

2016 GENDER SCORECARD

WOMEN'S RIGHTS IN AFRICA.
WHERE DOES THE CONTINENT STAND?



African Union
Commission

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Foreword

Africa's economic performance has been notable in recent years, but the continent's bright economic prospects remain hampered by continued inequality in several areas. Africa is the second most unequal region in the world following Latin America.

In addition to income inequality, gender inequality remains a defining challenge of the continent. Despite all the efforts made, the path of progress on gender equality and women's empowerment is slow, owing to persistent violation of women's socio-economic, political and civil rights.

African leaders have reiterated the significance of gender equality and women's empowerment as a goal in its own right, particularly in protecting and securing women's human rights. This is enshrined in Agenda 2063, the continent's key framework for structural transformation and sustainable development.

Thus African Heads of State and Governments declared 2016 as the Year of "Africa's Human Rights with a Focus on Women's Rights". This Declaration is a powerful message and a call for greater action towards securing and protecting women's rights. It is also a precondition for achieving the vision that underscores the AUC Agenda 2063, namely a continent "that is integrated, peaceful, prosperous, people centred and representing a dynamic force in the global arena".

The African Union (AU) 2016 Scorecard on the theme "Women's rights in Africa. Where does the continent stand?" aims at supporting African leaders to implement their commitments for women's human rights by providing them with a comprehensive assessment of the progress they have made in securing and protecting women's socio-economic, civil and political rights. It also analyses the challenges faced and identifies measures that are essential for ensuring women's human rights are realised.

This Scorecard is a call for action to African Union member States to fast track the implementation of regional and global frameworks, especially the landmark Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the Maputo Protocol); and to invest in gender statistics essential for the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes on women's rights.

It is the hope of the African Union that African governments will use this Scorecard as a strategic instrument in developing their national plans for the implementation of Agenda 2063 and Agenda 2030 of the Sustainable Development Goals, in order to make Africa a continent where women and men, boys and girls enjoy fully and equitably economic, social, civil and political rights.

1. Introduction

African leaders reiterated their commitment to accelerating the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment on the continent by adopting a number of regional and global legal frameworks, including the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGGEA), the Maputo Protocol and UN Resolution 1325. In addition, they declared 2015 as the "Year of African Women's Empowerment towards Agenda 2063" and subsequently dedicated 2016 as the "Year of African Human Rights with a focus on Women's Rights". To monitor member States' progress in implementing the continent's gender equality and women's empowerment agenda, the African Union Commission (AUC) developed several frameworks, the most recent of which is its overarching developmental blueprint, Agenda 2063. Within this context, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) developed key gender monitoring tools to assist in the measurement of progress on gender commitments. The design of these instruments to support the work of African countries paved the way for the development of the African Gender Scorecard in 2015, at the behest of the AUC Chairperson and supported by the ECA. The Scorecard is a simple yet comprehensive tool whose main goal is to provide the AUC and its member States a tool for implementation, monitoring and accountability in achieving the key objectives of Agenda 2063 from a gender perspective.

The decision to make the scorecard thematic and, pertinently for this year, with a 'focus on women's rights' suggests that the second scorecard can qualitatively assess the outcomes of last year's scorecard, which was based on quantitative indicators with the exception of access to land. This will further reinforce the key policy messages and conclusions drawn

in the first scorecard in the analysis of the 2016 Scorecard.

The 2015 Scorecard focused on seven sectors that have multiplier implications for women's empowerment. These are: access to credit; women in parliament and decision making; employment; the business sector; access to land; education and health. The findings were published in two products, namely (1) a comprehensive knowledge product that provides a detailed analysis of gender gaps and policy messages and recommendations for member States in addressing gender concerns, and (2) an A5 sized booklet presenting a visual representation of each country's achievement and progress. The publication was presented at the 2015 Heads of State and Government Summit held in Johannesburg, South Africa. Based on the momentum generated by the Scorecard's findings, the AUC's Chairperson presented awards to countries that have made great strides from different levels of development on achieving gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa. Overall, 51 countries received awards in various categories and sectors of the scorecard. The majority of countries received awards in the category of the scorecard's standalone indicators, namely access to water and sanitation in urban and rural contexts, and maternal mortality. Using certain pre-defined cut-off points to make the awards, the Chairperson, reiterated the need for the awards to stimulate and incentivise member States to make greater commitments in addressing gender inequalities.

1.1. The 2016 AUC Scorecard

Following the AUC's decision to publish the Scorecard regularly, the ECA and AfDB, as part of their strategic partnership, supported the AUC to develop the 2016 Scorecard, focusing on the theme "Women's Rights" and mirroring the declaration of

2016 as the “Year of African Human Rights with a focus on Women’s Human Rights.”

The primary objective of this edition of the Scorecard is to support African countries in their endeavours to secure and protect women’s human rights by providing them with a holistic assessment of the progress they have made and the set of measures required to achieve greater gender equality.

The 2016 edition of the African Gender Scorecard innovates in at least two ways. Firstly, it is based on two guiding principles, namely to a) privilege national data, and b) draw on data not older than 2009/10. Secondly, it includes more indicators especially qualitative indicators covering policy initiatives and measures.

1.2. Structure of the 2016 Scorecard

Following the introductory chapter which provides a brief history of the AUC African Gender Scorecard, chapter two analyses Africa’s development landscape against the global development features to bringing the Scorecard into context.

Chapter three presents an analytical synopsis of the women’s human rights in Africa, gains and challenges; and findings of the 2016 Scorecard.

Chapter four articulates the policy recommendations and policy messages, which is followed by the conclusion.

2. Fitting the Scorecard into Africa's development context

2.1. Positive African economic outlook

Africa's economic outlook remained promising through 2015 and is expected to continue growing despite certain unfavourable external factors including a sharp decline in commodity prices and adverse climate conditions leading to severe droughts in some Southern and East African countries. Elsewhere, government efforts supported by the United Nations and other development partners made the impact of the Ebola outbreak in West African countries (Guinea Conakry, Liberia and Sierra Leone) less devastating for the region's economy.

Overall, African economies continued to grow in 2015 with real gross domestic product (GDP) growth estimated at 3.6 per cent, compared to a global growth rate of 3.1 per cent. Africa remained the second fastest growing economy in the world (after emerging Asia economies) and several African countries remained among the world's fastest growing countries. Worthy of note is that the drivers of Africa's economic growth amount to more than a resource boom. Some of the key factors behind Africa's powerful growth included sound macroeconomic reforms leading to improved macroeconomic conditions, better business climate, as well as governments' action to end armed conflicts.¹

Progress has also been registered on the core dimension of human development, such as health, education and the improvement is at the same rate as all developing countries.²

2.2. Inequality, a defining challenge of the continent

Despite the growth we have witnessed on the continent, the pace and path of progress must also be measured by the conditions of human development on the continent. Inequality, the defining challenge of Africa's development prospect remains a critical area of concern and indeed the continent's main policy issue, owing to the fact that the remarkable economic growth has not benefitted all groups in an inclusive and equitable manner.

Inequality expresses itself in different forms: income inequality, commonly measured by the Gini Coefficient, and gender inequality, a result of discrimination against women/girls or men/boys in terms of access to and control over economic opportunities, social services and decision making processes.

Recent evidence suggests that both income and gender inequality in Africa remain the highest in the world and are declining slower compared to other regions.³

The critical policy issue is that the combination of income inequality and gender inequality impedes economic growth and development prospects on the continent and drastically limits the impact of Africa's current economic growth, poverty reduction and the wellbeing of its population.

It is estimated that per capita income growth in Sub-Saharan Africa could be higher by as much as 0.9 percentage points on average if inequality was

1 AfDB, OECD, and UNDP, (2016) African Economic Outlook

2 AfDB, OECD, and UNDP, (2016) "African Economic Outlook".

3 IMF (2016). "Inequality, Gender Gaps and Economic Growth: Comparative Evidence for Sub-Saharan Africa". Working Paper WP/16/111, June.

reduced to the levels observed in the fast growing emerging Asian countries.⁴

2.3. Wide and persistent gender inequality

Gender inequality, a result of discrimination against women, girls or men and boys, is one of the most pervasive and persistent forms of inequality. Gender inequality is often at the expense of women and girls. They have benefited less from the steady economic growth that the continent has registered. The UNESCO Global Monitoring Report 2016 suggests that despite no country in Sub-Saharan Africa has achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary⁵ education. Of the 18 countries with fewer than 90 girls for every 100 boys enrolled, 13 are in Sub-Saharan Africa. With regards to secondary education, little change has been registered since 1999. The girls to boys enrolment ratio is around 8 girls for every 10 boys. . Another critical policy issue is the gender gaps in literacy rates. UNESCO found that fewer than seven out of every ten young women in Sub-Saharan Africa are expected to be literate by 2015⁶ youth literacy. This has translated into inequality in access to formal employment opportunities with the majority concentrated in the informal sector. Gender inequality in the economic, social, civil and political spheres amounts to discrimination against women and constitutes a violation of their socio-economic, civil and political rights.

2.4. Securing and protecting African women's human rights

African member States have committed themselves to securing and protecting women's human rights by endorsing a number of international agreements (conventions, resolutions) including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the optional

protocol; the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA) adopted by member States at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women. These protocols set forth various governments' commitment to advancing women's rights; the UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (2000) which recognised that war and conflicts affect women differently, and reaffirmed women's rights to participate in decision-making with regard to conflict prevention and resolution. In addition to these landmark global agreements, African member States adopted Africa-specific agreements to accelerate the enforcement of women's rights. Among those are the African Charter on Human Rights (the Maputo Protocol); and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality.

Reaffirming their commitment to hastening the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment, African leaders adopted a policy of gender parity for the nomination of the AUC's Commissioners, suggesting their political will to strengthen women's participation in the continent's decision-making spheres. They adopted 2010-2020 as the Women's Decade. In the same vein, African leaders declared 2015 as the Year of African Women.

Those commitments however, are yet to be implemented fully and translated into greater protection of women's economic, social, civil and political rights. The violation of women's rights remain a major concern on the continent and indeed a key policy issue for many reasons. First, discrimination against women in the economic realm, especially in access to and control over economic assets including land ownership and opportunities such as employment, exclude women de facto from wealth and growth redistribution, leading to their exclusion and persistent gender inequality. Second, women's limited access to quality social services and infrastructure, including social protection, means that they are exposed to several risks for biological (reproductive health)

4 Ibid

5 UNESCO's Education for ALL (EFA) Global Monitoring Report (GMR), 2016

6 UNESCO, Report 2016, opt

and gender (concentration in the informal sector, vulnerable work, etc.) reasons. Third, the exclusion of women from decision-making processes in the household and in public perpetuates their subordinate status and disempowerment.

2.5. Securing and protecting women's rights is the full responsibility of African governments

The responsibility for securing and protecting women's and girls' human rights lies with African member States as enshrined in all global and regional women's rights frameworks. African countries should take the necessary action to deliver on their commitments.

It is against this backdrop that the AUC declared 2016 the "Year of African Human Rights with a focus on Women's Rights", reiterating African leaders' commitment to protecting women's human rights. This declaration is a powerful message and re-echoes the importance of gender equality and women's empowerment as a goal in its own right in protecting and securing women's human rights. This is the key prerequisite, which will enable the continuance and full enforcement of all human rights in Africa.

In addition, securing and protecting women's rights is a precondition for achieving the vision underscoring the AUC Agenda 2063, namely a continent "that is integrated, peaceful, prosperous, people centred and representing a dynamic force in the global arena."

Women's rights have been well spelled out as one of the key underlying principles of Agenda 2030 for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Both Agenda 2063 and Agenda 2030 reinforce the powerful linkage between women's rights, gender equality and inclusive and sustainable development.

To encourage African countries to deliver on their commitments, the AUC initiated the development of the African Gender Scorecard (AGS). The Scorecard is a simple yet comprehensive tool whose main goal is to provide the AUC and its member States with an implementation, as well as a monitoring and accountability tool, to achieve the key objectives of the Agenda 2063 from a gender perspective.

2.6. The 2016 African Gender Scorecard

The 2016 Scorecard, themed "*Women's rights in Africa. Where does the continent stand,*" fits into Africa's development landscape and the global development framework. Its primary goal is to assess Africa's progress in implementing regional and global women's rights frameworks and normative documents, including the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the Maputo Protocol); the Universal Declaration on Human Rights; the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discriminations Against Women (CEDAW); the UN Council Resolution 1325 on Women; Conflicts and Peace, the Dakar and Beijing Platform for Actions; the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa, among others.

2.7. Selected sectors

The 2016 Scorecard focuses on three clusters of women's rights namely: (1) Women's economic rights; (2) Women's social rights; and (3) Women's civil and political rights. Each cluster comprises several sectors:

2.8. Methodology

Approach

Using the human rights-based approach, which is an intrinsic approach to measuring gender equality and women's empowerment (within a continuum) rather than an instrumental approach, progress made by African countries in protecting and securing women's economic, social, political and civil rights is simultaneously assessed on two

Women's Economic Rights Cluster	Women's Social Rights Cluster	Women's Civil and Political Rights Cluster
Maternity leave (input indicator)	Violence against women (output and outcome indicators)	Executive (outcome indicators)
Employment (outcome indicator)	Female genital mutilation (output and outcome indicators)	Legislative (input and outcome indicators)
Income (outcome indicator)	Child marriage (input and outcome indicators)	Judiciary (outcome indicators)
Secure access to credit (input)	Child labour (outcome indicators)	Local governance (input indicator)
Access to credit (output)	Education (outcome indicators)	
Secure access to land and assets (input)	Health (output and outcome indicators)	
Access to land and assets (outcome)	Maternal health (output and outcome indicators)	
Property rights (input)	HIV (output and outcome indicators)	
	Access to water and sanitation (outcome indicators)	
	Social protection (outcome indicators)	
	Access to electricity (outcome indicators)	

fronts. These are: (i) assessment of regional and international legal frameworks, which are relevant to women's economic, social, political and civil rights and have been signed, ratified and implemented (through the domestication of these laws) by countries; and (ii) assessment of the outcomes of these domesticated regional and global measures and frameworks in national legislations.

Indicators

Three categories of indicators have been defined e.g. input indicators, output indicators and outcome indicators.

Input indicators, also called resource indicators, refer to the existence of legislation or policies that advance women's rights and their operationalisation in practice (qualitative indicators).

Output indicators are quantities produced or numbers achieved (eg, number of beneficiaries), or direct impact on knowledge, attitudes (quantitative indicators).

Outcome indicators are quantitative indicators that are premised on the results or effects of

the implementation of legal frameworks and rights. They refer to broader results achieved in terms of prevalence, participation rates, changes, benefits (quantitative indicators).

The number of input indicators is limited in the AGS 2016 because they are scattered in numerous national reports that are not always updated. A more systematic compilation is needed. For this indicator, therefore, the scorecard still relies on international data sets and reports, provided they have been updated.

Scoring

For each indicator, the score is calculated by taking the female to male ratio of the indicator values, multiplying the ratio by 10, then rounding it to the nearest whole number. The sector score is calculated as an un-weighted arithmetic average of indicator scores from a given sector. If data for more than half of the indicators for a country within a sector is missing, the average sector score for that country is not calculated (except for employment). A score of 0 represents the highest level of inequality, while 10 represents perfect parity. However, the score is not capped at 10, making it possible to highlight

instances where women may have outperformed men in a particular sector.

Some indicators do not exist for men and boys and/or may be scored highest when they are at the lowest level, for instance, the maternal mortality ratio or adolescent pregnancies.

The output and outcome indicators are mainly based on ratios of women to men, and scoring may exceed 10 when the gender gap is in favour of women. The concept of perfect parity refers to the situation where the proportion of men and women is equal, irrespective of the developmental level of the variable or indicator being assessed. In countries that go beyond the score of 10, women may be more highly empowered than men in particular sub-sectors. However, caution needs to be adopted in this approach.

2.9. Limitations of the scoring method

The scoring method used only conveys how well women are doing in comparison to men, irrespective of their levels of achievement. For example, in a country where the attendance ratio in primary education for women and men is only 29 per cent and 30 per cent respectively, the scoring method will result in a full score of 10. Thus this country will be said to have achieved full parity in primary education. Another country with much higher levels of attendance, i.e. 80 per cent for girls and 90 per cent for boys, resulting in a parity level of 9, may be seen to be performing less well compared to the first country. Therefore, caution needs to be made in drawing conclusions based only on the scores, particularly when there are large variations in levels of developmental achievements between countries.

As a consequence of the method adopted to deal with missing data, a certain number of sector scores could not be calculated. This limits the possibility of cross-country comparisons at the sector level. However, the purpose of the scorecard is not to

rank countries but rather to introduce a monitoring and accountability mechanism that gives an overarching view of progress in the implementation of gender equality and women's empowerment commitments in each country. It emphasises data availability as a prerequisite for evidence-based decision-making towards achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment on the continent. Calculating scores by omitting missing values is equivalent to replacing them with the average of the indicator scores available for a given sector, which could introduce a significant bias. Finally, it should be remembered that for each country, data for each indicator may come from different years; therefore the sector score cannot be completely associated with one point in time. Moreover, because the year in which data were collected for each indicator may vary from country to country, cross-country comparisons should be treated with caution. However, since the 2016 scorecard is based mainly on data for the years 2010-2015, the variations are limited.

Furthermore, the use of national data rather than the estimates of international data limits the number of countries in some sectors. Another limitation is that, in the health sector for instance, data from harmonised national sources (mainly the DHS and MICS surveys) have been used in order to ensure comparability. Other sources were not used and this explains missing data for some sectors in some countries with a strong statistical apparatus. Access to improved sanitation for example is measured in different ways according to the types of surveys and it was decided not to mix different definitions of the indicator.

3. Analytical Synopsis of women's human rights in Africa: Gains and challenges

African women are the continent's vital economic actors, notwithstanding the undervaluation of their economic contribution especially their unpaid care work and their work in the informal sector. They are active in almost all economic activities and are overrepresented in agriculture and in the informal sector. Agriculture is one of the key determinants of Africa's economic growth and African women play a major role in the agricultural economy, which employs 70% of the population. They make up two-thirds of the agricultural labour force and produce the bulk of Africa's food.⁷

However, women face discrimination, which impedes their productivity with negative impact on the continent's agricultural output and economic transformation. Gender inequality in land ownership, access to and control over agricultural inputs such as seeds and new agricultural techniques through extension services, as well as in access to market information and finance, perpetuates discrimination and lowers food production.⁸

Over the past two years many African countries have conducted institutional reforms increasing women's economic rights and opportunities. Studies have found that lower legal gender equality is associated with fewer women working or running businesses and a wider gender wage gap.⁹ Reforms associated with getting a job, building credit, providing incentives to work and using property are arguably the most important for women's economic empowerment.

However African women still face an array of barriers to achieving their full potential, from restrictive cultural practices to discriminatory laws and highly segmented labour markets. Women farmers, for example, have less access to essential inputs, such as land, credit, fertilizers, new technologies and extension services. As a result, their yields tend to be significantly lower than men's. In Ethiopia, female farmers produce 26% less than male farmers, and in Ghana, they produce 17% less.

The challenge for women is that their economic activity is concentrated in subsistence-level agriculture and marginal activities in the informal economy.

3.1. Key results on the Women's Economic Rights cluster

The 2016 Scorecard focuses on six key areas requiring attention to secure and protect the economic rights of African women in order to empower them economically. These are: (i) employment; (ii) income; (iii) maternity leave, paternity leave and parental leave; (iv) access to credit; (v) access to land and assets; (vi) Property rights.

3.1.1. Employment

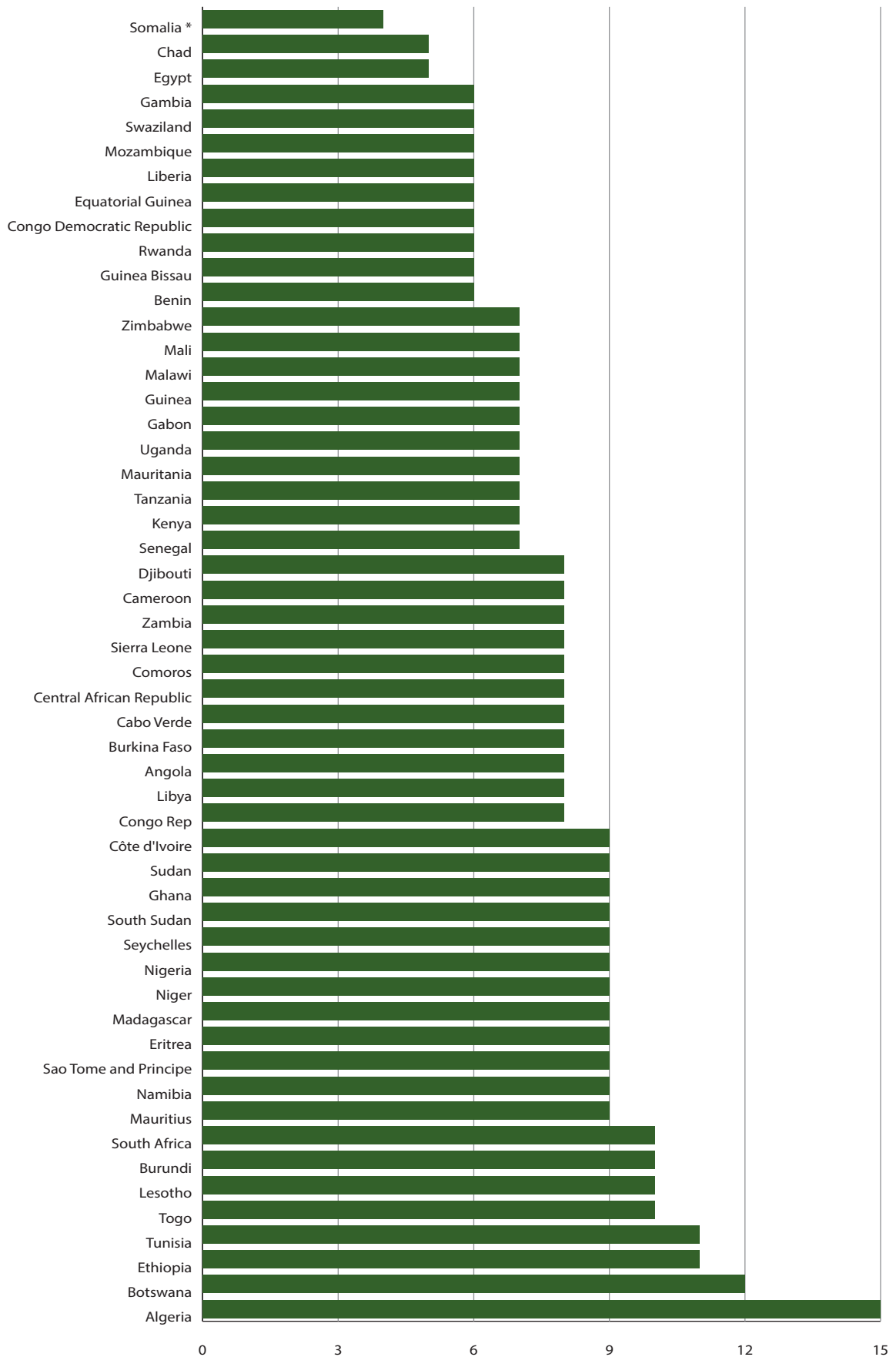
The employment indicators show that women are still the backbone of Africa's economy and remain the key actors in core economic sectors. These indicators also cover laws on work-related maternity, paternity and parental benefits. Some of the differences may facilitate women's participation in the workforce, but many prevent it. Differences in how the law treats women and men can

⁷ FAO (2010; 2011). "Status of Food and Agriculture".

