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**An Overview assessment of the
implementation of the Nairobi
Forward-Looking Strategies
for the Advancement of Women**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies were adopted in 1985 and provided guidelines for the advancement of women by the year 2000 and beyond. They were to achieve/accelerate the economic and political emancipation of women at all levels; enhance the well-being of women through sustained improvements of the standards of living, poverty alleviation and the mainstreaming of gender perspective in all aspects of development assistance and development plans; attain the full involvement and active participation of women in peace initiatives and in conflict resolution and peace management and strengthen and establish sustainable mechanism including information systems for the promotion of legal literacy, gender awareness and the advancement of women.
2. At the moment, preparations are underway for the fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China in 1995 where the progress made since the formulation of the Nairobi Strategies will be reviewed. As part of the preparations for the Beijing Conference, regional meetings are organized to prepare regional platforms on the situation of women in the respective continents and suggest mechanisms for re-addressing the unfinished agenda of the advancement of women. As part of that effort, African women will convene in Dakar, Senegal to consider the situation of women in the region and to what extent the Nairobi dreams have been realized in the last ten years. This paper is one of many documents that will be presented on the status of the African woman and the actions required to enhance her position. It draws heavily on national reports prepared for the occasion and other United Nations documents having bearing on the subject matter.
3. Review of the progress made in the last ten years reveals that the road to equality in education, employment, decision making, control over reproductive and productive functions, peace and security remain as distant as ever. Women continue to be marginalized in all spheres of life. Despite their numerical strength, which is about almost half of the population, they do not feature significantly in politics, economic and social areas. National and international legal instruments guarantee equal rights to women and they still need to have appropriate mechanisms for civic education, enforcement and monitoring to translate *de jure* rights to *de facto* rights. Legal illiteracy and socio-cultural factors are major impediments.
4. Women are totally marginalized from the political apex where important laws governing allocation of resources and instruments for safeguarding human rights and relationships of citizens are usually formulated and adopted. Their representation in parliament, regional and local councils and in the judiciary systems are insignificant. Except in the case of Seychelles, the chances of meeting the target set for parliamentary representation of African women for the year 1995 remain extremely remote. Early warning from the wave of democratization in Africa is that without strong women's organizations as lobbying groups and forces for negotiation, women are at risk of being short changed in the process. In some cases, existing national machineries for the integration of women in development, with potentials for redressing the situation have turned out to be political arms of the governing party and are therefore used to channel and implement party and government directives.
5. While Africa has been trapped in an economic crisis for about two decades now, the impact has been felt by both men and women; the latter, however, have continued to bear disproportionate burden of the ailing economy. There have been some slight improvements on women's employment in the formal sector. One notices an increase in the number of professional women formally employed and their upward, albeit slow, promotion has also been observed. Job segregation is rampant as the social sector continues to remain women's domain. Problems of computation of women's unpaid family labour and definition of what constitute "economic" activities are among the obstacles for valuation of women's work in national accounts.
6. There have been some gains in employment in manufacturing and industry in the export processing zones (EPZ). However, job segregation, wage disparities, low prospects for upward mobility, membership in unions, safety and security, support services are areas for monitoring women's employment in the manufacturing sector. Women's salary still lags far behind that of men with women earning less than half of

men's salary. Legal entitlement to maternity leave and social security benefits have turned out to work against women's entry into and survival in formal employment sector.

7. Despite natural disasters and civil strife, agriculture continues to be the major employing sector for African women. Although there is an overall decline in the economically active population employed in the agricultural sector, the rate of decline for females is much lower than for males. Land tenure systems, access to agricultural inputs including credit and technology are major constraints to women's productivity and security in the agricultural sector.

8. Women's involvement in the private sector is usually confined to small-scale enterprises and the informal sector. There are some developments which show that women are branching out into the formal private sector, opening up employment opportunities, but policy measures that can nurture these developments have been found to be lacking. A positive trend is observed where African women are organizing themselves into associations of entrepreneurs, women bankers, etc., thus preparing themselves for participation in the formulation of enabling policy environments.

9. Women continue to dominate the informal sector but their assimilation in the formal sector is constrained by lack of access to credit, land, property, technology and technical skills and security. The informal sector is also congested with victims of retrenchment representing stiff competition to the majority of the women who, without the necessary support, are ill equipped to survive in, much less benefit from, the market economy.

10. Africa, whose major resource is its human capital, is characterized by the pathetic state of its human resources development particularly in the access of its female population to resources such as education and health. While both female and male access to education is lacking and faces dimmer prospects because of the drastic budgetary cuts, the fact that women are disproportionately disadvantaged is demonstrated by the gender gap in the rate of literacy and school enrolment at all levels. It is obvious that their educational deprivation accounts for their limited access to productive employment and their conspicuous absence in decision-making positions.

11. Generally, the level of adult literacy in Africa is very low but the situation is even worse for women. For instance, from 1980-1990 the literacy rate for the female population between the ages of 15-24 was only 37 per cent. Female participation at all educational levels is far from satisfactory and sharply declines at primary through secondary to the tertiary level. Female participation at the tertiary level, apart from being as low as 16 per cent in 1990-1991, is concentrated in the social sciences and humanities with few numbers in the sciences and engineering streams. The drop-out rate for females at all levels is much higher than that for males and the situation is exacerbated by early marriages, user charges and economic factors, household chores and adolescent pregnancy. It is worth noting that the affirmative action policies adopted by some African Governments to help redress this situation is now showing encouraging results.

12. As a whole, with cuts in budgetary allocations for the education sector as a result of introduction of structural adjustment programmes (SAPs), female students tend to be more adversely affected. The interplay of socio-cultural and economic factors impede girls' and women's participation in education and training influencing parental preference in investment on boys over girls and survival of girls through the education process.

13. Central to the inter-related issues of population, environment, poverty and human resources development are women whose state of health is governed by socio-economic and religious norms and practices surrounding their reproductive and productive functions. Annual population growth of 2.5 per cent and fertility rate of 6.5 are areas of concern requiring concerted action which focus on women and their special

situation in the household and in the community. The issuance of population policies aimed at redressing these trends is a positive development that needs to be encouraged.

14. The improved health services observed in the first half of the 1980s seem to have declined ever since due to population pressure, reduction in public expenditure in the health sector, poverty, AIDS epidemics and socio-cultural practices surrounding women's reproductive and productive functions.

15. Maternal mortality continued to be high, the percentage of pregnant women and birth with trained attendants in the region as a whole is low; child mortality due to malnutrition is the highest in the world, traditional harmful health practices such as female genital mutilation contribute to the decline in the health status of the African woman and child.

16. Because of the lack of control of their reproductive functions, girls and women are exposed to AIDS infections; they also bear the burden of care of infected family members. Access to family planning information and services, though it shows significant improvement, remains inadequate with only 15 per cent of the population having access to family planning services.

17. Domestic violence, rape, defilement of the girl child are on the rise being cause for concern which has hitherto received little attention from government and is basically left to NGOs.

18. Poverty has reached an alarming level in Africa with women bearing a disproportionate share. The proportion of women and men living in absolute poverty is estimated to have risen by 50 per cent for women and 30 per cent for men in the last two decades.

19. Female-headed households are on the rise and are classified under the most vulnerable. Population pressure, economic decline, urban migration, environmental degradation, civil strife and displacement, the AIDS pandemic and deterioration of social services have resulted in undermining the traditional composition and position of the African family. Its carrying capacity is sorely tried in the fact of economic and social disintegration threatening the very fabric of society.

20. In spite of the foregoing discouraging picture of the African woman since 1985, there have been some encouraging developments in terms of increased awareness of the role of women in development by both men and women themselves since the Nairobi Conference. The number of governmental and non-governmental programmes focusing on women testify to the gains made in this regard.

21. A significant positive trend is the proliferation of women's organizations which have improved in qualitative and quantitative terms since the mid-1980s. A few of these were created through the catalytic role of the national machineries and others are organized around critical economic, political, legal, social and religious issues. Women and the law, women and human rights, women and banking, women entrepreneurs, media women, women living under the Muslim law and various national committees on issues like AIDS, health and traditional harmful practices, domestic violence, family planning, environment, credit, etc., are operating in many African countries. There is an increasing move for subregional and regional affiliations of women, examples of which are the African Women's Development and Communication Network (FEMNET), African Women Entrepreneurs, Women and Human Rights, Law and Development in Africa.

22. Important milestones are being laid as women's organizations continue to act as pressure groups demanding contesting parties to make their programmes address issues of concern to women.

23. International solidarity of women is being developed and strengthened through regional and global networking to address global disparities, gender inequalities, valuation of women's unpaid family labour,

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feminization of poverty, productive employment, debt, environment, etc. International women's coalitions such as the International Federation of Women Lawyers, Union of Parliamentarians and Women World Banking (WWB) are some of the positive trends meriting attention and support.

24. The report proposes a number of recommendations and particularly calls that strategies formulated for the advancement of women and sustainable development be grounded in the principle of "people first" which takes women's perspectives and potentials into account. The recommendations detail out measures aimed at political and economic empowerment of women, including poverty alleviation strategies and educational reforms needed to rectify the imbalance in girls' and women's access to education.

With democratization as the catalyst, the 1990s are poised to be a critical decade that could either turn into tragic era of missed opportunities or into landmark in the advancement of women in civilization as a whole. [1]

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Since the first World Conference on Women in Mexico in 1975, equality, development and peace have emerged as the guiding principles for action at global, regional and national levels. As one of the themes of the World Plan of Action for the attainment of the objectives of the United Nations Decade for Women, equality for women has continued to be inseparable from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which stipulates that both women and men have equal rights. Women's struggle for equal participation in socio-economic and political development of their countries is nothing more than a struggle for basic human rights. However, the patriarchal system embodied in the socio-cultural and religious norms and beliefs present barriers to women's attainment of gender equity.

2. Structural imbalances in society evoking culture and religion to justify inequalities between women and men are reinforced through government laws and acts of the legislative, judicial and executive organs often leading to the subordination and marginalization of women. Mere paper equality in the form of constitutional and legal rights or international instruments for gender parity, unmatched by a political will on the part of governments by actively involving women themselves at decision-making levels, have proved to be meaningless in the efforts to bring about a world order free of inequity. Closing the gender gap in access to the means and benefits of development requires true democratic culture; the development of which poses a global challenge.

3. The recent preoccupation with human rights issues have, fortunately, brought up women's concerns for equality into the human rights agenda as was articulated in the 1993 Vienna Conference on Human Rights. The Conference highlighted the links between the objectives of the World Plan of Action and the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies, thus expounding the need for redefinition of human rights from a women's perception and revisiting the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights.

