

Annex 1

SADC GENDER PROTOCOL 2011	
MAIN PROVISIONS	SPECIFIC TARGETS TO BE ACHIEVED BY 2015
ARTICLES 4 - 11: CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL RIGHTS	
Provides for all Constitutions in the region to enshrine gender equality and to give such provisions primacy over customary law. All laws that are discriminatory to women are to be repealed. It also provides for equality in accessing justice, marriage and family rights and the rights of widows, elderly women, the girl child, women with disabilities and other socially excluded groups.	1. Endeavour to enshrine gender equality and equity in their Constitutions and ensure that these are not compromised by any provisions, laws or practices.
	2. Review, amend and or repeal all discriminatory laws.
	3. Abolish the minority status of women.
ARTICLES 12-13: GOVERNANCE (REPRESENTATION AND PARTICIPATION)	
Provides for the equal representation of women in all areas of decision-making, both public and private and suggests that this target be achieved through Constitutional and other legislative provisions, including affirmative action. It further stipulates that Member States should adopt specific legislative measures and other strategies, policies and programmes to ensure that women participate effectively in electoral processes and decision-making by, amongst others, building capacity, providing support and establishing and strengthening structures to enhance gender mainstreaming.	4. Endeavour to ensure that 50% of decision-making positions in all public and private sectors are held by women including through the use of affirmative action measures.
ARTICLE 14: EDUCATION AND TRAINING	
This article provides for equal access to quality education and training for women and men, as well as their retention at all levels of education. It further provides for challenging stereotypes in education and eradicating gender based violence in educational institutions.	5. Enact laws that promote equal access to and retention in primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the Millennium Development Goals.
	6. Adopt and implement gender sensitive educational policies and programmes addressing gender stereotypes in education and gender based violence.
ARTICLES 15-19: PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES AND EMPLOYMENT, ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT	
This Article provides for the equal participation of women in economic policy formulation and implementation. The article has provisions and targets on entrepreneurship, access to credit and public procurement contracts, as well as stipulations on trade policies, equal access to property, resources and employment.	7. Ensure equal participation by women and men in policy formulation and implementation of economic policies.
	8. Conduct time use studies and adopt policy measures to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women.
	9. Adopt policies and enact laws which ensure equal access, benefits and opportunities for women and men in trade and entrepreneurship, taking into account the contribution of women in the formal and informal sectors.
	10. Review national trade and entrepreneurship policies, to make them gender responsive.
	11. With regard to the affirmative action provisions of Article 5, introduce measures to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including through public procurement process.
	12. Review all policies and laws that determine access to, control of, and benefit from, productive resources by women.
	13. Review, amend and enact laws and policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment in all sectors of the economy.