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Women, Business and the Law (2016).

Figure 1: Employment ratios



affect women's incentives and ability to get the job of their choice. Moreover, contrary to the 2015 scorecard that was based on labour force participation rates and the share of women in non-agricultural paid employment, herein 'Employment' refers to four indicators: i) the ratio of females to males' labour force participation rates; ii) the ratio of active persons with tertiary education; iii) the ratio of active persons in paid employment; and iv) the ratio of active persons in non-agricultural employment. The score for the employment sector is the arithmetical mean of these four indicators.

The findings indicate that eight countries reached gender parity or more, namely Algeria, Botswana, Ethiopia, Tunisia, Togo, Lesotho, Burundi and South Africa. With a score of 9, fourteen countries are on the verge of reaching parity in that area. However, there are countries that are still lagging and slow in achieving parity in the area of employment. Apart from Somalia that has scored below 5, thirty countries have scored between scores 5 and 8. It is also noteworthy to underscore parity reached by Rwanda and Mozambique in labour force participation of active workers aged 15 and above.

3.1.2. Maternity, paternity and parental leave

Maternity leave in labour law refers to maternity, paternity and parental leave. These forms of leave, taken due to the birth or arrival of a child, affect the choices women make and the opportunities available to them in the working world. But too much leave may undermine women's labour force participation if it makes them less competitive in the labour market and discourages employers from hiring women of childbearing age. Though maternity leave is standard in almost all African countries where data is available, it varies greatly in duration, from a few weeks to a few years. Most maternity leave is paid, though countries vary on whether it is paid by employers, governments or both.

Box 1: Gender differences affect economic opportunity in Uganda.

Both men and women are active in Uganda's economy. But women's labour force participation is constrained both by socio-cultural norms and by the burden of domestic work that disproportionately falls on women. Men and women attract differing incentives, and this can act as a brake on output and productivity. There is a disconnect between the work done (by women) and the benefit obtained (by men), particularly in the case of cash crop export value chains.

Source: AfDB, Uganda Country Gender Profile 2016

Maternity challenges are a major reason why women stay away from the labour market or leave it. The conditions and protections accorded to women during this period of life and the extent to which parental responsibility is shared with spouses are key determinants of female labour force participation rates.

Informing this AGS indicator, the ILO has achieved an exhaustive compilation of labour codes across the world (ILO, 2014).

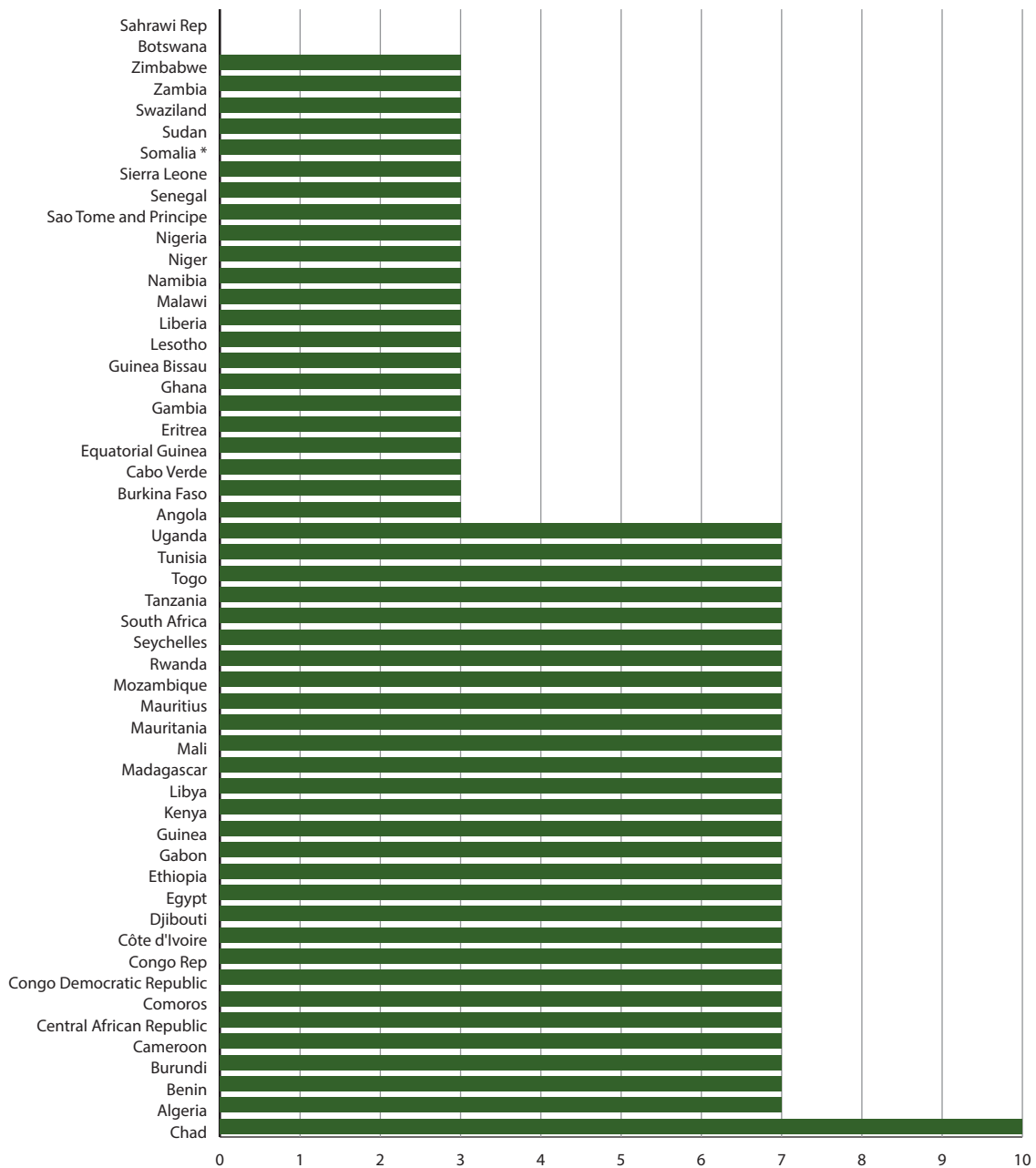
Here, countries are scored 0 if there is no maternity leave in the labour law (no country is in this situation) or if maternity leave is paid under 50 per cent of salary. It is scored 1 if in addition to maternity leave, the law provides for paternity leave with more than 2 days paid. And it is scored 2 if in addition to maternity and paternity leaves, the law provides for parental leave, even unpaid. Scores 0, 1 and 2 have been scaled up to 3, 7 and 10.

Figure 2 shows that 28 countries meet the first two conditions (maternity and paternity leave), 22 meet the first only (maternity leave), and only one, Chad has satisfied, since 2013, the three conditions (maternity, paternity and parental leave).

3.1.3. Income and wages gap

The findings suggest that 24 countries, less than half, have collected and published sex-disaggregated data on income and wages in recent years. Many countries have collected

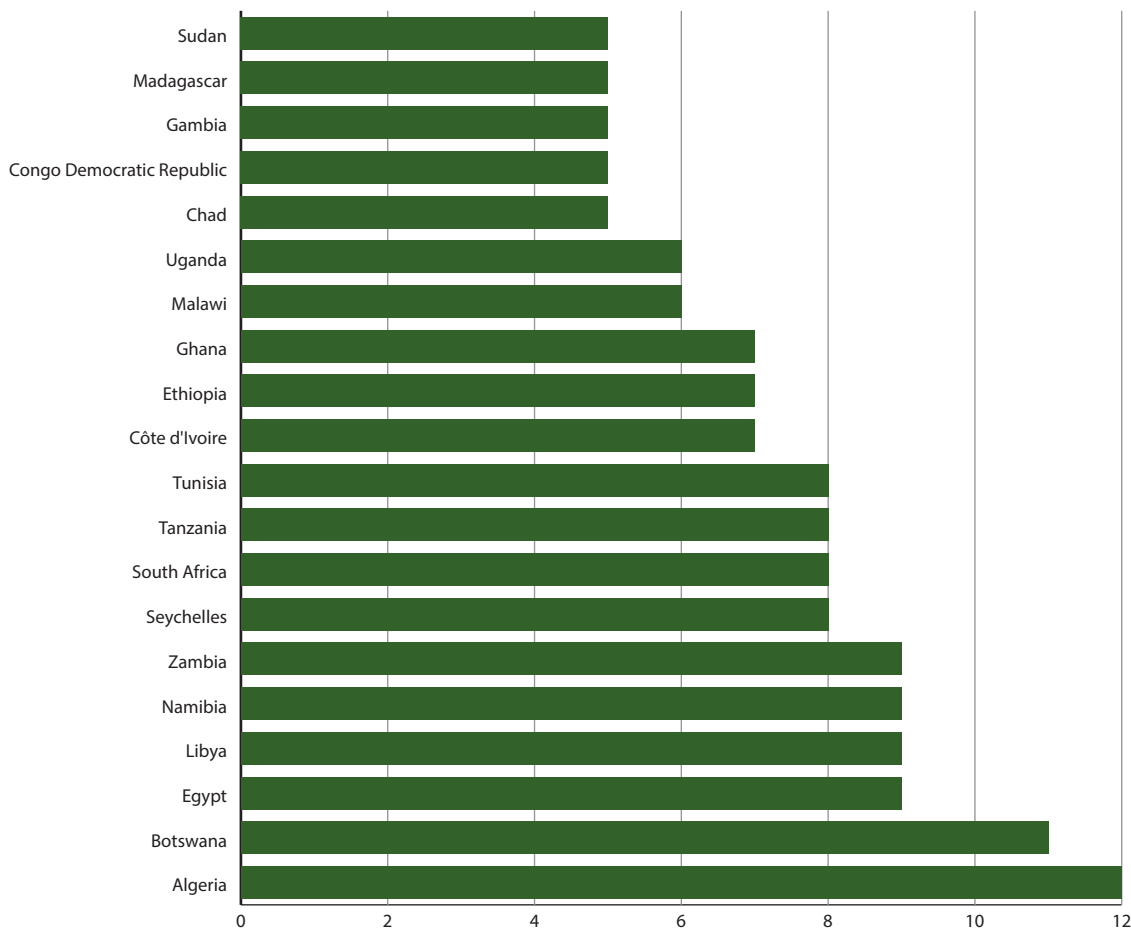
Figure 2: Maternity, paternity and parental leave



data on income and wages gaps but without disaggregating the information by sex. Among the 20 countries for which the ratio for the scorecard could be computed, five have a score of 5, suggesting that on average, women earn 50 per cent of men's earnings. In five more countries, they earn between 60 and 70 per cent of men's earnings and in eight countries between 80 and 90 per cent. Two countries, Algeria and Botswana, have reached or exceeded gender parity in wages.

The reason behind this result is often the composition of female employment in these countries, compared to male. A high share of higher educated women employed in the public sector and in skilled jobs compares to a high share of less qualified men employed in lower skilled jobs. If we narrowed the focus to specific industries or professions, the glass ceiling would show up.

Figure 3: Income and wage gaps



Source: National labour force surveys, or other household surveys, except for Tunisia: social security statistics

Income gap is the ratio of female earnings to male earnings in the labour force. Depending on the dataset of countries, it refers to wages and salaries only, or to wages, salaries and income from enterprises. The scoring has not been capped at 10. Lower scores correspond to strong gender disparities. Note that the indicator is based on individual income and not on household income.

3.1.4. Secure access to credit

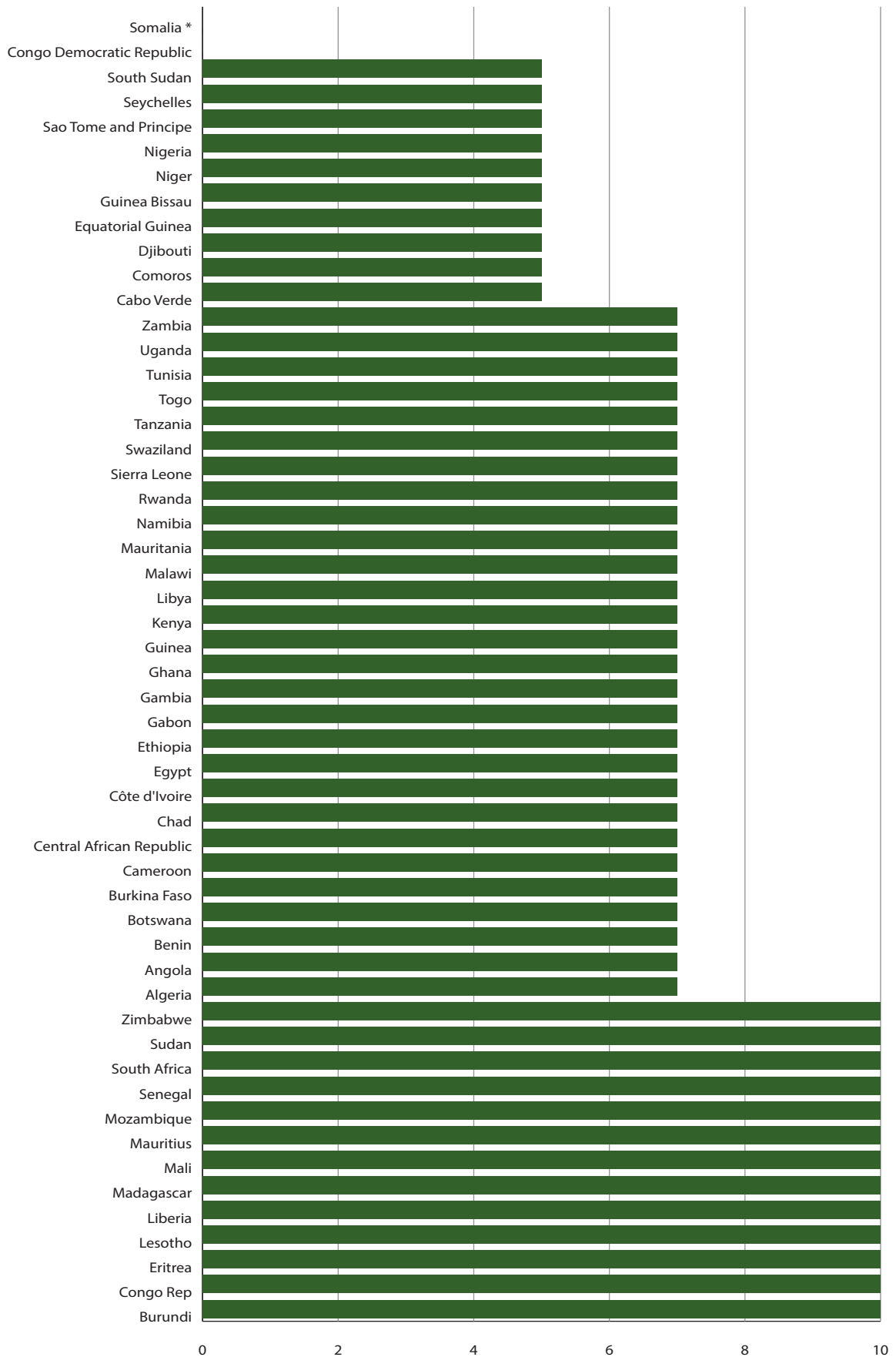
Secure access to credit refers to legislation and policy measures facilitating women's access to credit.

For the purposes of this Scorecard, secure access to credit is an input indicator based on: i) freedom of contracting, scored 1 if the law grants freedom to married as well as unmarried

women, 2 if in addition women are free to register a business or/and to open a bank account, and 0 if none of these is granted; and ii) free access to financial services, scored 0 if the law does not guarantee the same rights to women and men, 1 if the law guarantees same rights but customary or religious practices discriminate against women, and 2 if the law guarantees the same rights without restriction. The indicator is scaled up on a scale of 0 to 10.

These two aspects of secure access to credit are drawn from two studies. While "freedom of contracting" is analysed by the World Bank in "Business, Women and the Law", access to financial services is computed by the OECD national and regional studies for the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI).

Figure 4: Secure access to credit



Only in two countries are women not free to contract, while in three countries, the law does not accord them the same rights of access to financial services. As shown in Figure 4, 13 countries score the maximum of 10. The majority (28 countries) score 7 while 10 more countries rank at 5 and two at 0.

3.1.5. Access to credit

African women may be kept from accessing financial services due to cultural assumptions, or by formal legal barriers to entering into contracts in their own name, or by a lack of financial literacy. They often lack the assets that financial institutions demand as collateral. While many microcredit institutions and informal savings associations lend to women, microfinance does not address the needs of women who wish to expand beyond the microenterprise level.

Women in agriculture and small business need access to financial services, including savings, credit and insurance, to develop their businesses. In particular, they need access to credit to provide working capital, smooth over gaps in income and finance investments in new equipment or technology. There is also ample evidence that providing women with direct access to financial services can lead to greater investment in nutrition and education, building human capital while making households more resilient to shocks and uncertainties.

In Uganda, women own 38% of all registered enterprises but access only 9% of formal finance. In Kenya, despite owning 48% of micro and small enterprises, women access only 7% of credit. While lack of access to finance is a widespread problem for all firms, studies show that women entrepreneurs identify this as the single biggest constraint on expanding their businesses.

As shown in Figure 5 below, seven countries reach or exceed parity for access to credit: several of them are well known for the dynamism of their businesswomen, such as Togo with a score of 12,

Ghana and Benin at 11, while Malawi, the Central African Republic and South Africa also score high. Algeria is outstanding with a score of 15, resulting from a very high ratio for borrowing. Indeed, in 17 of the 38 countries for which data are available, the ratio for borrowing exceeds the ratio of access to bank accounts (as can be seen from the detailed data in the statistical annex), and this is observed for most of the countries ranking at the top for this indicator. Finally, only 10 countries obtain a score of 6 or below 6.

Access to credit is measured by: i) the ratio of females to males having access to a bank account at a financial institution; and ii) the ratio of females to males borrowing from a financial institution.

3.1.6. Secure access to land and assets

Insecure land rights for women lead to underinvestment. Many women farmers face insecure land tenure. They are less likely to invest in their land or to adopt more efficient agricultural practices if they are uncertain of reaping the benefits over the longer term.

For example, one study of the complex, overlapping system of land rights in Akwapim, Ghana, found that women let their land lie fallow less than men, because they fear that they may lose their rights over the land while it is fallow. Insecure land rights also reduce women's ability to pledge the land as collateral for loans.

Secure access to land and assets is an input indicator measured by the response to the question: "Do unmarried/married men and unmarried/married women have equal ownership rights to property?"; scored 2 if the response is positive in both cases, 1 if the response is positive only for unmarried women/men, and 0 if women do not enjoy the benefit of equal rights.