4. Development, one of the objectives of the Nairobi Strategies, is defined as the satisfaction of needs and attainment of sustained overall well-being of all peoples. Lopsided distribution of means and benefits of growth foster resentments and conflicts. The conflicts and civil strife witnessed today are the results of inequities and perceived as real marginalization of segments of population in their pursuit of means and benefits of development. Conventional indicators for measuring development of a country such as GDP and GNP as sole indicators, have long been subjected to criticism in the development discourse. Inequalities breed conflict and disrupt development. Just as a peaceful environment promotes development, development with equitable distribution of the benefits of growth guarantees peace and sustainable development.

5. Equality, development and peace are therefore intertwined and mutually reinforcing. Peace includes security against physical, mental, economic, social and spiritual violation on women in and outside the household and protection of society against aggression of all forms in and outside a country. The Kampala Action Plan and the Vienna Conference on Human Rights provide guiding principles in the promotion and management of peace by both women and men as prerequisites for sustained development.

6. Since the convening of the Mexico World Conference, a number of regional conferences were organized under the auspices of the Economic Commission for Africa to monitor progress made towards the advancement of women in the region. These meetings have helped to identify critical areas of concern which were eventually incorporated in both the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies (1985) and the Abuja Declaration (1989). The Abuja Conference, the fourth in the series of regional conferences, undertook the first

review of the Nairobi Strategies and formulated the Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s, which was adopted within the framework of the Nairobi Strategies.

7. The Dakar Conference in November 1994, the fifth in the series, is a process to assess once again the progress made and constraints faced in implementing the Nairobi Strategies and to present the position of African women to the fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995.

8. In taking stock of progress and other obstacles, almost a decade after the adoption of the Nairobi Strategies, the interplay of both endogenous and exogenous factors and their consequences on Africa in general and on women in particular stand out. While some positive progress has been made in certain areas, the overall picture of the economic, political and socio-cultural development of the region leaves much to be desired and hence remains cause for grave concern. It cannot be denied that there has been better regional awareness of women's plights and aspirations and that some governments may have taken measures aimed at making the political and policy climate more conducive for the amelioration of the condition of women.

9. However, almost a decade later, as women once again review progress made toward realization of the Nairobi Strategies, the situation seems to be disheartening as all indications point out. For the African woman, the road to equality in education, employment, decision making, peace, security and control over reproductive and productive functions remains as bumpy as ever. This, of course, should not be a cause for despair for patriarchal values embedded for centuries could not disappear overnight nor is the region any less vulnerable to global and endogenous factors that perpetrate the marginalization of women in the development process. The gender gap undermines what little gains were realized since the 1970s and mid-1980s, as reported at the first review of the implementation of the Nairobi Strategies in Abuja in 1989. As one observes that with increasing incidence of "feminization of poverty" in Africa, the noble objectives of equality, development and peace remain elusive to African women.

10. The marginalization and inequality of women manifest themselves in all walks of life: in the realm of politics where major policies affecting citizens are formulated; in the area of the public sector where policies are implemented, laws are interpreted and legal rights are safeguarded; and in economic areas where access to resources are determined, women rarely influence events and policy directions. The Nairobi Strategies were expressions of high hopes and dreams for redressing the inequality and marginalization that pervaded all aspects of the lives of African women. Development has not registered gratifying scores to rejoice. African women enter the second decade saddled with the same problems they set out to solve ten years ago.

11. A positive trend observed is, however, the emergence of women's groups and NGOs in Africa. Women have used the last decade to develop their organizational potentials and ventured into debates and action on gender concerns that were hitherto perceived to be divisive and unpopular. African women's groups are forming alliances with their global sisters and forcing the inclusion of their concerns in human right issues, peace, population, environment, world economic order, women and work, feminization of poverty, social development, etc. They have discovered their comparative advantage in their numerical strength and are developing their potentials as organized forces to participate at the "negotiating table".

12. African women are determined more than ever to correct their conspicuous absence in decisions that have and continue to shape the direction of their lives.

13. As part of the preparations for the Beijing Conference, this report draws on national reports submitted to ECA. Where evidence and data are lacking in the national reports for specific periods, other sources such as reports of international agencies and NGOs are used to supplement the missing data. The progress made in enhancing the equality of women in public life, in their access to education, employment,

health services and socio-cultural and political trends and their prospective impact on the achievement of equality, development and peace will be briefly reviewed below.

II. ASSESSMENT OF PROGRESS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NAIROBI FORWARD-LOOKING STRATEGIES

14. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies, as adopted at the third World Conference, provide guidelines for the advancement of women to the year 2000 and beyond. These are to:

(a) Achieve/accelerate the economic and political emancipation of women at all levels, enabling them, as citizens, on an equal footing with men, to participate at the level of decision-making and become active beneficiaries of all aspects of national development;

(b) Enhance the well-being of women through sustained improvement of their standards of living, poverty alleviation and the mainstreaming of gender perspective in respect of development assistance and development plans;

(c) Attain the full involvement and active participation of women in peace initiatives and in conflict prevention, management and resolution; and

(d) Strengthen/establish sustainable mechanism, including information systems, at all levels, for the promotion of legal literacy, gender-awareness and the advancement of women. [2]

15. Progress made in the implementation of the Nairobi Strategies towards the advancement of women under the themes of equality, development and peace and the sub-themes of education, health and employment can easily be seen from African women's current socio-economic and political situation.

16. The Mexico World Conference on Women which laid the first global milestone for the advancement of women within the World Plan of Action and subsequent global and regional conferences have reviewed and appraised the situation of women and the prospects of attaining equality, development and peace. The Nairobi Strategies and the culmination of the end of the United Nations Decade for Women, raised hopes and aspirations of women when governments committed themselves to the realization of the objectives of equality, development and peace.

A. Women and decision making

Equality in political participation and decision making is one of the major priorities for advancement of women into the 1990s. Without success in this area, other areas of advancement of women will be put at risk. Equity strategies directed at increasing the number of women in decision-making positions have to challenge, simultaneously, outdated ideas of women's place, work and potential by improving the general position of women in society, and removing their generally lower social status and low value placed on the work they perform. [3]

17. Despite the fact that women constitute more than 50 per cent of the world's population, their representation in areas affecting their lives in no way reflects their numerical strength. The marginalization of women pervades political, social and economic areas. The recognition of their lack of adequate participation in the socio-political and economic areas has led to the institution of various strategies and measures to ameliorate the situation. The need for rectifying this situation was highlighted in a number of conferences held around the world since 1975; the Nairobi end-of-Decade Conference was one of them.

18. Women's rights to full citizenship should be recognized and reflected in their effective participation at the various levels of political life. It becomes meaningless to talk of true democracy when women are virtually excluded from positions of power.

19. The exclusion of women from politics could seriously undermine the legitimacy of the democratic system, since elected representatives will be distanced from their electorate, particularly from the women whose votes are critical for any party or individual aspirant.

20. Political participation provides the opportunity for articulating, promoting and defending interests. Lack of it means denial of opportunities and platforms to articulate and defend interests close to the hearts of women. Women's interests and the need to have proper "control" of their bodies and access to family planning, to have proper platform to demand for care of children and of others who are physically dependent and to have more protection against sexual violence and harassment can only be safeguarded if their participation in the legislative platform where they can articulate and defend their interests is assured.

21. The exclusion of women from political life also has the danger of not fully and efficiently utilizing human resources. As one comment puts it, "excluding women from positions of power from elected bodies impoverishes public life and inhibits the development of a just society. In short, without the full participation of women in decision making, the political process will be less effective than it can and should be, to the detriment of society as a whole". [4]

22. As parliament represents the apex of political life, women's participation in it is of critical importance. Even though the role of parliaments vary from one political system to another, in democratic States they all embody political will and power; they are sources of legislation and mechanisms for government of control and distribution of resources and recruit the highest level of decision-makers. Any moves aimed at improving the social, economic, legal and cultural conditions of women are likely to originate at and be sanctioned by parliament. Hence, participation in parliament or lack of it would have significant effects in the struggle to acquire legitimate rights.

23. Given the central role parliaments play in political decision making, it would be interesting to see how women's participation features in African parliaments. What progress has been achieved in terms of their participation since the adoption of the Nairobi Strategies? What should be the minimum representation of women in parliaments that would enable them to become a formidable force to influence legal and policy directions? How can African women fare in this regard? These and other related questions will be addressed in the following section.

(a) Representation in parliament

24. As the highest legislative organ, representation in parliament has a significance in as far as the responsibility for making laws rests with that body. But if women are to have significant influence, a fair representation at different levels of decision-making structures must be considered. Hence, in analyzing the extent of participation of women in decision-making structures, it is necessary to examine their involvement at ministerial, regional and local government decision-making entities as well as the higher echelons of the civil service.

25. A study of 26 African countries between 1987 and 1992 revealed a slight increase in the rate of the participation of women in parliaments, from 7.65 to 7.77 per cent, i.e., a 0.12 per cent increase, which is negligible. [5] Considering the fact that by 1993, the wave of democratization had spread through Africa, one would have expected women to benefit from such a change. Unfortunately, the slight increase of 0.12 per cent in the participation of women in parliament suggests that democratization has started off without

women and with little regard for their numerical strength and none for the formidable force they constitute in shaping the "democratic" direction.

26. In the countries for which data for 1987 and 1992 are available, a decline is noted in the percentage of seats occupied by women in 61.5 per cent of these countries, an increase in 34.6 per cent of the countries and no change in the case of 3.85 per cent of the countries. [6] Among the countries registering a drop in female participation in parliament are Benin where it dropped from 7.4 per cent in 1980 to 4.68 per cent in 1993; Cameroon from 14.1 per cent in 1983-1987 to 12.2 per cent in 1993-1994; the Congo from 9.8 per cent in 1984-1988 to 2 per cent in 1994; Mali from 6.09 per cent in 1990 to 2.6 per cent during the Second Republic.

27. Among those countries where women's representation in parliament showed a slight increase were Burkina Faso where it rose from 1.75 per cent in 1978 to 3.3 per cent in 1992; Zaire, from 3 per cent in 1978-1982 to 4 per cent in 1993; Senegal, from 6 per cent in the Seventh Parliament to 10 per cent in the Eighth Parliament. These very modest increases in women's representation in parliament, while for a start, are rather slow in closing the gender gap by the end of the century.

