

Annex A

BACKGROUND NOTE ON GENDER AND RELATED INDICATORS

This background note provides information on the various existing indicators considered in developing the **SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI)** that is introduced for the first time in this Barometer.

The **Human Development Index (HDI)** - which is **not** a gender indicator - has four components which are meant to reflect Amartya Sen's "capability" approach to poverty rather than a simple income/expenditure monetary measure of poverty. The HDI components are (a) life expectancy at birth for health, (b) adult (15+ years) literacy rate and (c) combined gross enrolment rate for primary, secondary and tertiary education for education, and (d) gross domestic product (GDP) per capita for income. The four component scores are averaged to get the HDI number. The HDI thus gives a single simple (some would say simplistic) measure of the average achievement of the country in terms of human development. A league table was published in the annual Human Development Reports of the UNDP until 2009, and is widely quoted.

The HDI - like all measures - can be criticised on many grounds. Some of the criticisms are relevant from a gender perspective.

Firstly, composite indices are appealing because there is only one number. But having a single number is not useful for policy-making purposes unless one knows WHY the single number is lower than one wants it to be. For example, South Africa's HDI has fallen in recent years. The main reason for this is a significant drop in life expectancy, which is one of the four components. The HDI indicator cannot tell you this. It is only by looking into the components that you can see it.

Secondly, there are data problems. UNDP uses international data-sets in the interests of having a uniform approach. This is probably the only feasible approach for an index covering so many countries and compiled from a single office. However it results in the use of data that are relatively old, and thus indicators that are out-of-date. It also results in individual countries contesting the indicators. The need to have indicators for as many countries as possible can also lead to the use of lowest-common-denominator variables, rather than the variables that would best reflect what the indices aim to measure. Where data are not available, sometimes heroic assumptions have to be made. In the case of the **Gender-related Development Index (GDI)** (see below), this is especially the case in relation to sex-disaggregation of GDP.

Thirdly, the indicators are all based on averages, and thus do not capture inequalities within a single indicator.

In 1995, at the time of the Beijing Conference, UNDP developed two gender-related indices - the Gender-related Development Index and the **Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)** - to complement the HDI.

The GDI uses the same variables as the HDI, but each of the components is adjusted for unequal achievement between women and men. The GDI thus shares all the problems that the HDI has, but also has some further problems.

One problem with the GDI is that it assumes that equality on longevity would mean equal life expectancies for men and women. However, biologically women can expect to live longer than men. So when life expectancies are equal this suggests that women are disadvantaged in some way. This is not reflected in the GDI.

A confusing feature of the GDI is that the method uses only the male-female gap, without considering whether it is males or females who are "doing better". So a country where women outperform men in education will have the same penalty as a country where men outperform women by the same amount. We might think this is not a problem (in that men and boys should not be disadvantaged), but it does complicate how we interpret the GDI if the index combines some components where males are advantaged and others where females are advantaged.

Probably the biggest problem with the GDI is that it is heavily influenced by the income variable, so that wealthier countries will - all other things being equal - be reflected as having less inequality than poorer countries. Analysis has shown that for most countries the earned-income gap is responsible for more than 90% of the gender penalty. Exacerbating this problem is the fact that the income estimates are based on "imputed" rather than real data. Thus for many developing countries the earned income gap is assumed to be 75% because reliable data are not available. The 75% was chosen on the basis of 55 countries (including both developed and developing) for which data are available. Yet another exacerbating feature is that the data for the 55 countries relate only to formal non-agricultural wages. Yet in many African countries only a small proportion of the workforce - and an even smaller proportion of employed women - is employed in the formal non-agricultural sector.

The final problem to be raised here is lack of sex-disaggregated data in some cases. As a result, each year there are fewer countries that have GDI scores than have HDI scores. This means that a higher place in the inter-country ranking for the GDI than the HDI does not necessarily mean that the country is doing relatively well on gender.

The GEM focuses on political, economic and social participation rather than Sen's capabilities. The components are women's representation in parliament, women's share of positions classified as managerial and professional, women's participation in the labour force and their share of national income. Fewer countries have data on all of these elements than on the GDI elements and each year there are therefore fewer countries in the GEM index than in the GDI index.