This input indicator again relies on the World Bank study "Women, Business and the Law 2016". For the purposes of this Scorecard, the question posed in

Figure 5: Access to credit

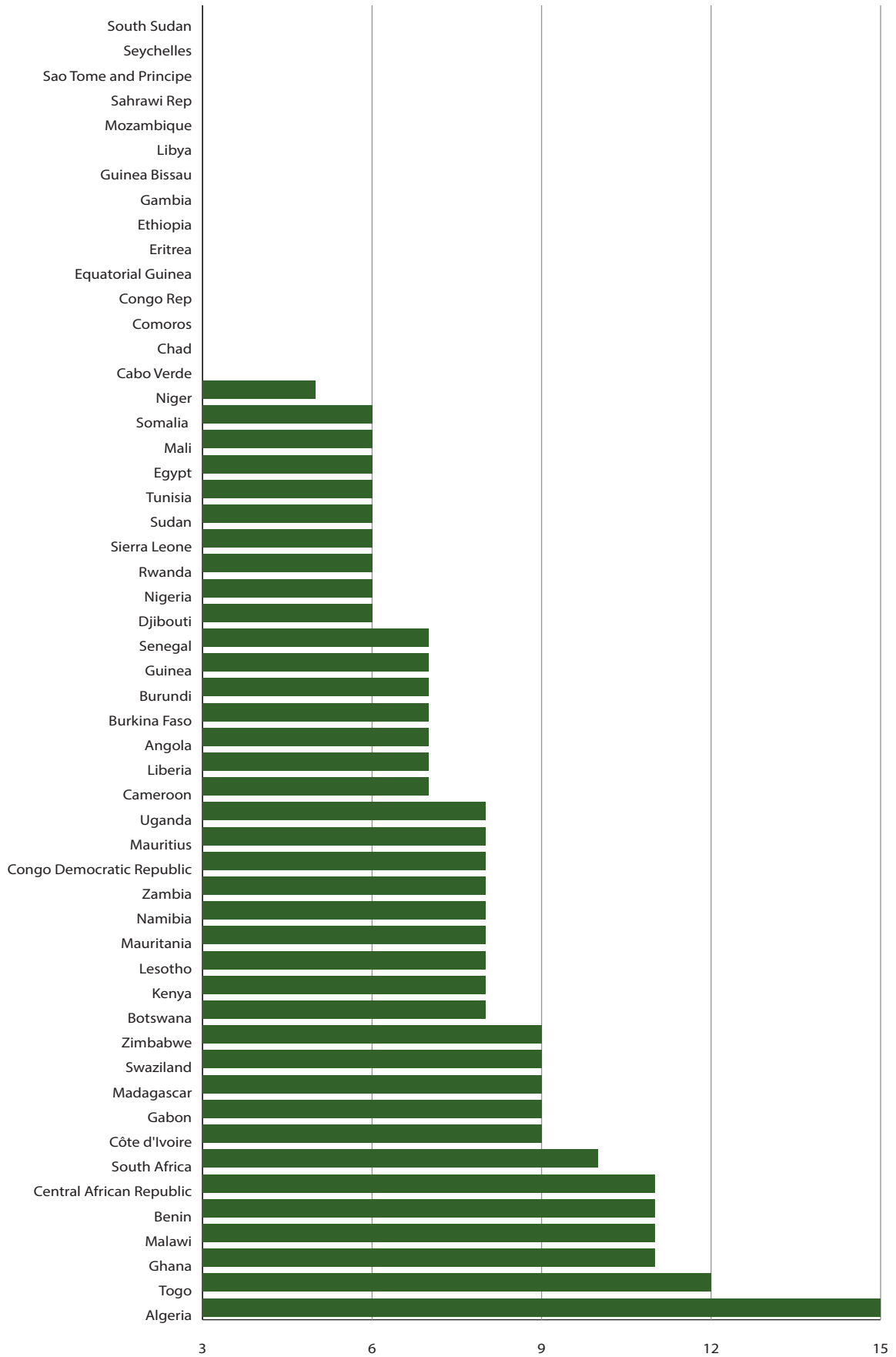
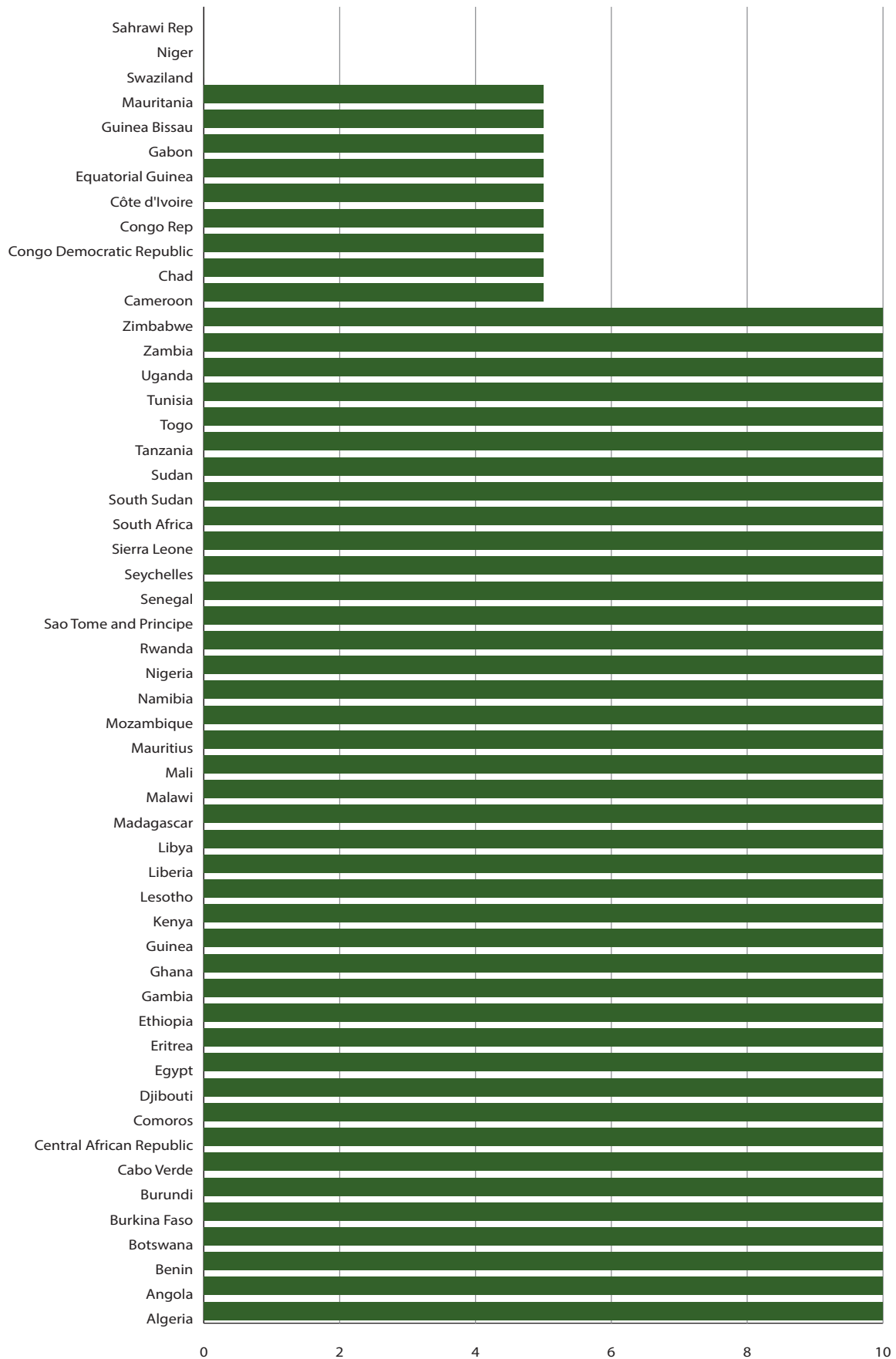


Figure 6: Secure access to land and assets



that study in relation to property is applied here to land and other assets.

Figure 6 shows that the law grants equal rights in the majority of countries (41 out of 50 for which information is available). In the nine remaining countries, women lose their rights to land and other assets when they marry.

3.1.7. Access to land and assets

Land is the key asset for agriculture. It is also an important source of wealth and status in any society. In sub-Saharan Africa, customary land tenure systems widely exclude women from ownership or control of land. Women represent just 15% of landholders, that is, those who exercise management control over an agricultural holding as owners or tenants, or through customary rights. Women's landholdings tend to be smaller and of poorer quality than those held by men. Under many customary legal systems, women's right to inherit land is restricted, and they are vulnerable to dispossession on divorce or widowhood.

The indicator on access to land and assets is one of the most difficult to collect through typical surveys on agriculture or living conditions, which generally ask the question at the household level and presuppose that the owner is the household head. Most data are therefore available disaggregated by sex of the household head, which does not help much.

The set of data gathered for the scorecard on countries comes from the recent round of Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), in the chapter on "Women's empowerment and demographic and health outcomes". In this sense, it is the response to the same questions in all countries (but limited to the population aged 15-49): 1) Do you own this or any other house alone or jointly with someone else?; 2) Do you own any land either alone or jointly with someone else? Ratios have been calculated for the response "alone". Assets are limited to houses.

Among the 25 countries for which data were collected, the three that reach parity or above are Malawi at parity, South Africa at 12 and Comoros at 15. Only eight countries reach or exceed mid-parity, five of them in Southern Africa, and 17 are below mid-parity. In Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Guinea, Kenya, Nigeria, Togo and Uganda, women barely own 20 per cent of what is owned by their male counterparts.

The detailed results in the statistical annex do not show significant differences between ownership of land and ownership of houses.

The discrepancy between the input indicator on secure access to land and assets and the actual situation of ownership stresses the powerlessness of positive laws that grant equal rights in most countries as opposed to the strength of customary laws.

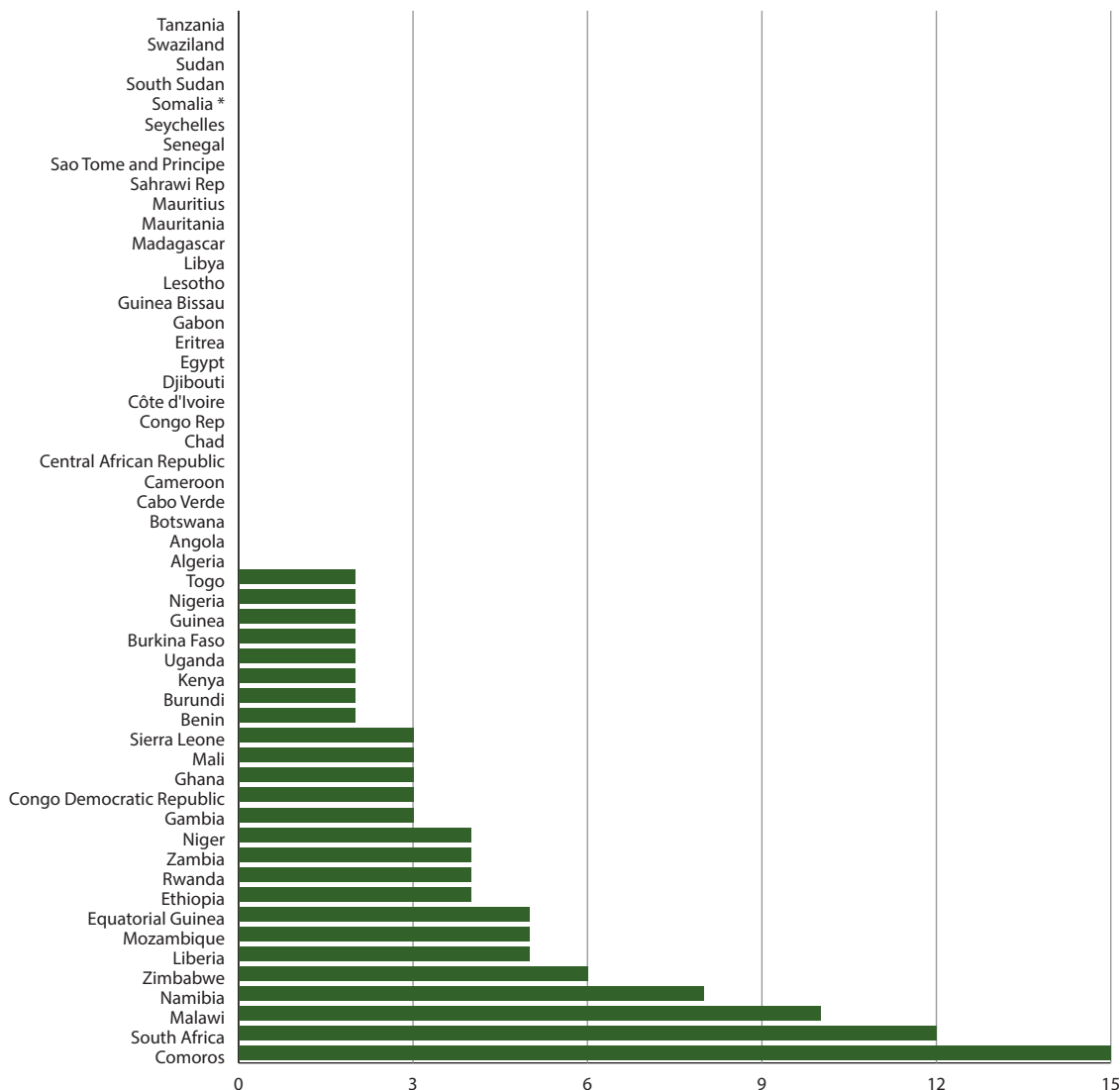
It is also interesting – and paradoxical – to see that countries such as Benin, Togo and, Ghana are ranked at a low level for access to land and assets as compared to their high rank for access to credit. The good news is that women so badly endowed with assets succeed in raising funds from financial institutions despite their lack of collateral, and the paradox is that the financial institutions accept to lend in the absence of collateral.

Access to land and assets is measured by the ratio of the proportion of women (or men) who responded to the two following questions in the DHS surveys: i) Do you own this or any other house alone or jointly with someone else? ii) Do you own any land either alone or jointly with someone else? Ratios have been calculated for the response "alone". Assets are limited to houses

3.1.8. Land tenure reform is a complex subject in any country

Land reforms do not always work to the benefit of women, for example where formal land title is vested in men at the expense of customary usage rights that benefited women. Ethiopia and Rwanda

Figure 7: Access to land and assets



have both sought to address this problem by mandating that land be held jointly by spouses, greatly increasing women’s land ownership and giving them greater inheritance rights and protection in the event of divorce.

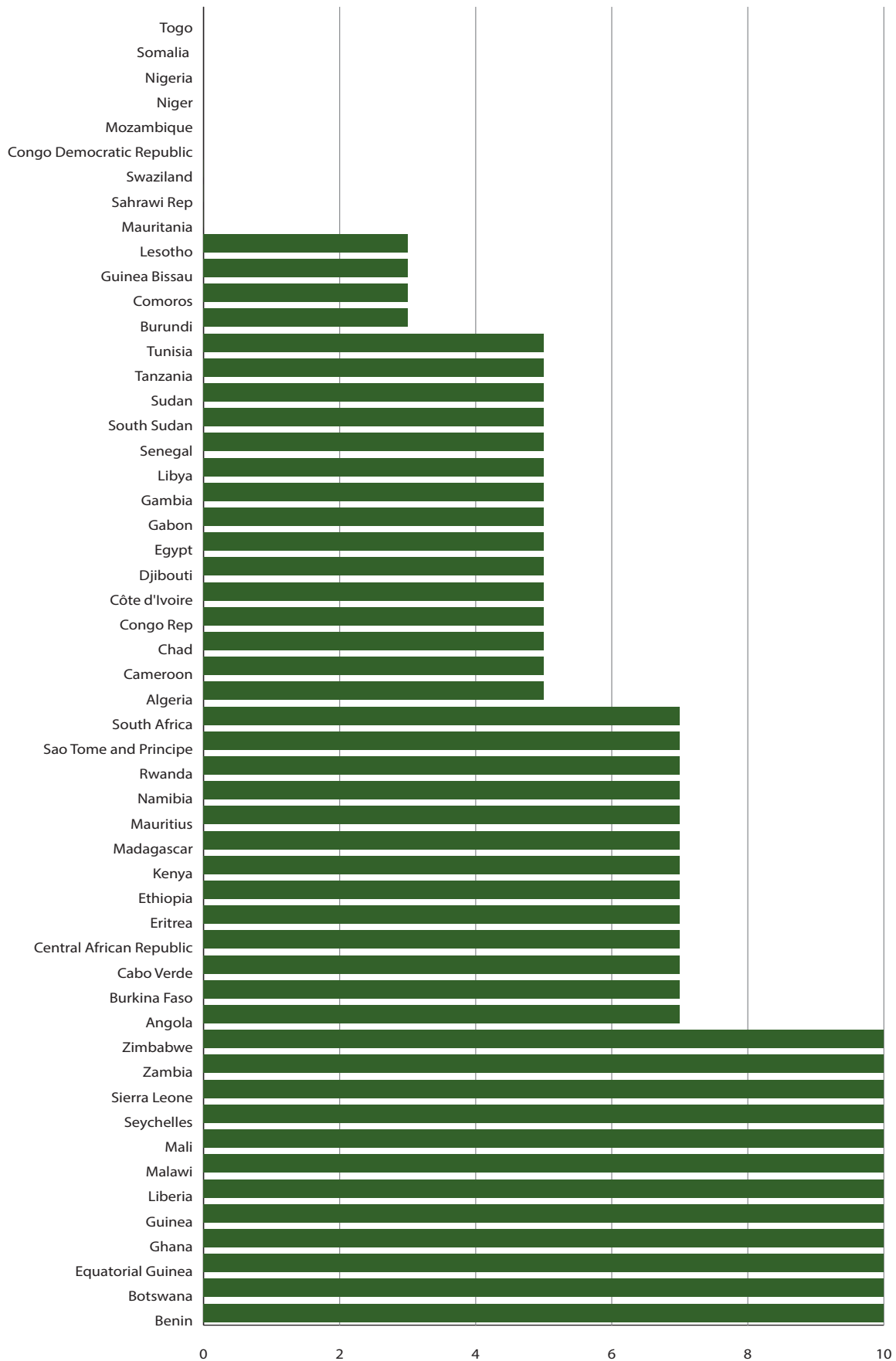
The question of how to strengthen women’s property rights is therefore complex, and it needs to be assessed carefully in each context. Yet it is clear that more secure land rights can deliver both greater protection for women and greater incentive and opportunity to develop more productive agriculture.

3.1.9. Property rights

Securing women’s property rights unlocks their economic opportunities. Property rights not only increase women’s financial security, they also uplift their bargaining power within the household (increasing their ability to move freely, negotiate the right to work, and control their income). Access to assets has also been linked to gains in family welfare, such as children’s health.

Despite these advances, regional and local gender asset gaps persist in property ownership, particularly of major assets. Traditionally, women own less property than men and their property rights are less secure. And women in informal unions may have

Figure 8: Property rights



even less secure property rights than other groups of women. In Rwanda after evidence demonstrated that titling policies were systematically overlooking women in informal unions, land registration forms were revised to be more inclusive of them.

The Property rights input indicator is measured by responses to the following questions: i) Who legally administers property during marriage? Responses are scored as follows: husband = 0; both = 1 and original owner = 2; ii) Inheritance rights of daughters, with responses scored as follows: unequal rights = 0; equal rights = 1; and iii) Inheritance rights of widows, with responses scored as follows: unequal rights = 0; equal rights = 1. The average is scaled up on a scale of 0 to 10.

The main source of information for this input indicator is the World Bank, "Women, Business and the Law 2016".

Figure 8 shows that 12 countries obtain the maximum score of 10 which means that they fulfil the three dimensions, 13 countries reach a score of 7 and 3 countries the score of 0. Four countries obtain a score of 3. The median is at 7 but the mode is at 5, which gathers the highest number of countries (15). Most of these 15 countries obtain this score thanks to the fulfilling of the first of the three dimensions, the original owner continuing to administer her (his) property during marriage. Details are provided in the statistical annex.

3.1.10. Inheritance

One reason for gaps between women's ownership of assets and men's may be inheritance. Often, inheritance offers the surest opportunity for both men and women to own land or housing. A 2014 study in Ghana found that 30% of owner-occupied dwellings were inherited or received as gifts. Where inheritance rights for men and women are unequal under the law, women may be less likely to own land or housing.

Access to assets through inheritance is particularly important for widows, who may depend on inheritance for economic security and survival. In many African countries, female surviving spouses do not have the same inheritance rights as their male counterparts. Indeed, the law does not give equal inheritance rights to widows in Burundi, Guinea, Kenya, Mauritania, Senegal, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Tunisia, Algeria, Libya, Egypt and Mauritania.

3.1.11. Marital property regimes

Marital property regimes determine the allocation of property ownership and management between spouses during the marriage and at its dissolution through death or divorce. These rules have a direct impact on women's financial inclusion and can help or deter their access to credit.

Different marital property regimes have different consequences for the allocation of property within households. Each country sets its default regime in the family or personal status law. Full and partial

Box 2: Reforming customary law to increase women's right to land in Rwanda

In rural areas of Rwanda, women, particularly widows and divorced women, face severe obstacles protecting and upholding their interests in land, resulting in diminishing land tenure security. Women's rights under customary law are weak, and while reforms, particularly the Matrimonial Regimes, Liberties and Succession Law of 1999, have strengthened their statutory land rights, such entitlements have limited practical value in cases where women are married under customary law. A pilot intervention by a Belgian NGO established that it can be useful to also reform customary law in order to expand women's rights to land under customary regulations. The pilot established that the most successful approach has been to encourage the transformation of customary practices in ways that also meet the interests of male power holders. Involving men, rather than challenging them, and appealing to their sense of responsibility for the well-being of female family and community members, can have positive outcomes, as can reflection and debate within communities on how to align customary practices to statutory law.

Source: Lankhorst and Veldman (2011). Engaging with Customary Law to Create Scope for Realising Women's Formally protected Land Rights in Rwanda, Working Paper No 5, International Development Law Organization, University of Leiden.

default community property (joint property) regimes offer equal access to property, including land, for both spouses during and after marriage. These are generally beneficial to women as long as the effects of the marital property regimes are not negated by other laws. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, for example, the Family Code vests control of joint property solely in the husband.

3.2. Key results on the Women's social rights cluster

The cluster is made up of 11 sectors. These are: violence against women; female genital mutilation; child marriage; child labour; education; health; maternal health; HIV; access to water and sanitation; social protection; and access to electricity.

Much evidence, including country Beijing+20 reports, points to the improvement in women's education with the greatest strides registered in primary education. However, an analysis of the social outlook of African women shows pervasive violation of women's and girls' rights.

3.2.1. Violence against women (VAW)

VAW is the violation of women's and girls' basic human rights. As figure 9 shows, VAW is pervasive in a number of countries. Of 23 countries for which data are available, 14 have very high VAW prevalence rate estimated between 30% and 54%. These countries include Malawi, Zambia, Kenya, São Tomé and Príncipe, Sierra Leone, Mali, Gabon, Mozambique, Tanzania, Congo Democratic Republic, Uganda, Cameroon and Zimbabwe, while Equatorial Guinea accounts for a very high prevalence rate of 54%.

The total score for violence against women is the arithmetical mean of: i) an input indicator on the existence or not of a national law and whether the law includes aggravating penalties for crimes against spouses and family members; ii) two output indicators that are the proportions of women/men

agreeing that wife beating is justified for at least one of the reasons listed in the question; and iii) two outcome indicators on the proportion of women and girls aged 15 and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months and of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months. Negative indicators are inverted for scoring.

