the level of schooling. Efforts have been made by the country to enrol girls at primary level (index: 0.700), but these efforts are more and more tenuous at secondary (0.481) and tertiary levels (0.250). Indices for dropout ratios show the same trends and the completion rate is relatively high (0.739) and the very low level of the literacy index (0.578) indicates that these efforts in schooling are fairly recent: the literacy rates are very low and there is a huge gender gap in this domain.

Regarding health, girls perform well compared with boys and the various computed indices are quite high, indicating a better performance for girls than for boys.

Finally the gender gap for the social block is established at 0.814, the performances in health (1.024) compensating for the huge gap in education (0.604).

The gender gap for the economic block is lower, at 0.547. The gap is particularly important for income from informal enterprises (0.398) and for wages in agriculture (0.674). The country performs well regarding wages in

the formal sector where discrimination is nearly nonexistent (0.933).

As expected, time-use is highly discriminating against women (0.565), especially for time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities (0.303).

Access to resources is even more discriminant (0.261) with very low performance in ownership (between 0.179 and 0.273) and generally for all indices in management (0.224).

Lastly the political block emphasizes the very poor achievements of the country in attempting to improve the status of women (0.215). All indicators (except higher positions in civil service) are below 0.400 and even 0.300, and some of them are below 0.100 (members of parliament, employment in security forces), especially for the civil society (heads of NGOs, Heads of community-based associations).

Finally the GSI as a whole is established at 0.525, an average position between 1, a situation where no discrimination exists and very low performances near 0 where gender discrimination of women is at its maximum. In many ways the country can increase its performance. The GSI indicates clearly the major gaps. Particularly the indicators in the political block demonstrate that efforts should be directed towards increasing women's political agency.

5.3 The AWPS

THE ANALYSIS OF this AWPS is based on reviewing the scoreboard below and does not take into account the text that accompanied the AGDI of the particular country on which it is based. This is also the case with the GSI. The country backgrounds will be considered in a consolidated AGDI Report in which the results of all country reports will be analyzed.

In table 5.2 below this country has scored a total of 38% on the AWPS. In general the country has fulfilled most of its international obligations. It has ratified CEDAW and is in the process of ratifying the Optional Protocol. Likewise it has ratified the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. The country is in the process of ratifying the ILO Convention on maternity Protection (183) and has ratified Conventions 100 and 111 concerning Equal Remuneration and against Discrimination.

In general the country is up to date with its reporting to the relevant international bodies. However, not all charters or conventions the country has ratified nor all international documents it is signatory to, such as the Beijing Platform for Action and the ICPD, have been followed up by national legislation. Legislation on various forms of violence against women are in preparation, apart from sexual harassment. So far the country has only passed laws on FGM and domestic violence. It did ratify the Protocol on the Suppression and Punishment of Trafficking in Persons, Especially in Women and Children. On women's economic and political rights the country has only specific legal measures in place under ILO conventions 100 and 111. Striking is its low scores on women's political empowerment. The government of this country scores a high number of '2's for laws, policies and plans of action, but further down the horizontal axis the scores get lower.

This government has also declared its commitment to specific gender policies and on many issues on the score-board, gender plans are in preparation or already exist. The institutional mechanisms to implement the gender plans are not always in place. This country only scores the full 2 points in relation to the implementation of The Beijing PfA, harmful practices, HIV/AIDS, maternal mortality and family planning.

At no point in the scorecard has the government of this country got the full score for 'budget'. In fact for various issues in the AWPS the government provides no budget at all. Likewise the country lacks sufficient human resources to implement the gender policies it is committed to. The government makes efforts to conduct research on many issues referred to in the Scorecard. Only in relation to harmful practices, the review of customary laws, child prostitution, HIV/AIDS and safe abortion does the scorecard indicate sufficient research undertaken or commissioned. In these fields the government works closely with the relevant NGO's. Likewise in these areas the government has extensive information campaigns. In most areas however the necessary information does not reach the population. The government pays very little attention to the monitoring and evaluation of its policies and programmes. The only exceptions are again the areas of family planning, and HIV/AIDS. Capacity enhancement and accountability to the public have consistently low scores.

This country in general scores highest on issues related to health including maternal maternity and the implementation of the ILO conventions on Equal Remuneration and Against Discrimination. The lowest scores are on CEDAW's Optional Protocol, the review of customary laws, sexual harassment, the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflicts, safe abortions, education on human/women's rights, the recent Convention on Maternity at the Workplace and on the various indicators of women's economic and political power (apart from gender mainstreaming). The scorecard indicates that the national machinery is reasonably effective and accessible but that the government otherwise does not make much efforts to increase women's political agency.

