Commissioned by:
African Women’s Development and Communication Network (FEMNET)

On behalf of:
CSO Taskforce on Beijing +20 & NGO/CSW Africa
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXECUTIVE SUMMARY</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Methodology</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Scope</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIGNPOSTS TO AND FROM BEIJING</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The 1990’s Democratic Wave</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Table 1: Women in Parliament in Zimbabwe since 1980</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The MDGs and Africa Rising</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEIJING PLUS 20: CROSS CUTTING TRENDS</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Figure 1: Overview of Progress in State Reports</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Main Achievements</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Regional Trends</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPFA+20 AFRICA SCORECARD</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and Poverty</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2: Labour and Literacy Data</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and the Economy</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3: Labour Market Outlook in Sub-saharan Africa (per cent) Estimates</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Education and Training of Women</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and Health</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Violence Against Women</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4: Sexual Violence Prevalence in Sub-saharan Africa</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Girl Child</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women in Power and Decision-making</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5: Percentage of Women in Parliament</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human Rights of Women</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and Armed Conflict</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6: Women Deployed in Peacekeeping Missions (percent) Southern Africa</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and Environment</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Women and Media</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 7: Media Occupation by Gender in 15 Sub-saharan African Countries</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FEMNET would like to acknowledge the collective energies of a range of individuals and organisations that were critical to the successful compilation of this report. We begin by recognizing Dr. Awino Okech and her team - Barbara Wanjala and Omowunmi Dipeolu, for developing a forward-looking regional shadow report. We appreciate East African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the advancement of Women (EASSI) and Women in Law and Development (WILDAF) for their contribution to this regional shadow report through national shadow reports from their regions. We would also like to acknowledge the close to 190 women’s rights organisations and activists from 34 countries in Africa who participated in the Beijing + 20 review meeting in Addis Ababa in November 2014 for their input into this report.

Additionally, we are grateful to the members of the CSO Taskforce on Beijing +20 for their review and contribution towards finalization of the report. Special thanks go to Sarah Mukasa of AWDF and Marren Akatsa –Bukachi of EASSÍ for their comments to the report. We acknowledge the African Centre for Gender at the UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) for compiling the Government Reports and the UN Women Liaison Office to Ethiopia, Africa Union (AU) and Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) for providing relevant reports and information that were critical in developing this shadow report. We appreciate the work of the editing team which included: Ms Yvette Kathurima, Head of Advocacy at FEMNET & Ms Felogene Anumo, Advocacy Programme Associate and Ms Rachel Kagoiya, Information Manager, for coordinating the design and printing.

Finally, we are extremely grateful to all our partners who worked with us or provided indirect support towards the successful engagement of African women and girls at the Regional Review of the Beijing +20. Special thanks go to the Ford Foundation who provided resources for printing and dissemination of this Report.

Dinah Musindarwezo
Executive Director
# Abbreviations and Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGDI</td>
<td>African Gender and Development Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART</td>
<td>Antiretroviral Treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWID</td>
<td>Association for Women’s Rights in Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWPS</td>
<td>African Women’s Progress Scoreboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPIA</td>
<td>Beijing Platform for Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention to eliminate all forms of violence against women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EASSI</td>
<td>East African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the advancement of women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EITI</td>
<td>Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMNET</td>
<td>The African Women’s Development and Communication Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGM</td>
<td>Female Genital Mutilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSI</td>
<td>Gender Status Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immuno Deficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information, Communication and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAPs</td>
<td>Structural Adjustment Programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRHR</td>
<td>Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNECA</td>
<td>United Nations Economic Commission for Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFCCC</td>
<td>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNSCR</td>
<td>United Nations Security Council Resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAW</td>
<td>Violence against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WILDAF</td>
<td>Women in Law and Development Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2015 marks the 20th anniversary of the agreement signed by 189 countries that attended the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China. Over the last two decades, Africa has made significant strides in developing progressive frameworks to advance the rights of women. These strides have been evident in the adoption of the gender equality principle in the African Union’s (AU) Constitutive Act of 2002, the AU Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa of 2003, and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa of 2004, to mention a few. At a national level and as is demonstrated in the state reports, there has been significant progress in critical areas such as: girls’ education, women’s political participation, maternal health, adoption of action plans on UN Security Council Resolution 1325, as well as laws and policies on violence against women, amongst others. In this regard, African states must be commended for continued efforts to sustain initiatives towards gender equality generally and women’s rights specifically.

As this report demonstrates, there is much more that can be done, not only by governments accelerating the allocation of adequate financial and human resources towards implementation of BPFA and other regional instruments, but also in responding to contemporary internal and external threats that hinder the transformation of the structural inequality. This report addresses gaps in reporting based on contemporary and renewed threats as well as areas where additional and persistent efforts are still required and offers a series of recommendations.

METHODOLOGY

This report was compiled using a combination of the following qualitative methods:

1. Review of 49 out of the 51 submitted state reports. The reports from Tunisia and Morocco were not reviewed due to translation limitations.

2. In the absence of sub-regional shadow reports, a review of select national shadow reports was conducted. They included reports developed by Women in Law and Development Africa (WILDAF) from Senegal, Burkina Faso, Benin, Ghana, Liberia and a Uganda report developed by East African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the advancement of Women (EASSI).
   a) Questionnaire survey to FEMNET members assessing their governments’ performance.
   b) Review of relevant policy and programme literature from development agencies and feminist actors.

3. Input from the regional Beijing plus 20 civil society meeting held in Addis Ababa in November 2014.
SCOPE

1. This shadow report focuses on mapping sub-regional and regional trends and draws on national examples for illustration purposes.
2. This report does not focus on national peculiarities since those form the basis of national shadow reports which are used to hold national government’s accountable.
3. While the shifting political and socio-economic environment since the Beijing conference is important. This report focuses on governments’ performance over the last five years since the Beijing plus 15 review for which, FEMNET also commissioned a regional review report.

The report is structured around four main sections: the first section offers an overview of the evolution of the socio-economic and political terrain within which women’s rights work has occurred. The second substantive sections summarises the key findings from the 51 state reports and the trends noted across all 51 state reports that were submitted to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). The third substantive section looks at the 12 critical areas, assessing gaps in state reporting and highlighting illustrative examples where innovation and/or where progress has occurred in specific states. These illustrations are not designed to highlight what all 51 reporting states have done in the 12 areas. The final section concludes with a set of recommendations.
Shaping Our Collective Futures - The Africa We Want

Equality
Decent Work
Women’s Empowerment
Social Justice
Human Security
Peace
Gender Equality
Gender Parity
Democratic
Responsive
Indigenous Peoples
Inclusive
Governance
Human Rights
Justice
Engagement
Gender - Responsive
Transformative
Gender-Sensitive
Budgets
Voice and Participation
Access and Control of Resources
The 1995 United Nations (UN) Beijing fourth world conference on women is noted as a watershed moment for women’s rights discourse. The conference brought together 17,000 participants and 30,000 activists and resulted in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA), which contains 12 critical areas of concern. The BPfA became an important policy framework useful for galvanising and holding states accountable to tackling the structural factors that sustain gender inequality. The journey towards the Beijing conference was preceded by a number of key events and international commitments but it was also important in creating an enabling environment for subsequent international and regional instruments on women’s rights. Some of the key signposts to and from Beijing are highlighted below.

1975
UN Conference on Women, Mexico City

1979
Adoption of the Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Violence Against Women (CEDAW)

1985
Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action

1993
United Nations Beijing Conference on Women

1995
African Platform for Action and the Dakar Declaration

1994
United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325

2000
Millennium Development Goals - MDG 3

2003

1976 - 1985
Declared the UN Decade for Women

1985
Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies

1979 - 1985
United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325

2000
Millennium Development Goals - MDG 3


3. UN Women, 2014

4. Only 36 out of 54 states have ratified the protocol. See http://www.makeeverywomancount.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=892:africa-maputo-protocol&Itemid=146

SIGNPOSTS TO AND FROM BEIJING
The five-year reviews since 1995 have become an international and national opportunity for dialogue between countries, citizens and key stakeholders around states efforts to fulfill the BPfA. It is nonetheless important to remember the context in which the BPfA was developed, and the cyclic shifts that have occurred since then.

THE 1990’s DEMOCRATIC WAVE

The third wave of democratization was sweeping through the continent in 1995, with multi-party politics being enshrined in constitutions and the political space broadening. In 29 out of 47 states in sub-Saharan Africa, the first multi-party elections were held between 1990 and 1994 except in Botswana, Gambia, Mauritius and Zimbabwe who regularly conducted multi-party elections since their independence, and Senegal since 1979. Multi-party politics during this period did not necessarily unseat autocratic rulers. Some of these leaders still occupy office today by manipulating constitutional processes and capitalizing on weak and divided opposition movements to win elections. Beyond greater space for political platforms, political liberisation during this period also resulted in the emergence of a relatively free press, independent unions and non-governmental organisations. The democratization project in many countries influenced the incumbents need to send signals of progress to the global community and some countries therefore committed large delegations to the Beijing conference and token appointments of women to government positions made ahead of the conference.

In the aftermath of the conference, there was increasing attention to gender equality, with political party manifestos pledging commitment to women’s participation in politics but with very few countries at the time constitutionally guaranteeing representation. There are the exceptions such as South Africa, Namibia, Botswana and Tunisia, a few countries where historical factors shaped constitutional guarantees on gender equality. Yet, even in these contexts the role women played in the liberation struggles, did not always translate into public roles post-liberation. The data below from Zimbabwe illustrates this point.

