Excerpts from
SADC GENDER PROTOCOL 2012

B A R O M E T E R

Edited by Colleen Lowe Morna and Loveness Jambaya Nyakujarah
Woman-power swept onto the Southern African scene in a visible way in 2012. First, Joyce Banda unexpectedly assumed the post as the first woman President of Malawi, and first woman SADC head of state in April. Next, South Africa’s former Minister of Home Affairs Nkosozana Dlamini-Zuma worked her way through several barriers to become the first woman chair of the African Union Commission after a tough fight in July.

These developments gave an outward show of progress, but only thinly masked the rising anxiety as the clock clicks louder in the count down to 2015. For every step forward, activists counted one-step backwards in collection of data from the fifteen countries of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) that informed this overview report (see Table one). For example in South Africa, while the women’s ministry championed a bill for Gender Equality that covers many key provisions of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, a Traditional Authority Bill that gives sweeping powers to customary courts has prompted women’s rights groups into protest action.

Overall, the Southern African Gender and Development Index (SGDI) rose by just two percentage points from 64% to 66%. This score is an empirical measure of progress against 23 indicators for which data could be obtained across all countries. These cover six of the ten sectors of SADC: governance, education and training, economic justice, HIV and AIDS, media, information and communication.

Women and men in Southern Africa gave their governments a score of 57% - two percentage points up from last year - using the Citizen Score Card (CSC) that went out to 2329 citizens: 1272 women and 1068 men.

Unlike the SGDI, the CSC is based on perceptions, and captures nuances that are not incorporated in the empirical data. For example, while the SGDI records enrolment levels for boys and girls, the CSC includes qualitative aspects like safety in schools and gender biases in curriculum. The CSC also covers the four sectors for which there are no SGDI scores because these are difficult to measure - Constitutional and legal rights, GBV, peace building and implementation.

The Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance - 15 country networks and eight theme groups that campaigned for the protocol, its ratification, and now its implementation - is gearing up for 2015: the deadline for the 28 targets of the Gender Protocol and Millennium Development Goal Three (gender equality). Over the last year, the Alliance slogan has progressed from 2015, yes we can! to 2015, yes we must!

The Alliance Think Tank or working group will take the key findings of the Barometer to the parallel civil society meeting at the SADC Heads of State Summit in Maputo in August 2012. The main message to leaders is not only that time is running out, but also that there are new priorities and concerns on the agenda.

No sooner had the SADC Gender Protocol gone into force with South Africa becoming the ninth signatory (giving a two-thirds majority of the 13 countries that have signed) than the Alliance sought to push the envelope with a new addition to the Protocol. Over the last year, momentum has mounted for an Addendum to the Protocol on Gender and Climate Change - a principle accepted by gender ministers in the lead up to COP 17 hosted by South Africa late last year.