TABLE 5.3: The African Women's Progress Scoreboard

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	
Women's rights	CEDAW	CEDAW	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	
		Article 2	X	X	2	1	1	1	1	
		Article 16	X	X	2	1	1	1	1	
		Optional Protocol	1	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa		X	2	1	1	1	0	0	
	Beijing Platform for Action		X	2	1	1	2	1	1	
	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality		X	0	1	2	1	0	1	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child		0	2	2	1	1	1	2	
		Harmful Practices: ¹⁵ FGM Early Marriage Widow inheritance/Levirite Marriage	X	X	2	2	2	2	1	
		Review and modification of customary law	X	X	0	1	1	0	0	
	Violence against Women And children	Domestic violence	X	X	2	1	1	1	1	
		Rape	X	X	1	1	1	1	1	
		Statutory Rape/Defilement	X	X	2	2	1	1	1	
		Sexual harassment	X	X	1	0	0	1	1	
		Protocol on the Suppression and Punishment of Trafficking in Persons Especially in Women and Children	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	
		Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	
		Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	

15) Countries are not restricted from requesting on other practices where these specific ones do not exist

	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Capacity Enhancement	Accountability/ Transparency	Total	%
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	17	48
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	10	38
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	10	38
	X	X	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7
	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	11	39
	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	53
	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	10	35
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	17	56
	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	18	69
	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	6	23
	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	12	46
	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	12	46
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	57
	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	7	27
	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	14	46
	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	17	56
	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	13

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	
SOCIAL	Health- ICPD Plan of Action	HIV/AIDS	X	X	0	2	2	1	1	
		Maternal Mortality	X	X	2	2	2	2	1	
		Family Planning	X	X	1	2	2	2	1	
		Safe Abortions	X	X	0	1	0	0	1	
	Education	Policies to prevent and protect female dropouts	X	X	1	1	1	1	1	
		Education on human/ women's rights	X	X	0	1	0	0	0	
ECONOMIC	ILO Conventions	Convention 100	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	
		Convention 111	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	
		Convention 183	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	
	Sustainable Development	Engendering NPRS	X	X	X	2	1	1	1	
		Access to agricultural extension services	X	X	X	0	1	0	1	
		Access to technology	X	X	X	0	1	0	0	
	Access to land		X	X	0	1	0	0	0	
Political	UN Security Council Resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 on Women, Peace and Security		1	X	1	1	0	0	0	
	Participation of women in traditional governance		X	X	0	1	0	1	1	
	Participation in peace processes and negotiations		X	X	0	1	0	0	0	
	Policies	Gender mainstreaming in all departments	X	X	1	1	2	2	1	
		Support for women's quotas and affirmative action	X	X	0	1	1	0	0	
Total score										

X= Not applicable

Scoring range 0-2

CRC=Convention on the Rights of the Child

NPRS= National Poverty Reduction Strategies

Total possible points (x deducted) 932

	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Capacity Enhancement	Accountability/ Transparency	Total	%
	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	18	69
	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	19	73
	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	19	73
	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	6	23
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13	50
	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	11
	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	19	63
	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	20	66
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	10
	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	29
	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	6	50
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	16
	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	11
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	10
	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	8	20
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	57
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7
									356	38

5.4 Conclusion

IN COMBINING THE GSI and the AWPS a rather comprehensive picture of gender relations is obtained. The African Women's Report (AWR) 2009 gives extensive conclusions on the AGDI results of the 12 trial countries. Here only some glaring issues are highlighted. The relatively high scores on health policies in the AWPS are matched with high scores on the GSI in this field. Likewise, the low scores

for women's political participation that the GSI demonstrates correlates with the lack of attention the government pays to policies to increase women's voice. Together the GSI and the AWPS indicate where government and civil society could increase their efforts to improve women's status in this country.

5.5 The way forward

THE AGDI IS an important tool for monitoring the performance of African Governments in addressing gender inequality and women's empowerment. The results of the country trials indicate that this is a useful instrument to inform Governments of their performance. The process of data collection enhances engagement between Governments and other stakeholders. The country reports will also show where gaps exist in terms of data and information. ECA will use these reports to work together with governments and partners in improving collection of gender disaggregated data where these are absent. In the advisory services that ECA is providing to Members States on gender mainstreaming, the AGDI reports of

the next 18 countries will assist to identify areas where governments need more focus and the support to further advance the cause of women.

ECA's medium and long-term plans for the AGDI include: Increasing the utilisation of the AGDI to all the 52 African countries;

Publishing the results of the AGDI every two years; and Working with the national bureaus of statistics and national machineries of gender/women in the collection of gender disaggregated data and information.

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