28. An earlier study based on data collected from 15 countries covering the 1975-1987 period reported that only 26.7 per cent of the countries showed positive changes of more than 6 per cent; 26.7 per cent of them had a 1-6 per cent increase and 46 per cent showed no change or a negative change in women's representation. In 1992, countries where women had more than 10 per cent representation in parliament included Algeria, Cameroon, Guinea-Bissau, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

29. The highest percentage of representation was recorded in Seychelles where women occupied 45.8 per cent of the parliamentary seats. With the exception of Seychelles which seems to have exceeded the target of 30 per cent women in parliament by 1995 set by the United Nations Economic and Social Council, the rest of Africa are nowhere near it. "If progress were to continue at the present rate, it would be well into the twenty-first century before even the 1995 targets were met, let alone the goal of equality." [7]

30. As could be concluded from the foregoing, the increase in the percentage of women's representation in parliament is of no significance. It was also observed that in those countries where there was relatively higher percentage of representation, it was mostly on account of Presidential nominations rather than fought-out elections. There seems also to be some correlation between the socialist ideology of the regime and the high presence of women in one-party systems.

31. A special constraint to women's participation in politics is the volatile nature of African Governments where the elite, men and women, hesitated to engage in political activities for fear of reprisals upon the fall of the incumbent governments. This is more so for women's bureaus and women's affairs departments and/or ministries where women served as political arms of governing parties and found themselves in insecure positions upon the change of government. The situations in the Niger and Ethiopia show that the credibility of women leaders at all levels was questioned and support from "constituents" was not easily forthcoming. Lack of autonomy of national machineries for the integration of women is an area of concern for future action.

(b) Representation in ministerial positions

32. The phenomena observed in relation to the participation of women in parliament appears to recur at the levels of ministerial, regional and local decision-making structures. According to a review of 51 African countries in 1987, [8] there were no women ministers in 60.8 per cent of the countries and no senior level officials in 41.2 per cent of the countries reviewed. The same report reveals that the average

percentage of women in decision-making levels in 1987 was 2.7 per cent at ministerial, 5.1 per cent at vice-ministerial, 4.7 per cent at director of department and 4.9 per cent at the deputy director levels. When clustering the above data on subregional basis, the following picture emerges: [9] North Africa 1.1 per cent, West Africa 5.4 per cent, Central Africa 3.3 per cent, East Africa 3.2 per cent and Southern Africa 1.9 per cent.

33. With regard to the average percentage of representation of women in different ministries in 1987, 1.1 per cent were in the office of the head of the State; 2.6 per cent in the office of the prime minister; 1.6 per cent in economic ministries; 3.4 per cent in law and justice and 3.6 per cent in social ministries. The latter have come to be known as the "soft" ministries to which women are often assigned. This may partially reflect their relatively better representation in the education and social service professions.

34. While the above represents the overall distribution of women in senior governmental decision-making structures, the picture of the distribution of women ministers for the same period does not differ radically from the above: 1.2 per cent of the women ministers were in the office of the head of State; 0.7 per cent in the office of the prime minister; 1 per cent in political ministries; 0.9 per cent in economic ministries; 2.1 per cent in law and justice ministries and 7.4 per cent in social ministries.

35. In 1994, among the women ministers in the "non-soft" ministries are Liberia's Minister of Foreign Affairs; Ghana's Minister of Trade and Industries; Botswana's Minister of Foreign Affairs. There are, however, a number of ministers of social affairs, women's affairs, health, education, community development and sports. Gender stereotyping persists by confining women in "private" rather than "public" and their association with their traditional roles as home makers. It is also worth noting here that these social ministries have the lowest budgetary allocations which have of late suffered from drastic reductions in public expenditures, thus undermining the potentials of these women ministers in influencing policy directions and resource allocations.

36. According to a 1994 UNDP report, the percentage of female administrators and managers for 1980-1989 was 13 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa. Senegal tops the list with 44 per cent female administrators and managers; Botswana 36 per cent; South Africa 17 per cent; the Gambia and Zimbabwe 15 per cent; Egypt 14 per cent; Seychelles 12 per cent; Zambia 11 per cent; Sao Tome and Principe 9 per cent; Ghana 9 per cent; Togo 8 per cent and Cameroon 6 per cent. [10]

(c) Representation in regional and local structures

37. For those countries where data are available, women's representation at local and regional councils does not provide any different picture than the one observed at the national level. With few exceptions, women's representation at the local level is insignificant, even though it might be slightly higher than their representation at the national level.

38. For instance, in the Congo, the representation of women in the regional councils for the period 1979-1984 was 11.3 per cent, compared to 9.8 per cent representation in parliament in 1979-1984. In 1992, women's representation in the regional councils, even though it dropped to 3.5 per cent in 1992, was still relatively higher than the corresponding 2 per cent representation in parliament.

39. At the district and provincial levels, the representation of women councillors dropped from 8.6 per cent in 1979-1984 to 3.9 per cent in 1992. In Burkina Faso, women represented 20 per cent of regional commissioners in 1985-1987. The percentage of women's representation at that level dropped to 0 during 1994. Burkinabé women seem to have fared relatively better at the urban councils level, where their representation increased from a low of 1.85 per cent in 1985-1987 to 17.6 per cent in 1994.

40. In Zaire, the representation of women at the local organs level declined from 2.95 per cent in 1985 to 2.37 per cent in 1993. In Benin, women represented 8.3 per cent of the total number of deputy governors in 1985 but dropped to 5.3 per cent in 1993. Of the 5,200 mayors in 1993, there was not a single female mayor. In Gabon, there was one woman provincial governor between 1990 and 1993 while in 1994, a woman was appointed secretary-general of a region. Mauritania had one woman mayor out of 208. [11] In Kenya, more and more women are elected councillor. Grass-roots leadership is being developed through women's community participation in agricultural and pastoral areas.

41. In those countries where one observes a relatively better representation at the local than the national level such as Kenya, it might be due in part to their visibility in performing their community organization functions as part of their gender roles. This level is also less prestigious and commands less resources than higher structures to which women's entry, through elections or nominations, have not fared well. Nevertheless, it is an encouraging trend as grass-roots leadership is being developed for upward mobility. The local level is also an appropriate place for affecting decisions on management of community natural resources through people's participation and empowerment. A critical core of local leaders is being developed to act eventually as pressure groups to affect candidature and election of women to higher decision-making positions.

42. Among the barriers to fair representation of women in decision-making positions are the lack of self-confidence resulting from their subordination which pervades all aspects of their thinking; their lack of knowledge and understanding of their legal rights; inadequate dissemination of democratic culture (legal illiteracy); lack of strong women's organization to identify, lobby for and submit candidatures and gain votes for their candidates and party programmes; women's limited time is also an impediment which restricts their mobility and participation in political rallies; lack of resources and sponsors; and discouraging husbands or male relatives who usually evoke cultural and religious values - labeling female political aspirants as "non-feminine" and "aggressive".

(d) Women in the judicial systems

43. Women's involvement in the judiciary system, while showing regional and country variations, is still low. In traditional Africa, resolution of conflicts, mediation of issues of resource allocations, marital relations and apprehending criminal offenders were vested on male chiefs. Women's entry into this jealously guarded male domain is, therefore, bound to be slow. Women's choice of study and educational levels also deter their participation in the judiciary or any higher level decision-making positions.

44. For those who managed to get a foothold in the higher echelons of governmental and non-governmental structures, their conspicuous absence at peace negotiation tables and in conflict resolution is due to lack of exposure to national, regional and international fora. The absence of female prosecutors, lawyers and judges is acutely felt in the resolution of cases of violence against women, rape, assault and sexual harassment which are likely to receive inappropriate judicial interpretations.

45. The participation of women in judicial and legal affairs in Africa is generally very low. In 1992, some of the countries that had women in the judiciary system were Madagascar (28.9 per cent), Morocco (32.6 per cent), Senegal (23.1 per cent) and Zambia (1.0 per cent). [12]

46. The evidence is that, despite the constitutional rights of women, parliaments, ministerial positions and the judiciary system have always been male domains. Legal instruments recognizing women's rights to participate in political life in the majority of African countries are recent (1960s) developments. Even after the obstacles hindering their political participation have been removed (considering their numerical strength), their involvement as candidates or elected members of parliament, regional and local organs has not been significant.

47. In conclusion, African women are totally marginalized with respect to the political apex where important laws governing allocations of resources and instruments for safeguarding human rights are passed, thus governing entitlement and relationships which have hitherto been espoused to patriarchal ideology. In some cases, existing national machineries for the integration of women in development with potentials for redressing the situation are usually political arms of the governing party and are used to channel and implement party and government directives. This diverts their attention and meager resources. Nevertheless, a positive trend of closer collaboration of these machineries and women's lobbying groups is emerging in most African countries.

B. Women and employment

48. Economic crisis and rapid population growth impede the absorbing capacity of the formal employment sector. A special feature of Africa's demographic trend is the proportion of its youth population and the high average annual growth of the economically active labour force. Women represented 37 per cent of the total labour force in sub-Saharan Africa during the period 1990-1992. [13] The conventional indicators for measuring "economically" active labour force in national accounts and statistics do not reflect the true picture to give the real value of women's economic activities and "labour" in and outside the household.

49. It is now acknowledged that women are the backbone of Africa's economy. They are employed in a variety of economic activities. What is not adequately recognized is the terms of their employment and the real value of their labour. With the economic crisis and social disintegration that have characterized Africa's socio-economic transformation, women's resilience is ever more demonstrated by their resourcefulness as they continue to bear the brunt of the crisis.

50. Increasing numbers of women, particularly heads of households, are moving into economic activities that were traditionally male domains. The incidence of female-headed households is on the rise (31 per cent) and is the highest in the world. In countries like Botswana and Lesotho, where female household heads constitute 40 and 30 per cent respectively, women's activity rates are on the rise. [14]

51. A new perception about women's capabilities and need for income is emerging as a result of socio-economic transformation and demographic changes in Africa. Women's income has become indispensable to family survival regardless of men in the household. While this move presents opportunities for women, it also threatens their welfare and that of the girl child as they are forced to engage in a balancing act of their time and energies, working longer hours than men. Some studies have shown that the working hours of women extend from 16-18 hours, leaving little time for rest and much less for education and training to improve their economic and social status. Self-provisioning in the face of cuts in government subsidies, inflation, environmental degradation and demands for care of the sick and elderly encroach upon women's productive employment. Women's increased economic activities have not been accompanied by improved services and technological support to lessen their burden. While women's wage income is indispensable to poor households, the conditions under which they earn their income have in many cases been at the cost of their well-being, with no task sharing by spouses and sons in the household. [15]

52. Progress in improving women's wage employment in the formal sector has in general been hampered by the requirements of economic reform and stabilization. Reductions in public expenditure and the resultant retrenchment process have not been conducive for female intake nor to their survival in the formal employment sector in Africa. Measures taken or intended by some African Governments to promote women's entry into this sector have been aborted by the state of their economies, particularly in those countries that are implementing SAPs. At the best of times, compared to men, women have less than two thirds chance of getting wage employment. [16]

(a) Wage employment in the formal sector

53. There have been some improvements in women's employment in the formal sector in the last two decades. An increase in the number of professional women employed and their upward mobility have also been observed. Social services such as education, health and community services have continued to be "female" domains. At the same time, the sector is a target for budgetary reductions and retrenchments. On the other hand, employment opportunities are opening for women in manufacturing and industry in countries within export processing zones (EPZs). As a result, the percentage of female labour force participation in industry and manufacturing has risen from 5.8 per cent in 1986 to 8 per cent in 1992. Male labour force participation in this sector was 18 per cent in 1992. [17]

54. Except for 11 countries, a decline has been recorded in the percentage of the economically active female labour force in the region in 1987 and 1990. Countries that had registered high rates in 1987 show a drop in 1990; examples are Mozambique, from 89 to 87 per cent and the Niger, from 87 to 79 per cent. [18] The drop in these two countries could be explained by civil strife and drought. The highest percentage of female active labour force for the period 1972-1990 was in Tunisia which registered 7.3 per cent.

