



Economic Commission
for Africa

A Fifteen-Year Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Africa (BPfA) +15

From 1995–2009

Main Report





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February 2010

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Acronyms

ACHPR	African Charter on Human and People's Rights
ADF-VI	Sixth African Development Forum
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
ART	Antiretroviral therapy
AU	African Union
Bpfa	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CSAE	Child Sexual Abuse and Exploitation
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CSW	Commission on the Status of Women
CWD	Committee on Women and Development
ECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GEMSA	Gender and Media Southern Africa Network
GFP	Gender Focal Point
GRB	Gender Responsive Budget
HBC	Home Based Care
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HR	Human Rights
HTP	Harmful Traditional Practice
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
ILO	International Labour Organization
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
NCW	National Council on Women
NDP	National Development Plan
NDS	National Development Strategy
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment Strategy
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NGP	National Gender Policy
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PMTCT	Preventing Mother to Child Transmission of HIV

PoA	Programme of Action
PRGS	Poverty Reduction and Growth Strategy Paper
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PWLA	People Living with AIDS
REC	Regional Economic Community
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SCR	Security Council Resolution
SDGEA	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa
SEEDS	State Economic Empowerment Strategy
SG	UN Secretary-General
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
VAW	Violence Against Women
WLSA	Women and Law in Southern Africa

Executive Summary

Introduction

The accountability process of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) developed and agreed upon in 1995 requires member States of the United Nations to meet on a five-yearly basis to review their implementation of the Platform for Action with a view to fine tuning, remapping progress and reactivating commitment, taking into account prevailing global and local conditions. Such reviews are required to take place at both global and regional levels. Hence since the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, stakeholders have met on two occasions at the regional and global levels, in 1999/2000 (Beijing +5) and in 2004/2005 (Beijing +10) in fulfilment of this review process.

In line with this sequence, the next major review process will take place in 2010 (Beijing+15) to review progress made in the achievement of gender equality, development and peace. As a prelude to this global event, the Africa regional review of Beijing +15 took place in Banjul, Gambia in November 2009 to undertake a specific examination of continent-wide progress since 1995, but more specifically, within the time frame of 2005-2009. The regional review focussed generally on the 12 thematic areas of concern around which the BPfA revolves and, more specifically, on the key outcomes of the 1999 and 2004 regional review process.

Context and Linkages

The BPfA and subsequent reviews are not isolated commitments and events. By virtue of their focus on gender, equality and development they are linked and associated intrinsically to a number of other developments and initiatives.

Of first mention is the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development Programme of Action (ICPD PoA), agreed upon in Cairo in 1994, together with its subsequent reviews of 1999 (ICPD +5), 2004 (ICPD +10) and 2009 (ICPD +15). Issues and concerns of the ICPD +15 outcomes fed into and shape those of Beijing +15. A key outcome of the former process was the need for African governments to invest more in the reproductive health and rights of women, with emphasis on reduction of maternal mortality and the gendered impacts of HIV/AIDS, and on improving the economic and political status of African women.

Other commitments occupied the centre stage of the Africa Beijing +15 review. They included: the Millennium Declaration and the targets set under the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs, 2000); United Nations Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR) 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889, which relate to women, peace and security; World Summits on the Information Society (2003 and 2005); the United Nations Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Women (2006), and the launch of the related global campaign.

The Beijing +15 review process was guided by the 2003 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the African Women's Protocol); the 2009 Gender Policy of the African Union (AU); the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004); and the Africa-wide campaign to end Violence Against Women (VAW), an outcome of the African Development Forum (ADF, 2008).

At sub regional level, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) adopted a Protocol on Gender Equality, while the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has instituted a gender policy to guide its member States in gender mainstreaming in policy design and implementation. Regional Economic Communities (RECs) are also complementing these global and regional frameworks at sub regional levels by integrating various resolutions and commitments into their policies and Plans of Actions (PoAs).

The Review Methodology

The United Nations General Assembly mandated Regional Commissions, including ECA, to follow up on BPfA implementation within their respective regions, at its twenty-third Special Session of June 2000. Regional Commissions have consequently carried out reviews and appraisals of progress with BPfA implementation in collaboration with the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW).

This review of the region's performance is based on responses by member States to two sets of questionnaires prepared by ECA and DAW and administered by ECA. They both sought qualitative and quantitative data and information from member States, spanning a period of five years (2004-2009), on key elements of the achievements expected under each of the critical areas of concern. A total of 47 countries (representing 87 per cent of the 53 member States) responded to both the ECA and DAW questionnaires.

Major Achievements and Challenges

Women and Poverty

Achievements

All countries place poverty reduction high on their respective agendas and continue to heighten actions and policies to address it through a wide range of strategies, among them being Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). Some countries have initiated new programming processes to integrate gender budgeting or to mainstream gender into their Poverty Reduction Strategies and set up mechanisms for measuring gender equality and analysing existing projects and activities.

A number of countries are being guided by long-term developmental goals in their quest to eradicate poverty. Twenty-five (25) countries indicate that they have reallocated public spending in favour of programmes and projects aimed at empowering women. Social protection and security systems are expanding in a number of countries, covering special programmes for unemployed women, micro-finance schemes and pension schemes for older women.

Challenges

The global economic downturn will have significant impacts on women as more of them lose jobs and are forced to manage shrinking household incomes. By arresting capital accumulation by women and drastically reducing African women's individual incomes, women are being crippled in their quest to contribute effectively to the household economy. While micro-finance is useful for addressing immediate household needs, it does not lead to women's economic empowerment in a transformative manner.

Additionally, small-scale women's businesses tend to be focused on traditional jobs such as embroidery, sewing and the sale of food items, with limited opportunities for expansion. Impacts of PRSPs and other development plans which aim at reducing women's poverty call for careful scrutiny, as there is limited evidence to demonstrate that they have resulted in curbing poverty in Africa in any significant manner.

Education and Training for Women

Achievements

Education represents one of the successes of Africa, largely attributable to the institution of free and compulsory primary basic education by many governments. In nearly all reporting countries, governments have attempted to eliminate barriers that hinder boys and girls' access to education and by far, high success rates towards parity have been achieved at the level of basic education.

Challenges

Compared to the general impressive progress being made at primary level, a mixed picture is presented with respect to attainment of gender equality at secondary and tertiary levels. At these levels, it is observed that both males and females face obstacles in enrolment and retention. Although country reports indicate that gender disparities in enrolment and literacy are narrowing in every country, more remains to be done to guarantee equality between the sexes in the sector. In many countries, illiteracy rates among women remain high and disparities between men and women persist.

Women and Health

Achievements

Twenty-four (24) countries have designed and are implementing and monitoring gender-aware health programmes, including affordable sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls, and increased resources for women's health. In all of these countries, health programmes have been designed to include sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls and increased resources for women's health. Such programmes include sexual and reproductive health components such as maternal health, safe motherhood, and pre- and post-natal care.

Twenty five (25) countries are taking measures to reduce maternal morbidity and mortality. They specifically entail the prevention of unsafe abortions, ensuring that girls have continuing access to necessary health and nutrition information and services, and addressing traditional practices which

impact negatively on the health of women and girls. Countries are also working on improving provision of infrastructure such as health facilities. Twenty two (22) countries possess institutional, legal and policy (one or more) frameworks to address HIV/AIDS and a substantial number have designed and are implementing programmes in favour of vulnerable groups such as children and adults living with HIV/AIDS.

In response to the shortage of medical personnel, three African countries, Tanzania, Malawi and Mozambique, have initiated capacity enhancement programmes involving the deployment of Non-Physician Clinicians. These are health personnel who are trained to engage in health procedures normally carried out by a qualified doctor (e.g. caesarian sections). An evaluation of the programme has demonstrated its cost effectiveness, sustainability and potential to increase maternal health services to women. As such personnel tend to be contained in their rural locations.

Challenges

Despite commitments to improving women's health and specific targeted action on reproductive health, maternal mortality in Africa remains the highest in the world. In addition, high levels of illiteracy resulting in inability to read and write hinder access to information and services related to sexual and reproductive health including HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention.

Violence Against Women

Achievements

An estimated 14 African countries are either in the process or have completed law reform processes for addressing domestic violence. Ghana, South Africa and Uganda have also enacted legislation to combat human trafficking. To tackle various forms of exploitation of children, some countries such as Ghana, Morocco, South Africa and Tunisia have domesticated the provisions of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Penal legislations to address various forms of sexual offences are also in place in a substantial number of countries.

Twenty five (25) countries have also enacted legislation to combat FGM/C. Law enforcement agencies (police, immigration, social welfare departments, customs and the courts), and national machineries for women constitute the main institutional arrangements for combating and treatment of violence. Some countries such as Ghana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and the United Republic of Tanzania have created specialized institutions to ensure that victims of abuse receive comprehensive services.

A number of countries have national plans and programmes in place to build capacities of law enforcement agencies, while some have conducted research into various exploitation issues such as trafficking and prostitution. An estimated 20 countries have undertaken initiatives that involve men and boys in efforts to combat domestic violence.

Challenges

In most countries, domestic violence is still regarded by society as a whole as well as by enforcement agencies as a private concern. Attitudes of both men and women to the criminality of domestic

violence also tend to impede successful and timely prosecution of such acts. In addition, implementing institutions lack the requisite financial and human resources to be able to execute their functions and programmes effectively. Some issues of violence such as sexual harassment suffer from limited visibility, reporting and prosecution, accentuated by a paucity of related research and data.

Women and Armed Conflict

Achievements

There has been a significant increase in commitment to implement United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 in the past five years, notably in countries experiencing conflict. Ten (10) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe) are implementing the provisions of UNSCR 1325, while three, (Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia and Uganda) have Action Plans in place to operationalize the resolution. Eleven (11) countries indicate that they are training women in conflict resolution, reconciliation and tolerance.

Some have introduced human rights and conflict prevention and resolution into university curricula, while training of several stakeholders (medical, legal, police and soldiers) have been organized in some. Six (6) countries indicate that they investigate and punish police, security and armed forces involved in acts of violence and exploitation, while seven (7) demonstrate that they have mechanisms in place for the protection, safety and integrity of women refugees.

Challenges

VAW remains one of the most pernicious consequences of armed conflict. Despite progress, obstacles to strengthening women's participation in conflict prevention, conflict resolution and peace-building remain. The threat of post-conflict violence remains one of the most persistent obstacles to women's full and equal participation in post-conflict peace-building and reconciliation.

Women and the Economy

Achievements

Twenty one (21) countries have enacted laws to guarantee equal access to employment opportunities and social protection benefits. Most countries stress that the right to equal access to employment opportunities and social protection benefits are guaranteed by the principle of equality between women and men entrenched in their constitutions and labour laws. During the review period, some countries adopted measures to ensure compliance with these legal provisions and/or improve the protection of women's rights. All reporting countries have registered an increase in women's economic participation either in the formal or informal market, as employees or employers. Eighteen (18) countries are building capacities in gender-sensitive economic analysis.

The period under review has witnessed innovative steps being taken to integrate gender perspectives into economic policy-making. Reports show attention being given to analysis of national budgets to ensure that public resources support and promote gender equality and women's empowerment. A total number of 50 African countries have ratified Conventions 100 and 111, while only Mali is on record as having ratified the Maternity Convention (183). A substantial number of ratifying

countries have undertaken partial or full domestication of these Conventions. Legal frameworks generally cover non-discrimination with respect to employment opportunities, recruitment, and remuneration, strike and union rights, and compensation. Lack of ratification of International Labour organization (ILO) Convention 183 notwithstanding, laws and policies on maternity protection are in place in most countries.

Challenges

Data gaps in critical areas with respect to women's contributions to economic development affect effective planning, monitoring and evaluation of the gendered impacts of economic and social policies. The persistence of customary views of the extent to which women are accessing productive resources, particularly land, remains a barrier to their access, control and utilization for productive purposes. Although Convention 100 has been ratified without reservations by many countries, its effective implementation is facing many hurdles.

Country studies show that wage discrimination against women persists, with major constraints to effective implementation identified as lack of financial and qualified human resources and the non-existence of national classification systems of work categories. Other obstacles to ensuring equal remuneration for women and men are gender gaps in professional skills, educational attainment and occupational segregation, with a predominance of women in seasonal employment.

Women, Governance, Power and Decision-making

Achievements

Democratic and constitutional reforms throughout Africa have generated equal opportunities for women and men to participate at all levels of political process, including election to the highest office. Africa has recorded increasing numbers of women elected to high political and administrative offices since ICPD 1994. The continent currently has one woman occupying the position of Head of State, and a few Vice-Presidents. Country reports demonstrate steady increases in women's political participation and representation across all decision-making organs in almost all African countries. Affirmative action has been used to promote women's participation in politics at all levels.

Challenges

There are indications that fewer women than men are presented for electoral processes in situations where political parties do not have gender-sensitive policies, especially in nominating candidates for elections. Some electoral systems do not support the election of women, especially in societies where strong gender biases against them occupying decision-making positions persist. It has further been demonstrated that the murky nature of the political terrain, often tainted by cut-throat and "dirty linen" attacks on political figures, tend to stifle women's effective participation. Politics is also an expensive process requiring substantial financial outlays, which women tend not to have. Usually, they have less time than men to devote to the networking required to build a political career, due to their family and care responsibilities.

Despite progress being made in the appointment of women to traditionally male-dominated areas, ministries headed by women when compared to men remain the same (social sector) and political

parties continue to operate gender-biased appointment policies and procedures which generally focus more on ethnic, geographical and political leanings rather than gender.

Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women

Achievements

All responding countries indicate that they have institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women in place. Twenty three (23) countries have formulated appropriate sub regional level policy or strategy and taken action at country level. The majority of countries have either fulfilled or are in the process of fulfilling the basic requirement of having guidelines in place for mainstreaming gender. In some countries, governments have created an enabling environment for specific government sectors to develop their own policies. The presence of national machineries and gender focal points in almost all countries is an indication of commitment to sector-based gender mainstreaming.

Challenges

Although most countries have established gender machineries in compliance with international obligations, they are largely “ineffective” due to limitations in the human and financial resources needed to enable them implement their mandates. Persons who are appointed as gender focal persons tend to play other routine functions and neglect their gender mainstreaming tasks which they consider as secondary. Other challenges associated with implementation of this indicator include the tendency to select personnel of lower ranks, the lack of or inadequate systems of accountability and reporting, lack of political will to implement gender mainstreaming and a general lack of knowledge and understanding of gender concepts and gender mainstreaming in most departments and across all levels.

The naming and placing of national machineries can also be significant. Some are aligned to under-funded sectors, such as Family, Youth or Social Development, an indication that gender issues have yet to gain primary consideration in their own right. Machineries also generally lack clear focus and have broad or ambiguous mandates along with the low funding levels.

Human Rights of Women

Achievements

An estimated thirteen (13) countries have reported on schedule to the Committee on CEDAW and a substantial number indicate the participation of civil society in the preparation of reports. A total of 28 countries indicate that they have undertaken additional work on CEDAW implementation since the 2004 evaluation. Much of this work relates to enactment of legislation to reflect CEDAW and other treaty-related provisions. Other country efforts since 2004 include measures to accelerate implementation of Affirmative Action to enhance participation of women in decision-making.

Twenty-seven (27) countries indicate that they have embodied the principle of equality of men and women in country legislation and strengthened programmes to protect the human rights of women. Eighteen (18) countries have developed and are implementing dissemination activities in respect of various human rights instruments.

Challenges

While several reviews of discriminatory legislation are taking place throughout the region in an effort to eliminate discriminatory laws, enforcement remains the most serious problem, notably in the area of family law. The challenge of operating mixed legal systems affects the effective domestication and implementation of treaty obligations, and enforcement of women's rights is being hampered by the persisting, negative attitudes and perceptions of society towards gender equality and women's empowerment.

Women and the Media

Achievements

Thirteen (13) countries have conducted research into women's access to and their role in the media. The same number of countries report of efforts to engender media at policy and practice levels; as well as eradicating all forms of gender stereotyping in the media to convey dignified images of women. Some research activities are being spearheaded by national institutions.

Fifteen (15) countries have adopted strategies or policies to enhance women's role in media, while the same number indicate that they support and recognize women's media networks in addition to the development of professional guidelines and codes of conduct for media. In addition, several have implementing strategies and plans of action in place and five (Burkina Faso, Ghana, Malawi, Mali and Tanzania) have plans in place to implement WSIS provisions. In some countries, women are accessing ICT for the promotion of their economic and social activities.

Challenges

Negative and degrading projection of women in media via electronic, print, visual and audio means persists. Print and electronic media in most countries do not provide a balanced picture of women's diverse lives and their contributions to society in a changing world. Violent and degrading or pornographic media products are also negatively affecting women and their participation in society. Programming that reinforce women's traditional roles can be equally limiting. The world-wide trend towards consumerism has created a climate in which advertisements and commercial messages often portray women primarily as liabilities as opposed to development assets.

Women and the Environment

Achievements

Seventy-one per cent of countries have taken measures to integrate gender perspectives into the design and implementation of environmental policies. Gender is mainstreamed into these programmes and important dimensions such as reforestation and new appropriate technologies are being operationalized. In addition to these countries, others are integrating gender into their environmental policies by devoting special chapters to women. Sixty-eight per cent of countries have been implementing plans and strategies towards improving basic services of all, especially in poor and rural zones. In this respect, sanitation, water supply, health services as well as income-generating services are encouraged even though they are not necessarily focused on women as a special group.

Gender issues are taken into account in policies, plans, programmes and projects related to the protection of the environment in some countries. Nineteen (19) countries are providing technical assistance to women to increase production in various fields, with a view to ensuring sound environmental practices.

Challenges

Women remain largely absent at all levels of policy formulation and decision-making in natural resource and environmental management, conservation, protection and rehabilitation. Their experience and skills in advocacy for and monitoring of proper natural resource management too often remain marginalized in policy-making and decision-making bodies, educational institutions and environment-related agencies at the managerial level. Women are rarely trained as professional natural resource managers with policy-making capacities, such as land-use planners, agriculturalists, foresters, marine scientists and environmental lawyers.

African women remain very vulnerable and are likely to be disproportionately affected by the adverse impacts of climate change because they constitute the majority of the poor. Moreover, their traditional roles as the primary users and managers of natural resources, primary caregivers, and labourers engaged in unpaid labour and dependent on livelihoods from natural resources place them most at risk of the adverse effects of climate change.

The Girl Child

Achievements

All African countries except Somalia have ratified the CRC and an estimated 73 per cent of ratifying countries have integrated the treaty into domestic law through legislative and constitutional reforms. Some countries have adopted comprehensive codes on children, featuring the child as a subject of human rights. All legislative enactments contain clauses on non-discrimination, which seek to enhance the well-being of the girl child.

As part of efforts deployed to reduce VAW, an estimated 88 per cent of countries have enacted and are enforcing legislation to protect girls from violence such as sexual exploitation and HTPs. Eighty-two per cent of the countries are also implementing sectoral plans, strategies and programmes targeting children in education, health, protection and juvenile justice administration. An estimated 65 per cent of the countries indicate that they are engaged in ongoing research on the situation of girls. Encouraging efforts have been exerted in developing school curricula, teaching materials and text books to improve the self-image, lives and work opportunities of girls.

Challenges

The economic crisis is causing both male and female youth to engage in business ventures which distract them from school attendance. Religious and cultural practices such as early marriage, FGM, and unfair distribution of property intestate continue to perpetuate the violation of the rights of the girl-child. Affirmative action policies are also not being strictly implemented and resources are not adequate to monitor compliance.

Recommended Actions

Country progress reports indicate that the 12 critical areas of concern remain relevant to meeting global, regional and sub regional targets aimed at improving the social, cultural, economic and political status of women and girls. In the wake of global conditions such as the economic recession, continued conflict and the new aid environment, renewed measures are required to accelerate implementation. The highlights are as follows:

Women and Poverty

1. The potential of the poor, particularly women, should be recognized. Such disadvantaged groups should be regarded as resources and not barriers to economic growth;
2. Undertake and implement MDG-responsive development planning with the active involvement of civil society, in line with the United Nations 2005 MDG evaluation outcomes; and
3. Recognize women's non-market work and advocate for the appreciation and valuing of this work by engendering national accounts and budgets.

Education and Training for Women

1. Ensure the progression of girls and boys from primary to secondary school levels through increased subsidization of secondary and technical education;
2. Ensure that education matches and is more relevant to the employment conditions of African countries, with the objective that the dividends of education will be realized within shorter periods;
3. Put interventions in place to maximize retention and reverse high rate of drop outs among both girls and boys; and
4. Develop and implement accessible community based adult literacy interventions in response to the high illiteracy levels among adult women.

Women and Health

1. Develop strategies to address current high levels of maternal mortality through improved equity in access and service delivery, especially with respect to emergency obstetric care;
2. Address health financing as an important catalyst of MDG short, medium and long term implementation within the context of the Maputo Plan of Action and ICPD +15 outcomes;
3. Address the impact that the shortage of medical staff is having on African health delivery systems, especially at the rural level; and
4. Integrate HIV/AIDS concerns into all reproductive health programmes, with a view to taking account of the gender dimensions of the pandemic, such as the need to increase the use of contraceptives by both men and women.

Violence against Women

1. Institute measures to prevent violence from occurring and protect victims;

2. Enhance the capacity of enforcement agencies responsible for the protection of women and children by providing adequate training on existing laws and policies, and the equipment and mechanisms for effective record keeping; and
3. Ensure that awareness-raising on women's rights includes messages that work to reverse the culture of silence surrounding violence, in addition to its treatment as a private issue, and the impunity with which violence is perpetuated;

Women and Armed Conflict

1. Create awareness on Security Council Resolution 1325 at the national level, beyond countries in conflict or those emerging out of conflict and put plans of action in place to effectively implement it; and
2. Build and reinforce the capacities of women at all levels to participate effectively in peace-making, peacekeeping and peace-building/post-conflict reconstruction programmes.

Women and the Economy

1. Review existing legal frameworks protecting women's access to land with the view to removing discriminatory provisions, which work against their interests;
2. In collaboration with traditional and religious authorities and women's groups, embark upon a comprehensive review of customary and religious norms which serve as barriers to women's equal rights to land; and
3. Design and implement effective linkages with local universities to develop appropriate local technologies that would accelerate the reduction of drudgeries associated with household food processing and transportation of heavy loads by women.

Women in Power and Decision-making

1. Recognize gender equality in political participation as a democratic right and integral to good governance;
2. Increase commitment and action towards the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004) and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (2007) which call for gender balance and equality in governance processes; and
3. Give greater emphasis to supporting increased local-level participation for women, given that the majority of women are located in rural areas.

Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women

1. Ensure that responsibility for the advancement of women is vested in the highest possible level of government;
2. Based on tangible political commitment, create national machineries where they do not exist, and strengthen existing national machineries as appropriate with clearly defined mandates, for the advancement of women at the highest possible level of government; and
3. Encourage and promote the active involvement of the broad and diverse range of institutional actors in the public, private and voluntary sectors to work for equality between women and men.

Human Rights of Women

1. Ratify the OP-CEDAW and African Women's Protocol as a matter of urgent priority for the Governments that have not done so to date;
2. Include in policies and plans specific issues affecting African women as highlighted in *CEDAW* and its *Optional Protocol*, and the *African Women's Protocol*; and
3. Review and reform customary and religious laws in collaboration with stakeholders, such as traditional and religious authorities, to ensure their progressive conformity and harmony with local legislation and international treaties and ensure implementation and enforcement.

Women and the Media

1. Raise awareness of the importance of giving women access to ICT at both rural and urban levels backed by appropriate policies, laws, pilot schemes involving the promotion of ICT products;
2. Put in place policies to address women in the media; and
3. Ensure equal representation of women in decision-making positions in all media houses.

Women and the Environment

1. Ensure women's participation in climate change planning and decision-making processes as well as in the formulation and implementation of policies and programmes at regional, national and local levels;
2. Ensure that gender sensitive checklists and tools are used for research and evaluations on environmental issues; and
3. Continuous training on integration of gender issues in environment policy formulation, programme design are critical for enhancing the knowledge and skill of concerned staff in various institutions.

The Girl Child

1. Review discriminatory religious, cultural and traditional practices which are inimical to the development of the girl child;
2. Strengthen programmes and projects that focus on education, health, children's rights and ending violence against women and girls;
3. Strengthen and expand efforts deployed by different stakeholders in providing various support and services to disabled girls; and
4. Ensure active community involvement in the implementation of the different laws and legislations enacted for advancement of the girl child and ensure their enforcement.

Section I: Introduction

World conferences on women (Mexico, 1975; Copenhagen, 1980; Nairobi, 1985; and Beijing, 1995) have set the global agenda for the achievement of gender equality through a systematic process of periodic analysis of progress. The Beijing +5 (2000) and +10 (2005) outcomes specifically identified persisting gaps and challenges in the achievement of gender equality, as well as new recommendations for action to ensure full implementation. The agenda setting of the International Conferences on Population and Development (ICPD, 1994, 1999, and 2004) complemented these efforts. The year 2009 marked the regional reviews of both the ICPD and Beijing agenda's (ICPD +15 and Beijing +15 respectively), serving as opportunities to reflect on past achievements and to chart new paths towards meeting the goal of gender equality.

Within the first decade under discussion, the UN General Assembly approved the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, to provide a framework for national action to end discrimination against women in the social, economic, cultural, and political fields. Its principles (non-discrimination, accountability, inter-dependency, and participation) have inspired and reinforced the global initiatives cited above, as well as the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993); the World Conference on Human Rights (1994); and the adoption of the Millennium Declaration and the targets set under the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs, 2000). Other important milestones include the endorsement of UN Security Council Resolutions (SCR) 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1899 on Women, Peace and Security (2001); the World Summits on the Information Society (2003 and 2005) which commit countries to ensure full participation of women in all spheres of the information society; the UN Secretary General's Study on Violence Against Women (2006), and the launch of the related global campaign.

Landmarks have also been achieved at regional and sub regional levels spearheaded by the adoption of the 2003 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the African Women's Protocol). The Protocol was informed by NEPAD, approved in 2001 as a framework for regional integration and social, political, and economic development. It provides avenues for enhancing women's human rights through the social development indicators included in its African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM). Others include the Declaration of the Southern African Development Community on Gender and Development (1997); the adoption by African Heads of States of the gender parity principle in the work of the AU Commission (2002)¹; the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004); and the Africa-wide campaign to end violence against women through the African Development Forum (ADF, 2008).

¹ This has been implemented through the election of five female and five male Commissioners.

The AU also demonstrated its commitment to gender and development in the continent by its adoption of its Gender Policy in 2009 (REV 2/Feb 10, 2009). The stated goal of the policy is to adopt a rights based approach to development through evidence-based decision-making and the use of gender-disaggregated data and performance indicators for the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa. The AU Gender Policy seeks to promote a gender responsive environment and practices and to undertake commitments linked to the realisation of gender equality and women's empowerment in Member States at the international, continental, regional and national level. The framework informs planning, implementation and monitoring of gender equality on the continent.

At the sub-regional level, Regional Economic Commissions have complemented the global and regional frameworks by integrating various resolutions and commitments into their policies and programmes of action. As a case in point, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) adopted a Protocol on Gender Equality (2008), while the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has put a gender policy in place to guide its member States in accelerating delivery.

The Beijing Declaration calls for commitments at the highest political level for implementing the PoA, urging governments to take the lead role in coordinating, monitoring and assessing progress in the advancement of women. Since then, under the auspices of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), Governments have undertaken periodic reviews of progress; namely in 1999 (Beijing+5), in 2004 (Beijing+10) and 2009 (Beijing+15).

The 1999 (Beijing+5), African national progress reports showed Governments' preoccupation with putting national action plans in place to reflect their intention to redress gender imbalances in line with the BPfA. At the time, many countries also placed emphasis on the fight against poverty within the context of more than half of the population in Africa living below the poverty line and women constituting the majority. However, this did not yield concrete results as demonstrated by the continued increase in the number of people affected by poverty.

The Beijing + 10 (2004) regional review noted that significant steps had been taken to put policies and legislation in place to achieve gender equality. This was especially noted in the promotion and protection of the human rights of women where emphasis was placed on defining legal and policy frameworks. By this time, the AU had adopted the Protocol on the African Charter on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR) on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003), which brought such issues as Harmful Traditional Practices, including Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) to the fore.

Nevertheless, improvements were evident in the provision of basic education in many countries. Countries reported increased gross and net enrolment ratios for both boys and girls, while others had reached almost 100 per cent enrolment for boys and girls. Public awareness on Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs), Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and HIV and AIDS in Africa grew as a result of advocacy by governments, parliaments, public sector, development partners and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs).

Several countries had significantly increased the level of women's representation in parliament, with one country (Rwanda), reaching an impressive 49 per cent and others (Mozambique and South

Africa) over 30 per cent. However, it was noted that overall, commitments had not translated into significant change in the lives of women. During this review meeting, member States “renewed commitment to gender equality, equity and empowerment of women and suggested concrete steps to address the gaps between commitment and implementation.”²

African Ministers in charge of Gender and Women’s Affairs together with other world governments further reconfirmed and recognized the importance of the Beijing Declaration and the BPfA at the Forty-ninth Session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) in 2005, with emphasis on its effective implementation.³

This report has been prepared against the backdrop of the March 2010, stakeholder global review of progress made in implementing the BPfA, 15 years following its adoption in 1995. In this context, Africa supported by ECA has reviewed its performance in delivering the outcomes agreed upon in 2004 in Addis Ababa at the Seventh Africa Regional Conference on Women (Beijing +10).

Background

This Beijing +15 review takes place against a setting of frameworks put in place to accelerate implementation of commitments to gender equality, equity and empowerment of women. The current review covers the extent to which countries have met their commitments to implementing the BPfA, within the specific context of the 12 critical areas of concern, in addition to the status of regional MDG performance, and the ICPD PoA+15 commitments. The analysis captures main achievements, obstacles and recommended actions for each area of concern and, in the process, highlight both collective and individual country experiences.

The ICPD +15 Africa regional review of October 2009 noted that overall, progress in implementing both the ICPD PoA and the MDGs in most African countries has been unequal, and generally slow. Considerable efforts have been made in the formulation of national policies and the adoption of continental, as well as global conventions and agreements in virtually all areas of population, poverty reduction and sustainable development, complemented by national programmes.

However, the extent of integration of population issues into development planning has been rather limited. Only a few countries have taken steps to develop PoAs to implement their population policies. Taken together, there appears to be a wide gap between population and development programming and implementation. To a large extent, this explains the rather slow progress made by most African countries in implementing the ICPD PoA and the MDGs.

Accelerating efforts for meeting the ICPD goals required addressing the challenges within the socio-economic context of each nation. In this respect, the ICPD+15 review generated the following recommendations for acceleration of efforts for the achievement of both the ICPD and MDG targets:

2 Seventh Africa Regional Conference on Women *Outcome and Way Forward*, 2004.

3 Forty-ninth session of the Commission on the Status of Women CSW, UN, 2005.

1.1 Poverty, Population and Sustainable Development

- a. Accelerate efforts to promote peace and good governance and to resolve conflicts on the continent;
- b. Support strategies for addressing widespread poverty, especially in rural areas and among vulnerable groups; and
- c. Put measures in place to address the shortage of critical human resource sectors that are key to achievement of ICPD goals and the MDGs;

1.2 Reproductive Rights and Reproductive Health

- a. Adequately skilled personnel and resources should be available to provide quality integrated services, including emergency obstetric services, STI/STD treatment and family planning in all communities;
- b. Address adequately sexual and reproductive health needs of men, and design interventions for the enhanced participation in the provision of reproductive health and family planning information and service; and
- c. Strengthen partnerships and efforts for the accelerated reduction of maternal morbidity and mortality.

1.3 Gender Equality, Equity and Empowerment of Women

- a. Strengthen the implementation/enforcement of policies, laws and programmes that address gender equality, equity and the empowerment of women including those related to implementation of the BPfA and CEDAW and elimination of VAW;
- b. Strengthen institutional capacities for the systematic and consistent mainstreaming and implementation of gender concerns into policies, laws, programmes, budgets and plans;
- c. Take necessary measures and programmes to address the gender dimension of HIV and AIDS and related reproductive health problems;

The Review Methodology

The United Nations General Assembly mandated UN Regional Commissions, including the ECA, to follow-up on the implementation of the BPfA within their respective regions at its twenty-third special session of June 2000. Regional Commissions subsequently carried out reviews and appraisal of progress in the implementation of the Declaration and the BPfA of 1995. Commissions were mandated to collaborate with the Division of the Advancement of Women of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs in this process.

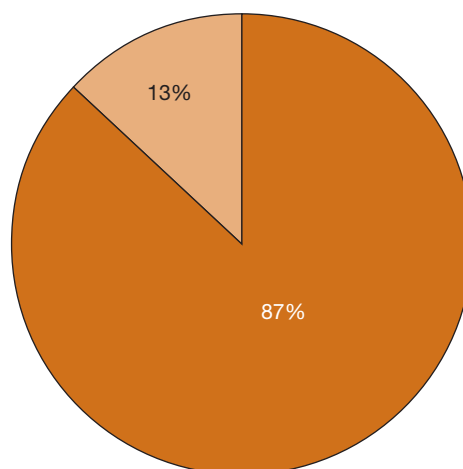
At a meeting of the Committee on Women and Development (CWD) held in August 2008, the process for the Africa review of the implementation of the Platform was presented by the ECA to Member States, who subsequently adopted the methodology with suggested amendments.

This review of the region's performance is based on responses by member States to two sets of questionnaires prepared by ECA and DAW and administered by ECA. They both sought qualitative and quantitative data and information spanning a period of five years (2004-2009) on key elements of expected achievements under each of the critical areas of concern from member States.⁴

This appraisal takes account of previous reviews and their recommendations for action (mainly +10) in addition to the outcomes of the recently held ICPD +15 review of October 2009 (ECA, 2009 a.) and the recently published *African Women's Report, 2009* (ECA, 2009 b.).

Out of the 53 member States, 46 countries representing 87 per cent of all countries responded to the questionnaire (Figure 1.1). Thirteen (13) responded to only the ECA questionnaire, five (5) to only the DAW questionnaire and 28 responded to both questionnaires.

Figure 1: Overall percentage of country responses



In addition to the findings of the questionnaires, a variety of sources of information and statistics were used. These included the State Party Reports and consequent conclusions and recommendations of the CEDAW Committee, outcomes of expert group meetings and other activities at national and regional levels.

At country level, National Gender Machineries coordinated the completion of the questionnaires across sectors. The completed questionnaires were analysed and subsequently reduced into two separate reports, namely a synthesis regional report on Beijing + 15, which formed part of Africa's contribution to the regional and global reviews and this main report.

⁴ As previously noted however, the review is also influenced by the outcomes of the recently held *ICPD +15 review of October 2009* (ECA, 2009 a.) in addition to the recently published *African Women's Report, 2009* (ECA, 2009 b.).

Section II: Opportunities and Threats to Gender Equality in Africa

Introduction

Gender equality cannot be achieved in isolation its attainment being dependent upon prevailing national and global conditions. The period 2005-2009 has witnessed a worsening of the impacts of the financial melt down, food crisis and climate change on the world at large and Africa in particular. The essence of this section is to capture the global and national factors which are presently influencing the BPfA agenda.

Global Contexts

African countries have been faced with a number of shocks such as capital outflow risks; fiscal risks, arising from declining revenue and export risks, related to slowing demand and declining prices of export commodities and liquidity risks affecting the domestic banking sector and the government due to the weakening of global financial markets.

The gender dimensions of the impact of the crisis may be appreciated from both macro and micro perspectives. At macro level, impacts are felt in terms of government revenue, foreign exchange depreciation and potential decreases in ODA. At micro level, major shocks are revealed in relation to reductions in remittances, loss of income due to loss of employment, rising food prices and reduced access to social services.

Remittance inflows to sub-Saharan Africa had increased from \$4.6 billion in 2000 to \$20 billion in 2008. Recent data released by the World Bank indicate that the financial crisis will reduce remittance inflows to sub-Saharan Africa by between US\$1-2 billion dollars in 2009 relative to 2008 (UNECA, 2009). The decreased demand for African export commodities has resulted in significant loss of jobs especially in mineral dependent countries. In Zambia for example, two major mines have closed operations while others have scaled down significantly due to declining demand for copper. This has resulted in the loss of many jobs.