The GEM measures income in more or less the same way as the GDI, so this component has the problems described above. The influence of the absolute level of income - and thus the bias favouring wealthier countries - is, in fact, stronger for the GEM than the GDI. The political component is problematic in that a parliamentary quota for women will automatically increase the GEM score, but will not necessarily mean that women exercise greater political power in the country.

The **Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)** are eight goals that 192 United Nations member states and at least 23 international organisations committed themselves to achieving by 2015. One or more targets have been agreed in respect of each goal, with one or more indicators for each of the targets.

Goal 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women. Target 4 is assigned as the measure of achievement in respect of Goal 3. Target 4 is expressed as eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015. There are four indicators, the first of which has three elements.

The third and fourth indicators relate to employment and decision-making respectively. These additional indicators were included by the team which proposed the standard indicators to emphasise that education is not only an end in itself, but also a means to other ends. The third and fourth targets thus reflect back on the goal, which is about "empowerment" as well as equality. The targets attempt to measure the economic and political aspects of empowerment. The four indicators are: (a) ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education; (b) ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 year olds; (c) share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector;

and (d) proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.

These indicators are very similar to those used in the other well-known international indices. The second education indicator differs from most other indices by focusing on 15-24 year olds. This focus captures changes in education levels better than a measure that covers all adults, as the all-adult measure will be biased downwards by past discrimination against women rather than reflecting what is happening now within education.

The MDG Gender Task Force proposed that further indicators be added to the standard set to measure (a) gender gaps in earnings in wage and self-employment; (b) the hours per day or year that women and men spend fetching water and collecting fuel; (c) the percentage of seats held by women in local government bodies; and (d) the prevalence of domestic violence. These additional indicators were not added to the standard set.

Development of the **Gender Equality Index (GEI)** was motivated, at least in part, by the standard measures' lack of attention to issues related to the body and sexuality, religious, cultural and legal issues, ethics, women's rights and care.

The index was called the GEI, rather than the **Gender Inequality Index (GII)**, so as not to focus only on gender imbalances. Instead, the index would measure the extent to which gender equality was achieved in any country.

It was recognised that as a global, comparative measure, the GEI would lose cultural and national specificity and would not capture gender equality in all its dimensions. It was thus proposed that each country also describe the historical and cultural context, and develop country-specific "satellite" indicators to complement the GEI.

The GEI covers eight dimensions, each of which has a number of indicators. The dimensions are:

- Gender identity;
- Autonomy of the body;
- Autonomy within the household;
- Political power;
- Social resources;
- Material resources;
- Employment and income;
- Time use.

The availability and adequacy of the GEI indicators have been tested only in Japan and Indonesia. These tests revealed the especial difficulty of measuring the first two dimensions quantitatively.

In the early 2000s, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) developed the African **Gender Status Index (GSI)** and the **African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS)**. The AWPS is based on more qualitative judgments, although these are given numeric scores. The existence of the AWPS alongside the GSI is noteworthy, as it highlights the realisation that some aspects of gender equality cannot be adequately captured by quantitative indicators. The GSI is similar to the GDI and GEM in being computed from quantitative data. A major difference is that there are far more indicators - 43 in all!

The use of 43 indicators has two major drawbacks. Firstly, it means that most countries are likely to lack data on at least one indicator, or be forced to use unreliable data from small samples. Secondly, it means that the meaning of the index - and its direct usefulness for policy-making purposes - is even more obscure than for the HDI, GDI or GEM as one has to examine all the elements in detail to work out why a country is scoring higher or lower. The developers of the GSI acknowledge that there may be too many indicators.

UNECA tested the index in twelve countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda). The process took substantially longer than predicted. The delays in part reflected the challenges involved in collecting and checking so many indicators. Even with these delays and despite specifying five-year periods for each indicator, it was not possible to find all the indicators for each country.

The indicators are divided into three blocks, namely social power, economic power, and political power. The indicators all deal with gender issues, understood as the relations between women and men, and thus as needing to compare indicators for men and women. This means that maternal mortality and violence against women are not covered because they only concern women.