55. Sectoral distribution of active female labour force reveals women's continued concentration in the agricultural sector. In 1992, it was 71 per cent of the total economically active female labour force, as opposed to 78.15 per cent in 1986. [19] There has been a decline in percentage for both the female and male labour force in the agricultural sector where it dropped by 3.6 per cent for female labour and 5.5 per cent for male labour. [20] This may be a consequence of natural disasters and male migration.

56. Data on income disparity are not easy to come by. Most African countries are signatories to the relevant international legal instruments which eliminate discriminatory practices and yet women are concentrated in lower echelons and low-paying categories. This can be explained in the light of their low educational level. It is estimated that women's wages are half or less than those of men. This is a global phenomenon where women in industrialized countries are paid 50 to 80 per cent of male wages. [21]

57. Entitlement to maternity leave and social security benefits appear to be impediments to women's employment in public enterprises. Not only are their chances of entry into wage employment affected by their rights to paid maternity leave (ranging from 45, 60 or 90 days), in some countries their chances of resuming duties and protection of their seniority are severely threatened because of their absence on leave entitlements. In Kenya, efforts are being made to supplement maternity leave entitlement from social security funds to make up the balance which enterprises are reluctant to pay. Similarly, in Egypt, discriminatory practices by administrators and managers force women to move into the informal sector. [22]

58. Data for child-care services for women working in the manufacturing sector are not available. Given their double-day syndrome and their limited prospects for membership in trade unions and networking, unless special measures are taken to safeguard their interests such as through flexible working hours, women employees are likely to feel insecure and more vulnerable than their male counterparts.

(b) Women in the private sector - small-scale enterprises

59. More women in West and Southern African countries are self-employed in small-scale enterprises in textiles, garments, food processing, restaurants and wholesale trade. The proportion of self-employed women in such enterprises varies within the region and among countries. During the period 1980-1987, self-employed women constituted about 65 per cent of the labour force, the highest (63 per cent) for Botswana and the lowest (under 5 per cent) for Algeria and the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. [23] A study carried out in some Eastern and Southern African countries revealed the gender proportion in small-scale enterprises as follows: the highest percentage are owned by women in Botswana (75.2 per cent), Lesotho (73 per cent),

South Africa (62.1 per cent), Swaziland (84.3 per cent) and Zimbabwe (66.6 per cent). Only in Kenya (52.7 per cent) and Malawi (51.9 per cent) male ownership of small-scale enterprises showed a slight edge over female owners. The same study also showed the gender proportion of the labour force where the female labour force including proprietors were 78 per cent for Swaziland, 76 per cent for Lesotho, with lowest female labour force in Kenya (44.3 per cent). [24]

60. The above data reveal that women are branching out into the formal private sector, opening employment opportunities. The need for an enabling economic environment to improve performance and sustenance of these female-owned enterprises is apparent. As the study of the Southern African female-owned businesses shows, their growth is less rapid than those owned by men, suggesting that the former rely more on family labour, have less credit access and are engaged in balancing act between their productive and reproductive functions which are the causes for their lagging behind.

61. A positive trend observed recently is that African women entrepreneurs are organizing themselves in several countries to enhance their economic and political positions. Technical and resource problems have been impediments to the development of their potential as strong pressure groups. The recent inauguration of the regional coalition - Association of African Entrepreneurs - is an encouraging move to strengthen collaboration and negotiating power.

(c) Women in the informal sector

62. Despite the paucity of accurate and systematic data, it is obvious that the informal sector is the major employer of African women. The sector's importance is demonstrated by the shrinking absorbing capacity of the formal sector and the "safe haven" for direct and indirect victims of the retrenchment process. Considering the general low-level positions of women employed in the formal labour market, streamlining economies and budgetary cuts which are likely to affect "unproductive" sectors, it is likely that more women will be moving out of the formal into the informal sector of employment. The informal sector employs about 25 per cent of the labour force.

63. Ease of entry into the informal sector has absorbed the majority of women of all ages who concentrate on petty trading, home-based food processing, etc. Cutbacks on subsidies to agricultural inputs have resulted in diversification of rural women's economic activities regardless of the strain on the elasticity of their energy and time. The demand for the labour of the girl child is likely to increase and encroach upon her chances of education more than for boys. Female heads of households are the most affected by cuts in subsidies and the economic crisis, particularly for those countries where male migration is high and de facto right has not been translated to de jure rights vis-à-vis land rights and collateral loans.

64. Urban women's engagement in home-based income-generating activities face the constraints of housing and work premises affecting their productivity and income. The informal sector is also being congested with victims of retrenchment, school drop-outs and jobless youth who completed secondary and tertiary education.

65. The majority of women who are illiterate and resource poor are ill-equipped to withstand the serious competitions to sustain their small-scale enterprises. Women engaged in petty trading in open markets as well as in home-based food processing and beverage sales are often subjected to harassment and exploitation of their insecure positions.

66. African women's major employment sector is agriculture which is characterized by subsistence production and vulnerability to natural disasters. Access to agricultural inputs including credit, technology and extension services and marketing determine women's agricultural productivity and productive employment in this dominant sector. One of the major impediments to female farmers in Africa is the land tenure

systems adversely affecting their access to and control over the land. The majority of African female farmers are "tenants" of their husbands or male relatives as they continue to provide unpaid employment to family farms. Notwithstanding legal equalities enshrined in constitutions and in some cases in reformed civic and family laws, women face cultural prejudices in access to land. Land allocation and title deeds continue to be guided by the notion that women depend on men for their livelihood.

67. Rural women's marginalization in access to land is more conspicuous in rice development programmes in some West African countries. Women who are the major rice growers are severely constrained by their disadvantaged position in the household and the community at large as they continue to work as "tenants" on their husbands' or male relatives' land with little or no control over the output of their labour.

68. Irrigation projects have perpetuated female farmers' disadvantaged resource base by following traditional practices of plot allocation to male heads of households. Similarly, research and technology have neglected women's knowledge and needs by concentrating on improving the productivity of male activities which has worked to the detriment of the project and food security. [25]

69. The right to land is also a critical issue in recently independent countries where the dividends from liberation have not been equitably shared between women and men. Women liberation fighters who had enjoyed gender equality on the battlefield and in refugee camps where the traditional gender inequalities were minimized, find themselves relegated to the "private" and subordinate positions upon attainment of independence. Traditional practices and customary laws are re-surfacing, resulting in losses of positive gains previously realized during the pre-independence period.

70. Post-liberation has, therefore, placed women once again in disadvantaged positions vis-à-vis their rights to means of production such as land and credit. Women's access to agricultural inputs including membership in cooperatives and credit associations are restricted by lack of title deeds to conjugal property for collateral.

71. Urban women's chances of owning property are also hindered not only due to their poor resource bases but also because of cultural prejudices on the part of authorities who continue to regard men as household heads and holders of title deeds to conjugal properties. Women's access to credit to improve their economic activities in the informal sector is thus curtailed due to their socio-economic and cultural position in the household and society.

72. Access to credit: Access to credit is closely tied to women's economic situation as well as to the socio-cultural and religious values prevailing in society vis-à-vis women's ownership of property to serve as collateral. Because of the scale and nature of their economic operations (small-scale; home-based and informal, not registered, insecure income), women's chances of receiving credit from banks is virtually low. Illiteracy, distance, male-required approval are among the impediments to women's access to formal credit.

73. A major source of credit for women in the informal sector is the traditional savings and credit scheme that exists in all African countries. Some measures have been taken by governments to improve women's access to credit through reforms in the financial institutions. International donors and NGOs have, in many countries, played important roles in promoting such institutional reforms through provision of funds as collateral grantees and matching funds for better credit access to poor women. Examples of beneficiaries of bank loans for 1985 and 1992 included Liberia, 24 per cent increased to 48 per cent; Zimbabwe, from 6.4 to 11.2 per cent. In 1992, the percentage of women who received bank loans in Zambia and Kenya was 16 and 10 per cent respectively. [26] NGOs present sources of interest-free loans for women's groups, albeit limited in coverage and portfolio.

74. The dramatic increase seen in the above loan figures reveals the credit needs of women and the potential of financial institutions to enhance women's economic activities and promote economic development. Stepping up the coverage of the Africa branch of Women's World Banking to an African Women's Development Bank proposed by the Kampala Conference (1994) for women merits serious consideration. [27]

75. For the majority of women whose credit needs are too small, indigenous savings and credit schemes with fellow traders in the market and neighbourhood continue to be their major source of capital. Some NGOs are also experimenting with small credit as seed money for poor urban and rural women. However, they face shortage of funds and administrative personnel to sustain the programmes. WISDOM in the Gambia is one example among many in the region.

76. Access to technology: Productivity of women suffers from the lack of adequate support services, including the benefit of science and technology to save time and energy and increase their productivity. Women in subsistence agriculture have in general been left out of research and technology development programmes which have targeted men's work and their needs for increasing productivity. For example, little has been done to develop farm tools used to lessen the burden of agricultural work such as weeding for African women farmers.

77. Furthermore, government support towards the development of technologies for household chores, with the exception of cooking stoves, has been lacking in this area (including technology for food processing, preservation and storage). Some West African countries have made better advances in this than other parts. Women who are involved in technology and who have better understanding of the technological needs of women are rarely consulted in technological research development. NGOs have, however, been initiating participatory research on the technology needs of rural and urban women.