The high cost of food due to the crisis is adversely affecting women and female-headed families more than other groups in society. Women are involved in all the three pillars of food security that include food production, food access and food utilization. Prices of basic commodities have shot up and have led to an increase in the gap between the rich and the poor. Social programmes including food security and school-feeding programmes are rapidly becoming a thing of the past with negative impact on the health and education sectors. Due to the lack of explicit subsidies on food and fuel and on price controls, the burden is being relegated to the population.

The financial crisis is having an adverse impact on women's ability to afford health care. Poverty is a major determinant of the lack of access to health services. Increased poverty as a result of the crisis will result in reduced access to health services by women. In this time of narrowing national budgets and reduced ODA, there is a risk that funding for family planning services, unwanted pregnancies and preventative care in general may be discontinued.

Greenhouse emissions present dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Some of the impacts include excessive hot weather conditions affecting land quality, crop performance and exposure to increased water stress and water-related conflicts; desertification, deforestation, energy insecurity; increased risk of disease and degradation of coastal areas (UNDP, 2007). A significant impact of climate change on agriculture has been the sudden replacement of food crops with crops such as bio-fuels as a developed country action to replace petroleum-based fuels (UNFPA, 2009), contributing to rising costs of food and land replacement for such purposes. Food security is central to livelihoods in the continent. The agriculture sector (food crops, livestock, fisheries etc) employs an estimated 60 per cent of the population (ILO, 2009) and therefore adverse impacts on this segment of the economy would worsen the already existing conditions of poverty.⁵

The impacts of climate change on livelihoods will however not be gender-neutral as they are expected to deepen and widen existing gender inequalities in access to productive resources such as land and water. Women are a significant force in the food chain, responsible for an estimated 60-70 percent of output, processing, distribution and household food nutrition. Within the context of the division of labor at domestic level, women's time burdens are expected to increase with the increased stress on water and fuel sources. Such shortages are also expected to lead to higher rates of water-borne diseases due to reduced drinking water availability and reduced motivation to rely on cooked food at household level (UNIFEM, 2010). The health risks of climate change (e.g. Lancet, 2009; WHO, 2003) will significantly impact on the capacity of the agricultural labor force to meet expected food production targets and time burdens on women would increase consequentially as their healthcare roles with respect to that of themselves and household members increase.

Local Contexts

Many African countries have adopted democracy as a way of governance, thereby facilitating and promoting women's participation in decision-making. Good governance has also served to guarantee human rights and the delivery of basic social services. The African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) of the AU/NEPAD initiative is striving to enhance women's human rights through the application of social development indicators included in peer review and assessment of the performance of States on good governance. To date, 29 countries have acceded to the APRM.⁶

5 By the terms of the Convention, "adverse effects of climate change" refers to changes in the physical environment or biota resulting from climate change which have significant deleterious effects on the composition, resilience or productivity of natural and managed ecosystems or on the operation of socio-economic systems or on human health and welfare.

6 The countries are Algeria, Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Republic of Congo, Kenya, Lesotho, Mali, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome & Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Togo, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia.

Quite a number of countries are experiencing conflict or are in post-conflict situations. In addition, the varying degrees and levels of corruption existing across African countries is impacting upon the extent to which resources can be made available to gender equality concerns.

A substantial number of countries (e.g. Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda and Togo) are responding to BPfA commitments through the design and adoption of National Gender Policies (NGPs). The trend has been to prioritize areas of focus based on local needs and conditions.

Box 2.1: Post Beijing Priorities of Rwanda

Upon return from the Beijing Conference, Rwanda worked in close conjunction with its development partners to define the national priorities focusing on nine Critical areas including:

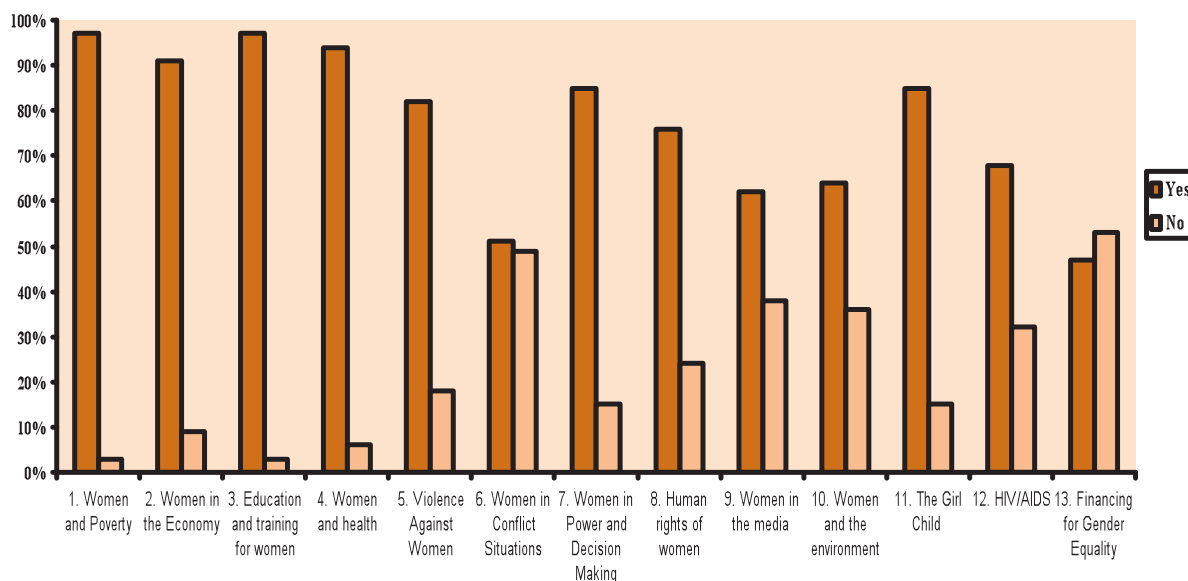
- Equal share of power and responsibilities;
- Fight against poverty;
- Improvement of access for women to social services (education, health, management of the environment);
- Promotion of peace and fight against violence against women;
- Improvement of the judicial status of the woman;
- Promotion of women through the media;
- Support to women in particular situations;
- Strengthening of mechanisms for the promotion of women;
- Protection and development of the girl child.

Source: Rwanda country data, 2010

In terms of lessons learned, responding countries highlighted the importance of involving all concerned stakeholders in the design and implementation of gender-related programmes as a means of ensuring their success. Enabling factors for the successful implementation of such programmes include political will; national ownership; a nationally agreed upon Gender Policy, developed with the involvement of all actors; wide dissemination of the policy to all stakeholders; an existing legal framework which supports gender equality and informed women who are aware of their rights; accurate and reliable sex- and gender-disaggregated data; and monitoring and evaluation of the policy using clearly defined indicators. Many countries note that collaboration with development partners, and international and national NGOs greatly facilitated successful implementation of their respective gender policies.

A substantial number of countries have similarly formulated, adopted, and are implementing National Development Strategies or PRSPs, with a special focus on covering all aspects of development including issues affecting women and other vulnerable groups. Gender issues are substantially articulated in national strategies and plans. Areas that are well integrated include: women and poverty; women in the economy; education and training for women; women and health; violence against women; women in power and decision-making; the girl child; and human rights of women. Issues that receive the lowest consideration include financing for gender equality and women in conflict situations (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Gender Issues Articulated in the NDS/PRSP



Libya’s 2008-2012 National Plan aims to improve the living standards of the sexes with the aim of supporting them to realize their social and economic security. During the formulation of the Third National Development Plan, covering the period 2007-2012 in Namibia, gender equality was identified as a mandatory cross-cutting issue. Uganda’s National Development Strategy 2009–2014 integrates gender equality.

Several African countries have adopted gender budgeting as a strategy to accelerate promotion of gender equality and pro-poor, equitable development. Ghana, Mauritius, Morocco, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, and Uganda are among the countries that have undertaken comprehensive gender-budgeting initiatives (ECA, 2008). With the adoption of Gender Responsive Budgeting in Ghana, Ministries, Departments and Agencies are required to budget comprehensively with the objective of allocating resources in areas of need, in a disaggregated manner, reflecting the conditions of men, women, boys and girls and other socially disadvantaged groups.

Section III: Progress in Implementation of the Beijing Platform of Action

Introduction

The Seventh African Regional Conference on Women (Beijing+10) in Addis Ababa (October 2004) resulted in renewed commitment to gender equality, equity and empowerment of women, suggesting concrete steps to address the gaps between commitment and implementation. The Ministerial Conference adopted a ‘Programme of Action’ to be undertaken by member States in order to accelerate further implementation and monitoring of the BPfA in the years ahead.

Based on each critical area of concern around which specific actions were expected to be taken by countries, this section outlines achievements and challenges of African countries in their BPfA implementation, taking into account the 2004 PoA.

Area of Concern 1: Women and Poverty

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA notes that women’s poverty is directly related to the absence of economic opportunities and autonomy, lack of access to economic resources, including credit, land ownership and inheritance, lack of access to education and support services and their minimal participation in the decision-making process. The 2004 ministerial review of progress conceded that measures to mainstream gender concerns into PRSPs should include gender analysis of macroeconomic policies, in order to expose the differential impacts of poverty on both women and men.

The outcome document also suggested that gender equality principles must be incorporated into all budgeting to ensure equitable resource allocation. In addition, processes leading to the development of poverty reduction plans should be consultative, gender-sensitive and inclusive. Indicators for monitoring the impact of poverty reduction programmes and measures and the MDG target on poverty should be engendered. A programme of training for women was also to be established in the area of globalization.

A number of measures, such as review of macroeconomic and social policies, gender analysis of policies and programmes - including those related to macroeconomic stability, employment, markets and all relevant sectors of the economy were expected to be carried out by governments with respect to their impact on poverty and gender inequality among other indicators.

Governments were also expected to restructure and target the allocation of public expenditure to promote women’s economic opportunities and equal access to productive resources. They were also

required to address the basic social, educational and health needs of women, particularly those living in poverty.

A General Situational Analysis of Poverty in Africa

A mixed picture on the state of poverty in Africa is derived from ICPD +15 and BPfA +15 sources. The former (ECA, 2009 a.), for instance, indicates that some countries have experienced declines in poverty rates. In Tunisia, for instance, poverty levels reduced from 6.7 per cent in 1990 to 3.8 per cent in 2005. In the case of Seychelles, it was reported that extreme poverty and hunger are non-existent. In the cases of Benin, Burundi, Mauritius and Mozambique, rates of poverty are said to be declining such that they are likely to achieve the MDG targets through poverty reduction programmes which are being implemented. In Mozambique, poverty declined from 69.4 per cent in 1997 to 54.1 per cent in 2003 and was expected to reduce further to 45 per cent by the end of 2009.

In contrast, others are unlikely to achieve the objectives of MDG 1. They include Central African Republic, Comoros, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Niger, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. While the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day is still very high in most of these countries, the situation has actually worsened in some. In Swaziland, the majority of the 69 per cent of the population living below the poverty line became vulnerable to hunger when poor rainfall resulted in low productivity of maize, causing a hike in maize prices. The percentage of people living below the poverty line in Guinea increased from 49.2 per cent in 2002 to 53.6 in 2005. The situation is worst in Zimbabwe, where the percentage of people living below the poverty line increased from 55 per cent in 1995 to 72 per cent in 2003. Various sources note that women continue to bear the brunt of poverty in their communities (e.g. ADE, 2009).

Section II has already demonstrated the significant impacts of the how the global economic downturn on women as more of them lose jobs and are forced to manage shrinking household incomes. Compared to rich countries, where more men than women have lost their jobs, the crisis in Africa is leaving women with ever fewer job choices compared to their male counterparts. This is being manifested in the flower industries of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda in addition to the textile industries of Kenya and Lesotho. Declining remittances and tightening of micro-finance lending are further restricting funds available to women to run their businesses and contribute effectively to household budgets.

Overall, most countries have boldly addressed the gender dimensions of poverty with the aim of enhancing the economic autonomy and empowerment of women.

Highlights of Achievements

National Development Planning Processes

All countries place poverty reduction high on their respective agendas and continue to intensify their actions and policies through a wide range of strategies, among them being the PRSPs. Examples of these include the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP, Ethiopia); the Poverty Reduction and Growth Strategy Paper (PRGS of the Democratic Republic of Congo); the National Economic Empowerment Strategy (NEEDS of Nigeria) and its sub-national complement the State Economic Empowerment Strategy (SEEDS); the Malawi Growth and

Development Strategy (MGDS); and the Tanzanian National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) referred to in Swahili as the *Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania* (MKUKUTA).

Reports indicate that in addition to the focus on poverty reduction, strategies include some country-specific concerns such as HIV and AIDS (Malawi - MGDS 2006), social protection and post-conflict recovery (Sierra Leone PRSP 2005-2007). Some countries have initiated new programming processes to integrate gender budgeting (Angola) or to mainstream gender in their respective PRSPs (Chad, Liberia and Uganda) and to set up mechanisms for measuring gender equality and analysing existing projects and activities (Egypt, Guinea). Some have integrated gender as a criterion for the selection of beneficiaries for development projects. Uganda in particular has ensured a sector-wide integration of gender in its poverty reduction implementation (Box 3.1).

Box 3.1: Uganda's Approach to Gender Mainstreaming in Development Planning

Uganda recognized the need for inclusion of gender principles in poverty eradication efforts. During the period 2004-2009, concerted effort has been made by the revised Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) Gender Team (PGT) to engender the plan through enhanced analysis of the linkages between gender relations and poverty, and prescribing specific interventions to address gender inequality issues in the sectors. Training was also undertaken to equip key policy- and decision-makers, planners and programme implementers with gender analytical and planning skills.

Source: African Women's Report, 2009

Source: Uganda country data

The national development planning method of Egypt integrates gender into the two five-year plans for socio-economic development covering 2002-2007 and 2007-2012, with the active participation of the National Council for Women (NCW). The 2002-2007 five-year plan doubles appropriations for projects and programmes targeting women compared to the previous national plan. The Government has begun to adopt planning and general budget processes that integrate gender. Based on its mandates, the NCW monitors the implementation of these programmes, evaluates their impact on the situation of women in Egypt on an annual basis, and submits its observations to the concerned agencies.

Through these processes, Egypt has succeeded in developing some gender-sensitive policies and programmes, such as the reduction of female illiteracy, provision of greater access to basic social services and improved programmes for women's health.

The revised PEAP of Uganda emphasizes gender as a cross-cutting dimension. Progress has been registered in mainstreaming gender into agriculture, road, education, justice, law and order sector and health sectors of the PEAP. Similarly, Ethiopia's poverty reduction programme, PASDEP incorporates the country's National Action Plan for Gender Equality. A number of countries have formulated and are being guided by long-term developmental goals in their quest to eradicate poverty. These include Vision 2020 of Malawi, Nigeria and South Africa, 2025 of Tanzania, Benin and Sierra Leone, Namibia's Vision 2030 and Ghana's Vision 2035.

Other countries such as South Africa report of refocusing of expenditure towards programmes aimed at reduce poverty and socioeconomic inequalities, the provision of infrastructure and social services, the creation of employment and economic opportunities for young people and women. Mauritius indicates that it has put structures in place including a Trust Fund for eradicating absolute poverty in the country within a span of seven to ten years.

The Allocation of Public Spending

Twenty-five (25) countries (Algeria, Angola, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Guinea, Gambia, Ghana, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) indicate that they have reallocated public spending in favour of programmes and projects aimed at empowering women. Many undertook a number of gender-responsive initiatives, programmes and projects which have been aimed at economically empowering women, and reducing poverty through income-generating activities and capacity building.

While the sustainability of these interventions could not readily be ascertained from country reports due mainly to their being in inception stages, some of them demonstrate short-term and mid-level results. Coupled with this is what appears to be weak social protection programmes in place in most countries. These include ad hoc measures such as the distribution of food rations to meet immediate needs (e.g. in Botswana). Such measures tend to be devoid of a broader vision of empowerment for women and society at large. They also suffer from lack of sustainability and effective targeting.

Support to young women has been a visible segment of poverty reduction in some countries. For instance, vocational training is a priority in Algeria, while some countries such as Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo and Tunisia focus on measures to reintegrate girl school drop-outs, single mothers and other marginalized women. Twenty three (23) countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, , Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe indicate that they have designed social protection tools (gender-sensitive safety nets) in favour of women and girls. These are generally backed by legal and policy regimes that outline the specific target groups and types of interventions in place.

Targeted Programmes and Initiatives

Social security systems are expanding in a number of countries. The 2006-2007 budget of Mauritius, for instance, includes special programmes for unemployed women and creation of an Empowerment Fund with a provision of Rs750 million for the current year. In Namibia and South Africa, special social grant systems exist for women and men living with disabilities, the elderly and children. Zimbabwe and Libya's support to vulnerable groups includes basic education assistance to vulnerable children (most of whom are young girls), basic commodities supply interventions and food rations to vulnerable groups including public service employees.

Thirty (30) (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania Togo, and Uganda) indicate that education and training of women is being addressed, in the efforts to empower women and reduce poverty. Empowering women through access to economic opportunities and such as business start-ups is being given high importance in almost all responding countries. Training of trainers and tailor-made training sessions have been organized in various countries, either by the governmental departments and NGOs, or through joint collaborative efforts (e.g. Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Cameroon, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Egypt, Mauritania, Mauritius, Nigeria, Republic of Congo, Swaziland, Togo, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe). They tend to provide women with skills and financial support to set up businesses. A number of these programmes have benefited marginalized groups such as women in prison as in the case of Mauritius.

A significant number of countries are implementing micro-finance schemes for women (Algeria, Benin, Chad, Comoros, Egypt, Liberia, Mauritania, Mauritius, Niger and Nigeria), while some have created specialized agencies to support these efforts (Djibouti, Gambia, Ghana, Nigeria (Box 3.2), Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia and Zambia).

Women's access to credit has tended to be from such sources as the formal banking system or informal micro-finance institutions as the "rotating credits" in Cameroon. Specific national programmes to support rural women's access to credits have been established in Mali, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia. Some of these schemes have resulted in the advancement of women from small to medium enterprise status.

Box 3.2: A Micro-Credit Intervention in Nigeria

Nigerian women account for about 70 per cent of the agricultural labour force, contribute up to 80 per cent of the total food production but only about 25 per cent of the micro credit provided by financial and government institutions are accessible to them. About 25 per cent of women have benefited from loans at low interest rates and waivers of collateral. In direct response to the above constraints, the national women machinery in collaboration with the Bank of Industry in 2007 undertook a Business and Development Fund for Women project to bridge gender gaps in the credit finance sector. Another project, the Women's Fund for Economic Empowerment initiated in 2005 in collaboration with Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank provides loan facilities to women cooperatives, particularly those at the grassroots.

Source: Nigeria country data, 2009

Women's access to credit has tended to be from such sources as the formal banking system or informal micro-finance institutions as the "rotating credits" in Cameroon. Specific national programmes to support rural women's access to credits have been established in Mali, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia. Some of these schemes have resulted in the advancement of women from small to medium enterprise status.

Some initiatives have been directed towards supporting associations and groups of women, with the intention of facilitating access to information, interchange of experiences, exposure (through channels

such as study tours and field visits), counselling and legal assistance (e.g. Cape Verde, , Egypt, Eritrea, Gambia, Malawi, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, and Uganda). There appears to be convergence on giving priority to improving access to micro-credit and the involvement of civil society as key actors in supporting such efforts especially at community level. These efforts are being complemented by communications, infrastructure, and provision of inputs and extension services.

Highlights of Challenges

The assessment of the first critical area on women and poverty reveals the following challenges:

- a. Monitoring of poverty trends over time is dependent upon the availability of disaggregated data by sex and location which most African countries do not possess and are not able to produce to an adequate degree. The use of consumption and income data collected at the household level generally does not provide critical insights into the underlying causes and gendered dimensions of poverty. Another weakness is that, since such data are not disaggregated by sex, therefore do not capture inequities within households;
- b. The global economic downturn will have disproportionate impacts on women as more of them lose jobs and are forced to manage shrinking household incomes. By arresting capital accumulation by women and drastically reducing African women's individual incomes, women are being crippled in their quest to contribute effectively to the household economy;
- c. While micro-finance credit is useful for addressing immediate household needs, it does not lead to women's economic empowerment in a manner that is transformative. Additionally, small-scale women's businesses tend to be focused on traditional jobs such as embroidery, sewing and the sale of food items, with limited opportunities for growth;
- d. The impact of the PRSPs and other development plans on the reduction of women's poverty calls for careful scrutiny, as there is limited evidence to demonstrate that the said gender-aware policies and strategies have resulted in curbing poverty among women in Africa;
- e. While the needs of vulnerable populations and at-risk groups are indeed addressed in development plans, no or limited visibility has been accorded single mothers, displaced persons, refugees, and others in crisis or post-crisis situations;
- f. Country reports failed to highlight the roles of development partners and civil society organisation in poverty eradication initiatives and how such actions are being co-ordinated with the object of achieving maximum benefits to target groups; and
- g. Prevailing high fertility rates in sub-Saharan African countries limits the active participation of women in the labour force, endangers their health and exacerbates poverty.

Recommended Actions

- a. The potential of the poor, particularly women, should be recognized. Such disadvantaged groups should be regarded as resources and not barriers to economic growth;
- b. Undertake and implement MDG-responsive development planning with the active involvement of civil society, in line with the United Nations 2005 MDG evaluation outcomes;

- c. Effective monitoring and evaluation of the gender dimensions of all national development strategies and systematic documentation of outcomes with a view to taking timely and appropriate action;
- d. Recognize women's non-market work and advocate for the appreciation and valuing of such work through the engendering of national accounts and budgets;
- e. Address the disproportionate time burdens on women in non-productive work through the provision of appropriate services and facilities, especially at rural level, including improvements in transport, water sources, day care centres and health facilities; and
- f. Design and implement effective linkages with local universities to develop appropriate local technologies to accelerate the reduction of drudgery associated with household food processing and transportation of heavy loads by women.

Area of Concern 2: Education and Training for Women

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA recognizes education as the nexus around which most of the principles and other critical areas of concern can be attained. Governments therefore need to be committed to among others: providing universal access to basic education; close the gender gap in primary and secondary school education by the year 2005; providing universal primary education in all countries before the year 2015; and eliminating gender disparities in access to all areas of tertiary education by adopting positive action when appropriate.

In order to accelerate progress in achieving the BPfA objectives in education and training, the 2004 Ministerial Conference urged countries to institute and strengthen affirmative action measures including scholarships at all levels for female students; establish distance and non-formal education and literacy programmes for women; and use innovative and aggressive strategies to redress the under-representation of women and girls in the sciences, mathematics and technology-related disciplines and careers, including the promotion of science among children in general and young girls in particular.

In addition, women's access to professional training should also be strengthened. The main financial partners of African education systems should show their firm commitment to the female population in their policies for interventions (UNECA, 2004; para 27).

A General Situational Analysis of Women, Education and Training

Educational systems have been reformed in many countries to enhance the delivery of quality education and address national challenges through the creation of enabling school environments. As a major achievement, primary/basic education is being widely implemented across a substantial number of African countries and, at this level, education is generally free and compulsory.

Functional and skills education training is also being developed to provide alternatives and second chances for girls and boys. Training of women is also given high priority through various plans and programmes.

Nevertheless, the education sector is being confronted with its inability to ensure the steady progression of both girls and boys beyond primary to secondary and tertiary education. This implies, therefore, that Africa may be facing the challenge of inadequate human capital formation in critical areas of their respective economies in the medium to long term.

Highlights of Achievements

Achievements in General Enrolment

Education represents one of the successes of Africa, largely attributable to the institution of free and compulsory primary basic education by many governments. The *Africa Economic Outlook (2009)* notes that 67.9 per cent of countries have already reached the gender parity target. According to the 2009 MDG report (UNECA, AU and AfDB, 2009) net enrolment ratios increased from 58 per cent in 2000 to 74 per cent by 2007 in sub-Saharan Africa. Countries such as South Africa, Tunisia and Zambia have already attained parity at primary level. The *African Women's Report* (ECA, 2009 b.) also indicates that parity is imminent in some countries (e.g. Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda).

In Uganda, girls' share of enrolment improved from 47 per cent in 1997 to 50 per cent in 2005. In the case of Ethiopia, the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for girls at the primary level increased from 53.8 per cent in 2002/03 to 85.1 per cent in 2006/07, while the same rate for boys increased from 74.6 to 98.0 during the same period. In 2006/07 secondary level GER for girls was 28.6 per cent compared to 45.7 percent for boys.

Countries such as Lesotho, South Africa and Tunisia present unusual scenarios in which more girls compared to boys are enrolled in school. South Africa's country report notes specifically that although at primary school level the ratio of girls to boys has remained consistently close to 1 from 1999 to 2006, at the secondary school level the picture is reversed with more girls than boys enrolled throughout the same period.

South Africa has made some significant strides in its participation rate in education, with overall gender parity having been achieved. Although there are some slight gender disparities at primary school level, with more boys than girls enrolled at primary school, it reverses at secondary level, where more girls than boys enrolled. In 2008, the highest Gender Parity Index (GPI), 1.08 is reflected at the secondary phase and the lowest, 0.98 at primary. Since 2000, more females than males have enrolled in higher education and female enrolment has increased at a faster rate than males. The table below shows primary and secondary GPI.

In Morocco, enrolment for both sexes at both primary and secondary levels is nearly equal with girls accounting for 47 per cent of enrolment. However, like other countries, disparities exist at sub-national levels where by 2007, the GER for girls 12-14 years in rural areas was 43 per cent compared to a national average of 75 per cent.

Ethiopia's country report indicates that disabled women and girls are more disadvantaged than their male counterparts and that disabled girls, particularly the visually impaired, generally miss out on Early Childhood Education. In the case of Sudan, the primary school completion rate in 2006 for disadvantaged girls, especially those from poor households, was 2.1 per cent. In nearly all reporting countries, governments have attempted to eliminate barriers that hinder boys and girls' access to education. The most commonly applied of these measures is the provision of free and compulsory education at the level of primary education (e.g. Algeria, Angola, Chad, Egypt, Gabon, Lesotho, Malawi, Liberia, Libya, Mauritius, Mauritania, Morocco, Nigeria, and Tunisia).

Such measures have been undertaken by abolishing school fees at primary level (for Burundi, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Gambia). Chad, Nigeria and Tunisia have mechanisms in place to operationalize gender equality legislation, with Chad having a specific declaration on girls' education.

Côte d'Ivoire approved a Strategic Plan for Girls Education in 2006, and Liberia reports the creation of a scholarship scheme specifically aimed at encouraging girls to go to school. So far, 2000 girls have benefited from this scheme (Box 3.3). Some countries, such as Ghana and Uganda are also implementing School Feeding Programmes, while in almost all countries; education is constitutionally guaranteed as a universal basic right. Other countries are also implementing alternative basic education programmes, which are witnessing growing enrolment rates for girls. In Ethiopia for example, female enrolment in alternative basic education is growing at an average annual growth rate of 11.6 per cent, a rate higher than boys' enrolment, which is increasing by 10.5 per cent. This programme has helped to narrow the gender gap. The 2009 progress assessment being made in achieving the MDGs in Africa has recognized the progress that Ethiopia has made in increasing net primary enrolment (UNECA, AU, AfDB, 2009).

Box 3.3: A Post-Conflict Intervention in Liberia

Education: education interventions have been successful, as the Government of Liberia, in collaboration with local and international partners, formulated and launched the Education Law (2001), the National Girls Education Policy (2006) and the Free Compulsory Primary Education Policy (2006/2007). It introduced the Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP), a parallel intervention designed to address the basic education needs of young adults who missed out on education. This programme seeks to improve enrolment, attendance, and retention through its school feeding service, with support from the World Food Programme.

Source: Liberia Country Data, 2009

In 1996, Botswana reviewed its Education Policy (1996) and consequent to that, built schools closer to communities, leading to a reduction of average distance to 5km for primary schools and 10km for junior secondary schools. In several countries, laws have also been reviewed to eliminate barriers that

hinder access to education, with special attention to rural areas in most countries where urban/rural disparities are very obvious.

A number of countries have also instituted measures to reduce drop-out rates, narrow enrolment disparities in primary and secondary education and promote innovative teaching approaches (Chad) or apply school-feeding programmes to enhance the enrolment rates (Ghana, Egypt, Liberia, Libya, Sao Tome and Principe).

Various governments have realized the need to educate and train women and thereupon, have set up scholarship schemes that directly benefit them by increasing their enrolment in vocational and academic institutions. This has been enhanced by educational aid distribution systems such as school supplies, food and public transportation.

Progression from Secondary to Tertiary Education

Compared to the general impressive progress being made at primary level, a mixed picture is created with respect to the attainment of gender equality at secondary and tertiary levels (Box 3.4). Evidence is yet to be obtained to show that any African country has attained parity at both secondary and tertiary levels, although the *African Women's Report, 2009* notes that six countries (Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda) show promising signs of doing so.

At tertiary level, Cape Verde, Libya, Namibia, South Africa and Tunisia are noted to have more females than males enrolled, while Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar show signs of being close to parity. However, the reports note that actual gross enrolment figures for both sexes create more of a dismal picture as it shows marked reduction of numbers of both sexes from primary to the higher levels of education. This is the case for the majority of countries identified as almost achieving parity at secondary level (Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa and Tunisia) in addition to those who do not demonstrate it (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, Tanzania and Uganda).

Box 3.4: Retrogression of Gender Equality in Education in Africa

Girls' primary school enrolment rate increased more than that for boys' between 2000 and 2006. Despite these gains, girls still account for 55 per cent of the out-of-school population in the region. Gender parity in primary education has been achieved in a large swathe of countries. However, the gender gap widens in secondary education and is widest in tertiary education.

Source: MDG Progress Report on Africa (2009)

A similar picture is painted for tertiary education, although South Africa and Tunisia have attained parity and Cameroon, Egypt and Madagascar are close to doing so. The overall picture of enrolment must be given sufficient attention. This includes where improvements in enrolment have been accompanied by declines in male enrolment rates. Klasen (2006:10) demonstrates that such a situation signals a decline in overall human capital and is therefore not a desirable human development outcome.

These barriers notwithstanding, governments are becoming increasingly conscious of the importance of encouraging girls and young women to attend and achieve tertiary level education. The proliferation of universities in most of countries is a testimony of commitment to contribute towards the elimination of gender disparities, given that this affords a greater opportunity to both males and females to access tertiary education. In support of female tertiary education, campaigns are being organized in Burkina Faso and the Republic of Congo to sensitize citizens on the need to eliminate discrimination between men and women in tertiary education and to promote equal access to education including to university. Gender-sensitive measures have been part of strategies used in Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe to increase enrolment of women, using a 40 per cent threshold in government universities.

Promotion of Girls' Education

Several innovative approaches are being implemented to increase enrolment rates through reinforcing school and family partnerships in many countries. This has led to sustained social mobilization campaigns, such as in Ghana, where efforts have been made to create girl-friendly school environments through sanitation programmes leading to improvements in access to toilet facilities, and to water and hand-washing facilities. In Guinea, Liberia, Mauritius, Namibia, and Nigeria, policies have been adopted to promote girls education, through the elimination of gender stereotypes in school textbooks and the creation of relevant national institutions such as National Commissions for Basic Education or Girls Education Units as in Ghana.

Challenges being faced by categories of young females such as teen mothers are also being addressed in Malawi. These measures are impacting positively on school enrolment and retention: In Burkina Faso, girls' enrolment increased from 42 per cent in 2000 (Box 3.5) to 56 per cent in 2005, while in Libya, it increased from 47.2 per cent in 1988 to 48.9 per cent in 2005. There is some evidence to show that the rate of girl's enrolment in secondary schools and universities has also increased, sometimes to the extent of exceeding boys' enrolment rates in some countries.⁷

Thirty (31) countries (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Namibia, Niger, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Uganda (Box 3.6), United Republic of Tanzania (Box 3.6), Togo, Zambia and Zimbabwe) report of measures in place to increase tertiary enrolment and retention of women and girls, especially in sciences, mathematics and technology-related disciplines. The same number has targets in place to eliminate gender disparities in all areas of tertiary education by 2015.

⁷ This point needs further investigation and analysis. These should extend to the nature of courses being followed by males and females at this level.

Box 3.5: Burkina Faso's response to low completion rates through the "Threshold Programme"

Millennium Challenge Corporation's (MCC) Board of Directors approved up to \$US12.9 million for the Threshold Country Programme assistance for Burkina Faso that focuses on improving performance on the "Girls' Primary Education Completion Rates" indicator. It is a pilot programme that seeks to improve access to, and the quality of, primary education for girls in 10 provinces that have historically achieved the lowest levels of girls' primary education completion rates. Some of the intervention components include:

- Construction of new schools in provinces that lack sufficient schools so that more girls will be able to attend primary school;
- Construction of day care centres in these schools so that school-age girls will be relieved of the responsibility for caring for younger children and will thus be able to attend school;
- Providing take-home dry rations to girls who maintain a 90 per cent school attendance rate as an incentive for parents to keep their girls in school;
- Constructing separate girls' and boys' bathrooms in the schools;
- Institutionalizing female mentoring programmes;
- Conducting social awareness campaigns; and
- Offering financial merit rewards to the best female teachers in the targeted region.
- This is to encourage girls to attend schools, by mitigating factors that presently deter girls' school attendance, and to provide needed reassurance to parents that their daughters will be best-served attending school.

Source: <http://www.mcc.gov/countries/burkinafaso/threshold.php>

Affirmative action measures are being implemented in a number of countries (e.g. Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, Madagascar, Rwanda, South Africa, Tunisia, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania). Numerous countries provide student scholarships and loans, with specific quotas for girls. A number of countries are constructing universities with the aim of enhancing access especially at decentralized levels. In some countries, girls are given preferential treatment in the allocation of university accommodation. Affirmative action measures have seen an increase from 10 per cent to 30 per cent enrolment for girls in Eritrea because of the 30 per cent quota system in place.

Box 3.6: Uganda in Tertiary Enrolment Initiative

In a bid to promote science education as well as encourage girls to take practical courses such as computer science, electrical and mechanical engineering, a female scholarship scheme with 70 per cent of the awards reserved for science was initiated at Makerere University to increase female enrolment in science. To date, out of the 233 female students who have benefited from the scheme, 150 have pursued science-related subjects.

Source: Uganda Country Data, 2009

The United Republic of Tanzania is promoting gender equality in access to education, through a Community Based Education for Girls initiative, within the context of its Education Sector Development Programme (1996) to encourage public and private investors to build girls' hostels and boarding schools. As a result of this effort, among others, enrolment increased from 99,402 and 109,336 in 1998 to 189,198 and 212,400 for girls and boys respectively in 2004. Enrolment of girls in 'A' level secondary education was 6,072 in 1998 and increased to 10,765 in 2004.

To remedy the low presence of girls in sciences and mathematics disciplines, Mali has established a monitoring system in basic and high schools. In Cameroon, teachers are trained on how to

mainstream gender into science and technology instruction. Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Comoros, Gambia, Ghana, Namibia, Sao Tome and Principe, Togo, Uganda and Zimbabwe have invested in science and maths clinics or camps to encourage girls' to gain interest in these subjects. Namibia has also designated science and maths compulsory up to Grade 10 and in the United Republic of Tanzania, the Government has lowered the cut-off point to allow girls who are not able to meet the criteria to enrol in science and maths-related disciplines. This is in addition to the provision of remedial classes covering a period of eight weeks.

In Chad, the Ministry of Higher Education established the Excellence Prize for girls who obtain high marks in scientific subjects at the end of secondary education. The result is that more girls have gained an interest in attending. In the last decade, and more specifically in the last 5 years, girls have become more visible in areas which have been previously categorized as traditional male preserves. Between 2005 and 2009 for instance, some countries have witnessed significant increases in female enrolment in such fields, with Tunisia noting 65 per cent in agronomy, 46.6 per cent in chemistry and 40.7 per cent in engineering. It is also on record that some of these efforts have been supported by civil society.

In Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gambia, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Malawi, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Republic of Congo, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, girls are targeted as a special group with specific needs to be addressed. These governments consider that no barriers should prevent pregnant adolescents from continuing with their education and therefore have plans in place to ensure achievement of this objective. Readmission of teen mothers is ensured after delivery, and some countries take protective measures to discount the pregnancy year in school records. In addition, laws related to the protection of minors are being amended and laws on the age of marriage are being harmonized with the international standards in many countries.