### TABLE 1: WOMEN IN PARLIAMENT IN ZIMBABWE SINCE 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session of Parliament</th>
<th>No. of women in parliament</th>
<th>No. of women in the senate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980 – 1985</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986 – 1990</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991 – 1995</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996 – 2000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 – 2005</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Economically, the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) introduced by the Bretton Wood institutions in the late eighties were beginning to bite. The SAPs with their emphasis on rolling back the state through a free market economy, private sector as the engine for unrestricted growth and integration into the global economy had differential effects across Africa. Broadly, there were shared negative results: major job losses in contexts where the state was a key employer and where parastatals were privatized. Second, the conditions imposed for loans resulted in a reduction in higher education budgets, which begun the destruction of universities. Many universities introduced market driven education and research programmes, resulting in research programmes that were largely un-interested in the socio-political pre-occupations of the time. Feminist scholars highlight the disappearance of gender studies programmes or re-purposed versions to

---


7. The World Bank and International Monetary Fund
serve bureaucratic needs and not necessarily the radical research, teaching and transformation goals that drove their initiation. Interest in questions such as violence against women, sexuality broadly and sexual rights specifically, the gendered impacts of HIV/AIDS only became subjects worth academic interrogation and therefore funding when development demanded it. It also meant that in contexts where socio-cultural dynamics already worked against high retention rates of girls in the education system, there were now broader constraints that justified early entry into the job market with low technical skills. The state reports on Beijing plus 20 demonstrate this, through accounts on women and the economy that situate illiteracy as a key hindrance.

SAPs also prevented African economies from fundamentally changing their character as primary commodity producers, designed as they were on the basis of ‘comparative advantage’ - produce what we were already producing. Complete trade liberalisation, high interest rates and the removal of subsidies threatened agriculture and domestic industries. Food production was adversely affected by interest rates and the high prices of inputs. In a context where 80% of agricultural production comes from small-scale farmers, of whom 70% are rural women with no ownership and control of the factors of production - land and productive resources – the socio-economic impact of SAPs on women need not be overstated. Greater scholarship and activism evolved around on the nexus between the informal labour market, the formal sector and the place of women’s unpaid care work in debates on economic growth (commonly known as the triple role of women highlighted by the multiplicity in demands caused by women’s reproductive, productive and community managing roles). The debate on unpaid care work was later magnified by the triple financial, food and fuel crises that began in 2008. The advocacy around unpaid care work has been geared towards pushing governments to rethink how they understand the economy and how they prioritise the allocation of public resources towards services that will support women living in poverty who carry the responsibility for unpaid care work.

THE MDGs AND AFRICA RISING

The launch of the MDGs in 2000 as part of a global development framework to commit governments towards a set of defined goals and targets was yet another opportunity to re-commit to gender equality. It can be argued that the existence of a standalone goal – MDG 3 on promoting gender equality and empowerment of women – is the result of the momentum built by the Beijing process. The review of the successes and failures of the MDGs are now well documented and widely circulated due to the ongoing global discussions around sustainable development goals and a successor framework. Five key lessons emerge from the MDGs review, which are relevant to the BPfA accountability process.

The first lesson relates to the place of Africa within the global economy and the state’s role in driving and sustaining development that meets citizens needs. A key lesson from triple crises (food, fuel and financial) was Africa’s economic reliance on the production of primary commodities. The food “shortages” in the continent were driven not by the absence of food but by price speculation in the international market and limited protection for local farmers. Given the primacy of agriculture to African economies and the role small scale rural women farmers play in this sector, the absence of state protection drove not only food from tables but also income from families which had a ripple effect on access to basic rights such as education and health care. “Cushioning” the state occurred through the reliance on women’s unpaid care work.

Second, is the impact of the widespread phenomenon of large tracts of irregular land leases by externals for speculation purposes as well as for food production of products grown locally yet re-imported for local consumption. This phenomenon points to the rapid expansion of agribusiness globally since the food and financial crises of 2008. The dominance of international agribusiness threatens livelihoods since it takes food production, ownership of communal lands and protection of indigenous seed technologies out of the hands of farmers and local communities.
women farmers lose already limited access to, control over and ownership of land, productive resources, technology and information. Connected to this is the rush to Africa’s natural resources without holistic policy frameworks to address environmental threats, factor in community stakes and manage resultant conflict. The intersection between land ownership and sexual and reproductive rights, citizenship, freedom from violence, and women’s power to make decisions in other areas of their lives have been articulated by feminist scholars and activists. However, the uptake of the land rights for women in policy spaces has resulted in the reduction of women’s rights to land to reducing hunger, poverty, and increasing growth and less about the power it provides women to make both productive and reproductive decisions across other spheres of life.

The third lesson is connected to the tension between juridical and policy progress on the one hand and reversals that occur at a socio-cultural level on the other hand. In this sphere, there were numerous actions across the continent that reminded feminists of the need to safeguard spaces, language and rights for women specifically and gender equality generally. The emergence of well-resourced groups, operating under the banner of religious conservatism, of Christian and Muslim extraction alike, have been key to retrogressive legislative activism across African parliaments. Some examples worth noting are: The Indecent Dressing Bill 2008\textsuperscript{12} in Nigeria that sought to legislate on women’s dressing to “save them from rape”. The obvious message here was that rape and other forms of sexually violent behaviour was not an act of power over the person attacked but was linked to sexual attraction and therefore women in this case needed to manage their aggressors. Implicit in the indecent dressing bill debate was the role of women as the keepers of the nation’s “morality”. In South Africa, The Traditional Courts Bill (2013) sought to return legislative power to traditional rulers, despite decades of feminist research pointing to the patriarchal nature of these institutions and therefore inherent gender biases, which are contradictory in a context with a fairly comprehensive equality based judicial framework that promotes inclusivity and non-discrimination.

The slew of anti-homosexuality laws, are also red flags for gender equality actors. The Anti-Homosexuality Act (2014)\textsuperscript{13} in Nigeria and the Uganda Anti-Homosexuality Act\textsuperscript{14}(2014) became laws after years of public debate and activism both for and against them. However, there were significant changes to the provisions in the initial bills such as the death penalty in Uganda for suspected gay and lesbian individuals as well as “known associates”. These changes were due to national and global pressure on states to re-assess their stance on citizens whose rights they are legally bound to protect.\textsuperscript{15} While debates on gay rights polarize many human rights activists, it is important to remember that laws that criminalize homosexuality concomitantly re-assert conservative ideas about “good heterosexuality”. In effect, securing same sex rights is an act in the protection of heterosexuality and the freedoms associated with being an “empowered woman” in a context that continually erodes space gained through CEDAW, BPEA and the Maputo Protocol.

The attack on heterosexuality within the “death to homosexuals” laws could not have been clearer in the well resourced campaigns to manage sexual and reproductive rights for women – freedom to choose when, who with and how to have a child, access to state funded comprehensive health care, comprehensive sexuality education for young women and men\textsuperscript{16}. These issues amongst others became points of contention during the International Conference on Population and Development in 2013 and were the point of mobilization around constitutional review processes in countries like Kenya.

These threats are real and are a reminder that the fight for gender equality is not simply about states denying an opportunity to one group but that the patriarchal states require gender inequalities to survive. Gender equitable states are important not simply for the purposes of representation but in order to create societies that recognize that the management of power and interests should not compromise women’s bodily autonomy and personal integrity. The increasing securitization of governance in an effort to respond to radicalized voices in the society, have instead created greater risks for communities generally and women specifically who are targeted to ”send a message” to

\textsuperscript{12} See CRAIN, 2012. Land: The Gendered Dilemma: that show United Arab Emirates, India, China, Portugal, Italy as some of the key countries “leasing” land in Africa as well as in Latin America, Asia and Eastern Europe

\textsuperscript{13} Everjoice Win, 2013. “Between Jesus, the Generals and the Invisibles: Mapping the Terrain for Feminist Movement Building & Organizing for Women’s Human Rights”. A report commissioned by just Associates Southern Africa

\textsuperscript{14} A Bill for an Act to prohibit and punish public nudity, sexual intimidation and other related offences in Nigeria

\textsuperscript{15} A bill that was adopted in senate in 2011 and provides for among other things prison sentences of up to 15 years for anyone who participates in gay clubs or organisations and for same-sex couples who publicly show affection. This is a very broad definition, which like the Uganda bill would target any organization working around sexual and reproductive health rights.

\textsuperscript{16} Popularly known as the Bahati bill after its mover David Bahati. This bill was initiated in 2009. These are the more recent well publicized laws but 36 countries criminalize same sex sexualities under their criminal code such as Zimbabwe’s sexual deviancy law in the 2006


\textsuperscript{18} The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action (PoA) +20 commitments
the opposing side. The Chibok girls’ abduction in Nigeria in 2014 and the continued assault by extremist groups19 across Africa are illustrative. In state led responses to extremism, women have been reminded that resources exist to fight violence, just not to the same degree required to deal with the daily cancer of domestic violence, sexual harassment, rape and unsafe cities that women negotiate on a daily basis and which find escalated expression during periods of conflict where women’s bodies are used as instruments of war. Committed investments to make gender equality policies and laws where they exist effective remains minimal.

Fourth, under the banner of security and sovereignty, there has been an increasing reduction in spaces for dialogue within the state. The crackdown on voices that challenge state repression during the MDG implementation period has been a final indication of the extent of reversals. All civil society organisations have been at risk of losing financial support and/or being shut down for taking views that are considered a threat to the regime of the day. However, women’s rights organisations face a particular challenge. This challenge is evident in the shrinking resources for women’s rights work generally with global arguments suggesting the need for a re-focus on men and boys given the minimal progress that has been achieved with dedicated resources to re-balancing the scale for women and girls. Many women’s rights organisations across the continent have had to close down, with hotlines, shelters and violence against women programmes following and little state efforts emerging to sustain them as part of their commitment to gender equality.