An issue close to the heart of Mozambique, the alliance is targeting the 2012 Heads of State Summit in Maputo to make a significant push on this front, under the leadership of the Mozambique country focal network - Forum Mulher. The full alliance steering committee will gather in Johannesburg in mid August to debrief with the Task Team and Mozambique delegation. The Alliance will use this information to plan a strategy for 2012/2013, including several country and a regional summit early next year under the banner: Count down to 2015!
Table I: Summary of progress and challenges over the last year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Red light</th>
<th>Green light</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Constitutional and legal rights</strong></td>
<td>Nine SADC constitutions provide for the promotion of women and seven have other provisions that relate to gender equality. Constitutional reviews have taken place or are about to take place in seven SADC countries.</td>
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<td>Contradictions between customary law and statutory law abound even where outlawed by the Constitution.</td>
<td>Activists in Zimbabwe and Zambia (that has coined the slogan “no women, no constitution”) have been especially active in demanding gender responsive constitutions, especially the removal of contradictory clauses that undermine women’s rights.</td>
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<td>In South Africa, the Traditional Courts Bill threatens many of these potential gains.</td>
<td>Tanzania is the latest country to announce a Constitutional Review. Women there are gearing for action on this front.</td>
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<td>There are many difficult areas of law reform not specifically addressed by the SADC Gender Protocol. These include abortion, sex work, marital rape and issues sexual minorities. The fact that these are not provided for in the SADC Gender Protocol demonstrates the high level of contention over these issues.</td>
<td>Mauritius has adopted a law legalising abortion in certain circumstances. Mozambique has outlawed discrimination based on sexual orientation in the work place.</td>
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<td><strong>Governance</strong></td>
<td>Leaders in Malawi and Mauritius have made progressive pronouncements on LGBTI rights.</td>
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<td>Women’s representation in elections in Lesotho in late May increased by a mere one percent from 25% to 26%. The 2012 elections represented Lesotho’s last opportunity to achieve gender parity in parliament ahead of the 2015 deadline. Ironically, Lesotho has a mixed electoral system at national level that could have been amended to facilitate increased representation by women, as happened at local level.</td>
<td>Following opposition to the local government quota that resulted in 58% women in the 2006 elections, Lesotho amended its quota system in line with the Tanzania model. Women and men competed on an equal basis for First-Past-the-Post (FPTP) seats with an additional 30% seats for women allocated on a Proportional Representation (PR) basis in the November 2011 elections. Women now constitute 49% of all councillors in Lesotho; a decline of nine percentage points but a hairline away from gender parity and the highest such representation in SADC. The new system also enjoyed much wider support by all political parties.</td>
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<td>DRC did not show any improvement since in the November 2011 elections as the overall level of women’s representation in parliament remained at 8%.</td>
<td>In the last year Mauritius, a country with among the lowest proportions of women in local government, adopted a legislated quota through Constitution (Amendment) Act 2011 and the Local Government Amendment Act of 2011. This resulted in a provision that at least 30% candidates for the local election be either women or men. This may open the way for Mauritius, which cited Article 5 on gender parity and the highest such representation in SADC. The new system also enjoyed much wider support by all political parties.</td>
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<td>Women’s representation in parliament in Zambia declined from 15.2% to a mere 11.5% in the October 2011 elections. Women won only 6.1% of the local government seats, a 1.2% decrease from the previous election in 2006.</td>
<td>The Barometer analysis shows that there are still ten national elections to go before June 2015, but time is limited and this is their last chance to meet the target. The analysis shows that if current Constitutional Review processes succeed in entrenching gender quotas, the proportion of women in parliament could increase to 31% by 2015. This will be below the 50% target, but a substantial improvement on the 22% baseline.</td>
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<td>Overall, the proportion of women in parliament decreased from 25% to 24% in the year under review.</td>
<td>Projections carried out by the Barometer show that if existing and projected quotas are put in place this could increase to 35% by 2015.</td>
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<td>The proportion of women in local government declined by 1% - from 24% to 23%.</td>
<td>In April 2012, the SADC Gender Unit held a Woman in Politics conference to develop a strategy for implementing the Fifty-fifty or Gender Parity Framework developed just after signing the SADC Gender Protocol to provide a roadmap for meeting the target before 2015.</td>
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<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Demands for affirmative action in line with the SADC Gender Protocol feature strongly in all countries. Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, South Africa and Zimbabwe are some of the countries where gender activists are calling for a 5050 legislated quota at national level. South Africa and Namibia have developed layperson 5050 Draft Bills for submission to their respective electoral reform commissions.</td>
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<td>Angola and DRC still have much lower proportions of girls than boys in primary and secondary school.</td>
<td>There is encouraging evidence of learning between SADC countries. Lesotho learned from Tanzania in amending its local government Act. Zimbabwe’s president and deputy prime minister have both referred to the Tanzania model as the best solution for this country as it heads towards elections.</td>
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In 12 SADC countries, there are now roughly equal numbers of boys and girls at primary schools and secondary school. Lesotho is the only...
### Gender Violence

- Gender violence remains the single most important impediment to the attainment of gender equality in SADC. Most cases of gender violence go unreported and a large number are withdrawn.

### Gender Policy

- Gender gaps in favour men are still apparent in tertiary education; school management and governance.

### Economic Justice

- The proportion of women in economic decision making increased by one percent, from 24% in 2011 to 25% in 2012.

### Red light | Green light
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Gender gaps in favour men are still apparent in tertiary education; school management and governance. | Seven SADC countries now have higher proportions of women than men at tertiary level. Zimbabwe employs special measures to increase female enrolment in tertiary institutions, teacher-training colleges, polytechnics and vocational colleges. The government’s target for women in tertiary education is 50% by 2015. Female enrolment at Teacher Training Colleges has reached 50%. However, it is still at a little over 30% in technical and vocational institutions of higher learning.