Female Adult Literacy

Thirty three (33) countries indicate that they are taking steps to eliminate gender gaps in basic functional literacy. The countries concerned are Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Libya, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda and Zimbabwe.

National strategies have been adopted in Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, Uganda and Zimbabwe. National programmes have been launched in many of these countries and teachers are trained to deliver good quality education to achieve basic functional literacy. Structures and institutions have been created in support of adult literacy interventions. In addition to centres devoted to basic literacy created in the majority of the countries, some governments established mechanisms such as the Chad State Secretariat in Charge of Literacy.

Village associations have been involved in these efforts in Comoros, while in Liberia adult literacy programmes have been located in market centres to encourage women to take advantage of the opportunity to become functionally literate. More recently, in 2007, a handbook of training modules on topics related to gender equality for non-formal education was developed in Côte d'Ivoire, and women are largely benefiting from these programmes. In Eritrea, women constitute 90 per cent of all beneficiaries of functional literacy initiatives.

Gender Studies and Research

A significant number of countries are providing opportunities for gender studies and research. In furtherance of this, institutions and centres of research on gender and women have been created in countries such as Algeria, Angola, Egypt and Libya. Others such as Algeria, Botswana, Gambia, Ghana, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Zambia and Zimbabwe have integrated such studies into their university systems.

Studies related to gender issues have been conducted in Burundi, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Lesotho, Malawi, Eritrea, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo and Zambia, highlighting the persistence of profound gender disparities in education, at the work place and in communities. These studies have embraced various categories of women, such as women in business, women in public life, victims of violence, the benefits of time use studies and gender budgeting.

As a sub-regional initiative, Governments of the Great Lakes Region of Africa have arrived at a consensus to establish a centre of excellence that would deal, among other issues, with gender and women's rights. Ministers in charge of Gender and Women's Affairs of the eleven countries of the Great Lakes region met in Kinshasa, in August 2008, to specifically explore the establishment of a Research and Documentation Centre. This envisaged centre would, among other functions, assist in systematically documenting the contributions by governments, and by bilateral and multilateral agencies in addressing gender inequality in the sub-region.

Training kits and tools in gender awareness and mainstreaming have been produced by a number of countries (e.g. Botswana and South Africa) for target groups such as school teachers and CSOs to improve their capacity to take gender into account in their work and also to support gender-friendly learning environments (e.g. Zimbabwe). Training programmes have been provided to high-level civil servants and decision-makers in different governmental institutions, as well as representatives from private and public sectors and political parties in Gabon.

Exchange of North-South and South-South experiences have also been made possible in Burkina Faso, Rwanda, and other countries which are benefiting from donor support.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. Although country reports indicate that gender disparities in enrolment and literacy are narrowing in every country, more remains to be done to ensure equality between the sexes in the sector. For instance, although the gap between male and female enrolment rates at primary school level has considerably narrowed in the United Republic of

- Tanzania, it widens progressively and becomes more pronounced at the secondary and tertiary levels. Thus, while by 2006 an estimated 48 per cent of the students enrolled in Form I was female (a near gender balance at entry) after Form IV, there is a substantial drop in the enrolment of girls to about 30 per cent at the tertiary level;
- b. Illiteracy rates among women remain high in many countries, and disparities between men and women persist. While the numbers of males and females benefiting from literacy programmes are increasing significantly, gaps still remain;
 - c. Dropout and repetition rates in primary schools are still high. This is largely due to financial constraints at the household level, lack of interest, poor health and long distances to school. Extra charges and fees imposed by some schools, namely, examination fees, interview fees, building funds and milling inhibit access to primary education in some countries; and
 - d. Preferential treatment to boys in accessing education, which is promoted by the traditional, social and cultural setting, is also partly responsible for some girls dropping out of school prematurely.

Recommended Actions

- a. Ensure the progression of girls and boys from primary to secondary school levels through further subsidization of secondary and technical education;
- b. Ensure that such education matches and is more relevant to the employment conditions of African countries, enabling the dividends of education to be realized within shorter periods;
- c. Explore the adoption of additional strategies, such as affirmative action for children of poorer communities, the creation of day care services for infants (so that girls can attend school without looking after their younger siblings), enhancing boarding facilities and night schools;
- d. Put interventions in place to maximize retention and reverse the high rate of drop-outs among both girls and boys. This should include the design of girl-friendly initiatives such as the construction of separate toilet facilities, the availability of water in schools, the institution of school-feeding programmes, cash transfer programmes (social protection) for poor parents and the training of more female teachers;
- e. Develop and implement accessible community-based adult literacy interventions in response to the high illiteracy levels among adult women;
- f. Ensure that adult literacy programmes are adaptable to the peculiar situation of women, especially those in rural areas who tend to face extreme situations of time poverty due to multiple domestic, reproductive and productive tasks, exacerbated by the absence of appropriate technology; and
- g. Run the literacy programmes creatively and responsively (e.g. on a shift basis) to ensure women's effective participation, retention and completion of such programmes.

Critical Area 3: Women and Health

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA affirms that women have the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health. The enjoyment of this right is vital to their life and well-being and their ability to participate in all areas of public and private life. Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and is not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.

Nevertheless, women tend to have different and unequal access to and use of basic health resources, including primary health services for the prevention and treatment of childhood diseases, malnutrition, anaemia, diarrhoeal diseases, communicable diseases, malaria and other tropical diseases and tuberculosis, among others. They also have different and unequal opportunities for the protection, promotion and maintenance of their health. In many developing countries, the lack of emergency obstetric services is of particular concern.

Within this context, governments are required to support and implement commitments made in the PoA of the ICPD as established in the report of that conference, in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and in the PoA of the WSIS and in the obligations of States parties under CEDAW and other relevant international agreements, to meet the health needs of girls and women of all ages.

The 2004 Conference of Ministers (UNECA, Addis Ababa, 2004) agreed that in order to reach MDG 6 and ICPD targets on reducing maternal mortality and morbidity, governments especially parliaments, NGOs and the private sector must provide accessible sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls in accordance with the legislation in force in each country.

Preventive interventions to curb the spread of malaria, cardiovascular diseases, cancers that affect women, as well as HIV/AIDS and TB particularly among women and girls, should be supported. In addition, processes and programmes to achieve the MDG target of reducing child mortality should also be engendered (UNECA, 2004: para 28).

A General Situational Analysis of Women's Health in Africa

The ICPD +15 regional review of Africa (ECA, 2009 a.) reveals that inadequacies in access to reproductive health services in Africa is an issue serving as a major threat to women's health. Among the major regions of the world, Africa has the highest records of maternal mortality. Globally, in 2003, there were 529,000 maternal deaths per year, 48 per cent of which occurred in Africa (WHO, UNICEF, and UNFPA, 2003).

For each maternal death, it is estimated that 30 to 50 morbidities develop, including temporary and chronic conditions (UNFPA, 2004). In the developed regions of the world, the maternal mortality rate was as low as 20 per 100,000 live births; but in Sub-Saharan Africa, the ratio was 920. More recent estimates of

maternal mortality ratios indicate that the condition might be deteriorating in quite a number of African countries. A number of African countries have maternal mortality ratios in excess of 1,500 per 100,000 live births (Angola, Sierra Leone, Malawi, Niger and United Republic of Tanzania). The worst case is the record of 2,000 by Sierra Leone, not surprising given the generally high level of maternal mortality in West Africa. Most of the countries in the lower portion of the distribution are Southern and Northern African countries with maternal mortality ratios under 100 per 100,000 live births (Libya, Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco, South Africa, Namibia and Botswana).

Of concern in some countries is the reported fluctuating trends in maternal mortality ratios; for instance, in Namibia, where the ratio seems to be rising, from 227 in 1992 to 271 in 2000 and to 449 in 2006. South Africa's maternal mortality also increased for a while from 64 in 1999 to 78 in 2001, but dropped to 73.1 in 2002. Similarly, Ghana's maternal mortality declined from 250 in 1999 to 186 in 2006 but increased again to 230 in 2007. Perhaps one of the most dramatic increases yet recorded is that of Sudan, from 509 in 1999 to 1,107 in 2007.

Both Mauritius and Seychelles (see Box 3.7) report very low levels of maternal mortality, justifiably so given their strong health infrastructure and management capacity. As a case example, the experience of Seychelles indicates that it is possible to reduce maternal mortality in Africa. ICPD +15 data show clearly that for many countries, only a small but increasing proportion of babies born are delivered in health facilities or with the assistance of skilled health personnel. In Ethiopia, only 5.6 per cent of deliveries in 2000 had the assistance of skilled health personnel, and in 2005 it increased slightly to 6.0 per cent.

Based on the latest records reported, African countries with lower than 50 per cent of skilled health personnel-assisted deliveries include Niger (20 per cent in 2007), Burundi (31.4 per cent in 2007), Ghana (49.7 per cent in 2007), Sudan (49.2 per cent in 2007), Tanzania (43.0 per cent in 2004) and Kenya (42.0 per cent in 2003).⁸

Box 3.7: Low Maternal Mortality Ratio: From Words to Action in Seychelles

"Noticeable progress has been made in increasing life expectancy and reducing maternal mortality ratios. With almost all pregnancies and births handled by trained personnel, mortality rates are low compared to other developing countries. Seychelles has maintained a low maternal morbidity and mortality rate over the past ten years. Five maternal deaths were recorded between 1992 and 2004 and none for the last two years. All deaths were due to direct obstetric causes".

Source: Seychelles. 2008. ICPD + 15 Country Report

Quite a number of African countries have shown appreciable increases in the proportion of women with access to skilled health personnel at the time of delivery, including: Morocco (from 31 per cent in 1999 to 59.4 per cent in 2003), Egypt (from 60.9 per cent in 2000 to 78.9 per cent in 2008), Senegal (from 49.0 per cent in 1999 to 51.9 per cent in 2007), Swaziland (From 49.0 per cent in 1999 to 74.1 per cent in 2007), Sao Tome (from 52.0 per cent in 1999 to 94.6 per cent in 2007), and Mauritania (from 56.9 per cent in 2000 to 75.4 per cent in 2008).

The ICPD +15 country report for Malawi indicates that there is inadequate accessibility by community to MNH services due to distance, cultural practices and transport; and for that country, the proportion of

⁸ The list could have been much longer but many countries did not provide information on the subject.

births attended by skilled health personnel is shown to have declined from 55.6 per cent in 2000 to 54.0 per cent in 2006. In a few countries, skilled attendance at deliveries is near universal, namely, in Mauritius (95.0 per cent in 2007), and in Sao Tome (94.6 per cent in 2007). In Seychelles, most deliveries are conducted in hospitals and 100 per cent of births are attended by health care professionals.

In addition, post-natal care is extremely low in most SSA countries. Complications arising from unsafe abortions also contribute significantly to maternal mortality on the continent, but hard data are difficult to find. In addition, poverty reduces access to and balanced nutrition, a factor that is critical to the health and the survival of the child. Effective family planning programmes could go a long way in reducing fertility and thereby reducing the risk of high overall maternal mortality in the population. In addition, the widespread practice of FGM in many African countries also has negative effects on the health of women.

UNAIDS (2008) has observed that the HIV/AIDS pandemic in sub-Saharan Africa appears to have stabilized, although mostly at very high levels, particularly in Southern Africa. In a growing number of countries, adult HIV prevalence appears to be falling (Botswana, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia) although it is rising in Lesotho and Mozambique.

For the region as a whole, women are disproportionately affected in comparison with men, with especially stark differences between the sexes in HIV prevalence among young people⁹. This assertion is echoed in the 2009 MDGs Progress Report on Africa which notes that women and girls aged between 15-49 account for 60 per cent of prevalence and new infections, reinforcing the gender dimension of HIV and AIDS, together with its other social and economic impacts¹⁰.

In the Southern African region for instance, girls are 2 to 4.5 times more likely to become infected with HIV than boys. Southern African accounts for just over 40 per cent of the world's HIV-positive women, The proportion of women and young girls living with the virus in these countries is growing.

9 <http://www.unaids.org/en/CountryResponses/Regions/SubSaharanAfrica.asp>

10 Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

Figure: 2.2: Map of Southern Africa



Source: SADC, 2010

The overall maternal situation is worsening in Africa due to low proportions of deliveries assisted by skilled health personnel, high prevalence of HIV/AIDS and shortage of skilled personnel.

Highlights of Achievements

Reproductive Health and Rights Initiatives

Twenty-four (24) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have designed and are implementing and monitoring gender-sensitive health programmes, including affordable sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls, with increased resources for women's health. In all of these countries, health programmes have been designed to include sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls and increased resources for women's health. Such programmes include sexual and reproductive health issues such as maternal health and safe motherhood, and pre- and post- natal care.

Botswana has a policy of involving males in sexual and reproductive health interventions whilst Ghana extends family planning services and reproductive health education to all community hospitals. Mali, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Mauritania, Comoros, Gambia, Mozambique, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone and Uganda have formulated national strategic plans and established directorates on sexual and reproductive health education. Twenty five (25) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire Djibouti, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe

are taking measures to reduce maternal morbidity and mortality. They specifically deal with health impacts of unsafe abortions and ensure that girls have continuing access to necessary health and nutrition information and services. They have also addressed HTPs that damage women and girls' health, including FGM.

Malawi has recorded a downward trend in maternal, infant and child mortality rates. Tanzania provides pregnant women and children under five with treated mosquito nets, in addition to providing free maternal and child health services, as are also provided in Mauritius. Burkina Faso adopted a national maternal Strategic Plan in 2004 aimed at reducing maternal mortality. Namibia provides adolescent-friendly health services in addition to conducting gender and reproductive health workshops. Cote d'Ivoire rehabilitated its structures to offer emergency obstetric care, and equipped 135 medical structures with reproductive health facilities. Since 2006, Lesotho has been providing training and free services to survivors of sexual abuse by collaborating with doctors and magistrates.

Botswana, Ghana, Mozambique, Rwanda, and Sierra Leone have introduced various programmes to ensure safe motherhood following hospital maternal mortality audits. They have also introduced effective sexual reproductive health education and designed strategies for the reduction of maternal deaths. Furthermore, Cape Verde, Comoros, Eritrea, Lesotho, Mali, Namibia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe are also enforcing sexual offences legislation, while at the same time conducting research into HTPs and providing emergency obstetric care services and training to nurses and midwives.

Coordinating their national efforts, countries are working on improving provision of infrastructure such as health centres and hospitals in addition to specialized institutions such as ministries, directorates and departments, resulting in improved provision of affordable sexual and reproductive health care services. In Algeria, the maternal mortality rate decreased from 96.5 /100000 live births in 2005 to 86.9 in 2007; the follow-up care of pregnancies attained 89.4 per cent in 2006 ; deliveries by skilled attendants was 96.5 per cent by 2006 and 62.5 per cent of women use contraceptives.

Since 2005, Malawi has also been experiencing downward trends in maternal, infant and child mortality rates, as well as increases in life expectancy. Cape Verde and Republic of Congo report reduced infant mortality and fertility rates and increased use of contraceptives. Fertility rates in Cape Verde have decreased from 4 children per woman to nearly 3 while Mali's demographic growth is reported to be at 3 per cent. Population growth rate in Mauritius has declined from 3.1 per cent in the 1960s to less than 1 per cent at present. Significant improvements have been registered in sexual and reproductive health services where male participation is evident in some countries (e.g. Botswana and United Republic of Tanzania) and sexual and reproductive health programmes have been expanded to include men's responsibility for their own reproductive health as well as that of their partners. In the Comoros and Côte d'Ivoire, a number of new projects are supporting the prevention of GBV.

The data reveals that most countries are taking steps to reduce the impacts of unsafe abortions, while ensuring that girls have continued access to necessary health and nutrition information and services. They also address HTPs committed against women and girls' including practices such as FGM.

Maternal health and safe motherhood, pre- and post- natal follow-up care as well as neonatal care are among priority areas in many countries such as Algeria, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Comoros, Egypt, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, and Mozambique, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia. Burundi has instituted fee exemptions for mothers, contributing to the reduction of maternal mortality. The proportion of deliveries at home is declining in countries such as Libya and Tunisia, while the provision of family planning products has also increased, thereby reducing the numbers of unplanned pregnancies, maternal mortality and neonatal deaths.

The data reveal that all countries have put the required mechanisms in place to monitor delivery of the various health initiatives such as trainings, social protection measures such as the free provision of ARVs and nutrition supplements, and the establishment of information management systems.

Management of Other Diseases

Internationally agreed development goals such as the MDGs, Maputo Plan of Action and BPfA have induced support for interventions aimed at curbing the spread of malaria, cardiovascular diseases, STIs and cancers that affect women. As such, 23 countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania,, Zambia and Zimbabwe) support interventions to curb the spread of malaria, cardiovascular diseases, STIs and cancers that affect women, including the provision of free and subsidized reproductive health care services. In addition, 11 countries report of Medical School mandatory courses in areas affecting women's health. The countries concerned are Chad, Gabon, Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania.

Cote d'Ivoire reports that screening for breast and cervical cancer is provided by the State, while other countries such as Ghana have set up special committees to oversee the treatment of cancers (e.g. cervical, breast and prostate). Guinea is also deploying efforts to fight against gynaecologic cancers and has adopted guidelines and standards similar to Lesotho's, where girls aged 9 to 18 years are being vaccinated against cervical cancer.

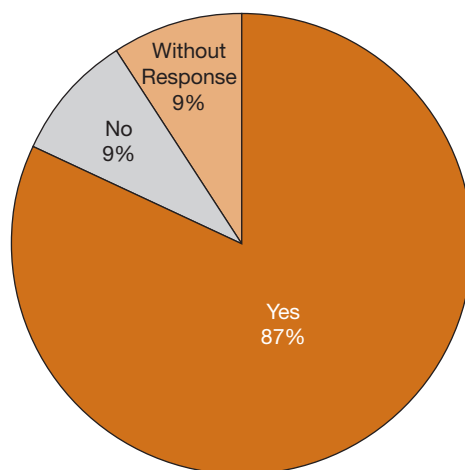
Malaria has already been eradicated in some countries such as Algeria, Libya and Tunisia. Where it exists, the disease is being addressed through national coordinated efforts. Improvements in treatment and prevention are evident in Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Gambia, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Togo, Sierra Leone, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania, with a specific focus on pregnant women and children under 5 years old.

Information, Education and Communication (IEC) campaigns and advocacy to combat unsafe abortions and pregnancies are being carried out in Cape Verde, Comoros, Mauritius, Nigeria and Republic of Congo. This is being complimented by counselling services to mothers, girls and youth. Training of midwives and knowledge and skills upgrading are also continuing in most countries.

Combating and Reversing HIV/AIDS

Twenty two (22) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros Cote d’Ivoire, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe have institutional, legal and policy (one or more) frameworks to address HIV/AIDS (Figure 3.1).

Figure 2.3: Legal frameworks to address the vulnerability of girls and women



Sources: Country data

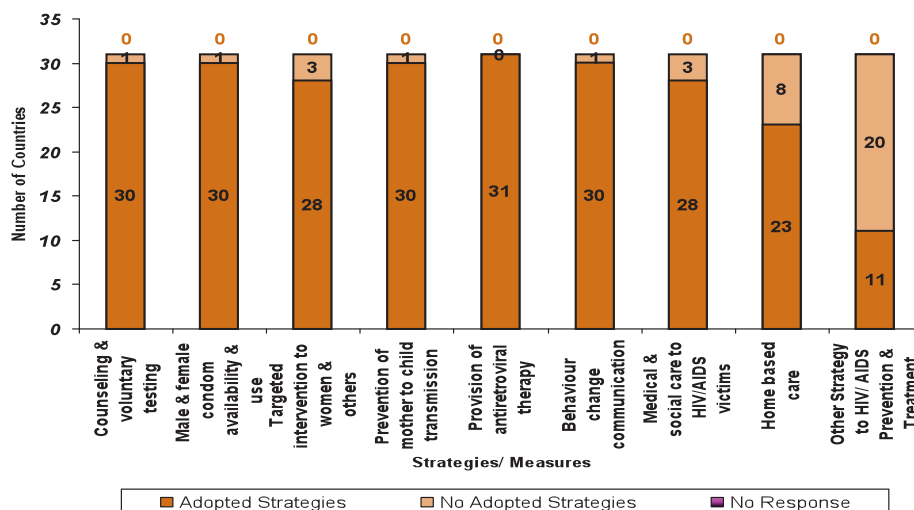
The 2008 Domestic Violence Act of Botswana contains provisions which protect women and girls from the effects of HIV-related crimes. Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire and Niger have also adopted laws to protect PLWA, taking into consideration the vulnerability of women and girls. Counselling and voluntary testing are available in 24 countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, ,Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Botswana, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania have plans in place to address the gender dimensions of HIV/AIDS. Countries also cooperate with international institutions and development partners in their national responses. They actively engage in awareness creation to prevent stigmatization and discrimination, in addition to the importance of prevention. Male and female condom availability and use are noted in 22 countries (Botswana, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

In Cape Verde, condom distribution points have been expanded. By 2005, more than 71 per cent of the population aged 15 to 49 years declared use of a condom with a non-regular partner. Botswana, Uganda and Zimbabwe dispense female condoms free of charge. Zambia reports that female condoms are inaccessible to poor women due to lack of affordability.

Figure 2.4 below highlights the major HIV/AIDS interventions in responding countries.

Figure 2.4: Total Number of Countries that Adopted Recent Strategies or Measures as Part of the Country’s HIV/ AIDS



Sources: Country data

Targeted Programmes and Other Initiatives

A substantial number of countries have designed and are implementing programmes in favour of vulnerable groups such as children and PLWA. In some (e.g. (Botswana, Côte d’Ivoire and Malawi) programmes targeting orphans tend to receive significant attention. Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire and Niger have adopted laws for the protection of PLWA, while Cape Verde, Ethiopia, Namibia and Sierra Leone have reviewed national laws to ensure equal access to services, care and treatment to all vulnerable groups.

In Algeria, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Chad, Burundi, Gambia, Guinea, Côte d’Ivoire, Malawi, Mauritania, Mali, Mauritius, Niger, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe counselling and voluntary testing are being undertaken through centres, departments and mobile clinics. In Namibia approximately 62 per cent of women and 61 per cent of men seek counselling and treatment for STIs at private and public facilities.

By way of mitigating the social burden of HIV/AIDS victims on families, the Governments of Botswana, Gambia, Guinea, Mali and Zimbabwe support Home-Based Care (HBC) programmes, while in Burundi, Kenya and Uganda home visits are made by NGOs, in some cases with government support. In Algeria, Burundi, Mauritania, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania assistance is provided to PLWA and their families in the form of medical, material, psychological and social care. In Lesotho, the ‘Flying Doctors - Partners in Health’ render services in rural areas, targeting groups such as herd boys. Namibia trains its youth as peer educators and condom use promoters, resulting in an estimated 64 per cent of the 15-19 age group using condoms at first sexual intercourse.

All available means of communication and mass media are currently being deployed to popularize and disseminate the slogan: “*Abstain, Be faithful and Use Condom (ABC)*” to countries. Efforts made to reduce child marriage, human trafficking, and sex abuse are also one of the cornerstones to attain expected results.

Training of Health Personnel

Some countries are finding innovative means to address the shortage of health personnel in their respective countries. In response to the shortage of medical personnel, three African countries, namely Malawi, Mozambique and United Republic of Tanzania, have initiated a capacity enhancement programme involving the use of Non-Physician Clinicians (NPCs). These are health personnel who are trained to engage in health procedures (e.g. caesarean sections) which would normally be carried out by a qualified doctor. An evaluation of the programme has demonstrated its cost effectiveness, sustainability and potential for increasing maternal health services to women, as such personnel tend to remain in their rural locations (Bergström, S. 2009).

Mandatory courses related to women’s health are a major cornerstone of health delivery. In Angola, Chad, Gabon, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Zambia, and United Republic of Tanzania gender equality issues are integrated in medical school curricula. In Lesotho for instance, general nursing and midwifery programmes have been specifically reviewed for purposes of integrating gender-related issues. In a similar breadth, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, and Uganda are intensifying efforts at mainstreaming gender and rights-based approaches in the provision of health services.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. Despite commitment to health and target-specific action on reproductive health, maternal mortality in Africa remains the highest in the world. This is linked to the high and persistent brain drain burden which is affecting the ability of African countries to provide quality health care;
- b. Poverty is negatively affecting progress in empowerment women economically, socially and politically. High levels of poverty coupled with low levels of education contribute to limited capacity of women to access quality health care, including sexual and reproductive health and HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention; and
- c. Socio-cultural resistance to change and to the participation of women and the persistence of cultural dispositions including stereotypical attitudes and pressures on women also jeopardize progress towards equality and responding to the threat of HIV/AIDS.

Recommended Actions

- a. Develop strategies to address current high levels of maternal mortality through improved equity in access and service delivery especially with respect to emergency obstetric care;

- b. In line with the Maputo Plan of Action, compile and disseminate data on the magnitude and consequences of unsafe abortions, enact and disseminate policies and laws to protect women and adolescents; and provide clear instructions, guidelines and appropriate training to service providers in the provision of comprehensive abortion care services;
- c. Scale-up behaviour change communication strategies across different target groups (children, adolescents and adults), through means such as peer education and community sensitization;
- d. Prepare forward-looking national action plans for continued ART services and ensure that such interventions are effectively targeted and integrate HIV/AIDS concerns into all reproductive health programmes, with a view to taking account of the gender dimensions of the pandemic, such as the need to increase the use of contraceptives among both sexes;
- e. Strengthen the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV/AIDS within the framework of maternal and child health care programmes;
- f. Address health financing as an important catalyst of MDG short, medium and long term implementation within the context of the Maputo Plan of Action and ICPD +15 outcomes. In line with the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005), align financial and technical assistance and cooperation plans with national and regional needs and priorities for implementation of health priorities; and
- g. Address the impact that the shortage of medical staff is having on African health delivery systems, especially at the rural level. In the light of high attrition rates among medical personnel, countries are to develop effective strategies of retention in addition to considering the training and deployment of NPCs.

Area of Concern 4: Violence Against Women

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA regards VAW as an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace, violating, impairing or nullifying the enjoyment by women of their human rights and fundamental freedoms. 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.

The low social and economic status of women can be both a cause and a consequence of VAW. Violence is exacerbated by social pressures, notably the shame of denouncing certain acts that have been perpetrated against women; women's lack of access to legal information, aid or protection; the lack of laws that effectively prohibit VAW; failure to reform existing laws; inadequate efforts on the part of public authorities to promote awareness of and to enforce existing laws; and the absence of educational and other means to address the causes and consequences of violence.

Among other measures, governments are required to: enact and/or reinforce penal, civil, labour and administrative sanctions in domestic legislation to punish and redress the wrongs done to women and girls who are subjected to any form of violence, whether in the home, the workplace, the community or society; provide women who are subjected to violence with access to the mechanisms

of justice and, as provided for by national legislation, to just and effective remedies for the harm they have suffered ; inform women of their rights to seeking redress through such mechanisms; and create, improve, develop as appropriate and fund the training programmes for judicial, legal, medical, social, educational, police and immigrant personnel, in order to avoid the abuse of power leading to VAW.

The 2004 review of the Conference of Ministers also made reference to VAW in conflict situations, urging governments to put functional mechanisms and intervention programmes in place, for the protection of women and girls in refugee and displaced situations. In addition, humanitarian interventions must pay attention to the health needs, especially reproductive and sexual health, of women and girls in conflict, refugee, and IDP situations (UNECA, 2004; para 32).

A Situational Analysis of Women as Victims of Violence

Violence Against Women remains a persisting problem in Africa (Box 3.8). Occurrences of domestic violence, sexual abuse, trafficking in women and children and HTPs are common in the majority of countries. The ICPD regional review (ECA, 2009 a.) revealed that marked by different causes and patterns, violence is rooted in unequal power relations between women and men and tends to be accentuated by customary norms and practices. Armed conflict was cited by Central African Republic, Republic of Congo and Sierra Leone as a major factor aggravating the occurrence of violence, including sexual violence against women and girls.

Acts of violence bear some common dimensions such as the lack of willingness of victims and their families to report; limited capacity of law enforcement agencies to deal with these issues as crimes; and lack of awareness of the rights and obligations afforded under the law, among the general population.

All countries recognize domestic violence as a continuing violation of women's rights. The reports of Benin, Burkina Faso and Cameroon cite the persistency of expectations of women's docility, submissiveness and silence towards men, especially at the domestic level, as conducive to domestic violence. Limited economic autonomy among women tends to deprive them with opportunities for opting out of violent relationships. Women are also handicapped by inadequate coordinated support systems and the fear and stigma associated with reporting.

Box 3.8: Some Harmful Practices Existing in Benin

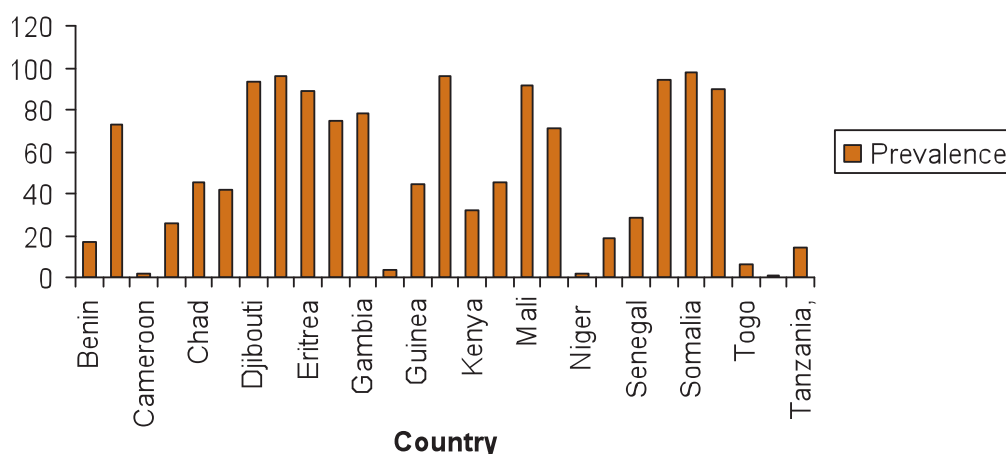
In Benin sexual violence, economic exploitation, forced marriage, degrading widowhood practices, and FGM are the most familiar practices based on custom and perpetuated by tradition. Abductions, bartering girls, early marriage, as well as other similar forms of marriage, are practiced without the use of violence among some ethnic groups such as the Adja, Toffin, Otamari, Berba and Gnindé.

These practices, where they persist, constitute a major obstacle to girls' school attendance. Even where the parents are willing to send their daughters to school, the latter could be withdrawn from school system at any moment to join a husband chosen for her. A father who has already received bride price perpetually lives in fear of his daughter escaping to marry the man of her own choice.

Source: Benin State Party Report to CEDAW, 2002. Paras. 5.1 and 5.3

The persistency of HTPs remains a major obstacle to women’s advancement in Africa. Results from the 2008 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) of Egypt show that the practice of female circumcision is virtually universal among women of reproductive age (15–49 years) and that the country has a prevalence rate of 95.8 per cent. This is comparable to other African countries, e.g. Burkina Faso (72.5 per cent), Djibouti (93.1 per cent), Eritrea (88.7 per cent), Ethiopia (74.3 per cent), Gambia (78.3 per cent), Guinea (95.6 per cent), Mali (91.6 per cent), Mauritania (71.3 per cent), Sierra Leone (94 per cent), Somalia (97.9 per cent), and Sudan (90.0 per cent).¹¹

Figure 3.3: FGM Prevalence Rate



The review outcomes show that generally, laws are not given full meaning due to the lack of effective planning for sustained interventions, especially for victims. In addition, limited financial and human resource allocation and inadequate monitoring and evaluation systems tend to hamper effective implementation of laws on HTPs.

Highlights of Achievements

Enactment of Legislation Combating Various Forms of Violence

An estimated 14 African countries (Botswana, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Uganda and Zimbabwe) are either in the process or have completed law reform processes to address domestic violence. Malawi introduced its Domestic Violence Act in 2008, providing for protection orders for the safety of victims and survivors of domestic violence. The importance of enacting specific legislation dealing with issues of domestic violence is underscored by the experience of those without such measures in place, their concern being that general penal legislation is incapable of responding to the multifaceted issues associated with gender-based crimes.

In the short term therefore, countries that have not succeeded in enacting specific domestic violence laws have reformed existing law as an interim response. For example, in 2004, Ethiopia amended its general Penal Code to include a specific provision on domestic violence. Ghana, Uganda and

¹¹ These data were obtained from: *Eliminating Female Genital Mutilation. An Interagency Statement* (WHO, 2008). Figures for Sudan relate only to the northern part of the country.

South Africa have also enacted legislation to combat human trafficking. In addition to the penal codes that criminalize sex trafficking, many countries ratified or signed the UN Convention against Transitional Organized Crime and its three protocols, as well as the UN Convention against Human Trafficking e.g. Algeria and Namibia.

Egypt notes that it is a transit country for subjects of African and Southeast Asian countries, the former Soviet Republics, and Eastern European countries and that the majority of trafficking victims are women. It is making efforts to counter these practices through tight control of all border crossings and other routes (such as the Suez Canal), the creation of a specialized anti-trafficking police agency, and cooperation with border countries, Interpol and tourist agencies to exchange information and effect action.

Box 3.9: Case Studies on How Rape is being addressed in Selected Countries

The penal provisions of Ethiopia currently carry a penalty of imprisonment of between 5-20 years for the offence of rape. Before their revision, there existed a situation whereby when a marriage was concluded between a rapist and the victim, the former would not be charged under the law. Under the revised law, marriage can still be concluded if the essential ingredients of a marriage, such as age and consent, are met. However, in this instance, the criminal charge against the perpetrator will not be dropped.

In Mozambique, intra-family rape is said to be very common but is nevertheless a taboo subject hardly reported. Hospital gynaecologists have treated numerous cases of incest and rape of young girls by male relatives, often without the parent's knowledge. However, no research has been done to assess the extent of the problem.

Egypt notes that rape is a controversial issue, due to prevailing cultural taboos. However, the Association for the Development and Enhancement of Women has set up the House of Eve Shelter Programme which is open to all women and children, as well as offers housing, counselling and life skills.

The South Africa Department of Justice has elaborated a comprehensive framework of commitments in its 'Justice Vision 2000'. This includes review of the substantive and evidentiary laws of rape and the legal procedures, as well as provides services to victims. The framework sees the needs of vulnerable groups as central. To this end, the Department has established a Specialized Sexual Offences Court.

Source: African Women's Report, 2009

South Africa has strengthened measures aimed at combating trafficking in women and children through a three-pronged strategic response involving the strengthening of international relations, especially with neighbouring countries, and the prosecution of traffickers using existing legal provisions and administrative mechanisms, including asset forfeiture and law reform aimed at creating an integrated and holistic legal framework that facilitates the fight against trafficking.

To combat various forms of exploitation of children, Ghana has domesticated the provisions of the CRC and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child through its Children's Act of 1998 (Act 560) and the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act of 1998 (Act 554). Tunisia notes that there are specific laws "related to the involvement of children in armed conflict, and the use of children in trafficking, prostitution, and pornography". The Children's Act, 2005 (Act 38 of 2005) of South Africa repeals that of Act 33 of 1960, providing greater protection of the rights of children. It has also creates a National Child Protection Register, which is a data base of occurrences of abuse and deliberate neglect of individual children and of the interventions made on their behalf (see Box 3.10 for more examples).

Penal legislation to address various forms of sexual offences is also in place in a substantial number of countries (e.g. Burkina Faso, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania and Tunisia). Of these, Madagascar and South Africa include marital rape in their definition of rape.¹² Tanzania has enacted a Sexual Offences (Special Provisions) Act of 1998 to deal with acts of violence against women and children.

3.10: Case Studies on Child Protection Legislation

The Sexual Offences Law of 1998 in *Tanzania* does not contain clauses on pornography and sexual exploitation. There is presently no government policy concerned with trafficking of children and sexual slavery. Civil society groups concerned with violations of the rights of children are confronted with such great distrust and hostility that they cannot effectively act in most child exploitation situations. *Madagascar* has strict laws in place to protect girls from sexual violence and against pornography in general.