BAROMETER CITIZEN SCORE CARD

PROGRESS DATA 2010	INDICATORS GOING FORWARD	SCORE OUT OF TEN		
		2009	2010	2011
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Most SADC constitutions have non-discrimination clauses and 12 provide for non-discrimination based on sex. Nine provide for gender equality. ✓ Six constitutions have claw back clauses. ✓ Only two Constitutions address the contradictions between customary law and customary practices that undermine women's rights. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Increase in the number of countries that include sex as a grounds for discrimination. ✓ Increase in the number of countries that include gender equality in their Constitutions. ✓ Number of countries that ensure that Constitutional provisions are not undermined by any other law or practice. 	6	0	6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In each country (details in report) there is still discriminatory legislation to review. ✓ Very few countries have specific legislation to do so; examples are Zimbabwe (Legal Age of Majority Act 1982) and Namibia (Married Persons Act). These laws are in any case undermined by customary law. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that review and eliminate all discriminatory practices. ✓ Number of countries that specifically abolish the minority status of women, and ensure that this is not undermined by customary law. 	6	6	6
<p>Parliament: The average representation of women in both houses across the region is 24%. This ranges from 7% in Botswana and the DRC to 44% in South Africa.</p> <p>Local government: The average representation of women at the local level is 29.7%. This ranges from 1.2% in Angola to 58% in Lesotho. 58% (the highest) to 6,4% (the lowest).</p> <p>Cabinet: The average representation of women in cabinet is up to 22% from 21.4% in 2009; this ranges from 41% in South Africa to 12% in Mauritius.</p> <p>President/prime minister: There are no women heads of state. Malawi and Zimbabwe have women deputy presidents and Mozambique has a woman prime minister.</p> <p>Public service: Comprehensive data is not available. For the eight countries for which data could be obtained, this ranged from close to parity in Botswana to less than one fifth in Malawi.</p> <p>Private sector and other areas of decision-making: Comprehensive data not available. Affirmative action has been applied in all the five countries that have made substantial progress, but this does not cover all areas of decision-making within the countries. Cases are: South Africa (voluntary party quota; Employment Equity Act); Namibia (legislated and voluntary at local level); Mozambique and Angola (voluntary party quotes) Lesotho (local government electoral law).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that make a concerted effort and achieve gender parity in parliament. 	5	5	5
<p>Primary: Equal enrolment of girls and boys in all countries except Angola and DRC where girls constitute 46% of total enrolment.</p> <p>Secondary: Gender gap is narrowing in all countries; more girls than boys in Lesotho; but girls only 36% in the DRC and 44% in Tanzania, Mozambique, Malawi and Angola.</p> <p>Tertiary: Equal proportions of women and men in Swaziland; in Seychelles (58%), Namibia, Mauritius, South Africa; Botswana and Zambia there are more women than men. In Madagascar, Lesotho, Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania and DRC women are less than men (26% in DRC, the lowest)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that attain gender parity at all levels of education. 	7	7	6
<p>The proportion of women in the teaching service ranges from 70% in Lesotho to 20% in the DRC; men predominate as principals; women predominate in the arts and men in the sciences and technical subjects; while there have been some reviews of curriculum gender stereotypes abound. GBV in schools is high.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Progress towards achieving gender parity in school administrations. ✓ Progress towards achieving gender parity in subjects. ✓ Changes to school curricula. 	6	6	5
<p>Women comprise 25% of decision-makers defined as minister/ deputy minister/permanent secretary of finance; economic permanent secretary/DG; governor and deputy governor of the reserve bank. This ranges from Swaziland (40%) to Mauritius (none).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that achieve gender parity in economic decision-making. 	4	4	4
<p>Only South Africa, Malawi and Madagascar have conducted such studies; little evidence of policy measures flowing from these.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that have done time use studies. 	5	4	3
<p>Ad hoc initiatives mostly focus on micro finance, for example, eg in Mauritius the National Women Entrepreneur Council; Tanzania the National Micro Finance policy gives guidelines on achieving gender equality; SA various funds for micro finance.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that have policies and laws to promote women's participation in economic decision-making. 	5	5	5
<p>Most policies are gender blind with a few exceptions; eg Zambia Trade and Industrial policy recognises that women remain marginalised in the professional work place and private enterprise; proposes steps for addressing this.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that review trade and entrepreneurship policies from a gender perspective. 	4	4	4
<p>Only South Africa has a Preferential Public Procurement Act that provides for redressing historical imbalances including gender. The Mauritius Public Procurement Act refers to "community and end user participation" without specifically referring to women.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of public procurement acts and procedures that specifically mention gender equality. 	5	5	4
<p>Comprehensive information is difficult to access; data obtained shows a range from 11% land ownership in Seychelles to 25% in DRC and Tanzania. In Botswana women are 46% of landowners but holdings are smaller. In Tanzania women land holdings are about one third the size of those of men.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that review laws and extent to which these promote parity in ownership. 	5	5	4
<p>Women earn, on average, 50% to 70% of men's earnings in the SADC region.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries that have ratified the ILO conventions and conventions 100 and 101. ✓ Completed audit of current labour legislation. 	6	6	6