The main cause of VAW is gender inequality and women's subordination. VAW has several socio-economic costs i.e. (1) direct cost such as medical costs, costs for judiciary assistance; (2) indirect costs including loss of income because of the victims' inability to work; psychological cost. In addition, VAW has an intergenerational cost because of its impact on children living in the home, which contributes to perpetuating VAW.

VAW affects not just women and girls. It also affects the community and the country's socio-economic development prospects. A study carried out by the ECA estimated the economic cost of VAW between 1% and 12% of a country's GDP¹⁰. The link between violence against women and development is therefore very strong.

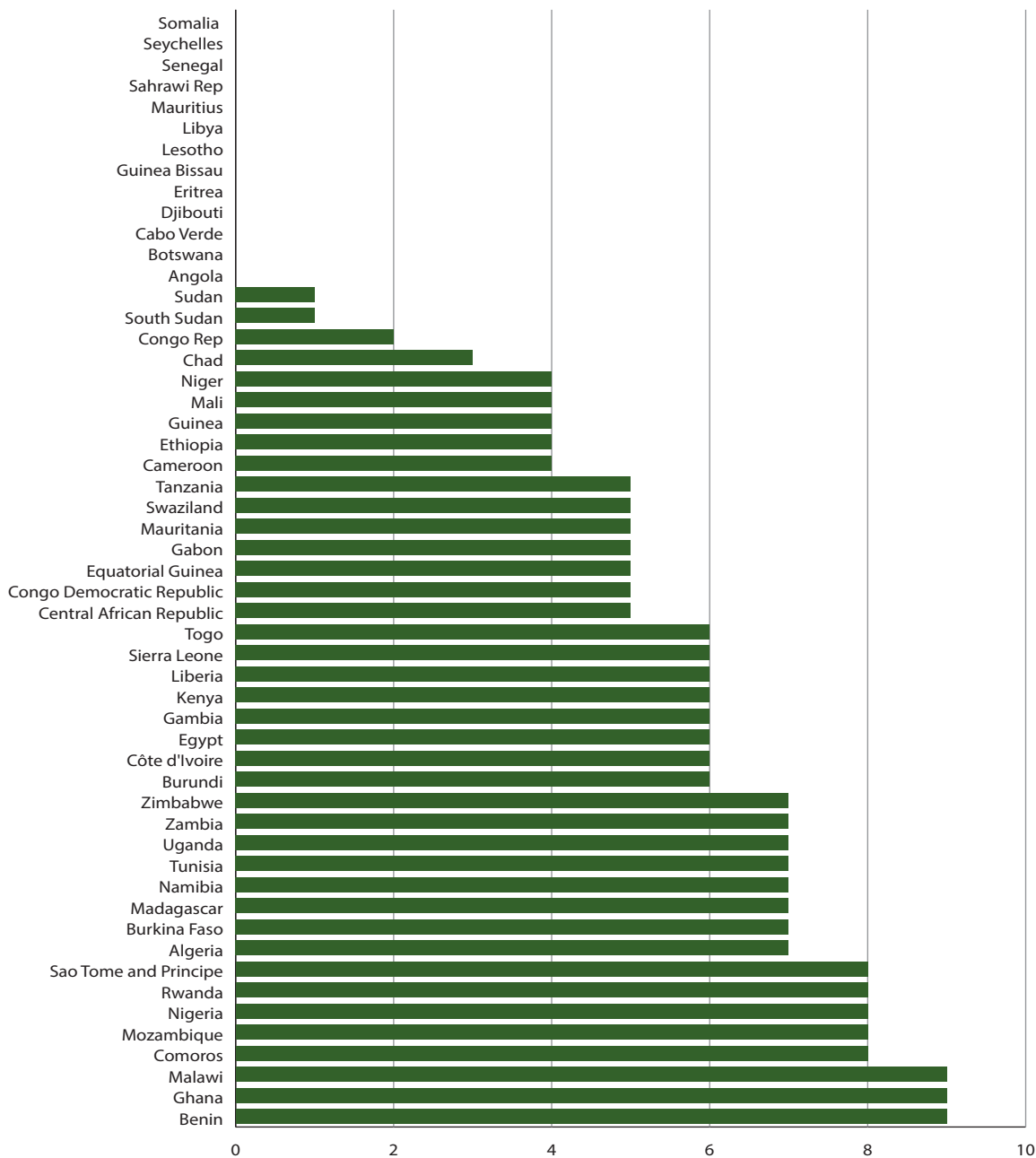
The three countries with the best VAW score¹¹ (9) are Benin, Ghana and Malawi. These countries have national laws with aggravating penalties for crimes against a spouse or family member, attitudes towards VAW are rather few to justify it, and for Malawi a prevalence rate rather high but close to the median.

There are 25 countries for which data are available that have not yet adopted laws on VAW. A further nine countries have laws, but without aggravating penalties. Most of these are among 16 countries that scored at 5 or less. This situation calls for member States to adopt appropriate measures

10 ECA UN WOMEN (2013). 'African Women Report 2013 : The socio-economic costs of violence against women ».

11 Best VAW score refer the aggregate scoring of higher percentage of women and men disagreeing on the attitude towards VAW plus proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, in the last 12 months.

Figure 9: Prevalence of VAW

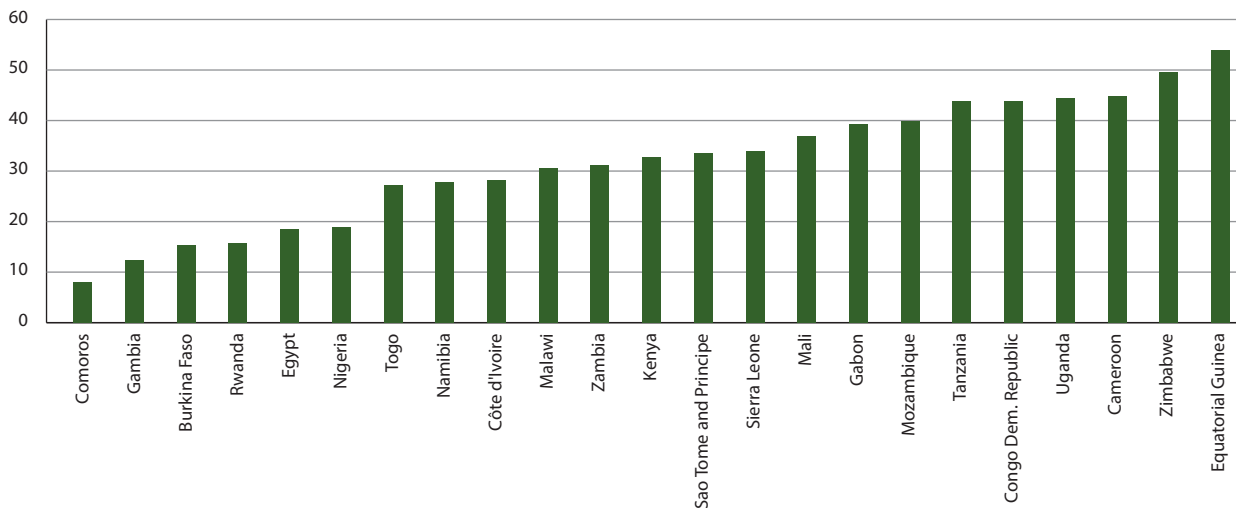


Source: Authors' compilations from country DHS and MICS surveys

to enforce laws that prevent and punish VAW. In addition they need to invest in accurate statistics on the prevalence, cost and impact of VAW on women and girls, their communities and their development prospects. Such statistics would be used to inform policies and programmes for the empowerment of women/girls and to secure and protect their rights.

3.2.2. Female Genital Mutilations (FGM)

FGM is a critical violation of women's and girls' rights to physical integrity, privacy and freedom from violence, which are all protected by a number of international legal instruments, namely the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention of the Child, together with social and cultural rights.

Figure 10: Prevalence of FGM

Source: Authors' compilations from country DHS and MICS Surveys

As shown in Figure 10, prevalence of FGM is particularly high (nearly 50% or more, up to 99 per cent) in 12 of the 25 countries for which data are available.

FGM is a deeply rooted cultural practice that is prevalent. It is often a prerequisite for a variety of social events including marriage, and may determine the status of women in their communities and societies. Yet, it causes several physical and mental damage, sometimes resulting in deaths or disabilities.

For Female Genital Mutilations, the scoring is based on two types of indicators: attitudes (proportion of women/men who think that it must continue) and prevalence. All indicators are inverted for scoring.

3.2.3. Child marriage

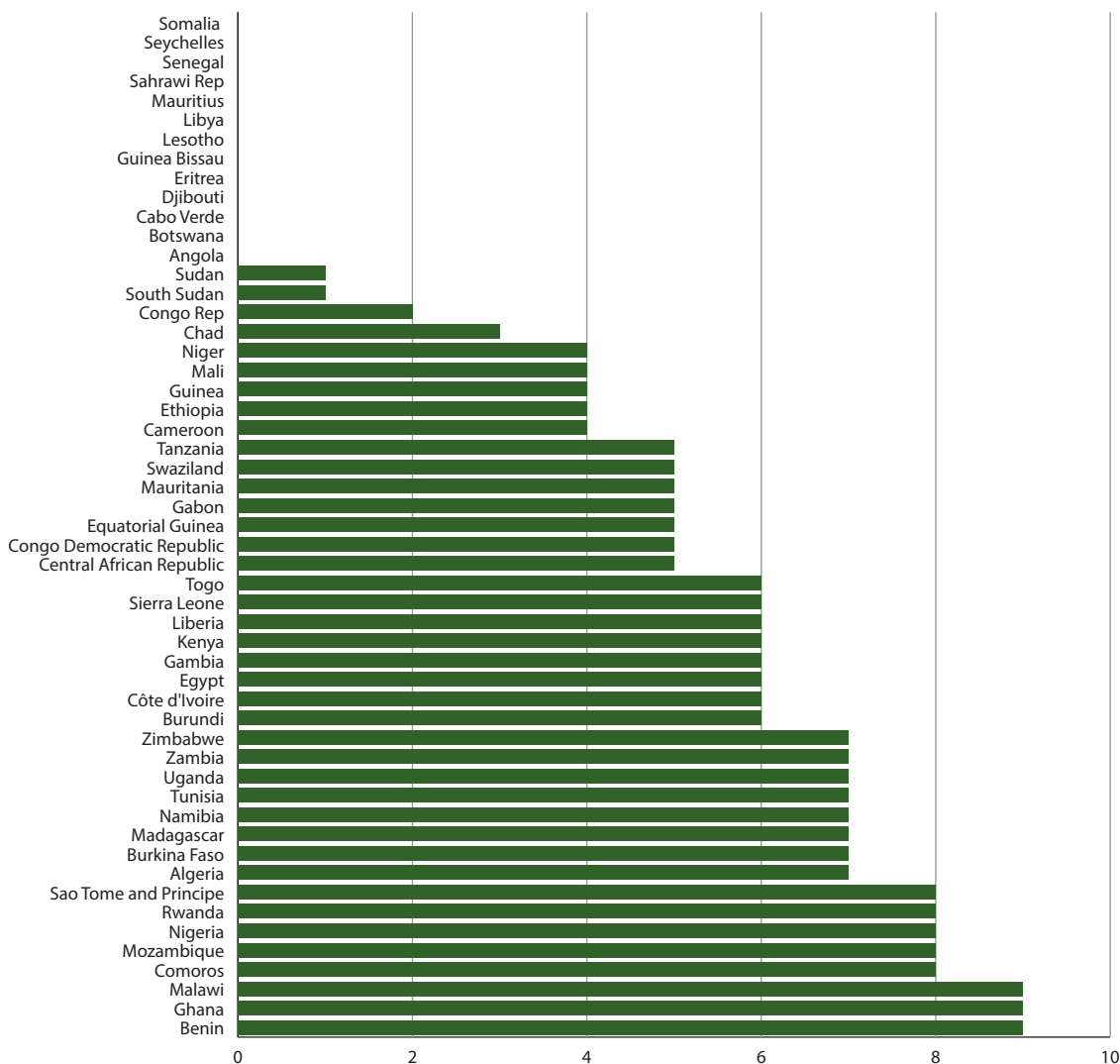
Child marriage is a critical violation of a child's basic right. The prevalence of child marriage is still very high in some countries such as Chad, the Central African Republic and Niger, and exceeds 20 per cent in 22 countries as shown in Figure 11.

The input indicator for child marriage is scored 0 if child marriage is legalised, 5 if legal frameworks exist that put the minimum age at 18 or above for both sexes but courts can pronounce exceptions upon request "for important reasons", and 10 if legal frameworks exist that put the minimum age at 18 or above for both sexes, with no or insignificant exceptions. The outcome indicator is the prevalence of child marriage, measured by the proportion of women aged 15-19 who are married.

Figure 11 measures the performance of countries in tackling child marriage¹². It shows that Rwanda has the highest score of 10 with a low prevalence rate. With a score of 9, we find seven countries, the Republic of Congo, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Uganda. All seven score 10 for their legal frameworks. At the bottom of the list, Chad and Niger, with a score of 2 and Burkina Faso and Mali, with a score of 3 are countries where child marriage is not legalised and its prevalence is very high (between 30 and 60 per cent). The median score is 6 with 24 countries at this level or below.

¹² Child marriage: Indicators under this indicator refer existence of national law, and percentage of girls/women aged 15-19 who are not married.

Figure 11: Child Marriage



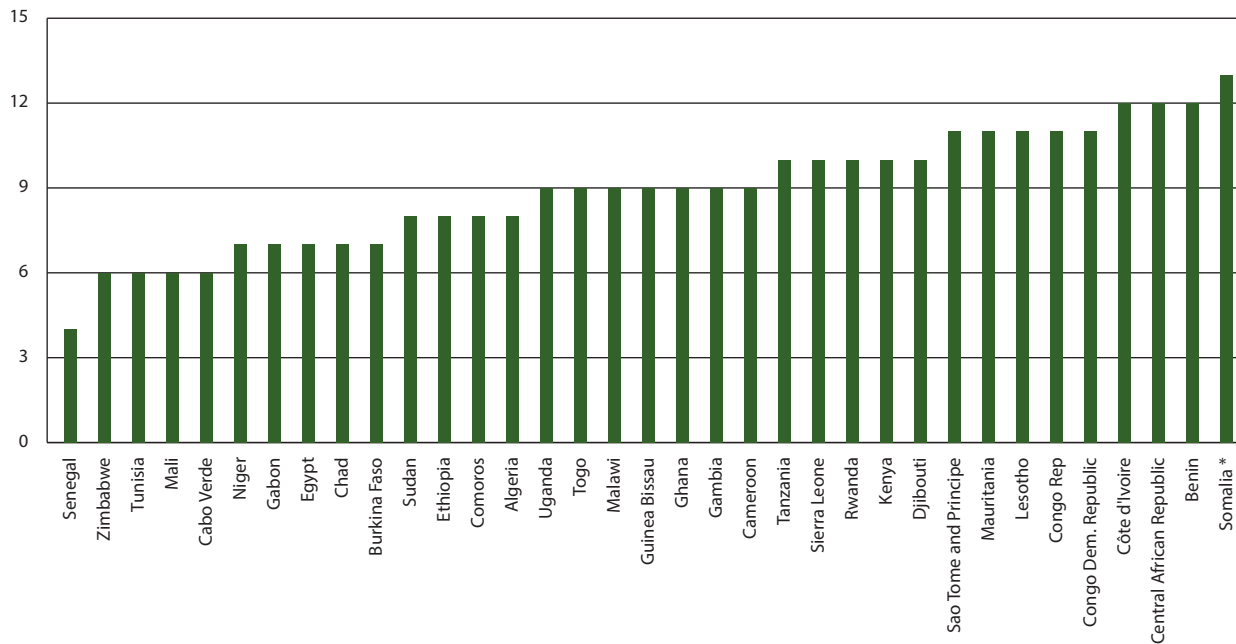
Source: Authors' compilations from country DHS and MICS surveys

3.2.4. Child labour

The ILO defines child labour as work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and dignity, and that is harmful to their physical and mental development. Many countries have conducted ad hoc surveys or included special modules in their household surveys to measure the prevalence of child work and child labour in particular. The sources for this indicator are a combination of labour force surveys, DHS reports and other multipurpose household surveys. Child labour is usually measured for the age group of 5-16. Data are available for 35 countries.

Figure 12 shows the scored ratio of girls to boys in child labour. A ratio higher than 10 means that girls exceed boys in child labour and a ratio lower than 10 means boys exceed girls. In 21 countries the proportion of boys in the age group of 5-16 is higher than the proportion of girls in the same age group in child labour and in five more countries, there are proportionally as many girls as boys. In nine countries the proportion of girls in child labour exceeds the proportion of boys.

The scoring for child labour takes into account the prevalence of child labour among girls (the complement of prevalence to 100 per cent) and the inverted ratio of girls to boys in child labour.

Figure 12: Ratio girls to boys in child labour

Source: Authors' compilations from National Labour Force Surveys, Multi-purpose Household Surveys, DHS

3.2.5. Education

Access to quality education is a basic human right, which women and men, boys and girls should enjoy irrespective of their gender, location, class and ethnic group. However, girls and women all over the world, including in Africa, are often denied the right to education because of cultural and social norms, which give preference to boys' and men's education.

Widespread advocacy and awareness raising on the continent have contributed to notable progress in girls' and women's education. The most recent evidence shows that Africa has made strides in education. Efforts towards achieving better education for all are key to development in general and women's empowerment in particular.

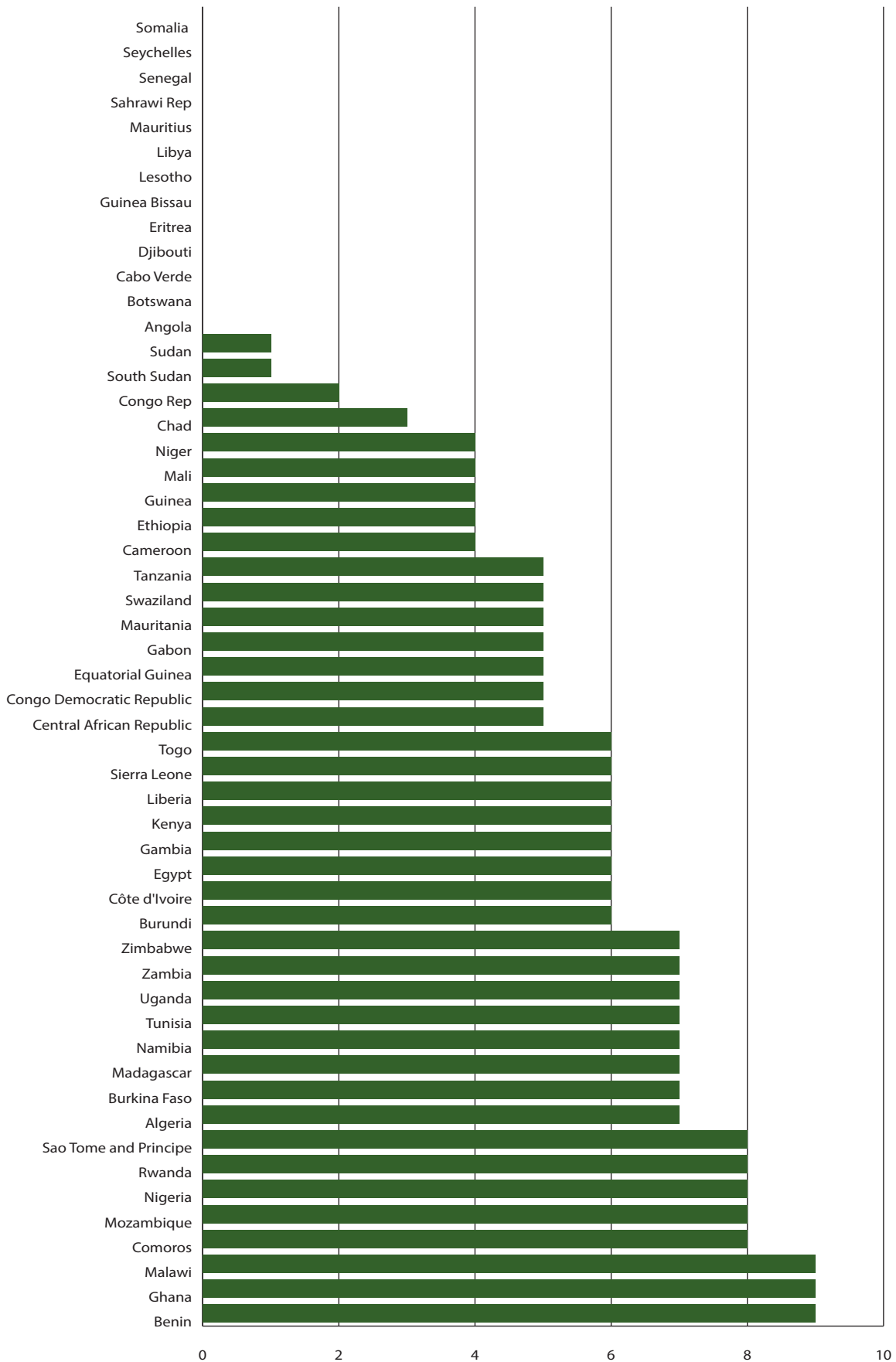
The scorecard does not measure the achievements obtained in terms of literacy and education, but rather aims at measuring whether girls and women have equally benefited from education policies conducted in recent years.

Two outcome indicators used for education are the ratios of females to males' attendance rates for primary education and the ratios of adult females to males' literacy rates, not the levels of education or literacy rates of the population. It should be noted also that the indicator for primary education is an indicator of attendance, not of enrolment. The data used come from household surveys and not from education systems. Sources are mixed, comprising DHS and multipurpose household surveys.

Two other indicators that have tentatively been collected are the dropout rate in primary education and the enrolment rate in tertiary education. However at this stage, the number of countries for which it has been possible to collect this information is too small to be used in the computation of the ratios for the scorecard.

Figure 13 shows four countries ranking at the top with a score of 10 (Algeria, Cabo Verde, Swaziland and Zimbabwe), followed by 11 countries scored at 9 (Botswana, the Republic of Congo, Equatorial

Figure 13: Education



Guinea, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda, São Tomé and Príncipe, Tanzania and Tunisia).