The fifth and final lesson is the need for sustained data collection, to facilitate impact assessment, trends analysis and progress. In 2005, the Economic Commission for African (ECA) developed a monitoring mechanism known as the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) to assist African States to assess the impact of their BPfA intervention strategies. The AGDI is a composite index made up of the Gender Status Index (GSI) that captures quantitatively measurable issues related to gender equality in social, political and economic spheres and the African Women’s Progress Scoreboard (AWPS), which measures government policy performance on women’s advancement and empowerment. The AWPS tracks government progress in effectively implementing relevant conventions on gender equality and women’s socio-economic and political advancement20. Whether states actively use the AGDI as a framework for tracking progress and national CSOs use findings where they exist to hold national governments accountable is up for debate.

Globally, there are different indices that have also been developed to help track progress on gender equality. The BPfA is an important policy guideline for these indices as well. Two are highlighted here, the Global Gender Gap index (GGI), introduced by the World economic forum in 2006 is a framework for capturing the magnitude and scope of gender-based disparities and tracking their progress21. The GGI allows for comparison across regions while providing country rankings in the areas of economics, politics, education and health and highlighting the gaps that exist. Finally, the Gender Inequality Index (GII) reflects the ‘inequalities in achievements between women and men in the areas of reproductive health, empowerment and labour market22.

Despite, the reversals in the global and African environment there has been consistent political indication of commitment towards women’s rights in particular and gender equality generally. These indications are evident in the declaration of the African Union’s African Women’s Decade (2010–2020); the 2015 thematic focus of the AU Heads of State Summit “Year of Women’s Empowerment and Development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063”.23 Finally, the African Union’s blueprint Agenda 2063 and the Common Africa Position are implicit if not explicit through a blueprint Agenda 2063 and the Common Africa Position are implicit if not explicit through a framework that captures the challenges of our time.
THE MAPUTO PROTOCOL

10+ YEARS
Deemed the most progressive & comprehensive instrument on women’s rights globally, the Maputo Protocol guarantees extensive rights to African women and girls.

18 MONTHS
Time taken to effect the Maputo Protocol by Heads of State, making it fastest AU instrument to come into force.

Source: Equality Now/ SOAWR Secretariat

BY 2014

67% of countries had ratified the Protocol by 2014. Where?

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

Provisions provided by the Protocol

- Right to life, security & integrity
  Article 4
- Elimination of all harmful practices
  Article 5
- Right to Nutritious and Adequate Food
  Article 15

Prior to its adoption and coming into force, no instrument globally or regionally referred to all rights enshrined within the Maputo Protocol.
National reviews on the implementation of the BPfA were prepared by 51 out of 54 African member states. Equatorial Guinea, the Central African Republic and Libya did not submit reviews due to ongoing political crises in these countries. This section of the report provides an overview of some of the main achievements and trends in the reports submitted by member states. The pie chart below offers a snapshot of the collective progress of countries around some of the key areas in the BPfA.

**FIGURE 1: OVERVIEW OF PROGRESS IN STATE REPORTS**

Source: Thokozile Ruzvidzo, 2014

**MAIN ACHIEVEMENTS**

1. All 51 reporting member states have national gender machineries, which include ministries of Gender and Women's Affairs, gender directorates under various ministries, gender desks or focal points in key ministries, gender secretariats, as well as Gender and Equality Commissions


25. We are indebted to Thokozile Ruzvidzo, 2014. Op Cit. for the summary of achievements
2. All 51 reporting countries have put in place legal, policy or strategic frameworks aimed at promoting gender equality and women's empowerment.

3. All 51 countries have put in place different policies, programmes and projects to accelerate economic empowerment of women. The main areas of focus are in agriculture, business development, finance and Information Communication and Technology (ICT).

4. 51 countries have put in place a range of legal frameworks to address the different types of violence against women (VAW).

5. 29 out of 51 countries have specific national policies or laws that facilitate access by women and girls to sexual and reproductive health services, family planning services and pre-natal and post-natal care.

6. 24 out of 46 sub Saharan African countries have achieved a reduction of the maternal mortality ratio of more than 40% over 1990–2010. Significant progress is noted in in Algeria; Angola; Benin; Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia and Madagascar.

7. Botswana, Namibia and Rwanda have attained universal access to antiretroviral therapy.

8. 14 countries have developed national action plans to implement the UN security council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. The 14 are Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic republic of the Congo, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Uganda.

9. 52 out of the 54 African countries have ratified CEDAW with Somalia and Sudan as the exceptions.

10. The Maputo Protocol has been signed and ratified by 36 member States; signed by 18 member States. Only 3 countries have neither signed nor ratified the protocol. For more information on the status list, visit http://www.au.int/en/sites/default/files/Rights%20of%20Women.pdf

11. All African Union member states have signed the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child(ACRWC) - Children's Charter. Only 6 countries have not ratified it: Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, São Tome and Príncipe, Somalia, South Sudan and Tunisia.

12. 24 out of 28 African countries where Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is practiced have laws combating it.

REGIONAL TRENDS

There are a number of observable crosscutting trends across all the 51 reports:

Lack of disaggregated data across the 12 critical areas of concern. Most of the state reports speak to the presence of laws and policies but with very little tangible data on what those laws and policies have yielded. This means that evidence on progress remains anecdotal and limited to the creation of laws that are often pushed for by non-state actors.

Structural factors that sustain gender inequality remain: All of the reports are consistent in their recognition that conservative gender norms continue to prevent women's access to productive assets such as land, they hinder the occupation by women of government positions beyond parliament where the record is staggered. The burden of unpaid care work, which is also connected to poor service delivery by states limits women's capacities to engage in other sectors of work and also contributes to high illiteracy rates for young girls and later women who are forced in early marriages or drop out of school to take on domestic responsibilities. For instance in Gambia it is reported that low retention rates in the education system is as a result of early and forced marriage. It remains clear that the policy interventions pursued by the state do not directly deal with these structural factors since every policy intervention is accompanied by a qualification that success has not been met due to socio-cultural factors. It follows that governments need to rethink policy options and their commitment to enforcing them.
Representation without meaningful participation: there has been incremental representation of women in houses of parliament, cabinets and the development of quotas within national constitutions. However, all reports observe that representation remains captive to limited ownership of gender equality as an aspiration within the various states. Gender equality is consistently contested and therefore renders leaders who want to ensure political survival subject to political party and elite interests. As a result, representation exists with minimal meaningful participation and influence.

Budgetary deficits: Budgets are important policy instruments, which reflect an administration’s priorities and demonstrate its seriousness in responding to persisting development challenges. While the allocation of financial and human resources towards gender equality may have increased since 1995, they still remain small in comparison to other sectors. In Niger, the budget allocated to the gender directorate within the Ministry of Population is less than 1% of the national budget and largely constitutes running costs for the department. Gender machineries where they exist remain under-staffed with limited budgets for programme implementation. The Congo Brazzaville report notes the limited and difficult release of resources and budgets allocated to the department for the advancement of women. The issue is not the absence of resources but prioritization and management, particularly when ECA notes that illicit financial flows have accounted for an estimated annual average loss of $50 billion to the continent.

Policies and laws with limited reporting on results: 90% of the state reports provide rich descriptions about the enabling legislative and policy environment that has been provided with limited reflection on the implementation of said instruments. This gap would suggest either the newness of the frameworks and/or the lack of implementation due to under-resourced ministries with limited multi-sectoral cooperation. Where efforts are placed on highlighting implementation, all reports note the difficulties faced due to the structural factors that sustain inequality. Primary amongst these factors from a policy perspective, is the co-existence of dual, sometimes triple legal systems, in contexts that in practice do not give primacy to the constitution. It can therefore be argued that in managing cohesion and/or political interests, governments of the day are reluctant to systematize legal regimes and undertake the necessary work with citizens to ensure constitutional compliance.

Non-compliance with international and regional instruments: Most countries have not taken effective measures to ensure that when constitutions provide for international instruments to become part of national law after ratification, they are actively used as part of national jurisprudence. The responsibility also lies with the ability of local lawyers to use instruments such as CEDAW, the Maputo Protocol and regional courts where national laws fall short.

Account for contemporary threats: In the last five years, a number of African countries within the Sahel and the Horn of Africa have faced threats associated with extremist groups as well as organized crime, which include abductions, forced marriages, widespread violent attacks, arms, drug and human trafficking. State policies do not appear to respond directly to concerns emanating from these renewed threats to citizens, and in this case women and girls except by way of highlighting their presence. In addition, the question of natural resource extraction and its management as it relates to the community and environment are not dealt with robustly under the poverty, economy, environment and human rights.

The level of implementation of the BPfA varies across countries.\(^{27}\) The variation in implementation is shaped by diverse contextual factors, which act together. Four main ones are worth noting for the purposes of this report.

1. **Leadership:** which in this case refers to high-level leadership at ministerial or Presidential level, which is evident in both verbal and practical commitment as well as concomitant actions to achieve gender equality.

2. **Political stability:** which ranges from conflict-affected countries, countries emerging from conflict, countries with presidents for life or countries that are negotiating democratic transitions such as Egypt and Tunisia. All of these dynamics come with constraints\(^{28}\) and influence a country’s ability to effectively manage global, regional and national crises when they occur and automatically reduces focus on gender equality even where visible impact exists.