Yet, the effect of these laws is minimal, as law enforcers either turn a blind eye to violations of children's rights or do not regard them as a priority. In addition to numerous laws created to protect the child, *Tunisia* has instituted two institutional mechanisms to protect children in all 24 governorates: special budgets for officers in charge of protecting children, and an Observatory for information, training, documentation and research.

Source: African Women's Report, 2009

Sexual harassment is penalized in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, South Africa and Tunisia. South Africa has various laws in place to protect workers and apprentices from sexual harassment. These include the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the Employment of Educators Act 53 of 1998 and various guidelines and codes of good practices. The Employment Act (Act 6), 2006 of Uganda is also explicit on sexual harassment in the work place, while the Public Service Code of Conduct provides guidelines on how to address the issue in Public Office.

In the absence of distinct provisions on sexual harassment in the legal framework of Ethiopia, the provisions of the Penal Code are inadequate to prohibit sexual advances and sexual exploitation of categories of persons such as employees. Recent decrees such as the Civil Service Proclamation of 2002, and the Labour Proclamation revised in 2003 fails to take the issue into account. The Government of Ghana has however mandated all workplaces, educational institutions and other bodies to develop codes of conduct on the prevention of sexual harassment.

Twenty five (25) countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Togo and United Republic of Tanzania) have also enacted legislation to combat FGM/C. The United Republic of Tanzania has a National Plan of Action (NPA) to combat FGM/C (2001 to 2015) and to provide guidance on the elimination of FGM. The 1st of February of each year is a national FGM/C day, used to sensitize the community on its harmful effects. In implementing the NPA on FGM/C, various activities have been undertaken which include: training of school teachers to integrate the knowledge in school curricula; sensitization of communities through campaigns, media programmes, seminars, workshops, drama, books, and leaflets on the harmful effects.

¹² Ghana has also included marital rape through a separate judicial reform process.

Institutional Arrangements and Facilities for Victims

Law enforcement agencies (police, immigration, social welfare departments, customs and the courts), and national machineries for women constitute the main institutional arrangement for the combating and treatment of violence in countries. Only a few countries (Ghana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia (Box 3.11), South Africa, Swaziland and United Republic of Tanzania) have created specialized institutions to ensure that victims of abuse receive holistic services. These countries have consequently experienced yearly increases in reporting due to improved information dissemination, justice delivery and the creation of specialized institutions to deal with situations of violence. Swaziland has invested in: child-friendly corners in police stations and private interviewing rooms for survivors of human rights and assault violations; a Children's Court in the High Court of Swaziland; the use of intermediaries in courts; and the Royal Swaziland Police Gender Network in the Police Force.

The specialized institutional services in Mozambique afford opportunities for women victims of VAW to receive information on their rights. Other services include counselling, legal, medical and psychosocial assistance. In Lesotho, a national coordination mechanism for national response to violence prevention and management has been established. It revolves around three levels of implementation: thematic groups, technical groups and the District Gender Based Violence Committee (made up of the Community and the Village Gender Based Violence Committees).

Box 3.11: The Creation of a Women and Children's Specialized Unit in Namibia

Women and Child Protection Units (previously known as Women and Child Abuse Centres) were established to provide temporary safety shelters, counselling services and legal advice for abused women and children. In 2004, 15 Units were established to deal with issues of domestic violence and abuse in all 13 regions. These units handle and investigate cases relating to rape, attempted rape, incest, indecent assault, sodomy, abduction and physical abuse of women and children. The WCPU is steered by a Committee consisting of government, NGOs and CBOs, women organizations and the human rights organizations that offer services ranging from counselling, shelter, health, law enforcement, education and training. Most of the Units are situated close to hospitals and/or clinics in order to ensure that access to such facilities are available to victims of violence. The Units are multi-disciplined in that they are run by the police, social workers and medical doctors. The victim of domestic violence, after being counselled by the social worker, can then lodge a case with the police. All the members of the Unit are especially trained to deal with cases of domestic violence. The medical doctor is on a call roster for the Unit to attend to the victims readily.

Source: Compendium of Best Practices, ECA, 2009

As noted by the BPfA, shelters are also important instruments for the protection of survivors of violence. Some countries (e.g. Algeria, Botswana, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda and Zimbabwe) have acted jointly with NGOs to open shelters and have further allocated regular budgets for them to operate.

Sensitization, Training and Research

A number of countries (e.g. Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Mauritius, Rwanda, and Zambia) have national plans and programmes in place to build the capacity of law enforcement agencies. All responding countries indicate that they have invested in public awareness and sensitization programmes to breaking the wall of silence surrounding VAW. This is helping to enlightening society to view it as a social problem. All countries engage in VAW sensitization activities and campaigns through such channels as television and radio.

In some countries such as Chad, Ghana, Namibia, Republic of Congo and Tunisia, research results on various exploitation issues such as trafficking and prostitution have been used for interventions. In Namibia and the Republic of Congo, risk zones have been mapped out for purposes of tracking perpetrators and protecting victims. In Zimbabwe, the *Red Light Campaign*, sponsored by Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) Zimbabwe branch, has contributed to reducing the potential risks raised by the 2010 World Cup, in terms of potential increases in exploitative sex work and trafficking of women.

Similarly, Zero Tolerance Clubs have been established in Mauritius with the aim of empowering communities to act as watchdogs against violence. To date, five Zero Tolerance Clubs have been set up and monthly activities are organized to sensitize the public at large on issues related to domestic violence.

The Involvement of Men and Boys

An estimated 20 countries have taken initiatives to involve men and boys in efforts to combat domestic violence. In Uganda, men's groups have been incorporated into project activities to prevent VAW and so far a total of 900 men have been mobilized to form male action groups. With assistance from UNIFEM, several countries (e.g. Cameroon, Gambia, Ghana, Namibia, Rwanda, Lesotho, Nigeria, South Africa), have undertaken training and capacity building in the field of gender equality and women's advancement for agencies with a high male labour force.¹³

The security forces (especially the police force) of various African countries, have benefited immensely from a range of training and sensitization in issues of violence against children and women. In some countries, such as Ghana and Nigeria, training sessions have involved personnel of the highest level, including heads of the police force. There are ongoing initiatives to involve men and boys in combating violence and in sexual and reproductive health. Representing Southern, East and Central Africa, the Sonke Gender Justice Network works with men, women, youth and children to achieve gender equality, prevent GBV and reduce the spread of HIV and the impact of AIDS.

In Rwanda, HIV voluntary testing includes men, which impacts on women's health in general and reproductive health in particular has positively marked a great change in sexual behaviours. Another HIV testing involves pregnant women and their husbands. This is a government strategy to help couples know their status. Male involvement rates in PMTCT has gradually increased over

¹³ Such interventions do not condone the lack of equal gender representation in these organizations. On the contrary, they seek to reinforce the need to take every opportunity available to sensitize men on concerns affecting the sexes.

the years from 26% in 2004 to 78% in 2008 of the partners who undergone HIV testing during ANC with their wife. World AIDS Day campaigns place enormous emphasis on couple testing and in 2008 therefore, a total number of 75,000 couples voluntarily tested for HIV. The 2009 WAD campaign aimed at breaking silence on condom use with an emphasis to increase availability and access to female condoms in order to empower the women decision on safe sex. Another strategy for women's health improvement in which men and boys are involved is community works called "UMUGANDA". This has contributed to a decrease of malaria prevalence through removing bushes near dwelling places.

The *One Man Can Campaign* is Sonke's flagship project and is aimed at supporting men and boys to take action to end domestic and sexual violence and to promote healthy, equitable relationships.¹⁴ Among other things, the campaign **encourages men to work together** with other men and with women to take action. With the aid of a special tool kit,¹⁵ the organization seeks to forge a movement, to demand justice, claim rights and change society. Additionally, the *Stepping Stones Project* in South Africa, which uses participatory learning to build more gender-equitable relationships between men and women, found that both men and women reported increased condom use, less substance abuse and greater communications among couples.¹⁶

Protection Afforded to Women with Disabilities

A total of 21 African countries (**Algeria, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Gabon, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Morocco, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Africa, Sudan, Tunisia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia**) have ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons Living with Disabilities, while Gabon is the only country to date to have ratified its Optional Protocol.

Interventions in favour of women with disabilities have included: Law Reform in favour of persons with disabilities (e.g. Chad and Ghana), NGO counselling support centres in Algeria, Angola, Ghana, Namibia and South Africa; the creation of special councils in Egypt and Libya; the creation of a specific ministry in Malawi and a directorate in Togo. These bodies are charged with delivering information and leadership of efforts in sensitizing women with disabilities about VAW issues.

Data Collection and Research

Surveys and studies have been conducted in many countries (e.g. Algeria, Burkina Faso, Botswana, Cape Verde, Congo, Gambia, Egypt, Ghana, Cote d'Ivoire, Mauritius, Morocco, Niger, Rwanda, and Tunisia), providing information and data to reinforce advocacy efforts and policy-making and planning. Specialized centres of studies on the issue have been created in Angola and Egypt. Namibia established a national VAW database system in 2006, with financial assistance from UNDP. The system, which can also be used for interpretation, analysis, running tables and graphs, is now being

14 <http://toolkit.endabuse.org/BuildPartnerships.html> and <http://www.genderjustice.org.za/onemancan/> for more information.

15 Tool kits consist of stickers, music, clothing, video clips, posters and fact sheets.

16 ICRW (2007). *Engaging Men and Boys: How Can We Build on What We Have Learned?* P. 1.

modernized to strengthen the efforts of the Ministry of Gender and its stakeholders in combating VAW.

Involvement of the Media

There are signs of increased interest of the media in efforts to combat VAW and the fight against gender stereotyping. In Algeria, Burkina Faso, Gabon, Ghana, Nigeria and Uganda, the media has been active in creating awareness on VAW national strategies and legislation. Such interventions have generally been preceded by capacity building programmes for journalists in the fields of gender and human rights.

Angola has established a Women Journalists' Nucleus against VAW and Gender Focal Persons have been located in some media houses in Botswana. Training of media professionals to promote gender equality has also been carried out in Cote d'Ivoire, Namibia and Swaziland. Communication strategies have been developed in Djibouti and Gambia to combat various forms of VAW, such as FGM, while media campaigns on the same issue have been held in Comoros, Egypt, Ghana, Morocco, Uganda, and Zimbabwe. Efforts on this issue, however, seem to gain momentum and feature more prominently in the media, during the 16 days of activism on VAW.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. In most countries, domestic violence is still regarded by society as a whole, as well as by enforcement agencies, as a private concern;
- b. Attitudes of both men and women to the criminality of domestic violence could be impeding prosecution for such acts (Box 3.12).
- c. Implementing institutions lack the requisite financial and human resources, to be able to execute their functions and programmes effectively;
- d. Some issues of violence such as sexual harassment suffer from limited visibility, reporting and prosecution, accentuated by a paucity of related research and data. It is as such rare to find sexual harassment cases that have been prosecuted; and
- e. Countries also lack the requisite data and research to assess the scope and extent of the problem to embark upon effective monitoring.

Box 3.12: Case Studies of Male and Female Views on Wife Beating

The 2006 DHS of Uganda gathered information on male and female attitudes towards wife beating as a proxy for determining male and female perceptions of women's status. Seven in 10 women and six in 10 men agreed that at least one of the reasons which the Uganda DHS listed as a possible justification for wife beating was sufficient cause to do so. The DHS made the important observation that these perceptions could serve as a barrier to health-seeking behaviours among women, affect their attitude towards contraceptive use and negatively impact their general well-being. In Egypt, 39 per cent of women agreed that wife beating would be justified in at least one of the specified circumstances. The reasons women most often agreed justified wife beating were going out without telling their husbands and neglecting children (reported by 32 and 29 per cent of women, respectively).

Sources: Uganda DHS, 2006:250 and Egypt DHS, 2008:43

Recommended Actions

- a. Enhance the capacity of enforcement agencies responsible for the protection of women and children by providing adequate training on existing laws and policies, and equipment and mechanisms for effective record keeping;
- b. Ensure that awareness raising on women's rights includes messages that work to reverse the culture of silence surrounding violence, in addition to its privatization and the impunity with which violence is perpetuated;
- c. Work to sustain successful prosecutions of perpetrators and protection of victims of trafficking;
- d. Document, disseminate information about and replicate best practices taking place in some countries, in the establishment of specialized institutions (e.g. police stations, courts and shelters for victims) for the protection and rehabilitation of victims; and
- e. Ensure that regional, sub-regional and inter-country approaches to trafficking are adopted by countries by advocating for and entering into bilateral and multilateral protocols of cooperation to strengthen and underscore enforcement regimes.

Area of Concern 5: Women and Armed Conflict

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA specifically calls on governments to “increase the participation of women in conflict resolution at decision-making levels and protect women living in situations of armed and other conflicts or under foreign occupation.” The Beijing+10 outcome document recommends that measures which affirm the role and rights of women during the negotiation, transition and reconstruction phases should be upheld. Mechanisms for their implementation and monitoring should also be strengthened at regional and international levels.

In addition, the trauma of rejection of female refugees on account of the consequences of rape and other forms of VAW must be addressed. Support to women in political processes in countries emerging from conflict must be increased to influence conflict prevention, peace building and reconstruction. The BPfA further recommends full implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and the AU Protocol on Women's Rights (UNECA, 2004; para 32).

A General Situational Analysis of Women and Conflict

Responses to questions on this critical area of concern were limited in view of the fact that most countries considered themselves unaffected by conflict. An assessment undertaken in 2007 by ECA in collaboration with the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women (OSAGI) on the national implementation of UNSCR 1325, notes, nevertheless, that the level of awareness of the resolution is still relatively low in Africa and that women largely remain excluded from issues related to peace and security (see Box 3.14).

The chaos and anarchy of open conflict implies that women and girls continue to be vulnerable to attacks, especially to sexual-based violence. Côte d'Ivoire reports that 52 per cent of women have been displaced by war and that of these, 21 per cent are heads of households.

Highlights of Achievements

Participation of Women in Peace and Reconstruction Processes

There has been a significant increase in commitment to implement UNSC Resolution 1325 in the last five years, notably in countries experiencing conflict. Ten (10) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe) are implementing the provisions of Resolution 1325. Three countries (Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia and Uganda) also have Action Plans in place to operationalize the resolution.

Eleven (11) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe) are training women in conflict resolution, reconciliation and tolerance. Nine (9) countries (Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe) also report that they have integrated gender perspectives into all aspects of conflict resolution initiatives. Women have participated in peace processes in Burkina Faso, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Malawi and Mali. In Uganda, women have been included in negotiation teams formed with the aim of ending the 20-year conflict in the northern part of the country. The Democratic Republic of Congo has also included women in mediation structures, while Zimbabwe has included women in peace-keeping missions in Sudan.

In 2005, Burundi introduced a training module on human rights and peaceful resolution of conflicts into its university curriculum. Training of several stakeholders (medical, legal, police and soldiers) has been organized in Cote d'Ivoire, Guinea, Malawi, Niger, Sierra Leone, Togo and Zimbabwe. With support from UNDP, a National Action Plan for the implementation of UNSCR 1325 is in place in Cote d'Ivoire. By 2006, the number of personnel trained was 68 inclusive of 58 women, while in 2007 45 people were trained of which 19 were women.

In Cote d'Ivoire and Republic of Congo, women are participating in sensitization campaigns organized for a culture of peace and tolerance. Since 2006, the Government of Uganda has been in partnership with the UN and other international organizations and local humanitarian agencies to combat violence in conflict situations. This has resulted in gender violence prevention and response interventions in Northern Uganda districts.

In Burundi, demobilized women and girls combatants who participated in the armed conflict have been integrated into the national army and police and their specific needs are taken into consideration (Box 3.13). In Sierra Leone, the country's truth and reconciliation, demobilization and disarmament processes, actively involve women and women's groups.

In Uganda, women negotiators are also represented in peace negotiations and conflict resolution activities and specific recognition is given to women's crucial role in conflict resolution and post-

conflict reconstruction. In 2008, Namibia integrated the UNSCR 1325 into the revised NGP, which has a chapter on Peace Building, Conflict Resolution and Natural Disaster Management.

Box 3.13: Women's Involvement in the Peace Process in Burundi

A breakthrough was reached for the "Group of Associations and Women's NGOs of Burundi", "Women's Network for Peace and Non-Violence" and the "Women's Association for Peace" of Burundi, when UNIFEM and the Mwalimu Nyerere Foundation sponsored the All-Party Burundi Women's Peace Conference, held between 17 and 20 July 2000 in Arusha, Tanzania. As requested, each of the 19 Burundi parties represented at the peace negotiations sent two women delegates: more than 50 Burundi women and observers participated in the event. The women's proposals were presented at a meeting with former South African President Nelson Mandela, the facilitator for the Burundi peace negotiations. All the women's recommendations were accepted by the 19 parties and were integrated into the final document of the peace accord – with the exception of a clause requesting a 30 per cent quota to promote women's representation at all decision-making levels. It took almost four years of persistence for the Burundi women to have their voice heard in the peace process.

Source: Puechgirbal, 2004

Tackling Acts of Violence and Exploitation by Security Personnel

Six (6) countries (Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania) indicate that they investigate and punish police, security and armed forces involved in acts of VAW. In all countries, military courts and regular criminal courts are vested with jurisdiction to deal with such acts. Cote d'Ivoire reports 11, 448 cases of violation of human rights including several cases of rape, assault and kidnapping involving women, which have been dealt with by the Military Court.

Safety and Integrity of Women Refugees

Seven (7) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo and United Republic of Tanzania) have mechanisms in place for the protection, safety and integrity of women refugees. Eight (8) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo and United Republic of Tanzania) train military officials on the human rights of women and on measures to assist women refugees to deal with the trauma of rape and rejection. Chad has initiated a project to assist women victims in conflict zones, while Mali has allocated a budget to benefit women refugees, through the creation of camps for humanitarian assistance and protection. Namibia and Republic of Congo report the presence of police authorities who take sanctions against perpetrators of violence. Special units created in Côte d'Ivoire and Togo support women refugees and IDPs.

Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali, Namibia and Sierra Leone are finalizing their measures. Ghana launched a sensitization programme on peacemaking and conflict prevention and set up a monitoring mechanism and early warning system. In Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo and Republic of Congo, military officials including gendarmerie and national police forces have been trained in human rights including women's rights and gender issues. These topics have been integrated into the military curricula in Malawi, Mali and Togo.

Box 3.14: The challenges of implementing UNSCR 1325 in Uganda

Challenges experienced in ensuring women's participation include a limited understanding of UNSCR 1325 (2000) at all levels. Experience from the previous rehabilitation programme – the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) -showed that there is a tendency for women to lose the status they acquired during the times of conflict and return to a more subordinate status. Women are not sufficiently consulted or involved in decision-making processes in the various resettlement programmes. This is aggravated by women's low literacy levels and the cultural norms on women's position, and by inadequate coordination of women initiatives at the grassroots level.

Source: Uganda CEDAW State Party Report, 2009:33

Highlights of Challenges

- a. Gender-based violence remains one of the most pernicious consequences of armed conflict. It continues to be used as a weapon of war in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea, Somalia, Sudan and other countries;
- b. Despite progress, obstacles to strengthening women's participation in conflict prevention, conflict resolution and peace-building remain. The first critical point is that women and children are the first to be affected by armed conflict due to disruption in social services and the dislocation of protective structures and institution;
- c. The threat of post-conflict violence remains one of the most persistent obstacles to women's full and equal participation in post-conflict peace-building and reconciliation. Cessation of hostilities does not guarantee an end to violence. This is exacerbated by the fact that women's security is rarely a priority in post-conflict reconstruction efforts.
- d. Traditional views regarding the roles of women in society affect their effective participation in conflict resolution and peace-building processes. As such women continue to be considered as victims and not key partners in addressing and resolving situations of armed conflict. Thus, efforts to address the gender dimensions of armed conflict focus heavily on protection and treatment of women as victims and not as stakeholders.

Recommended Actions

- a. Awareness creation on the existence and contents of UNSCR 1325 in all countries, whether or not they are involved in conflict is an urgent necessity. Responsibility for implementation of the resolution should lie not only with Ministries responsible for Gender but also with others such as Defense, Justice and Home Affairs;
- b. Victims and survivors of violence should be provided with adequate compensation and psycho-social support and recovery;
- c. The capacities of women should be developed and reinforce at all levels in order to enhance their participation in peace-making, peacekeeping and peace-building and post-conflict reconstruction programmes. In this respect, ensure that women are included in the design, planning, implementation and monitoring of peace and security programmes at local, national and regional levels and develop mechanisms to hold countries accountable for these measures; and
- d. Operationalize all the mechanisms in the African peace and security architecture by ensuring that they function effectively.

Area of Concern 6: Women and the Economy

BPfA Expectations

The 1995 Platform for Action notes that women are hindered by legal and customary barriers to ownership of or access to land, natural resources, capital, credit, technology and other means of production, as well as wage differentials from contributing to economic development. They are nevertheless active in a variety of economic areas, which they often combine, ranging from wage labour and subsistence farming and fishing to the informal sector. They participate in the production of goods and services for market and household consumption, in agriculture, food production or family enterprises. Though included in the United Nations System of National Accounts and in international standards for labour statistics, this unremunerated work - particularly that related to agriculture - is often undervalued.

The 2004 Outcome Document underscores the imperative of taking urgent steps to enhance the gender analytical capacity of macroeconomists at all levels and in all institutions so as to redefine concepts, approaches and methodologies that underpin the generation and collection of data. This includes the development of technical capacity and tools for further advancing the inclusion of women's unpaid work into the systems of national accounts. It also calls for the mainstreaming of gender analysis into economics and the involvement of gender experts in the formulation of macroeconomic policies, so that economic policies support women's paid activities in the subsistence and care economies; the need for development of gender-aware social security and pension systems, which should be extended to all women; and establishment and implementation of national programmes creating opportunities for decent jobs and working conditions for women and men, in order to improve women's position in the labour market (UNECA, 2004, para 25).

General Situational Analysis of Women and the Economy

Women's participation in the market economy has increased, especially in the informal sector where they dominate in cross-border, internal trade and marketing, agriculture and food processing. Women's roles in domestic and reproductive activities remain significant across Africa. Time-use studies have shown that women in both urban and rural areas work longer hours than men, when both market and non-market activities are taken into account.

This is especially true for poor women who do not have resources to hire additional labour to assist with household responsibilities as they engage in market activities. Migration is also an important emerging issue as more and more women are looking for opportunities outside their countries and are facing hardship and discrimination as migration impinges on conditions of work and on family responsibilities.

Despite these increased roles, country reports show that gender differentials still exist and that women remain visible in low-paid jobs and are more likely to be among the working poor without any protection. Female employees in non-agricultural wage employment increased from 25 per cent to 31 per cent between 1990 and 2006 in SSA, while in Northern Africa, the proportion remained at 21 per cent during

the same period (ECA, 2008). Additionally, female unemployment rates are higher than male rates in North Africa but lower in the rest of Africa.

By 2007, the women of Morocco accounted for only 20.7 per cent of salaried employees compared to 79.3 per cent for men. Although the share of South Africa's women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector is said to have increased, large disparities in wages earned by women and men still persist. An estimated 56 per cent of women have a monthly wage lower than SA rand 1,000, compared to 35 per cent for men. Only 13.8 per cent of women compared to 86.2 per cent of men in Morocco are self-employed. In Ethiopia, 42 per cent of rural women (aged 10 years and above) are economically active mostly in the agricultural sector. In addition, 65 per cent of persons engaged in informal sector activities are women who are engaged mainly in small businesses such as street vending that require limited funding and managerial skills.

In Sudan, women's participation in economic activities is increasing, with their contribution to household income amounting to about 41 per cent. Nevertheless, the majority work in rural areas in very low-paying jobs and have little control over household income and spending decisions.

In the agricultural sector, where the majority of men and women dominate in most of Africa, incomes tend to be the lowest for both males and females. In some countries such as Egypt (see Box 3.15) and Ethiopia, the majority of female agricultural workers are unpaid family members who are deployed during peak agricultural seasons (Ethiopia DHS, 2006:44; Egypt DHS, 2008:37).

Cameroon notes that the stereotyped image of women in the agricultural sector is becoming less apparent due to the fact that the drop in prices of cash crops (cocoa, coffee) has led to development of new crop-growing practices among men, who are switching to the formerly female preserve of food crops.

Box 3.15: Case Study of Women in Agriculture in Egypt

Women working in agricultural occupations are much less likely than other working women to be paid for the work they do (56 per cent and 98 per cent, respectively).

This can be explained by the fact that most women who work in an agricultural occupation are assisting their husbands or another family member; around two-fifths of ever-married women who were employed in agricultural occupations are working for a family member compared with only 3 per cent of working women involved in non-agricultural occupations year-round. Seasonal work is more common among women working in agricultural occupations than among women employed in non-agricultural occupations (27 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively).

Source: Egypt DHS, 2008:37-38

Women's earnings in this occupation, therefore, invariably tend to be lower than those of men or do not exist in most countries. By 2006, more female-headed households in Uganda depended on transfers as a source of income compared to male heads of households. Additionally, while more women than men depended on wage earnings, an overwhelming percentage of more men than women derived their incomes from household enterprises.

Due to their dominance in the informal sector, women are the principal beneficiaries of micro-finance institutions in countries such as Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Benin and Morocco, where

they constitute two-thirds of the total number. Opportunities for accessing credit are also evident in Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, Tunisia and Uganda. In Benin, a special ministry in charge of micro-finance was created in 2006.

The African Women's Report 2009 makes use of case studies to demonstrate how men and women use their time for leisure, productive and non-productive work in Benin, Madagascar and South Africa. The results indicate that in Madagascar and South Africa, men play a more dominant role in economic activity, compared to Benin where time allocated by men and women tends to be proportionate. Time that women allocate to non-market or unpaid and domestic work also tends to be higher in all three countries.

There is evidence to suggest that men and women tend to be at the same salary levels for doing the same category of work within the civil service, although work segregation tends to be the case. This is reflected in the gender composition of the civil service of most countries, where it is generally observed that women form the majority of those occupying positions with lower qualification requirements, especially within low-paying clerical areas. In many countries, women also tend to be more visible in the social sector segment of the civil service, compared to the economic.¹⁷ In Egypt, a distinction is made between the private and public segments of the formal sector and hence on average, females earn less than males and the wage gap is larger in the private sector. In Burkina Faso private employers hire fewer women, due to the costs associated with their maternal responsibilities.¹⁸

In Madagascar, more than seven out of ten women are house helpers. The average annual salary of women in such occupations is Ariary 750,000¹⁹ against Ariary 1,147,000 for men. In addition, 50.4 per cent of women have only part-time work against 36.4 per cent for men; 47.3 per cent of women hold an employment that is not adequate against 39.3 per cent of men.

The absence of regulatory frameworks and effective inspectorates to protect informal sector actors not only prevents effective data collection, but also tends to expose women to different forms of economic exploitation. Ethiopia notes that women are more likely to be paid in cash if they are employed in the non-agricultural sector. An estimated three-fourths of those employed in this sector are paid in cash (Ethiopia DHS, 2006:44).

Women are also not accessing such productive resources as land and credit to the same extent as men in many countries. The underutilization of women in agriculture due, for example, to their having little or no formal control over land, reduced access to fertilizer, credit and other vital inputs has been proven to increase women's poverty (Klasen, 2006: 8, 10). Some countries are, however, recording impressive gains in land access. For example, in Ghana, over 50 per cent of plots of land are owned by women in communities that practice the matrilineal system of property distribution, as is the case in the Ashanti region).

17 For example, in Burkina Faso, women account for 49.5 per cent of staff in the Departments of Health and Social Welfare whereas in other departments they account for just 30 per cent of the staff. See CEDAW/C/BFA/2-3/1998, page 13.

18 See CEDAW/C/BFA/4-5/2004. Para. 2.9.

19 One USD is equivalent to MGA2 000 on average

Reports show that, since 2005, some progress has been registered with participation of women in the economy either as employees or employers. The measures taken by governments have aimed to improve the legal framework, create an enabling environment, strengthen capacities, adopt and implement policies, programmes and projects, introduce institutional changes, as well as develop indicators and monitoring and evaluation tools.

The involvement of the private sector in improving the role of women in the economy is also highlighted in reports. Twenty six (26) countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) indicate that they provide services (training, legal services, credit) to women for purposes of commencing business.

Highlights of Achievements

Adoption of Laws that Guarantee Equal Access to Employment and Social Protection

Twenty one (21) countries have enacted laws to guarantee equal access to employment opportunities and social protection benefits. They are Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

Most countries stress that the right of equal access to employment opportunities and social protection benefits are guaranteed by the principle of equality between male and female citizens that is entrenched in constitutions and labour laws. Some countries have adopted measures to ensure compliance with these legal provisions, and improve protection of women's rights. Tanzania adopted a Gender Responsive Employment Policy as a complement to its 2004 National Employment and Labour Relations Act and Non Discriminatory Law. Uganda integrated specific provisions in its 2006 Labour Law, including references to:

- a. Prohibition of sexual harassment in employment and a requirement for employers to put measures in place to prevent it;
- b. Prohibition of child labour;
- c. Increase in maternity leave from 45 to 60 days, and
- d. Provision of 4 days paternity leave.

The 2003 Labour Code of Morocco includes the principle of equality between women and men in employment and pay and adopts provisions to address sexual harassment in the workplace; Cape Verde has had an affirmative action strategy for women's economic empowerment since 2006/2007, in addition to legal measures for encouraging their economic participation and partnership with CSOs. In Tunisia, the Women and Development Commission of the 11th Plan (2007-2011) sets a target of 30 per cent for women's employment; Lesotho adopted its Codes of Good Practice Act in 2002, the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act in 2006, the Labour Code Wages Amendment Act in 2008, as well as the Minimum Equal Age for Employment and Remuneration.

All reporting countries have registered an increase in women's economic participation either in the formal or informal market, as employees or employers. In Algeria, women's participation grew to 16.9 per cent in 2007 while in Namibia, women entrepreneurs increased by 38 per cent between 2005-2009 as a result of the measures taken under the Affirmative Action Act and Employment Act of 2005.

Equal Access to Capital and Trade Opportunities

Twenty (20) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) ensure equal access to capital and trade opportunities.

Progress is being made in the number of enterprises owned by women at both formal and informal levels. Governments and other stakeholders have initiated special programmes and projects such as employers' organizations which promote women entrepreneurs through training, technical and managerial support, access to finance, access to markets, improvements in quality and productivity, and strengthening women entrepreneur's organizations. Some of these interventions target young and vulnerable women. In Liberia, informal sector women and women farmers are being provided with technical and financial support within the framework of the Joint Programme for Gender and Women's Economic Empowerment in support of MDG 3 implementation. In 2007, Comoros established a Division for the Promotion of Female Entrepreneurship.

Build Capacity in Gender-Sensitive Economic Policy-Making

Nineteen (18) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe) are building capacity in gender-sensitive economic analysis.

The period under review has witnessed innovative steps being taken to integrate gender perspectives into economic policy-making. Reports show attention being given to analysis of national budgets to ensure that public resources support and promote gender equality and women's advancement. Almost 40 per cent of reporting countries have engaged in gender analysis of their respective national budgets (e.g. Namibia, Morocco, Malawi, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda).

Initiatives commenced in 2007 in Algeria and Egypt to adopt Public Expenditure Frameworks that are sensitive to the needs of both men and women. Some gender budgeting analysis has been sector-specific as in the case of Mozambique where it has been introduced in the health sector. Mali has established technical and monitoring and evaluation committees in support of health and education.

Other country examples which show evidence of incorporation of gender perspectives into economic analysis include a gender audit of the National Monitoring and Evaluating System in Botswana and time use budgets in Mali and Tunisia.

Measures have also been taken to train GFPs in sector ministries, parliaments, the private sector and CSOs in gender budgeting and gender analysis in development policies, plans, programmes and projects as in the cases of Cote d'Ivoire, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Namibia, Niger, Republic of Congo and Zimbabwe among other countries.

Zambia has implemented a Public Service Training Policy which advocates for affirmative action in favour of women in terms of skills training, employment and promotion in the public service.

Ratification and Implementation of Relevant Treaties

In addition to ratification and implementation of CEDAW and the African Women's Protocol, ILO Conventions 100, 111 and 183, which deal with wage discrimination, employment discrimination and maternity protection are also central to attainment of women's economic empowerment.

The majority of African countries (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tunisia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have ratified Conventions 100 and 111. Only Mali is on record as having ratified the Maternity Convention (183).

A substantial number of ratifying countries have undertaken part or full domestication of these conventions. Legal frameworks generally cover non-discrimination with respect to employment opportunities, recruitment, and remuneration, strike and union rights, and compensation.

Egypt has established equal opportunity units in all its line ministries to affirm women's exercise of their right to constitutional equality and to challenge any discriminatory practices against women in the work place. Thirty-two units were established in 29 ministries and three were established in the administrative apparatus. These units deal with problems of discrimination against women in the work place. Problems remain with implementation within private-sector establishments where compliance tends to be low. Some field research findings based on the experience of Egypt show that female workers in some private-sector establishments earn wages equal to 70 per cent of men's.²⁰

The Developmental Social Welfare Policy (1996) of Benin states that all efforts be made to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women in respect to access to technical training, formal sector employment, decent working conditions, access to health care services and protection from all social and cultural pressures to which they are subjected on account of their sex. The National Women's Policy (1993) also addresses this issue by: outlining measures for modifying or abolishing laws that

²⁰ CEDAW/C/7/2008:8, 48.

aggravate discrimination against women; ensuring that gender-based discriminations are removed; and taking appropriate measures to ensure that women are made beneficiaries on an equal basis with men of equal pay for equal work and in other work-related benefits and opportunities.

Lack of ratification of ILO Convention 183 notwithstanding, laws and policies on maternity protection are in place in most countries due. Benin, Ghana, Madagascar (box 3.16), Mozambique and Uganda have functional institutional mechanisms dealing with the issue.

Box 3.16 Maternity Protection in Madagascar

To protect women from discrimination due to maternity, the Labour Code, Act No. 2003-044 of 28 July 2004, Article 94, provides that a female applicant for employment need not reveal that she is pregnant. "A pregnancy shall not be grounds for termination of an employment contract during the probation period."

Article 95 further provides that no employer shall cancel the employment contract of a female wage earner whose pregnancy has been medically established.

For maternity leave, Article 97 of the Labour Code provides that at the time of her delivery, any woman has the right take fourteen consecutive weeks off work, including eight weeks after delivery, such interruption of service not being regarded as cause for termination of her contract. During this period, the employer cannot dismiss her.

For breast-feeding, article 98 provides that for a period of fifteen (15) months after the birth of the child the mother is entitled to breaks for the purpose of breast feeding. The total duration of these breaks, which are paid at the employee's regular hourly rate, cannot exceed one hour per working day. During this period, the mother may break her contract without notice and without therefore having to pay an indemnity for breach of contract.

Source: CEDAW/C/MDG/5/2008:71

Highlights of Challenges

- a. There are data gaps in relation to critical areas with respect to women's contributions in the economy. This affects effective planning, monitoring and evaluation of the gendered impacts of economic and social policies;
- b. The persistency of customary views on the extent to which women can access productive resources, particularly land, remains a barrier to their effective participation in the economy.
- c. The under-valuing of women in agriculture, due to their having little or no formal control over land and reduced access to fertilizer, credit and other vital inputs, has been proven to increase women's poverty;
- d. Although Convention 100 has been ratified without reservations by all countries, its effective implementation is facing many hurdles. Country studies show that wage discrimination against women persists, with major constraints to effective implementation identified as lack of finances and of qualified human resources and non-existence of national classification systems of work categories. Other obstacles to ensuring equal remuneration for women and men are gender gaps in professional skills, educational attainment and occupational segregation, with a predominance of women in seasonal employment; and
- e. Other obstacles to ensuring equal remuneration for women and men are gender gaps in professional skills, educational attainment and occupational segregation, with a predominance of women in seasonal employment.

Box 3.17: The Underlying Causes of Inequitable Access to Resources in Tanzania

In Tanzania, gender relations are reflected in household structures, division of labour, access and control over resources and power relations. Most communities in Tanzania are essentially patriarchal, whereby traditional norms, practices and attitudes are centred on male domination. In this context, men continue to dominate power, ownership and control of productive resources. Women continue to have unequal access and control of major productive resources.