At the bottom, two countries are scored at 4 (Guinea and South Sudan) and another two countries at 5 (Niger and Mali). The median score is 8, with eight countries at this level.

3.2.6. Health

Country's Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and the Multiple Indicators Cluster Surveys (MICS) are the main sources used for health.

The score for health is based on three indicators: i) the percentage of women aged 15-49 who reported that they have serious problems in accessing health care for themselves when they are sick (output indicator); ii) the percentage of women aged 15-49 who have had a live birth or who are pregnant with their first child or the percentage who have begun childbearing (teenage pregnancies outcome indicator); and iii) the percentage of currently married women aged 15-49 with unmet need for family planning (output indicator). As they are negative indicators, their complement to 100 per

cent is taken for the scoring on a scale of 1 to 10 and their mean provides the final score.

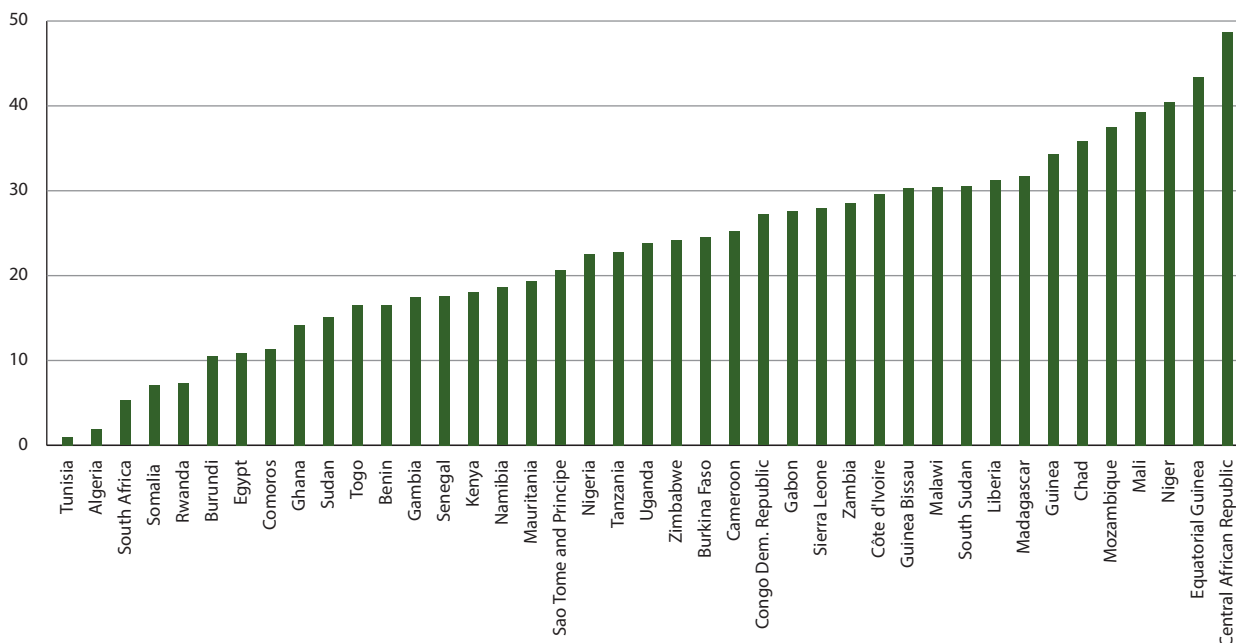
Teenage pregnancies have a huge impact on the indicator of health and figure 14 presents the proportion of young women in this situation by country.

3.2.7. Maternal Health

The scoring for maternal health is based on two output indicators, namely: (i) the proportion of women having received antenatal care from a skilled provider, at least once; and (ii) the proportion delivered by a skilled provider; and one outcome indicator, the maternal mortality ratio). This last indicator has been scored on a scale from 0 (ratios higher than 1000) to 10 (ratios lower than 100).

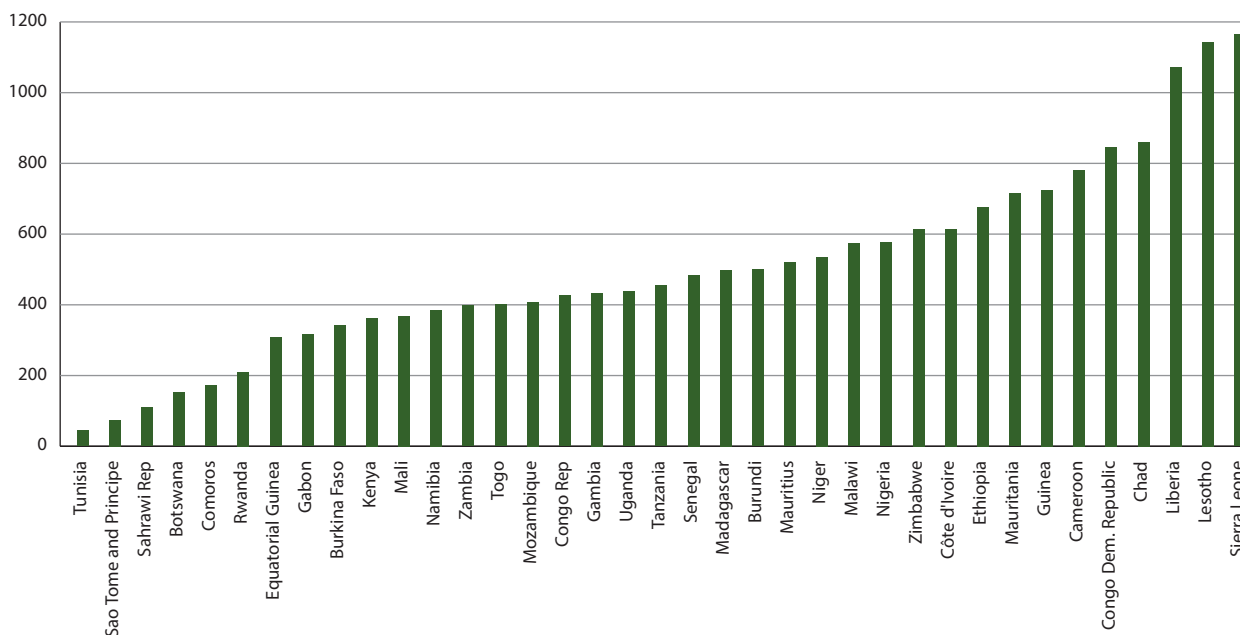
Figure 15 provides the levels of maternal mortality ratios for the most recent period (since 2009-10). The lowest levels are observed in Tunisia (44.8 for 100,000 live-births), São Tomé and Príncipe (74), the Sahrawi Republic (110), Botswana (151.6), Comoros (172) and Rwanda (210), and the highest in Liberia (1072), Lesotho (1143) and Sierra Leone (1165).

Figure 14: Teenage pregnancies



Source: Authors' compilation from country DHS and MICS Surveys

Figure 15: Maternal mortality ratio



Source: Authors' compilation from country DHS and MICS Surveys

The above findings point to the unacceptable high maternal mortality rates in Africa. Though a number of countries have made important efforts to halve their level of mortality rates since 1990, half of the mortality deaths that occur in developing countries (99 per cent of maternal deaths globally) occur in Sub-Saharan Africa.

African women die while giving birth for a number of reasons including haemorrhage, sepsis, hypertensive disorders, unsafe abortion and prolonged obstructed labour.

The WHO found that 80 per cent of maternal deaths could be averted if women had access to essential basic health care services. Tackling maternal mortality is a critical policy issue that calls for urgent policy action.

3.2.8. HIV

For HIV also, the main source of data is the DHS and MICS surveys.

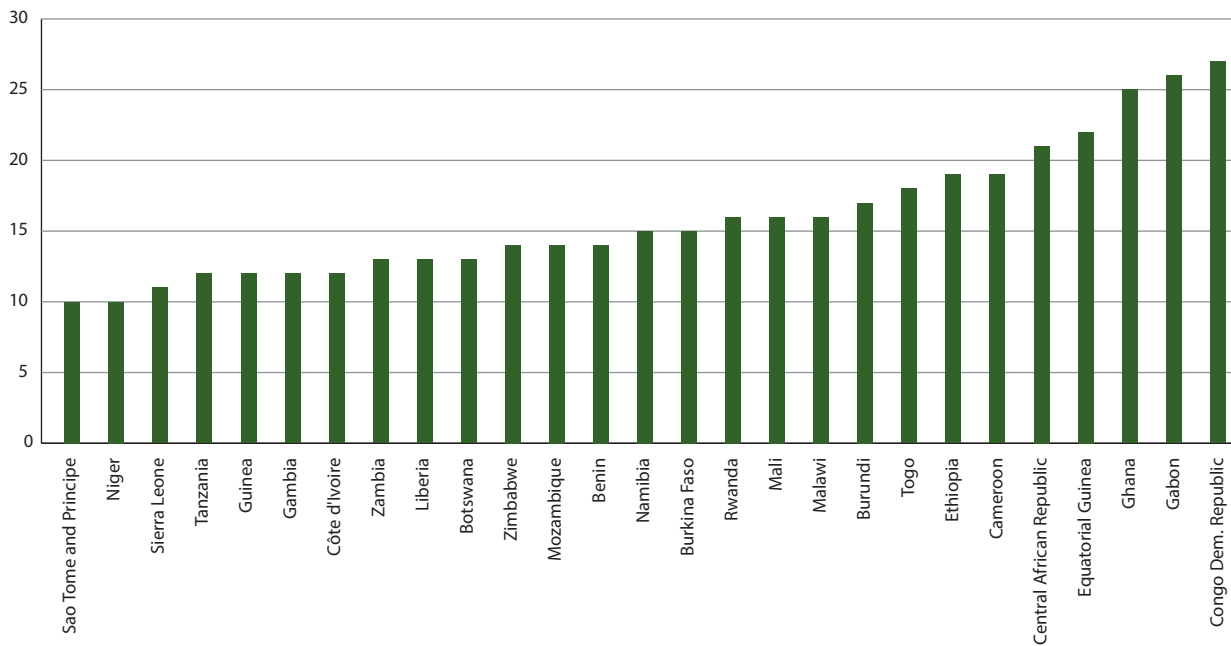
The scoring is based on two output indicators (the ratio of females to males having knowledge of HIV prevention methods, and the ratio of females to males (15-24) having comprehensive knowledge

about AIDS) and one outcome indicator (female HIV prevalence over male, a negative indicator that is scored inversely to the prevalence).

Figure 16 shows the ratio of HIV prevalence for 28 countries. In all countries, except in São Tomé and Príncipe and in Niger where the prevalence rates are low, female prevalence rates exceed males'. And in five countries (Central African Republic, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Gabon and Congo Democratic Republic), it exceeds this by more than double the rate.

Three countries scored at 9 for the HIV indicator are Liberia, Namibia and Rwanda. That means that in these countries, female HIV prevalence is indeed higher than male's, but not by a great amount, that women are generally more aware than men about HIV prevention methods, and that young females have better knowledge about AIDS. The output indicators show that campaigns of information, among the youth in particular, have been effective.

Eleven countries have a score of 8, and the median score is at 7. At the bottom of the list, Chad is scored at 4, while the Central African Republic, the

Figure 16: Ratio HIV prevalence (females/males)

Source: Authors' compilation from country DHS and MICS Surveys

Democratic Republic of Congo and the Republic of Congo are scored at 5.

The underlying factors of women's high HIV prevalence rate include social and cultural norms as well as the related problem of women's subordination as a factor preventing women from negotiating safe sexual relationships. Poverty forces women into prostitution, exposing them to HIV infection.

3.2.9. Access to water and sanitation

Although data on access to water and sanitation is widely collected by most types of household surveys, the definitions are not yet harmonised between time and distance for fetching water, for example, and between shared and not shared facilities for sanitation. The DHS and MICS remain the main sources of data for these indicators.

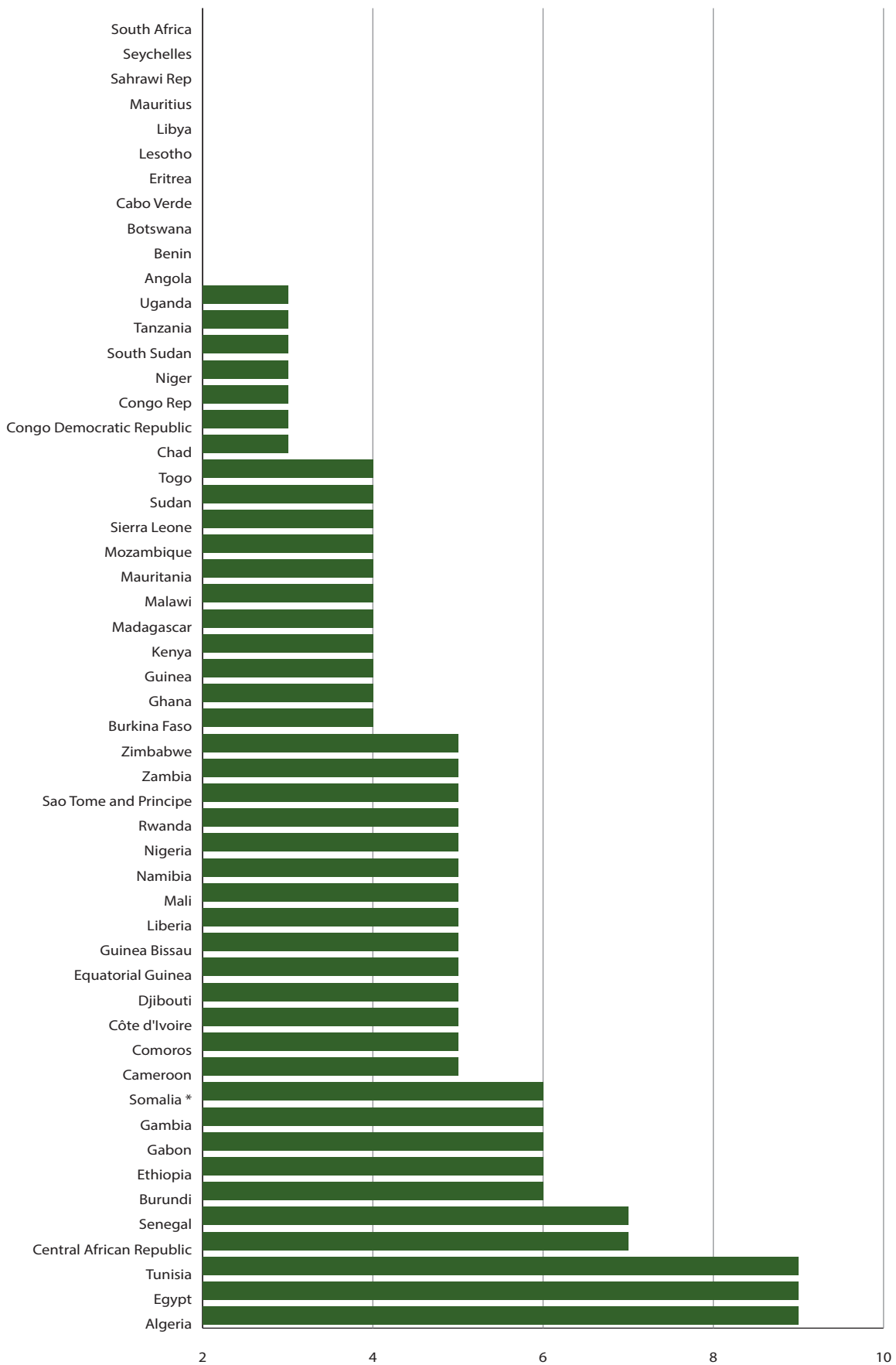
The first outcome indicator is the time taken to obtain drinking water, including the population with water available at home and the population that requires less than a 30-minute round trip to collect water. Data on the proportion of women

who usually fetch drinking water were collected but not used in scoring. The second outcome indicator is the type of sanitation facility. It includes the population with improved, not shared facility (improved, shared facility is not taken into account).

The scoring was calculated on a scale of 0 to 10 by the simple arithmetical mean of the two indicators.

As reflected in Figure 17, three countries, Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia, score 9. They are followed by the Central African Republic and Senegal with a score of 7, and Burundi, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia and Somalia with 6. The median score is 5. Chad, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Congo, Niger, South Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda close the list with a score of 4. Alarming, access to water and sanitation remains a major issue, especially for women who have to walk long distances and many hours to fetch water for their families and communities. Figure 17 shows that no country has achieved parity with respect to access to water and sanitation. Only Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia with the score of 9 are itching toward parity, the rest of the countries are lagging. Studies have

Figure 17: Access to water and sanitation



Source: Authors' compilations from country DHS and MICS surveys

found that women in Sub-Saharan Africa spend about 40 billion hours a year collecting water.

3.2.10. Access to electricity

Many sources can be used for this indicator as most household surveys and population censuses collect such information.

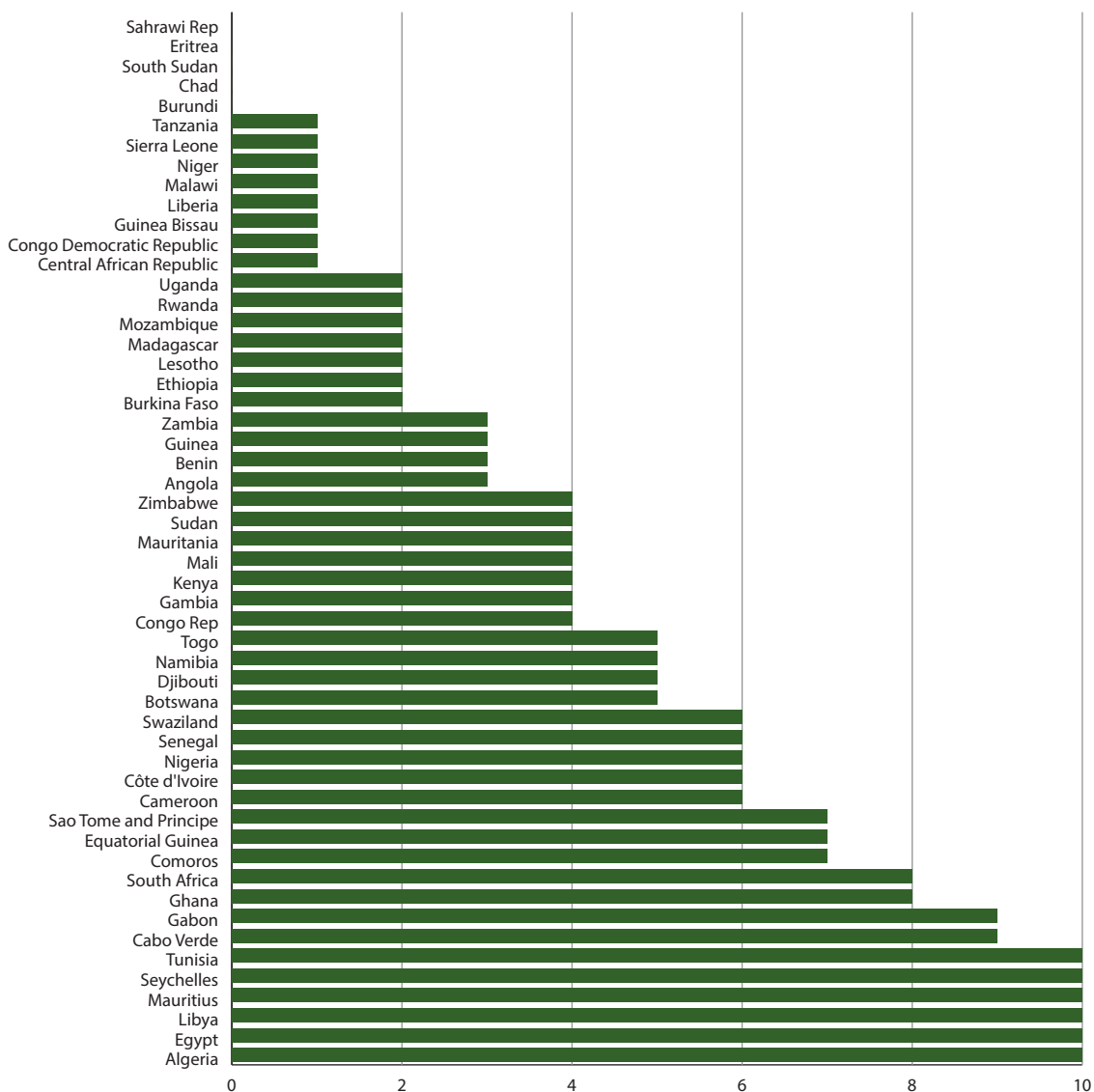
As Figure 18 shows, there are six countries in which the whole population has access to electricity. They are Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mauritius, the Seychelles and Tunisia. Cabo Verde and Gabon follow with 90 per cent or more of the population and Ghana and South Africa with 80 per cent or more of the population.

In Burundi, Chad and South Sudan, less than 5 per cent of the population have access to electricity. Eight more countries that have less than 15 per cent access are Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Malawi, Niger, Sierra Leone and Tanzania.

The median score is 4, which means that in half of the countries of the continent, less than 40 per cent of the population has access to electricity.

Like access to water and sanitation, access to electricity is critical to address women's unpaid work and time poverty. It facilitates the conciliation of professional activities and housework. Conversely,

Figure 18: Access to Electricity



limited or lack of access to electricity means that women and girls have to collect firewood for cooking and heating with negative impact on their time, their health and their country's environment.

3.2.11. Social Protection

The sources of information are diverse. The recent rounds of DHS have questions on the type of health insurance coverage for women and men (employed or not). These cover employer-based insurance, mutual health organisation/community based insurance, privately purchased commercial insurance, etc. Furthermore, labour force surveys, where they exist, try to ask whether the worker pays for social security or social protection, or is covered by any health insurance. Lastly some countries have improved their statistics of social security and can provide detailed information disaggregated by sex. As a consequence, recent data have been made available of this indicator and it is interesting to compare the situation across African countries even if the information is not homogeneous.