MAIN PROVISIONS	SPECIFIC TARGETS TO BE ACHIEVED BY 2015
ARTICLES 20-25: GENDER BASED VIOLENCE	
<p>This article makes provision for the implementation of a variety of strategies, including enacting, reviewing, reforming and enforcing laws, aimed at eliminating all forms of gender based violence, and trafficking. There are specific stipulations for the provision of a comprehensive package of treatment and care services for survivors of gender based violence, including the access to Post Exposure Prophylaxis and the establishment of special courts to address these cases. There are specific provisions on human trafficking. A section which provides for monitoring and evaluation sets targets and indicators for reducing gender based violence levels by half by 2015.</p>	<p>14. Enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender-based violence.</p> <p>15. Ensure that laws on gender based violence provide for the comprehensive testing, treatment and care of survivors of sexual assault.</p> <p>16. Review and reform their criminal laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence.</p> <p>17. Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent human trafficking and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society.</p> <p>18. Enact legislative provisions, and adopt and implement policies, strategies and programmes which define and prohibit sexual harassment in all spheres, and provide deterrent sanctions for perpetrators of sexual harassment.</p> <p>19. Adopt integrated approaches, including institutional cross sector structures, with the aim of reducing current levels of gender based violence by half by 2015.</p>
ARTICLE 26: HEALTH	
<p>This article provides for the adoption and implementation of policies and programmes that address the physical, mental, emotional and social well being of women with specific targets for reducing the maternal mortality ratio and ensuring access to quality sexual and reproductive health services.</p>	<p>20. Adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies, programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care.</p> <p>21. Reduce the maternal mortality ratio by 75%.</p> <p>22. Develop and implement policies and programmes to address the mental, sexual and reproductive health needs of women and men; and</p> <p>23. Ensure the provision of hygiene and sanitary facilities and nutritional needs of women, including women in prison.</p>
ARTICLE 27: HIV AND AIDS	
<p>This article covers prevention, treatment care and support in relation to HIV and AIDS.</p>	<p>24. Develop gender sensitive strategies to prevent new infections.</p> <p>25. Ensure universal access to HIV and AIDS treatment for infected women, men, boys and girls.</p> <p>26. Develop and implement policies and programmes to ensure the appropriate recognition, of the work carried out by care-givers, the majority of whom are women; the allocation of resources and psychological support for care-givers as well as promote the involvement of men in the care and support of People Living with Aids.</p>
ARTICLE 28: PEACE BUILDING AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	
<p>This provides for the equal representation of women in conflict resolution and peace building processes as well as the integration of a gender perspective in the resolution of conflict in the region.</p>	<p>27. Put in place measures to ensure that women have equal representation and participation in key decision-making positions in conflict resolution and peace building processes, in accordance with UN Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.</p>
ARTICLES 29 - 31: MEDIA, INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION	
<p>This article provides for gender to be mainstreamed in all information, communication and media policies and laws. It calls for women's equal representation in all areas and at all levels of media work and for women and men to be given equal voice through the media. The Protocol calls for increasing programmes for, by and about women and the challenging of gender stereotypes in the media.</p>	<p>28. Take measures to promote the equal representation of women in ownership of, and decision-making structures of the media, in accordance with Article 12.1 that provides for equal representation of women in decision-making positions by 2015.</p>