Source: Tanzania CEDAW State Party Report, 2008: Para. 25

Recommended Actions

- a. Review existing legal frameworks protecting women's access to land with the view to removing discriminatory provisions, which work against their interests;
- b. In collaboration with traditional and religious authorities and women's groups, embark upon a comprehensive review of customary and religious norms which serve as barriers to women's equal rights to land;
- c. Strengthen institutions responsible for implementing land reform programmes and provide them with the capacity to appreciate gender concerns associated with customary land distribution (e.g. customary inheritance practices);
- d. Encourage and provide support to CSOs to increase their assistance to women to seek redress against discrimination in access and control over land and sensitize judges on emerging issues affecting women's land rights;
- e. Advocate for the appreciation and valuing of women's non-market work by engendering national accounts and budgets and addressing the disproportionate time burdens on women in non-productive work through provision of appropriate services and facilities, especially at rural level, including improvements in public goods such as transport, water sources, day care centres and health facilities; and
- f. Design and implement effective linkages with local universities to develop appropriate local technologies that would accelerate the reduction of drudgery work associated with household food processing and transportation of heavy loads by women.

Area of Concern 7: Women, Governance, Power and Decision Making

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA asserts that achieving the goal of equal participation of women and men in decision-making will provide a balance that more accurately reflects the composition of society and is needed in order to strengthen democracy and promote its proper functioning. Women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. It is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but also a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's

perspectives at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

The 2004 Ministerial Conference agreed that political/governance bodies should institutionalize policies that guarantee gender equality. In addition, the AU 50:50 gender parity principle should be replicated and implemented at all levels of national, sub-regional and regional governance, including through affirmative action and set timelines. It further recommended that: women's access to elected positions (municipal and parliamentary) be supported in order to reach these targets; leadership training programmes for women, especially young women, should be developed and supported to enable them to exercise responsibility at all levels; and women's organizations should be encouraged and supported, including the reorganization of and revitalization of the Pan-African Women's Organization (UNECA, 2004; para 29).

A General Situational Analysis of Women in Decision-Making

The growth of constitutionalism and democracy has created new avenues for increasing women's access to political power. The election of Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf of Liberia as the first female African Head of State in 2005 was a milestone in women's representation at the highest level of national decision-making. Some countries (e.g. Mozambique, South Africa, Rwanda and Uganda), have reached the BPfA target of 30 per cent or more of women's representation in parliament.

Rwanda has made even more significant moves with a record level of 48.8 per cent (in the lower house), surpassing the Scandinavian average of 40 per cent. The Government of Mozambique uses a quota system (30 per cent minimum at all levels) to ensure fair representation of women in politics. Mozambique's experience has become a test case showing substantial progress, with their representation in parliament at 38 per cent in addition to female occupancy of high offices.

In numerous African countries, women hold or have held positions traditionally regarded as male preserves. This has been the case in Mozambique (Prime Minister and Foreign Affairs); Gambia (Vice President); Uganda (Vice-President and Finance Minister); Zimbabwe (Vice-President); Ethiopia (Deputy Speakers and Assistant Whips); South Africa (Deputy President); Ghana (Attorney General, Chief Justice, Trade Minister, and Speaker of Parliament); Nigeria (Ministers of Finance, Drug and Narcotics, Foreign Affairs); Liberia (Finance, Foreign Affairs and Trade); Niger (Foreign Affairs); and Senegal (Trade).

In South Africa, the representation of women in the cabinet has steadily increased over the years. By 2008, women constituted 42.8 per cent of ministers, which was a 200 per cent increase from 1997. Overall there has been a three-fold increase in the number of women ministers appointed from 1997 to 2008, a number of them holding critical cabinet portfolios historically associated with men. These include: Foreign Affairs, Public Works, Land and Agriculture, and Justice and Constitutional Development. By 2008, women were also the holders of 40 per cent of deputy minister positions.

Despite these developments, gender equality and equity principles are yet to be fully integrated and articulated into democratization processes, structures of power and decision-making, as shown in Box 3.18.

Box 3.18: Obstacles Facing Women in Political Party Participation in Niger

The political parties engage in their activities on the basis of the laws regulating them. Although every citizen, irrespective of sex, is free to set up a political party, none of the 24 political parties existing in the Niger has been founded or led by a woman. In most of the political parties, women hold the post of officer in charge of women's affairs or officer in charge of organization. And yet it must be noted that women do much of the work of campaigning and making practical arrangements. Thus, women have played an important role in the institution of a multiparty system. They have joined political parties and contributed their dynamism to them. The rank and file now comprise as many women as men. Generally speaking, very few women have found their way into decision-making bodies, but the effective application of the law on quotas should remedy the situation in time.

Source: Niger country report data

Although it is sometimes perceived that it is women themselves who do not take the initiative to enter politics, trends in some countries (e.g. Ghana) demonstrate the lack of priority given to gender balancing (e.g. compared to ethnic balance) in electioneering processes.

Three election seasons in Ghana, show that only 32.2, 17.6 and 7.9 per cent of women who stood for parliamentary elections during the 1996, 2000 and 2008 electoral years obtained seats in the legislature and that the main considerations in the selection processes were ethnic, economic and political.²¹

The African Women's Report 2009 notes the strong involvement of NGOs in advancing women's political participation. An NGO-led campaign for 50/50 representation in government has been prominent in South Africa. In Burkina Faso, a broad coalition on the rights of women lobbied for 40 per cent representation of women in high positions in the major parties for the 2007 Parliamentary elections and insisted on the same percentage in local councils and in parliament.

Tanzania is making a conscious effort to involve civil society in the campaign to enhance women's participation in parliamentary and other high-profile positions. It has established a Women's Parliamentary Caucus and collaborates with the women's wings of political parties. In several countries, such as Ethiopia, Ghana, Tanzania, South Africa and Uganda, women's groups have produced *Women's Manifestos* that prioritize the increased political participation of women.

Highlights of Achievements

Regional and Country Dimensions

By the period of the 2005 review (Beijing +10); some positive trends in the area of governance were manifested through the consolidation of democracy and the increasing number of countries that had conducted peaceful democratic elections in the previous decade. The regional instruments created such as the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) and the Gender and Civil Society Sector within the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) were documented as positive and promising initiatives.

²¹ See CEDAW/C/GHA/3-5/2005. Para. 70.

Several countries had significantly increased the level of women's representation in parliament, with Rwanda attaining an impressive 49 per cent and South Africa and Mozambique over 30 per cent (see Box 3.19). Women have also been elected and/or appointed into powerful decision-making positions in the civil and public services.

Box 3.19: Case Studies of 30 per cent Quotas

Rwanda reinforced its position at the top by electing more than 56 per cent women members to its lower house in September 2008. This is the first single/lower house in history where women hold the majority of seats. It improved on the previous record set in its first post-conflict elections held in 2003, when it elected nearly 49 per cent women. Rwanda is joined by Angola (37.3 per cent), Burundi (30.5 per cent), Mozambique (34.8 per cent), South Africa (33 per cent), Tanzania (30.4 per cent) and Uganda (30.7 per cent) as the seven African countries to have reached the target in single/lower houses. Angola was a newcomer to the list in 2008, electing more than 37 per cent women in its first election since 1992, signalling the return to a democratic process. In Angola, Burundi, Mozambique, Rwanda and South Africa, post-conflict settlements afforded the opportunity to incorporate special measures into electoral rules and party practices for increasing women's representation in a short period of time. In Tanzania and Uganda, women's increased access to parliament has been incremental.

Source: Inter Parliamentary Union. *Women in Parliament. The Year in Perspective*, 2008

The SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, to which Lesotho is a signatory, calls for at least 30 per cent representation of women at political and decision-making levels by 2005. In an attempt to achieve this, Lesotho's Local Government Act of 1997 was amended in 2004 to ensure that 30 per cent of the seats in community councils were earmarked women competing in the 2005 local government elections. As a result, females constitute 58 per cent of councillors.

There is a steady increase in women's political participation and representation in key decision-making organs in almost all African countries. Affirmative action has been used to promote women's participation in politics at all levels. In the legislature, Rwanda holds a global record of 57 per cent female MPs. In several other African countries, female representation is above 30 per cent. Such countries include Mozambique, South Africa, and Namibia. South Africa has already surpassed the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, which calls for 30 per cent representation of women in decision-making structures in the SADC community of nations.

Currently, South Africa's parliament is ranked 10th out of 130 parliaments in the world in terms of women's advancement in governance. Further, a recent study shows that women constitute 19.8 per cent of the executive managers and 10.7 per cent of the directors of the 372 companies surveyed. These figures are an improvement on comparable 2008 figures of 14.7 per cent and 7.1 per cent respectively. However, considering that 41.3 per cent of the working population is female, these figures still leave much room for improvement.

In Uganda, the proportion of women MPs increased from 25 per cent in 2003 to 29.2 per cent in 2007. In local government councils, the share of women leaders/councillors has also grown from 6 per cent in 1990 to 45 per cent in 2007. In South Africa, about a third of MPs and 43 per cent of the Cabinet are women. In Mauritius, although women presently hold only 9 per cent of ministerial level positions and occupy 17 per cent of parliamentary seats, they account for 51 per cent of persons in decision-making positions in the public sector. This has been achieved through empowerment legislation and effective advocacy.

To address the limited participation of Egyptian women in political life, the NCW has established the Centre for the Political Empowerment of Women. The centre provides an intensive training programme for women wishing to participate in political life, with assistance from UNDP and the Government of the Netherlands. It also cooperates with a number of NGOs in ongoing campaigns to educate Egyptian society in general. The NCW holds ongoing dialogue with the political parties and women's committees in labour unions and federations encourage the participation of women in public life.

Support to Conduct Evidenced-Based Research

Thirteen (13) countries (Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia) have supported research to help identify adequate ways and means to empower women politically. With assistance from international partners and UN agencies, most countries have embarked upon research in partnership with universities, specialized centres, governmental departments and CSOs for a better appreciation of the barriers and challenges to female participation and to identify appropriate ways and means to empower them politically.

Countries which have undertaken research include Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Egypt, Gambia, Mali, Namibia, Niger and the United Republic of Tanzania. Research Centres include the Centre of Information, Training and Operational Research on women in Burkina Faso and the Centre of Information, Documentation and Research in Algeria.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. There are indications that fewer women than men are presented for electoral processes in situations where political parties do not have gender-sensitive policies especially in nominating candidates for elections;
- b. Some electoral systems do not support the election of women, especially in societies where strong gender biases against women occupying decision-making positions persist. It has further been demonstrated that the murky nature of the political terrain, characterized often by cut-throat and “**dirty linen**” attacks on political figures, tend to stifle women's effective participation.
- c. Politics is an expensive process oftentimes requiring substantial financial and human outlays which women tend not to have.
- d. Most women possess less time than men to devote to the networking required to build a political career, due to their family and care responsibilities.
- e. Although women's participation as electors has significantly increased, the representation of women in key positions and elected bodies remains far from parity. The number of women ministers remains low in most countries.
- f. Despite progress being made in the appointment of women to traditionally male-dominated high positions, Ministries headed by women when compared to men remains the same. Women continue to be appointed to traditional ministries considered ‘soft’, such as health, education, social services, gender and human resources and rarely are

- they appointed to ‘hard’ ministries such as defence, justice, foreign affairs, economy, finance, trade and energy
- g. Political parties continue to operate gender-biased appointment policies and procedures that tend to focus more on ethnic, geographical and political leanings rather than gender.

Recommended Actions

- a. There should be increased and visible commitment to the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (2004) and the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (2007) which call for gender balance and equality in governance processes;
- b. There should be firm commitment to affirmative action (CEDAW, Article 4); breaking of gender stereotyping in appointment processes, especially as they relate to positions which are traditionally dominated by men at political party, executive, ministerial, judicial and civil society levels; continuous capacity building programmes for prospective women candidates; public education and sensitization against stereotyping of women’s roles in society;
- c. Governments and CSOs should give greater emphasis to supporting an increase in the local-level participation for women, given that the majority of women are located in rural areas and it is at this level that issues affecting vulnerable groups and access to productive resources are most critical;
- d. Governments, CSOs, UN and donor agencies should continue to develop and implement capacity-building programmes to support women aspirants and potential candidates; and
- e. Governments should support nurturing programmes to females at all levels of education to encourage them to assume leadership and representative roles.

Area of Concern 8: Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women

BPfA expectations

The importance of establishing institutional machineries was underscored during the 1980 Third World Conference on Women, and reaffirmed at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women. The BPfA acknowledges progress being made with the establishment of national machineries by member states with a view to ‘inter alia, design, promote the implementation of, execute, monitor, evaluate, advocate and mobilize support for policies that promote the advancement of women’.

The Special Session on the Beijing +5 process added impetus to this by reaffirming the importance of establishing strong, effective and accessible national machineries for the advancement of women. It reconfirms the need to establish strong national machineries.

The national machinery ‘should have clearly defined mandates and authority; adequate resources and the ability and competence to influence policy and formulate and review legislation.’ The Beijing+10 Conference outcome also underscored the point that an important ingredient for accelerating delivery of the BPfA is strengthening institutionalization of gender equality and equity through the provision of adequate resources, technical expertise and sufficient authority. It also calls for execution of the strategic objectives and actions identified, with national machineries and gender units providing oversight and facilitation of gender-responsive delivery of development programmes (UNECA, 2004; para 38).

A General Situational Analysis of Institutional Machineries

All responding countries indicate that they have institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women in place. They however depict varied constraints in operation of their respective mechanisms. These cover:

- Inadequate financial and human resources;
- Negative attitudes and perceptions which lead to resistance to gender and development issues;
- Lack of appreciation of the concept of gender by a cross section of the populace;
- Inadequate skills in the use of ICT;
- Limited equipment;
- Inadequate gender-disaggregated data;
- Inadequate capacity for accounting gender-mainstreaming activities;
- Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation systems and tools in place to follow up properly on implementation;
- Limited capacity to carry out gender analysis, planning and implementation of gender programmes across sectors;
- Limited coordination between stakeholders;
- Undermining of GFP roles; and the
- Absence of national policies that deal with equality between men and women.

Twenty three (23) countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) suggest that they have undertaken appropriate sub-regional level policy and strategy development as well as actions taken at country level.

Different levels and categories of institutional mechanisms exist across countries. In Lesotho, they cover the following:

- a. GFPs: These are drawn from the line ministries, parastatals, universities and CSOs. Their specific role is to propose appropriate and effective gender mechanisms within their respective institutions and to provide support and direction for taking gender concerns into account in all aspects of planning and programming;
- b. Gender Caucus Groups (GCG): These support the Ministry responsible for Gender to sensitize policymakers and traditional leaders on current and emerging gender

- issues. Members of GCG are selected on the basis of their expertise on thematic gender issues;
- c. The Basotho Women's Parliamentary Caucus (BWPC) consisting of women MPs. The objective of the caucus is to enable members to present, discuss and analyse issues from a gender-sensitive perspective rather than across party lines.

In Mauritius, the Ministry works towards implementation of gender mainstreaming in the policies and programmes of the Government. The Gender Unit has adopted a two-pronged approach to development, namely, through outreach activities undertaken at grassroots level through the 15 Women Centres, the National Women Council, the National Women Entrepreneur Council, the National Women Development Centre and some 1200 Women's Associations with respect to capacity building, service delivery and sensitization campaigns for the empowerment of women.

Furthermore, there has been gender mainstreaming at policy, programming and output levels within Ministries/Departments and other offices in line with the National Gender Policy Framework, as well as recent reforms towards effective public financial management systems. Benin reports of some good practices in relation to collaboration between its National Committee for Women's Advancement and CSOs, consisting of women opinion leaders, religious groups, and representatives of women's associations. Several country reports indicated that the women's machineries have limited mostly urban geographical coverage and outreach.

The majority of countries have either fulfilled or are in the process of fulfilling the basic requirement of having guidelines in place for mainstreaming gender. In some countries, governments have created an enabling environment for specific government sectors to develop their own policies

Box 3.20: South Africa's Experience in Gender Mainstreaming

South Africa instituted the strategy of gender mainstreaming following adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995. Under its National Gender Policy the responsibility for the advancement of women and mainstreaming gender in all governance processes is that of all government officials and the political leadership in government, including the Presidency, Executive, Parliament and similar structures in the Provinces and at local government level. A training programme on gender mainstreaming in the Public Service has been developed by the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy, with a mandate to provide leadership training across the Public Service, including training on gender mainstreaming for senior management.

Source: African Women's Report, 2009

In Ghana, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture has had a Gender and Agricultural Development Strategy since 2004, which seeks to mainstream gender into all its policies and programmes before the national gender policy was formulated.

Countries are met with a range of challenges in their gender mainstreaming efforts. Tunisia conducts seminars for top-level personnel in various Ministries on gender mainstreaming, but notes that 'many departments are not quite convinced of the need to integrate the gender approach into their work'. Madagascar has started paying attention to gender issues in several ministries, but cautions that efforts are largely donor driven.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. Although most countries have established gender machineries in compliance with international obligations, these have largely been “ineffective” due to limitations in human and financial resources to enable implementation of their mandates;
- b. Persons who are appointed as GFPs tend to play other routine functions and therefore neglect their gender mainstreaming tasks, which are usually considered as secondary. Other challenges include the tendency to select personnel from lower ranks, the lack of or inadequate systems of accountability and reporting, lack of political will to implement gender mainstreaming and a general lack of knowledge and understanding of gender concepts and gender mainstreaming in most departments and across all levels;
- c. The naming and placing of national machineries can also be significant. Some are aligned to under-funded sectors, such as Family, Youth or Social Development, an indication that gender issues have yet to be given primary consideration in their own right;
- d. Many national women’s machineries lack clear focus, possess broad or ambiguous mandates and have low funding levels, all of which have a direct impact on other variables such as collaboration with civil society and research and information dissemination centres.

Recommended Actions

- a. Ensure that responsibility for the advancement of women is vested in the highest possible level of government, in many cases, at the level of a Cabinet Minister;
- b. Based on a strong political commitment, create national machineries where they do not exist, and strengthen, as appropriate, existing national machineries for the advancement of women, from the highest possible level of government;
- c. Machineries should have clearly defined mandates and authority and such critical elements as adequate resources and the ability and competence to influence policy and formulate and review legislation. They should also perform policy analysis, undertake advocacy and communications, as well as coordination and monitoring of implementation;
- d. Provide staff training in designing and analysing data from gender perspectives;
- e. Establish procedures to allow machineries to gather information on government-wide policy issues at an early stage for continuous use in the policy development and review process within the Government;
- f. Report regularly to legislative bodies on the progress with efforts as appropriate, to mainstream gender concerns, guided by the BPfA; and
- g. Encourage and promote the active involvement of the broad and diverse range of institutional actors in the public, private and voluntary sectors to work for equality between women and men.

Area of Concern 9: Human Rights of Women

BPfA Expectations

The Platform for Action, identifies three strategic objectives: to promote and protect the human rights of women, through the full implementation of all human rights instruments, especially CEDAW, to ensure equality and non-discrimination under the law and in practice and to achieve legal literacy. The outcome of the Africa Regional Conference on Women (Beijing +10) of 2004 recommended that a gender-sensitive and human rights-based approach should inform planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of PRSPs, MDGs, national priorities, annual plans and expenditure frameworks.

Harmful and/or discriminatory practices that sustain gender inequality and inequity are also to be eliminated, and partnership between women and men in addressing practices which have a negative impact on gender equality are to be developed. It was also to be expected that the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women would be signed and ratified by all countries by the end of 2005. This was in addition to the domestication and implementation of all other international and regional instruments on women's rights.

Situational Analysis of Women's Human Rights

All African countries, except Sudan and Somalia, have ratified CEDAW and in 2009, Morocco withdrew reservations made in 2003 upon ratification of the Convention. Seventeen African countries have ratified the CEDAW Protocol and²² in addition, 27 have ratified the Protocol to the ACHPR on Women's Rights.²³

Eight African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Libya and Tunisia) and in Southern Africa (Lesotho, Malawi and Mauritius) have entered reservations in respect of CEDAW. Although Ethiopia had expressed a reservation in respect of Article 29, which concerns dispute settlement and does not relate to the principal objects of the Convention. Egypt is in the process of reconsidering its CEDAW reservations, although in respect of Article 16, it has raised concerns that the withdrawal of **reservations would diminish the rights of women under Islamic and Egyptian laws.**²⁴

Several countries report activities for integrating CEDAW into their respective legal texts and constitutions. However, discrimination against women has continued despite the existence of anti-discriminatory legislation. This persistence has been due to such factors as:

- Negative perceptions and practices towards women's advancement
- Absence of enabling legislation to give effect to constitutional provisions
- Existence of laws which are inconsistent with the constitution
- Judicial misinterpretation of laws which promote gender equality.²⁵

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

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

24 See CEDAW/C/EGY/7/2008. pp 11 and 76.

25 This situation is evident in the field of family law and will be dealt with under the next variable on Article 16.

Despite these major set backs, some countries are making remarkable progress towards reversing discrimination through the interventions of their constitutional courts. Recent developments in the constitutional courts of Benin, South Africa and Uganda in particular demonstrate the potential role of African courts in the enforcement of equality provisions. Article 26 of the 1990 Constitution of Benin recognizes the principle of equality before the law as well as that of equality between men and women. Out of character with most constitutional systems of African Francophone countries, individuals are permitted to bring cases to the Constitutional Court in accordance with Article 122 (see Box 3.21).

Box 3.21: Abrogation of Polygamy by the Constitutional Court of Benin

On 24 June 2004, a Member of Parliament filed a petition to the Constitutional Court on the ground that the Family Code, which authorized men to have more than one spouse, was contrary to the principle of equality between men and women enshrined in article 26 of the Constitution, as it did not allow women to have more than one husband. The Court found that the Family Code was contrary to the Constitution, and as a result, polygamy has been outlawed in Benin.

Source: African Women's Report, 2009

The Constitutional Court of Uganda has declared the discriminatory provisions of the Marriage and Divorce Act, the Penal Code Act, and the Succession Act as unconstitutional on the basis that they contravene constitutional principles of non-discrimination and equality between the sexes. The Marriage and Divorce Act required women to prove two grounds when petitioning for divorce, while a man was required to prove only one.²⁶

A substantial number of landmark court decisions by the Constitutional Court of South Africa have fundamentally advanced *de jure* and *de facto* equality between women and men in areas such as customary and inheritance laws and women's access to land. The results show further that gender policies have been adopted or are in the process of being adopted in all countries, and that processes for mainstreaming gender into sector policies and programmes are also underway.

In nine countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia and Uganda), policies have received the assent of their respective legislative bodies and broad strategies on gender equality are in place. Specific gender policies represent a form of horizontal guideline within government.

Furthermore, most countries are also ensuring that gender concerns are reflected and integrated vertically in other development plans and policies.

Compliance with Treaty Requirements and Recommendations

Thirteen (13) countries (Angola, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Gambia, Malawi, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe have reported on schedule to the Committee on CEDAW. A substantial number indicate the participation of civil society in the preparation of reports. Nineteen countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina

²⁶ State Party Report of Uganda, 2009:14-16.

Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe), publicize information on national, regional and international mechanisms for seeking redress of human rights abuse. Most countries have also published international conventions which they ratified in national gazettes, media or in “Journal officials” (Burkina Faso, Lesotho and Morocco).

A total of 28 countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) indicate that they have undertaken additional work on CEDAW implementation since the 2004 evaluation. Many of these related to enactment of legislation to reflect CEDAW and other treaty-related provisions.

Other country efforts since 2004 include measures to accelerate implementation of Affirmative Action to enhance women’s participation in decision-making (Ghana); sensitization and awareness-raising on the convention and the preparation and submission of periodic reports to CEDAW (Sierra Leone); gender policy design and development and gender budgeting (Zimbabwe); creation of networks to support victims of GBV; creation of offices of specialized police support for attention to GBV victims (Cape Verde); design and implementation of the national action plan for implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (Cote d’Ivoire); creation of a national Committee on Human Rights (2006); and Creation of a Committee for Monitoring CEDAW recommendations (Mauritania).

Incorporation of the Principle of Equality into National Constitutions and Legislation

Twenty-seven (27) countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Comoros, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) indicate that they have embodied the principle of the equality of men and women in country legislation and strengthened programmes to protect the human rights of women.

In 2007, Morocco reformed the Nationality Code allowing Moroccan women to pass their **nationality** on to their **children**. Uganda amended the Land Act in 2004 to include sections that protect the rights of women to own, use and inherit land. Mauritius adopted an Equal Opportunity Act in December 2008 and efforts have also been made to address the unequal relations between men and women within the national gender framework, and effective strategies for tackling VAW (e.g. Algeria, Botswana, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Namibia, Nigeria, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, and Tunisia).

The Ministry of Justice of Ghana has made proposals for new property arrangements between spouses and cohabitants under the Spousal Property Bill (2006). In Madagascar, the Family Law is being revised to ensure that the lawful age of marriage for both sexes is made 18 years in substitute for 14 years for girls and 17 years for boys, as provided for in Ordinance no. 62-089. The country is also

undertaking reforms to ensure that the rules pertaining to adultery apply equally to both men and women. Previous legislation permitted a man convicted of adultery to pay a fine, whereas a wife was liable to imprisonment. In addition, the revised Family Code of Ethiopia (2000) contains detailed provisions on common and shared responsibilities of both spouses in relation to the upbringing of their children.

Eighteen (18) countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Gambia, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Swaziland and Tanzania) have translated CEDAW into user-friendly formats. Several countries such as Botswana, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Namibia and Niger have translated and popularized the regional and international instruments, namely CEDAW and the AU Protocol) into local languages with the support of national NGOs and other regional and international organizations.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. While several examples of reviews of discriminatory legislation are taking place throughout the region in an effort to eliminate discriminatory laws, enforcement remains the most serious problem facing African women notably in the area of family law;
- b. The challenge of operating under mixed legal traditions affects the effective implementation of Article 16. In Uganda for instance, the current process of reforming the law on marriage has been stifled by difficulties in harmonizing the interests of persons who adhere to Christian, Islamic, Hindu, Baha'i and customary law;
- c. Implementation of women's rights is being hampered by persisting negative attitudes and perceptions of society towards gender equality and women's empowerment;
- d. Although national gender machineries have overall responsibility for monitoring and advocating for implementation of the Protocol, they face major shortcomings in implementation due to the inadequacy of human and financial resources and the limited capacity to prioritize and deal with issues contained in the Protocol;
- e. In some cases, the law is not implemented due to the resistance of judges; in others, **religious and customary practices undermine women's rights**. The contradictions between customary law, religious law and codified law undercut women's rights.
- f. Harmful practices which threaten the physical integrity of women and girls are still occurring. In many African countries, FGM is still practiced and most girls marry from the onset of puberty; women remain vulnerable to highly discriminative practices such as property dispossession;
- g. The majority of those whose rights are violated lack the necessary financial resources to obtain the required legal services and are further repelled by the cumbersome legal procedures;
- h. Legal aid and counselling support provided by CSOs play an important role but are not sufficient ;
- i. Reporting to the CEDAW Committee has been fraught with gaps such as lack of tangible information on the implementation of the provisions of some articles, and some reports are silent or misrepresent the facts on the real conditions of women; and statistical data tends to be incomplete.

Recommended Actions

- a. Address the specific issues affecting African women that are highlighted in CEDAW and its Optional Protocol and the African Women's Protocol in policy, planning, and implementation related to gender equality in African countries;
- b. Ratify all relevant Protocol and Conventions related to women's rights as a matter of urgent priority if they have not done so to date;
- c. Back the relatively impressive performance with regard to the design of policies and laws by implementation and allocation of adequate human and financial resources to relevant institutions for carrying out activities in an effective, coordinated and timely manner;
- d. Raise awareness on the rights of women and girls, in collaboration with NGOs, the media and traditional leaders through appropriate messages that accelerate changes in attitudes and practices;
- e. Take steps to review and reform customary laws in collaboration with stakeholders such as traditional authorities to ensure their conformity, and harmony with local legislation and international treaties;
- f.
- g. Enforce the rights of women set out under Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW and work to repeal laws that discriminate against women in marriage and property rights;
- h. Set the minimum age of marriage at 18 for both men and women in line with the African Women's Protocol and abolish all forms of forced and early marriages through related legislation and judicial action;
- i. Give visible attention to the African Women's Protocol as the reference point for implementation of the gendered aspects of other regional African initiatives such as NEPAD, by setting set high standards of reporting and monitoring of commitments on its provisions;
- j. Integrate rights-based approaches in all interventions affecting women. This requires an appreciation of women as holders of rights and consequently equips them with the tools with which to seek enforcement;
- k. Affirm provisions proscribing discrimination in all constitutions and legislative texts;
- l. Pay particular attention to enforcing women's rights as set out under Articles 2 and 16 of CEDAW. This should include protecting the rights of women in existing polygamous marriages while also taking legal and social measures to ensure that consideration is given to establishing monogamy as the national standard across all African countries;
- m. Facilitate opportunities for sharing the progressive experiences in constitutional judicial reforms in countries such as Benin, South Africa and Uganda;

Area of Concern 10: Women and the Media

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA calls for the urgent reversal of the continued projection of negative and degrading images of women in media communications - electronic, print, visual and audio. It notes that most countries do not provide a balanced picture of women's diverse lives and contributions to society in a changing world.

In addition, violent and degrading or pornographic media products are also negatively affecting women and their participation in society. Programming that reinforces women's traditional roles can be equally limiting. The world-wide trend towards consumerism has created a climate in which advertisements and commercial messages often portray women primarily as consumers, targeting girls and women of all ages inappropriately. The 2004 Ministers Conference on Africa underscored the importance of communication and the speed with which ICT is evolving and recommended the adoption and implementation of gender-aware media policies.

The conference agreed on the need to: improve women's access to media and new ICTs; support to women's press and communication initiatives; the use of media and new ICTs to promote women's activities, including the projection of positive images and counter stereotypes and discrimination. The Conference stressed the importance of the 2005 WSIS framework, and called upon the international community to actively implement the Summit outcomes with a view to reducing the current digital divide.

General Situational Analysis of Women and the Media

The overall assessment from national reports suggests that the Media remains a male-dominated institution and that women's presence in key decision-making positions within media institutions remains very low.

Lesotho reports that women's views and voices are grossly under-represented in the media and that only an estimated 21 per cent of news are from female sources. Liberia also reports of lack of visibility of women in leadership positions in the sector. The Republic of Congo even suggests that reports emerging from female journalists are not considered newsworthy and therefore are not widely publicized and exposed.

The participation of women in mass media remains underdeveloped in Côte d'Ivoire given the lack of measures and actions taken by the Government to ensure effective participation of women in the field. Benin, Egypt, Mozambique, Tunisia, South Africa and Uganda have ICT policies in place to bridge gender gaps in access to technology. Benin's policy implementation has resulted in the creation of an agency for the promotion of new technologies, which provides ICT training for women at subsidized rates. Following a request from the National Council on Women in Egypt, the Ministry of Information and Communication established an independent centre to address common gender concerns and ensure that they are mainstreamed in all ICT development plans.

Uganda has developed an ICT Policy²⁷ and a draft Telecommunications Sector Policy that recognizes the importance of gender mainstreaming and access to information by disadvantaged groups.²⁸ Similarly, Mozambique has adopted an information policy that seeks to mainstream gender into ICT in addition to harnessing the potential of ICT to bridge gender gaps in various areas, including access to business opportunities and training. The Information and Communication Technology Policy of Ethiopia (2002) makes special references to women and to use of ICT for their capacity development and empowerment.

Highlights of Achievements

Research into Women's Access to and Role in the Media

Thirteen (13) countries (Angola, Burkina Faso, Comoros, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe) have conducted research into women's access to and their role in the media. The same number of countries report on efforts to engender the media at policy and practice levels and on the eradication of all forms of gender stereotyping.

Some research activities are being spearheaded by national institutions. These include the Centre for Information, Training and Research Action on Women in Burkina Faso, the Ministry of Information in Tanzania, the Ministry responsible for ICT in Uganda, the Ministry of Women and Family Affairs in Algeria, and the Ministry of Information in Ghana.

These initiatives have been supported by advocacy activities in Namibia and Malawi, through the Gender and Media Southern Africa Network (GEMSA), which promotes mainstreaming of gender in the work of the media in addition to incorporating gender into training curricula. Some national women's machineries are contributing to these efforts. In Namibia, research results show that the media inadequately cover issues of HIV and AIDS. Only approximately four per cent of media focus is HIV/AIDS-related. Themes which have gained visibility include women's access to ICT and communication and their participation in decision-making.

Specialized bodies have been created to meet BPfA objectives. These include the Women's Journalists Nucleus in Angola, and the Media Women Associations in Ghana, Uganda, Burundi and Zimbabwe. Other countries such as Democratic Republic of Congo and Niger have established high councils for freedom and communication, whilst Togo reports of the setting up of an Observatory for improving women's image in the media. Capacity-building activities for media professionals were organized in Burkina Faso, Cape Verde and other countries, with the support of various partners; GEMSA is also reported to be proactive in advocating and promoting mainstreaming of gender in the media.

27 Ministry of Works, Housing and Communications (2003) National Information and Communication Technology Policy

28 Ministry of Works, Housing and Communications (MoWHC), 2003, pp 33 and Uganda Communications Commission (UCC), 2005, pp 89 respectively, quoted by the AGDI Ugandan report.

The Design of Gender-Aware Media Policies

Fifteen (15) countries (Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, , Gabon, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Tanzania and Uganda have adopted strategies or policies to enhance women’s role in the media and several countries have implemented strategies and in addition, have PoAs in place.

Gambia, Ghana, Lesotho, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania have developed PoAs to promote the recruitment of women at all levels of media institutions and organs. Others such as Ghana, Mauritius, Madagascar, Nigeria and Republic of Congo have organized capacity-building activities for journalists on gender and human rights and on how to engender media production.

Recognition and Support to Women’s Media Networks

Fifteen (15) countries (Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d’Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe) indicate that they recognize and support women’s media networks.

Women Media and journalists associations and networks have been very active for several years in many countries (e.g. Algeria, Burundi, Egypt, Lesotho, Gabon, Mali, Mozambique, and Uganda). Country reports also cite networks that were created recently. These include the Women Algerian Journalists²⁹, the Chadian Women Professionals of Communication³⁰, the Network of Women Journalists of Côte d’Ivoire, the Women Journalists Network to fight against AIDS and the network of Gender and Development Communicators³¹ in Togo. Case studies of Uganda and Botswana are cited in Box 3.22.

Box 3.22: Promoting women in the media in Botswana and Uganda

The Government of Uganda promotes and recognizes women’s media networks, including the Uganda Media Women Association which has a community Radio Station for purposes of mainly communicating information that promotes women’s and children’s welfare. The Women of Uganda Network and the Uganda Journalists Association are other organizations in which women participate actively.

In Botswana, workshops and press briefings for media houses are held on different gender issues. This has increased proper reporting and some media houses are now vigorously writing on gender issues. GFPs have also been located in some media houses.

Sources: Botswana and Uganda country data, 2009

As with Botswana, GFPs have been established in media houses of other countries, with a view to positively impacting the media coverage of women issues. At sub-regional level, the *SADC Gender Justice Barometer* has been set up and is being run by *Gender Links* to monitor the role of women in the media within the sub-region.

29 “Réseau des journalistes algériennes”

30 Association des Professionnelles de la Communication (APC)

31 Réseau des Communicateurs Genre et Développement (RECOGED)

Some countries are experiencing an increase in women's participation in decision-making positions in the media. In countries such as Algeria, Burkina Faso, Chad, Egypt, and Namibia they are occupying positions of responsibility, including those of directors, editors in chief, and heads of radio stations.

The Participation of Women in the Development of Professional Guidelines and Codes of Conduct

Fifteen (15) countries (Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe encourage the participation of women in the development of professional guidelines and codes of conduct for media.

These same countries indicate that women are present in decision-making positions within bodies in charge of elaborating rules and guidelines for the media at national and sub-regional levels. For example, a media code of conduct on reporting Child Sexual Abuse and Exploitation (CSAE) was developed by the media women of East African countries, consisting of Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia and Uganda and has been replicated in Algeria, Egypt, Gabon, Lesotho, Mali, Morocco and Mozambique.

A number of countries have taken action in line with such ethical standards. For example in Mauritius, an award has been instituted to reward journalists who focus on the elimination of sex stereotyping and the projection of positive images of women. Two unethical images of women have been banned by the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) of the country.