3. **Economy:** countries with slightly higher levels of growth and greater economic diversity are better placed to dedicate more resources to gender equality than those that are less economically diverse or are constrained by environmental and political circumstances. A cautionary note must be added here that a commitment to prioritising resources for gender equality is key even where resources are available.\(^{29}\)

4. **History:** In countries that have historically had strong women’s movements as part of independence liberation struggles and where women have been key to the nation making project and are recognized in public narratives, there is greater political accountability to gender equality. This does not mean that reversals have not occurred in these contexts rather that history provides an important basis for invoking public memory on women’s contribution and place in the nation and State building project.\(^{30}\)

♀ **WOMEN AND POVERTY**

Interventions to tackle poverty have been closely linked to poverty reduction strategy papers developed by different countries. Addressing the critical area of women and poverty is also closely connected to women and the economy. Reporting in this area has focused on poverty levels and integration of women in the formal economy instead of strengthening infrastructure to support the informal economy where a vast majority of the “poor” are...
found. Secondly, structural inequalities remain in the labour market. The unemployment rate continues to be higher for women than for men as demonstrated in the table below. In the formal sector, women still work primarily at the lowest levels of productivity, income, and social protection. For example, in Comoros female labour market participation sits between insecure jobs, the informal sector and unemployment. The agricultural sector employs the highest number of women (66.9%), Public Service employs 30% of women, mostly in junior positions and women constituted 56.1% of the self employed compared to men at 47.5%. Overall, 47% of the unemployed in the Comoros are women. In the non-agricultural sector, traders, micro-entrepreneurs and self employed included, women hold 19.5% of the jobs. Female employment in the Comoros remains low with only 13.7% of women in wage labor, including 69.2% in “unprotected jobs.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2: LABOUR AND LITERACY DATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Africa’s employment to population ratio in 2012</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Africa’s youth literacy rate in 2011</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The gender gap in employment persists, with a 24.8 percentage point difference between men and women in the employment-to-population ratio in 2012.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Increases in income-earning opportunities for women do not mean they have secure, decent jobs nor does it mean they are on an equal footing with men. In fact, the data suggests that women in developing regions are more likely than men to work as contributing family workers on farms or other family business enterprises or as own-account workers—with little or no financial security or social benefits.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UN, 2013

Access to factors of production: land, labour and financial resources are also key areas under this action point, but must be examined alongside state efforts on women and the economy. In many parts of Africa the trends on land ownership are similar. For instance in Uganda women make up 80 percent of farmers and produce 60 percent of the nation’s food yet they own only 1 percent of land. Similarly in Kenya women make up 80 percent of those producing the nation’s food yet only 2 percent own land. Rural women in Cote d’Ivoire are also at a disadvantage when it comes to owning land. In Eritrea, women have no entitlement to land ownership or inheritance. Customary laws make it difficult for women to own land and many have to negotiate with their partners or families to access land to grow food. In Botswana, the recent overturning of the customary laws on land inheritance by the High Court exemplifies just one of the successes in efforts to tackle inequality in ownership. Kenya has also adopted a national land policy while Tanzania has a law requiring women to participate in local land administrative bodies.

Third, the nexus between migration, poverty and the economy is an under-developed area of engagement by states. By 2005, 47.4% of the 17 million immigrants in Africa were women. Most African women migrate within the region, but there are also increasing migration flows to North America and Europe. For example, females in migration flows from Cape Verde to Italy accounts for 85%. Studies show that migration can provide new opportunities to improve women’s lives and change oppressive gender relations. Migration has also been shown to strengthen women’s agency within structures that normally offer them few opportunities such as education and career opportunities that may not be available to them at home and provide a vital source of income for migrant women and their families. It is important to note though that poverty does not always contribute to women’s decisions...
and capabilities to migrate, rather state and community settings, traditions and family and individual circumstances also factor in. However, women from poor environments with limited opportunities and exposure to violence are likely to become easy targets for traffickers, who promise a “better life” whilst luring them into forced labour, in most cases forced prostitution, sweat-shops and inhumane domestic work conditions. In addition, internal migration in sub-Saharan Africa largely constitutes outmigration from the rural economies to the more industrialised centres. These migration flows have a profound impact on agricultural livelihoods combined with erratic rains, drought, shortage of fertile land, and lack of markets for farm products.

Given the significant role of remittances in African economies, governments need to account for migration in the following ways: by first providing information on possible risks along the whole migration route (including countries of transit and destination) and how to avoid them. Secondly, once settled, Embassies should go beyond registration and institute follow up mechanisms that ensure that the women and girls receive proper treatment from employers. This is because women workers dominate the international migration of care services workers and tend to be concentrated in the most vulnerable jobs of global production systems, policies therefore need to be developed to address both the market factors and constraints. Finally, an effective response to the twin factors of dwindling agricultural economies due to urban migration patterns as well as large scale unorthodox land deals must feature as part of the government responses. An integrated response would include technological investments, which are dealt with in the next section.

**MILESTONES**

In **Cameroun**, the government has made efforts in the following areas: establishment of a centre for appropriate technologies to reduce labour; institutional support through letters of recommendation of the Government prioritise of women candidates for paid jobs.

In **Gabon** the 2009 “Strategic Plan for an Emergent Gabon.” was developed, which focuses on the development of growth factors and competitiveness and multifaceted actions of capacity building of women, mechanisms to support income-generating activities are implemented.

**Ghana**: Gender Responsive Budgeting implementation being mainstreamed on all sectors of the development process.

**Liberia**: Development of Land Rights Policy to give opportunity to both women and men to own land. Establishment of a Land Desk at the National Gender Machinery to help educate and inform women on the Land Rights policy and laws on land issues. In addition provide guidance to those interested in acquiring land.

**Mali** adopted its National Strategy for Planning and Gender Responsive Budgeting (PBSG) in 2011, which is part of the implementation of the strategic area six of the National Gender Policy on Good Governance in government policies and reforms in the context of decentralization and devolution. The strategy focuses on three areas of intervention: (i) consideration of the PBSG approach in the budget process at the national level (ii) taking into account women’s priorities in budget allocations at sector and local level (iii) Establishment of a mechanism for regular monitoring of the implementation of the PBSG.

---

38. Caritas Internationalis. N.d. *The Female Face of Migration*
WOMEN AND THE ECONOMY

Patriarchal structures persist across Africa, making it harder for women to participate in the labour market and access particular jobs. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) the vulnerable employment rate in Sub-Saharan Africa was estimated at 77.4 per cent in 2013, which is the highest rate of all regions. UN Women estimates that out of the overall rates, 55 percent of women in North Africa are in vulnerable employment while in Sub-Saharan Africa the figure is at 85 percent. Vulnerable employment refers to jobs characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and performed under difficult and often poor working conditions, which undermine workers’ fundamental rights. In the face of underdeveloped or non-existent social protection systems, there is significant underage entry into the work force resulting in an estimated labour force participation rate across all labour market groups of 70.8 per cent in 2013. Sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in which the male adult labour force participation rate is projected to rise in 2014 and 2015.

See table below

### TABLE 3: LABOUR MARKET OUTLOOK IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (PER CENT) ESTIMATES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>87.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unemployment rate</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In Mali, 77% of employed women work in the informal sector, which is not counted as part of the GDP. Women’s work is affected by insecurity, low-recognition of the financial contribution, especially at the farm level. In Côte d’Ivoire attention to women empowerment remains lax despite national policies. Vulnerable employment is an important unit of assessment of labour markets, especially when dominant economic narratives about Africa suggest sustained and strong gross domestic product (GDP) growth at 4.8%, ascendancy of some countries into middle-income economies and a rising Africa. Who is Africa rising for and is it a jobless growth? In addition, wage inequalities persist. In Côte d’Ivoire, Mauritania and Algeria the female–male wage ratio is less than 0.5, which has been highlighted as the worst wage parity between the two sexes. Finally, twenty years after Beijing, there is need to scale up engagements on women in the economy beyond micro-finance, where a lot of focus appears to be placed at a country level. Advancing macro-economic investments and growth for women in particular is intimately linked to science and technology for the following reasons. The application and utilisation of science and technology for sustainable development is key to Africa’s development because of the possibilities to both introduce new technologies and improve in indigenous knowledge systems. Key to this is the transformation of primary commodities into value added goods, processes and services. Women are an essential part of this value chain and their access to technologies that harness their economic development, quality of life, environment, health and safety must be a core component of state policies on women and the economy.
Kenya
The government established Women’s Enterprise Fund that has benefitted over 800,000 women through microfinance credit and a significant number have been trained in business management skills. In addition, the UWEZO (ability) Fund was launched in 2013 to provide interest free loans as start-up capital for small businesses. The government in line with the equality principles enshrined in the constitution introduced a 30 percent affirmative action policy for women, youth and the disabled in public procurement.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF WOMEN

Across 80% of the state reports, there is a conflation between girl child education and broader education and training of women as demonstrated in the examples below. The latter would focus on higher education, adult education, subsidiary training and support geared towards building capacities in key areas where women are disadvantage. Granted there is connection between girls being educated and the women they become, however, this anomaly in reporting means that investments that could have been directed towards enhancing linkages between economic factors and poverty are lost by virtue of a limited interpretation of what constitutes education and training. In Malawi it is noted under women and poverty that recruitment of women into the Technical, Entrepreneurial, Vocational Education and Training Authority (TEVETA) is low and problematic due to lack of education or low education status of women in the informal sector. The strides made by Chad below while important say little about the gendered impact in the absence of disaggregated data on recruitment and training.

Chad: The Directorate for the Promotion of Girls Education in the Ministry of Primary Education and Civic Education was created in order to better coordinate the implementation of the national strategy for girls’ education. The Chadian education system, gender ratio for pupils in 2002 was 65 girls for every 100 boys in 2010 that increased to 73 girls for 100 boys. 2415 classrooms were built in 5474 primary and secondary school. Recruitment of 8982 teachers of which 6,697 community teachers are for primary schools and 4832 for secondary schools. 2.5% of GDP allocated to education over the past 10 years, 10.3% of the state budget in 2010. The government has also created 22 selective higher education establishments, seven universities and seven university institutes. There is a yearly quota aimed at increasing recruitment of teachers in the public service.

