

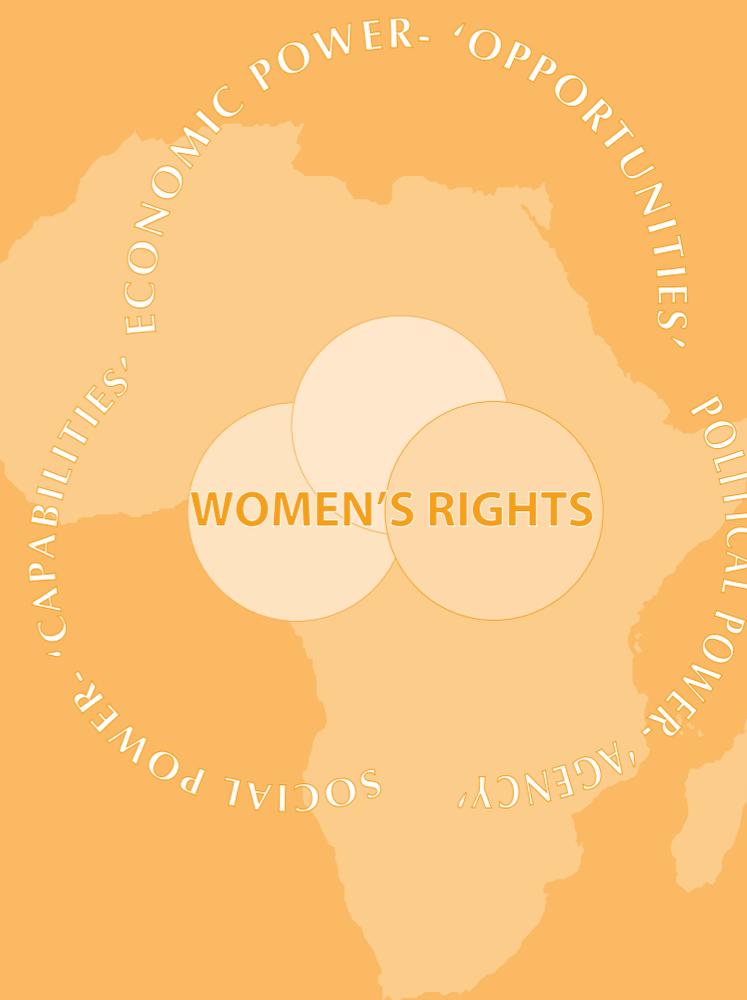
The African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) is a tool that maps the extent of gender inequality in Africa and assesses government performance. It consists of two parts, the quantitative Gender Status Index (GSI) and the qualitative African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS).

The AGDI is a contribution to the Beijing Plus Ten review process. It is a complete and comprehensive tool that will guide policy makers, civil society and the donor community to intervene strategically in areas in which either the GSI or the AWPS have a low score. The AGDI will be an important instrument in development planning on the African continent.



Economic Commission for Africa

The African Gender and Development Index





Economic Commission for Africa

The African **Gender**
and **Development**
Index

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Foreword

After nearly 10 years of implementing of the Beijing Platform for Action, African States have certainly become more aware of the need to remove gender inequality but they have found it difficult to assess the actual extent of inequality in their societies, and whether it is being reduced. Yet it is vital that they should be able to monitor and evaluate the impact of the policies introduced to narrow the gap between men and women.

To help governments achieve that goal, the ECA has developed an effective monitoring mechanism, the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI). This tool allows policy makers to assess their own performance in implementing policies and programmes aimed at ending women's marginalisation. It should also improve knowledge on African women's issues and concerns, as they are made more visible.

The AGDI is a composite index made up of two parts. The first, the Gender Status Index (GSI), measures relative gender inequalities based on readily available quantitative indicators on education and health; income time use, employment, and access to resources; and formal and informal political representation. Secondly, the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) measures progress in women's empowerment and advancement.

The Index is the result of two years of intensive work. It is crucial that any new product undergoes rigorous testing and it was therefore piloted in twelve countries. The detailed results of those trials will be published in the African Women's Report in 2005.

Overall, the piloting exercise confirmed that there is a strong relation between policy implementation and improvements in the situation of women. Where a country was scoring highly on specific issues in the African Women's Progress Scoreboard, the gap between men and women was shown to have narrowed in the Gender Status Index.

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

K.Y. Amoako
Executive Secretary, ECA

Acknowledgements

The AGDI results from two years of reflection and consultation with a wide range of institutions and actors whose interest and commitment made its development possible. They provided useful and thoughtful comments which enriched the tool.

The development of the AGDI would not have been possible without the support of ECA's Executive Secretary K. Y. Amoako who emphasized the need for a tool to monitor the extent of inequality in African societies.

The AGDI was developed under the leadership of Josephine Ouédraogo, the Director of African Centre for Gender and Development (ACGD). Her commitment and belief in the tool has been a great source of motivation to the team. The development of the tool was led by Thokozile Ruzvidzo who provided the technical guidance and backstopping. A number of people in ACGD played key roles throughout the development of the index and include Hilda Tatria, Souad Abdennebi, Eva Kiwango, Emelang Leteane and Tacko Ndiaye. Representatives from the other Divisions in ECA also contributed through the advisory panel and include Israel Sembajwe, Rawda Omar Clinton, Oliver Paddison, Joan Kagwanja and Abdalla Hamdok. The administrative and secretarial team provided very valuable support and comprised Amalework Mangistu, Hannan Mohammed, Salam Hailou, Almaz Zenebe, Judith Onana, Rahel Desta, Tadesse Alemu, and Ayalew Ijigu.

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

The AGDI benefited from the inputs of a working group that included Austin Okore, Shahida El Baz, Dzodzi Tsikata, Geske Dijkstra and Simel Esim. The first panel of Re-

gional Advisors then reviewed and validated the AGDI. The advisors are Sylvia Rosila TamalePRIVATE , Rose Mensah-Kutin, Ellen Kornegay, Bertha Omari Koda, Mireille Maténin Coulibaly, Kamal Selim, Anne Letsebe and Leila Ben Ali. The contribution of members of the UN family, who either attended the meeting of the advisors or sent in written comments, is greatly appreciated. These include: International Fund for Agricultural Development represented by Asa Torkelsson, International Labor Organization represented by Grace S. Hemmings-Gapihan, United Nations Development Fund for Women, World Bank, United Nations Population Fund, International Organisation for Migration. The contribution of the African Union who participated in the advisory meeting is also greatly appreciated.

Acronyms

AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
ACGD	Africa Centre for Gender and Development
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AWPS	African Women's Progress Scoreboard
AWR	African Women's Report
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
GAD	Gender and Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEI	Gender Equality Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GSI	Gender Status Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HS	Household Survey
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LSMS	Living Standard Measurement Study

NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NPRS	National Poverty Reduction Strategy
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OP	Optional Protocol
PC	Population Census
PFA	Platform for Action (Beijing, 1995)
POA	Programme of Action (Cairo, 1994)
SDA	Social Dimension of Adjustment Survey
SNA	System of National Accounts
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
VAW	Violence Against Women
WB	World Bank
WEM	Women's Empowerment Matrix
WID	Women in Development

Introduction

The approach of the end of the tenth anniversary of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action ends a decade full of challenges for the implementation of the Twelve Critical Areas of Concern that the world committed itself to. This is a critical period for African Governments to attest to their commitments to ‘advance the goals of equality, development and peace for all women’.¹ The mission statement of the Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration clearly states that ‘*The success of the Platform for Action will require a strong commitment on the part of Governments, international organizations and institutions at all levels. It will also require adequate mobilization of resources at the national and international levels as well as new and additional resources to the developing countries from all available funding mechanisms, including multilateral, bilateral and private sources for the advancement of women; financial resources to strengthen the capacity of national, subregional, regional and international institutions; a commitment to equal rights, equal responsibilities and equal opportunities and to the equal participation of women and men in all national, regional and international bodies and policy-making processes; and the establishment or strengthening of mechanisms at all levels for accountability to the world’s women*’². However, not only does responsibility for the implementation of the Platform for Action lie with the governments and the global community, heavy responsibility also lies with the United Nations organisations to follow-up the implementation and monitoring of the Beijing Platform for Action.

In fulfilling its mandate to follow-up the translation of the Beijing commitments to action, in the Africa Region, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) has not only endeavoured to stimulate socio-economic development by ‘integrating’ women into development processes but has also placed emphasis on monitoring and evaluating progress. Women have long been ‘integrated’ in all aspects of social, cultural, political and economic life, albeit under subordinate conditions. It is these unequal conditions that concern the ECA. Women’s progress into full and equal participation in all aspects of society is critically important for all aspects of human development. As the 1995 Human Development Report concluded, “human development if not engendered is endangered”. In its 2001 study ‘Engendering Development’, the World Bank concluded that while poverty exacerbates gender disparities, on the other hand gender inequalities also hinder development (2001: iii). However, women’s empowerment and progress is also an important goal in itself.

To facilitate an effective monitoring mechanism on gender equality and women’s advancement, the ECA is introducing an African Gender and Development Index (AGDI), designed to measure the gap in the status of women and men in Africa and to assess the

“The success of the Platform for Action will require a strong commitment on the part of Governments, international organizations and institutions at all levels.”

progress made by African governments in implementing the gender policies they have developed. The AGDI is a composite index consisting of two parts, a Gender Status Index (GSI) and the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS), rather than a collection of individual statistics. As an index, it gives a clearer political message and allows for easier comparison between countries.

The AGDI incorporates the major international and African charters and conventions and integrates a number of variables that have a particular salience for African men and women. The ECA feels that the existing global instruments used to measure gender and development issues and women's empowerment should be expanded to better reflect the realities of women and men on the African continent, so as to assess the gender gap in each African country and to help governments improve their performance on gender equality and equity.

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

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

In developing the AGDI, ECA hopes to achieve a number of objectives. In the first place, to provide African Governments with data and information on the status of gender equality and the effects of their gender policies in reducing women's marginalisation. The AGDI will measure the gender gap between women and men irrespective of a country's level of socio-economic development and it must be based on nationally available data. Secondly most African countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), though many have made reservations that have far reaching consequences. Likewise some states have ratified other international and regional documents, which are built on CEDAW, such as the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) (Cairo 1994) and the Platform for Action drawn up after the 1995 fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing. African states have also been actively involved in the aftermath of these conferences and the 'post five' conferences in which progress on the implementation of these documents was assessed. The AGDI will help in monitoring the progress made in this respect on the African continent. The third objective is to democratise statistics and to provide both gender planners and NGO's with a monitoring tool that is effective, valid, reliable and easy to use. Lastly the AGDI is intended as a tool that is not only able

to measure progress in quantitative ways, but also in qualitative terms. This combination of 'hard' data as contained in the Gender Status Index, and 'soft' data in the African Women's Progress Scoreboard seems to be best suited to capture the complex and dynamic reality of the lives of African women. The AGDI has been piloted in the following twelve countries: Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Egypt, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda.