BAROMETER CITIZEN SCORE CARD

PROGRESS DATA 2010	INDICATORS GOING FORWARD	SCORE OUT OF TEN		
		2009	2010	2011
Nine SADC countries have legislation on domestic violence; only seven have specific legislation that relates to sexual offences. Three countries have no specific legislation – Angola, Madagascar and Zambia.	✓ Number of specific GBV laws per country; measure change in laws periodically.	6	5	6
Only SA has included the provision of comprehensive treatment and care, including Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) to survivors of sexual assault to reduce chances of contracting HIV and AIDS. In Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia, Zambia this is included in policies but not law thus its less enforceable. Seychelles provides for health workers only. PEP in most countries is not well known or accessed.	✓ Number of laws that have clauses that provide for comprehensive testing, treatment and care.	6	6	6
Only 5 countries (Lesotho, Namibia, SA, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) have sexual offences legislation.	✓ Number of countries with sexual offences acts.	6	6	5
12 Southern Africa countries have signed the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (Palermo Protocol). Six countries have specific laws on human Trafficking - Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zambia. This is an increase from 4 last year. In South Africa and Zimbabwe, trafficking is provided for in Sexual Offences Legislation. Malawi is receiving technical support from the IOM to develop legislation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of countries with specific legislative provisions to prevent human trafficking and provide holistic services. ✓ Number of people reintegrated into society. ✓ Number of cases that have been prosecuted (for those that have laws). ✓ Number of new countries that adopt legislation or add human trafficking provisions to their legislation. 	5	5	5
Ten SADC countries have legislative provisions for sexual harassment; mostly in labour laws. Mauritius has a Sex Discrimination Act. In Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, this is covered under labour law. In Tanzania, sexual harassment is covered in Penal Code and Sexual Offences Act.	✓ Number of countries with sexual harassment legislation, policies and strategies.	5	5	5
14 SADC countries have adopted and are implementing National Action Plans/Strategies/ Response to End Gender Based Violence. Most SADC countries are moving away from Sixteen to 365 Day Action Plans to End GBV. However plans lack specific targets and indicators; effective monitoring mechanisms. Data on GBV is sporadic and unreliable. A pilot project to develop GBV indicators is underway in South Africa, Mauritius and Botswana.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ All countries to develop country specific National Action Plans. ✓ Effectiveness of NAPS as measured by countries that have already adopted GBV National Action Plans. ✓ Extent of GBV, and reduction each year as measured through the GBV indicators study. 	6	6	6
In 2001/2002 only South Africa and Zimbabwe fulfilled their commitment to allocate 15% of government expenditure to health. Lesotho, Mozambique and Swaziland achieved about half of the 15% target; Botswana achieved 10,45%.	✓ All SADC countries to have gender sensitive and aware health policies that address issues of access and quality.	6	6	6
Maternal mortality varies widely from 28 per 100 000 in Mauritius to 1140 per 100 000 in DRC.	✓ Number of countries, especially those with high levels, that achieve the 7% reduction in maternal mortality.	6	6	6
Only three Southern African countries have a contraceptive usage rate of over 60%; SA is highest at 65% Zimbabwe was second, with 58%; Angola lowest at 5%.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Percentage of people accessing and using contraceptives. ✓ Gender disaggregated data according to type of contraceptive. 	6	6	5
Total coverage of sanitation facilities varies from 100% in Seychelles, Mauritius to 15% in Madagascar; urban coverage is generally better than rural coverage.	Number of countries that achieve 100% sanitation coverage.	5	5	5
Four of the 15 countries have a prevalence rate of over 15%, while 4 have a prevalence of 4% or less. The highest prevalence is in Swaziland (26%) and lowest in Madagascar and Mauritius (2%). With the exception of Mauritius and Seychelles where HIV is mostly driven by drug use, women in SADC have a higher prevalence rate than men. This is highest in Angola (61% women compared to 39% men). Mauritius at 68% had the highest percentage of women aged 15-24 with comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS (UNGASS 2010 Country Reports), followed by Seychelles (67%) and Namibia (65%). The lowest comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS: Angola (7%), DRC (15%) and Lesotho (18%).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Percentage reduction of HIV and AIDS in each country and reduction in the gender gap. ✓ Increase in comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS. 	6	6	6
✓ Access to ARVs ranges from 3% in Madagascar to 95.2% in Seychelles. At least nine countries score above 50% access. There is little gender disaggregated data on access to treatment.	✓ Number of countries that achieve universal access for women and men and gender disaggregated statistics to track/ensure this progress.	7	6	7
A GEMSA audit based on remuneration; logistic and material support; training and professional recognition; psychological support and gender considerations rated the policy of one SADC country (Namibia) as excellent; Botswana, Tanzania; Zimbabwe as good; Swaziland; South Africa as fair; Zambia and Malawi as mediocre; Lesotho, Mozambique, Mauritius and DRC as poor.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Development of a model policy/checklist on care work. ✓ Number of countries that meet the standards of the model policy. 	6	4	5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ There are no special measures to ensure women's representation and participation in the sector. ✓ With 24% women in defence force and 21% in the police force, SA leads the way. 	✓ Extent to which gender parity considerations are taken into account in Madagascar and in all peace processes.	4,5	4	4
<p>Media houses: The Glass Ceiling in Southern African newsrooms study by GL found that women constitute 41% of media employees; 32% if South Africa is excluded. This ranges from 70% in Lesotho to 13% in Zimbabwe. Women constitute less than 25% of those on the boards of governors, as top and senior managers in the media.</p> <p>Sources: The Gender and Media Progress Studies (GMPS) showed that the proportion of women sources in the news had increased by a mere 2% to 19% since the baseline study conducted in 2003.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Number of media houses that achieve gender parity at all levels. ✓ Progress towards attaining gender parity in news sources. 	4	4	4

2009 Total = 154 / 280 x 100 = 55%

2010 Total = 152 / 280 x 100 = 54.3%

2011 Total = 153 / 280 x 100 = 54.6%

Annex 2

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

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
		Literacy	Ability to read and write
	Primary school completed		
	Health	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
	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
	Access to family labour		
	Access to credit		
	Freedom to dispose of own income		
Management	Employers		
	High civil servants (class A)		
	Members of professional syndicates		
Political power 'Agency'	Public sector	Administrative, scientific and technical	
		Members of parliament	
		Cabinet ministers	
		Higher courts judges	
	Civil society	Members of local councils	

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.

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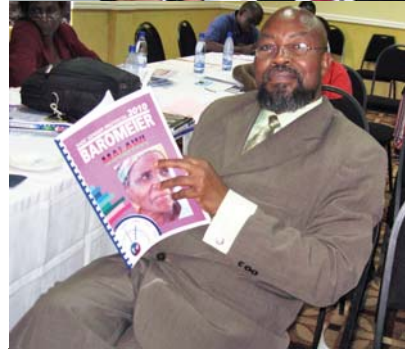
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The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development



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.





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 2011 Heads of State Summit, 13 countries had signed, and eight countries had ratified the Gender Protocol. One more country is needed in order to reach the two-thirds majority required to make the Protocol enforceable. Five countries that signed the Gender Protocol have not yet ratified it. The clock is ticking to 2015 when governments have 28 targets that they will have to account for. In keeping with the Alliance slogan: "The Time is Now" this 2011 Barometer provides a wealth of updated data against which progress will be measured by all those who cherish democracy in the region. This year we introduce the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) to benchmark progress. While there are several challenges, the successes to date strengthen our view that change is possible.

"Yes we can!"