A final and important focus area for states would be the nexus between women, economy, technology and higher education. Research shows that the number of women who pursue science and engineering programmes in higher education institutions are fewer than men. Furthermore, the ability to retain the few women who embark on training in science disciplines is hindered by limited motivation. The result is that all over the continent, there are still very few women scientists and engineers with even fewer in leadership positions to articulate the inclusion of women in the management of science and technology institutions.
Accountability on women and health places an overwhelming focus on maternal health as connected to population and demographic growth. This means that broader sexual and reproductive health questions beyond women in their reproductive roles and/or choice not to reproduce are not addressed. The focus on maternal health fully cognizant of its gravity is also an indication of the zones of sexuality that states are most comfortable dealing with. At least 70% of the state reports are silent on cervical cancer and contraception generally as part of sexuality and not as it relates to family planning. Contraceptive needs are still largely unmet among women in the 15 to 49 year age bracket. United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) noted that the number of women with an unmet need for modern contraception increased in sub-Saharan Africa, from 31 million in 2008 to 36 million in 2012[46].

Many countries are still less advanced in recognizing sexual rights in addition to reproductive rights. This leads to reluctance to incorporate comprehensive sexuality education in national curricula thereby leaving the youngest population unprotected. Across the board there is a shortage of health professionals and accessibility of health facilities in rural communities. In addition, attention to the health care needs of women with disabilities remains in the periphery of national health policies. HIV and AIDS still remains a major concern for Africa and a leading cause of death of young women of reproductive age[47]African women constitute 58% of people living with HIV in sub-Saharan Africa.[48] There are approximately 380,000 adolescent girls and young women between 10 – 24 years of age who are newly infected with HIV. Given the demographic composition of Africa in which 70% of Africans are under 30 years of age, HIV continues to be major socio-economic and political concern requiring urgent and sustained intervention.

Finally, silence on state led responses to deal with unsafe abortions in their countries in face of commitments under Maputo Protocol is a concern given that all countries with the exception of - Angola, Central African Republic, Congo (Brazzaville), Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Gabon, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mauritius, São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal, Somalia – have laws that provide for safe abortion whether limitations or without but with gestational limits like in Cape Verde, South Africa, Tunisia.[49]

This silence is compounded by statistics that indicate that:

The annual number of induced abortions in Africa rose between 2003 and 2008, from 5.6 million to 6.4 million. In 2008, the most abortions occurred in Eastern Africa (2.5 million), followed by Western Africa (1.8 million), Northern and Middle Africa (0.9 million), and Southern Africa (0.2 million). The increase in the number of abortions is due largely to an increase in the number of women of reproductive age. Of the 6.4 million abortions carried out in 2008, only 3% were performed under safe conditions[50]

Finally, the absence of comprehensive psycho-social and mental health support in and of itself and also when associated with trauma connected to violence outside of and during armed conflict remains a huge gap in state reports. Governments remain silent on mental health care and services yet mental health disorders constitute 14% of the global health burden with a growth rate of 2% since the year 2000 and the figure is likely to increase by 2020[51]. In addition, the psychiatrist-to-patient ratio in Africa is less than 1 to 100,000, with 70% of African countries allocating less than 1% of the total health budget to mental health[52]. Coupled with societal stigma, this means that national health care systems and services are bound to be under-resourced, over-stretched and inaccessible to the majority of those who need them.
MILESTONES

Algeria
There has been an increase in average life expectancy at birth for women from 73.4 years in 2000 to 77.1 years in 2012. Reduction of maternal mortality during childbirth to 86.9 per 100,000 live births in 2008. The medically assisted birth rate was 98.6% in 2011. Female infant mortality per 1,000 live births has decreased from 35.3% in 2000 to 21.2% in 2012. Health coverage by an increase of 85 specialists - obstetricians and paediatricians is recorded annually since 2007, with a more balanced distribution in the highlands and south.

Angola
Angola’s national HIV/AIDS institute drafted guidelines that incorporated the World Health Organization’s (WHO) guidelines for antiretroviral treatment (ART).

Eritrea
Has reduced maternal mortality rates; now at 350 deaths out of 100,000.

Liberia
Access to skilled maternal care has increased. Trained traditional midwives aware of necessity to refer women to health care centres for delivery and family planning services available through referrals and is integrated into different subject curricula
ART sites have been established across the country at several health care facilities

Malawi
Cervical cancer programme offered by the Ministry of health provides free screening services to women of reproductive age and has been implemented in nearly all district hospitals. Enactment of the Gender Equality act (2013) has resulted in a domestic law guaranteeing the right to sexual and reproductive health

Rwanda
98 percent of the population is said to have health insurance and maternity mortality ratio has gone down by 60 percent.

♀ VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The long and rich history of women’s rights activism in the area of violence against women can be argued to be instrumental in the significant gains that are reported in this area. All reporting states without exception have laws that respond to violence against women. At least 50% of the reporting countries have set up one stop centres and/or coordination mechanisms within the police stations to deal effectively with survivors of violence as well as respond comprehensively to legal components of these cases.

However, the quest to ensure violence-free life, especially violence that is meted out on the sole basis of one’s gender remains elusive. Domestic violence is noted to be on the rise in Cote d’Ivoire, Liberia and Sierra Leone. In Cote d’Ivoire, there was an increase of violence from the post-election period, with a rise of 43 percent in the first half of 2011. In South Africa,
the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that over 60000 women and children are exposed to domestic violence and the South African Medical Research council adds that, every 8 hours a woman is killed by her partner57

**TABLE 4: SEXUAL VIOLENCE PREVALENCE IN SUB SAHARAN AFRICA**58

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of violence</th>
<th>Life time prevalence %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-partner sexual violence</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate-partner sexual violence</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate partner violence (physical and/or sexual) or non-partner sexual violence or both among all women (15 years and older)</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The data above on prevalence does not comprehensively capture non-partner sexual violence, because data is largely unavailable in most regions and countries in comparison to intimate partner violence. However, both categories of violence remain stigmatized. The sustained increase of diverse forms of sexual violence as shown above can be attributed to one main factor, that violence remains the principle instrumental through which patriarchal societies secure power over women. In the absence of effective formal and informal justice systems, there is a continual collusion to act against violence only in as far as it is deemed extraordinary such as brutal rape or domestic violence resulting in death. Even in these cases, explanations for causality are often sought – “what did you do?”. Many forms of violence against women remain normalized and are an indicator of how violence is sanctioned as a tool for negotiation, for the exercise of leadership.

Understanding statistics that point to an increase in certain forms of violence such as domestic violence for instance must also be read as part of increasing trust in reporting systems at a country level that leads to greater presentation. In the absence of a comprehensive information management system that collates sex and gender disaggregated data, it becomes difficult to assess whether there is both an increase in reporting and incidences of violence. In addition, most VAW studies across Africa are limited in their scope, focusing predominantly on the main cities leaving out hard to reach places. Therefore, the connection between normalized violence and limited reporting, to poor infrastructure whether in terms of roads, hospitals, police stations and local courts is obvious. Consequently, confronting the preference for weak and often gender biased informal justice systems will remain difficult so long as states abdicate their responsibility to offer basic security and services to citizens. The legal and policy frameworks developed by various countries below therefore only represent the first step in dealing with this pervasive problem.
### Benin
Promulgated the 2011-26 Act of 9 January 2012 on the prevention and punishment of which addressed the definition of forms of violence identified in Benin, awareness measures for prevention and detection, the rights of women victims of violence, the institutional framework the fight against violence and the civil and criminal provisions. Since 2012, this law has been translated into national languages.

### Gambia
Sexual Offence Act and the Domestic Violence Act enacted by the government. Existing Constitution and laws have provisions addressing GBV. The Women’s act provides an innovative and comprehensive provision for the protection of women from violence. The government also adopted the National Plan of action on GBV.

### Lesotho
Enactment of the Sexual Offence Act (2003), which classifies marital rape as an offence
Establishment of Child and Gender protection unit with the Lesotho Mounted police Service. Availability of One Stop Centres, which serve as temporary safety shelter for victims

### Malawi
The Malawi Police Service operates a Victim Support Unit. Establishment of a network on GBV has improved coordination among NGOs in addition to progress in awareness, attitude and reporting of violence against women and GBV

### Cote d’Ivoire
Repeal of Section 38 of the Sexual offence Act, which served as a barrier to cases being reported. Developed Gender Based Violence recovery centres in the largest public hospitals. National Gender Based Violence Working Group established

### Egypt
Amended the Penal Code, which gives a more severe punishment to crimes of indecent assault affecting women and girls. Removed Article 291, which exempted rapists from punishment if he married the victim. Establishment of a parallel unit in the Ministry of Justice to combat violence against women, train and conduct seminars and workshops for workers in the field of violence against women
A majority of African states have ratified international conventions targeted at commitments to girl education. Kenya and Liberia are two countries that have separate policies targeting this area, which are Kenya’s gender policy in education and Liberia national policy on girls’ education. In Ethiopia, girls’ enrolment has increased from 30 percent to 75 percent. Policy actions in Burkina Faso through the promotion of girl friendly schools and scholarships targeted at girls have helped foster positive results. In Niger and Eritrea girls’ enrolment remains under 60 percent in primary school. In Ghana, female students cite harassment by male peers and teachers as a factor quality impeding education. Cultural norms still undermine the value of female education as well as the absence of infrastructure such as proper sanitation, adequate desks. For instance, as a result of the poor quality of education, 29 percent of girls in Kenya against 50 percent of the boys achieved the national average marks in national exams in 2012. Similarly, over 70 percent of girls in Mali, Togo and Guinea-Bissau have repeated class year due to exam failures. Extremist groups such as Boko Haram in Nigeria have also emerged as an obstacle to achieving female education as epitomized in the Chibok girls’ abduction.

Female genital mutilation (FGM) where it is practiced also has an impact on girls and women’s bodily autonomy. It is estimated that 98 percent of Somali women have been ‘victims’ of female genital mutilation. In Mali, the prevalence of FGM in women aged 15–49 years is 89% and higher in the regions of Sikasso (98%), Koulakoro (97%), Kayes (97%), Segou (94%), Bamako (94%) and Mopti (80%) than in Tombouctou (48%), Gao (4%) and Kidal (4%). The practice is undifferentiated by place of residence (89% in urban areas against 88% in rural areas). Burkina Faso is one many countries that has taken active steps towards eliminating this practice; ‘22 Alert Units’; which aim to inform the police of attempts to carry out FGM, have been set up in the community of Pabré.