C. Women's access to education

78. Education is the key to economic, social and political development. It is also one of the basic human rights enshrined in the Universal Human Rights Charter. Poor countries are characterized by their top-sided development policies which put human development as the end rather than as the focus of development. The consequences of this misguided decision are evidenced by increasing unemployment, mass poverty and social disintegration - the agenda of the forthcoming World Summit on Social Development.

79. Africa, whose major resource is its human capital, is characterized by the pathetic state of its human resources development, particularly in the access of its female population to resources such as education and health. While both females and males access to education is low, the fact that the formers are disproportionately disadvantaged is demonstrated by the gender gap in the rate of literacy and school enrolment at all levels. It is obvious that women's educational deprivation accounts for their limited access to productive employment and their conspicuous absence in decision-making positions.

80. Socio-cultural and economic factors impede girls and women's participation in education and training and this will eventually influence parental preference to invest in boys rather than in girls. Some African Governments have adopted affirmative action policies to help redress the situation, particularly at secondary and tertiary levels where the female drop-out rate is very high.

81. Generally, the level of adult literacy in Africa is very low. In 1985, only 13 countries were reported to have had an adult literacy population of more than 60 per cent. From 1980 to 1990, the literacy rate for the female population between the ages of 15 and 24 was only 37 per cent.

82. Female enrolment at the primary level has shown some increase between the period 1985-1991. For instance, in Burundi, female enrolment rose from 69.2 per cent in 1985 to 84 per cent in 1991; Algeria, from 75.4 to 81 per cent; Egypt, from 72.1 to 80 per cent; the Sudan, from 69.4 to 73 per cent; Zimbabwe, from 91.4 to 99 per cent. Higher enrolment for girls over boys was observed in Botswana and Lesotho. [28]
83. The enrolment ratio for all levels as a percentage of children in the ages 6-23 which was 39 per cent in 1980 dropped to 35 per cent in 1990, showing a decline of 4 per cent in ten years. The enrolment ratio for females at primary level in 1990 was 43 (net) and 60 (gross); 15 for secondary and 1.1 per cent for tertiary. Total natural and applied sciences enrolment as a percentage of females at tertiary level in 1990-1991 was 16 per cent.
84. Secondary level enrolment for girls, which has also increased for the period 1985-1991, shows higher gender disparity for the region. Except for Lesotho where the female enrolment ratio was higher than males, women trail far behind men at secondary and tertiary levels.
85. Secondary enrolment for girls in 1990 was 15 per cent, compared to 17 per cent in 1988-1990 while tertiary level enrolment was 1.1 per cent for girls in 1990 and 2 per cent in 1988-1990. Tertiary enrolment rates are not significant in all countries. The highest rates were for Lesotho (172 in 1985) and Namibia (162 for 1990). Among the highest ratios of female to male enrolment at the tertiary level in 1985-1987 was 46 in Algeria, 71 in Botswana, 50 in Egypt, 40 in Gabon, 50 in Ghana, 62 in Madagascar, 40 in Malawi, 50 in Mauritius, 50 in Morocco, 68 in the Sudan, 62 in Swaziland, 58 in Tunisia and 50 in Zimbabwe. While the foregoing represent the highest ratios, among those with the lowest ratios are the Central African Republic and Chad 9, Equatorial Guinea 11, Guinea 16, the Congo 15, Rwanda 16 and the United Republic of Tanzania 16. [29]*
86. There is a concentration of female students in the social sciences and humanities and their proportion in engineering and technology is still low. In sub-Saharan Africa, female enrolment ratio at the tertiary level for 1990 was reported to be 1.1. In 1990-1991, female students enrolled in natural and applied sciences constituted 16 per cent of total tertiary level female enrolment. [30]*
87. Special measures taken (affirmative action) by governments to correct female enrolment imbalances in the sciences have made encouraging progress in, for example, Kenya and Ethiopia. The former, through affirmative action and an increase in the number of universities, has raised the rate from 28 per cent in 1991 to 31 per cent in 1992/93. The female student population in law rose from 4 per cent in 1980-1983 to 41 per cent in 1985. In commerce, 43 per cent of the students were female. In Ethiopia, affirmative action brought up women's enrolment in institutions of higher learning from 9 per cent in 1987/88 to 23 per cent in 1990/91 and 27 per cent in 1993/94. [31]
88. The drop-out rates at all levels show a gender gap. Data for Kenya reveal that the drop-out rate in 1985 was 70 per cent for males, compared to 68 per cent for females. In 1990, the rate dropped to 57 per cent for males and 62 per cent for females. For Liberia for same periods, the rate for females rose from 32 to 40 per cent and for males, dropped from 68 to 60 per cent, showing increased rates for girls for a number of reasons. Early marriage, user charges and economic factors, household chores and adolescent pregnancy are some of the causes for the female attrition rate. [32] For those limited number who make it to the tertiary level, their concentration is in the humanities more than in law. Sciences such as engineering are influenced by socio-cultural factors accounting for their low participation in technical and decision-making positions.
89. Political and economic decisions by governments on public expenditure versus military spending have exacerbated the educational sector which since the 1980s has sustained drastic budgetary cuts and general deterioration. Mauritius and Zimbabwe are among the few countries that have increased public expenditure

for the social sector. Public expenditure on education as a percentage of total GNP for the region in 1990 was 15.7 per cent. For example, in Zaire, the education budget which was 12.5 per cent in 1972 virtually disappeared to under 1 per cent in 1986. [33]

90. The quality of education has deteriorated in almost all African countries. Budgetary cuts and civil wars have contributed to the neglect and destruction of existing facilities in a number of countries. There are insufficient schools, teaching materials and teachers. Girls' access to schooling is therefore affected by availability of classrooms and facilities, including textbooks. Proximity of schools, privacy (toilets), security from physical and other types of violence, female teachers as role models, unbiased teachers and curricula are conducive to girls' education.

D. Population, health, nutrition, poverty and the family

91. It is increasingly being recognized that the issues of population, environment, poverty and human resources development are interrelated. This has been highlighted by the World Conference on Environment at Rio de Janeiro (1992) and the recent Cairo Conference on Population and Development (1994). A number of African countries have adopted plans of action on environment and population policies.

92. Central to the interrelated issues of population, environment, poverty and human resources development are women whose state of health is governed by socio-economic and religious norms and practices surrounding their reproductive and productive functions. An annual population growth rate of 2.5 per cent and a fertility rate of 6.5 per cent are areas of concern requiring concerted action which focus on women and their special situation in the household and the community.

(a) Health and nutrition

93. Available data reveal that there were some improvements registered in health services in the first half of the 1980s in almost all countries of the region. However, although there are country variations, the health services and the health situation of women and children have since deteriorated. Several factors contribute to this situation, including population pressure, reduction in public expenditures to the health sector, poverty, the AIDS pandemic and socio-cultural practices around women's productive and reproductive functions.

94. In the region as a whole, public expenditure on health in 1990 as a percentage of GNP was only 2.5 per cent. Between 1985 and 1991, the percentage of the population with access to health services was only 59 per cent. Safe water and sanitation are accessible to only 45 and 31 per cent respectively. Examples of some countries where more than 50 per cent of the population has no access to safe water include Ethiopia (75 per cent), Zaire (67 per cent) and Nigeria (56 per cent). [34]* The majority of rural families walk long distances to fetch water. Some studies show that women spend from two to five hours or more a day - as in drought-prone areas - fetching water. [35]

95. Access to water and sanitation in urban areas is also a problem due to population congestion. Squatter houses, bad sanitation and urban poverty aggravate the health problem of women and children who are the most vulnerable groups. The majority of the resource poor cannot take advantage of existing health services.

96. Maternal mortality in 1988 for the region was 700/100000 live births. The rate is higher (above 1000/100000) for countries such as Guinea-Bissau, the Gambia, Sierra Leone, Guinea, etc. During 1988-1991, Mali had a maternal mortality rate of 2000/100000 live births. [36]

97. The percentage of pregnant women and births with trained attendants in the region as a whole is low, but there are some country variations. For the period 1985-1990, only 64 per cent of pregnant women

received pre-natal care. The percentage of births attended by trained personnel has declined (40 per cent), except in Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Lesotho, Mauritania, the Sudan and Zimbabwe where some improvements have been shown. The lowest rate recorded for the period 1985-1992 was 2 per cent for Somalia. [37]

98. Major causes of maternal mortality are associated with complications during pregnancy and at birth. Early marriages, malnutrition, lack of medical attention and recently AIDS are among the causes. Between 1975 and 1990, 43 per cent of pregnant women were anaemic. [38] Household resource allocations and consumptions are detrimental to the nutritional state of women and the girl child whose dietary intakes are restricted by cultural taboos and unequal shares. During the period 1988-1990, the average calorie intake was 92 per cent of the recommended daily requirement. As many as 30 million African children are said to be malnourished.

99. A mother's health affects not only her well-being and productivity but also that of her children and family. For the period 1985-1990, low-weight born babies were reported to be 14 per cent of all live births for the region as a whole. The infant mortality rate for 1992 was recorded at 101/100000 live births while the under-5 mortality rate was 160/1000 live births for the same period. [39] African countries still show high levels of infant mortality. Generally, most countries have an infant mortality rate of above 100/1000 live births. For example, in 1989, Sierra Leone's rate is 149/1000, Burkina Faso 135/1000, Mali 167/1000, Mozambique 132/1000, Liberia 137/1000, the Niger 191/1000, Angola 170/1000. In 1992, only in 18 countries was a decline observed in the infant mortality rate. In others, there was increased rate. Generally, the chance of survival for a new-born baby until its first anniversary has deteriorated in the region.

100. Africa is said to have the highest incidence of child mortality from malnutrition. [40] The girl child is also exposed to female genital mutilation of various forms which is said to contribute to maternal mortality.

101. Cultural harmful health practices such as female genital mutilation also contribute to the declining health status of African women and children. For the region as a whole, it is estimated that 2 million girls are subjected to such mutilation. Over 80 per cent of the women in the Sudan, Somalia, Djibouti, Ethiopia and Sierra Leone are reported to have been subjected to female genital mutilation of one form or another in 1992. [41]

102. The AIDS pandemic is another major threat to Africa. Of the total world population infected with AIDS in 1991, 50 per cent are said to be in Africa. The AIDS/HIV-infected population in the region is reported to have reached 7 million, of which 1 million are babies. Over 10 million people are said to have been infected with HIV/AIDS and 2 million are full-blown AIDS cases. While some countries are more affected by the AIDS pandemic than others, the region is more than ever vulnerable to the virus because of drastic across-the-board reductions in public expenditure for the health sector. Women and children are the most affected. A third to a quarter of the population of both sexes aged 15-50 in some countries are vulnerable.