This report starts by introducing the AGDI and its two components, the GSI and the AWPS. It indicates the AGDI's strengths and weaknesses. The structure of the GSI will be explained and all 42 indicators used for its compilation will be analysed. Likewise all indicators of the AWPS will be introduced. The last chapter provides a preliminary analysis of a case based on one of the 12 countries that are participating in the field trials of the AGDI.

This report is simply presenting the synopsis of the AGDI. The full AGDI with technical notes will be published in November 2004 in the African Women's Report 2003. The African Women's Report is a major ECA flagship publication. It is an important tool for informing regional and global processes on the situation and the status of women in Africa.

The results of the field trials of the 12 countries will be published in the African Women's Report 2004. The AWR 2004 will be launched in early 2005. Subsequent editions of the AWR will allow for more in-depth analysis of both individual indicators and of particular trends and salient issues. A major focus will be on Best Practices, in order to allow African governments to learn from the experiences of neighbouring countries. The national reports resulting from the field trials provide the particular national context. Together with the AWR the national AGDI reports will allow both governments and civil society to assess the status of women in their own countries and to evaluate and monitor gender policies. The AWPS provides an assessment of the gap between political commitment and the implementation of gender policies. Yet even though the AGDI stresses the inclusion of qualitative data, it has similar limitations as all other indices. Issues like identity, personal choice and subjectivity fall outside of its scope.

The full AGDI with technical notes will be published in November 2004 in the African Women's Report 2003.

Chapter 1:

The Scope of the African Gender and Development Index

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

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have been the first global instruments to demonstrate that the level of gender equality in a country is not solely dependent upon a country's economic performance. However, the GDI and GEM are still closely tied to a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Moreover the international database used by the UNDP is not always adequate to capture African realities. Thirdly by focusing on quantitative issues the GDI and the GEM ignore qualitative issues such as women's rights. The AGDI takes the arguments that the UNDP initiated a step further by separating the gender status from a country's GDP by making use of data sets that are nationally available and by incorporating qualitative issues.

In the 2002 GDI very few African countries ranked close to or below number 100. All other African countries ranked well below the hundredth position. Only one African country (Egypt) was included in the GEM of that year. For all other African countries there were not sufficient international data available to compute the GEM. In order to design adequate gender policies it is imperative that sufficient and relevant data are available and that they are as recent as possible. The AGDI provides this data and allows a comparison of the gender gap and government performance among African countries rather than with countries that have widely different development realities. African countries are thus given an opportunity to learn from the Best Practices in neighbouring countries that share a comparable socio-economic profile.

The GSI covers those aspects of gender relations that can be measured quantitatively. The AWPS captures qualitative issues in relation to the performance of gender policies of African governments.

The GSI measures only the gender gap in countries. It assesses whether women have the same opportunities as men have to earn an income, and whether they have the same access to resources. It indicates whether women have the same possibilities as men have to get an education and to live a healthy life. And it assesses whether women have the same possibilities as men to achieve positions of power in both public and private sector and in civil society. The AWPS also allows a comparison of government performance on issues that have been globally and regionally agreed to be important for women's progress, including women's rights. Again, the AWPS is not dependent on a country's national income.

The AGDI is built on the basis of the concepts of gender and power/empowerment as referred to in the introduction. Here the concepts of gender and women's empowerment are understood in a holistic way, incorporating the full range of concerns which confront women, from the physical to the socio-cultural, religious, legal, political and economic issues (Wieringa, 1998)³. The processes of empowerment of both women and men are related to revealing the unjust power of existing gender relations, critically challenging them, and creatively trying to shape different social relations. The AGDI aims to provide building blocks that can help these processes. Both the GSI and the AWPS have three blocks. The first block 'Social Power' explicitly refers to 'capabilities', the second 'block on 'Economic Power' refers to 'opportunities', and the third one on 'Political Power' to 'agency' or ability to influence and contribute to outcomes. organisation, bargaining power, or 'voice'. The AWPS has a fourth block, which focuses on women's rights.

1.1 Methodology

The process of the development of the AGDI included the following activities:

i. Definition of the theoretical Framework:

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

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

ii. The working group

The draft AGDI was then presented for scrutiny to a working group of experts from Africa and Europe. This working group was introduced in the methodology to ensure

transparency and quality control. The experts included statisticians, economists, gender and development specialists and social development practitioners.

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

iii. The Regional Advisory Panel

After the rigorous review by the working group, the AGDI was presented to a panel of advisors for validation. The panel was composed of representatives from 12 countries where the index would be tried as well as representatives from UNFPA, The World Bank and UNIFEM. In cases where the members could not attend the meeting, their comments were made in writing. The indicators to be included were discussed and indicators suggested went beyond the number included in the AGDI. However, only a limited number could be included in this AGDI. ECA hopes when the AGDI is adopted in various countries, these can add indicators that are relevant to their specific situation. This AGDI is a regional index and tries to take the regional context into consideration.

The Regional Advisory Group played an important role in reviewing and validating the draft African Gender and Development Index on the basis of the following criteria:

- Scope of the index;
- Relevance of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard in measuring progress in addressing gender inequality in Africa;
- Relevance of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard in looking at factors specific to Africa;
- Technical competence of the Gender Status Index and the Scoreboard globally;
- Robustness and applicability of the Gender Status Index and African Women's Progress Scoreboard;
- Choice of indicators and whether they incorporate all the fundamental variables to measure gender inequality in Africa as defined within the Dakar and Beijing Platforms of Action.

iv. Field Trials

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

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

The trials were undertaken by selected independent institutions in each of the countries participating in the trials. To guarantee that the AGDI was not merely an academic tool that could not be applied in practice, representatives from the selected research institutions were invited to review the index before it went on trial. This group included statisticians, economists and gender specialists.

The trials included collection and analysis of data for the GSI, interviewing relevant government departments as well examining documents to verify governments' performance on the scoreboard. It was important to pilot the AGDI to confirm its applicability, relevance of the indicators, availability of the data at national level and to determine if the process is transparent and inclusive of all major stakeholders. The results of the trials will be published in the AWR 2004.

In each of the countries a national advisory panel was set up comprising representatives from the following ministries or their equivalents: National Machinery for Women's Affairs or gender, health, education and national bureau of statistics. In addition two independent experts with gender and development experience and statistics and an NGO representative were included in the panel. The role of the National Advisory Panel was the following:

- Support the institutions in the collection of national data that is accurate of high quality.
- Assist facilitate institutions in accessing the relevant data
- Review the institutions' methodology for collecting data
- Review the data collected by the National Institution
- Review the national report prepared by the national institutions, which includes the AGDI data before it is submitted to the ECA.

The involvement of both the national institutions and advisory panels was to warrant collection of quality data directly from national data banks, guarantee national ownership of the process and foster close collaboration of governments and civil society. The

national institutions were important to ensure objective reviews of governments' performance whilst the national advisory panels assisted to guarantee transparency and quality control.

1.2 Strengths and weaknesses of the AGDI

The major strengths of the AGDI are the following.

- The AGDI is a combination of quantitative and qualitative measures, unique at a global level.
- The GSI focuses on the quantitative aspects of gender relations. It is divided in three blocks: social, economic and political aspects.
- Each of these blocks receives the same weight as ECA feels that these aspects of power relations are interrelated and that it is impossible to give one block a preferential weight and to determine an order of causality or priority.
- The GSI measures issues that so far are not included (or taken into account) in internationally comparative indices such as time use and ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land. It is the most comprehensive gender index at a global level.
- This is made possible because data are collected at the national level. Many of these data are not available internationally. The other gender indices are all based on international databases.
- The AGDI measures issues of particular relevance to the African context, using African policy documents such as the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and the Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS. It can thus become a tool for stimulating the monitoring of gender policies based on priorities set by African nations.
- It is easy to use so that the AGDI brings statistics to the level where they are most useful, such as gender desks, and NGOs in civil society.
- It allows Governments and civil society alike to evaluate good practices in neighbouring countries and learn from them.

As any index the AGDI also has particular weaknesses.

- The AGDI does not assess gender relations in reference to absolute levels of well being. It only measures the gender gap, irrespective of the general socio-economic performance of a country. The AGDI must thus be used in combination with measures that do indicate such absolute levels, such as the Human Development Index (HDI) or the HPI.

- Although the AGDI captures a wider range of gender concerns than indices currently in use, there are still gaps in issues such as identity and personal choice that are not covered.
- The AGDI uses national data which allows the research teams to present a wider set of data than are used in the other indices and generally recent. However, not all data that the AGDI ideally requires is always available.
- The AGDI focuses only on gender equality and the status of women. It does not refer to other intersecting factors of oppression, such as race, ethnicity, the rural/urban gap and age.

“*The AGDI will help raise gender awareness and will present alternatives in the form of good practices from neighbouring countries.*”

In conceptualising the AGDI a number of assumptions have been made.

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

No assumptions are made that higher scores on the AGDI automatically lead to women’s empowerment or to the increase of women’s choices at all levels. Women’s empowerment is not a linear process. There are various pathways to empowerment, which are culturally specific. The relation between the scores on the AGDI and women’s equity and greater gender justice in any particular national context has to be analysed in greater complexity than the AGDI allows. However, the AGDI will provide the information that can form a basis for such analyses, by indicating critical areas of concern, by measuring the effects of gender policies, and by comparing African countries among themselves. The national reports will be able to provide more specificity in this regard. There are various elements in the long process of women’s empowerment such as the level of gender consciousness in a given society, the awareness of viable alternatives to inequalities and access to resources. The AGDI will help raise gender awareness and will present alternatives in the form of good practices from neighbouring countries. In this way the AGDI will also help in giving women a voice to discuss gender inequalities, and it may help them to acquire the agency to start a process of meaningful and purposeful intervention. Women should be accepted as full and equal partners at all levels where decisions are made about their lives. This is why the AGDI looks at a broad range of decision- making structures, from the community level to national parliaments.