Gender stereotypes still abound in education decision-making in SADC: in curriculum and teaching materials, and in the choice of subjects. | A Forum for African Women Educationalists - Madagascar Chapter (FAWE)'s Centre of Excellence initiative is a school where gender is integrated into the academic curricula, social and physical education programmes.

The reason for declining performance by boys in schools needs to be investigated. | In all but two instances, primary education in Malawi and secondary education in Mozambique (where girls and boys are virtually at par) girls are out performing boys at schools in the SADC region.

Gender equality objectives increasingly feature in education budget statements. | These references are sporadic and selective. There is little correlation between these and the assessment of gaps that need to be addressed, for example the gaps at tertiary level.

### SADC Gender Protocol 2012 Barometer

- Inspired by the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development’s target of halving current levels of GBV by 2015, Gender Links in partnership with government and local civil society partners conducted research to establish the baseline extent, drivers, effects, response, support and prevention

- The SADC Gender Protocol is being used to benchmark progress in the private sector in South Africa, SADC's economic powerhouse. This is a best practice that should be replicated in other countries of the region.

- There are qualitative gains, six women Deputy Ministers of Finance making up 40% of this group across the region. Botswana, Lesotho and South Africa now have women governors of Central Banks.

- Most SADC countries now have programmes of one kind or the other to assist women in accessing credit. An example is the Booster loan Scheme in Mauritius. This invites a variety of women who are have registered businesses and have a viable project to apply for loans.

- In her foreword on the 2012 South Africa Business Women’s association (BWA) Census report, President of the Association Kunyalala Maphisa noted that at board level achieving parity by 2031 (the initial target) will not be possible; the report changes the target to 2039.

- The proportion of women in economic decision making increased by one percent, from 24% in 2011 to 25% in 2012.

- The Gender Protocol is being used to conduct an analysis of South Africa’s new economic policy - the New Growth Path.

- Women still struggle to access credit. A study in Zimbabwe showed that 65.7% of the women surveyed indicated that they “felt discriminated against by bank officials.” Three out of 10 of the women who felt discriminated against cited the lack of collateral as the main reason they could not obtain funds.

- Figures on land ownership remain patchy, but range from 11% to 46% (in Botswana). A gender analysis of agriculture projects in Botswana shows that women constitute the majority of beneficiaries.

- Only 40% of SADC countries have paternity leave.

- The Ministry of Finance has set benchmarks by which sectors can specify expenditure by gender in the budget of human resources and investment, but only the sectors of education, health and social work have made progress in mainstreaming gender within their budgets.

- A Core Circular directs government ministries in Zimbabwe to use GRB to develop sector budgets each year in preparation for the countries national budgets. The Zimbabwe Women’s Resource Centre and Network has started a GRB initiative at local government level in six pilot districts: Bulawayo, Gweru, Kadoma, Kwekwe, Masvingo and Mutoko.

- South Africa’s Vision 2030 says that women should have access to at least 50% of productive resources, employment and economic empowerment. The Vision adds that at least 50% women should be accessing trade and procurement opportunities; own land and have the resources to manage the land, as well as be in waged employment. Zambia is implementing a policy of 30% land for women; this is evident in the 20 Centres of Excellence for Gender in Local Government that GL is working with.

- All SADC countries have maternity leave.

- Seven SADC countries now have higher proportions of women than men at tertiary level. Zimbabwe employs special measures to increase female enrolment in tertiary institutions, teacher-training colleges, polytechnics and vocational colleges. The government’s target for women in tertiary education is 50% by 2015. Female enrolment at Teacher Training Colleges has reached 50%. However, it is still at a little over 30% in technical and vocational institutions of higher learning.

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### Red light

The GBV indicators research showed that 67% women in Botswana; 51% women in Gauteng; 45% of women in Western Cape; 36% of women in Kwazulu Natal and 24% of women in Mauritius have experienced some form of GBV over their lifetime.

According to UNAIDS, women who have experienced violence are up to three times more likely to be infected with HIV than those who have not.

In 13 SADC countries sexual harassment is addressed through GBV legislation. In the last year, South Africa passed specific legislation to address sexual harassment.

The Sixteen Days of Activism campaign and other awareness activities continue to gather momentum in the SADC region. In 2011, media from the Centres of Excellence in Gender and the Media worked closely with counterparts at local government to raise the profile of local level initiatives.

Indications show a continued upward trend in modern contraceptive uptake, e.g. 76% in Mauritius.