103. Women's gendered position places them in a higher vulnerable position. Because of their lack of control over their reproductive functions, they are exposed to HIV infection, bear the burden of care of infected family members while infecting themselves. Their well-being and productivity are ever more on the line as their access to protective measures and decisions is minimal.

104. Access to family planning information and services which has shown significant improvement in Africa is not adequate. Only 15 per cent of the population is reported to have access to family planning services in 1994. Kenya has a higher proportion of married women (42 per cent) who have access to information on family planning. [42]

105. The threat of violence against women is both a health and human rights issue. Incidence of domestic violence, assault, homicide, sexual harassment, rape are rising and surfacing in many African countries. The figures for violence against women and the girl child are hard to come by. But evidence on the prevalence and measures from some countries reveal that this is an area meriting serious attention. For example, in Namibia, rape cases have been on the increase from 352 in 1988 to 384 in 1989 to 419 and 445 in 1990 and 1991 showing an alarming increase of 26 per cent in four years. [43] Appeal for parliamentary enactment against wife beating initiated in 1966 in Kenya is still pending. [44]

106. Domestic violence and defilement of the girl child continue to receive inadequate attention, constituting physical and emotional threats and fostering insecurities in the household and society. A few countries, such as Egypt, have established shelters for victims while in others it has been left in the hands of NGOs, particularly women NGOs that provide legal literacy, information on self-protection and free legal aid to women and girls. The situation of women in refugee camps and children making their living in the streets remain unaccounted for.

107. Women and children are the majority of the displaced and refugee population. This year, 20 million [42] are reported as being subjected to physical and mental violence. The girl child is increasingly at risk from adult men seeking safety from HIV infection in and outside refugee camps.

B. Poverty and the family

108. The state of poverty in Africa has reached a critical stage with very little prospect of it abating without a systemic global action to combat both endogenous and exogenous factors exacerbating the explosive situation. In 1980-1990, more than half of the population (54 per cent) of sub-Saharan Africa lived in absolute poverty. Up to 71 per cent of the rural and 23 per cent of urban population live under absolute poverty. [43]*

109. Women bear a disproportionate share of poverty in Africa. The proportion of women and men living in absolute poverty is estimated to have risen by 50 per cent for women and 30 per cent for men. [44] With drastic changes in demographic patterns, increasing numbers of households are headed by women. Africa has the highest percentage of female-headed households. One third of all households are headed by women, the majority of whom are with dependent children. The pressure of rapid urbanization at a rate of about 10 per cent of the population compounds the critical situation of the urban poor.

110. A partial picture of urban poverty in some countries for which data is available for 1992 is as follows:

Urban poor as percentage of total population under absolute poverty
 for some selected countries (in millions)

Country	Total population	Urban population
Ethiopia	31.9	19.3
Nigeria	46.4	37.2
Kenya	13.2	10.4
Malawi	8.4	8.2
United Republic of Tanzania	16.2	13.1
Zaire	25.5	25.5

Source: UNDP, 1994.

111. Population pressure, economic decline, urban migration, environmental degradation, civil strife and displacement, the AIDS pandemic and deterioration of social services have resulted in undermining the traditional composition and position of the African family. Its carrying capacity is sorely tried in the face of economic and social disintegration threatening the very fabric of society.

112. The declaration of 1994 as the Year of the Family has brought to focus the problems facing families in the world. Development strategies of the 1990s have to be more founded on the stark realities of increasing "feminization" of poverty and thus the need to bring in women's perspectives into poverty alleviation programmes.

E. Women's organizations and networking

113. It cannot be denied that, since the Nairobi Conference, there has been an increased awareness of the role of women in development. This is demonstrated by the number of government and NGO programmes for women and the involvement of men in these programmes.

114. However, the heavy reliance of these programmes on external (extra-budgetary) funding and the manner in which these programmes are implemented suggest that there is inadequate gender training to bring in women's perspectives into the programmes at design, implementation and evaluation stages. Furthermore, national machineries for the integration of women in development in most African countries have been subjected to budgetary cuts and mergers as well as loss of "autonomy" as they have tended to be used as channels for implementing government and/or party programmes rather than playing advocacy roles in safeguarding the interests of the masses vis-à-vis unfavourable government policies.

115. The political, economic and social environments under which these national machineries operate have been impediments to their effectiveness in mainstreaming gender concerns in many countries. Nevertheless, despite these impediments, progress has been made in gender training of government officials, attempts in promoting gender-sensitive development planning, reviews of existing legislatures for law reforms, promoting research and information dissemination in critical areas of concern such as land tenure, traditional harmful practices, human rights, credit, etc.

116. However, in most countries, women's ministries and bureaux have been instrumental in promoting the organization of professional women in various fields, thus forging solidarity which has been beneficial for publicizing women's concern in such areas as legal reform, human rights issues and credit for women. This move has proved beneficial in the move towards developing their capacities for access to and use of information and prospects for lobbying and influencing policy directions. National machineries have been instrumental in mobilizing women's NGOs in legislative review with the aim of eliminating discriminatory articles from civil and family codes. This exercise started since 1986 has, however, been lagging behind in many countries even when bills are submitted to parliament for action. The case of earlier attempt of parliamentary action against wife beating in Kenya is still in the back burner. Land act and inheritance laws in some West African countries also remain unresolved by parliaments.

117. A positive trend is the proliferation of women's organizations which have improved in qualitative and quantitative terms since the mid-1980s. Some of these were created through the catalytic role of the national machineries and others are organized around critical economic, political, social and religious issues. Women and the law, women and human rights, women and banking, women entrepreneurs, media women, women living under the Muslim law and various national committees on issues like AIDS, harmful traditional practices, domestic violence, family planning, etc., are operating in many African countries. There is an increasing move for subregional and regional affiliations of women's NGOs, examples of which are FEMNET, African Women Entrepreneurs, Women and Human Rights, and Women in Law and Development in Africa (WILDAF) affiliated to the International Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA).

118. African women have come to realize that their direct involvement in decisions that affect their lives is critical and that this can best be done through organized front at all levels and their solidarity with both women and like-minded men. Realization of their potentials in influencing political, economic and social transformation that is taking place in the region is demonstrated by the experiences of some countries, albeit limited, where women are demanding for a share in the process of democratization.

119. In this connection, the role played by Zambian women in the multi-party elections where they formed election observers is an encouraging initiative in getting a foothold in the democratic process. Women have played decisive roles in making the democratic process sensitive and responsive to their particular situation and have used their comparative advantage to influence votes and decisions.

120. In Egypt, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Kenya and other countries, women's organizations provide protective and curative services to victims of violence through legal aid, shelters and educating the public on the issue. Free legal aid for preparation of wills and custody fights is provided. Women's groups formed in Kenya have increased from 8,175 (with a membership of over 326,375 in 1978) to 23,614 (with 968,614 members in 1990). The Government's NGOs Coordination Board works towards harmonization of NGO activities, including those of 100 NGOs dealing with women's issues. Women's groups are taking collective measures to improve members' access to land and credit. The Mauritius national machinery also coordinates the activities of some 400 NGOs. Women's NGOs in a number of countries have become strong instruments for advocacy and lobbying for the advancement of women. In Kenya and Zambia, for example, NGOs have played critical roles in the election process through support for political aspirants and monitoring elections and party programmes. [45]

121. Important milestones are being laid as women's organizations continue to organize as pressure groups demanding contending parties to make their programmes address issues of women's human rights concerns, such as equality in decision making and access to resources and the recently emerging incidence of violence against women. Closer collaboration of these women's groups with national machineries will enhance the move towards the advancement of women in the framework of the Nairobi Strategies.

122. International solidarity of women is also being developed and strengthened through regional and global networking to address global disparities, gender inequities, valuation of women's unpaid household labour, "feminization" of poverty, productive employment and social integration - the themes of the forthcoming World Summit for Social Development.

123. A good start has been made in this area. However, technical and financial support is needed to strengthen women's organizations without which their initiatives and potentials would be adversely affected. Support to women in all walks of life, at rural and urban levels to organize and strengthen their group activities and lobbying capacities cannot be overemphasized.

III. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

124. Progress towards the advancement of women in the framework of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies has been hampered by fundamental gender inequities that pervade the political, legislative, economic and socio-cultural arenas. While there has been a start towards achieving the goals of equality, development and peace, the lack of adequate awareness of and resistance to enforcing national and international legal instruments for safeguarding women's equality, security and development impede progress.

125. Comprehensive actionable strategies that target women in general and specially situated categories such as female household heads are required in order for the situation to be redressed. The participation

of women in the formulation of such strategies is imperative to ensure incorporation of their perspectives and aspirations and the utilization of their potential. The emergence of a critical mass of female activists with potential to participate in and influence political, economic and socio-economic transformation is a comparative advantage over past efforts where such resources and environment were lacking. The move towards true democracy, equality, development and peace can therefore be enhanced through the direct involvement of women who "hold half the sky".

126. The African political, economic and social panorama is characterized by crises of endogenous and exogenous nature which have exacerbated women's marginalization vis-à-vis their access to the means and benefits of development. Measures to combat the crises call for both "self-help" and "mutual-help" initiatives at the household, community and national levels and also international solidarity in political, economic and social spheres. Corrective and promotive measures must involve individuals, communities, governmental and non-governmental institutions necessary for political, economic, legal and socio-cultural reforms and mobilization of resources required for their implementation and monitoring.

127. Gender mainstreaming of actions towards acceleration of the advancement of women essentially involves addressing interrelated imbalances espoused in existing political, legal, economic, social, cultural and religious structures, norms and practices. Public education to bring about changes in the socialization process will be required to attack the root causes and perpetration of women's subordination and marginalization. Empowerment of women as a human rights and human resources development issue therefore cut across a variety of interrelated areas which should be the targets of fundamental reforms.

B. Recommendations

(a) Political empowerment

128. Notwithstanding the wave of democracy that is sweeping Africa, the political process in African countries is in danger of being protracted for lack of enabling environment for women's political empowerment. For a democracy which upholds the rights of all citizens, civic education on electoral procedures, accountability and governance are necessary pre-requisites. The absence of women and gender perspectives in national conferences for peace and democracy has been conspicuous. Governments are therefore responsible for laying the necessary foundations through political action that eliminates all forms of barriers, including illiteracy of women and the populace. Conscious effort is required by governments to promote the empowerment of women through measures of re-distribution, i.e., power and resource sharing which should be the basis of development strategies that embrace equality for all.

129. Since economic, legal and social empowerment of women is contingent on political will and action, strategies to promote their empowerment require addressing existing economic, social and legislative impediments. Legal, economic and social reforms should be backed by political policies and mechanisms for enforcing their implementation. Appropriate mechanisms and institutions should also be developed and strengthened to involve women in negotiations, resolution of conflicts and management of peace. Legislation also needs to be enacted to protect personal safety and security of the girl child and women in and outside the household.