Chapter 2

The Gender Status Index (GSI)

2.1 Introduction

The Gender Status Index as indicated in Chapter 1 is a measure of relative gender equality that captures issues related to gender that can be measured quantitatively. The Gender Status Index is based on three blocks, social power, economic power and political power.

The first block, which is **'social power'**, includes indicators on education and health; the second block refers to **'economic power'** and contains indicators on income, time use, employment and access to resources; the third block refers to **'political power'** and consists of indicators on formal and informal political power.

Each block of the GSI is divided into various components. The components are subdivided into a number of sub-components and then into indicators/ variables. Because the GSI deals with gender, women specific issues such as maternal mortality are not included in the GSI but in the scoreboard. The various indicators receive equal weight within the particular sub-component and component. This principle is upheld for the components within each block. The three blocks receive an equal weight in computing the GSI.

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

For the twelve countries in which the GSI has been tested, it is not the intention to use weighed averages. In the trials in the twelve countries, two times series of 1990-1995 and 1996-2002 have been used. The objective is to have a point of reference at the beginning of the 1990s, at the end of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s for all countries. This also takes into consideration the period of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. As the data have been collected at national level it is possible to use the most recent data.

“Social power - 'capabilities', economic power - 'opportunities' and political power - 'agency'.”

Preference is given to flow indicators (with few exceptions: life expectancy, literacy for instance). This is done so as to enable policy makers and activists to see direct results of particular interventions.

2.2 Components of the Gender Status Index

The GSI is divided into three components, following Sen's⁴ division into capabilities, opportunities and agency. Sen's vision also underlies the Human Development Reports and is the basis of the construction of the GDI as explained in the technical note⁵ in the full report. According to Sen, to measure the 'success' of development processes it is not sufficient to indicate an increase in income alone. The three components mentioned above must be included as well. Therefore he suggested that the capabilities people have to enter into a development process are indicated as follows; first people must be healthy and knowledgeable. Second, people must have sufficient economic opportunities. Third they must have voice, or political power (agency) to successfully engage in development processes. Although we have kept to Sen's basic framework, the GSI in many ways departs from the GDI, as explained in the Technical Note⁶.

A block is made up of a component, subcomponent and indicators for each subcomponent

Table 1 below synthesises the list of 42 indicators (divided into 7 components and 12 sub-components) that were agreed upon after discussions by the working group and the Regional Advisory Panel (as discussed in chapter 1). It contains the full list of indicators as well as possible sources of data collection. In one case, (time-use), where the data is lacking, one may replace 3 indicators: the share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment.

The preparation of the GSI gave opportunities for extended discussions on which indicators to select for measuring gender inequalities. The current list includes 42 indicators, some being alternatives and others being disaggregated at a more detailed level. This list results from a balance between the availability of data or variables required and the necessity to cover all major domains and issues where gender inequalities are most prominent. The project and the construction of the GSI will be used to point out the gaps in data collection. The GSI should also be used for lobbying for better data collection.

Among the indicators that were initially proposed but finally not used, several deserve special mention. In the education component, enrolment variations in the 'Arts' and 'Science' or 'natural' and 'human' at both secondary and tertiary levels; access to means of production, among which agricultural inputs, information technologies and communication, access to professional training; numbers of women and men registered on electoral rolls, numbers of women and men who have an identity card. However, there is a limit to the number of indicators that could be included in the GSI. The value added of each additional indicator had to be seriously addressed, especially in relation to the possible correlation between indicators, the necessary clear distinction between dependent and independent variables and the necessity to avoid redundancies. The current list of indicators represents a good balance between these contradictory tendencies. These are important indicators that can be included at national level when countries adopt and adapt the AGDI.

Table 1
Gender Status Index (GSI)

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Sources	
Social power 'Capabilities'	Education	Enrolment	Primary enrolment rate	Ministries of Education and PC, HS	
			Secondary enrolment rate	Ministries of Education and PC, HS	
			Tertiary enrolment rate	Ministries of Education and PC, HS	
		Dropout	Primary dropout ratio	Ministries of Education	
			Secondary dropout ratio	Ministries of Education	
			Ability to read and write	PC	
	Health	Literacy	Primary school completed	PC, DHS or HS	
			Child health	Stunting under 3	DHS, LSMS,SDA
				Underweight under 3	DHS, LSMS,SDA
		Mortality under 5		PC, DHS, LSMS,SDA	
Life expectancy at birth	PC and population projections				
New HIV infection	Ministries of Health				
Time spent out of work	Time-use surveys				
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture	Agricultural surveys	
			Wages in civil service	Ministries of Civil Service	
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	Enterprise surveys	
			Wages in informal sector	Informal sector surveys	
		Income	Income from informal enterprise	Informal sector surveys	
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise	Agricultural surveys, LSMS	
	Income from remittances and inter-household transfers		LSMS		
	Time-use or employment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	Time-use variables are disaggregated by age group and urban/rural	Time-use surveys
			Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities		Time-use surveys
			Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities		Time-use surveys
	Employment	Or: Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment	PC, LFS or HS		
	Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	To be collected	
			Access to credit	Informal sector surveys	
			Freedom to dispose of own income	DHS	
Management		Employers	PC or LFS		
		High civil servants (class A)	Ministries of civil service		
		Members of professional syndicates	To be collected		
Administrative, scientific and technical	PC, LFS or HS				
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector	Members of parliament	To be collected		
		Cabinet ministers	To be collected		
		Higher courts judges	To be collected		
		Members of local councils	To be collected		
		Higher positions in civil service (including government institutions, regional governors and ambassadors)	To be collected		
	Civil society	Senior positions in	Political parties	To be collected	
			Trade unions	To be collected	
			Employers' associations	To be collected	
			Professional syndicates	To be collected	
		Heads or managers of NGOs	To be collected		
		Heads of community-based associations or unions	To be collected		

DHS: Demographic and Health Survey; **HS:** Household Survey; **LFS:** Labour Force Survey; **LSMS:** Living Standard Measurement Study; **PC:** Population Census; **SDA:** Social Dimension of Adjustment Survey.

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

2.2.1 Social Power, ‘Capabilities’

The social power block consists of two components, education and health.

Education is measured by three indicators. In defining these indicators, consideration was taken of some issues that emerge in the discussions on the GDI as elaborated in the technical note. All indicators in this component are flow indicators, except for literacy. This component not only includes the ratios of primary, secondary and tertiary school enrolment, adult literacy, but also dropout ratios for the primary and secondary enrolment as well. The combined ratio of primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio is not used because it can be misleading for countries where the number of ‘over-aged’ (i.e. boys and girls enrolled in an education level although their age is above the official age for this level) is generally high. This characteristic can make the combined ratio artificially high.

“The social power block consists of two components, education and health.”

The dropout ratios for primary and secondary levels are important to follow as studies have shown that girls tend to drop out earlier than boys in cases of socio-economic crisis, when they become pregnant, or because of the death of parents due to HIV/AIDS.

Tertiary school enrolment is taken as an independent indicator because it is at this level that gender discrimination becomes pronounced as education becomes more expensive.

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

Discrepancies between population figures by different ministries in the same country are quite common. Each time a population census is undertaken, the time series for education statistics should be revised for the past inter-census period and the next period. This rarely occurs and education statistics continue to be established on incorrect figures of the population age groups. This is why the indicators may have to be re-calculated.

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

This indicator for the enrolment ratio in the GSI is calculated as follows:

{(Number of girls of primary school age who are enrolled in primary school) / (Total number of girls of primary school age)} / {(Number of boys of primary school age who are enrolled in primary school) / (Total number of boys of primary school age)}.

Official school age may vary from country to country.

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

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

Dropout ratios for primary and secondary levels are also generally provided by the Yearbooks of Education Statistics. This is not the case for the dropout ratios at tertiary level, which is why it has not been included as one of the indicators.

The dropout ratio for primary level measures the number of boys and girls enrolled in the first year of primary level compared to the number of boys and girls enrolled in the last year of the primary level for the same cohort. Similarly the dropout ratio for secondary level compares enrolment ratios in the first year of secondary level and in the last year of secondary level for the same cohort. Because they deal with cohorts, the dropout ratios are not always available. In such cases a proxy could be used, which is the comparison of the later figures, not for the same cohort, but over a period corresponding to the number of school years for completing the primary or the secondary level: for instance the number of girls starting primary school in 1995 is compared with the number of girls finishing primary school in 2001 (assuming primary school is 7 years). In countries where statistical time series are weak, another proxy can be calculated: it consists of comparing for the same year for instance 2001, the number of girls starting primary school in 2001 with the number of girls finishing primary school in 2001. National reports will have to explain how the ratio is arrived at.

The dropout ratio does not measure an absolute figure. Rather the retention rate, complement of the dropout ratio to 100%, can be used for the computation of the index.

The quality of education the boys and girls receive is an important indicator, but it is complex and where it is available it is not usually disaggregated by sex and in most instances it will affect both boys and girls. For these reasons this indicator has not been included in the GSI.

The adult literacy rate is the usual indicator used in Human Development Reports, although it is not always harmonised to the population of reference. The figure for the

population aged fifteen and over will be taken directly from the demographic source and the indicator recalculated for this population, as it often occurs that countries use different age groups, ten and over for instance. Such discrepancies are not always corrected in international reports nor in the country reports established by the UN agencies. It should be noted that recently some surveys have introduced a check on respondents to see if they can read or write by asking them not only if they can write, but also to write a short statement about their everyday life.

The source for the adult literacy rate is the population census usually undertaken every 10 years. Other household surveys (demographic, health or living conditions) may provide the indicator during an inter-census interval, but they more frequently provide the education level of the adult population, which consequently is available for shorter interval periods. Both indicators are selected in the computation of the GSI, the adult literacy rate and the adult population having completed primary school, or having completed adult literacy courses. The two indicators are not the same. For instance adults with a primary education level can be, or can have become, illiterate and adults without any education level can be literate. But the education level can be taken as a proxy for literacy: either the gap between the two can be calculated from the sources which provide both, such as population censuses, or the education level may be preferred to the adult literacy rate as a general indicator of literacy. As far as the gender gap is concerned, it is likely that both indicators are comparable. National reports from the trials have provided time-series for both indicators for further harmonisation and discussions on the biases in gender equality.

The weighting of the three indicators presented above will be discussed in a special section below.

Health includes six indicators, all flow indicators, except life expectancy. All indicators measure gender inequality. The sub-component on child health is divided into three indicators; Stunting, underweight of young children and under five mortality rate. The first two indicators point to the preferences parents have for boys or girls.