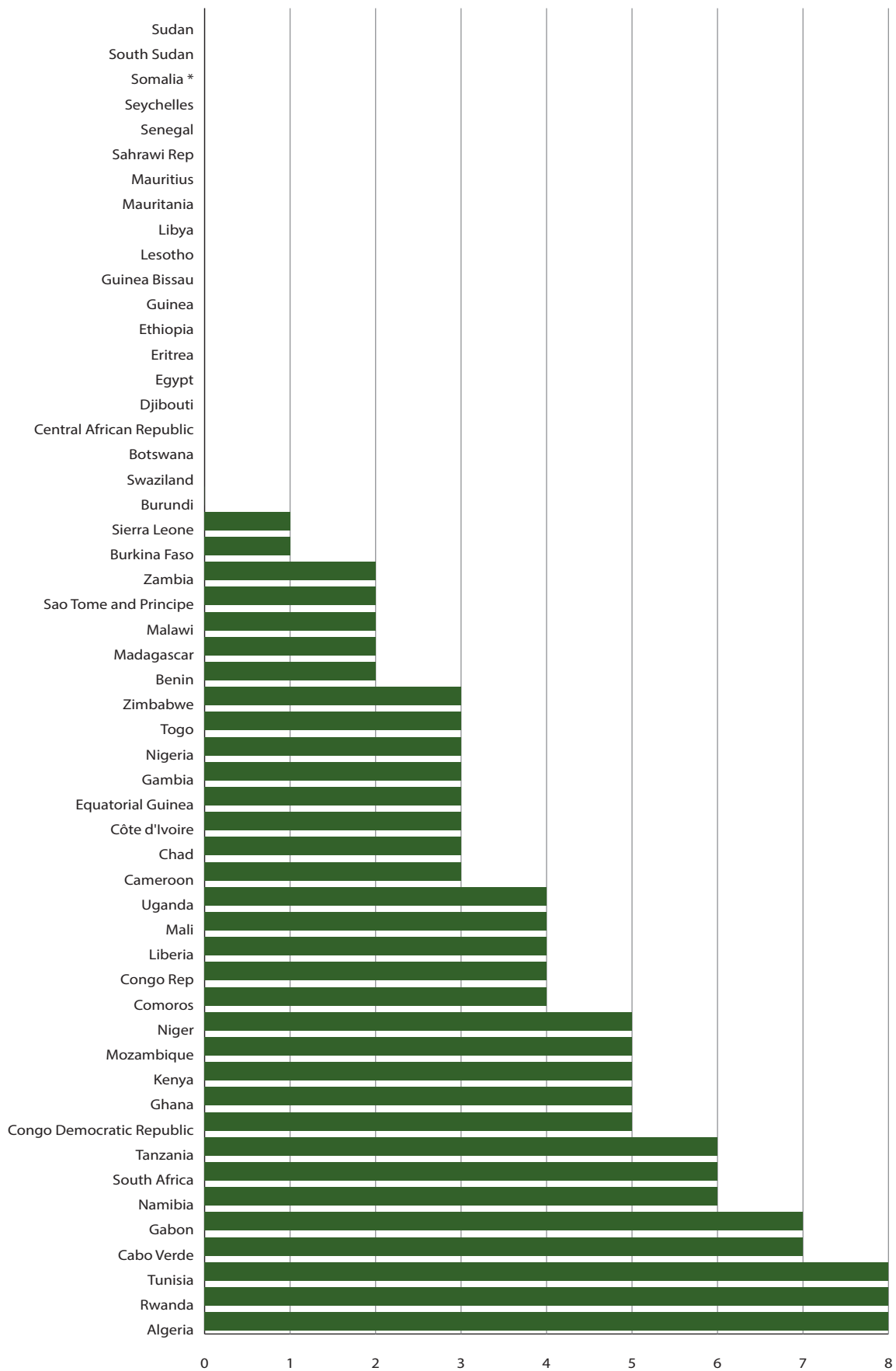
The indicator is the ratio of females to males for the labour force (or the population) affiliated or registered at (or benefitting from) a social security or health insurance institution. It does not inform on the extension of the health coverage or social protection in the countries, but only on the gender gap in this area.

Figure 19 presents the findings for 34 countries. None of the countries reach parity. Only 13 countries reach half-parity.

In three countries, Algeria, Rwanda, Tunisia, the score is at 8. This means that the female population covered by social protection represents around 80 per cent of the male population, or 20 per cent under parity. In Algeria the data are extracted from the labour force survey and cover the labour force. In Rwanda data are extracted from a multipurpose household survey and cover the whole population, while in Tunisia, the information comes from the social security system and covers the labour force.

In the eight countries at the bottom of the list, the proportion of women covered by health insurance represents less than 20 per cent of the proportion of men. One of the reasons is that the majority of the active population is concentrated in the informal sector and is not therefore covered by conventional social protection schemes, which are related to the formal sector. The fact that they often perform indecent jobs in insecure situations (street vending, artisanal mining, cross border trade, etc.,) and do not have access to social protection and security services, exacerbates their poor health status.

Figure 19: Social protection



3.3. Key results on the Women's Political and civil rights Cluster

African countries have made great efforts in securing and protecting women's civil and political rights. The performance registered by Africa in increasing the proportion of women in politics and decision-making has been remarkable, making the continent the third most advanced region in terms of women's participation in national parliaments. In the 2015 Scorecard, two indicators were used in the political cluster. For 2016, the Gender Scorecard has gone further to include four more indicators, namely: (i) gender parity in constitutions; (ii) the percentage of electoral quotas for women defined in the constitutions; (iii) the highest level reached by women in the judiciary; and (iv) affirmative action quotas in local governance. With regard to the last, in spite of the African Union's 50:50 parity campaign, very few countries have met and surpassed this target.

3.3.1. Gains in Women's Representation in the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary:

The continent is also doing very well in terms of constitutional reform, with a total of 34 countries highlighting gender parity in their national constitutions. In all, 16 countries have more than 30% representation in national parliaments, with Rwanda as the world leader with a total of 64%. Several other countries too must be recognised for coming close to parity. Countries with more than 40% of seats in national parliaments held by women are Mozambique, Namibia, Senegal, Seychelles and South Africa.

There are a total of 13 countries that have attained 30% or more women's representation at the highest judicial level. Sierra Leone scores 60%, with Zambia close behind at 55.6%. Six other countries with over 40% women's representation at the highest levels of the judiciary are Rwanda, Madagascar, Liberia, Gabon, Djibouti and the Central African Republic.

Another strong signal of Africa's commitment to women's political rights is evident with over 20 countries implementing a quota for affirmative action in local government ranging from 15% to 50%. The leaders in Africa with quotas set at 50% are Cabo Verde, the Congo Democratic Republic and Senegal. This clearly demonstrates that states are following through on their regional and international commitments, such as Article 3 of the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights. There is also regional commitment to Article 9 of the Maputo Protocol for the Right to Participation in the Political and Decision-Making Process, under which States Parties shall take specific positive action to promote participative governance and the equal participation of women in the political life of their countries through affirmative action. A major focus on the adoption and implementation of temporary special measures or quotas is a proven mechanism for increasing the number of women in politics. More and more women in Africa have fair opportunities to campaign and they are receiving training to be effective political candidates and leaders. But there is a need for more engagement with political parties on gender sensitivity, such as internal regulations and practices to promote women's leadership.

3.3.2. Challenges

Worryingly, the number of countries with over 30% representation in national parliaments has decreased from 22 in 2015 to 13 countries in 2016. Moreover, only eight countries have more than 30% of women represented in ministerial positions. Stark gender disparities remain in the political realms. Advancing women's political participation and leadership are central goals of Africa's governments. More and more, women are getting onto ballot papers and attaining political office. The percentage of women in national legislatures has become a standard measure of a country's achievements in women's political participation. In Africa, the average has inched upward, but is still far from reflecting women's share in society. There are large

Box 3: In Rwanda Affirmative Action works

Rwanda is a good example of where affirmative action has guaranteed that women now have the majority positions in political leadership. In 2003, elections in Rwanda placed the country at the top of the IPU's world ranking of women in parliament, displacing the long-time champion, Sweden. These elections were the first in Rwanda since its divisive internal conflict in 1994. In premising the legitimacy of the new parliament on an equal participation of men and women, the drafters of the Rwandan Constitution (adopted in 2003) included a provision to reserve 24 of the 80 seats of the National Assembly for women. The Constitution also includes a quota of 30% for women in the Rwandan Senate. In addition to the reserved seats in the National Assembly, Rwandan electors voted for another 15 women. With a total of 48.8% of women, the newly elected National Assembly of Rwanda came the closest to reaching parity of any national parliament in the world. Strikingly, the percentage of women parliamentarians increased further to 63% in the 2011 elections.

Source: Inter Parliamentary Union, Women Elected in 2003, The Year In perspective, and www.ipu.org/wnm-e/classif.htm

disparities among local government bodies. The discrepancy directly infringes on women's political rights, and can restrict rights in other areas, given the central role that national legislatures and local bodies have in formulating, implementing, and monitoring laws and budgets.

This is why 2016 is the year of Human Rights with a focus on the Rights of Women, with a call for greater acceleration in the effective implementation of commitments on gender equality and women's empowerment. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) calls on each ratifying country to overcome barriers to discrimination in the political, social, economic, and cultural fields. In the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality, states are deeply concerned with: "women's exclusion from politics and decision making." They also express concern that: "low levels of women's representation in social, economic and political decision making structures and feminisation of poverty impact negatively on women's ability to derive full benefit from the economies of their countries and the democratisation process" (pages 1-2). African countries agreed to: "expand and promote the gender parity principle that we have adopted to the national and local levels in collaboration with political parties and the National parliaments in our countries."

The main source of data for indicators, are the national data gathered by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) updated April 2016, as well as The

World Bank report and database 2015 on "Women, Business and the Law".

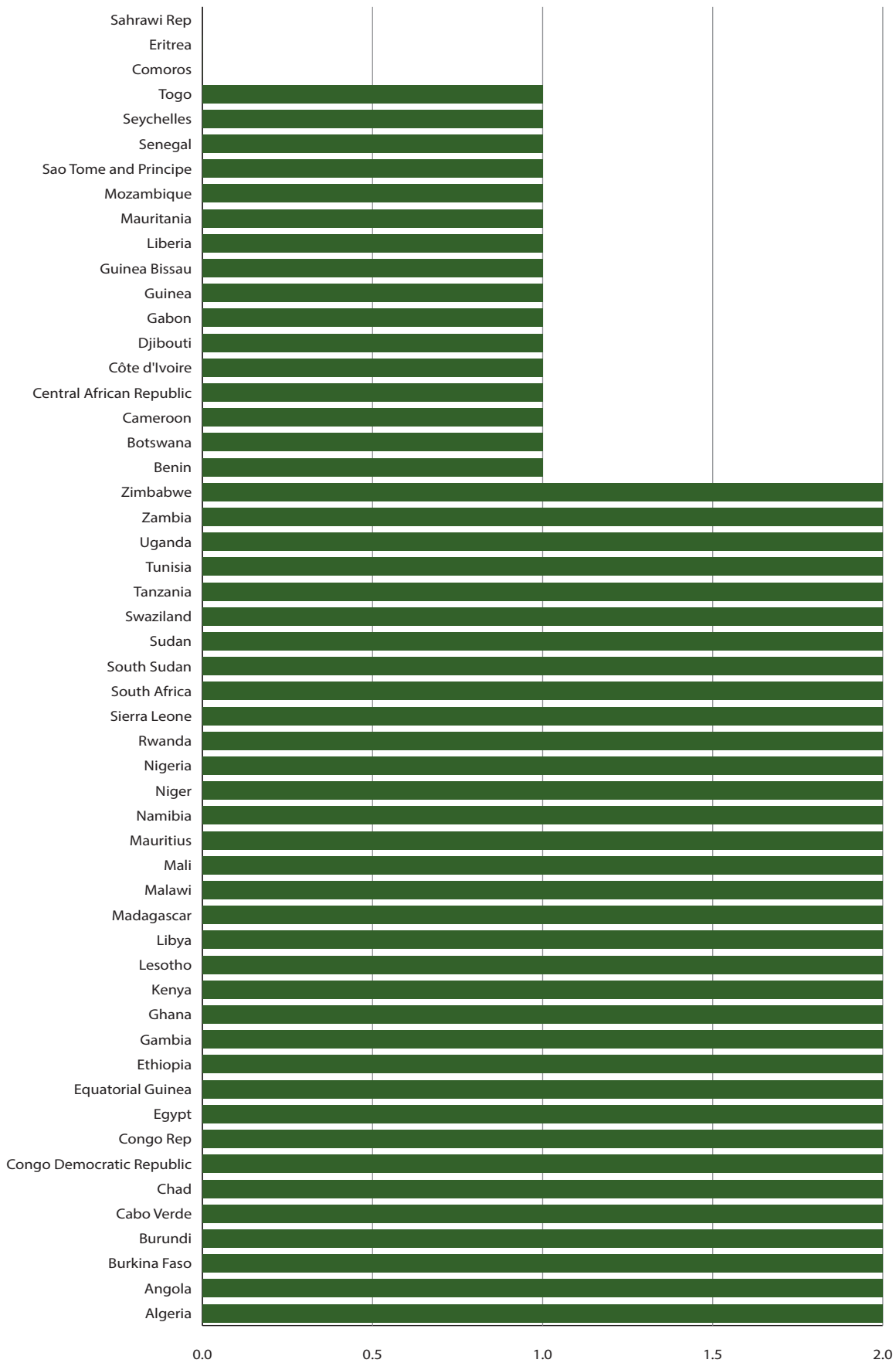
As the main indicators for this dimension of women's rights are the share of women (or the quotas enacted by law) in the executive, legislative, judicial and local governance functions, the score is established at 10 when the share and/or the quota reach 50 per cent. Nevertheless, in spite of the African Union's 50:50 parity campaign, very few countries have met and surpassed this target.

3.3.3. Gender parity in the Constitution

Today most African countries have introduced a clause on gender non-discrimination in their constitutions. The World Bank's 2015 report "Women, Business and the Law 2016" shows that 50 of the 54 African countries have introduced gender non-discrimination clauses (Figure 20). Two countries, Comoros and Eritrea, have not yet made this constitutional amendment, and information was not available for two more countries, Sahrawi Republic and Somalia. However in 16 countries that scored 1, the constitution does not contain a clause on equality. As of now, 34 countries contain such a clause.

National constitutions are fundamental guides for organising governance structures and establishing agreed legal principles. The principle of gender equality has not yet been embodied in all constitutions in Africa. Constitutional reforms or redrafting open opportunities for countries to embed or expand gender equality provisions. States should also act to incorporate the gender principle

Figure 20: Gender parity in the Constitution



across all aspects of their legal systems, including by changing discriminatory laws, adopting statutes that advance gender equality and women's empowerment, and ensuring that legal practices uphold women's rights.

3.3.4. Women in the executive

Given the lack of data, this indicator is still measured by the share of women in ministerial positions. The source is the Inter-Parliamentary Union and UN Women, "Women in Politics, Situation on 1st January 2015", based on countries' declarations. Parity (scored 10) is attained where women represent 50 per cent of the ministries.

As shown in Figure 21, one country (Cabo Verde) has reached parity in this regard with 52.5 per cent women ministers, followed by South Africa (41.7 per cent), Rwanda (35.5 per cent) and Burundi (34.8 per cent). Five more countries (Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania and Uganda) obtain a score of 6 (or around 30% of women in such positions).

Libya scores 0 (with only one woman out of 42 ministers) and Djibouti and Sierra Leone score 1 (around 5 per cent).

The median value (coinciding with the modal value) is between 3 and 4, covering 21 countries with around 15-20 per cent of women ministers. Efforts to increase women's representation in ministerial positions should be a priority for governments.

3.3.5. Women in Parliament

The indicator for the legislature is a little more sophisticated as it includes not only the proportion of seats in Parliament (Lower House) held by women, but also the level of quotas (where they exist) and the ratio of women to men candidates standing for political office. All data are provided by the countries through the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

A total of 23 countries have established quotas, and eight among them are at parity. For 11 of them,

these are quotas on lists, meaning that political parties have the obligation to apply the quota to the list of candidates standing for elections. Consequently, and unless the governments have enacted special measures to this aim (such as in Algeria or Tunisia), the actual number of women to be elected will be lower than the quota, depending on their positioning on the lists.

Figure 22 shows that two countries, Senegal and Tunisia, have made significant progress with scores of 9. They are, followed by four countries at 8 (Namibia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Togo) and three more countries at 7 (Algeria, Lesotho, Mauritania).

The lowest scores are for Benin, Comoros and Sierra Leone (1). Ten more countries scored 2 and a further 10 countries scored 3.

The principle of equality is at the core of arguments in favour of gender quotas. More and more countries worldwide are introducing women's quotas for parliament. Over half of the countries on the continent that have established quotas must be applauded as they are working towards guaranteeing women's equal opportunity to represent their government. This can be an effective mechanism to ensure that women are not underrepresented, not to mention barely present, in government decision-making levels. But for quota systems to work, there must be rules governing the gender placement of candidates on party lists and sanctions for non-compliance¹³.

13 World Bank (2015). "Women, Business and the Law 2016" page 11.

Figure 21: Women in the Executive

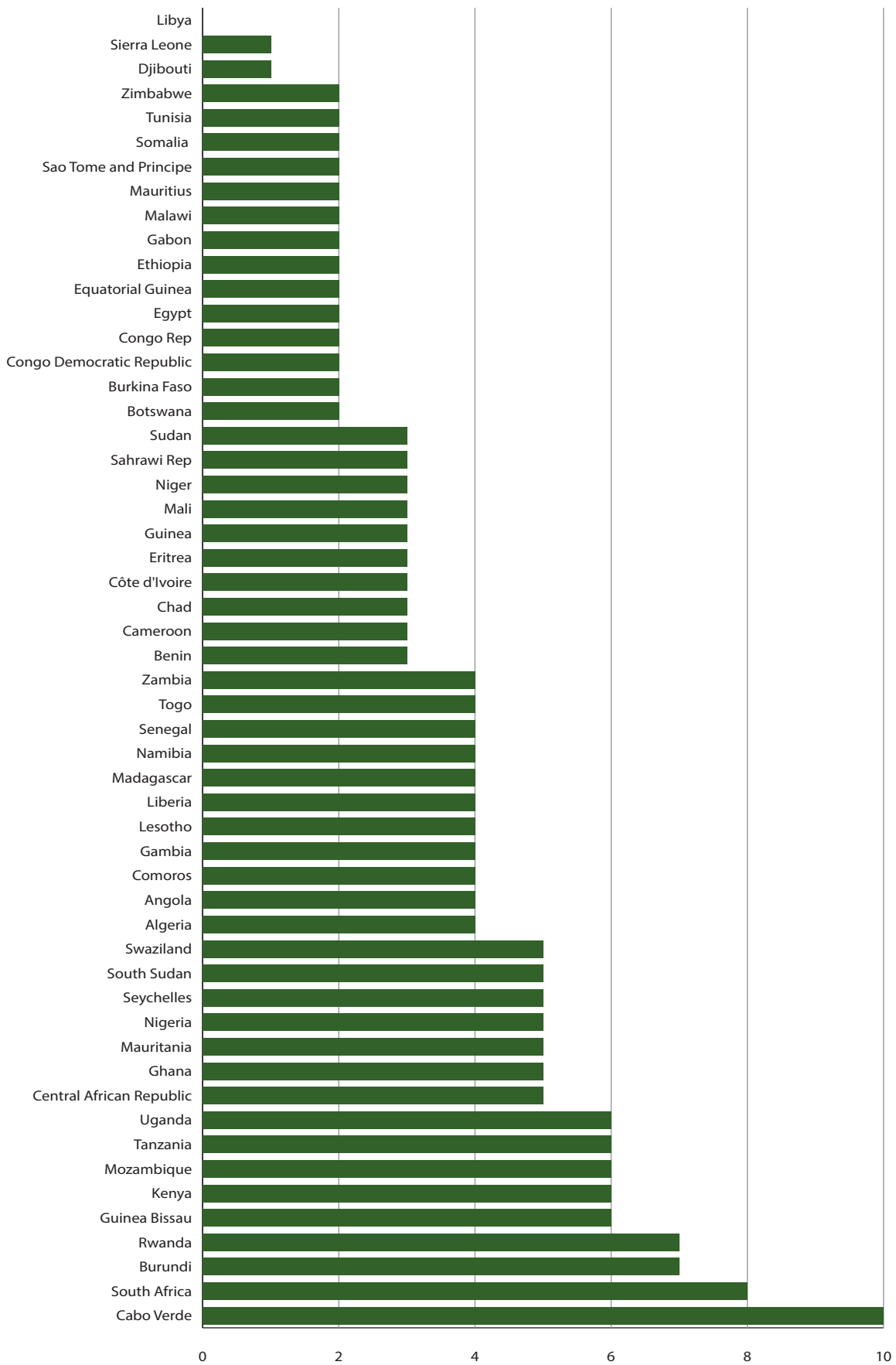
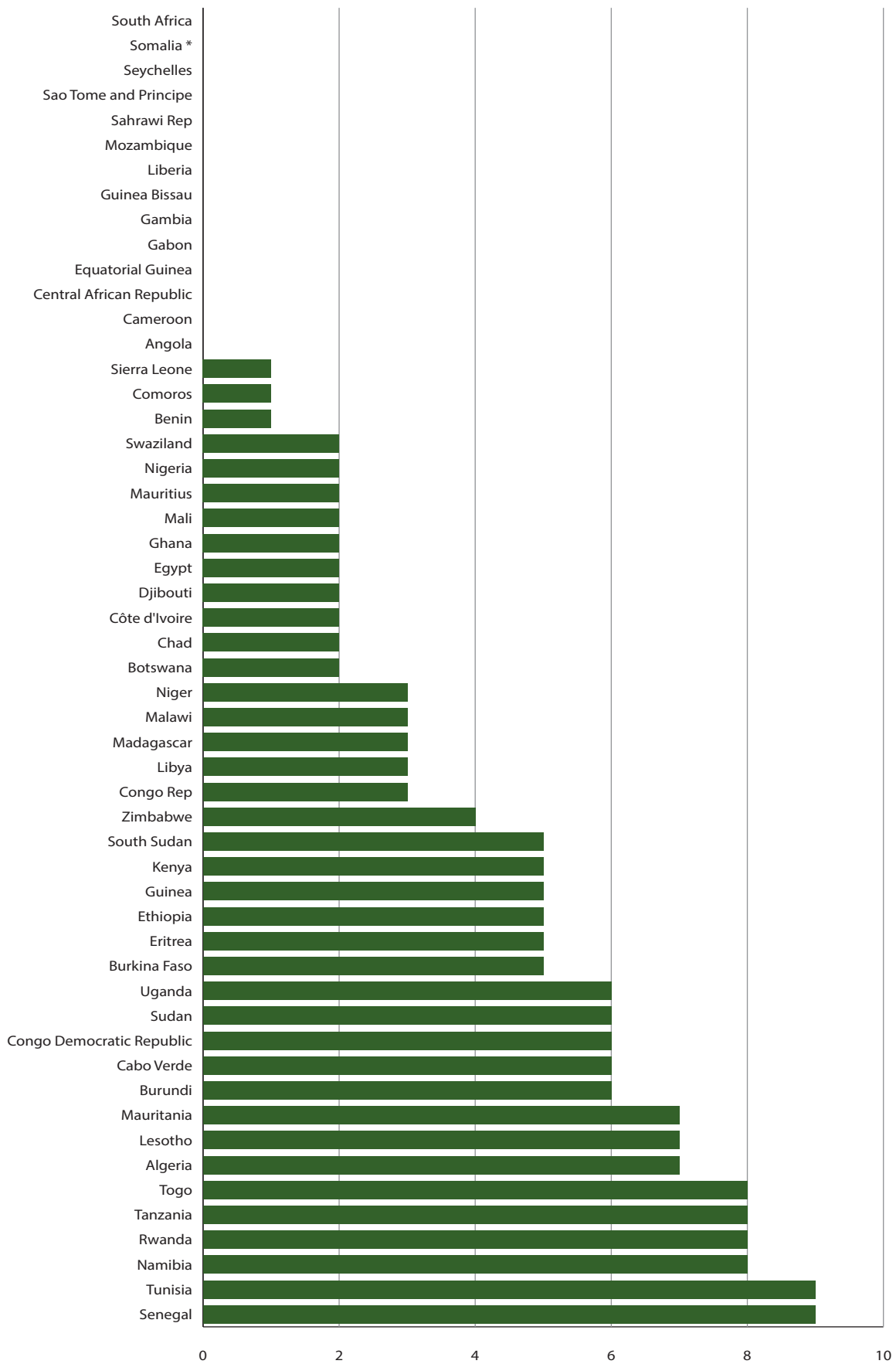


Figure 22: Women in the Legislature



3.3.6. Women in the Judiciary

The indicator for women in the Judiciary is measured by the proportion of women at the highest judicial level, which means within the Constitutional Court. The source is "Women, Business and the Law 2015".