The 2012 political crisis in Mali also led to the recruitment of children into different warring factions. There is very little documentation on the situation of children generally and girls specifically engaged in armed groups in Mali. Anecdotal evidence suggests that children were recruited to support the “Islamic police” perform daily activities and/or participate in the fighting. The girls may not have been militarily involved but they are used as domestic servants or sex slaves.

Child Early and Forced Child marriage also remains a problem for girls in terms of education and generally. Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest rate of early and forced marriage with Niger, Chad, Mali, Guinea, Central African Republic, Burkina Faso and South Sudan leading. Early and forced marriage in Niger, Chad and the Central African Republic exceeds 65 per cent with adolescent fertility and maternal mortality rates are also high. In Niger, The median age at first marriage varies from 15.5 years to 23.1 for girls and boys. Up to 37% of women (20–49 years) are married before 15 years and 78% before age 18 and early marriage is more common in rural areas. In Mali, the Marriage and Guardianship Code punishes forced marriage.

The causes of early and forced marriage are complex, interrelated and dependent on individual circumstances and context. But the practice is driven by these main factors: gender inequality, poverty, negative traditional or religious practices, failure to enforce laws, conflicts, disasters and emergencies.
BENIN
The convention on consent of marriage, the minimum age for marriage and registration of marriage. The code of persons and the family, which sets the legal age of marriage at 18

CHAD
The laws and regulations that protect women against certain violations of their rights (female genital mutilation, sexual harassment, rape, slavery, prostitution, early marriage, etc.) are old and under review (Penal Code and criminal proceedings).

DRC
Law No. 09 of 10 January 2009 on child protection in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Nothing specific is mentioned with regard to laws on early/forced marriage

GABON
Law No. 39/2010 of 25 November 2010 on the legal protection of minors. Nothing specific is mentioned with regard to laws on early/forced marriage

NIGER
Nothing specific is mentioned with regard to laws on early/forced marriage, but a lot on the norms and attitudes towards it e.g. most consider early marriage a means of ensuring the protection of the girl against sex outside of marriage and dishonor

MILESTONES

Côte d’Ivoire has ratified: The Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict in August 2011; the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution, and pornography of children in September 2011. It has signed a bilateral Agreement with Mali against child trafficking and an agreement on cooperation in the fight against the trafficking of children and women in West Africa

Egypt: Passed the Children’s Act (2008), which criminalized female genital mutilation

Mali: The introduction of the female circumcision module in basic education

69. It is important to note that this law still allows FGM under “certain circumstances”. It is therefore critical to read similar laws across other countries for these caveats that do not provide for full elimination
WOMEN IN POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

At least 60% of the state reports interpret women in power and decision-making predominantly as women in parliament with some extending their reporting to cover women broadly within the political sphere. There is therefore little tracking of women more broadly in the public and private sector such as women in the bureaucracy, foreign-service appointments, security sector positions, government parastatals, key private sector actors and sectors that have historically been dominated by men. Tracking of this nature would facilitate a subsidiary analysis about skills acquisition beyond the assertion about socio-cultural barriers. This notwithstanding, there is evidence that the greatest gains are in the parliamentary sphere where broad acceptance towards meeting quotas exists even though resisted. Difficulties that arise in the full implementation of the quotas occurs due to diverse cultural barriers: a political culture that is hostile to the participation of women) socio-political barriers in the contexts in which the rules of quotas are established and regulatory barriers rules and absence thereof to enforce compliance.

Given the focus on reporting on the national government, countries with devolved systems such as Uganda and Sierra Leone have made progress in women’s leadership in the local government70. In Sierra Leone the level rose from 10 percent in 2012 to 16.4 percent in 2013 while Liberia is said to have the highest representation of women in local government at 33 percent71. Eight countries including South Africa, Mozambique, Angola, Rwanda, Tanzania, Burundi, Seychelles and Uganda have reached the 30 percent women in the national parliament target72. Tanzania has made head way with 256 women versus 364 men in the national assembly73. On the other hand, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Cameroon, Egypt, Mali, Malawi and Congo the number of women in the national parliament dropped74. In ministerial positions countries such as Cape Verde, Benin and Nigeria have at least 40 percent women ministers with Uganda with 28 percent women ministers7576.

In Mali, the absence of a law to regulate the equal participation of women in the charter of Political Parties has been a hindrance. In the 2007 presidential elections, there was only one-woman candidate amongst 11 (or 9.09%). The parliamentary elections in 2009 registered 203 women out of 1312 (or 15.48%), while the municipal year noted 13537 (16%) of applications. The number of women represented in public office decreases as one moves from the national to the local in Mali. Only 15 women out of 147 national assembly members (10%), only 928 women out of 10,772 municipal councilors (8.66%) and only 8 municipalities are headed by women mayors. The 2013 legislative elections recorded a decline in women’s representation from 15.48% in 2007 to 13.73%. Benin has only recently introduced a draft bill in parliament on equal access for men and women in elected and administrative positions.

---

70. According to the 2013 Global Civil Society Monitoring Report.
72. ECA et al 2013
74. ECA et al 2013. Op Cit
75. Statistics of this nature must be read in context because 40% women in a cabinet of 20 people is 8.
76. Ibid
There are a number of prohibitive trends under this action point. The first concerns political party systems. Political parties are critical but often, ignored vehicles in decision making in politics sphere. While a number of African countries are beginning to put in place stronger regulations to guide the operation of political parties, there appears to be a challenge enforcing these rules particularly when it comes to the party list system. In addition, women still do not join and occupy political parties in significant numbers as part of the general political process beyond the need to vie for a political post, thus diminishing their ability to exert influence.

The second trend is the increasing decline in women’s representation or stagnation instead of a rise. Rwanda represents the exception in which women’s representation has risen and not stalled at the 50% AU provision. However, in most countries with enabling political participation frameworks, instead of witnessing an increase, the trend is towards the fulfillment of the bare minimum thus leading to a stagnation or reduction in numbers, Malawi, Kenya and Mali exemplify this. Finally, parliament remains the primary site in which accountability for women’s political participation has focused on leaving other bureaucratic structures male heavy or with women in deputizing roles.
MILESTONES

**Egypt:** Article 180 of the new Constitution allocates a quarter seats to women in the Local Council, which will lead to a rise in women’s representation.

**Ghana:**
There have been appointments of women into strategic decision making positions including Chief Justice, Deputy Chief of Staff, Office of the President and the Commandant, Ghana Police Command and staff College

**Gabon:**
Women head of the Ombudsman, the Constitutional Court since 2013, the head of the Gabonese Employers Confederation, composed of 300 companies who account for nearly 80% of the National GDP. As a reminder, we can mention that in the year 2009 and according to the constitutional provisions, the President of the Senate is the Upper House of Parliament headed by a woman handled the transition to the head of the country following to the power vacuum (death of the President of the Republic in office).

**Mali:**
In Mali, the draft law on charter of political parties was amended in the following areas: public funding that the state grants to political parties: “10% is intended to finance political parties in proportion to the number of elected women at 5% for members and 5% for local councilors.” This amendment is not only to ensure that available resources are used to improve equal representation but also to achieve equity between men and women in elected positions and human development. Similarly, the new draft electoral law, which has been adopted by the Government of Mali, provides that the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) should not be composed of more than 70% of any of the two sexes. This is a provision that will encourage the participation of women in the process in supervising elections in Mali. Under examination are quotas on political party lists, which would place a 30% quota for.

**Malawi:**
A number of women have been appointed into powerful decision making positions over the past years such as Chief Justice, Attorney General, Solicitor General, and Deputy Reserve Bank Governor. Quotas in public service appointments have been imposed by the Gender Equality Act, 2013

♀ INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISMS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

All reporting countries have established institutional gender mechanisms of one form or another. Such as the Ministry of National Solidarity, Family and Status of Women and the National Council for Family and Women (2007) in Algeria, the Ministry of Gender, Youth, Sports and Recreation in Lesotho, the National Gender forum in Liberia which acts as a policy advisory body in addition to a ministry. Burkina Faso, in 2009 developed a National Gender Policy. In Morocco, the National Initiative for Human Development has as part of its framework the mandate to develop and promote the status of women. Furthermore, The Moroccan Constitution calls for equal rights between men and women in all areas with the Secretary of State in Charge of Family, Solidarity and Social Action created in 1998 as the
national machinery. The Ministry for the Coordination of Women and Social Action is the national machinery for Mozambique whose role is to coordinate and execute policies towards women’s emancipation. In addition, the National Council for the Advancement of women was also established by the government, which consists of a mix of government and civil society representatives. The regional economic communities all have gender units that include ‘declarations and tools for gender audits and mainstreaming’. In 1996 the SADC established its Gender unit while a gender policy has been instituted by ECOWAS to guide its member states.

**MILESTONES**

**Cote d’Ivoire:** The creation of ministerial gender cells responsible for ensuring the inclusion of operational and strategic needs

**Egypt:** A feminist union has been established through assistance from UN women.

**Eritrea:** The Government of Eritrea has given the National Union of Eritrean Women (NUEW) the mandate to act as the women’s machinery in the country.

**Kenya:** The Kenyan Constitution indicates that no more than two-thirds of members of elective public bodies can be of the same gender

Institutional mechanisms in their diversity remain weak in influencing public policies and are often considered least powerful in the hierarchy of government ministries. Where they exist as directorates and not full ministries they are subject to whims of the parent ministry and its leadership. Without exception, their budgets remains small and human resources limited for them to be effective.