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

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

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

Under five-mortality rate is also a very sensitive indicator. It is provided by population censuses and demographic and health surveys.

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

Life expectancy at birth is the usual indicator used by the UNDP reports. In spite of its being a stock indicator, it is included, as it allows for comparison between countries. It is an indicator for which there is very often a discrepancy between international database and national data. The reason is that usually the national data is based on population projections established immediately after the population census. Assumptions are made on the trends in life expectancy at birth by sex for three variants, high, medium and low. The medium variant is generally used for national policy purposes. It is rare that these projections are revised during an inter-census period, while the international database of the UN population division is revised every two years, taking into account new information which may have an impact on life expectancy and fertility rates, such as the impact of HIV/AIDS. For reasons of coherence, national data will be preferred even if this is the domain where the international database is the most updated.

Moreover, life expectancy at birth is one of the rare indicators for which women have a comparative advantage for biological reasons and the Human Development Report deals with this advantage by referring to an “equally distributed equivalent achievement indicator”. In the GSI we have not corrected it.

The rate of new cases of HIV for the preceding year are statistics from health departments and cannot be obtained from surveys. The AGDI measures new HIV infections, as it is the most gender sensitive indicator in relation to the epidemic. In the first years of the spread of the disease men got infected in larger numbers than women. As the disease spreads through wider levels of society women who do not belong to the high-risk groups are increasingly getting infected. This indicator is difficult to measure and these statistics are still controversial because some nations minimise the figures because of political considerations or overestimate them in order to raise funds from the international community. Statistics obtained from health ministries may not always be reliable or even available. Sometimes NGOs have better statistics. In spite of these problems it is proposed that this indicator be included. Due to the havoc the pandemic is causing in many African countries, it is important to consider the gendered consequences in the measure of new cases of infection.

Levels of new cases of HIV infection for the preceding year are to be used disaggregated by sex first of all because the disease is ravaging large parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, and also because women are more vulnerable than men.

Time spent out of work is measured as time spent in personal care, which is sleeping, resting, eating, social activities including entertaining friends, leisure activities such as listening to the radio, playing and learning activities studying both at school and at home. In time-use surveys refers to time spent out of work which is defined as activities ‘which one person may not be hired to perform for another’. This indicator will be available only for countries which have carried out time-use surveys.

2.2.2 Economic Power

“The block on economic power has three components: income; time-use or employment; and access to resources.”

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

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

Income. For the income variable, the index uses the gender differences in wages for the formal sector (civil service, public, private) and wages and income from the informal sector and from small agricultural enterprises. This is because in the informal sector and in the agricultural sector, many are self-employed workers and are not dependent on wages. These indicators are not related to any absolute level of national income, as the GDI and the GEM are (see technical note for an explanation of this point).

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

The selected indicators are:

- Wages in agriculture;
- Wages in civil service;

- Wages in formal sector, both public and private;
- Wages in informal sector;
- Income from informal sector enterprises;
- Income from small agricultural household enterprises; and
- Remittances or inter-household transfers.

It is very unlikely that all these indicators will be available, but at least one or two wages in civil service and wages in the formal sector, will have been collected and disaggregated by sex so that the weight of each will depend on the number of available indicators.

Despite these difficulties which explain why the international database is so poor in this domain, it is to be expected that information does exist which is not usually published but is available to those looking for it.

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

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

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

Time use and employment. Although time-use surveys are not yet available for many countries, the indicators for time-use will be preferred to the indicators on labour force and employment which generally underestimate women's participation.

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

Time use

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

The UNDP and UN statistics division have recently given higher priority to these surveys and provided financial and technical support for the implementation of such surveys in the developing countries. The number of African countries that have undertaken time-use surveys has grown in the recent period. The experiences of Benin and Madagascar prove that the inclusion in permanent or ad-hoc household surveys of a specific section on time-use is a solution which has a low cost and does not compromise the core survey whilst providing rapid results. It is a better estimation for women's non-market work activities.

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

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

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

Employment

Three indicators measure employment:

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

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

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

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

Employment: There are many indicators that can be used in this respect. However, a single indicator will be preferred. The number of women who are paid employees, own-account workers and employers as a share of female total employment. This will be compared to the same indicator for men, because it is an indicator for autonomy in receiving income from work, contrary to employment as unpaid family workers.

It is necessary to explain here why this indicator was selected against the more usual ones, among which for instance:

- Paid or wage-employment (wage earners), as compared to non-wage employment (self-employed)
- Employment in the informal sector (as a share of non-agricultural employment), as compared to employment in the formal sector.

These figures are easily available. The first of these indicators is available in population censuses, labour force surveys and other household surveys. Statistics on the formal and the informal sector are more difficult to gather. Recently, the 2002 International Labour Conference, followed by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2003 addressed the issue of 'decent work and the informal economy' as a special topic. This has brought to the fore a distinction between 'informal employment' by reference to the characteristics or 'quality' of the job and 'informal sector employment' by reference to the characteristics of the economic unit. An extensive and engendered compilation of self-employment, informal employment and informal sector employment has been prepared to this aim and can be used for the AGDI (see technical note).

The reason for not selecting these indicators is that there is difficulty in deciding whether a high ratio under 100 percent in paid employment is an achievement and a high ratio over 100 percent in own-account employment, self-employment, informal employment or agricultural employment is a negative result because paid employment can be of low quality and self-employment or informal employment can be of better quality.

However, data on earnings, time use and employment are likely to be disparate and difficult to gather for a precise period of time. A possible alternative, or useful complement to this lack of data could be to measure the contribution of women and men in the informal sector by using macro-economic data from national accounts and employment but it has been decided not to enter into these more complex details at this stage of the process.

Access to resources. The third component of the second block, 'economic power', refers to **access to resources**. The following indicators are to be measured within access to resources:

- Ownership of urban plots/houses and land;
- Access to credit;
- Freedom to dispose of own income;
- Management.

Ownership of urban plots/houses and land can be known by sex through the manual compilation of real estate registers. Certainly such a task cannot be undertaken at national level, but in many countries it can be done at least for some areas in the capital city and in other cities. In rural areas, it is unlikely that registers are available, but some comprehensive, although geographically limited, studies may exist in some countries. It certainly may happen in some situations or countries that registration of that female ownership is used for hiding male ownership in order to avoid taxation for example, but such cases will have to be taken into account in the narrative of the interpretation of the collected data. In this area, national reports will have to investigate what can reasonably be done, depending on what is available and accessible.

Access to credit. Unfortunately this cannot be known by compilation of banks' files, because these files are generally not accessible for survey use and also because the formal banking system only covers a small proportion of those having access to any form of credit, the informal banking systems being much more extended. However, a possibility would be to get from the banks, at least from the major ones, the ratio of females to males among the beneficiaries of credits for enterprises. Informal sector surveys have generally introduced this question in their investigation, in the form of use or note of credit at the creation of the enterprise, but also for current use of credit. It is then necessary to compile the information by sex of the entrepreneur. The indicator is based on the number of beneficiaries, not on the total amount borrowed. In this sense it has to be interpreted with caution, as men tend to obtain from banks larger amounts of money than women do in micro-credit schemes.

Freedom to dispose of own income is an indicator that has been collected in the recent Demographic and Health Surveys in Africa where women were asked whether they can dispose of their income freely, or in agreement with their husband or father, or not at all. As the question has not been asked to men, the ratio will be calculated by reference to 100 percent for males.

Management is included in the block on ‘economic power’, as managerial positions are an important indicator for high incomes. This group is considered to have access to high income and therefore a high standard of living. The management component is comprised of four indicators which have been selected for their availability or the possibility of collecting them easily: First the number of **employers disaggregated by sex** is known from population censuses and labour force surveys, Second the **number of women as high civil servants (class A) disaggregated by sex** is generally available in the statistics of the Ministry of Civil Service. Thirdly the **number of persons engaged in administrative, scientific and technical jobs disaggregated by sex** can be found in the results of population censuses and only requires the disaggregation of the International Standard Classification of Occupations at the 1-digit level. It is comprised of the first group of the international classification. Fourthly the **number of members of professional syndicates disaggregated by sex** will be collected from the main associations of professionals: physicians, lawyers, architects, accountants and engineers. It should be noted that data collection for professionals is strictly limited to this list of 5 professions. As relating to high-level civil servants, national teams will determine the levels and explain how they defined them.

“This block considers men and women who make decisions or influence them in a country.”

2.2.3 Political Power

The third block is political power. This block resembles UNDP’s GEM, and takes into account the criticism raised in the technical note so as to increase its reliability and validity. This block considers men and women who make decisions or influence them in a country. Two components have been selected. First **Public Sector** which is defined as ‘Executive, legislative and judiciary power’ and second, civil **society**. The boundaries between Public Sector and Civil Society are left open as in some countries they tend to spill into each other. Therefore, there can be a shift depending on the political context, and consequently there is no clear separation between the two in Table 1.

The indicators used for public power are not only women’s share of seats in parliament (GEM), but also in the local councils, as well as the number of women cabinet ministers and Higher Court judges and in higher civil service positions. In most countries the administrative power lies in the hands of cabinet ministers at a national level, and in the local councils at local levels. The judiciary level has been included, that is the Higher Courts, and the administrative level.

Public sector. The first indicator of public power is the **number of seats in Parliament** held by women (completed by the number of women chairing commissions and committees in Parliament) and the second indicator is the **number of cabinet ministers (including under-secretaries of State)** who are women. This indicator will be completed by another one which will measure the number of women who are ministers of ministries

“ Each component of the GSI has the same weight in each block and each block has the same weight in the GSI. ”

other than those dealing with social affairs (health, education, social affairs, employment, etc.). The third indicator used is **number of women** who are **members of Higher Courts**. This information is easily available in the countries. The fourth indicator will require more research but it is also readily available: **The number of women in local councils** is of particular relevance in a period when decentralisation and local development have gained a high priority in most countries of the continent. And the fifth indicator is **the number of directors and secretary generals in the various ministries**: here also, data collection is needed but it is generally easy to obtain the information from the organisation charts of the ministries or by telephone calls surveys. The **number of ambassadors** will be included in this last indicator, as well as the **regional governors** and also the **directors of government institutions** such as national institutes of statistics for example. All these indicators will compare the number of women in these positions to the number of men. The definitions of government institutions, of cabinet ministers and of directors may vary widely across countries. National reports will have to investigate the definitions used in the country for further harmonisation processes. The list of government institutions can be provided by the department of national accounts: It is the list of institutions to be included in the government sector in the national accounts.