Additionally, in Morocco, a Media Charter which bans the portrayal of insensitive images of women has been developed with UNFPA support and has been agreed by consensus among all media agencies.

Commitment to the World Summit on the Information Society

Five (5) countries (Burkina Faso, Ghana, Malawi, Mali and Tanzania) have plans in place to implement the WSIS provisions. Nineteen (19) countries (Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe) report that they have programmes on promoting ICT with specific gender dimensions.

Algeria has created an initiative spanning the period 2005-2010, which aims to provide one computer to each family. The project also provides vocational training and professional teaching³² even for women at rural level. Mali has ICT training and cyber clubs in place as well as an e-festival week. Women are accessing ICTs and using them in the promotion of their activities.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. There is a continued projection of negative and degrading images of women in media communications - electronic, print, visual and audio. Print and electronic media in most countries do not provide a balanced picture of women's diverse lives and contributions to society in a changing world;

32 Ministère de la formation et l'enseignement professionnel

- b. Violent and degrading or pornographic media products are also negatively affecting women and their participation in society. Programming that reinforces women's traditional roles can be equally limiting. The world-wide trend towards consumerism has created a climate in which advertisements and commercial messages often portray women primarily as consumers and target girls and women of all ages, inappropriately;
- c. Gender issues and women's views and voices are still marginalized and underrepresented in the continent's news media and when women are represented they are more likely than men to be portrayed as victims or negatively as objects of beauty or through pornographic images;
- d. Female journalists are usually confined to cover 'soft or entertaining issues, while men tend to cover the **'hard'** or serious topics; and
- e. At policy level, major challenges include the: lack of gender-specific legislation and policy in the media, lack of strict implementation and monitoring measures, where this policy exists; under-representation of women in decision-making positions in all media houses; unbalanced and stereotyped portrayal of women in the media and limited access to the media and ICT by both women and men in rural areas.

Recommended Actions

- a. Support women's education, training and employment to promote and ensure women's equal access to all areas and levels of the media;
- b. Support research into all aspects of women and the media so as to define areas needing attention and action and review existing media policies with a view to integrating a gender perspective;
- c. Promote women's full and equal participation in the media, including management, programming, education, training and research;
- d. Gender balance in the appointment of women and men to all advisory, management, regulatory or monitoring bodies, including those connected to the private and State or public media;
- e. Encourage to the extent consistent with freedom of expression, an increase in the number of programmes for and by women and ensure that women's needs and concerns are properly addressed;
- f. Encourage and recognize women's media networks, including electronic networks and other new technologies of communication, as a means for dissemination of information and the exchange of views, including at the international level, and support women's groups active in all media work and systems of communications to that end;
- g. Encourage and provide the means or incentives for the creative use of programmes in the national media for the dissemination of information on various cultural forms of indigenous people and the development of social and educational issues in this regard within the framework of national law; and
- h. Guarantee the freedom of the media and its subsequent protection within the framework of national law and encourage, consistent with freedom of expression, the positive involvement of the media in development and social issues.

Area of Concern 11: Women and the Environment

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA calls for the active involvement of women at all levels of environmental decision-making and integration of gender concerns and perspectives into policies and programmes for sustainable development. These include ensuring opportunities for women to participate at all levels of decision-making, integrating rural women's traditional knowledge and practices with regard to sustainable resource use and management in the development of environmental management and extension programmes.

The Seventh African Regional Review Conference (2004) stressed the need to adopt gender-sensitive programmes, strategies and measures on the environment by governments. It also highlighted that women should play a prominent role in the design and implementation of policies and programmes on water, energy, sanitation, land and forestry conservation and management as well as in rural and urban planning. An additional recommendation was the mainstreaming of gender considerations into all MDG 7-related activities.

Situational Analysis of Women and the Environment

Poverty results in certain kinds of environmental stress. The major cause of the continued deterioration of the global environment is the unsustainable pattern of consumption and production, particularly in industrialized countries, a matter of grave concern that is aggravating poverty and imbalances. Rising sea levels as a result of global warming are also causing grave and immediate threats to people living in island countries and coastal areas.

The deterioration of natural resources displaces communities, especially women, from income-generating activities while greatly adding to unremunerated work. Through their management and use of natural resources, women provide sustenance to their families and communities. As consumers and producers, caretakers of their families and educators, women play an important role in promoting sustainable development through their concern for the quality and sustainability of life for present and future generations.

Nevertheless, women remain largely absent at all levels of policy formulation and decision-making in natural resource and environmental management, conservation, protection and rehabilitation, and their experience and skills in advocacy for and monitoring of proper natural resource management too often remain marginalized in policy-making and decision-making bodies, as well as in educational institutions and environment-related agencies at the managerial level.

Women are rarely trained as professional natural resource managers with policy-making capacities, such as land-use planners, agriculturalists, foresters, marine scientists and environmental lawyers. Even in cases where they are trained as professional natural resource managers, they are often

underrepresented in formal institutions with policy-making capacities at the national, regional and international levels.

Often, women are not equal participants in the management of financial and corporate institutions whose decision-making most significantly affects environmental quality. Furthermore, there are institutional weaknesses in coordination between women NGOs and national institutions dealing with environmental issues, despite the recent rapid growth and visibility of women's NGOs working on these issues at all levels.

Integrating Gender Perspectives in the Design and Implementation of Environmental Policies

Seventy one per cent (71 per cent) of countries have taken measures to integrate gender perspectives into the design and implementation of environmental policies. They include the Algeria National Plan for Town and Country Planning, the National Energy Policy of Botswana, the National Environmental Policy of Zimbabwe and other policy initiatives of Egypt, Ghana, Guinea and Lesotho. Burkina Faso has a PoA in place for Promotion of Women's Activities in the Environment (2008).

The Government of Chad has been implementing programmes on management of natural resources since 2005. Gender is mainstreamed into these programmes and important dimensions such as reforestation, and new appropriate technologies are being operationalized. In Liberia, the National Disaster Relief Commission and Environmental Protection Agency have been mandated to take responsibility for measures to reduce environmental impacts on women. Rwanda has initiated various developmental programs to mitigate impacts of *climate change, food and energy crisis* on gender equality and women's empowerment. These are demonstrated through deferent programs involving active participation of women, such as the Vision2020 UMURENGE Program (VUP), Crop Intensification Programme (CIP), AGASOZI NDATWA (Best Development Achiever Village), Land Husbandry, Water Harvesting and rainwater blocker terraces, Rural Sector Support Project and *Projet d'Appui à l'Élevage Bovin Laitier*. Programs on biogas energy, energy saving stoves, tree Planting and radical terraces are important programs that involve both men and women to address effects of climate change.

In addition to these countries, others are integrating gender into their environmental policies by devoting special chapters to women. They include Ghana, Malawi, Namibia, Nigeria, Tunisia, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

Empowering Women as Producers and Consumers to Ensure Effective Environmental Actions

Sixty-eight per cent of countries have been implementing plans and strategies towards improving basic services for all, especially in poor and rural zones. In this respect, sanitation, water supply, health services and income-generating services are encouraged even though they are not necessarily focused on women as a special group.

Gender issues are taken into account in policies, plans, programmes and projects related to environmental protection in countries such as Algeria, Egypt, Ghana, Mauritania, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Togo and Tunisia. A range of programmes are in place to sensitize women on the effects of bad practices on the environment.

Technical Assistance to Women in Sectors such as Food Production and Fisheries

Nineteen (19) countries are providing technical assistance to women to increase production in various fields towards ensuring sound environmental practices. The countries concerned are Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

Interventions include literacy, vocational training and micro-credit programmes, administered through established institutional mechanisms such as the Women and Development Units of the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fishing in Benin, the Fund for Women Entrepreneurs in Botswana, the National Federation of Rural Women and the Associations of Rural Women in Mali. Several of these initiatives are being undertaken in collaboration with CSOs.

Most countries place more emphasis on women in rural areas (Algeria, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, and Cote d'Ivoire) with the aim of improving their income-generating activities. In this vein, several projects are implemented to support women in fishing, oil and shea butter extraction and the cultivation of fruits, vegetables, cereals and tubers.

Rural women are usually organized into groups and, as a result, are able to benefit from various kinds of support (e.g. land, credit and equipment). Their capacities have been reinforced in terms of technical skills and marketing capacity (e.g. Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Swaziland, Uganda and Zimbabwe). Sierra Leone is supporting women's efforts at fishing boat and farm ownership. Several countries (e.g. Chad, Malawi, Niger, Republic of Congo, Togo, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania) have conducted policy and programme evaluations to test their gender responsiveness.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. Women remain largely absent at all levels of policy formulation and decision-making in natural resource and environmental management, conservation, protection and rehabilitation. Their experience and skills in advocacy for and monitoring of proper natural resource management too often remain marginalized in policy-making and decision-making bodies and in educational institutions and environment-related agencies at the managerial;
- b. Women are rarely trained as professional natural resource managers with policy-making capacities, such as land-use planners, agriculturalists, foresters, marine scientists and environmental lawyers;
- c. Even in cases where women are trained as professional natural resource managers, they are often under-represented in formal institutions with policy-making capacities at the national, regional and international levels. Often women are not equal participants in

- the management of financial and corporate institutions whose decision-making most significantly affect environmental quality;
- d. There are institutional weaknesses in coordination between women's NGOs and national institutions dealing with environmental issues, despite the recent rapid growth and visibility of women's NGOs working on these issues at all levels;
 - e. African women are very vulnerable and are most likely to be disproportionately affected by the adverse impacts of climate change because they constitute the majority of poor people. Women's traditional roles as the primary users and managers of natural resources, primary caregivers, and labourers engaged in unpaid labour, dependent on livelihoods and resources, are put most at risk by climate change;
 - f. Women lack adequate rights and access to resources and information vital to overcoming the challenges posed by climate change. They are frequently excluded from processes and decisions relating to the use and management of natural resources, including those impacting on climate change;
 - g. While adaptation research and activities targeting vulnerable populations are increasing in number, limited attention has been given to the gender differences that affect the interventions to strengthen livelihoods and food security from external shocks. Yet, research and policy-making have so far failed to examine extensively the gender aspects of vulnerability and adaptation to climate change (FAO, 2007, cited by I. Gaye 2009); and
 - h. Inadequate awareness and knowledge of gender issues by policy-makers, planners and implementers has been one of the major obstacles/challenges for integrating gender issues and improving women's participation and benefit from environmental activities. Many countries stressed that trained staff members are missing in most of the relevant ministries, bureaus and so on.

Recommended Actions

- a. Take measures to integrate a gender perspective in the design and implementation of, among other things, environmentally sound and sustainable resource management mechanisms, production techniques and infrastructure development in rural and urban areas;
- b. Empower women as producers and consumers with a view that they would take effective environmental actions, along with men, in their homes, communities and workplaces;
- c. Promote the participation of local communities, particularly women, in identification of public service needs, spatial planning and the provision and design of urban infrastructure ;
- d. Take gender impacts into consideration in the work of the Commission on Sustainable Development and other appropriate United Nations bodies and in the activities of international financial institutions;
- e. Promote the involvement of women and the incorporation of a gender perspective in the design, approval and execution of projects funded under the Global Environment Facility and other appropriate United Nations organizations;
- f. Encourage the design of projects in the areas of concern to the Global Environment Facility that would benefit women and projects managed by women;

- g. Establish strategies and mechanisms to increase the proportion of women, particularly at grassroots levels, involved as decision-makers, planners, managers, scientists and technical advisers and as beneficiaries in the design, development and implementation of policies and programmes for natural resource management and environmental protection and conservation; and
- h. Encourage social, economic, political and scientific institutions to address environmental degradation and the resulting impact on women.

Area of Concern 12: The Girl Child

BPfA Expectations

The BPfA calls for the elimination of negative cultural attitudes and practices against girls, the elimination of economic exploitation of child labour, the protection of girls at work and the eradication of violence against the girl child.

The main responsibilities to be undertaken by governments and other stakeholders include the development and implementation of comprehensive policies, PoAs and programmes for the advancement of the girl child, addressing the issue of discrimination against girls on the basis of tradition and religion, and encouraging and supporting NGOs and CBOs in their efforts to promote changes in negative attitudes and practices towards girls.

The Beijing +10 regional review conference reaffirmed the need to protect the girl child against discrimination, ill-health, malnutrition, stereotyping, and violence including FGM, early and forced marriage and exploitation through domestic work and trafficking. Successful strategies for improving girls' access to and retention in education were to be scaled-up. The content and culture of schooling should be free from bias, discrimination and violence against girls. These were to encompass curriculum reform, gender training for teachers and others working in education, as well as for boys and girls, together with continuous advocacy with parents, traditional and religious leaders, parliamentarians and other stakeholders.

Access to professional and technical education for girls and gender-focused programmes was to be facilitated for both boys and girls. Furthermore, financial partners were to reflect greater commitment to women and girls (UNECA, 2004, para 34).

A General Situational Analysis of the Girl Child

Although immense milestones have been achieved with respect to advancing the status and development of the girl child, the overall review indicates that she continues to be discriminated against from the earliest stages of life, through her childhood and into adulthood.

Reasons for the discrepancy include, among other things, harmful attitudes and practices, such as FGM and son preference that results in female infanticide and prenatal sex selection, early and forced

marriages, including child marriage, violence against women, sexual exploitation, sexual abuse, and discrimination against girls in food allocation and other practices related to health and well-being. As a result, fewer girls than boys survive into adulthood.

In many countries, girls are often treated as inferior and are socialized to put themselves last, thus undermining their self-esteem. Gender-biased educational processes, including curricula, educational materials and practices, teachers' attitudes and classroom interaction, reinforce existing gender inequalities. Moreover, girls and adolescents may receive a variety of conflicting and confusing messages on their gender roles from their parents, teachers, peers and the media.

While female primary enrolment particularly at primary level is increasing, many countries are facing severe drop-out rates and limited progression into higher levels of education. This is attributable to such factors as customary attitudes, child labour, early marriages, lack of funds and lack of adequate schooling facilities, teenage pregnancies and gender inequalities in society at large as well as in the family.

In some countries, the shortage of women teachers inhibits the enrolment of girls. In many cases, girls start to undertake heavy domestic chores at a very early age and are expected to manage both educational and domestic responsibilities, often resulting in poor scholastic performance and an early drop-out from schooling.

As noted, the percentage of girls enrolled in secondary school remains significantly low in many countries. They are often not encouraged or given the opportunity to pursue scientific and technological training and education, which limits the knowledge they require for their daily lives and their employment opportunities. They tend to be less motivated compared to boys in participating in and learning about the social, economic and political functioning of society, with the result that they are not offered the same opportunities as boys to take part in decision-making processes.

In several countries, DHS results show that girls continue to be victims of early pregnancies. Motherhood at a very young age entails complications during pregnancy and delivery and a risk of maternal death that is much greater than average. The children of young mothers have higher levels of morbidity and mortality.

Early child-bearing continues to be an impediment to improvements in the educational, economic and social status of women in all parts of the world. Overall, early marriage and early motherhood can severely curtail educational and employment opportunities and are likely to have a long-term adverse impact on their and their children's quality of life.

Sexual violence and STDs including HIV/AIDS have a devastating effect on children's health, and girls are more vulnerable than boys to the consequences of unprotected and premature sexual relations. Due to such factors as their youth, social pressures, lack of protective laws, or failure to enforce laws, girls are more vulnerable to all kinds of violence, particularly sexual violence, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, trafficking, possibly the sale of their organs and tissues, and forced labour.

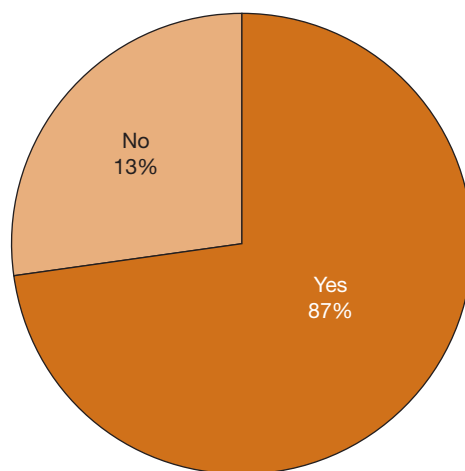
The girl child with disabilities faces additional barriers and needs to be ensured non-discrimination and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms in accordance with the United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities. Some girl children are particularly vulnerable, especially when they are among the abandoned, homeless and displaced, street children, children in areas in conflict, and children who are discriminated against because they belong to an ethnic or racial minority group.

Highlights of Achievements

Ratification and Compliance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child

All African countries with the exception of Somalia have ratified the CRC and an estimated 73 per cent of ratifying countries have integrated the convention into domestic law through legislative and constitutional reforms.

Figure 2.5: Domestication of the convention on the rights of the child



Source: Country data

Some countries such as Cape Verde, Egypt, Ghana, Niger, Gambia, Togo, Republic of Congo and Tunisia have adopted comprehensive Codes on Children, with a special emphasis on the status of the child as a subject of human rights. All legislative enactments contain clauses on non-discrimination, which seek to enhance the well-being of the girl child. An estimated 65 per cent of countries report that they have eliminated injustices related to girl child inheritance. Benin, Chad, Gabon, Guinea, Lesotho, Mali, Sierra Leone, Uganda and Zimbabwe guarantee equal sharing of inheritance between girls and boys.

In Namibia, the 2004 National Policy on Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) is being implemented and barriers related to inheritance of women and girls have been removed by the enactment of the Communal Land Reform Act no 5 of 2002. The Child Status Act no. 6 of 2006 guarantees women the right to inherit land from their late spouses contrary to custom. Moreover, children (both boys and girls) born out of wedlock are all guaranteed equal rights to inherit from their parents as a result of the same act, differing from the past situation where only children born in marriage had a right to inherit.

As part of the efforts deployed to reduce VAW, all countries adopted laws protecting children from violence in general. In this respect, an estimated 88 per cent of countries (e.g. (Algeria, Benin, Burundi, Egypt, Guinea, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have enacted and are enforcing legislation to protect girls from violence such as sexual exploitation and HTPs. Whilst some countries report a decrease in the rate of forced marriage (Republic of Congo), this practice is criminalized and banned in others (e.g. Algeria, Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Lesotho, Mali and Togo).

Similarly, several countries set equal legal ages of marriage for both women and men. Examples include Algeria 19 years, Comoros, Mauritania, and Namibia 18 years, and Tunisia 20 years. Multi-sectoral planning and reporting tools have been developed in most countries in line with the recommendations of the 2002 Special Session on Children. Such is the case in Algeria, Botswana, Côte d’Ivoire, Mauritania, Mauritius and Tunisia.

In terms of more specific issues, 20 countries (Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe are taking steps to eliminate barriers to schooling of pregnant adolescents. Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) have been conducted in many countries with UNICEF and other UN agency support with specific indicators related to children rights. The countries concerned include Algeria, Angola, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cote d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Mauritania, Malawi, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Togo, and Tunisia.

Eighty-two per cent of the countries are also implementing sectoral plans, strategies and programmes targeting children in education, health, protection and juvenile justice administration. Tunisia has an elaborate child protection programme. Different mechanisms such as observatories, training, documentation and studies on the protection of child rights are in place. Created in 2002, the delegates in charge of the protection of children in all governorates, as well as different plans and strategies to promote a culture of children rights, and protection of children against violence make a difference. Similarly, a National Strategy to fight VAW using a life cycle approach has been adopted in Algeria, and the National Gender Policies of Swaziland and Zimbabwe have strategies that seek to promote the well-being of the girl child.

Research into the Situation of the Girl Child

An estimated 65 per cent of the countries indicate that they have been engaged in ongoing research on the situation of girls. Through Ministries, National Population Councils or National Children Councils, research centres and observatories, research and studies are oriented towards providing evidence for policy and advocacy.

The areas covered include education, health, violence, HIV/AIDS, reproductive and sexual rights and labour (e.g. Algeria, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Namibia, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Tunisia and Morocco). Training, sensitization, advocacy

and lobbying activities are targeting a wide range of stakeholders and decision-makers based on the study results.

The Removal of Gender Stereotyping

Encouraging efforts have been exerted in developing school curricula, teaching materials and text books to improve the self-image, lives and work opportunities of girls. Some 77 per cent of the countries have developed curricula and other measures that contribute to improving the self-image of girls.

Algeria is as an example of good practice in its conduct of reform in the education sector, which resulted in a complete revision of the method of preparation of textbooks in terms of content, shape and focus on the elimination of all stereotyped images of the roles of women and men and girls and boys in textbooks. New concepts are now integrated as women's rights, gender equality, HIV-AIDS and violence. Similarly, Egypt has achieved 1 to 1 ratio for boys and girls in secondary education.

Many innovative achievements could be cited, such as the programme set up in Chad to support research in the education system and preparation of related teaching materials adopted in 2006-2008, which have been in use in schools since the 2008-2009 school year. Other case examples include integration of gender in the education system in Comoros, and the revised stereotypes in textbooks at primary and secondary levels to eliminate all negative images of women and girls in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Egypt, Gabon, Guinea, Malawi, Mali, Namibia, Republic of Congo, Swaziland, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia.

Interventions for Girls with Disabilities

Efforts are deployed in all countries to deliver good quality services and appropriate aids to children living with disabilities. Although national plans and programmes have been designed and are being implemented, most of them are gender blind and do not focus on girls. An estimated 57 per cent of the countries have facilitated equal provision of services and devices to disabled girls. Specialized schools and vocational training centres are being constructed (e.g. Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Niger and Tunisia) including girls' classrooms in Djibouti.

The National Council for Children in Egypt launched a Green Line for children with disabilities to provide advice, and Mali is implementing a national community-based rehabilitation programme and specialized structures for people with disabilities. Namibia established a system of social grants to benefit children with disabilities and in 2008, while Uganda adopted affirmative action for women and girls with disabilities in all spheres of social and economic affairs.

Highlights of Challenges

- a. The economic crisis is causing both male and female youth to engage in business ventures which distract them from attending school;
- b. Religious and cultural practices such as early marriages, FGM, and unfair distribution of property of the deceased continue to promote violation of girl-child rights;

- c. Girl children with disabilities tend to be more vulnerable than other categories of children in all respects, especially as they relate to access to basic social services;
- d. Affirmative action policies are not being strictly implemented and resources are not being put in place to monitor compliance;
- e. There is limited coverage of career guidance programmes to encourage girl children to venture into technical careers; and
- f. There are limited scholarships for girls' education specifically and where they exist, are not effectively targeted.

Recommended Actions

- a. Ensure universal and equal access to and completion of primary education by all children and eliminate the existing gap between girls and boys. Similarly, ensure equal access to secondary education by the year 2015 and equal access to higher education, including vocational and technical education, for all girls and boys, including the disadvantaged and gifted;
- b. Take steps to integrate functional literacy and numeracy programmes, particularly for out-of-school girls, into development programmes;
- c. Promote human rights education in educational programmes with a focus on the human rights of women and girls and the principles of inalienability and indivisibility;
- d. Increase enrolment and improve retention rates of girls by allocating appropriate budgetary resources and enlisting the support of the community and of parents through campaigns and flexible school schedules, incentives, scholarships, access programmes for out-of-school girls and other measures;
- e. Develop training programmes and materials for teachers and educators, raising awareness about their own role in the educational process, with a view to providing them with effective strategies for gender-sensitive teaching;
- f. Take actions to ensure that female teachers and professors have the same opportunities and status as male teachers and professors ;
- g. Ensure access to appropriate education and skills-training for girl children with disabilities for their full participation in life;
- h. Strengthen and reorient health education and health services, particularly primary health care programmes, including sexual and reproductive health, and design quality health programmes to meet the physical and mental needs of girls and the needs of young, expectant and nursing mothers;
- i. Establish peer education and outreach programmes with a view to strengthening individual and collective action to reduce the vulnerability of girls to HIV/AIDS and other STDs, as agreed to in the PoA of the ICPD and as established in the Report of that Conference (+15) ;
- j. Ensure education and dissemination of information to girls, especially adolescent girls, regarding the physiology of reproduction, reproductive and sexual health, as agreed to in the PoA of the ICPD, responsible family planning practices, family life, reproductive health, STDs, HIV infection and AIDS prevention, recognizing the parental roles ;

- k. Define a minimum age for a child's admission to employment in national legislation, in conformity with existing international labour standards and the CRC, in all sectors of activity;
- l. Take appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the girl-child, in the household and in society, from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse;
- m. Undertake gender-sensitization training for those involved in rehabilitation and other assistance programmes for girls who are victims of violence and promote programmes of information, support and training for such girls; and
- n. Enact and enforce legislation protecting girls from all forms of violence, including female infanticide and prenatal sex selection, genital mutilation, incest, sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, child prostitution and child pornography, and develop age-appropriate safe and confidential programmes for medical, social and psychological support services to girls who are subjected to violence.

Final Conclusions and Way Forward

This 15-year review of the BPfA has examined the progress made and some of the challenges facing Africa in promoting gender equality and women's advancement and empowerment based on country responses to administered questionnaires.

The responses demonstrate that while some progress has been made in the implementation of the BPfA in each of the 12 critical areas, African countries continue to face challenges that are affecting their achievement of the goals of the BPfA as well as those of other development frameworks including the ICPD and the MDGs.

The BPfA review and the MDGs assessments show that notable progress has been achieved in legal reforms and defining policies towards gender equality and women's empowerment. The performance in all the critical areas and towards the MDGs is varied. Some show significant success as with primary school enrolment whilst others present a longer-term challenge, such as reducing maternal mortality.

It is evident from this review that governments still face challenges in meeting the targets set in the BPfA. Accelerating efforts to implement the BPfA would require addressing the challenges within the socioeconomic context of each nation. Some of the crosscutting challenges include lack of statistics, particularly of sex-disaggregated data, which prevents governments from reporting on:

- Increased gender differentials in several critical areas of concern;
- Lack of adequate human and financial resources for gender equality and women's empowerment;
- Limited translation of laws into gains for women;
- Limited enforcement of laws leading to perpetuation of gender inequalities and VAW; and
- Continued presence of longstanding cultural and traditional practices that discriminate against women and girls.

This 15-year BPfA review has underscored the importance of collecting high-quality, reliable, comparable, policy-relevant, sex- and gender-disaggregated data for policy development on gender equality and women's empowerment.

These data are crucial for policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation of progress towards achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. In this regard, governments and stakeholders need to invest in sound and responsive statistical planning with gender perspectives in mind.

Tremendous progress has been made in the ratification of regional and global treaties affecting women. Most countries have also taken steps at law reform, policy development and planning, thereby providing frameworks for implementation at the local level.

Nevertheless, an immense lacuna still lies between these initiatives and implementation. For issues such as VAW and land and property rights, the review has noted very limited enforcement and this is a major challenge that is inhibiting progress. This suggests that there is need for governments to move beyond establishing legislation, to a stage of focusing on ensuring active enforcement.

The multiple global crises that include escalating food prices, volatile fuel prices, climate change, economic and financial downturn are major challenges to achieving gender equality and women's empowerment on the continent. The economic crisis will have a significant impact on women as more of them are likely to lose jobs and are forced to manage shrinking household incomes. This is likely to worsen the poverty level among women with major repercussions on children's food security, education and health, and maternal mortality.

In light of the economic crisis, it is important that member States protect and increase pro-poor public spending on social sectors that can ensure that the social welfare of women is protected during the economic downturn. It is also important to ensure that the stimulus packages to mitigate the impact of the economic and financial crises address areas that can empower women to move out of poverty, such as increased investments in agriculture.

This 15-year BPfA review has noted that conflicts and social instability continue to beset many countries and to erode the little progress made with achieving gender equality and women's empowerment in affected countries.

Women and girls continue to be vulnerable to sexual violence, and suffer from the frequent disruption of their existing social networks, infrastructure and economic and social activities. Peace and security is a necessary facilitating factor towards achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. Countries should strengthen programmes to promote peace and security and involve women in peace-building initiatives.

Specific issues such as maternal mortality and VAW have been identified as requiring urgent attention. Maternal mortality in Africa remains the highest in the world and calls for intensified action to improve equitable access to reproductive health, antenatal and obstetric services and to address the shortage of health personnel.

With regard to VAW, it is important that countries that have not yet enacted supportive laws do so and ensure their effective enforcement. It is also important for countries to strengthen multi-sectoral coordination in addressing VAW, involve boys and men and strengthen comprehensive data collection and monitoring mechanisms.

Lack of adequate human and financial resources for gender equality and women's empowerment is cited as the major inhibiting factor and the major reason for the big gap between what is on paper and what exists in practice.

Africa should focus more on mobilizing internally generated resources, as these are important for sustaining BPfA and MDG-related activities and interventions. The continued presence of long-

standing cultural and traditional practices that discriminate against women and girls has constrained progress towards achieving gender equality.

Discriminatory practices and public attitudes towards the advancement of women and to full participation of women in politics and decision-making have not changed at the same pace as policy, legal and institutional frameworks. This can be addressed through sustained public-awareness campaigns, sensitization of traditional and community leaders, and empowering women through education, training and legal literacy, legal aid and accessible justice systems.

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Appendices

Appendix I: The Beijing+15 Process in Banjul

Banjul Declaration on the Strategies for Accelerating the Implementation of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action

From Commitment to Action

We, African Ministers Responsible for Gender and Women’s Affairs, meeting in Banjul (Gambia) from 19 to 20 November 2009 for the fifteen-year review of the implementation of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action under the overall theme “*From Commitment to Action*”;

Building on the 1999 and 2004 reviews of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action which led to the adoption of sub regional and national action plans to redress gender imbalances, and which emphasized the need for gender-sensitive, participatory and inclusive poverty reduction strategies and the promotion and protection of the human rights of women, with emphasis on the definition, development and implementation of legal and policy frameworks;

Acknowledging the progress that has been achieved, in particular in women’s representation in decision-making, and gender parity in education;

Endorsing the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the fifteen-year review of the implementation of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action made by the expert session held from 16 to 18 November 2009 in Banjul, The Gambia during the Eighth Africa Regional Conference on Women (Beijing + 15), which confirm that progress in the implementation of the 12 critical areas of concern has been uneven;

Inspired by international, regional and sub regional declarations, protocols and conventions, including the 2000 Millennium Declaration, which aim to promote and strengthen women’s empowerment and accelerate the attainment of gender equity and equality as part of overall human rights;

Recognizing the interrelationships among gender equality, women’s empowerment, human rights, economic growth and sustainable development;

Further recognize the Meeting of the African Union experts responsible for gender and women’s affairs and take note of outcomes of the African Women’s NGOs Consultative Meeting held on the margins of the Eighth African Regional Conference on Women (Beijing + 15);

Concerned that new challenges posed by climate change and environmental degradation; food and energy crises; financial and economic crises; and the feminization of trafficking and migration can negatively affect the progress made;

Recognizing that progress towards gender equality, gender equity and women's empowerment can be achieved by addressing the structural and root causes of gender inequality through the enactment and enforcement of constitutional and legal instruments, taking into account the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and other international, regional and sub regional instruments such as the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development;

Convinced of the need to establish and strengthen institutional mechanisms for gender mainstreaming and budgeting in all policies and programmes, rooted in a human-centred vision of development and the promotion and protection of women's human rights;

Affirming the critical importance of the principles, objectives and goals of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action for women's advancement, gender equality, gender equity, sustainable development and poverty eradication in Africa, which will contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs);

Stressing the importance of committed and effective leadership at all levels and the role of women and men in promoting the required changes in attitudes, behaviours and practices that limit women's and girls' rights, capabilities and access to opportunities;

Encouraging the regional economic communities and other sub regional statutory organs to be fully engaged in the implementation and monitoring of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action;

Appreciating the importance of establishing partnerships with all stakeholders, including ministries of finance and economic planning and other line ministries, civil society, the private sector, workers' organizations, community and religious leaders, research and academic institutions, local governments, the media, the international community, and men and boys, and calling upon them to further support national efforts to address the critical areas of concern of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action and to consider women as a strategic driving force;

1. *Emphasize* our commitment to fully implement international, regional and sub regional agreements and initiatives whose objectives are in line with the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action and the Millennium Development Goals;

2. *Are committed* to renewing and intensifying our resource mobilization efforts, improving national strategies, and enhancing institutional, financial and human resources in order to accelerate the achievement of the goals of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action as well as the Millennium Development Goals between now and 2015;

3. *Are committed* to focusing our actions on the following strategic areas:

1. Economic empowerment of women through poverty reduction, employment creation, social protection and use of information and communications technology:

1.1 Promote the sustainable economic empowerment of women by ensuring and reinforcing their right and access to timely and relevant information, training, ownership and control of productive resources; promoting entrepreneurship; creating employment opportunities for women through skills and business development and enhanced employability; and improving the agricultural productivity of rural women by providing them with advanced and appropriate technologies.

1.2 Nurture the economic independence of women from an early age by adopting a holistic approach and ensuring that young women, in particular those with disabilities, have access to secondary and tertiary education and professional training, including access to information and communications technology, and science and technology; using incentives and social protection measures to reduce the dropout rate among girls, particularly poor girls and pregnant adolescents; and protecting the girl-child from violence and early and forced marriage.

1.3 Develop and strengthen monitoring, evaluation and information systems, as well as capacities for analysing linkages between gender and economic development by focusing on sex-disaggregated data collection, production, analysis and dissemination; and undertaking studies on the formal, informal and agricultural sectors.

2. Peace, security and development

2.1 Develop and implement a comprehensive action plan that will include domestication of relevant international and regional resolutions and protocols, including United Nations Security Council resolutions S/RES/1325 (2000), S/RES/1820 (2008), S/RES/1888 (2009), and S/RES/1889 (2009) on women, peace and security; advocacy for change using the media and traditional communication channels; reform of legal and judicial systems and security institutions; research; and adoption of an early warning system;

2.2 Promote capacity-building and peer-learning in conflict prevention and resolution, and in human rights protection and promotion for government officials, parliamentarians, women, men, youth, media, security services, the judiciary, and community leaders;

2.3 Adopt measures such as the provision of psychological support and the creation of reparation and compensation funds to secure the full reintegration and rehabilitation of victims; promote the effective reintegration of ex-combatants; strengthen protection and assistance to women refugees, internally displaced women and children, and female returnees; and protect girls and women from trafficking.

3. Violence against women

Adopt and implement a multi-sectoral plan to address gender-based violence, within the framework of the United Nations Secretary-General's "UNite to End Violence against Women and Girls" campaign, with particular emphasis on its Africa component, and underpinned by the following actions:

- (i) Enactment and strengthening of laws to address violence against women; social mobilization, including the launching of zero-tolerance campaigns; literacy, including legal and functional literacy for women and men, as well as education for girls and women; partnership with civil society; provision of social support and compensation to victims of violence; creation and/or strengthening of networks of women lawyers; provision of psychological support to women affected by violence; and targeted actions for men and boys to act as agents and partners of change.
- (ii) Capacity-building, including the training of law enforcement agents and health services personnel for the effective application and enforcement of relevant laws and policies; provision of adequate support to social welfare institutions, the police and the judiciary; enhanced outreach services, especially at the community level; and sensitization of parliamentarians.
- (iii) Integration of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms into sub regional and national action plans based on in-depth studies of the structural causes of violence against women. Development of relevant indicators and set baseline as well as undertake national prevalence surveys to assist in measuring progress and ensuring accountability.

4. Representation and participation of women in all areas of decision-making

- 4.1 Adopt and implement affirmative action measures, notably quotas for gender parity, and set up institutional mechanisms supported by adequate resources to increase women's representation in decision-making bodies, as provided for in international, regional and sub regional instruments, and underpinned by constitutional guarantees and legislative provisions on gender parity.
- 4.2 Reform the electoral systems and internal leadership selection procedures of the public sector and political parties/organizations, in order to increase women's participation; encourage private sector institutions to become more gender-responsive, and promote gender parity in leadership and decision-making.
- 4.3 Develop capacity enhancement programmes to transform negative socio-cultural attitudes and perceptions towards female leadership; strengthen networking and collaboration among women's groups; and enhance inter-generational communication.

- 4.4 Ensure responsibility and accountability at the highest level of leadership, in both the public and the private sectors, using monitoring and evaluation systems such as the African Peer Review Mechanism, when applicable, and involving the media and civil society.
- 4.5 Foster and enhance solidarity among women to support women running for office at local, national, regional and global levels.