130. National machineries for the integration of women in development should be strengthened to improve their effectiveness as partners in the empowerment of women. Granting autonomy to these machineries will be in line with the desired goal of developing civic society and true democratic culture.

131. Measures are required to promote the organization of women at all levels through the provision of the necessary support to enable them to contribute effectively to the development of democratic culture in Africa.

132. Political action is also required to enable capable women to be represented in political decision-making organs to influence policy decisions in allocations of resources for education, health, employment and in the promotion of civil society.

B. Economic reform and poverty alleviation strategies

133. Situations where the greater share of export earnings go to external debt servicing, where military expenditure rises at the expense of the social (people's) sector, and where the prospects for productive employment are dim, governments should take stock and redirect their attention to averting potential conflicts and to reforming their economies in a manner that will benefit their people. The consequences of economic malfunction in African countries on women's socio-economic situation have been detrimental to them, their children, the family and society. Poverty which pervades all aspects of human life requires concerted effort to uproot it. The reality of the emerging notion of "feminization" of poverty makes poverty alleviation strategies an urgency for African countries.

134. Poverty alleviation strategies of the 1990s should take into account the interrelationship between women's productive and reproductive functions as well as the demographic changes that have resulted in the escalation of female-headed households in Africa.

135. It is necessary to reformulate and, when necessary, phase out existing plans and programmes that foster poverty and inequalities. Structural reforms should have safety net packages for the most needy, making sure that the benefits are not hijacked by other interest groups.

136. Decentralization of power and resources is essential for addressing pervasive poverty in Africa. Agricultural policies should promote reforms aimed at long-term strategies for poverty alleviation. Such reforms should enhance rural women's access to productive resources, increase their productivity, improve their well-being and ensure family integration and harmony. Among the measures to be taken in realizing these objectives are:

- (a) Priority to food self-sufficiency over export cash crops;
- (b) Land reform to enhance the security, productivity and empowerment of the landless, the majority of whom are women;
- (c) Reforms of cooperative laws and reformulation of settlement programmes that discriminate against women;
- (d) Restructuring credit institutions to cater for women's credit needs;
- (e) Reorientation of research and technology development to be geared to women's work and life;
- (f) Market reforms that would lead to the creation of an enabling economic environment where women's interests can be accommodated;
- (g) The development of indicators for measuring and valuing women's unpaid family labour in the computation of national accounts;
- (h) Repackaging agricultural extension and training to suit the needs and convenience of female farmers;

- (i) Making basic social services accessible and affordable; and
- (j) Incorporating women's knowledge and experience in management of natural resources, etc.

137. With regard to urban women, further measures are needed to ensure and enhance their productive employment in the formal and informal sectors of the economy. However, given their predominance in the informal sector, there is need for the reformulation of economic policies so as to ensure their profitable participation in the economy and facilitate their eventual entry into the formal economy.

138. Measures to restructure financial institutions to cater for the credit needs of women in this sector require simultaneous action towards improvement of basic services (water, sanitation, health, energy) including housing of minimum acceptable standard. Reforms of discriminatory or impeding labour laws should be undertaken with a view to:

- (a) Protect women's interests in equitable wages, flexible and safe working environment, participation in trade unions, rights to maternity leave and other entitlements;
- (b) Special attention to monitor respect of rights of women working in industries and the manufacturing sector under the export processing zone; and
- (c) Promote career development through paid mandatory education and training for skills upgrading, including civic education and legal literacy, to ensure that women are no longer subjected to job segregation and exploitation.

C. Education

139. Education, the key to productive employment and empowerment, should be a target for reform. Education Policy should aim at increasing the efficiency of public education and expanding students' opportunities by involving the private sector.

140. Decentralization of decisions and resources to the regional and local levels is also recommended to better address the educational needs of rural children and women.

141. Policy formulation ought to benefit from the experiences of women at the decision-making levels. Special provisions such as the following should accompany affirmative action to redress past injustices and imbalances:

- (a) Introduction of incentives (stipend, allowances for learning materials, transport and clothing);
- (b) Provision of guidance and counselling to girls to enter the science and technology streams;
- (c) Revision of curricula to eliminate discriminatory elements that foster women's insubordination and low self-esteem;
- (d) Orientation of male teachers and boys with a view to bring about attitudinal and relational changes through training in gender equity and human rights issues;
- (e) Stepping up the intake of female teachers as role models;
- (f) Provision of family planning information and services;

(g) Promotion of parent-teacher and student associations for participatory management of the school system and encouragement of debates on gender issues on population, environment, health, nutrition, culture, human rights, family relations and legal literacy;

(h) Mobilization of financial resources for increasing boarding schools and improving transportation facilities.

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3. Ibid., p. XIII.
4. The calculation is based on data compiled from United Nations, World's Women 1970-1990, Trends and Statistics. New York. 1991, table 3, pp. 39-40 and UNDP, Human Development Report 1993, New York. 1993), table 8, pp. 150-151.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid. See also Inter-Parliamentary Union, Women in Parliament in the World as at 30 June 1993, Geneva, 1993. Chart.
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8. United Nations. Women in Politics and Decision-Making, op. cit., p. 15.
9. Ibid., p. 18.
10. Ibid., p. 62.
11. Ibid., p. 64.
12. Ibid., p. 67.
13. UNDP. Human Development Report 1994. New York. 1994; see table 8, p. 144.
14. See national reports (1994) prepared for the fourth World Conference on Women 1995.
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26. World Bank, World Development Report 1994, Oxford University Press, 1994, table 28, p. 216; see also UNICEF, The State of the World's Children 1994, Oxford University Press, 1994.
27. See national report on Kenya (1994) and report by Higher Education Main Department of Ministry of Education of Ethiopia for academic year 1993/94.
28. See national reports (1994).
29. UNDP, Human Development Report 1994, op. cit., table 11, p. 150.
30. Ibid.; see also national reports (1994).
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40. See national reports (1994).

Table 1. Economically active population, 1970-1990

Estimated economic activity rate (%)				
	Female		Male	
	1970	1990	1970	1990
Algeria	4	8	79	75
Angola	59	52	90	87
Benin	83	77	93	89
Botswana	55	42	91	85
Burkina Faso	85	77	94	93
Burundi	86	78	94	93
Cameroon	51	41	92	93
Cape Verde	27	33	93	90
Central African Republic	80	68	92	88
Chad	27	23	92	90
Comoros	66	59	92	91
Congo	55	51	87	84
Côte d'Ivoire	64	48	92	88
Djibouti	-	-	-	-
Egypt	6	9	83	80
Equatorial Guinea	60	52	89	84
Ethiopia	59	52	91	89
Gabon	54	47	84	82
The Gambia	65	58	92	90
Ghana	59	51	84	80
Guinea	65	57	93	90
Guinea-Bissau	63	57	91	90
Kenya	65	58	92	90
Lesotho	76	65	89	91
Liberia	42	37	91	88
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6	9	81	77
Madagascar	63	55	92	89

Estimated economic activity rate (%)				
	Female		Male	
	1970	1990	1970	1990
Malawi	68	57	93	89
Mali	17	16	92	90
Mauritania	24	24	93	87
Mauritius	21	29	85	84
Morocco	12	19	84	81
Mozambique	39	79	93	91
Namibia	24	24	89	83
Niger	87	79	95	93
Nigeria	52	46	90	88
Reunion	22	38	77	77
Rwanda	86	79	94	93
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-
Senegal	60	53	88	86
Seychelles	47	-	81	-
Sierra Leone	44	38	87	84
Somalia	60	53	90	88
South Africa	40	40	85	75
Sudan	22	24	89	87
Swaziland	63	53	91	87
Togo	53	47	90	88
Tunisia	11	26	83	78
Uganda	68	62	94	92
United Republic of Tanzania	39	77	91	89
Zaire	58	54	89	85
Zambia	31	33	90	87
Zimbabwe	51	44	91	88

Source: UNDP Human Development Report, 1993 and 1994

Table 2. Proprietorship and labour force characteristics

Country	Gender of proprietor (%) of all enterprises			Labour force (%) of all workers and proprietors		
	Male	Female	Mixed	Female	Children	Part-time workers
Botswana	75.2	18.6	6.2	67.1	2.6	4.5
Kenya	42.9	52.7	4.4	44.3	-	10.8
Lesotho	73.0	25.2	1.8	76.2	0.4	2.0
Malawi	45.5	51.9	2.6	39.8	6.1	2.7
South Africa	62.1	31.5	4.4	52.8	5.1	7.3
Swaziland	84.3	11.6	1.1	78.1	4.8	2.1
Zimbabwe	66.6	31.7	1.7	57.1	3.4	2.8

Source: GEMINI, The Structure and Growth of Micro-enterprises in Southern and Eastern Africa: Evidence from recent surveys. Working Paper No. 36, March 1993.

Table 3

Country	Adult literacy ¹				Under mortals ²				Total debt service as % of exports ³		
	1985		1990		1989		1992		1980	1989	1992
	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Male	Female	Male			
Mozambique	78	62	79	67	193	214	269	283	-	23.1	8.1
Ethiopia	-	38	-	-	188	208	194	216	7.6	38.7	14.2
Tanzania	-	-	-	-	176	197	139	158	21.1	16.5	31.5
Sierra Leone	79	71	89	79	239	264	229	253	22.9	-	20.5
Uganda	55	43	65	52	151	171	194	216	13.2	77.0	40.2
Burundi	74	66	60	50	102	118	165	185	9.5	32.9	35.3
Malwai	69	59	-	-	237	251	215	238	27.7	28.0	23.8
Chad	89	75	82	70	203	225	194	216	8.3	5.2	5.4
Guinea-Bissau			76	64			224	248			92.7
Madagascar	38	33	27	20	162	180	141	160	17.2	52.0	18.6
Rwanda	67	53	63	50	188	209	185	206	4.2	18.5	23.4
Niger	91	86	83	72	208	231	196	218	21.7	32.1	14.2
Burkina Faso	94	87	91	82	190	210	186	205	5.9	9.4	6.2
Kenya	51	41	42	31	98	114	95	110	22.3	33.3	27.1
Mali	89	83	76	68	210	239	189	212	5.1	15.0	7.4
Nigeria	69	58	61	79	155	174	174	192	4.2	21.3	28.9