Finally, in present times, public power has to come to terms with new forms of power residing in the civil society. The sub-component power in civil society will be measured by the number of **senior positions** (disaggregated by sex) **of political parties, trade unions, employers' associations and professional syndicates**.

Other indicators that are of particular importance for the GSI are:

- The number of women, as compared to men, who are **heading or managing NGOs**,
- The number of women **leading community-based or grassroots associations or unions**. Such information does exist at the Ministries of Interior/Local Government where these associations have to register. But many registrations are not up-to-date and there is usually not an exact count of active associations in the countries. However, the trials in the countries will have to check the possibility of obtaining such information.

2.3 Calculating the GSI

Provisionally, each basic indicator has the same weight in each sub-component and each sub-component has the same weight in each component.

Finally each component of the GSI has the same weight in each block and each block has the same weight in the GSI.

Each indicator is calculated the same way: It consists in the comparison (i.e. the calcula-

tion of the index or the calculation of the proportion) of female achievement to male achievement for the given variable. For instance, if in a country the primary enrolment rate for girls is 35% and the primary enrolment rate for boys is 53%, then the indicator will be: $35/53 = 66\%$ or 0.66. The share of females in the total value is never used. For instance, the share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment means that this value is calculated for females, then for males and then the two values are compared. In the case of seats in parliament or cabinet ministers, the number of women is compared to the number of men. And in the case of freedom to dispose of own income, it is compared to 100%.

If an indicator is missing, the other indicators of the sub-component are re-weighted, to take account of the actual number of available indicators. For instance, it may happen that the only available indicator for income will be wages in civil service or income in the informal sector, then it will be the only indicator used for the sub-component income. However in the case of wages and income, the basic indicators may be weighed according to the numbers engaged in the various categories of employment.

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

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

A concrete example of calculation is shown in chapter 4. It refers to a specific country.

2.4 Weighing the indicators and components of the GSI

The weighing is complex. At this stage of the research project, 42 indicators have been selected for their adequacy to the measurement of gender inequalities and also for their availability. Certainly all these 42 indicators cannot have the same weight in the Gender Status Index. The solution is that each indicator has the same weight in a sub-component: The final weight of an indicator depends on the number of variables in the sub-component, the number of sub-components in a component and the number of components in a block; the more sub-components and components there are in a block, the less each individual indicator weighs.

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In general all indicators in a component have equal weight, so that indicators which are not built into sub-components but directly into components have a more prominent weight.

For instance, in the component ‘health’, life expectancy at birth has the same weight as the whole sub-component ‘child health’.

Finally the whole system is based on 3 blocks, 7 components and 12 sub-components of which 4 are direct indicators for health: If it is decided for example that each component has the same weight in the GSI, it would mean that the block ‘economic power’ has a greater weight than the ‘social’ and the ‘political’ as it includes three components. The exact weight can be calculated for each variable.

For each indicator, a simple arithmetic compares the ratio or the number of women to the ratio or the number of men. The gap will be the measure of the progress still to be made to reach equality, with the exception of 5 indicators on education (dropout), health (stunting, underweight, mortality) and time-use (domestic, care and volunteer activities): Here we measure male achievement versus female achievement. When the indicator is defined as a share of total, it will be transformed in a ratio of females to males.

The required data will be collected for two periods, ideally 1995 and 2000, and more realistically 1990-1995 and 1996-2001.

Chapter 3

The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS)

The second component of the AGDI is the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) which complements the GSI. The African Women's Progress Scoreboard is a measure of government policy performance regarding women's advancement and empowerment and deals with qualitative issues. It tracks government progress in ratifying relevant conventions such as Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women CEDAW and the African Charter on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR), and in implementing policies, in line with international documents, on such issues as violence against women, maternal mortality, contraception, HIV/AIDS, women's land rights, women's right to equal wages and access to new technologies and agricultural extension services. Lastly it looks at measures governments have or have not taken in relation to women's political agency. Its common methodology allows for cross-country comparison. The scorecard indicates both where particular governments are performing well and where there are gaps in implementation. The African Women's Report 2004, which will publish the results of the field trials in 12 countries, will also highlight best practices. The AWPS, together with the GSI, provides the information on the basis of which progress in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's) and gender policies related to the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) can be tracked.

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

The AWPS fills the gap between purely quantitative indicators, such as those contained in the GSI, and more country-specific or sector-specific indicators, or those related to decision-making and well being at household and individual level. Within this broad space, it focuses on those issues that cannot be quantified in the conventional sense, such as women's rights. It addresses a large part of the Women's Empowerment Matrix (WEM), as discussed in the Technical Note in the full report, incorporating for instance issues in the legal and cultural

sphere, while touching on issues in the religious sphere. It incorporates some aspects of what is often considered as the private domain, such as marriage regulations or laws on violence against women. It also points to particular elements in the economic and social spheres that usually escape quantification, such as policies and laws. All these issues are quantified using a simple scoring mechanism. This allows for cross-country comparison.

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

“*For all cells where it is possible, a three point score, 0 – 1 – 2, will be used.*”

Because of its systematic use of data collection, the AWPS stimulates regional co-ordination on gender issues, involving various regional and international institutions and the governments concerned. It is expected that it will also facilitate co-ordination on regional documents such as the SADC Declaration and NEPAD.

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

3.1 SCORING the AWPS

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

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

The AWPS is composed of four blocks. The first block is **women's rights**, focusing on CEDAW and the draft Women's Protocol of the African Charter of Human and People's Rights. The next three blocks are similar to the three blocks of the GSI: **social power**, or capabilities; **economic power**, referring to opportunities; and **political power**, pointing to agency, the ability to influence decision-making.

These blocks capture the qualitative issues of gender relations that the GSI attempts to capture in a quantitative way. They will be explained below. The computation of the AWPS is different from the GSI, where the blocks receive equal weight. In the AWPS all the variables receive the same weight. The AWPS is measured in percentages set to a possible maximum score, in which each row is seen to have a possible maximum score set at 100%. The total score of the AWPS is similarly computed from the total of all 13 rows, which again is set at 100%. The scoring is done on a three-point scale:

- 0 (zero) indicates a zero performance on the measures on the horizontal axis such as budget, law, or policy commitment;
- 1 (one) indicates a poor - fair performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as the budget in which some money is allocated to the issue addressed, or a law or policy commitment that is being drafted or discussed but that is not yet ratified by parliament;
- 2 (two) indicates a good – to excellent performance on the horizontal axis on measures such as an adequate budget, or a law or policy commitment that has been passed in parliament.

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

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

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

The AGDI is composed of four blocks: Women's rights, social power economic power and political power.

Table 2
The African Women's Progress Scoreboard

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Total	%		
WOMEN'S RIGHTS	CEDAW	Ratification without reservation																	
		Optional protocol																	
		Art 2																	
		Art 16																	
		African Charter of Human and People's Rights – Women's Rights protocol – harmful practices	X																
SOCIAL		Beijing Platform of Action	X																
	Violence against Women	Domestic violence	X																
		Rape	X																
		Sexual harassment	X																
		Traffic in women																	
			African Charter on the Rights of the Child art XXVII																
	Health-ICPD POA Plus Five	STI's	X	X															
		HIV/AIDS	X	X															
		Maternal mortality	X	X															
		Contraception	X	X															
		2001 Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS and women	X	X															
Education	Policy on girl school dropouts	X	X	X															
	Education on human/women's rights	X	X																
ECONOMIC	ILO	Convention 100																	
		Convention 111																	
		Convention 183																	
		Policy on HIV/AIDS	X	X															
		Engendering NPRS	X	X															
		Access to agricultural extension services	X	X	X														
		Access to technology	X	X															
		Equal access to land	X	X															
POLITICAL		UN 1325 conflict resolution	X																
		Beijing PFA effective and accessible national machinery	X	X															
	Policies	Support for women's quota and affirmative action	X	X															
		Decision making positions within parliament/ministries	X	X															
		Gender mainstreaming in all departments	X	X	X														
Total score			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X				

X means not applicable or unable to score

3.2 AWPS Vertical Axis

The vertical axis of the AWPS (the rows of table 2) lists the specific items that will be measured. These consist of issues that cannot (yet) be measured quantitatively in the conventional sense and of qualitative aspects of issues that are also measured in the GSI. As much as possible the various conventions, charters or policy documents that originate from the African context are included. In other cases international conventions or documents are used, such as those by the ILO. For each convention, charter or document listed a selection of the most salient issue(s) is made, taking care to avoid overlap as much as possible. The ways in which the documents referred to overlap are not listed exhaustively. The AWPS consists of four blocks, Women's Rights, Social, Economic and Political Power.

3.2.1 Women's Rights

CEDAW: In March 2003, 44 African countries had ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women, out of a total of 171 nations who have done so. These nations are therefore bound by law to eliminate discrimination against women and promote their advancement. Yet compliance with CEDAW is often unsatisfactory. This is particularly caused because many nations have made far-reaching reservations. By accepting the Convention, States commit themselves to incorporate the principle of full equality in their legal system and to establish tribunals and other institutions to ensure the protection of women against discrimination. Four items under CEDAW are measured. Other areas of CEDAW are dealt with in the indicators of the GSI (such as employment and political participation), while the issues of violence against women, traditional practices and reproductive rights are the focus of other items of the scoreboard.

First to be measured is whether states have **ratified the Convention without reservations**. As most reservations that are made relate to particular obstacles to women's equality posed by religions, this item also relates to the religious sphere in the Women's Empowerment Matrix⁷ (WEM). These reservations may originate from the various monotheistic religions in the continent or from customary or spiritual practices. Several African countries adhere to a system of customary laws in which women may be discriminated against, such as in matters of marriage, divorce and inheritance. In several cases the constitution guarantees equality, but this is then being denied by particular family laws.

The second item focuses on the ratification and implementation of the **Optional Protocol** to CEDAW. To date 13 African states signed the Optional Protocol while three countries have also ratified it (Mali, Namibia, Senegal, in April 2002). The OP to CEDAW provides for the mechanisms under which complaints can be raised, namely the Communications and the Inquiry procedures. The OP invests the CEDAW Committee with some powers to investigate into gross violations of women's human rights.

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

The vertical axis of the AWPS (the rows of table 2) lists the specific items that will be measured.