5. Sexual and Reproductive Health and HIV/AIDS

- 5.1 Strengthen health systems with measures and incentives to retain medical personnel; avoid the brain drain; train middle-level health providers; facilitate their presence in rural areas; promote sexual and reproductive health services in order to better address the consequences of unsafe abortions; and provide sex education and services for the sexual and reproductive health of the youth;
- 5.2 Reduce maternal mortality by two thirds by 2015 through effective and coordinated community management of pregnancy-related interventions and increased availability of emergency obstetric care services and skilled attendance during pregnancy, delivery, and post-delivery, as underscored by the 2009 African Union Campaign on Accelerated Reduction of Maternal Mortality in Africa (CARMMA);
- 5.3 Reposition reproductive health including family planning as a development priority in order to increase access to family planning, especially in rural areas, based on culturally sensitive approaches, community mobilization and men's engagement; and ensure that adequate budgets are available to sustain and expand maternal and child health and family planning services, as well as the prevention of obstetric fistula and early detection of reproductive cancers at all levels of health-care delivery systems;
- 5.4 Mainstream gender into integrated maternal and child health services, including sexually transmitted infections and HIV and AIDS programmes, to address the vulnerability of women and girls, ensure their access to prevention, treatment and care, and facilitate access to and use of female and male condoms.

6. Climate change and food security

- 6.1 Develop gender-responsive policies on climate change which focus on agriculture, water resource management, energy, forest use and management, as well as transportation and technology transfer for improved food security.
- 6.2 Develop agricultural policies and programmes that address the differentiated impacts of climate change, in particular the impact on women.
- 6.3 Support the integration of gender into existing and upcoming scientific research on climate change with a particular focus on the collection and use of sex- and gender-

disaggregated data, and the development of knowledge-sharing and peer-learning networks at sub regional and regional levels.

- 6.4 Call on the upcoming Copenhagen Conference on Climate Change to take full account of gender dimensions and come up with gender-responsive measures.

7. Financing for gender equality

- 7.1 Institutionalize gender-responsive budgeting aligned with national development priorities and poverty reduction programmes, to support the financing of gender equality at sub national and national levels.
- 7.2 Develop financing mechanisms, including alternative sources of funding, and ensure the allocation of funds at sub national and national levels; establish a stimulus package that targets women; and monitor the effective utilization and impact of financing on gender equality.
- 7.3 Develop capacity-building programmes for the training and mentoring of parliamentary and government authorities on gender-responsive budgeting.
- 7.4 Strengthen national gender mechanisms by transforming gender focal points into gender teams that perform planning, budgeting, implementation and monitoring functions for the mainstreaming of gender equality into all activities of ministries at sub national and national levels.

In undertaking the above actions:

- (i) We call on our Governments to allocate adequate resources to accelerate the implementation of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action.
- (ii) We call on our international partners, both bilateral and multilateral, including organizations of the United Nations system, to provide adequate technical and financial support for our development efforts and to move swiftly to implement their commitments from the Accra Agenda for Action on Aid Effectiveness.
- (iii) We call on the African Union Commission, the United Nations system, the African Development Bank and the Regional Economic Communities to strengthen their coordination and harmonization processes with regard to the implementation of the priorities identified in this Ministerial Declaration, including that of facilitating South-South collaboration and exchange of experiences and best practices.
- (iv) We further call on the African Union Commission and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa to annually monitor and report on progress made

in implementing the relevant development programmes and plans, and to ensure that the follow-up to the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action is included in the work plan of the Committee on Women and Development of the Economic Commission for Africa.

- (v) We call on the United Nations Secretary-General to swiftly implement General Assembly resolution A/RES/63/311 related to the establishment of a new gender entity through the consolidation of four entities, namely the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), the United Nations ***Division for the Advancement of Women*** (DAW), and the Office of the Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI), to enable countries to receive the necessary technical and financial support to achieve gender equality.

In preparation for the 20th anniversary of the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action, we will assess the implementation of these two instruments, taking into account any relevant procedures that will be established.

We pledge to implement these commitments in order to achieve our development goals within the next five years.

Appendix II: Summary Reports from Regional Economic Communities

1. Achievements and Challenges of the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), August 2004 to July 2009

1. Introduction

The Inter-Governmental Authority on Drought and Development (IGADD) was established in 1986, by six countries in the Horn and East Africa Sub-region. The founders of IGADD were Ethiopia, Djibouti, Kenya, Somalia, the Sudan and Uganda, but later joined by the newly created state of Eritrea in 1993. The formation of the organization was initially conceived to combat drought and desertification, mainly focusing on food security and environmental protection. It was also meant to enhance development through joint actions and cooperation among member states as well as the international community.

However, IGADD was renamed as the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) in 1996, with the view to revitalizing the regional organization and expanding its mandates through the inclusion of new priority areas, such as economic cooperation, conflict prevention, resolution and management as well as humanitarian affairs. IGAD has a vision of being a premier regional organization for achieving peace, prosperity and regional integration in the region. The mission of IGAD is to assist and complement the efforts of the member states to achieve through increased cooperation: - food security and environmental protection; promotion and maintenance of peace and security as well as humanitarian affairs, and economic cooperation and integration.

2. Women and Gender Affairs at IGAD

The IGAD Women's Desk came into existence upon the initiation of the 1998 Women in Business Workshop participants and the subsequent decision of the 18th Session of the IGAD Council of Ministers. The desk since its creation in 1999 had carried out various activities at the secretariat level as well as in the member states, with the financial support of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) East and Horn of Africa Regional Office and other partners.

In 2003, when IGAD developed a new strategy for 2004 to 2008, with a more focused vision, mission and programs, the importance of a gender policy and the harmonization of the national gender policies in the sub-region was recognized. Consequently, an IGAD Gender Policy was formulated and launched in 2004. The main objective of the policy is to facilitate the mainstreaming of gender perspectives into all IGAD activities, in order to make them gender responsive and contribute to the achievements of sustainable socio-economic development in the region. The specific objectives are to:-

- Generate and hold itself accountable to creating an enabling environment for gender mainstreaming for purpose of achieving gender equity and equality goals;

- Strengthen and secure IGAD institutional framework for upholding equality and equity principles and goals;
- Facilitate a harmonized way of achieving gender mainstreaming at all levels within IGAD;
- Mainstream gender into IGAD structures, organs, sectoral programs and themes;
- Establish IGAD Gender and Development Indicators that will enhance its regional harmonization and integration processes and goals.

The Gender Policy formulation context and processes have been informed by relevant regional and international conventions and protocols and hence IGAD has been displaying commitment for the realization of their objectives and goals. Up on the launching of the policy, the tasks of the women's desk expanded more than ever before and hence the Gender Affairs Program was institutionalized in April 2005.

The report hereunder will attempt to inform on the progress made and challenges faced on the implementation of the Beijing Declaration during the period of August 2004 to July 2009. It is worth mentioning that there was no as such an action plan meant for the implementation of the critical areas of concerns, having monitoring indicators to that effect. Nevertheless, some tasks have been undertaken somehow matching with the specific areas of concern and the main focus given was for advocacy and dealing with events as they emerge.

Furthermore, it has to be noted that the Gender Affairs Program of the IGAD Secretariat has been vacant from September 2007 to February 2009, and hence activities have not been carried out for one and half year. Despite this, as per the mandate of IGAD, its sectoral divisions have been performing relevant tasks which would directly or indirectly benefit women. These include Agriculture and Environment, Peace and Security as well as Economic Co-operation and Social Development. The report to be presented hereunder will be based on the annual reports of IGAD Secretariat from 2004 to 2009.

3. Implementation of Critical Areas of Concern

It is 15 years now since the Women World Conference held in Beijing, China in 1995 has come up with a declaration identifying 12 critical areas of concern, for the improvement of the lives of women and eventual attainment of gender equality. It is known that the noble ideas contained in the declaration have become the basis for generating other protocols and declarations regarding women empowerment and gender equality. IGAD as a regional organization, comprising of seven member states, who are signatories of many regional and international conventions and protocols is duty bound for the realization of the goals set in the Beijing Platform for Action.

3.1. Women and Poverty

In 2005, the IGAD Agriculture and Environment Division had mapped out a Food Security Strategy, with the financial assistance of CIDA. In this exercise, the Gender Affairs Program has worked closely with the division to ensure the engendering of the

strategy document, which was endorsed by the Ministers of Agriculture of the Member States as well as the IGAD Council of Ministers.

3.2. Education and Training of Women

The IGAD Secretariat has instituted a Health and Social Development Program, under the Economic Cooperation and Social Development Division in 2005. The program has signed an agreement with UNESCO, for promoting regional co-operation in education mainly focusing on basic education, HIV/AIDS prevention and the like. The agreement signed in 2008 is expected to give emphasis to adult literacy, and women who are the majority of the illiterate population in our member states would benefit from this exercise.

3.3. Women and Health

The Health and Social Development Program was initially making interventions for combating major diseases like HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria, among refugees, returnees, internally displaced persons and other cross-border mobile population. The program has also formulated a Sub-regional Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Strategic Policy Framework, with the support of the AUC and the UNFPA in 2006. The policy framework, which is in harmony with Maputo Plan of Action, is believed to help address the key sexual and reproductive challenges of the IGAD member states and accelerate progress towards achieving their health development goals.

3.4. Violence Against Women

The Gender Affairs Program of the IGAD Secretariat organized and conducted a Strategic Policy Seminar on Violence Against Women (VAW) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia from 14 to 16 May 2007. The purpose of the seminar was to discuss and identify the mechanisms for combating VAW which is highly prevalent in the IGAD region. The seminar was attended by representatives of the Ministries of Gender/Women as well as civil society organizations in member states. Also in attendance were representatives of the African Union Commission, UN/ECA, UNDP and UNIFEM.

3.5. Women and Armed Conflict

The Gender Affairs Program has been earlier making concerted efforts to empower the Somali women to enhance their participation in the peace process in their country. Capacity building programs such as on peace negotiation and mediation has been given to Somali women delegates, while a resource center has been established to enable them coordinate their activities in participating and monitoring the peace process of their country.

As regards to the Sudanese Women, an intervention was done on Peace Building and Reconstruction through a pilot project with a total amount of 100,000 USD donated

by the GTZ. The project launched in 2005 having seven women focused components was implemented in camps and shelters of internally displaced persons and returnees for a period of one year. The first phase has been implemented successfully and phased out in June 2006. Furthermore, an additional fund of 50,000 USD has been secured from the same donor for the second phase, and activities were carried out with a total budget of 100,000 USD in 2007.

In 2005, tasks of engendering the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism (CEWARN), one of the specialized offices of IGAD have been made by through consultations and conducting training workshops on gender mainstreaming issues. In order to maintain the engendering process of CEWARN, preparation of a training manual has been commissioned in 2007, and the document is expected to be finalized soon. Moreover, similar efforts have been made to create/raise the gender awareness of National Coordinators of the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism Units (CEWERU) in the member states, with the view to engendering their structures.

3.6. Women and the Economy

A workshop on mainstreaming gender in the national budgeting process within the IGAD region was conducted in Nairobi, Kenya on 12 July 2004, with view to reviewing the policies of member states on gender budgeting. The workshop which was attended by representatives of relevant organizations of member states was also meant to share information and experiences among the participants.

The Gender Affairs Program, with the financial support of UNIFEM conducted a workshop on New Aid Modalities in Djibouti, Republic of Djibouti, from 22 to 22 November 2006. The workshop which discussed on the implications of new aid modalities on the promotion of gender equality was attended by participants drawn from the ministries of finance and economic development as well as gender/women affairs of member states. Other attendees were representatives of regional organizations, UN Agencies, Bi-laterals as well as NGOs. Moreover, a Resource Manual: Promoting Gender Equality in New Aid Modalities for Africa has been published and is being distributed to pertinent organizations.

3.7. Institutional Mechanism for the Advancement of Women

Since the launching of the IGAD Gender Policy in 2004, the scope of the women's desk work had greatly expanded, and hence a Gender Affairs Program was institutionalized within the secretariat, upon the decision of the 24th Session of the IGAD Council of Ministers in March 2005.

4. Challenges/Constraints for Actual implementation of the Critical Areas of Concern

- 4.1. Lack of an action plan and prioritization of issues for implementation.
- 4.2. Lack of adequate funding for projects/programs that are initiated by the secretariat.
- 4.3. Lack of adequate follow up of projects or programs implemented and ensuring effectiveness and sustainability.
- 4.4. Inadequate human power allocation for gender and related tasks, staff turn over and disruption of activities.
- 4.5. Inadequate capacity on gender mainstreaming skills among core staff, lack of guidelines as well as monitoring and evaluation indicators.
- 4.6. Lack of adequate coordination of activities with member states.
- 4.7. Lack of effective communication mechanism for getting reports from member states on accomplishments, in particular the implementation of the regional and international conventions and protocols and up dates on overall country situations.

5. Priority Areas Identified for Improved Implementation Between 3 to 5 Years

5.1. Women in Power and Decision Making

Some tasks are currently being performed to convene an IGAD Women Parliamentary Conference in December this year to bring together relevant women to deliberate on the ways and means of enhancing their participation and representation in higher government organs. This has been initiated as per the decision made by the February 2006 Annual Meeting of Ministers in Charge of Gender/Women Affairs of Member States on raising the participation representation of women to at least 50 per cent.

Prior to the convening of the conference, a situational assessment will be conducted and findings will be presented to participants for validation. Based on this document, a strategy will be mapped out to lead towards attaining the goals. The strategy document will be presented to high level member state organs, for endorsement and commitment to be entered for realization. Moreover, a women unit will be instituted within the IGAD Parliamentary Union, to enable them regionally coordinate and monitor activities. Capacity building training on human rights issues, gender mainstreaming, gender budgeting and leadership skills will be conducted to women parliamentarians of member states.

5.2. Women and Poverty/Economy

- 5.2.1. The establishment of IGAD Women in Business Forum is sought to enable women entrepreneurs build their capacities, through training and sharing experiences, find solutions to securing production resources, including market access to their products. Concerted efforts will be made to establish a women micro-finance institution at the regional level, having branches in the member states. Prior to this, a situational assessment will be done in the member states, and this will be the basis for the intervention and formulation of strategies and taking other concrete actions, be it at the regional or member state levels. IGAD is currently preparing to map out a trade policy and the Gender Affairs Program will be actively involved in the exercise with the view to engendering the document.
- 5.2.2. Impact assessment on gender budgeting will be made in the member states, and based on the findings, capacity enhancement programs will be conducted for relevant personnel and officials. The preparation of gender budgeting guidelines would be facilitated and distributed.
- 5.2.3. A regional study on access of women to production assets, with particular reference to land rights in the rural areas will be conducted for advocacy and lobbying purposes. Member states will be expected to revisit their policies as regards access to rural land and related assets, and thereby engender their documents as well as implementation structures.
- 5.2.4. A house hold energy saving project conceived by the Agriculture and Environment Division earlier will be reinforced and launched particularly in most needy rural areas of our region. The project will enable women to save time, labor and resource that they used to spend for fetching fuel wood.

5.3. Education and Training of Women

IGAD will be launching an Education Program soon and one of its priorities is provision of basic education. This program will be made to benefit illiterate women who are the majority in the region. Furthermore, vocational or skills training for women is sought to be one of the components of the program, which again will be to the advantage of poor women particularly those who want to engage in small businesses.

5.4. Women and Health

The on going activities on HIV/AIDS in the target areas will be enhanced in such a way it implicates gender equity issues and even give more emphasis to women victims and the girl child. This intervention will be intensified in a holistic manner by equally addressing other major killer diseases, TB and malaria as well. Moreover, the Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Strategic Policy Framework would be implemented so

that the health problems, particularly those causes of high morbidity and mortality of women and children could be minimized and eventually eradicated. A strategic combat against harmful traditional practices would be intensified by coordinating actions with regional and international endeavors.

5.5. Human Rights of Women

A follow up on the ratification and domestication of regional and international conventions and protocols on women's and children's rights by member states will be made by devising a monitoring mechanism at the IGAD level. This is believed to intensify advocacy and lobbying at higher government levels. More and intensive legal literacy programs will be initiated and coordinated in member states. The issue of migration has been considered by one of our divisions at the IGAD Secretariat and more emphasis is sought to be given to the case of females particularly in trafficking. Moreover, human rights issues are integral parts of all the critical areas of concerns and hence their considerations would be reflected from the rights perspectives.

5.6. Violence Against Women

In furtherance of previous efforts on the fight on VAW, legal literacy, advocacy and other capacity building programs will be launched in member states. IGAD will collaborate with other organizations in the campaign against gender based violence including harmful traditional practices, which is still deep rooted in the region. VAW, women in armed conflict and human rights of women are inter-linked more than any other themes and hence can be addressed in a holistic manner.

5.7. Women in Armed Conflict

The implementation of the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 will be given due emphasis. Efforts will be made to reach out Somali women in conflict situation and explore means for intervention. Elite Somali women living in the region will be identified to discuss on possibilities of assisting them to organize and participate in the politics of their countries. The situation of women in Northern Uganda, which is another area of conflict in our region will be assessed and considered for interventions when necessary.

More projects on women in peace building and post conflict reconstruction will be initiated in some parts of Southern Sudan to support displaced and returnee women in particular. When time permits, these will be replicated in the other areas of our region, where conflicts and mass exodus are still going on.

5.8. Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women

More lobbying and advocacy work will be made to collaborate with member states, which have not yet given due prominence to women/gender structures, thereby ensure their upgrading to full fledged ministerial levels. IGAD will also establish gender focal points in the

specialized offices located in member states. The focal persons to be placed will work closely with the Gender Affairs Program of the Secretariat and make a follow up on issues of gender mainstreaming at their levels.

5.9. *Women and the Environment*

The issue of women and the environment need to be addressed from management of and accessibility to natural resources perspective. It is known that women and their daughters are very near to the environment than any body else particularly in rural communities, since they are the ones socially responsible for fetching water, collecting firewood, contributing greatly to household food security, etc. Therefore efforts will be made to work closely with the responsible program at the IGAD Secretariat and coordinate efforts to ensure women's equal access to and management of natural resources.

5.10. *The Girl Child*

The issue of the girl child will be given due emphasis in the other areas sought to be addressed, like poverty, education, health, human rights, violence, armed conflict and even the environment.

These and other activities that need to be implemented as per the Beijing Declaration and those in conformity with this, such as the Millennium Development Goals, Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa and others will be concretized and an action plan prepared in light of the new IGAD Strategic Plan expected to be mapped out soon. In order to adequately impact and ensure sustainability of interventions, tasks of mainstreaming gender will be enhanced by equipping personnel with adequate skills, providing the necessary tools and putting monitoring and evaluation indicators in place.

6. Recommendations for RECs Involvement in Future Review

The recommendation to be made for RECs involvement is that they need to have their action plan for the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and other pertinent protocols. They have also to consult and assist member states on how effective they need to work out their action plans in this regard. Close monitoring by the RECs and periodic reporting on progress made by member states will be of paramount importance. Like wise, a forum needs to be created by UN/ECA whereby the RECs at times meet and share experiences on the implementation of their respective action plans. As to IGAD, efforts will be made by the Gender Affairs Program to facilitate the utilization of the Gender Peer Review Framework by member states, to enable regularly review performances in gender and related tasks.

2. Report of Southern African Development Community (SADC)

1. Introduction

This report gives an overview of the progress made by the SADC Gender Unit in its role to facilitate and coordinate the implementing of gender commitments in the SADC region as well as taking stock of the major challenges that SADC faces in implementing gender commitments. The report builds on the 2005 Beijing+10 Review and highlights on the major achievements since 2005. At the end of 2005, SADC convened a regional conference under the theme “*Reflecting and Re-strategizing for Gender Based Regional Integration*” to reflect on progress/achievements made in the implementation of the 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development and its 1998 Addendum as well as challenges faced and lessons learned in efforts to achieve gender equality and equity in the region. Literally translated, the theme was on “*where we come from, where we are and where we want to go*”. During this review conference, it came to light that the implementation of Gender commitments as informed by the International and Sub Regional instruments was taking place at a very slow pace within the SADC region. Further observation was noted that the implementation and domestication of the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development was slow and inconsistent among SADC Member States. The regional conference acknowledged that this is as a result of the non-binding legal status of a ‘Declaration’ as opposed to a ‘Protocol’. It is on this basis that the region agreed to draft a SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The main output of this ground breaking regional conference was the SADC Strategic Framework on Gender and Development that set out very clearly priority areas of implementation by SADC Secretariat and SADC Member States. Since the implement the recommendations of this meeting, as well as the Beijing +10 review recommendations with a view to make a difference and facilitate SADC Member States to fast track implementation.

2. Overview of Achievements (Structures and Measures) That SADC has Initiated to Promote Gender Equality).

SADC as a region has realized commendable achievements in realizing gender equality and equity in the past five years, as evidence by policies, structures and resources that has been put in place to ensure that gender is effectively mainstreamed in the SADC Regional Integration Agenda.

2.1 Policy Development and Harmonization

In assisting Member states in policy reforms, development, and projects, the SADC Secretariat has identified Policy Development and Harmonization as one of its priority intervention areas. These legal frameworks are to facilitate SADC region to obtain a standardized and strategic focus necessary for policy harmonization and gender equality. It is on this basis that Secretariat realized the achievements below:

2.1.1 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development

The Beijing+15 Review comes at a time when the SADC Region is celebrating the adoption of the first ever regional legally binding instrument on Gender and Development. The adoption of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development signifies Member States commitment to ensuring that gender is prioritized as a cross-cutting issue and that targets set out in the protocol are realized.

The Protocol incorporates gender commitments from existing regional, continental and global instruments and enhances these by taking account of gaps that have been identified. The Protocol was adopted and signed by 13 out of 15 SADC Heads of State and Government on the 19 August, 2008. To date two Member States i.e. Namibia and Zimbabwe have ratified the protocol while ratification processes are underway in the remaining Member States. The protocol will enter into force once two thirds of the signatory Member states have ratified it.

2.1.2 Development of the 2007 SADC Regional Gender Policy

Council of Ministers at their 2007 Meeting in Lusaka, Zambia adopted the SADC Gender Policy. The aim of the SADC Regional Gender Policy is to provide guidelines for institutionalizing and operationalizing gender as a key development strategy for achieving gender equality, equity and women's empowerment within SADC Member States. The SADC Gender Policy has been developed to provide a sound, authoritative, coherent and strategic mechanism for achieving the objectives of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. It is a document which identifies gender related problems in the region and indicates the strategic actions necessary to address them. The Regional Gender Policy also serves as a regional framework that provides regional priorities, to which national gender policies are to be aligned to through the process of policy harmonization. The process of harmonization of national gender policies is still to be accomplished, this has been hampered by lack of funds. Within the harmonization process, Member States that do not have gender policies will be assisted to develop National Gender Policies aligned to the regional provisions.

2.2 Gender Mainstreaming

2.2.1 Development of the SADC Gender Mainstreaming Resource Kit

SADC, the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) reinforces the fact that gender is one of the 'integration and development enablers' and a 'cross sectoral intervention area. Hence the need to reinforced efforts towards sustaining the Gender Management System in the form of theoretical and conceptual information as well as practical customized tools on gender mainstreaming. It is on this background that the Secretariat undertook to develop a SADC Gender Mainstreaming Resource Kit which serves as a day to day reference material for staff of the Secretariat to facilitate their efforts in integrating gender into their specific sectors such as Trade, Industry, Finance and Investment; Infrastructure and Services; Social and Human Development and Special Programmes and HIV and AIDS; Food Agriculture and Natural Resources; the Organ on Politics, Defense and Security Cooperation; Administration, Human Resources and Public Relations. It also serves as a resource for supporting capacity building of Member States' national gender machineries and other key stakeholders. The Resource Kit further seeks to assist in the region's effort to standardize approaches towards gender mainstreaming. It also serves as a resource for supporting capacity building of Member States' national gender machineries and other key stakeholders and aims to make gender mainstreaming the centerpiece of organizational practice in the SADC Secretariat. The resource kit seeks to assist in the region's effort to standardize approaches towards gender mainstreaming.

2.2.2 SADC Workplace Gender Policy

The SADC Gender Workplace Policy was developed and it sets out the principles and framework for ensuring that gender is systematically integrated into the planning, programmes, work place practices, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms of the Secretariat.

2.3 Women In Politics and Decision Making Positions

SADC Summit of Heads of State and Government in 2005 upgraded the 30 percent target to 50 percent in line with the African Union (AU) position. The Integrated Committee of Ministers in 2006 mandated the SADC Secretariat to develop guidelines to facilitate Member States in the 50:50 gender parity.

2.3.1 Development of the Regional 50:50 Framework

The Secretariat has developed a Regional Strategy that will assist Member States in achieving the 50% target of women representation in politics and decision making positions at all levels by 2015 as per the target in the Protocol on Gender and Development. The strategy seeks to directly address Articles 12 and 13 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development by translating the expressed commitment to equality and equity in representation and participation by women and men into actions that state parties should undertake in order to ensure that by 2015 at least 50% of all decision-making positions at all levels will be held by women.

2.4 Gender Based Violence

2.4.1 Development of a Regional Ten Year Strategic Plan on Combating Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children:

Secretariat facilitated the Development of a SADC *Ten Year Strategic Plan on Combating Trafficking in Persons especially Women and Children in June 2009*. The purpose of the Regional Plan of Action is to assist Member States to adopt, and implement legislative and other psychosocial and physical mechanisms and enhance their cooperation in holistically combating trafficking in persons, especially women and children, and persons with disabilities in the SADC Region. The Regional Plan of Action also provides for a framework for regional actions for sharing experience, expertise and best practices in order to provide guidance for further developments towards a more effective prevention, suppression and punishing of trafficking in persons including increased prosecution and conviction of traffickers and adequate support and protection of victims, reporters and witnesses of trafficking. It addresses trafficking in persons from a comprehensive perspective, as outlined in the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, Ouagadougou Action Plan to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings, Especially Women and Children of the African Union, and the Protocol on Gender and Development of SADC. In particular, the Plan of Action seeks to address the following priority areas: legislation and policy measures, training for skills enhancement and capacity building, prevention and public awareness raising, victim support and witness protection, coordination and regional cooperation, research and information sharing, monitoring and evaluation and mobilization of resources for the implementation of the Plan of Action.

2.5. SADC Women's Economic Empowerment

2.5.1. SADC Programme on Women's Economic Empowerment

The SADC Secretariat has mobilized support from Inwent: Capacity Building International, Germany, to embark upon a regional programme for women's economic empowerment. The project is entitled 'Chamber and Advisory Network and Cooperation for Women Entrepreneurs (CHANCE): Dialogue and Networking Business Intermediaries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and South Asia (SAARC). The project aims at supporting selected Women's Entrepreneurs Associations (WEA's) and Chambers of Commerce of Women in the two regions with focus on three components:

- Training and capacity building with a view to improve the professional skills, services and overall organizational management of individual WEA's, thereby optimizing their performance as business intermediaries
- Fostering, networking, building and exchange of experiences between WEA's through regional cooperation between SADC and SAAR
- Inception of an international network between WEA's from Southern Africa, South Asia, and Europe to exchange experiences and create new long business relations.

3. CHALLENGES

SADC still faces some major challenges in realizing full gender equality and equity in the region and a lot still needs to be done to fully address the critical areas of concern and uplift the standard of living of the vulnerable target groups such as the poorest of the poor, the majority of whom are women; rural women; women with disabilities as well as the girl child:

- SADC is faced with increasing levels of poverty with 40% of its 100 million people live in extreme poverty, the majority of who are women and children. This is largely also contributed to the huge gaps in the per capita income of women and men.
- Women still have limited access to land and security of tenure because of the existence of customary law that operates side by side with statutory law therefore creating mixed tenure systems that often disadvantage women especially in owning land. Figures on land ownership are patchy, but range from 11% to 46% although the land holdings of women are much smaller than those of men.
- The formal labour market is still dominated by men and most women are employed in the informal sector in the region.
- Trade policies are mostly gender blind with only a few procurement policies making specific reference to women.
- Despite the fact that all SADC Member States have comprehensive, multi sectoral action plans for ending gender based violence in line with the call made by the UN Secretary General in 2006 and despite concerted campaigns, there is no sign of gender based violence abating. Heightening incidences of gender based violence against women and girls; and the emerging issues of trafficking of women and children poses a threat to the social, economic and political gains over the years.
- The maternal mortality rates still remain a major concern in many Member States.

- Immense challenges of HIV and AIDS as well as the HIV and AIDS prevalence rates, especially among women. Women continue to be the most affected in terms of both infections and AIDS related deaths. In thirteen of the fifteen SADC Member States, women have a higher HIV and AIDS prevalence than men. The impact of HIV and AIDS and the hardship caused by the illness or death of a breadwinner has hindered girls from accessing education. Children affected by AIDS face socio-economic challenges such as the lack of adequate food, money for school-related expenses, poverty, abuse and exploitation. In addition, girls are frequently required to drop out of school to take care of the ailing family members.
- The Gender Unit is faced by serious challenges of resource and human capacity constraints that do not match the commitments made to fulfill the mandate for facilitating and coordinating the implementation of the gender commitments and this needs to be seriously addressed.

4. Examples in assisting Member states in policy development, legislative change, programmes and projects.

In assisting Member states in policy development, legislative change, programmes and projects, the SADC Secretariat has identified Policy Development and Harmonization as one of its intervention area. The objective of this intervention area is to expedite the process of developing and finalizing the SADC Gender Policy, harmonization of National Gender Policies and development and the domestication of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. These policy and legal frameworks are envisaged to enable the SADC Member States to standardize their national policy and legal frameworks with a view to make them in tandem with the SADC frameworks and facilitate gender mainstreaming processes.

Part Two of the Protocol on Gender and Development deals specifically with Constitutional and Legal Rights and will require constitutional and legal review as well as other measures such as affirmative action; review of domestic legislation; ensuring equality in accessing justice; review of marriage and family laws; as well as policies dealing with people with disabilities and widow 's rights.

A number of SADC Member States have /are in the processing of reviewing/enacting their legal and policy frameworks and some of these provisions have been integrated implying that domestication of the regional provisions into the national frameworks for instance issues of gender based violence in legal frameworks on Domestic Violence, Inheritance and succession, marriage among others. Further some member States have developed and are implementing the 50:50 Strategy on women representation in political and decision making positions, following the SADC 50:50 Strategy.

5. Major trends in the sub-region in the promotion of gender equality and/or women's empowerment since 2004.

Generally in terms of gender equality and women's empowerment initiatives, the sub region has made some greater improvements; SADC has made some major achievements. Notable progress has been recorded in the following areas:

5.1 Women in Politics and Decision making positions

There has been an increase of women in political decision-making positions in most SADC countries since 2004, with five countries having more than 30 percent women representation in parliaments, (Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania). Relative to other regions of the world, SADC has performed well, with an average percentage of women in Parliaments standing at 24% which is higher than the world average of 18.5%, the Sub-Saharan average of 18.6%; Asia at 18.4%; the Pacific at 15.2% and that of the Arab States (9.1%) which is the lowest. (Inter-Parliamentary Union Website, as of 14th October 2009). However, some countries in the region have seen a decrease in the number of women in senior political positions. For instance, Zimbabwe's elections in 2008 and Botswana 2009 elections saw a decrease in the number of women in parliament. This is seen as one of the impediments of a constituency electoral system known as First Past The Post. Significant progress experienced in several other Member States countries is largely the result of alternative electoral systems such as Proportional Representation in which parties can implement a specific representational percentage, as well as increasing political commitment to achieving equality in all decision-making positions and a conducive policy framework. Advocacy and public awareness campaigns have assisted in generating awareness and acceptability of this new approach.

Since the 2005, Summit decision that urged Member States to ensure that at least 50% of all political and decision making positions should be held by women, SADC Member States have been making progressive efforts towards ensuring equal representation of women and men in decision making positions at all levels. To date the status of women representation in the different categories are as follows:

5.1.1 Women Ministers, Deputy Ministers and Parliamentarians

Table1: Gender Representation – Ministers, Deputy Ministers, Members of Parliament (Percent)

Country	Ministers		Deputy Ministers		MP's	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Angola	68	32	78	22	63	37
Botswana	84	16	100	0	89	11
DRC	89	11	91	9	94	6
Lesotho	68	32	40	60	75	25
Madagascar	86	14	95	5	76	24
Malawi	73	27	70	30	78	22
Mauritius	90	10	88	12	83	17
Mozambique	74	26	70	30	63	37
Namibia	80	20	75	25	69	31
South Africa	58	42	61	39	55	45
Seychelles	72	28	*	*	76	24
Swaziland	75	25	100	0	79	21
Tanzania	73	27	76	24	69	31
Zambia	81	19	86	14	85	15
Zimbabwe	80	20	91	9	76	24

Source: Member States National Gender Machinerys, 2009.

5.1.2 Women in the Public Service

Regarding the status of women representation at Permanent/Principal Secretary level, Lesotho is doing exceptionally well with women's representation at 44%, Mauritius 36% and Seychelles 35%. At deputy permanent/principal secretaries level Mauritius and Lesotho stand at 34.5% and 31% respectively. At Director/Head of Department levels; Lesotho has reached 48%, Botswana 43.3%, Mauritius 34.6%, Zimbabwe 33% and Namibia 32%.

5.1.3 Women in the judiciary

SADC Member States have made high strides in penetrating the judiciary system. Botswana and Malawi have female Attorneys-General, South Africa and Swaziland have appointed female Public-Prosecutors while Zimbabwe has a female Judge President of the High Court. Namibia has a female Prosecutor-General and Zambia has a female Chief Deputy Justice while Lesotho and Malawi both have female Registrars of the High Court. Tanzania has a commendable 55.6% representation of women at the Court of Appeal and 56% at the High Court, while Botswana has 43% representation of women Judges at the Industrial Court. Mauritius has an outstanding representation of women as Regional Court Presidents which accounts for 67% and 45.5% of women judges while South Africa has attained 44% representation of women at the regional courts. Zimbabwe has achieved gender parity at the level of Labour Court Presidents (50%) and 42% of Administrative Court Presidents. Women representation at the Magistrate level in the judiciary system has improved across the region. This is demonstrated by Tanzania and Mauritius as they have attained the 50:50 parity goal; Botswana 49%, Namibia 43%; Lesotho with 42%; Zimbabwe 41% and South Africa standing at 30%.

5.2 Gender parity in education

The SADC region has made significant advances toward its goal to achieve gender equality in education. To date, Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, The United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe has achieved gender parity in primary education. Generally the literacy rates in the SADC region are higher than elsewhere in the continent with Botswana and Lesotho having higher rates for female than males, although in some Member States the gap between male and female literacy are still too wide. Due to high illiteracy rates and low qualification among women, the SADC region is also implementing Open and Distance Learning programmes with gender perspective. A Gender Strategy for Open and Distance learning has been developed to guide ODL practitioners in mainstreaming gender.

5.3 HIV and AIDS, TB and Malaria

In the area of HIV prevention, tremendous progress has been recorded in Prevention of Mother-To-Child Transmission (PMTCT). Despite the fact that these programmes are fairly new, there is a clear upward trend in the uptake of PMTCT. ARV treatment programmes have recorded tremendous progress over the past five years. Relatively high proportions of People Living with HIV and AIDS (PLWHAs) who are eligible for treatment are on treatment. The SADC Secretariat has facilitated mainstreaming of gender issues in policy frameworks for HIV and AIDS, TB and Malaria as well as in the Minimum Standards for the Military; Mobile population; Prevention of Mother To Child Transmission among others.

5.4 Equal Access to Employment and Benefits

Most SADC Member States have labour laws that provide for equal and fair treatment in terms of recruitment, remuneration and other conditions of work including safety. Some Member States have gone further to introduce affirmative action in recruitment at managerial positions with the aim of closing the widening gap between male and female employees at managerial levels. All SADC Member States have provisions for maternity leave in their labour laws, in accordance with the ILO 12 weeks' minimum standard, with Botswana, Lesotho and Madagascar prohibiting the dismissal of a worker during maternity leave. Some Member States have developed gender mainstreaming guidelines for management of public servants which have helped in create a conducive environment for both male and female employees.

5.5 Access to Property and Resources

There have been some positive developments in some Member States in the review and repeal of laws on access to land, such as Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia that have improved women's access to land. Additionally, some Member States are also reviewing the Succession and Inheritance laws to make them more gender responsive.