Four countries reach parity in the judiciary: Djibouti, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Zambia (Figure 23), and four more countries are quite close to parity with a score of 9. These are Central African Republic, Gabon, Madagascar and Zimbabwe.

Ten countries that score 0, with no woman or less than 2.5 per cent female representation in the constitutional court, are Cameroon, Comoros, Congo Democratic Republic, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Libya, Mauritania, Namibia, Senegal and South Sudan.

It is important to recognise the achievements of the countries that have reached parity or close to parity, and have met their commitments to guarantee women's equality in political and public life. Women's participation at the highest judicial level can effect change to transform unequal gender based legal restrictions in society. These women will influence the political life of their countries.

3.3.7. Women in Local Government

Another strong signal to Africa's commitment to women's political rights is evident with over 20 countries implementing a quota for affirmative action in local government, ranging from 15% to 50%. The leaders in Africa with quotas set at 50% are Cabo Verde, the Congo Democratic Republic and Senegal. This clearly demonstrates that states are following through on their regional and international commitments, such as Article 3 of the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights, to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights. There is also regional commitment to Article 9 of the Maputo Protocol for the Right to Participation in the Political and Decision-Making Process, under which States Parties shall take specific positive action to promote participative governance and

the equal participation of women in the political life of their countries through affirmative action. A major focus on the adoption and implementation of temporary special measures or quotas is a proven mechanism for increasing the number of women in politics. More and more women in Africa have fair opportunities to campaign and they are receiving training to be effective political candidates and leaders. But there is a need for more engagement with political parties on gender sensitivity, such as internal regulations and practices to promote women's leadership.

Data on local government are even scarcer than at national level. This indicator is therefore based on quota levels for elections at local or regional levels.

Twenty countries have established such quotas. For eight of them, these are quotas on lists of candidates.

Four countries have established quotas at parity (50 per cent, scoring 10), and all of them are quotas on lists, which means that the actual number of women represented in local government is lower than the quota, because the final election may depend on the position on the lists.

National and local elections can support women's political participation in multiple ways, but specific measures may be required to overcome the barriers of gender discrimination. Women candidates may face gaps in capacities or resources that prevent them from competing effectively. For instance, if polling stations are located in remote or unsafe areas, women voters may be reluctant to use them. Sometimes electoral management bodies are unaware of hindrances to women's participation because they do not have the knowledge, skills or data to analyse and correct these. Women need to participate without any discrimination in all elections, be represented equally at all levels with men in all electoral processes, and be equal partners with men at all levels of decision-making.

Figure 23: Women in the Judiciary

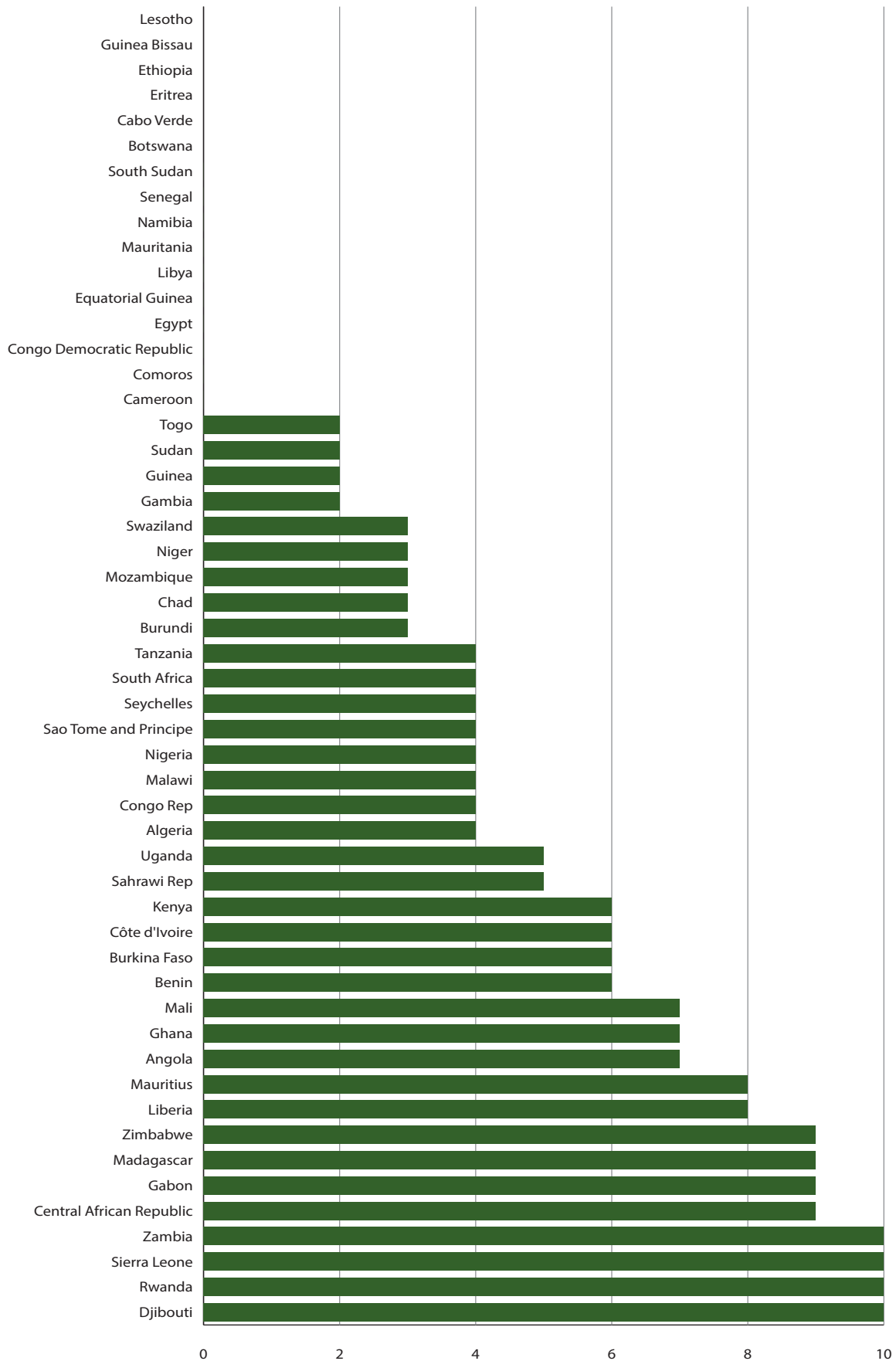
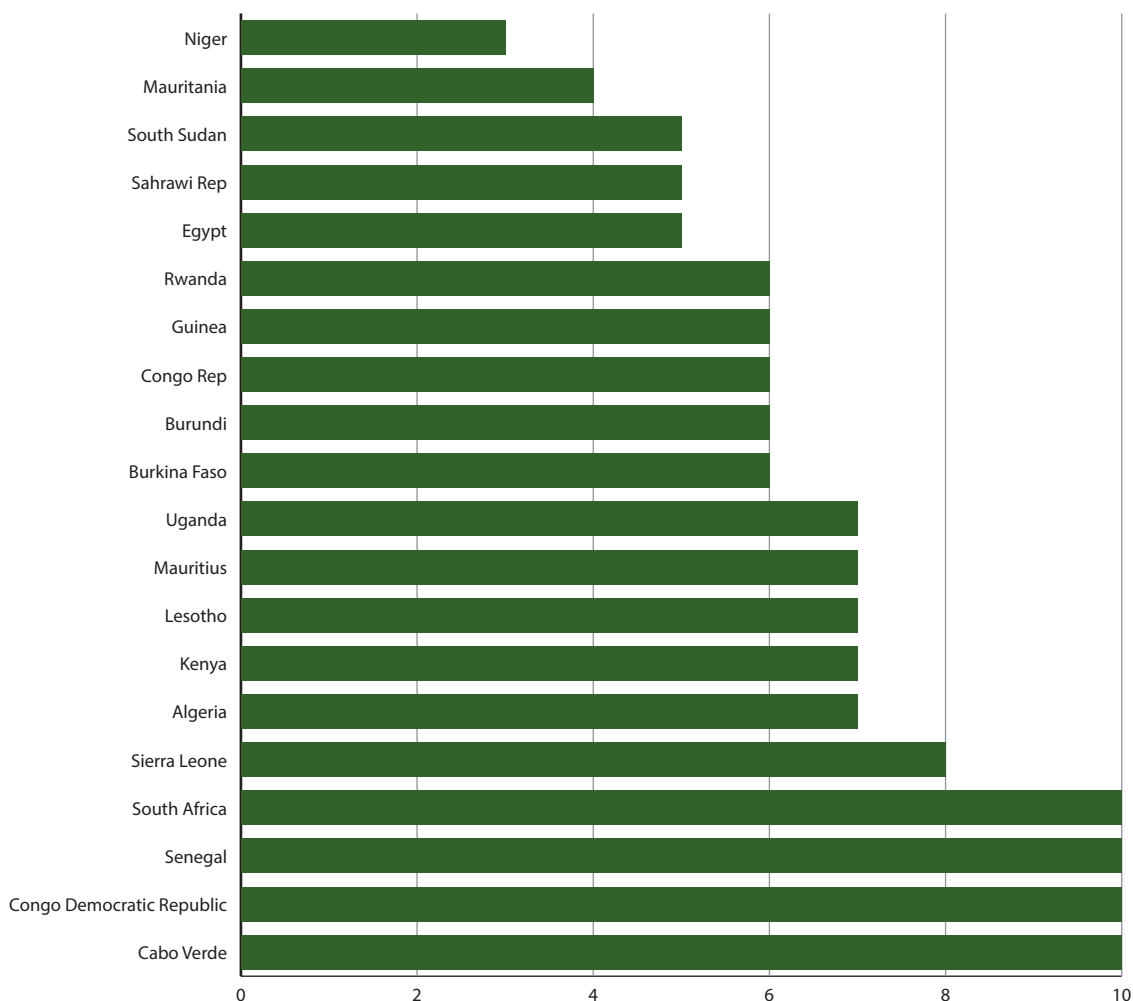


Figure 24: Women in Local Government



Source: The World Bank 2015 Report, "Women, Business and the Law 2016"

3.4. Key policy messages

The principle of women's human rights should be embodied in the constitutions of all African countries.

Greater commitment among African member States to advance women's and girls' human rights is a fact. However, the findings of the Scorecard show that the pace and path of progress is very slow and at such a rhythm, it will take many more years for African women to enjoy fully their rights.

Unless women's rights are secured and protected, Africa runs the risk of missing the Agenda 2063 and SDGs deadlines. Those would be missed opportunities in terms of Africa's socio-economic transformation.

The slow progress in achieving women's socio-economic, civil and political rights will drastically limit the impact of economic growth on inequality and poverty, which remain high on the continent.

African countries have what it takes to deliver on their women's human rights and gender equality commitments. What are required are dedicated and focused actions and investments, which are affordable, given the continent's rich resource endowments.

A policy shift is urgently needed to tackle the vicious circle of violation of women's rights, gender inequality and the exclusion of women from key decision-making processes.

4. Policy recommendations

The findings of the 2016 Scorecard confirm those of the 2015 edition. Much thus needs to be done to translate African leaders' strong and renewed commitment to women's rights and gender equality into concrete actions and change. Failure to do so will hamper the success of Agenda 2063 and the vision to transform Africa into "a continent that is integrated, peaceful, prosperous, people centred and representing a dynamic force in the global arena". Africa cannot afford to miss the unique opportunities inherent in Agenda 2063 and in SDGs Agenda 2030. It owes this much to its youthful population, representing the next generations.

The motto of the 2016 policy recommendations, "Action with no time to waste", carries a clear message. This message underpins the actions, outlined below, that are required to secure and protect women's socio-economic, civil and political rights. In this regard, countries that have not ratified the main international and regional frameworks for the advancement of women's human rights should do so urgently. The two countries that have not ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (the Maputo Protocol) should do so as a critical step.

Below are recommendations for each women's rights cluster.

4.1. Advancing women's economic rights

Member states should take the following urgent actions:

- Enact and enforce laws that grant women the right to land ownership and related assets. In so doing, national laws that contradict regional and international laws on women's rights to land ownership should be removed

urgently. This will have multiplier effects including on women's access to finance.

- Target actions to increase the proportion of girls and women in Science, Technology and Mathematics (STEM) and support their transition to labour markets by taking into account their time and income constraints in the delivery of education and training programmes.
- Take measures to assure maternal and paternal leave with full pay with a view to encourage women's work and promote well-being, which will have positive impact on national development.
- Take action to ensure women's and men's equal wages for equal jobs.
- Take action to address gender occupational and salary gaps through the enactment and enforcement of appropriate laws and skills upgrading programmes for women.

4.2. Securing and promoting women's social rights

African governments should invest in the following activities:

- Construct sufficient and quality health structures in all locations, especially in rural and remote areas to prevent complications related to pregnancy and delivery, such as haemorrhage, sepsis, hypertensive disorders and unsafe abortions. It is well documented that providing women with quality health care services is essential to prevent high maternal mortality, which is a serious challenge for some African countries.

- Related to that, governments should invest in training and retaining health care staff.
- Ensure women's and girls' access to social protection and social security through universal health coverage and by targeting the most excluded groups.
- Ensure affordability of secondary and tertiary education for all, especially for girls, which could contribute to the reduction of early marriages.

4.3. Securing and protecting women's civil and political rights

The fall in the number of countries with over 30 per cent representation in national parliaments, from 22 in 2015 to 13 countries in 2016, requires urgent attention to avoid further setbacks. Affirmative action such as the adoption and effective implementation of a quota system, has revealed to be effective in promoting women's participation in politics in general and in political decision-making spheres in particular.

While achieving a significant proportion of women in civil and political affairs is an important milestone,

providing supportive measures to women is essential to ensure qualitative participation and outcomes.

Additional government measures should include the following:

- Capacity building to upgrade women's skills where needed. Exchange programmes among African countries to share examples of best practices could yield positive results;
- Ensure women have fair opportunities to campaign and that they are receiving training to be effective political candidates and leaders;
- Engage with political parties on gender sensitivity issues, such as internal regulations and practices to promote women's leadership.

Women's civil and political rights are very linked to their economic and social rights. Indeed all three clusters are mutually reinforcing. Consequently women's economic and social empowerment is a cost effective pathway to achieving their civil and political empowerment.

5. Conclusion

This 2016 African Gender Scorecard is an eye opener as it provides sound insights into important gains but also structural challenges currently impeding the efforts of member States' in translating commitment to women's rights into lasting change for women and girls on the continent.

Overall, the findings of the 2015 Scorecard remain valid with the exception of the categories of indicators used this year, i.e. inputs, output and outcome indicators, aimed to improve analysis of the main dimensions of human rights. More importantly the findings reinforce the widely recognised gaps between enacting laws, formulating policies and their actual enforcement and implementation. Such a gap is a critical area for concern for almost all African countries. Thus, what it takes to secure and protect women's rights is well

documented and known. Equally well understood is the impact that protecting women's rights will have on Africa's wealth creation, growth prospects and sustainable development.

As countries develop national plans to localise and implement the twin strategic development frameworks, namely the AU Agenda 2063 and the SDGs global Agenda 2030, they have an unprecedented opportunity to deliver on their promises to realise women's economic, social, civil and political rights. Strong actions and investment must be made urgently with no time to waste.

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Country	DHS	MICS	Others
Algeria		2012-13	
Angola	On-going 2015		
Benin	2011-12	2014	
Burkina Faso	2010	(2006)	
Burundi	2010, On going 2016		
Cameroon	2011	2014	
Central African Republic		2010	
Chad	On going 2014-15	2010	
Comoros	2012		
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2013-14	2010	
Congo, Rep.	2011-12		
Côte d'Ivoire	2011-12	(2006)	
Djibouti		(2006)	(PAPFAM) 2002
Egypt, Arab Rep.		2013-14	
Equatorial Guinea	2011		
Eritrea	(2002)		
Ethiopia	2011, On going 2016		
Gabon	2012		
Gambia, The	2013	2010	
Ghana	2014	2011	
Guinea	2012	On going 2016	
Guinea-Bissau		2010, 2014	
Kenya	2014	2013-14 (3 counties) 2011 (Nyanza province)	
Lesotho	(2009)		
Liberia	2013		
Madagascar	(2008-09)	2012 (South)	
Malawi	2010, On going 2015-16	2013-14	2014 Welfare Monitoring
Mali	2012-13	2010, 2015	
Mauritania		2011, 2015	
Mozambique	2011	(2008)	
Namibia	2013		
Nigeria		2011	
Rwanda	2010		
São Tomé and Príncipe	(2008-09)	2014	
Senegal	2012-14		
Sierra Leone	2013	2010	
Somalia		2011	

Country	DHS	MICS	Others
South Africa	(2009), On going 2016		
South Sudan		2010	
Sudan		2010, 2014	
Swaziland		2010, 2014	
Tanzania	2010		
Togo	2013-14	2010	
Tunisia		2011-12	
Uganda	2011, On going 2016		
Zambia	2013-14		
Zimbabwe	2010-11, On going 2015	2014	

Annex

Statistical Annex: Scored indicators for economic rights

ECONOMIC RIGHTS	Maternity leave in labour law	Ratio: female unemployment rate over male value (15-64 or 15+)	Ratio: proportion of active women with tertiary education over male value	Ratio: female labour force participation over male value (15-64 or 15+)	Ratio: proportion of employed females in paid employment over male value	Ratio: proportion of employed females in non-agricultural employment over male value	Employment	Income gap	Secure access to credit	Ratio females/males who have access to bank accounts at a financial institution	Ratio females/males who have borrowed from a financial institution	Access to credit	Secure access to land and assets	Ratio of females to males with ownership on agricultural land	Ratio of females to males with ownership/title of apartments, houses, businesses	Access to land and assets	Property rights
	Algeria	7	17	37	2	11	11	15	12	7	7	23	15	10			
Angola	3			8			8		7	6	7	7	10				7
Benin	7	12		9	3	7	6		7	7	14	11	10	2	2	2	10
Botswana		13		7		17	12	11	7	9	7	8	10				10
Burkina Faso	3	23	4	8		12	8		7	8	5	7	10	2	1	2	7
Burundi	7	6		10			10		10	9	4	7	10	2	2	2	3
Cabo Verde	3	9		8			8		5				10				7
Cameroon	7	14		9	6	8	8		7	6	8	7	5				5
Central African Republic	7			8			8		7	11	10	11	10				7
Chad	10	6	2	6	2	10	5	5	7				5				5
Comoros	7			5		11	8		5				10	26	3	15	3
Congo Democratic Republic	7	7		10	2		6	5	0	6	9	8	5	3	2	3	
Congo Rep	7			8		9	9		10				5				5
Côte d'Ivoire	7	21		7	6	13	9	7	7	7	11	9	5	7			5
Djibouti	7	13	8	5	10		8		5	5	7	6	10				5
Egypt	7	25		3	8		6	9	7	5	6	6	10				5
Equatorial Guinea	3			6			6		5				5	5	4	5	10
Eritrea	3			9			9		10				10				7
Ethiopia	7	24		9	7	17	11	7	7				10	4	4	4	7
Gabon	7			7			7		7	9	8	9	5				5
Gambia	3	18	1	9	5	8	6	5	7				10	3	3	3	5
Ghana	3		11	9	4	11	9	7	7	10	12	11	10	3	2	3	10
Guinea	7	7		10	2	9	7		7	4	9	7	10	2	1	2	10
Guinea Bissau	3	6		8	4	7	6		5				5				3
Kenya	7	9	8	9	5		7		7	9	7	8	10	2	2	2	7
Lesotho	3	10	7	5	12	17	10		10	8	8	8	10				3
Liberia	3	12	2	9	3	10	6		10	6	8	7	10		5	5	10
Libya	7	16		6	11		9	9	7				10				5
Madagascar	7	15		9	6	12	9	5	10	9	8	9	10				7
Malawi	3	15	4	10	7	7	7	6	7	7	15	11	10	10		10	10
Mali	7	18		8	3	10	7		10	6	5	6	10	3	2	3	10
Mauritania	7	19	8	4	8	9	7		7	8	8	8	5				0
Mauritius	7	21		6	11	11	9		10	9	6	8	10				7
Mozambique	7	16		11	3	4	6		10				10	5	5	5	