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

Article 16 refers to all matters relating to marriage and family relations. It thus calls for revisions to family laws that are not consistent with the principles of equality between the sexes. Under article 16.1.a women and men shall have the same right to enter into marriage. Polygyny can thus only be accepted if polyandry is also accepted. As this is nowhere the case on the African continent, article 16.1.a effectively prohibits polygyny. Article 16.1.c grants both spouses the same rights and obligations at the dissolution of their marriage. Article 16.2 prohibits child marriage.

African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights – Women's Rights Protocol (Draft):

The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa was adopted by the Heads of State in Maputo – Mozambique in July 2003. It specifies various elements relevant to Africa following international declarations and conventions. It calls for the prohibition, through legislative measures backed by sanctions, of all forms of female genital mutilation, scarification, medicalisation and paramedicalisation of female genital mutilation and all other practices in order to eradicate them (article 5b). In several African countries women can be subjected to various kinds of harmful social practices. These practices include female genital mutilation, virginity testing, forced marriages, widowhood rites, the banning of old women into so-called witch camps and honour crimes. Article 69 (e) of the Beijing Plus Five document calls for states to 'develop, adopt and fully implement laws and other measures, as appropriate, to eradicate harmful customary or traditional practices...which are violations of the human rights of women and girls...'

In the preparatory process of the AWPS a number of harmful practices were mentioned, such as female genital mutilation, widowhood rites and honour crimes. Not all countries practice these harmful practices. In the implementation of the AWPS, each country team should look at whether any harmful practices occur in their country and then consider it in this row. The ratification process on this Charter is not yet open, thus the score for 'ratification' refers to signing the Charter.

3.2.2 Social Power

The social components of the AWPS measure the following issues: Adherence to provisions entailed in the Beijing Platform for Action and reaffirmed during the Plus Five meeting in New York, 2000; policies related to violence against women, as measured by domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment and trafficking in women; Article XXVII of the African Charter on the Rights of the Child; the provisions on STI's, HIV/AIDS education, Maternal Mortality and Contraception of the ICPD Program of Action, as reaffirmed during the Plus Five meeting in 1999; the 2001 Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS,

Tuberculosis and Other Related Infectious Diseases, and policies on girl school dropouts and education on human/women's rights in education.

Beijing Platform For Action (PFA) and Plus Five Meeting

In this instance measurement is being made of Governments' implementation of their commitments to the Critical Areas of Concern of the Beijing Platform of Action. Some countries prioritised some issues within the twelve Critical Areas of Concern that they would address. Therefore, the country reports will look specifically at those areas that the government is addressing within the Beijing Platform for Action. Countries will also report at the Seventh African Regional Conference on Women, to be held in October 2004 in Addis Ababa.

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

Violence Against Women

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

Domestic violence

The Beijing PFA makes specific mention of domestic violence. This is reconfirmed in the Beijing Plus Five document. States are called upon to take all necessary measures to ensure that women and girls are protected against violence and to guarantee that there is recourse to justice. This includes policies that ‘provide for prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, ...introduce [e] actions to motivate perpetrators to break the cycle of violence... and introduce legislation... to handle criminal matters relating to all forms of domestic violence’ (Beijing Plus Five paragraph 69(d)). States are also called upon to establish appropriate mechanisms to handle criminal matters relating to all forms of violence and to ensure cases are brought to justice swiftly (paragraph 69(d)). Beijing Plus Five also calls for continued research to develop a better understanding of the causes of violence against women in order to design programmes towards eliminating this violence (paragraph 69(F)). Some African countries have passed Domestic Violence Acts.

Rape

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

Sexual harassment at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere.

The 1993 Vienna Declaration on Violence Against Women and both Beijing documents include sexual harassment at work, educational institutions and elsewhere under their provision dealing with violence against women. Sexual harassment is defined as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours and verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Ministries of labour and education are the obvious institutions to be involved in its eradication. Specific measures to be taken include the development of legal instruments, research, monitoring, training of staff and information.

Trafficking in women.

Trafficking in women is included in various documents. The Beijing Plus Five article 70(b) calls upon states to ‘devise, enforce and strengthen laws on all forms of trafficking in women and girls through a comprehensive anti-trafficking strategy consisting of, inter alia, legislative measures, prevention campaigns, information exchange, assistance

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

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

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

and protection for and reintegration of the victims and prosecution of all the offenders, including intermediaries’.

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

African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child

This Charter contains some important articles to protect children. The focus here is on policies and implementation of **article XXVII** on sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, particularly on points 1.b and c of this article. State parties commit themselves to undertake measures to prevent the use of children in prostitution or other sexual practices and in pornography. This article is in line with the ILO Convention 182 on Child Labour and with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo 1994), Plus Five (1999)

The 1999 **ICPD Plus Five** meeting in New York agreed to revise the Platform of Action (POA) agreed on during the 1994 Cairo International Conference on Population and Development, as discussed in Chapter II of this report. Three indicators will be used to

measure the POA goals of access to universal sexual and reproductive health, contraception and fight against maternal mortality and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and HIV/AIDS. In the AWPS the focus is on these indicators; the indicator on STIs and HIV/AIDS education has been split, to emphasize the relative importance of each disease. Following the ICPD, the focus is on adolescents. Although the indicators discussed below do not single out young women the ICPD's POA is very gender-sensitive. Hence they are included as formulated in the POA (1994) and the Plus Five document on Key Actions (1999).

Various paragraphs in the ICPD POA (notably 7.41 – 7.48) and in the Key Actions for the implementation of the POA (1999, notably section IV E) stipulate that governments take appropriate actions to ensure that adolescents receive adequate health education, information, counselling and care regarding sexually transmitted diseases. These services should safeguard the rights of adolescents to privacy, confidentiality and informed consent, respecting their cultural values and religious beliefs (paragraph 73 E Key Actions).

Regarding **HIV/AIDS** (paragraph 70 Key Actions) states agreed that young people should be given specific attention. Targets set were that by 2005 and by 2010, 90% and at least 95% respectively of young people should have access to the necessary information, education and services. This includes access to preventive methods such as female and male condoms, voluntary testing and counselling. HIV infection rates among young people should decline by 2005, by 25% in the most affected countries, globally by 25% in 2010 for the age group between 15 to 24 years of age.

With respect to **maternal mortality** (paragraph 64 Key Actions), the importance of providing obstetric care and of having skilled attendants present at birth is recognised. In countries where maternal mortality is very high, skilled attendants should assist at least 40% of all births by 2005, 50% by 2010 and 60% by 2015.

The targets set for contraception (paragraph 58 Key Actions) are to close the 'gap between contraceptive use and the proportion of individuals expressing the desire to space or limit their families' by at least 50% by 2005, 75% by 2010 and 100% by 2050.

Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Other Related Infectious Diseases

This Declaration was adopted in July 2001. It recognizes that Africa is exceptionally afflicted by HIV/AIDS and that women and girls are biologically particularly vulnerable to HIV infection. In addition, the Declaration recognizes that economic and social inequalities and traditionally accepted gender roles leave them in a subordinate position to men (Article 7). The signatories of the Declaration are convinced that containing and reversing HIV/AIDS should constitute their top priority for the first quarter of the 21st century (article 15).

In relation to the above, the AWPS measures whether States have adopted the Abuja 2001 Declaration and have drafted a policy commitment dealing with the particular issues of HIV/AIDS care and prevention among women. The other cells in this row then measure whether or not and in how far this policy has been implemented.

Education

Policy on girl school dropouts: The GSI indicates the sex-disaggregated school drop out ratios for the primary and secondary levels. Socio-economic factors such as structural adjustment policies may contribute to the rising numbers of girls who do not receive any form of training. Although both boys and girls may drop out of school, the reasons are gender specific. In many countries pregnant schoolgirls are sent away from school. Another factor which contributes to the often larger number of girl school dropouts than boys is the effect of HIV/AIDS. Girls are more likely to be called upon to care for sick relatives or to replace dead parents to care for younger siblings than boys. Due to these factors in several African countries large numbers of young women will enter the labour market with hardly any schooling. Several countries have policies to address this issue, to provide these young women with professional training and to prevent girls dropping out from school. Under this item whether or not a country has specific policies to address the issue of training these young women is indicated, as is whether or not and to what extent these policies are implemented.

Education on human/women's rights: Education can be used to promote social and gender justice and empowerment, including women's empowerment, but it can also be used to justify repression, including religious intolerance. Particular policies need to be put in place to ensure that human rights including women's rights education is integrated into educational strategies and monitoring. This indicator measures whether or not the ministry in charge of education or any other relevant ministry has a policy on the integration of human rights including women's rights in education, and whether or not and to what extent this policy is implemented. This indicator is in line with the Beijing PFA Strategic Objective B.72: 'Creation of an educational and social environment, in which women and men, girls and boys, are treated equally and encouraged to achieve their full potential, respecting their freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief, and where educational resources promote non-stereotyped images of women and men...'

Strategic objective 1.3 (g) says: 'Promote education on the human and legal rights of women in school curricula at all levels of education and undertake public campaigns, including in the most widely used languages of the country, on the equality of women and men in public and private life, including their rights within the family and relevant human rights instruments under national and international law'.

3.2.3 Economic Power

ILO

The International Labour Organization (ILO) has produced several conventions that address women's rights. Conventions 100, 111 and 182 are all 'fundamental' conventions as they are given top priority for ratification and implementation by member states. Crucial elements relating to the Convention on Child Labour are already included above in the indicator on the African Charter on the Rights of the Child, so Convention 182, that addresses that issue, is not included here.

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

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

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

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

ILO Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS: The objectives of this Code of Practice are to help prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS, to alleviate its impact on the world of work, to stimulate the care and support of infected and affected workers and to eliminate the stigma and discrimination on the basis of real or perceived HIV status. It deals extensively with women's greater vulnerability to HIV infection and with the gendered implications of HIV/AIDS. It calls for all programmes to be gender-sensitive, as well as sensitive to race and sexual orientation, including specific programmes to educate women about their rights (Article 6.3) and education to include strategies to supplement low incomes for women workers (Article 6.5.c). The Code of Practice also recognizes that women normally undertake the major part of caring for those with AIDS-related illnesses. Programmes should recognize those needs, as well as the needs of pregnant women and of children who, because of having dropped out of school, or by the loss of

one or both parents, may become vulnerable to sexual exploitation (Article 9.8.a). The indicator used in the AWPS measures whether or not states have integrated this Code of Practice in their legal system and/or have adopted a policy commitment based on it, and whether or not and to what extent the gender dimensions of this Code of Practice are being implemented.