Each indicator represents a simple arithmetic comparison of the number of women to the number of men, thus reflecting the gender "gap". (A few of the indicators need a bit of manipulation to be able to get a gap.) Unlike the HDI and GDI, the GSI does not take the overall level of achievement into account. As a result, a good score on the GSI could reflect a high level of equality, but at a level of achievement that is poor for both women and men (girls and boys).

For weighting purposes, each of the three blocks - social, political and economic - has equal weight. Further, within each component of each block, each of the indicators has equal weight. In effect, this means that indicators that are in a component with relatively

few indicators "count" more than those in a component with a greater number of indicators. The developers of the GSI suggest that other weighting approaches could be considered, such as:

- Weighting more heavily the components or blocks where there are the biggest gaps.
- Weighting more heavily those that can be changed more easily in the short term so that one can more easily "see" the impact of advocacy and policy changes.
- Giving less weight to the "political power" block because it deals with a small population than the other two blocks.

The table shows all the GSI indicators, and the component and sub-component into which they fit.

In the 2010 Human Development Report the GII replaced the GDI. This measure, unlike the GDI, is not influenced by the absolute level of achievement or development. Instead, like the GSI, several of the components focus on the degree of inequality in achievement between males and females on different measures while others focus on levels of women's achievement. The consequence is that a country can score well on this measure even if absolute levels of achievement are low as long as the measures for females and males are equally low.

The three equally weighted dimensions covered by the GII are reproductive health (maternal mortality ratio, adolescent fertility rate), empowerment (share of parliamentary seats held by women and men, attainment at secondary and higher education levels) and labour market participation (labour market participation rate). The rating works in the opposite direction to that of the GDI i.e. a level of 0 indicates no inequality while 1 indicates extreme inequality.

The SGDI on the status of women in SADC countries is based on 23 indicators. The indicators are grouped under six categories, namely Governance (3 indicators), Education (3), Economy (5), Sexual and Reproductive Health (3), HIV and AIDS (3), and Media (6). There are, unfortunately, no indicators for the Protocol articles on Constitutional and legal rights, gender-based violence and peace building and conflict resolution. The fact that there are no indicators for some topics reflects the difficulty in finding appropriate indicators with reliable data for these. These are areas that the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance hopes to address these gaps in future years.

Within some of the categories there are disappointing gaps. Ideally, the SGDI would have included an indicator measuring the disparity in pay between women and men doing paid work. Unfortunately, as discussed in the section on other indicator measures such as the GDI, the

available datasets of disaggregated earned income are heavily based on assumptions rather than on empirical data. In respect of the maternity leave indicator, the time given to a woman worker does not necessarily mean that she will receive pay while on leave. In some cases, no pay is guaranteed, in other cases only a proportion of the pay is guaranteed, and in some cases paid leave is only available to certain categories of employees, such as those employed by government. For next year's index, more detailed information on maternity leave as well as paternity leave will be included.

To create the composite index, two challenges needed to be addressed. The first was the differing number of indicators in the various categories and how this should be dealt with in weighting. This was necessary so that, for example, media was not given twice the importance ("weight") of governance or education because it had six indicators while governance and education each had three indicators. The second challenge was the difference in the range of "raw scores" that were possible for each indicator and how these could be standardised so that averages were not comparing apples and giraffes. If this standardisation were not done, an indicator for which the score could range from 0 to 50 would have only half the weight of another indicator for which the score could range from 0 to 100.

Weighting

Each category was given equal weight by calculating the average score across the indicators in that category. So, for example, for categories with three indicators, the score for that category was the average across the three. This approach also solved the problem of how to deal with countries for which some indicators were missing, as the average was calculated on the available indicators for each country. Nevertheless, while this generated a score for all categories across all countries except for media in Angola, the averages for countries with missing indicators should be treated with caution as they are not exactly comparable with those of countries for which all indicators were available. The number of missing indicators ranged from zero for Madagascar, Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia, to nine for Angola.

Standardisation

Standardisation aimed to convert all "raw scores" into values that range from 0 (for the worst possible performance) to 100 (for the best possible performance). The indicators consist of several types in terms of what they are measuring:

- Many of the indicators measure the female percentage of people with given characteristics. All the

governance, education and media indicators have this form. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100. However, if our aim is to ensure that women do not face discrimination, then a raw score of 50 is the target. In standardisation, all scores of more than 50 - of which several were found, for example, for tertiary education - were therefore changed to 50.