5.6 Gender Based Violence

Most countries in Southern Africa have made notable achievements in legislating against Gender-Based Violence (GBV). Relevant legislation in most countries in the region covers a whole range of issues including sexual violence, domestic violence, and sexual harassment and trafficking, among other issues. However, despite all these positive advances, the prevalence of GBV remains very high, and some countries in the region have reported an increase in cases of violence against women and children. The phenomenon of trafficking in persons, especially women and children is growing in

the SADC Region and as a result SADC Member States have in recent years started to legislate against trafficking in persons. To date Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zambia already have Anti Human Trafficking legislation, while Malawi, South Africa and Swaziland have draft anti-human trafficking laws.

6. Monitoring mechanisms to measure progress in the implementation of regional and international commitments

6.1 Development of the SADC Gender and Development Monitoring Tool

Monitoring and Evaluation is key in assessing progress made in the implementation of SADC Gender Commitments in line with the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. A SADC Gender and Development Monitoring Tool was developed bearing in mind challenges that Member States face in effective monitoring and evaluation for various reasons including, *inter alia*, inconsistent reporting by Member States; selective and weak reporting mechanisms; delayed submission of reports; and more importantly, the lack of specific targets and weak or non-existent indicators. It is envisaged that the usage of this regional tool will enable more precise and timely reporting that will appropriately guide further planning, implementation and effective monitoring and evaluation of SADC Gender Commitments made both at the regional and international levels. The SADC Protocol provides for Member states to submit comprehensive reports every two years; while the reports on women in politics and decision making, which is a standing agenda item on the Heads of State and Government Summit are submitted annually.

7. Priority areas that have been identified for improving implementation in the next five years.

The SADC Gender Unit has in its five year Business Plan (2007-2011) identifies the following priority areas: Policy Development and Harmonization; Gender Mainstreaming of and Capacity Building in SADC Structures and Institutions; Women's Empowerment Programmes; Communication, Networking and Information Sharing; Monitoring and Evaluation.

8. Initiatives and actions which SADC intend to take to fully implement the platform for action

The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development is a culmination of all international and regional gender commitments made by SADC Member States. It recognizes and acknowledges all gender instruments in its Preamble including the Beijing Declaration and its Platform for Action. Hence, the protocol mirrors the same critical areas of concern as provided for in the Beijing Platform for Action with a specific southern African focus. Hence, Secretariat is committed to ensuring that the Protocol on Gender and Development is fully implemented. The SADC Secretariat intends to work closely with national governments and civil society organizations to intensify the lobbying and advocacy campaigns to put pressure on Member States on the implementation of the protocol with a view to reach the specified targets within the protocol, many of which are mirrored to the MDG's targets of 2015. Currently efforts are geared towards advocacy for the ratification of the protocol by the remaining Member States to ensure its enforcement.

9. New commitments that will be made to accelerate implementation

Effective implementation of the gender commitments made by Member State is very crucial. Hence, the SADC protocol has incorporated clear targets and time frames within its provisions to ensure that implementation is accelerated. All together there are 28 specific targets in the protocol. Most of the targets are aligned with already made commitments and targets such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDG s) to accelerate implementation.

10. Recommendations for involvement in future review

SADC recommends that in conducting future reviews, the Regional Economic Commissions should be entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating the process of reporting in conjunction with ECA sub-regional offices; so that the reporting process is coordinated from the REC's to feed the ECA. REC's should be able to put the item on the agenda of the Ministers Annual Meeting for discussion and this will speed up the reporting process.

Appendix III: Previous Milestones

The Beijing +15 regional review has been conducted against the backdrop of previous BPfA reviews of +5 and +10, and ICPD +5, +10 and +15 ICPD commitments in addition to implementation of the Millennium Declaration and related MDGs.

1. Beijing+5 (1995-2000)

The mid-decade review of 1999 found that most countries had allocated both financial and human resources to implementation of gender equality concerns. Success had been recorded over the past four to five years in such areas as increased school enrolment of girls, wider areas of coverage of health services, creation of women's groups for solidarity and collaboration, wider coverage of awareness-raising campaigns and programmes with regard to women's human rights, establishment of micro-credit schemes, and expansion of adult literacy programmes.

At least 15 reporting countries had formulated comprehensive National Gender Policies (NGPs) to guide other sectors in incorporating gender concerns into their policies, plans, and programmes. For the most part, the national plans of action included activities beyond the mid-decade review.

However, the combined impact of past macroeconomic policies and globalization had resulted in a number of adverse consequences, such as social dislocation and increased numbers of people living below the poverty line. In many African countries, women continued to carry increasingly large burdens of responsibility for the poor, aged, orphaned children and the sick. Poor women and orphaned children were heads of many households.

Urbanization and its accompanying lifestyles, coupled with the poverty that had resulted from the poor performance of most African economies, had left the traditional African social welfare system weakened and ineffective. The burden had fallen disproportionately on women, to assume greater responsibility for the care of the poor and the helpless, in addition to other productive and reproductive roles.

National institutions suffered from ill-defined statutes and mandates, lack of skills in gender analysis, inadequate financing and equipment, centralized authority, poor capacity to mobilize, an unprofessional approach to the issue of gender, and lack of coordination.

Although most countries had already formulated and begun to implement their national action plans, they had not been as efficient in creating mechanisms to monitor how the implementation process evolved for effective periodic evaluation. National action plans in most of the reporting countries lacked indicators to measure movements towards the defined objectives, making it impossible to estimate the progress being made towards the overall goal of mainstreaming gender as a strategy.

In most countries, women were underrepresented at every level of administration in the public or private sector. They accounted for less than 10 per cent in legislatures. Discriminatory attitudes and practices, family responsibilities, low income, little education, lack of self-confidence, the inability

to control their sexuality and reproductive roles, and the non-competitiveness of women leaders all combined to prevent women from attaining positions of power.

Insufficient resources presented an important constraint in implementing the platforms. Access and control of both external and internal resources needed to be examined with a view to ensuring sustained growth of African economies. There was still a long way to go in systematically integrating the gender approach into national policies, planning, programming, and project evaluation. This weakness was evident in State structures, civil society, and the private sector.

Poverty and lack of control of resources were identified as the main causes of inequality in African societies, where women were suffering the most. The PoA identified a range of factors and issues and recommended solutions,³³ including:

- Coordination machinery and strategies and mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the Platform for Action;
- Design of concrete, time-bound and effective institutional frameworks for promoting equal gender representation in decision-making bodies in the public and private sector, the legislature and political parties, and in international organizations;
- Mobilization of resources for implementing the Platforms for Action;
- Effective strategies and mechanisms for accelerating the integration of a gender approach in policies, planning and programming; and
- Development of national HIV/AIDS prevention and control programmes and legislation against all discriminatory practices that have implications on HIV/AIDS, including promoting/regulating the age of consent and controlling and prohibiting deliberate contamination of the uninfected by the infected; and
- Promotion of community-based health care and investment in prevention and control measures.

2. Beijing + 10 (2000-2005)

The 2004 review of the Africa region indicated that efforts to promote gender equality, equity and women's empowerment in Africa gained momentum on several fronts over the past 10 years, thus setting the stage for further gains. By then, 51 of the 53 African member States had ratified CEDAW and 17 had signed the Optional Protocol. Some countries had aligned their national legislation to the provisions of CEDAW.

Attempts were underway to engender poverty surveys conducted during PRSP formulation, to provide the basis for stronger gender analysis in macroeconomic and socioeconomic policies.

Consideration of gender in some country budgets triggered more transparent processes for gender responsiveness in public expenditures. Information available on Gender Responsive Budgets (GRB) and the inclusion of women's unpaid work in national accounts were considered to have a tremendous impact on resource allocation in the context of achieving PRSP goals and the MDGs.

33 The later are marked in bold.

Some countries had managed to reduce gender differentials in education through affirmative action and gender-aware policies aimed at improving enrolment, retention and quality of education for girls. That last decade, witnessed improvements in basic education in many countries.

A number of countries reported increased gross and net enrolment ratios for both boys and girls, while others almost reached 100 per cent enrolment for boys and girls. At the secondary level, a few countries had achieved parity between boys and girls or had reduced the gender gaps. Many African countries made progress in reducing illiteracy levels, particularly among women and girls.

Progress towards the promotion and protection of the human rights of women had concentrated on strengthening legal and policy frameworks. At the national level, some governments had enacted or amended legislation on women's human rights and some amended constitutions to include gender equality. These legal instruments supported the creation of an enabling environment for the realization of women's human rights.

Some African countries had prioritized women's health as an area of concern. This resulted in increased attention to the reproductive health and rights of women, encouraging breast-feeding and other infant-feeding options, making facilities available for the management of STDs including HIV/AIDS, and raising awareness among men of their responsibilities in reproductive health. In many countries, progress had been made in offering free or subsidized sexual and reproductive health care services and commodities, affordable preventative health services for rural populations and training of grassroots health providers.

Some positive trends in the area of governance were exemplified by the consolidation of democracy and the increasing number of countries that had conducted peaceful democratic elections in the last decade.

The creation of regional instruments such as the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) and the creation of the Gender and Civil Society Sector within the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) were regarded as positive and promising initiatives.

Several countries had significantly increased the level of women's representation in parliament, with one country reaching an impressive 49 per cent and others over 30 per cent. Women had also been elected and/or appointed into powerful decision-making positions in the civil and public services.

Various mechanisms had been established at different levels, with the aim of mainstreaming gender in the formulation of policies, plans and programmes, policy advocacy and to monitor and evaluate the implementation of international, regional and national commitments. Gender focal points (GFPs) had proven to be a valuable but fragile links between Women's/Gender Affairs and line Ministries.

Particular attention was given to formulation of NGPs and implementation plans, with some countries having prepared sector-specific gender policies. Capacity building for gender mainstreaming had been undertaken at national and regional levels. Issue-based advocacy had been successfully conducted in some countries, for example on VAW and legal literacy.

There was growing public awareness about STDs and HIV/AIDS in Africa, through advocacy by governments and parliaments, public sector, development partners and CSOs. The threat posed by HIV/AIDS and related diseases such as malaria and TB was widely acknowledged at the policy level throughout Africa. Every country had established a National AIDS Commission.

Some countries had succeeded in reducing infection rates while a few others had succeeded in keeping infection rates relatively low. Several African countries had approved codes and declarations on non-discrimination against PLWA. Increasing attention was also being paid to the HIV/AIDS pandemic's link with poverty and sustainable development.

Challenges to gender equality were nevertheless identified. While the number of people living in poverty dropped in all developing regions in the world between 1990 and 2000, it actually rose, in Africa, by over 82 million. African women constituted the majority of both urban and rural poor (over 70 per cent in some countries).

Unequal power relations between women and men, the skewed distribution of remunerated and unremunerated work, unequal inheritance rights in some countries, food insecurity and lack of secure access to land, property, and other productive resources, as well as inadequate support for women's entrepreneurship were some of the major causes of women's poverty. Widespread poverty among women also affected other critical areas, such as women's health and education.

Despite the improvements identified above, Africa had still, by far, the lowest number of children in schools. Only 58 per cent of children of school age are actually enrolled in school. With few exceptions, educational statistics showed large gender disparities, female-to-male school enrolment, and retention and completion rates favour boys in a majority of countries. Moreover, African women had the highest illiteracy rates in the world.

In addition, gender disparities in schooling undermined national efforts for human capital development, thereby slowing down the pace of economic and social development.

At the tertiary and university levels the low participation of young women continues. Gender gaps are particularly pronounced in science, mathematics and computer sciences. The domestication of international instruments on women's and girls' rights and the enforcement of existing legislation remained low.

Twenty-two countries had not signed the Women's Protocol to the African Charter, and 49 countries had not yet ratified it. Women's and girls' access to the justice system was limited by legal illiteracy, lack of resources, gender insensitivity and bias among law enforcement agents.

Violence against women and girls, including rape and domestic violence, was rampant, particularly in conflict zones. Some cultural and traditional practices continued to inhibit progress in promoting women and girls' human rights. In some countries, women were still being denied equal rights to inherit property.

Furthermore, public awareness of women's and girls' human rights and the obligation to ensure the enjoyment of their rights remained low. In some countries, several sources of laws (modern, religious, customary) continued to govern the lives of women and restrict enjoyment of their rights.

Women's voices in conflict prevention and peace-building remained faintly heard, often leaving them at the margins of peace processes. Shortfalls persisted between post-conflict reconciliation and gender justice, reintegration and rejection, participation and partisanship, for which a gender focus is vital.

Access to comprehensive health services continued to be a major challenge, especially for rural and urban poor women. Furthermore, health gains made in the last decade in Africa were being reversed due to HIV/AIDS, high levels of maternal and neonatal mortality, the resurgence of malaria, STDs and TB in more virulent forms, and all forms of cancer that affect women.

Efforts were needed to make ARV drugs available at affordable costs or for free. Women and girls in Africa continued to suffer from food insecurity and malnutrition. The rates of maternal morbidity and mortality were higher than anywhere else in the world. FGM and other practices that harm women and girls' health continued to be a grave concern in many parts of Africa.

Gender equality and equity principles were not yet fully integrated into democratization processes, and, women continued to be under-represented in most structures of power and decision-making, including leadership positions in political parties, local government, the public and private sector and in CSOs. Mechanisms for the integration of gender equality and women's empowerment remained weak at all levels – lacking adequate capacity, authority and funding.

Line ministries had not reached gender equality targets due to low levels of resource allocations. Gender concerns continued to be treated rhetorically or as separate women's projects. Sex-disaggregated data and information from gender-sensitive indicators were often not collected, lost in aggregation of published data or not used.

Almost 70 per cent of people infected with HIV/AIDS were living in Africa by that period. Women formed 58 per cent of those infected, carrying the overwhelming burden of the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. HIV/AIDS had decimated the ranks of the most productive age groups, and restructured families such that the burden of care now fell on the oldest and the youngest members, usually grandmothers and girl-children. In many countries, HIV/AIDS is having negative impacts on women's economic empowerment, health, education, and on the enjoyment of all human rights.

The public sector's provision of care for HIV/AIDS patients had steadily diminished in the past decade; thereby placing a greater burden on women to care for sufferers, regardless of whether those (women) who are infected have the care they need (especially post-natal treatment).

Against this background, specific priorities were proposed for accelerating progress.

- a. With respect to women and poverty, measures to mainstream gender concerns into poverty reduction strategies should include gender analysis of macroeconomic policies. This would expose differential impacts of poverty on women and men and identify constraints on poverty eradication.

Gender equality principles must be incorporated into all budgeting to ensure equitable resource allocation. Processes in the development of poverty reduction plans should be consultative, gender-sensitive and inclusive. Indicators for monitoring the impact of poverty reduction programmes and measures and the MDG target on poverty should be engendered. In the area of globalization, there should be programmes for training women;

- b. In the area of women and the economy, it was proposed that urgent steps be taken to enhance the gender-analytic capacity of macroeconomists at all levels and in all institutions so as to redefine concepts, approaches and methodologies that underpin the generation and collection of data.

This included the development of technical capacity and tools for further advancing the inclusion of women's unpaid work into the systems of national accounts (SNA).

There is a need to mainstream gender analysis into economics and involve gender experts in the formulation of macroeconomic policies, so that economic policies support women's unpaid activities in the subsistence and care economies.

Gender-aware social security and pension systems should be developed and extended to all women. In order to improve women's position in the labour market, national programmes creating opportunities for decent jobs and working conditions for women and men must be developed and implemented;

- c. In the field of education and training, the proposed measure was to address gender imbalances in education and training.

Countries should institute and strengthen affirmative action measures including scholarships at all levels for female students; distance and non-formal education and literacy programmes for women; innovative and aggressive strategies to redress the under-representation of women and girls in the sciences, mathematics and technology-related disciplines and careers, including the promotion of science among children in general and young girls in particular.

Women's access to professional training should also be strengthened. In addition, the main financial partners of African education systems should show their firm commitment to the female population in their policies and interventions;

- d. In order to reach MDG 5 and ICPD targets on reducing maternal mortality and morbidity, governments and parliaments, NGOs and the private sector must provide accessible sexual and reproductive health care services and education for women and girls in accordance with the legislation in force in each country.

Preventive interventions to curb the spread of malaria, cardiovascular diseases, cancers that affect women, as well as HIV/AIDS and TB particularly among women and girls, should be supported. Processes and programmes to achieve the MDG target of reducing child mortality should also be engendered;

- e. There was an urgent need for government to address gender power relations in order to protect women and girls from all forms of violence and enable women to negotiate safe sex, through legislation, law enforcement, advocacy and sensitization. In particular, governments were to establish, enforce and monitor strict legal frameworks to address the vulnerability of women and girls, and halt exploitation of orphans, especially girls.

A fund was to be established to ensure women's access to post-exposure prophylaxes, antiretroviral treatment, mother-to-child transmission prevention treatment (before and after delivery), as well as support for homecare services.

Resources should also be invested in making sure that methods of prevention that are controlled by women are available and accessible. Governments were required to monitor the newly emerging types of violence and human rights abuses within the context of the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Priority was to be given to making available and monitoring care services for orphans, protecting their inheritance rights and providing counselling.

Governments were required to establish gender indicators to monitor HIV/AIDS programme goals and outcomes, to measure progress and enforce accountability in the use of resources;

- f. All political/governance bodies were to institutionalize policies that guarantee gender equality. The AU 50:50 gender parity principle must be replicated and implemented at all levels of national, sub-regional and regional governance, including through affirmative action and set timelines.

Women's access to elected positions (municipal and parliamentary) was to be supported to reach these targets. Leadership training programmes for women, especially young women, were to be developed and supported to enable them to exercise responsibility at all levels;

- g. Given the importance of communication and the speed with which ICT had evolved, the region was to adopt and implement gender-aware media policies. There was also a need to: improve women's access to media and new ICTs; support women's press and communication initiatives; and, encourage the use of media and new ICTs to promote women's activities, projecting positive images and fighting against stereotypes and discrimination;
- h. A gender-sensitive and human rights-based approach was to inform planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of PRSPs, MDGs, national priorities, annual plans and expenditure frameworks. Harmful and/or discriminatory practices that sustained gender inequality and inequity were to be eliminated, and social, cultural, traditional and religious norms and values that sustain equality, equity and justice were to be promoted.

Partnership between women and men in addressing practices which have a negative impact on gender equality were to be developed. The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women was to be signed and ratified

by all States in Africa, preferably by the end of 2005. Governments were required to domesticate and implement all the international and regional instruments on women's rights and ensure their implementation;

- i. Measures that affirm the role and rights of women during the negotiation, transition and reconstruction phases were to be upheld and mechanisms for their implementation and monitoring strengthened at regional and international levels.

The trauma of rejection of female refugees on account of the consequences of rape and other forms of gender-based violence was to be addressed. Support to women in political processes in countries emerging from conflict was to be increased in order to further their influence in conflict prevention, peace-building and reconstruction. UNSC Resolution 1325 and the AU Protocol on Women's Rights were to be fully implemented.

Advocacy and punitive action against impunity was to be stepped up. The principle of denying access to positions of leadership in post-conflict reconstruction to warlords and perpetrators of violence against women and girls was to be adopted as an international norm.

Governments were required to put functional mechanisms and intervention programmes in place for the protection of women and girls in refugee and IDP camps against violence and all forms of sexual abuse. Humanitarian interventions were to pay attention to the health needs, especially reproductive and sexual health, of women and girls in conflict, refugee, and IDP situations;

- j. African governments were to adopt gender-responsive policies, programmes, strategies and measures on environment. Women were to play prominent roles in the design and implementation of policies and programmes on water, energy, sanitation, land and forestry conservation and management, as well as in rural and urban planning.

Rural women and their concerns were to be integrated into the planning and management of ecosystems, eco-tourism and biodiversity. The achievement of MDG 7 with respect to ensuring environmental sustainability was to be engendered;

- k. Specific efforts were to be put in place to protect the girl-child against discrimination, ill-health, malnutrition, stereotyping, violence, including genital mutilation, early and forced marriage and exploitation through domestic work and trafficking.

Successful strategies for improving girls' access to and retention in education were to be scaled-up. The content and culture of schooling were to be free from bias, discrimination and violence against girls. Access to professional and technical education for girls was to be facilitated in addition to gender-focused programmes for boys and girls;

- l. Accelerating the implementation of the BPfA in the context of the MDGs required that gender equality be no longer seen only as a women's agenda. Men's full commitment, accountability and partnership with women were seen as crucial. \

Government decision-making and institutional and organizational cultures were to be transformed to embrace gender equality and women's rights in behaviours, attitudes and norms, through gender sensitization, capacity building and monitoring at all levels.

Innovative rights-based and culture-sensitive focused programmes were to be developed for the participation and active involvement of men and boys in the promotion of gender equality and women's advancement.

Programmes that address families were to be developed to integrate the culture of equality and human rights processes in all aspects of the socialization process, including the sharing of domestic work and childcare; and

- m. An important ingredient for accelerating delivery of the BPfA was the strengthening of institutions of gender equality and equity through the provision of adequate resources, technical expertise and sufficient authority. This was to be effective through policy development and review, responsibility and accountability, capacity-building, coordination and advocacy.

The ICPD Road Map: +5 to +15

An Overview of ICPD+5 Achievements (1994-1999)

Within the framework of the global assessment of the ICPD PoA, ECA undertook a 5-year regional review of the extent to which member States were implementing the PoA in Africa.³⁴

The review, which was partly based on survey responses from 41 countries, revealed that remarkable progress had been made by some countries in areas such as access to reproductive health services, integrating family planning and safe motherhood into primary health care systems, developing national action plans designed to empower women, and addressing emerging issues such as HIV/AIDS and sexual and reproductive needs of adolescents.

The five-year review revealed heavy focus on reproductive health and reproductive rights, with little emphases on general health, education, income generation and employment, reducing infant and maternal mortality, and HIV/AIDS and other STDs. Also, the review indicated inadequate treatment of the family, refugees, role of the elderly in society, political and social instability, interrelationship between the role of the NGOs, private sector and civil society, and IEC and advocacy strategies.

An Overview of ICPD+10 Achievements (1999-2004)

The ICPD+10 Review aimed at addressing the gaps mentioned above. This review, which marked the mid-point for the ICPD PoA, offered an opportunity to look forward and to reflect on the diversity of the goals, and demonstrated how their achievement would promote progress toward the MDG targets.

³⁴ This was in line with its UN mandate as Coordinator of the ICPD Programme of Work for the Africa Region.

At the global level, the 37th Session of the United Nations Commission on Population and Development, held in 2004, carried out a comprehensive review of progress in the preceding ten years on all aspects of the ICPD PoA.

This meeting was built on the previous annual sessions of the Commission, held since 1994, which reviewed the implementation of specific chapters of the PoA. The Commission's 2004 review culminated with the official reaffirmation of the ICPD PoA and Key Actions, and a reiteration that governments in every region should continue to commit themselves, at the highest political level, to achieving the ICPD goals and objectives.

At the regional level, the review conducted by ECA emphasized full ownership of the ICPD PoA by African countries. In Dakar in 2004, governments re-affirmed their commitment to full implementation of the ICPD PoA, and adopted the Dakar Declaration. They signed a Ministerial Declaration in which they decided to intensify efforts in key areas aimed at building on progress made in achieving the goals of the Dakar/Ngor Declaration and the ICPD PoA.

This regional review and the Dakar Declaration underscored the continuing relevance of the ICPD goals. Its findings showed that much progress had been made in advancing these goals. However, the progress was not uniform across the region and across all thematic areas.

Overall, the outcomes of the ICPD+10 review demonstrated significant progress made by countries in adopting and implementing a reproductive health and reproductive rights approach; in strengthening efforts to improve gender equality, equity and the empowerment of women; in addressing adolescent reproductive health; in forging new partnerships with civil society and the private sector; and in promoting the integration of population dynamics and trends into development planning and policymaking.

However, the outcomes also show major challenges to the full implementation of the Cairo Agenda. These challenges include addressing HIV/AIDS more effectively, incorporating culturally sensitive approaches into programming and strengthening data collection and analysis systems.

Outcomes of ICPD +15 Regional Review (2004-2009)

The ICPD +15 Africa regional review of October 2009 noted that overall, progress in implementing both the ICPD PoA and the MDGs in most African countries has been unequal, and generally slow. Considerable efforts have been made in the formulation of national policies and the adoption of continental, as well as global conventions and agreements in virtually all areas of population, poverty reduction and sustainable development, complemented by national programmes.

However, the extent of this work in integrated population and development planning is rather limited. Indeed, only a few countries have taken steps to develop Action Plans to implement their population policies. Taken together, there appears to be a wide gap between population and development programming and implementation. To a large extent, this explains the rather slow progress made by most African countries in implementing the ICPD PoA and the MDGs.

Accelerating efforts for meeting the ICPD goals requires measures that address the challenges within socioeconomic context of each nation. In this respect, the following recommendations should enable acceleration of achievement of the ICPD and other development framework goals, including the MDGs:

Poverty, Population and Sustainable Development

- a. Accelerate efforts to promote peace and good governance and to resolve conflicts on the continent;
- b. Support strategies for addressing wide spread poverty especially in rural areas and among vulnerable groups;
- c. Put measures in place to address the shortage of critical human resource sectors that are key to the achievement of ICPD goals and the MDGs;

Reproductive Rights and Reproductive Health

- a. Adequately skilled personnel and resources should be available to provide quality integrated services, including emergency obstetric services, STDs treatment and family planning in all communities;
- b. Address adequately sexual and reproductive health needs of men, and design interventions for the enhanced participation in the provision of reproductive health and family planning information and service;
- c. Strengthen partnerships and efforts for the accelerated reduction of maternal morbidity and mortality;

Gender Equality, Equity and Empowerment of Women

- a. Strengthen the implementation/enforcement of policies, laws and programmes that address gender equality, equity and the empowerment of women including those related to the implementation of the BPfA, CEDAW and conventions urging elimination of VAW;
- b. Strengthen institutional capacities for the systematic and consistent mainstreaming and implementation of gender concerns into policies, laws, programmes, budgets and plans;
- c. Take necessary measures and programmes to address the gender dimension of HIV and AIDS and related reproductive health problems;

The Family, its Roles, Rights, Composition and Structure

- a. The family, particularly family welfare and stability, should be given adequate consideration in the formulation and implementation of national development plans and strategies;

Children and Youth

- a. Ensure the increased enrolment of children, especially girls, at all levels of the education system, taking steps to foster retention of girls at the secondary and post-secondary levels;
- b. Put measures in place to address challenges related to young people's vulnerabilities and empowerment by ensuring that adolescent sexual and reproductive health concerns are well integrated into other interventions such as education/skills development, gainful employment and participation in decision-making;
- c. Sustain implementation of expanded programmes for immunization to achieve and maintain universal immunization and improved health for children and their mothers;
- d. Provide for the needs of children and young people in particularly difficult circumstances, especially street children and those affected by wars and conflicts;

HIV and AIDS, TB and Other Communicable Diseases

- a. Promote actions to achieve behavioural change in favour of practicing safe sex, especially the use of condoms;
- b. Strengthen actions aimed at empowering women and hence reducing HIV prevalence among young women;
- c. Train various categories of health workers in order to scale up access to counselling, testing and post-test services;
- d. Ensure care and support for persons affected by HIV/AIDS including orphans, other vulnerable children and the elderly;
- e. Strengthen the prevention of mother to child transmission (PMCT) of HIV/AIDS within the framework of maternal and child health care programmes;
- f. Reinforce strategies to roll out the provision of antiretroviral therapy to all health facilities;
- g. Strengthen institutional and human capacity for expanded delivery of services to reduce the impact of malaria, TB and other infectious diseases in all communities;

Population Distribution, Internal Migration and Urbanization

- a. Ensure that due attention is given to urban planning and the expansion of social and economic services and infrastructures in urban centres especially satellite towns;
- b. Promote investment in rural areas to create employment opportunities for the rural labour force, to slow down rural to urban migration;
- c. Create opportunities for young people to capitalise on the demographic dividend in both urban and rural areas;

International Migration

- a. Implement policies and programmes to encourage Diaspora communities to invest and support development programmes in their countries of origin;
- b. Continue to build human capacities in especially key sectors such as health and implement measures and incentives for retention of skilled professionals and return of skilled migrants;
- c. Implement programmes to uphold the rights of internal and international migrants, especially refugees and displaced persons, in line with laid down conventions;

Crisis Situations and Emergency Preparedness

- a. Establish mechanisms for monitoring and resolution of conflicts, including the promotion of good governance, peace security, reconciliation and human rights;
- b. Mainstream disaster preparedness, including the provision of reproductive health information and services to refugees and IDPs into programme planning and response to emergencies;

Population and Development Data

- a. Ensure the establishment and continuous update of integrated databases containing disaggregated socio-demographic and economic data for development programme formulation monitoring and evaluation;
- b. Establish and sustain the effective functioning of national vital registration system (registration of vital events of births, deaths, marriages) given the administrative, statistical and legal significance of such statistics and records;
- c. Data collected through national census of population and housing and special surveys should be analysed and used for development planning;
- d. Given the importance of research for development, countries should strengthen research capacity through increased funding and institutional support;

Resource Mobilization, Partnerships and Coordination

- a. Increase technical and financial commitment of governments and development partners for the implementation of the MDGs and the ICPD PoA;
- b. Encourage the private sector to provide support for population and reproductive health programmes;

Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanisms

- a. Adopt a harmonized coordination and monitoring frameworks for development strategies including PRSPs and the MDGs;
- b. Strengthen the coordination, monitoring and reporting mechanisms of governments on MDGs- and ICPD-related interventions;

Factors Affecting Implementation of the ICPD PoA/MDGs

- a. Good governance (political and economic) is an essential precondition for sustainable development and is therefore an imperative for any future meaningful implementation of the ICPD PoA and MDGs;
- b. Human institutional capacity in the population and development sector should be improved for population programme design and management;
- c. Population issues should be integrated into national development policies and programmes.

Appendix IV: Countries with Legislation on FGM/C in Place

Countries with legislation on FGM/C in place	
1. Benin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Law passed in 3rd March 2003 banning all forms of FGM. Law no. 2003-03 on the Repression of the Practice of FGM in the Republic of Benin. • Article 2 prohibits all forms of FGM • Article 4 imposes a prison term from 6 months to 3 years and a fine 100,000 to 2,000,000 francs • Article 5 imposes a higher penalty for those who perform FGM on minors (persons below 18yrs) by imposing a term of 3-5yrs imprisonment and a maximum fine of 3 million francs. • Article 6 states that where the victim dies, the culprit will serve 5-20 years of hard labour and a fine of 3 - 6 million francs • Article 7 states that accomplices will be punished as well as the actual circumciser • Article 8 states that multiple offenders will be given the maximum penalty without any mitigation • Article 9 states that person who refuse to report the occurrence of FGM will receive the same penalty for 'refusing to report the crime' • Persons are supposed to report any occurrence of FGM to the Public Prosecutors office and failure to do so amount to a fine of 50,000 -100,000 francs. • Article 10 obliges the medical staff to assist the FGM victim/survivor and they must inform the public authorities
2. Burkina Faso	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Law no. 43/96/ADP was enacted on 13th November 1996. • Article 380 any person who violates or attempts to violate the physical integrity of the female genital organ either in total or ablation, excision, infibulation, desensitization or by any other means will be imprisoned for 6 months to three years and a fine of 150,000-900,000 francs or by either punishment. • If FGM results in death, the punishment shall be imprisonment for 5-10 years • Article 381 imposes the maximum punishment for persons in the medical and para-medical field • Article 382 states that a person having knowledge of the acts outlined in article 380 and who fails to report to the proper authorities will be fined 50,000 - 100,000 francs
3. Cameroon	No current FGM laws or Penal Code provisions but provisions on grievous bodily harm in Article 277 - 281 of the Penal Code can be used
4. Central African Republic	In 1996 the then president issued an ordinance prohibiting the practice of FGM.
5. Chad	Law no 6/PR/2002 on the promotion of reproductive health has provisions prohibiting FGM
6. Cote d'Ivoire	Law passed in 1998
7. Democratic Republic of Congo	No legal provisions on FGM but the Penal Code Article 46-48 on 'intentional bodily injury' can be used to address FGM
8. Djibouti	In 1995 the Penal Code was amended to include prohibition of FGM. Article 333 of the Penal Code provides that 'acts of violence resulting in genital mutilation are punishable by imprisonment for 5 years and a fine of 1,000,000 francs. The Penal Code does not define the term FGM
9. Egypt	Ministerial Decree 1996 prohibits FGM

Countries with legislation on FGM/C in place	
10. Eritrea	No law on FGM in Eritrea
11. Ethiopia	No law
12. Gambia	No law
13. Ghana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Constitution at article 26 (2) prohibits all customary practices, which dehumanize or are injurious to the physical and mental well-being of a person. Article 39 (2) states that government policy objective is to ensure that traditional practices which are injurious and harmful are abolished • In 1994, amendment to the Criminal Code made FGM a criminal offence. Article 69A imposes a sentence of not more than three years
14. Guinea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Law no. 2005 was passed in February 2006 against FGM. • Chapter one defines FGM • Chapter two provides the penalty for those who perform FGM, regardless of whether they are in the traditional or modern set up (Article 8) • Article 9 provides for imprisonment of between 6 months to 2 years and/or a fine of 300,000 to 1,000,000 francs • Article 10 provides that persons in the medical field receive the maximum sentence for performing FGM
15. Guinea Bissau	No law but penal provisions are applicable
16. Kenya	The Children's Act No. 8 of 2001 tackles FGM of persons under the age of 18 yrs at section 14. It prohibits FGM and other harmful practices that 'negatively affect' children and gives a penalty of 12 months imprisonment and/or a fine not exceeding 50,000 shillings
17. Liberia	No specific law on FGM
18. Mali	Law no. 02-044 passed on 24 th June 2002 on Reproductive Health outlaws FGM while Ordinance 04-019 incorporates the Maputo Protocol into law
19. Mauritania	(Ordinance no. 2005-015) Chapter II Article 12 Penal Code prohibits the practice of FGM on infants and children (defined as those below the age of 18). The punishment is up to 4 years and a fine of 120,000-300,000 ouguiya
20. Niger	Law no. 2003-025 made an amendment to the Penal Code which criminalized all forms of FGM at Article 232.1-232.3
21. Nigeria	No federal law banning FGM, but some states have banned FGM, including Edo State, Ogun, and Cross River, Osun, Rivers and Bayelsa states. Bill H22
22. Senegal	In January 1999, the Penal Code was amended and Article 299 of the Penal Code criminalizes FGM
23. Sierra Leone	No law
24. Somalia	No law
25. Sudan	No law
26. Tanzania	Penal Code amended in 1998 which criminalized FGM in Article 169A of the Penal Code

Countries with legislation on FGM/C in place	
27. Togo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Law no. 98-016 was enacted to prohibit FGM • Article 1 forbids all forms of FGM • Article 2 gives the definition of FGM and excludes operations performed for medical reasons • Article 3 states that all persons who perform FGM whether in the traditional or modern manner will be punished for ‘intentionally causing physical harm’ • Article 4 provides punishment for the offence in Article 3, from 2 months to 5 years imprisonment or a fine of 100,000-1,000,000 francs or both imprisonment and fine. • Multiple offenders to receive a double penalty • Article 5 provides that where the FGM results in death of the victim, the punishment will be between 5 - 10 years imprisonment • Article 6 provides punishment for a person who fails to notify the public authorities of the occurrence FGM or attempted FGM; such person shall be imprisoned for a period of one month to one year or receive a fine of between 20,000-500,000 francs. • This includes parents, relatives until the fourth generation, accomplices • Article 7 requires both public and private hospitals to assist victims of FGM by giving all the help necessary

Appendix V: Countries with Domestic Violence Legislation in Place

Country	Legislation	Year
Botswana	Domestic Violence Act	2008
Cameroon	Draft bill on violence against women and gender-based discrimination	2006
Ghana	Domestic Violence Act	2007
Kenya	Domestic Violence (Family Protection) Bill	2002
Madagascar	An Act to Punish Violence Against Women	2000
Malawi	Prevention of Domestic Violence Act	2006
Mauritius	Protection from Domestic Violence Act	1991
Mozambique	Law against Domestic Violence	2009
Namibia	Combating of Domestic Violence Act	2003
Nigeria	Elimination of Violence in Society Bill	2006
Rwanda	Gender Based Violence Act	2009
South Africa	Domestic Violence Act	1998
Uganda	Domestic Violence Bill	2009
Zimbabwe	The Prevention of Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims of Domestic Violence Act	2007