Engendering National Poverty Reduction Strategies (NPRS): Poverty remains a core issue in Africa. Rural households and female-headed households are among the poorest groups as are the dwellers in urban shantytowns. Poverty reduction is one of the central elements of development in Africa and is also central to NEPAD. The NEPAD document, adopted in October 2001, focuses on Africa's economic and cultural development. In various places attention is paid to gender issues. NPRS are generally supported by international agencies. Almost all African countries have drawn up a national poverty reduction strategy. To ensure that the gender dimensions of poverty are taken into account, and to assist poor women, who are the majority of Africa's poor, NPRS must be engendered. This indicator measures whether governments have adopted policy commitments to engender their NPRS and whether that is integrated in their Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and whether or not or to what extent the measures and strategies proposed are being implemented.

Access to agricultural extension services: Agriculture is a major component of African economies. Large numbers of women are farmers. Yet agricultural extension services are often only directed at men. Due to prevailing gender ideologies many countries uphold a sexual division of labour in which women and men carry out different tasks in agriculture. Agricultural extension services must take these differences into account. In some regions women's mobility is more restricted than men's, which may make it more difficult for women to travel to meetings or offices. To increase women's productivity and their incomes women must have access to agricultural extension services. This indicator measures whether or not the specific barriers women face in a particular country in relation to access to agricultural extension services are addressed in a policy document, and whether or not or to what extent the measures proposed are being implemented. This is complemented by the GSI indicator on credit and includes credit that women access for agricultural inputs.

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

Land rights: Both the Beijing PFA and CEDAW (Article 14) stress the importance for women to have equal access to land. The Beijing PFA in its Strategic Objective A.2 calls on governments 'to revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources...including the rights to inheritance and to ownership

of land and other property...’ Although there are insufficient records to measure the extent to which women own land it is possible to assess the legal situation. Under this item the scoreboard measures whether women have equal access to and control of land or whether there are rules of inheritance or other practices which prevent women from having the same access/control of land and of land of the same quality as their male family members have. As the majority of African women are (part time) farmers this is a crucial issue. The indicator measures whether governments have adopted laws and policy documents to ensure women can have equal access to land, and whether or not or to what extent the measures proposed are being implemented.

3.2.4 Political Power

UN Resolution 1325 on Conflict Prevention 2000: Several African countries have been ravaged by wars, whether cross-country conflicts or civil strife. Some wars are continuing. Women have been killed, raped, maimed and driven from their homes. Their land, houses and enterprises have been destroyed, the social and physical infrastructure has been ravaged. It is important that women have an equal voice in the negotiations on peace and conflict prevention, both of a political and a material nature. It is also critical to engender rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes in post conflict situations by ensuring an equal access, participation and control by women over these initiatives.

This indicator measures whether or not states have ratified UN Resolution 1325 of 2000, and whether or not and to what extent measures have been taken to implement it. Reporting is not required. This Resolution addresses both the impact of war on women and women’s contribution to conflict resolution and sustainable peace. It specifically calls for measures to ensure the protection of and respect for women’s rights. The 2002 Report of the UN Secretary General on Women, Peace and Security recommends even stronger measures to integrate women in all steps of peacekeeping and peacemaking and urges peace agreements to integrate gender perspectives.

Beijing Platform for Action: effective and accessible national machinery: The Beijing PFA recognises that women’s full representation and participation in decision-making positions in government, policy-making and political parties could act as a means to accelerate the transformation of power relations in society. Paragraph 196 of the PFA states that almost every member state must establish a national machinery for the advancement of women to, ‘inter alia, design, promote the implementation of, execute, monitor, evaluate, advocate and mobilise support for policies that promote the advancement of women’. The UN special session on the Beijing Plus Five process reaffirmed the importance of the establishment of strong, effective and accessible national machineries for the advancement of women. Resolution S 23-3, paragraph 61 reconfirms the need to establish strong national machineries. The national machinery ‘should have clearly defined mandates and authority; critical elements would be adequate resources and the ability and competence to influence policy and formulate and review legislation’ (Beijing PFA Strategic Objective H.1.b).

This indicator measures the legal embeddedness and commitment of governments to establish a strong, effective and accessible national machinery for the advancement of

women responsible for gender mainstreaming in all areas and at all levels, and in how far the measures proposed to ensure the effectiveness and accessibility of those machineries are being implemented.

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

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

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

Policy to increase women's representation in decision-making positions within parliament and ministries: Within parliaments certain positions such as chairs of committees have more influence than others. Likewise certain administrative high ranked positions carry much influence. This indicator measures whether or not legal measures or policy commitments have been adopted to increase women's representation in such influential positions to at least 30%, and whether or not and to which extent the measures proposed are being implemented.

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

3.3 AWPS: Horizontal Axis

The horizontal axis of the AWPS (columns of table 2) is based on other scorecards on gender mainstreaming such as those proposed in the UNIFEM 2000 Progress of the World's Women report. However, the variables have been adapted to suit the particular purpose of the AGDI and new elements have also been added. As the AGDI emphasizes national performance in relation to international and regional conventions or charters, the adoption or ratification of these conventions or charters is the first point on the horizontal axis. The next issue is reporting, as various conventions require regular reporting. Next, the existence of laws at national level will be scored. This is followed by the commitment a government has expressed to implement a policy relevant to the variable being scored. In cases where there is no need for a law on the specific area of measurement, or when there is no international convention or charter covering that particular issues, those squares remain empty, and the first issue to be measured is the policy commitment of the government.

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

a. Ratification of International or Regional Convention or Charter

This column measures whether the international conventions or charters listed on the vertical axis (the rows of the table) have been ratified, with or without reservations. This is particularly relevant for CEDAW. In certain cases where there is no international or regional convention or charter or other document based on international consensus (such as the ICPD or Beijing Platform for Action) the squares in this column will remain empty.

Scoring:

- 0 - not adopted.
- 1 – adopted with reservations.
- 2 - adopted without reservations.

b. Reporting

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

Scoring:

- 0 - no reporting.
- 1 - not all reporting done, but some has been done.
- 2 - reporting is up to date.

c. Law or other legal measure

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

Scoring:

- 0- no law or legal measure.
- 1- draft law.
- 2- law or measure ratified in parliament.

d. Policy commitment

After an international convention, charter or national law has been ratified related to a specific variable of the scorecard, or before any of the other issues mentioned in the AWPS can be implemented, governments have to pass policy documents specifying their particular intentions and the activities to be undertaken to reach their goals. This column measures whether or not governments have drafted such a policy document and whether such a document has been implemented, and if applicable, whether it has been approved by parliament.

Scoring:

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

e. Development of a plan/gender plan

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

Scoring:

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

f. Targets set

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

Scoring:

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

g. Institutional mechanism

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

Scoring:

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

h. Budget

Several countries, including Tanzania and South Africa (Budlender and Sharp, 1998) have implemented a gender-sensitive analysis of budgets. A gender-sensitive budget analysis allows one to assess how a budget impacts on women and men. Without such an analysis the gendered impact of particular budget items may not be recognised.

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

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

Scoring:

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

i. Human resources

This column measures whether sufficient and qualified staff is employed to implement gender related activities. This includes whether or not adequate efforts are undertaken to train staff responsible for implementing the specific item under consideration. This might involve both legal training on issues related to women's rights, as well as specific training for officers involved in departments or institutions entrusted with implementing specific items

mentioned in the Scoreboard. Another item assessed here is whether the staff has sufficient support to their tasks. Lastly the staff assigned to implement the gender plan related to this variable must be located at a sufficiently high level in the administration to work effectively

Scoring:

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

j. Research

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

Scoring:

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

k. Involvement of civil society

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

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

Scoring

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

I. Information and dissemination

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

Scoring:

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

m. Monitoring and evaluation

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

Scoring:

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

Chapter 4

Example of a Completed GSI and AWPS

The AGDI has gone through an extensive process of validation and checking. It has been tested in 12 African countries. On the basis of the preliminary results from some of the countries, the AGDI has been further refined and has acquired its present shape. The final analysis of the test results will be presented in the African Women's Report that will be published in 2005. Generally the data needed to fill in both the GSI and the AGDI were available. In cases where it was not available, the researchers have made recommendations on how to improve data collection. The results of the national reports have been discussed with the major stakeholders who found the comprehensive nature of the reports useful.

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

The research teams found that the data for the GSI were generally available. As expected most problems were encountered in accessing data on land use, while many countries do not employ time use data yet. Also not all countries were able to present data in the two periods stipulated for the GSI. Where data on these periods was available they differed per country. Once the data was collected the computation of the GSI posed no problem. The researchers likewise found that the Scoreboard is easy to use by both government and civil society. Most teams held consultations with researchers, sector policymakers and activists, to reflect on the national scores and discuss ways to raise the total national score. In this way the Scoreboard can be used as a strategic tool for the enhancement of political awareness of gender issues. In some cases the AWPS will arouse more controversy and debate than the GSI, due to differences of interpretation between government, private and other interested participants, such as donors. In those cases where a national validation meeting was held these differences were discussed and a consensus reached on scoring. In the final country reports these differences will be explained.

4. 1 Example of a completed GSI from one country

In the following tables 3 and 4 the GSI is presented.

Table 3:
GSI Variables and indicators by components and sub-components.