♀ **HUMAN RIGHTS OF WOMEN**

All national constitutions in the region contain clauses that establish equality among citizens in general and under the law. This provision notwithstanding, the pursuit of human rights for all remains subject to different forces. In Mali for example, a key barrier to the full enjoyment of human rights is the rise of fundamentalist political movements and the consistent battles waged against the advancement of women’s human rights. The review process of *Code de la Famille* in 2011 was taken hostage by Muslim religious authorities, despite all efforts by the Government and women’s civil society. WILDAF notes the debates around the *Code de la Famille*, highlighting the perpetual subordination of women.

The woman is and remains an eternal minor (must obedience and submission to her husband. Her consent is not taken into account for the marriage of her minor daughter leaving the doors open to early and forced marriage. The woman does not have to give her opinion on the guardianship of minor children; she is no longer responsible for managing her family when the husband dies because the family council takes that place at the death of the family head. Children are discriminated against simply because of their birth within the bonds of marriage or not.

Second, human rights defenders have come under increasing attack in many African countries. Post Morsi Egypt offers a good example of a crack down of women human rights defenders, with the 2014 incarceration of Yara Šallam and 22 others under the new protest

80. Mali State Report, 2014
law 107 of 2013 that bans street protests by applying jail time or heavy fines to the public demonstrations. Similarly in Libya, freedom of expression and assemblies are restricted under the law, media is controlled by the state and women’s organizations and NGOs are not independent. State inconsistency in their enforcement of international instruments on gender equality and social justice generally is continually threatened and eroded by renewed conversations about security, counter-terrorism and sovereignty and national legislation that run to counter to basic human rights principles.

**WOMEN AND ARMED CONFLICT**

Prioritising conflict in the BPfA, was influenced by a global environment in which violent conflict whether triggered by inequalities at home, proxy wars or global power positioning, was a pressing concern. It was therefore imperative to continue reflection on the differential impact of these conflicts on women, assess women’s diverse roles in these conflicts and insist on state accountability to all citizens during post-conflict reconstruction processes. Violent conflict was also a conversation about governance more broadly and the ways in which the state validated its social contract with its citizens.

In the last five years, the world has been characterized by an increase in civil wars and asymmetrical warfare waged between insurgent groups and the state. Africa has witnessed renewed conflicts, some brought about by the artificial borders created during the colonial era and others by post-independence governance deficits. These conflicts range from those that have led to new states such as South Sudan to low to medium level conflicts witnessed in Kenya, Zimbabwe. Burkina Faso, Egypt, Algeria, Chad, Cote d’Ivoire, Lesotho and intense conflicts in Libya, Mali, Northern Nigeria, Somalia, DRC, Central Africa Republic to name a few. The impact of these conflicts has been both internal to the nations in terms of stalling development and democratisation processes but also external in terms of the spill over of both the conflict and populations into neighbouring countries.

The Beijing Platform placed emphasis on conflict prevention and demilitarization, in effect recognising the connection between gender norms and militarisation as well as including a call for reductions in military expenditure and the trade in arms. The Maputo Protocol and UN resolutions 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960 and 2122 have been useful to enriching public debates and policy discourse on women, peace and conflict towards those that recognize agency and vulnerability, leadership and participation. In the last twenty years, there has been significant knowledge generation: documentation and research generated data on the impact of conflict on women and women’s role in conflict and peace building, which have been useful to advocacy. It is significant that 14 out of 54 countries, have developed national action plans and that not all these countries have a similar histories of armed conflict. For instance Liberia, Rwanda and Sierra Leone do not fall into the same category as Kenya, that also has a national action plan. However, the fact that all countries are working towards national action plans is an indication of the recognition that dealing with triggers of conflicts is a necessary early warning mechanism.

At an African Union level, there has been increased effort to ensure women’s participation in peace processes during situations of armed conflict. The creation of the open session on peace and security, appointment of a special envoy on women, peace and security and increased efforts to have more women in peacekeeping missions are critical steps that have been taken at a regional level. The table below shows the average percentage of women deployed on peacekeeping missions within the Southern African region per troop contributing country for the period January 2010 to December 2010.
TABLE 6: WOMEN DEPLOYED IN PEACEKEEPING MISSIONS (PERCENT) SOUTHERN AFRICA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>% of women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cheryl Hendricks, 2011

While the table above offers us some indication of women's deployment in peacekeeping processes, data of this nature is not regularly collated by civil society organizations neither does it give us a full picture of their roles in these missions. In addition, pursuing gender equality goals in formal track-one diplomacy processes remains difficult because considerations are often driven by who the best allies are and not by equality goals. Women where they are included are not there as women representatives but as useful interlocutors for the parties in conflict. Therefore peace, political processes and women's engagement remain intertwined. The space for greater women's participation lies in track two diplomacy and mediation efforts, both options require that non-state actors are influential and can respond effectively and immediately to the issues that have generated the conflict. At a national level, the following gaps remain:

- Increased sexual and other forms of violence during armed conflict and situations of general insecurity demands a response to the continuum of violence that finds further justification during situations of violent conflict.
- Accountability for sexual crimes committed by the general public and by security forces, peacekeeping and humanitarian personnel.
- Effective security sector reform that moves beyond inclusion and recruitment towards broader democratization of these institutions.
- Effective response to contemporary strategies in asymmetrical warfare by extremist groups that result in abductions and multiple layers of abuse of young girls and women.
- Challenging gender norms, which cause and perpetuate conflict, militarism; violence against women and women's exclusion.
- The nature of conflict and debates about conflict generally have advanced since the Beijing conference with human security as a framework becoming much more central to defining and understanding conflict. It is therefore critical that states, which do not consider themselves in armed conflict or post conflict environments, adopt a human security lens to examining different form of low to medium intensity conflicts that are prevalent in their countries.

♀ WOMEN AND ENVIRONMENT

80% of the state reports offer lean accountability on women and the environment with most focusing on existing United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) commitments and government efforts to respond to these. Countries that offer a more robust account of environmental issues and the need for green economies do so because of environmental factors on their part such as countries in the Sahel. For Sahelian countries, accounting for environmental factors is a generic analysis of challenges that affect...
the community as a whole and not necessarily a gender analysis of the factors that might affect sections of the population more than others.

Trends that remain unaccounted for under this critical area of action include the marginalization of agriculture in favour of large-scale mining, which impacts rural women’s livelihoods and food security. Second, the fact that large-scale land deals made between governments affect communal land rights on which most rural women depend on in the absence of singular titles. Third, there are several studies in mining countries see for instance Niger and the impact of Uranium mining, that show how communities’ drinking water supplies and long term exposure to Uranium causes health effects. Many governments today Niger, Burkina Faso, Guinea are becoming Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (EITI) compliant however, questions remain around the re-direction of mining royalties to local communities and government’s pre-emptive action against the environmental impact of natural resource extraction. In the Niger Delta in Nigeria, oil exploration and exploitation has led to three major consequences: the impact of the seismic survey, gas flaring and oil spills. “Gas had been flared for 24 hours a day for 40 years in close proximity to human habitation in nineteen oil locations in a 404 square mile area with population density of 1250 per square mile.” The institutional and regulatory environment in most of Africa is characterized by the absence of a gender analysis. There are also comparatively fewer women’s rights organizations working around environmental protection.

### MILESTONES

**Burundi**
- The government has carried out an extensive national reforestation programme on 5,400 ha, which started in 2010 and is run by the municipalities. Women’s associations constitute more than 50 per cent of the targets in this programme.

**Cape Verde**
- Women’s Parliamentary Network for Environment advocating for the role of women in management of protected areas
- Establishment of a Reform Commission for the water sector with an integration of a gender perspective

**Ethiopia:**
- Ratification of the Kyoto Protocol

**Liberia:**
- Development of Gender and Climate Change Strategy to ensure gender issues are captured in climate change alleviation

### WOMEN AND MEDIA

Media in general plays an important function of collecting, managing and distributing information about society. The power to manage which information is distributed plays a big role in changing or sustaining societal perceptions. Media houses are first and foremost businesses, with very few media houses guided by ethical practices that put structural transformation ahead of capital. Consequently, the fact that media houses are driven by capital on the one hand, and conservative yet influential social groups on the other hand, requires that changes in these areas focus not only on representation but also on the ethics that guide news making. In the same way that African countries impose a percentage of local
content on local televisions, there is need for a clear policy on gender messaging in print and electronic media. In Tanzania, the Media Council of Tanzania (MCT) has included a Gender Code of Ethics.

The emergence of new media – social media has brought out unique challenges and opportunities, it places news making and distribution in the hands of citizens and remains largely unregulated and therefore indicative of the pulse of a nation at any point in time. Feminist perspectives on cyberspace can be classified into two streams: the victimization perspective, which rejects cyber-space as an arena in which women are still under the subordination of male sexuality. Technology is viewed as another patriarchal tool used to dominate and control women, most prominently through reproductive technologies and then followed by media technologies that invariably represented women in sexually offensive ways87. The second stream is the liberation model, which sees it as a space where women as being become powerful and creative agents and producers in their own right.88

There are basic ways in which gender is accounted for in state reports under media and this is largely by comparing men and women’s use of, access to and competencies. Yet, ICTs generally is characterised by its double-edged nature, on the one hand it offers space for education or expression while simultaneously bearing the potential for violence and addiction particularly for youth. WomensNet points to the ways in which the anonymity of the web, and its ability to shrink distances, also means that perpetrators use it to harass, stalk and find victims. Technology heightens the problem of privacy89. It is arguable that ICT’s despite the risks they portend have also resulted in innovative technologies to deal with questions of violence across distances. The Take Back The Tech campaign exemplifies this, through the development of an interactive map based on Ushahidi7 that allows Internet users to share their stories, local news and personal experiences of gender-based violence using technology90. ICTs generally and mobile technology in particular has been instrumental to bridging the rural urban divide and the absence of the state in the provision of services as shown below.