Country	Adult literacy ¹				Under mortals ²				Total debt service as % of exports ³		
	1985		1990		1989		1992		1980	1989	1992
	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Male	Female	Male ¹			
Togo	72	59	69	57	136	154	127	145	9.0	18.2	7.3
Benin	84	74	84	77	154	173	172	193	4.9	6.7	4.1
Central Africa	71	60	75	62	154	173	163	183	4.9	14.2	9.6
Ghana	57	40	49	40	130	148	120	138	12.5	48.9	26.7
Guinea	83	72	87	76	224	249	213	237	19.8	15.2	12.4
Zimbabwe	33	26	40	33	60	72	53	66	3.8	26.0	32.0
Lesotho	16	26	-	-	128	146	61	73	1.5	4.5	5.3
Egypt	70	56	66	52	99	114	80	93	20.8	20.5	15.5
Somalia	94	88	86	76	204	227	186	205	4.9	34.1	-
Sudan	-	-	88	73	161	181	152	171	25.5	9.2	5.4
Zambia	33	24	35	27	112	128	167	187	25.3	11.3	-
Côte d'Ivoire	69	57	60	46	141	159	121	138	28.3	40.9	31.9
Senegal	81	72	75	62	123	140	98	113	28.6	29.4	13.8
Cameroon	55	44	57	46	119	136	109	124	15.2	17.3	16.2
Congo	45	37	56	43	170	183	157	175	10.5	27.0	11.9
Morocco	78	67	62	51	87	103	69	84	32.7	32.2	23.6
Namibia	-	-	-	-	121	141	79	92	-	-	-

Country	Adult literacy ¹				Under mortals ²				Total debt service as % of exports ³		
	1985		1990		1989		1992		1980	1989	1992
	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Male	Female	Male			
Tunisia	59	46	44	35	53	66	51	63	14.8	22.6	20.6
Algeria	63	50	55	43			66	80	27.1	68.9	71.3
South Africa											
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	21	30	20	25	9.1	9.8	8.1
Mauritania	-	-	79	66	196	218	186	207	17.3	20.1	17.2
Botswana	31	29	-	-	42	55	37	49	1.9	3.5	-
Liberia	77	65	-	-	170	195	-	-	8.8	-	
Zaire	55	39	-	-	170		-	-	22.5	21.5	
Angola	-	59	-	-	211	234	-	-	-	-	
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	50	33	-	-	88	104	-	-	-	-	

Source:

1. UNDP Human Development Report 1993 and 1994.
2. World Bank, World Development Report 1991 and UNDP Human Development Report 1994.
3. World Bank, World Development Report 1994.

Table 4. Student enrolment (female to male ratio)

	Primary			Secondary		Tertiary	
	1985	1986	1991	1985	1991	1985	1990
NORTH AFRICA	72	72.3					
Algeria	75.4	75.4	82	64	79	46	-
Egypt	72.1	72.4	80		76	50	52
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	88	88.6				34	10
Morocco	61.3	61.3	66	64.2	69	50	58
Sudan	69.4	69.5	75		80	68	70
Tunisia	78.1	78.6		67.1		58	27
WEST AFRICA	74.6	74.7					
Benin	50	53.7	51		37	20	15
Burkina Faso	58.8	58.9	62	50.6	50	29	27
Cape Verde	96.6	96.7					
Côte d'Ivoire	69.6	69.4	71		47		-
The Gambia	60.9	59.6		42.5			-
Ghana	78.6	78.5	82	61.3	63	21	25
Guinea	47.3	46.9	46	36.9	31	16	12
Guinea-Bissau	52	52	56		53	-	
Liberia	61.1	60.8				38	32
Mali	58.9	59.1	58		50	15	14
Mauritania	64	64.6	73		45	-	17
Niger	56.3	56.5	57		42	23	27
Nigeria	78.6	78.6	76		74	-	37
Senegal	69.6	72.2				26	26
Sierra Leone	69.4	69.4	70		56		22
Togo	64.4	64.5	65		34	18	16
CENTRAL AFRICA	77.2	77.2					
Burundi	69.2	69.9	84		59	32	40
Cameroon	85.1	83.3					
Central African Republic	51.6	51.3	63	35.1	38	12	17
Chad	37.2	37.2	44		22	9	

	Primary			Secondary		Tertiary	
	1985	1986	1991	1985	1991	1985	1990
Congo	96.3	96		77.1		15	20
Equatorial Guinea	94.4	94.7				11	-
Gabon	95.7	95.9				40	42
Rwanda	92.3	92.3	99	52.4	56	16	20
Sao Tome and Principe	100	100					
Zaire	75.5	75.4					-
EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA	85.1	84.9					
Angola	85.3	85.2					-
Botswana	110.4	109		111.9		71	61
Comoros	70.5	68.1		-		-	-
Djibouti	73.3	75		62.5	-		-
Ethiopia	61.2	61.3	64	64	67	22	23
Kenya	93.0	92.8	95	61.2	78	36	43
Lesotho	125.9	124.7	121	146.1	149	172	-
Madagascar	92.3	92.2	97	-	99	62	83
Malawi	75.7	75.5	82		53	40	27
Mauritius	98.6	97.3	98	88.7	100	50	
Mozambique	75.5	75.4	70	45	61	30	
Seychelles	100	100		100			
Somalia	56.3	56.6				25	
Swaziland	100	100				62	
Tanzania	96.1	96.1	98	56.3	72		
Uganda	75.4	75.3				30	
Zambia	88.8	88.6	91		59	21	
Zimbabwe	91.4	92.3	99		88	50	
TOTAL AFRICA	77.8	77.8					

Source: World Bank. World Development Report 1994.

Table 5

Country	% of population without access to safe water				Population without adequate sanitation (%)				% of women using contraceptives	
	1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985	1980-1993
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural		
Algeria	10	30	15	SSx	5	30	20	60	36	51
Angola	10	88	29	80	71	85	75	85	-	1x
Benin	55	91	34	54	55	96	58	69	9	9
Botswana	2	28	0	12	21	88	0	15	33	33
Burkina Faso	50	74	56	28	62	95	65	95	-	8
Burundi	67	78	1	46	10	75	29	53	9	9
Cameroon	54	70	0	73	-	-	0	36	2	13
Cape Verde	1	79	-	-	64	91	-	-	-	-
Central Africa Rep.	76	95	79	74	64	91	55	54	-	-
Chad	73	70	75	30	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comoros	1	48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Congo	58	93	8	98	83	-	-	-	-	-
Côte d'Ivoire	70	90	30	19	87	80	31	38	3	3
Djibouti	47	80	-	-	57	81	-	-	-	-
Egypt	7	39	5	14	5	51	20	74	38	47
Equatorial Guinea	53	-	-	-	72	-	-	-	-	-

Country	% of population without access to safe water				Population without adequate sanitation (%)				% of women using contraceptives	
	1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985	1980-1993
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural		
Ethiopia	7	58	91	19	-	95	97	7	-	2
Gabon	25	66	0	50	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	0	67			-	-			-	
Ghana	28	61	93	35	53	83	64	32	13	13
Guinea	9	98	87	56	46	99	84	5	-	1x
Guinea-Bissau	79	63	56	35	79	87	27	32	-	1x
Kenya	39	79	74	43	25	61	69	35	27	27
Lesotho	63	86	59	45	78	89	14	23	5	5x
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0	23			-	-			-	
Madagascar	27	91	55	9	92	-	12	3	-	17
Malawi	18	46	97x	50x	-	-	100	81	7	13
Mali	42	80	53	38	10	95	81	10	5	5
Mauritania	20	84	67	65	93	-	34	-	1	4
Mauritius	0	2	100	92	0	5	92	96	75	75
Morocco	-	-	100	18	-	-	100	-	36	42
Mozambique	18	98	44	17	-	-	61	11	-	

Country	% of population without access to safe water				Population without adequate sanitation (%)				% of women using contraceptives	
	1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985	1980-1993
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural		
Namibia	-	-	-	-	-	-	76	89	-	26
Niger	57	66	2	55	64	97	29	96	-	4
Nigeria	40	70	19	70	70	-	60	70	6	6
Reunion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	45	40	25	38	40	40	33	44	10	21
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	37	73	16	74	13	98	15	64	11	11
Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	42	92	67	63	57	90	8	51	-	4
Somalia	40	80	50	71	40	95	56	95	-	1
South Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48	48
Sudan	-	-	45	57	80	99	11	35	5	9
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	38	90	-	-	-	-
Togo	32	74	23	47	66	92	54	90	34	34
Tunisia	2	21	-	-	34	71	-	-	50	-
Uganda	55	88	40	70	60	90	37	72	5	5
United Rep. of Tanzania	15	53	-	-	9	24	-	-	-	-

Country	% of population without access to safe water				Population without adequate sanitation (%)				% of women using contraceptives	
	1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985		1988-1991		1980-1985	1980-1993
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural		
Zaire	57	95	32	76	92	90	54	89	-	1x
Zambia	30	68	30	72	44	59	25	88	-	15
Zimbabwe	0	90	5	20	0	95	5	78	43	43

Source: UNDP, World Development Report, 1994 and 1993.

Table 6

Country	Infant mortality rate (under 1)		Population annual growth rate (%)		Total fertility rate			% of births attended by trained health personnel	
	1989	1992	1965-80	1980-90	1960	1980	1992	1985	1992
Algeria	-	60	3.0	2.8	7.3	6.8	4.9	-	15
Benin	112	88	2.4	2.9	6.9	7.1	7.1	34	45
Botswana	39	45	3.3	3.1	6.8	6.8	5.1	52	78
Burkina Faso	135	101	2.3	2.6	6.4	6.5	6.5	-	42
Cameroon	90	74	2.6	2.9	5.8	6.4	5.7	-	64
Congo	115	82	2.7	2.9	5.9	6.3	6.3	-	-
Cote d'Ivoire	92	91	4.0	3.8	7.2	7.4	7.4	20	50
Egypt	68	43	2.2	1.5	7.0	5.2	4.2	24	41
Kenya	68	51	3.6	3.5	8.0	7.8	6.3	-	50
Lesotho	96	108	2.2	2.6	5.6	5.6	4.7	28	40
Mauritius	21	20	1.7	1.1	5.9	2.8	2.0	90	85
Morocco	69	50	2.5	2.6	7.2	5.7	4.4	-	26
Namibia	101	62	2.7	3.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	-	68
Senegal	82	90	2.8	2.8	7.0	6.9	6.1	-	41
South Africa	-	53	2.7	2.5	6.5	4.9	4.1	-	-
Tanzania	112	111	3.0	3.4	6.8	6.8	6.8	74	53
Togo	90	86	3.2	3.0	6.6	6.6	6.6	-	54
Zimbabwe	46	60	3.1	3.3	7.5	6.4	5.4	69	70