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	Data		
				Women	Men	Indicator
Social power 'Capabilities'	Education	Enrolment	Primary enrolment rate	58.6	83.7	0,700
			Secondary enrolment rate	19.0	39.5	0.481
			Tertiary enrolment rate	2.4	9.6	0.250
		Dropout	Primary dropout ratio	6.1	3.6	0.590
			Secondary dropout ratio	23.1	8.5	0.367
			Literacy	Ability to read and write	1.8	31.2
	Health	Child health	Primary school completed	na	na	na
			Stunting under 3	27.0	27.3	1.011
			Underweight under 3	22.1	25.4	1.140
		Mortality under 5	163.3	162.3	0.994	
		Life expectancy at birth	56.6	47.7	1.186	
New HIV infection	4,412	8,109	1.838			
Time spent out of work	16.8	20.7	0.812			
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture	64.6	95.9	0.674
			Wages in civil service	396.38	502.28	0.789
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	568.65	609.34	0.933
			Wages in informal sector	50.75	62.25	0.815
		Income	Income from informal enterprise	274.18	688.88	0.398
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise	447.68	499.13	0.897
			Income from remittances and inter-household transfers	1854.11	2171.89	0.854
	Time-use or employment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	3.3	3.7	0.892
			Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	0.6	0.3	0.500
			Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	3.3	1.0	0.313
		Employment	Or: Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment	-	-	-
		Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	81,603	413,205
	Access to credit			39,205	72,905	0.538
	Freedom to dispose of own income			80.1	100.0	0.801
Management	Employers		2822	16442	0.172	
	High civil servants (class A)		1,360	9,140	0.149	
	Members of professional syndicates		297	3,211	0.092	
	Administrative, scientific and technical		84,507	287,406	0.294	
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector	Members of parliament	42	505	0.083	
		Cabinet ministers	6	46	0.130	
		Higher courts judges	27	79	0.342	
		Members of local councils	8,246	27,985	0.295	
		Higher positions in civil service (including government institutions, regional governors and ambassadors)	415	1,286	0.323	
	Civil society	Senior positions in	Political parties	6	33	0.182
			Trade unions	226	679	0.333
			Employers' associations	11	42	0.262
			Professional syndicates	41	180	0.228
		Heads or managers of NGOs	29	370	0.078	
		Heads of community-based associations or unions	74	3,780	0.020	

Table 4**Indices for components and sub-components and aggregate GSI**

Variables	Indicator	Subcomponent	Component	Block	GSI
Primary enrolment rate	0.7				
Secondary enrolment rate	0.481				
Tertiary enrolment rate	0.25	0.477			
Primary dropout ratio	0.59				
Secondary dropout ratio		0.59			
Ability to read and write	0.058				
Primary school completed		0.058	0.375		
Stunting under 3	1.011				
Underweight under 3	1.14				
Mortality under 5	0.994	1.048			
Life expectancy at birth	1.186	1.186			
New HIV infection	1.838	1.838			
Time spent out of work	0.812	0.812	1.221	0.798	
Wages in agriculture	0.674				
Wages in civil service	0.789				
Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	0.933				
Wages in informal sector	0.815	0.803			
Income from informal enterprise	0.398				
Income from small agricultural household enterprise	0.897				
Income from remittances and inter-household transfers	0.854	0.716	0.760		
Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	0.892				
Time spent in non market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	0.5				
Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities	0.313	0.568	0.568		
Or: Share of paid employees, own-account workers and employers in total employment					
Ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land	0.197				
Access to credit	0.538				
Freedom to dispose of own income	0.801	0.512			
Employers	0.172				
High civil servants (class A)	0.149				
Members of professional syndicates	0.092				
Administrative, scientific and technical	0.294	0.177	0.345	0.557	
Members of parliament	0.083				
Cabinet ministers	0.13				
Higher courts judges	0.342				
Members of local councils	0.295				
Higher positions in civil service (including government institutions, regional governors and ambassadors)	0.323	0.235			
Senior positions in political parties	0.182				
Senior positions in trade unions	0.333				
Senior positions in employers' associations	0.262				
Senior positions in professional syndicates	0.228				
Heads or managers of NGOs	0.078				
Heads of community-based associations or unions	0.02	0.184		0.210	0.521

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

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

Regarding health, girls perform well compared with boys and the various computed indices are quite high, indicating a better performance for girls than for boys, except for time spent out of work (0.812).

Finally the gender gap for the social block is established at 0.798, the performances in health compensating for the huge gap in education.

The gender gap for the economic block is lower, at 0.557. The gap is particularly important for income from informal enterprises (0.398) and for wages in agriculture (0.674). The country performs well regarding wages in the formal sector where discrimination is nearly nonexistent (0.313).

As expected, time-use is highly discriminate against women (0.568), especially for time spent in domestic, care and volunteer activities (0.313).

Women are discriminated against in relation to resources (0.512) and in ownership (0.197)

Lastly the political block emphasises the very poor achievements of the country in attempting to improve the status of women (0.210). All indicators are below 0.400 and even 0.300, and some of them are below 0.100 (members of parliament), especially for the civil society (heads of NGOs, Heads of community-based associations).

Finally the GSI as a whole is established at 0.521, an average position between 1, a situation where no discrimination exists and very low performances near 0 where gender discrimination of women is at its maximum. In many ways the country can increase its performance. The GSI indicates clearly the major gaps. Particularly the indicators in the political block demonstrate that efforts should be directed towards increasing women's political agency.

4.2 The AWPS

The analysis of this AWPS is based on reviewing the Scoreboard below and does not take into account the text that accompanied the AGDI of the particular country on which it is based. This is also the case with the GSI. The country backgrounds will be

considered in the African Women's Report 2004 in which the results of all 12-country trials will be presented. In the table below this country has scored a total of 37% on the AWPS. In general the country has fulfilled most of its international obligations. It has ratified CEDAW and is in the process of ratifying the Optional Protocol. Likewise it has ratified the African Charter of Human and People's Rights. It has not ratified the UN Conflict Resolution (1325) or the African Charter on the Rights of the Child. The country is in the process of ratifying the ILO Convention on maternity Protection (183) and has ratified Conventions 100 and 111 concerning Equal Remuneration and against Discrimination. In general the country is up to date with its reporting to the relevant international bodies. However, not all charters or conventions the country has ratified nor all international documents it is signatory to, such as the Beijing Platform for Action and the ICPD, have been followed up by national legislation. Legislation on various forms of Violence against Women are in preparation, apart from sexual harassment. On women's economic and political rights the country has no specific legal measures under consideration. The government of this country scores a high number of '2's for laws, policies and plans of action.

This Government has declared its commitment to specific gender policies and on many issues on the Scoreboard, gender plans are in preparation or already exist. The institutional mechanisms to implement the gender plans are not always in place. This country only scores the full 2 points in relation to mechanisms to fight STI's and HIV infection. It is remarkable that a gender perspective in its HIV policy seems however to be lacking. The country scores low on both the 2001 Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS and women and on the ILO policy on HIV/AIDS.

At no point in the scorecard has the government of this country got the full score for 'budget'. In fact for various issues in the AWPS the government provides no budget at all. Likewise the country lacks sufficient human resources to implement the gender policies it is committed to. The government makes efforts to conduct research on many issues referred to in the Scorecard. Only in relation to STI's, HIV/AIDS and contraception does the scorecard indicate sufficient research undertaken or commissioned. In these fields the government works closely with the relevant NGOs. Likewise in these areas the government has extensive information campaigns. In most areas however the necessary information does not reach the population. The government pays very little attention to the monitoring and evaluation of its policies and programmes. The only exceptions are again the areas of STI and HIV/AIDS.

This country in general scores highest on issues related to health including maternal maternity and the implementation of the ILO conventions on Equal Remuneration and Against Discrimination. The lowest scores are on CEDAW's Optional Protocol, sexual harassment and trafficking in women, education on human/women's rights, the recent Convention on Maternity at the Workplace and on the various indicators of women's economic and political power. The Scorecard indicates that the national machinery is reasonably effective and accessible but that the government otherwise does not make much efforts to increase women's political agency.

“ At no point in the scorecard has the government of this country got the full score for ‘budget’.”

Table 5
African Women's Progress Scoreboard - data from of the countries participating in the trials.

			Ratification	Reporting	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information & dissemination	Monitoring & evaluation	Total	%	
WOMEN'S RIGHTS	CEDAW	Ratification without reservation	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15	57
		Optional protocol	1	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
		Art 2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	13	50
		Art 16	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	13	50
	African Charter of Human and People's Rights – Women's Rights protocol – harmful practices		2	X	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	13	54
SOCIAL	Beijing Platform of Action		X	2	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	14	58
	Violence against Women	Domestic violence	X	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	12	50
		Rape	X	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	12	50
		Sexual harassment	X	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	6	25
		Traffic in women	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	16
		African Charter on the Rights of the Child art XXVII		0	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	15
	Health- ICPD POA Plus Five	STI's	X	X	0	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	18	81
		HIV/AIDS	X	X	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	16	73
		Maternal mortality	X	X	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	17	77
		Contraception	X	X	0	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	16	73
	2001 Abuja Declaration on HIV/AIDS and women		X	X	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	10	45
	Education	Policy on girl school dropouts	X	X	X	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	9	45
		Education on human/women's rights	X	X	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	3	17
ECONOMIC	ILO	Convention 100	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	16	62	
		Convention 111	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	17	65	
		Convention 183	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	12
		Policy on HIV/AIDS	X	X	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	6	27
	Engendering NPRS		X	X	X	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	30
	Access to agricultural extension services		X	X	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	9
	Access to technology		X	X	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Equal access to land		X	X	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	9
POLITICAL	UN 1325 conflict resolution		0	X	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
	Beijing PFA effective and accessible national machinery		X	X	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	14	64
	Policies	Support for women's quota and affirmative action	X	X	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	9
		Decision making positions within parliament/ministries	X	X	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	4	18
		Gender mainstreaming in all departments	X	X	X	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	7	35
Total score																253	37	

Total possible score 726 points, X means not applicable (deducted from total possible score).

X means not applicable

Conclusion

In combining the GSI and the AWPS a rather comprehensive picture of gender gap is obtained. In the situations which will be analysed in the African Women's Report (AWR) 2004 extensive conclusions will be drawn. Here only some glaring issues are highlighted. The relatively high scores on health policies in the AWPS are matched with high scores on the GSI in this field. Likewise, the low scores for women's political participation that the GSI demonstrates correlates with the lack of attention the government pays to policies to increase women's voice. Together the GSI and the AWPS indicate where government and civil society could increase their efforts to improve women's status in this country.

The way forward

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

ECA's medium and long-term plans for the AGDI include:

- Extending the utilisation of the AGDI to all the 52 African countries;
- Publishing the results of the national AGDI every three years in the African Women's Report;
- Working with the national bureaus of statistics and national machineries of gender/women in the collection of gender disaggregated data and information.

“ Together the GSI and the AWPS indicate where government and civil society could increase their efforts to improve women's status in this country. ”

Endnotes

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

² *Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration* – Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, China 4- 7, United Nations, Department of Public Information, P7

³ Rethinking Gender Planning. A Critical Discussion on the Concept of Gender. In *Journal for Gender, Technology and Development, AIT, Thailand 21-37.t*

⁴ Sen, Amartya, 1985, *Commodities and Capabilities*, Lectures in Economics Theory Policy. New York: Oxford University Press.

⁵ The full AGDI will be published in the AWR 2002/2003 to be distributed in December 2004

⁶ to be published in the AWR 2002/2003 to be distributed in December 2004

⁷ The WEM is introduced in Wieringa 1998 (see footnote 3) and explained in the Technical Note to the full report.