HIV prevalence has either stabilised or has begun decreasing in all SADC countries.

There is evidence that prevention campaigns are beginning to change sexual behaviour patterns leading to a reduction in HIV and AIDS.

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VSO-RAISA, which now leads the care work cluster in the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance, is advocating stand alone care work policies in line with the provisions of the SADC Gender Protocol. AIDS-related deaths have decreased 20% since 2004, likely due to the expansion of antiretroviral therapy (ART).

### Green light

of GBV in Botswana, Mauritius and South African Provinces of Gauteng, Western Cape and Kwazulu Natal.

Eleven SADC countries now have 365 Day National Action Plans (NAPS) to end gender violence. Four SADC countries - Botswana, Madagascar, Swaziland and Zimbabwe have draft NAPS. The NAPs are at different stages of implementation. Mauritius reports that they have implemented 92% of the National Action Plan to End Domestic Violence by 2011. Mozambique reports achieving 95% of the plan. There is need to establish the impact of these plans - whether they are resulting in a decline in GBV.

With a few exceptions, there is now comprehensive legislation in most SADC countries covering domestic violence and or sexual offences.

South Africa is the only country that has specific provisions for Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) in the law.

Eight countries SADC countries have legislation to prevent human trafficking. South Africa has a human trafficking Bill while Malawi is in the process of developing a Bill.

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The GBV indicators research in South Africa, Botswana and Gauteng found that less than half of the women and men in all the sites except Gauteng were aware of the Sixteen Days of Activism Campaign. Politicians also do not adequately address GBV in their public speeches. Of the total public speeches delivered by political leaders, only 5% of speeches in Botswana, 9% of speeches in Mauritius and 15% of speeches in Angola referred to GBV. Most of these speeches lack depth and are usually a passing reference to GBV.

Mauritius has the region’s lowest maternal mortality with only 28 deaths per 100 000.

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### Health

Contraceptive usage among women is still very low in many countries, e.g. 6.2% in Angola.

The maternal mortality rate is 1140 per 100 000 in Malawi (the second highest rate in Africa, after Liberia).

HIV is a major contributor to high maternal mortality rates. Estimates indicate that mortality and morbidity rates among HIV positive women are double those among HIV negative women.

In seven of the 15 countries, less than 60% of births are attended by skilled personnel.

Sanitation coverage in Mozambique is only 5%; the government is prioritising sanitation for rural areas and informal settlements.

### HIV and AIDS

Currently 34% of all people living with HIV and AIDS in the world live in the SADC region. In 13 of the 15 SADC countries, women have a higher HIV prevalence than men.

HIV prevalence has either stabilised or has begun decreasing in all SADC countries.

There is evidence that prevention campaigns are beginning to change sexual behaviour patterns leading to a reduction in HIV and AIDS.

In Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe antiretroviral for preventing mother-to-child transmission of HIV have been dispensed to more than 80% of HIV-positive mothers in the past year. Knowledge of HIV and AIDS is the most improved indicator of the 23 that make up the SGD1 compared with last year's figure.

Viruses are not being transmitted from mother to child in South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. The percentage of pregnant women receiving antiretroviral for preventing mother-to-child transmission of HIV has increased from less than 20% in 2006 to 50% in the last year.

There is evidence that prevention campaigns are beginning to change sexual behaviour patterns and is leading to a reduction in the incidence of HIV and AIDS.

In six of the 15 SADC countries, less than 50% of People Living with HIV and AIDS (PLWHA) are receiving antiretroviral drugs.

VSO-RAISA, which now leads the care work cluster in the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance, is advocating stand alone care work policies in line with the provisions of the SADC Gender Protocol. AIDS-related deaths have decreased 20% since 2004, likely due to the expansion of antiretroviral therapy (ART).

### Peace and security

Women are still least well represented in the peace and security sectors

With 26% women in the defense force, 31% in the police force and 54%
**Red light**

- Gender does not feature prominently in the SADC Secretariat Security Organ yet this has huge bearing on the sub-region’s human security decisions.
- Media laws and policies have weak gender provisions.
- Gender did not feature strongly in debates on access to information around the Windhoek Plus Twenty celebrations in 2011.
- Additional monitoring conducted in 30 newsrooms in July 2011 showed that the proportion of women sources in the media is still 19%, the same finding as the 2010 Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS).
- Botswana and Mauritius are yet to sign the Protocol.
- Zambia, Madagascar, Malawi and Swaziland still need to ratify the Protocol.
- Most government Gender Policies and Action plans date back several years; they have not been aligned with the targets of the Protocol nor has their implementation been costed.
- The Southern Africa Gender Protcol Alliance is a coalition of the willing - this decentralizes responsibility but can also result in the chain being as weak as the weakest link.
- There is need to step up momentum in the lead up to 2015.