- Several of the indicators measure the percentage of women and girls with a given characteristic. Two examples of such indicators are the percentage of women using contraception and the percentage of women aged 15-24 with comprehensive knowledge on HIV and AIDS. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100 and the score therefore did not need further standardisation.
- Several of the indicators measure the female rate for a given characteristic as a percentage of the male rate. Examples here are female labour force participation as a percentage of male labour force participation, and the female unemployment rate as a percentage of the male unemployment rate. In these cases possible scores could range from 0 to more than 100 where the female rate is more than the male rate. In the one case where the score was more than 100 (unemployment rate in Zambia), the score was changed to 100.
- Finally, two of the indicators that relate specifically to gender or women's issues have scores that fall outside the above categories. The first is the number of weeks of maternity leave to which employees are entitled. The second is the maternal mortality rate, which is expressed as the number of deaths for every 100,000 live births. For the first of these indicators, we assumed that the possible range was from 0 to 16 weeks, and calculated the actual number of weeks as a percentage of 16. For the second of these indicators, we set the possible range between 0 and 2000 out of 100,000 (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maternal_death), and calculate a score out of 100 by dividing the raw score by 20.

A further challenge in the standardisation process was that while the majority of indicators measure a desirable characteristic, for which a high score indicates good performance, there are a few indicators that measure undesirable characteristic for which higher scores reflected poorer performance. The negative indicators are the ones relating to unemployment rate, female share of people living with HIV, and maternal mortality rate. For these indicators the rate was inverted by subtracting the standardised rate from 100.

Components of the Gender Status Index

Block	Component	Sub-component	Indicator	
Social power 'Capabilities'	Education	Enrolment	Primary enrolment rate	
			Secondary enrolment rate	
			Tertiary enrolment rate	
		Dropout	Primary dropout ratio	
			Secondary dropout ratio	
			Ability to read and write	
	Health	Literacy	Primary school completed	
			Child health	Stunting under 3
				Underweight under 3
		Mortality under 5		
		Life expectancy at birth		
		New HIV infection		
Time spent out of work				
Economic power 'Opportunities'	Income	Wages	Wages in agriculture	
			Wages in civil service	
			Wages in formal sector (public and/or private)	
			Wages in informal sector	
		Income	Income from informal enterprise	
			Income from small agricultural household enterprise	
	Income from remittances and inter-household transfers			
	Time-use or employment	Time-use	Time spent in market economic activities (as paid employee, own-account or employer)	
			Time spent in non-market economic activities or as unpaid family worker in market economic activities	
			Time spent in domestic, care and volunteer non economic activities	
		Employment	Or: Share of paid employment, own-account and employer in total employment	
	Access to resources	Means of production	Ownership of urban plots/houses or land	
			Access to family labour	
			Access to credit	
			Freedom to dispose of own income	
		Management	Employers	
			High civil servants (class A)	
			Members of professional syndicates	
Administrative, scientific and technical				
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector	Members of parliament		
		Cabinet ministers		
		Higher courts judges		
		Members of local councils		
	Civil society			

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The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development



Encompasses

commitments made in all regional, global and continental instruments for achieving gender equality.

Enhances

these instruments by addressing gaps and setting specific, measurable targets where these do not exist.

Advances

gender equality by ensuring accountability by all SADC Member States, as well as providing a form for the sharing of best practices, peer support and review.



2015 is here!

In August 2008, Heads of State of the Southern African Development Community adopted the ground-breaking SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. This followed a concerted campaign by NGOs under the umbrella of the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance.

By the 2013 Heads of State summit, 13 countries had signed and 12 countries had ratified the SADC Gender Protocol. The Protocol is now in force and governments need to have achieved 28 targets for the attainment of gender equality.

In keeping with the Alliance slogan: *Yes we must!* this 2015 Barometer provides a wealth of updated data against which progress will be measured by all those who cherish democracy in the region. The world, and SADC, is also looking to the future with the post 2015 agenda. Now is the time to strengthen resolve, reconsider, reposition, and re-strategise for 2030.