Nonetheless, the representation questions remain. According to a2011 International Women’s Media Foundation (IWMF) study on the status of women in the news media, women occupy only 27 percent of top management jobs versus men who hold 73 percent.92 Women are still the minority in ownership and leadership in the media. The Glass Ceiling in Southern Africa Media study established that women constitute only 41 percent of media workers with less than a quarter found in senior manager positions93. On the Board of Directors womenmake

---

**MOBILE TELEPHONY INNOVATIONS**91

**Changamka Health** piloted **M-Kadiya Maternity**, which is a convenient, secure and easy way to save money for maternity expenses using your mobile phone.

**Pivot East** has built a service to help poultry farmers keep track of their brood with text-message alerts.

**M-Farm** is a service that gives farmers access to market prices for the cost of a text message and allows them to group together to buy and sell products.

**iCow** is an application that allows farmers to register each animal with the service, which then sends SMS reminders to the farmer about milking schedules, immunisation dates and tips about nutrition and breeding or information about local vets or artificial insemination providers.

---


89. The Take Back the Tech (TBTT) campaign launched by WomensNet therefore aims to “empower users to use new information technologies for ending violence against women through mapping the intersection between gender-based violence and technology”. See womensnet.org

90. Ibid
93. See http://changamka.co.ke/m-kadi-maternity; icow.co.ke; mfarm.co.ke
up just 22 percent and only 21 percent in top management posts. Women are also in low proportion when it comes to reporters especially in print media. Fewer companies have adopted policies on paternity leave (37%), returning women to the same jobs after maternity leave (24%) or providing child-care assistance (19%). The table below illustrates the trends.

TABLE 7: MEDIA OCCUPATION BY GENDER IN 15\textsuperscript{th} SUB SAHARAN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Level</th>
<th>Men %</th>
<th>Women %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Governance</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top level management</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior management</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>53.7,\textsuperscript{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior level professional</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior level professional</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production and design</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Professional</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales, finance and administration</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IWMF, 2011

The question of equitable access to the Internet specifically and technological innovations generally remains a problem throughout Africa except in countries such as Rwanda where there are government led efforts to ensure distribution across the country. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, telecommunication infrastructure is non-existent. For most countries, the high costs and accessibility beyond the main cities makes capitalizing on ICT difficult. Finally, the lack of gender responsive regulatory frameworks are key factor limiting progress in terms of media communication and consumption patterns, in Malawi, the absence of an overall gender policy for the Media Council and Malawi Communication Regulatory Authority affects data collection and monitoring of the media gender response.

95. IWMF, 2011. Op Cit, Pg 80
97. IWMF, 2011. Op Cit, Pg 78
ECONOMY

1. Increase investment in agriculture at national level to 10 percent of gross domestic product (GDP), in line with the AU commitment in the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP), with a focus on enhancing the capacity and skills of women small holder farmers and developing knowledge systems oriented to more productive technologies.
2. Institute open governance measures to ensure transparency on bi-lateral and multi-lateral agreements on large-scale land deals and between governments and private sector that adversely affect communal land rights that most rural women depend on;
3. Adopt measures that lead to food sovereignty by: supporting farming methods; protection of indigenous seed and knowledge technologies; establishment of local seed banks and ensuring access to natural resources by women farmers, fishers and pastoralists.
4. Enact and revise existing laws that accord women full and equal rights to land, property, technology and other productive resources.
5. Review existing trade agreements so as to remove restrictions that hinder transfer, development and maintenance of technology, to enable Africa and women in particular to add more value to commodities through processing and industry, and to increase women’s income in the value chain.
6. Develop laws and policies that enhance women’s corporate leadership,

AGRICULTURE

1. Design and implement macroeconomic policies that ensure equitable growth, fair distribution of opportunities and decent employment for women; tax systems that enhance women’s productivity, access to basic services and commodities, and income distribution.
2. Recognize the contribution of unpaid care work in the economy, which falls disproportionately on women as compared to men, and invest in infrastructure and time saving technologies to reduce and redistribute its burden on women.
3. Allocate resources for the design, collection and analysis of gender disaggregated data to monitor progress in the socio-economic development of women and girls.
4. Enact and revise existing laws that accord women full and equal rights to land, property, technology and other productive resources.
5. Review existing trade agreements so as to remove restrictions that hinder transfer, development and maintenance of technology, to enable Africa and women in particular to add more value to commodities through processing and industry, and to increase women’s income in the value chain.
6. Develop laws and policies that enhance women’s corporate leadership,

EDUCATION

1. Consolidate gains made in gender parity at primary school level by providing incentives such as accessible and free secondary education, subsidised higher and vocational education; to promote the retention and transition of girls.
2. Provide bursaries and other incentives to enhance girls’ participation in science, technology and mathematics.
3. End impunity for perpetrators of sexual harassment and abuse of girls in school.
4. Promote girls’ access to information and education through e-learning and health products especially through mobile telephony.

ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

1. Establish environmentally friendly policies and programs for climate change mitigation and adaptation and ensure women’s participation in decision-making as well as their access to resources, services and knowledge, to enhance their adaptive capacities to combat the impact of climate change.
2. Develop comprehensive gender sensitive policies that address the environmental impact of large scale mining on communities.
3. Invest in and promote the development of alternative safe and clean energies (hydro and solar) in order to eliminate reliance on non-sustainable energy sources (kerosene and firewood) that pose high risks to people, in particular women in the home, and in the environment.

WOMEN’S HEALTH

1. Commit to the achievement of the right of citizens to the highest attainable standard of health, in particular the sexual and reproductive health and rights of women and girls.
2. Strengthen integrated and comprehensive health services and infrastructure by ensuring services are available, accessible, affordable, acceptable and of quality and upgrade the quality of training for health workers at all levels.
3. Improve retention of health workers through competitive remuneration to enable delivery of quality care and treatment for women and girls’ in all lifecycles. This includes aspects of mental health, maternal health, and reproductive cancers.

INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISMS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

- A multi-sectoral approach is critical, to ensure that each organ and department of government implements and is accountable for the women’s rights that fall within its mandate, under coordination by the gender machineries.
### SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE RIGHTS

1. Guarantee sexual and reproductive health and rights for all women including young women, adolescents, women with disability, women living with HIV and other marginalized groups, by ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health services, information and comprehensive sexuality education.

2. Repeal laws that criminalize the transmission of HIV, particularly those that single out women and other marginalized groups living with HIV, and put an end to coercive HIV testing of women, forced sterilization and abortion for women living with HIV.

3. Remove restrictive abortion laws that have led to the deaths of over 600,000 African women and girls from unsafe abortion over the last 20 years.

4. Address factors and practices that contribute to the high maternal mortality and morbidity rates in Africa such as child early and forced marriage, female genital mutilation, unmet need for comprehensive family planning; unsafe abortion and violence against women and girls.

### MEDIA AND INFORMATION COMMUNICATION AND TECHNOLOGY

1. Ensure persistent and concerted engagement of media owners to change their perception of how women’s issues are covered.

2. Encourage media outreach to communities to engage everybody, particularly women and marginalized communities, in current and topical issues.

3. Create policies and enabling environment that prevent the use of social media and other forms of media as instruments of violence against women and girls.

### HUMAN RIGHTS

1. Accelerate measures to tackle discrimination and inequalities based on gender, age, class, race, ethnicity, and place of origin, cultural or religious background, sexual orientation, gender identity, marital status, health status, and ability, which disproportionately affect women.

2. In collaboration with women and girls with disabilities; develop policies and structures that promote their protection and rights and improve their social and economic conditions.

3. Act in a comprehensive and holistic manner to recognize the linkages between development, violence against women and girls; education, health, HIV and AIDS, poverty eradication, food security, peace and security, humanitarian assistance, crime prevention, and ensure access to justice for all women and girls and marginalized groups.

4. Protect all women human rights defenders and guarantee their safety and non-persecution in line with international human rights principles and norms.

5. Adopt and implement laws and programmes at national level to combat trafficking in women and girls, based on accurate data, in line with the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons and the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (Palermo Protocol).

### WOMEN IN ARMED CONFLICT:

1. Ensure the inclusion of women’s leadership and participation at all levels of decision-making in peace, reconciliation and reconstruction processes and mechanisms, in efforts to combat, reduce, and prevent armed conflict, violence and extremism.

2. End impunity for sexual and gender-based violence through the investigation, prosecution and punishment of perpetrators.

3. Improve women’s livelihoods through promoting access to justice and psychosocial services, and establishing reporting mechanisms in conflict and post-conflict situations.

4. Strengthen the protection and agency of women by reducing arms proliferation and military spending and through increased investment in women's participation in building peace and security.

5. Include refugee women and girls in the design, delivery and evaluation of humanitarian programmes, and strengthen their resilience by providing them with access to education, health and economic opportunities.

6. Expand the definition of conflict to include internal disturbances, protracted and low intensity civil strife, political strife, ethnic and communal violence, state of emergency and suppression of mass uprisings, and their impact on women’s security.

### GIRL CHILD AND YOUNG WOMEN

1. Create or support existing safe spaces for young women and adolescent girls, such as community based networks and groups, and create access to information and comprehensive services such as sexual and reproductive health services.

2. Develop and implement comprehensive national legal frameworks on child early and forced marriage including a legal minimum age of marriage of 18 years, disallow judicial consent to marriage in sexual violence cases, and criminalize all forms of Female Genital Mutilation (FGM).

3. Adopt and enforce International Labor Organisation (ILO) Convention to protect girls against child labour.
REFERENCES


Caritas Internationalis. N.d. The Female Face of Migration


GRAIN, 2012. Land Grabs Datasheet that show United Arab Emirates, India, China, Portugal, Italy as some of the key countries “leasing” land in Africa as well as in Latin America, Asia and Eastern Europe


Websites
http://changamka.co.ke/m-kadi-maternity;
www.icow.co.ke
www.mfarm.co.ke
https://www.takebackthetech.net/