ECONOMIC RIGHTS	Maternity leave in labour law	Ratio: female unemployment rate over male value (15-64 or 15+)	Ratio: proportion of active women with tertiary education over male value	Ratio: female labour force participation over male value (15-64 or 15+)	Ratio: proportion of employed females in paid employment over male value	Ratio: proportion of employed females in non-agricultural employment over male value	Employment	Income gap	Secure access to credit	Ratio females/males who have access to bank accounts at a financial institution	Ratio females/males who have borrowed from a financial institution	Access to credit	Secure access to land and assets	Ratio of females to males with ownership on agricultural land	Ratio of females to males with ownership/title of apartments, houses, businesses	Access to land and assets	Property rights
	Namibia	3	11	10	9	8	10	9	9	7	9	7	8	10	7	8	8
Niger	3	5	10	4	8	14	9		5	6	3	5		5	2	4	
Nigeria	3	14		9			9		5	6	6	6	10	2	1	2	
Rwanda	7	15	5	10	5	5	6		7	7	5	6	10	4	4	4	7
Sahrawi Rep																	0
São Tomé and Príncipe	3	21	8	7	10	12	9		5				10				7
Senegal	3	18		8	7		8		10	5	8	7	10				5
Seychelles	7	12	6	9	11	10	9	8	5				10				10
Sierra Leone	3	7		10	3	11	8		7	6	6	6	10	3	2	3	10
Somalia *	3			4			4		0	6	5	6					
South Africa	7	13		8	11	10	10	8	10	10	9	10	10		12	12	7
South Sudan				9			9		5				10				5
Sudan	3	32	19	4	6	6	9	5	10	5	7	6	10				5
Swaziland	3			6			6		7	9	8	9	0				0
Tanzania	7	15		9	5	8	7	8	7				10				5
Togo	7	21		10		11	11		7	7	16	12	10	2	1	2	
Tunisia	7	18	21	3	10	10	11	8	7	6	6	6	10				5
Uganda	7	13	7	10	5	7	7	6	7	7	8	8	10	2	2	2	
Zambia	3	12		9		7	8	9	7	9	7	8	10	4	4	4	10
Zimbabwe	3	12	5	10	5	8	7		10	8	9	9	10	6	6	6	10

Statistical Annex: Scored Indicators for Social Rights 1

	National Law on VAW	Attitude towards VAW: % of women disagreeing	Attitude towards VAW: % of men disagreeing	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Violence against women (VAW)	Attitude towards FGM: % of women who don't believe that it must continue	Attitude towards FGM: % of men who don't believe that it must continue	Prevalence of FGM: % of girls and women aged 15-49 who have undergone female genital mutilation	Female Genital Mutilations (FGM)	Existence of national law	Percentage of women aged 15-19 who are not married	Child marriage	Prevalence of non child labour among girls 5-16	Ratio girls to boys child labour	Child labour	Female attendance in primary education	Ratio: female attendance in primary education over male value	Female literacy rate	Ratio: female literacy rate over male value	Education	Percentage of women age 15-49 who reported that they have not serious problems in accessing health care for themselves when they are sick	Percentage of women age 15-19 who have had a live birth or who are pregnant with their first child, and percentage who have begun childbearing (teenage pregnancies)	Percentage of currently married women age 15-49 without/unmet need for family planning	
Algeria	10	4	7								5	10	7	9	10	9	10	10			10		9		
Angola	10										5														
Benin	10	8	9				10	10	9	10	5	9	7	7	8	7	7	9	6	10	8	3	8	7	
Botswana	5										10														
Burkina Faso	0	6	7	9			7	9	2	7	0	7	3	7	10	8	5	10	3	6	6	2	8	8	
Burundi	10	3	6				6				5	9	7				7	10	5	8	7	1	9	7	
Cabo Verde	10										5			9	10	9		9	9	11	10				
Cameroon	0	6	6	6			4				0	8	4	6	10	8	8	10	6	8	8	6	8	8	
Central African Republic	10	2	2				5	9	10	9	10	5	7	4	8	6	7	9		8	8		7	7	
Chad	0	6					3	6	6	6	0	5	2	8	10	9	5	9		7	7		6	8	
Comoros	10	6	8	9			8				5	8	6	7	10	8	7	9	6	8	7	2	9	7	
Congo Democratic Republic	0	3	4				5				0	8	4	6	9	7	8	10	6	7	8		7	7	
Congo Rep	0	3	4				2				10	8	9	8	9	8	9	10	8	9	9		7	8	
Côte d'Ivoire	0	5	6	7	10		6	9	6	8	5	8	6	7	8	7	6	9	4	7	6	2	7	7	
Djibouti	0						6		1	3	5	10	7	9	10	9	7	10	4	7	7		8	8	
Egypt	0	6		8	9		6	4	5	1	10	9	9	9	10	9	9	10	7	8	8	3	9	9	
Equatorial Guinea	0	5	5	5	9		5				0	8	4				9	10	9	9	9	3	6	7	
Eritrea	0										5														
Ethiopia	5	3	4				4		8		5	8	6	8	10	8	6	10	4	7	7	1		8	
Gabon	0	5	6	6	9		5				0	9	4	9	10	9	9	10	9	10	9	2		7	

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	National Law on VAW	Attitude towards VAW: % of women disagreeing	Attitude towards VAW: % of men disagreeing	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Violence against women (VAW)	Attitude towards FGM: % of women who don't believe that it must continue	Attitude towards FGM: % of men who don't believe that it must continue	Prevalence of FGM: % of girls and women aged 15-49 who have undergone female genital mutilation	Female Genital Mutilations (FGM)	Existence of national law	Percentage of women aged 15-19 who are not married	Child marriage	Prevalence of non child labour among girls 5-16	Ratio girls to boys child labour	Child labour	Female attendance in primary education	Ratio: female attendance in primary education over male value	Female literacy rate	Ratio: female literacy rate over male value	Education	Percentage of women age 15-49 who reported that they have not serious problems in accessing health care for themselves when they are sick	Percentage of women age 15-19 who have had a live birth or who are pregnant with their first child, (teenage pregnancies)	Percentage of currently married women age 15-49 without unmet need for family planning
Algeria	10	4		7							5	10	7	9	10	9	10	10					10	9
Angola	10										5													
Benin	10	8	9	9			10	10	9	10	5	9	7	7	8	7	7	9	6	10	8	3	8	7
Botswana	5										10								9	10	9			
Burkina Faso	0	6	7	7	9		9	9	2	7	0	7	3	7	10	8	5	10	3	6	6	2	8	8
Gambia	10	4	7	6	0		4		3	3	10	8	9	7	10	8	7	10	3	6	6	6	8	8
Ghana	10	7	9	9	9		10	10	10	10	10	9	9	7	10	8	7	10	7	8	9	5	9	7
Guinea	0	9	3	4			2	4	0	2	5	7	6	5			4	8	2	4	4		7	8
Guinea Bissau	10								5		0	8	4	6	10	8	6	9	4	6	6		7	9
Kenya	0	6	6	6	9		9	9	8	9	5	9	7	7	10	8	9	10	9	9		8	8	
Lesotho	0										5	9	7	10	9	9								
Liberia	0	6	8	6			6	6	5	5	10	9	9				4	11	5	7	7	4	7	7
Libya	0										5													
Madagascar	10	3	7	7							5	7	6									2	7	8
Malawi	10	9	9	9							5	7	6	6	10	8	9	10	6	8	8		7	8
Mali	0	2	5	4	9		3	2	1	2	0	6	3	9	10	9	5	9	2	5	5	4	6	7
Mauritania	0	6		5	9		6		3	4	10	7	8	8	8	8	5	10	6	9	7		8	7
Mauritius	5										5													
Mozambique	10	8	8	8	9						10	6	8				8	10	4	6	7	4	6	7
Namibia	5	7	8	7	10						5	9	6				9	10	9	10	9	6	8	9
Niger	0	4	7	4			9	10	10	10	0	4	2	9	10	9	4	9	2	6	5		6	8
Nigeria	5	7	8	8	10		8	7	8	8	5	7	6				6	9	5	7	5	5	8	8

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	National Law on VAW	Attitude towards VAW: % of women disagreeing	Attitude towards VAW: % of men disagreeing	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older not subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, in the last 12 months	Violence against women (VAW)	Attitude towards FGM: % of women who don't believe that it must continue	Attitude towards FGM: % of men who don't believe that it must continue	Prevalence of FGM: % of girls and women aged 15-49 who have undergone female genital mutilation	Female Genital Mutilations (FGM)	Existence of national law	Percentage of women aged 15-19 who are not married	Child marriage	Prevalence of non child labour among girls 5-16	Ratio girls to boys child labour	Child labour	Female attendance in primary education	Ratio: female attendance in primary education over male value	Female literacy rate	Ratio: female literacy rate over male value	Education	Percentage of women age 15-49 who reported that they have not serious problems in accessing health care for themselves when they are sick	Percentage of women age 15-19 who have had a live birth or who are pregnant with their first child, and percentage who have begun childbearing (teenage pregnancies)	Percentage of currently married women age 15-49 without unmet need for family planning
Algeria	10	4	7								5	10	7	9	10	9	10	10			10		10	9
Angola	10										5													
Benin	10	8	9			9	10	10	9	10	5	9	7	7	8	7	7	9	6	10	8	3	8	7
Botswana	5										10								9	10	9			
Burkina Faso	0	6	7			7	9	9	2	7	0	7	3	7	10	8	5	10	3	6	6	2	8	8
Rwanda	10	6	8	9	9	8					10	10	10	9	10	9	9	10	7	9	9	4	9	8
Sahrawi Rep	0										.													
São Tomé and Príncipe	10	8	8	9	9	8					5	8	6	7	9	8	9	10	9	9	9	1	8	7
Senegal	10						9	9	8	9	0	8	4	9	10	9	5	10	4	7	6		8	7
Seychelles	5										0													
Sierra Leone	10	4	7	0	0	6	3	5	1	3	10	8	9	6	10	8	7	11	3	6	7	3	7	8
Somalia *	.	5					7		0	3	0	9	4	7	7	7	4	8			6		9	8
South Africa	5										0													
South Sudan	0	2				1					10	6	8				2	8	2	4	4		7	7
Sudan	0	3				1	6		1	3	0	8	4	8	10	9	8	10	4	8	7		9	7
Swaziland	0	8	8			5					10	4	7				10	10			10			9
Tanzania	0	5	6	8	8	5	9		9	9	0	8	4	7	10	8	8	10	8	9	9	6	8	8
Togo	0	7	8	10	10	6	9	8	10	8	5	9	7	7	10	8	8	10	5	7	7	3	8	7
Tunisia	5	7		9	9	7					5	9	7	10	10	10	10	10	7	9	9		10	9
Uganda	10	4	6	8	8	7			10		10	8	9	8	10	9	8	10	7	9	8	4	8	7
Zambia	5	5	7	9	9	7					0	8	4				8	10	7	8	8	3	7	8
Zimbabwe	10	5	7	7	7	7					0	8	4	10	10	10	9	10	10	10	10	4	8	9

SOCIAL RIGHTS

Statistical Annex: Scored Indicators for Social Rights 2

SOCIAL RIGHTS	Health										Social protection										Access to electricity									
	Health	Percentage receiving antenatal care from a skilled provider	Percentage delivered by a skilled provider	Maternal mortality ratio	Maternal health	Proportion of females having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Proportion of females having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Ratio females/males having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Proportion of females (15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Ratio females/males (15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Attitudes toward negotiating safer sexual relations with husband: % of women	HIV prevalence among women (inversed)	Female HIV prevalence over male	HIV	Time to obtain drinking water	Person who usually collects drinking water (% of women)	Household sanitation facilities (% households)	Access to water and sanitation	Female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security	Ratio: female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security over male value	Social protection	Access to electricity								
Algeria	9	9	10		9	1			1						9	2	9	9	7	10	8	10								
Angola																						3								
Benin	6	9	9		9	6			2	7		10	8	7			2		1	3	2	3								
Botswana				8								8	9	8								5								
Burkina Faso	6	10	3	7	7	7			4	9		10	8	8	8	1	4	0	3	1	1	2								
Burundi	6	10	6	5	7	5			8	9		10	7	8	6	6	6	0	1	0	0	0								
Cabo Verde		9																4	10	7	9	9								
Cameroon	7	8	6	2	5	6			3	8		9	6	7	7		3	1	5	3	6	6								
Central African Republic	6	7	5		6	2			2	6		9	5	5	10	2	4	7			1	1								
Chad	7	6	3	1	3	3			1	7				4	4	1	1	3	1	5	3	0								
Comoros	6	9	8	8	8	6			3	10				7	8		3	5	1	8	4	7								
Congo Democratic Republic	7	9	8	2	6	5			2	7		10	1	5	5		2	3	1	10	5	1								
Congo Rep	7	9	9	6	8	7			1	5				5	6		1	3	0	8	4	4								
Côte d'Ivoire	5	9	6	4	6	5			2	6		9	9	6	8		2	5	1	6	3	6								
Djibouti		10	9		9				2						9	2	2	5			5	5								
Egypt	7	9	9		9									10			9	9	1		10	10								
Equatorial Guinea	5	9	7	7	8	6			2	11		9	4	7	7		4	5	1	5	3	7								
Eritrea																														
Ethiopia	4	9	1	3	4	4			2	7		10	6	6	4		6				2	2								
Gabon	5	9	9	7	8	7			3	8		9	2	6	8		4	6	4	10	7	9								
Gambia	7	9	6	6	7	7			3	9		10	9	8	8		4	6	0	7	3	4								

	Health	Percentage receiving antenatal care from a skilled provider	Percentage delivered by a skilled provider	Maternal mortality ratio	Maternal health	Proportion of females having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Ratio females/males having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Proportion of females (15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Ratio females/males(15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Attitudes toward negotiating safer sexual relations with husband: % of women	HIV prevalence among women (inversed)	Female HIV prevalence over male	HIV	Time to obtain drinking water	Person who usually collects drinking water (% of women)	Household sanitation facilities (% households)	Access to water and sanitation	Female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security	Ratio: female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security over male value	Social protection	Access to electricity
Ghana	7	10	7		8	7	9	2	7		10	3	6	8		1	4	2	9	5	8
Guinea	7	8	4	3	5	6	8	2	7		10	9	7	6		2	4				3
Guinea Bissau	8	9	4		6									9	0	2	5				1
Kenya	8	10	6	6	7	8	9	5	8	9			8	7	4	2	4	2	8	5	4
Lesotho				0										7							2
Liberia	6	10	6	0	5	7	10	4	12	8	10	9	9	8		2	5	2	6	4	1
Libya																					10
Madagascar	6	9	4	5	6	6	9	2	9				6	9		0	4	0	4	2	2
Malawi	7	10	9	4	8	4	8	4	9	9	9	7	7	5	1	4	4	1	4	2	1
Mali	6	7	6	6	6	5	7	2	7	4	10	7	6	9		2	5	0	8	4	4
Mauritania	7	9	7	3	6									6	4	3	4				4
Mauritius				5																	10
Mozambique	6	9	5	6	7	5	7	3	6	6	9	8	6	6		2	4	0	10	5	2
Namibia	8	10	9	6	8	8	10	6	12	9	8	8	9	8		3	5	4	8	6	5
Niger	7	8	3	5	5	5	7	1	5		10	10	6	5		1	3	0	10	5	1
Nigeria	7	6	4	4	5	5	8	2	7	8			6	7		3	5	0	6	3	6
Rwanda	7	10	9	8	9	8	9	6	10	10	10	7	9	5		6	5	7	10	8	2
Sahrawi Rep			7	9	8																
São Tomé and Príncipe	5	10	9	10	10	4	9	4	10	9	10	10	8	7	2	4	5	0	4	2	7
Senegal	7	10	6	5	7									9		5	7				6
Seychelles		10																			10
Sierra Leone	6	10	6	0	5	6	8	3	10	7	10	10	8	7		1	4	0	3	1	1
Somalia *	8	3	4		3	1								8	4	5	6				

SOCIAL RIGHTS

SOCIAL RIGHTS	Health												Access to water and sanitation				Social protection				Access to electricity			
	Health	Percentage receiving antenatal care from a skilled provider	Percentage delivered by a skilled provider	Maternal mortality ratio	Maternal health	Proportion of females having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Ratio females/males having knowledge of HIV prevention methods	Proportion of females (15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Ratio females/males(15-24) having comprehensive knowledge about AIDS	Attitudes toward negotiating safer sexual relations with husband: % of women	HIV prevalence among women (inversed)	Female HIV prevalence over male	HIV	Time to obtain drinking water	Person who usually collects drinking water (% of women)	Household sanitation facilities (% households)	Female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security	Ratio: female population (or labour force) affiliated or registered at (or benefiting from) social security over male value	Social protection	Access to electricity				
South Africa	7	4	2		3									5	1	8	3	9	6	8				
South Sudan	8	8	8		8									6	5	3				0				
Sudan																5				4				
Swaziland		10	9		9											5				6				
Tanzania	7	10	5	5	7	6	9	4	8	9	9	8	8	5	2	1	1	10	6	1				
Togo	6	7	6	6	6	7	10	2	9	10	6	7	7	4		1	1	6	3	5				
Tunisia	9	10	10		10									9	6	9	7	10	8	10				
Uganda	6	9	6	6	7	7	9	4	8			8	4			2	1	7	4	2				
Zambia	6	10	6	6	7	8	9	4	9	8	9	8	8	8		3	1	3	2	3				
Zimbabwe	7	9	8	4	7	6	10	6	8	8	8	8	7	2	2	3	1	6	3	4				

Statistical Annex: Scored Indicators for Political and Civil Rights

POLITICAL AND CIVIL RIGHTS	Existence of gender parity in the constitution	Executive: Proportion of women in ministerial position	Percentage of electoral quotas for women defined in the constitution	Ratio of women to men candidates standing for political office	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	Legislative	Judiciary: Proportion of women at the highest judicial level	Existence of affirmative action quotas in local government
Algeria	2	4	10	6	6	7	4	7
Angola	2	4		..	7		7	
Benin	1	3		2	1	1	6	
Botswana	1	2		2	2	2		
Burkina Faso	2	2	6	6	2	5	6	6
Burundi	2	7	6	..	7	6	3	6
Cabo Verde	2	10	10	3	5	6		10
Cameroon	1	3		..	6		0	
Central African Republic	1	5		..			9	
Chad	2	3		2	3	2	3	
Comoros	0	4		1	1	1	0	
Congo Democratic Republic	2	2	10	..	2	6	0	10
Congo Rep	2	2	6	2	1	3	4	6
Côte d'Ivoire	1	3		2	2	2	6	
Djibouti	1	1	2	..	2	2	10	
Egypt	2	2		1	3	2	0	5
Equatorial Guinea	2	2		..	5		0	
Eritrea	0	3	6	..	4	5		
Ethiopia	2	2		3	8	5		
Gabon	1	2		..	3		9	
Gambia	2	4		..	2		2	
Ghana	2	5		2	2	2	7	
Guinea	1	3	6	..	4	5	2	6
Guinea Bissau	1	6		..	3			
Kenya	2	6	7	4	4	5	6	7
Lesotho	2	4	10	6	5	7		7
Liberia	1	4		..	2		8	
Libya	2		3	..	3	3	0	

POLITICAL AND CIVIL RIGHTS	Existence of gender parity in the constitution	Executive: Proportion of women in ministerial position	Percentage of electoral quotas for women defined in the constitution	Ratio of women to men candidates standing for political office	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament	Legislative	Judiciary: Proportion of women at the highest judicial level	Existence of affirmative action quotas in local government
Madagascar	2	4		3	4	3	9	
Malawi	2	2		4	3	3	4	
Mali	2	3		3	2	2	7	
Mauritania	1	5	10	..	5	7	0	4
Mauritius	2	2		3	2	2	8	7
Mozambique	1	6		..	8		3	
Namibia	2	4		9	8	8	0	
Niger	2	3	3	..	3	3	3	3
Nigeria	2	5		3	1	2	4	
Rwanda	2	7	6	..	10	8	10	6
Sahrawi Rep	N/A	3			4		5	5
São Tomé and Príncipe	1	2		..	4		4	
Senegal	1	4	10	..	9	9	0	10
Seychelles	1	5		..	9		4	
Sierra Leone	2	1		1	2	1	10	8
Somalia	N/A	2		..	3			
South Africa	2	8		..	8		4	10
South Sudan	2	5	5	..	5	5	0	5
Sudan	2	3	6	..	6	6	2	
Swaziland	2	5		4	1	2	3	
Tanzania	2	6	6	4	7	8	4	
Togo	1	4	10	3	4	8	2	
Tunisia	2	2	10	10	6	9	..	
Uganda	2	6	6	..	7	6	5	7
Zambia	2	4		..	3		10	
Zimbabwe	2	2	4	2	6	4	9	