**Green light**

- The SADC Gender Unit and SADC Organ, working with the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) as lead of the Gender, Peace and Security cluster of the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance, developed a Framework to Mainstream Gender into the SADC Organ and a Strategy to Combat Sexual and Gender Based Violence in Conflict and Post-Conflict Situations.
- Seven media regulators (up from six last year) are leading the way in developing gender and media codes of practice.
- GL is now working with 109 gender and media Centres of Excellence (COEs) in 13 SADC countries. On-the-job training of journalists is structured around the ten theme areas of the Protocol.
- In the past year, GL developed a self-monitoring tool to help media houses assess progress towards achieving the SADC Protocol target of gender equality in and through the media.
- 13 out of 15 countries have signed the SADC Gender Protocol. The alliance chapter led by the Botswana Congress of NGOs (BOCONGO) has developed a strategy and mounted a campaign for the signing of the Protocol in Botswana.
- South Africa became the ninth country to ratify the Protocol in 2012; this enabled the Protocol to go into force as two thirds of the signatories had ratified.
- Seychelles and Namibia updated and aligned their gender action plans to the SADC Gender Protocol and are costing implementation. Zambia and Swaziland have just embarked on this process. Four more SADC countries - Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi and Mozambique have expressed an interest in following suit.
- The 151 local government Centres of Excellence on Gender in have developed action plans aligned to the targets of the SADC Gender Protocol. The 2012 Gender Justice and Local Government Summit yielded 474 case studies of the Protocol@work at the local level.
- Awareness of the SADC Gender Protocol has increased from 46% in 2010 to 54% in 2012 as gauged by the knowledge quiz administered around the SADC region. Citizens are most knowledgeable about which governments have signed and the 50/50 by 2015 target in decision-making. Village level meetings and the Countdown to 2015 summits planned at country and regional level for next year will assist in stepping up the pressure.
- Momentum is mounting for an addendum to the Protocol on Gender and Climate Change, with a strong push coming from Mozambican members of the Alliance. Gender ministers accepted the principle of an addendum ahead of COP 17 in November 2012. The Alliance has gathered hundreds of signatures through an online petition that will be presented during the Maputo Heads of State Summit in August 2012.

- Women constitute 50% of ministers, and 33% of deputy ministers of environment and sustainable development.

**New areas: Climate change**

- Policy frameworks on climate change are largely gender blind.
- Baseline data obtained this year shows that women account for only 21% of environmental affairs and sustainable development ministries.
What's new in 2012?
Several new features in the SADC Gender Protocol Barometer include:

- **Chapter 11 on Gender and Climate Change:** Although the addendum has not yet been adopted, activists believe it is necessary to measure progress against the draft provisions that have been accepted in principle by gender ministers.
- **Budget analysis:** Each sector contains examples from the analysis conducted in country reports on how resources are being allocated, or should be allocated, to address the gender gaps in those sectors. This detail in the country reports is an important input into the alignment of national gender action plans to the targets of the protocol, and costing of their implementation.
- **Comparative analysis of scores:** The 2012 Barometer tracks the SGDI and CSC scores over time: overall, by country and by sector.
- **Gender disaggregated analysis of the citizen, knowledge and attitude scores:** All the key tools used by the Alliance to measure progress have been disaggregated by gender, to determine whether there are differences in the way that women and men view these issues.

Key challenges

- **Patriarchal attitudes still abound:** A few high profile changes in female leadership do little to detract from the underlying patriarchal attitudes, reflected in the shockingly high levels of gender violence revealed by recent prevalence surveys; gender stereotypes in schools; the work place and the media; as well as predominantly male decision-making structures in all areas. Customary law contracts constitutional provisions with few ramifications in many countries.
- **Backward movement in elections:** With few exceptions, the last set of elections have been disappointing: the decrease in women’s representation both at national and local level in Zambia last year; persistent low levels of women’s representation in the DRC, and the marginal increase in women’s representation in the Lesotho national elections in May 2012.
- **The economy is still a male preserve:** Women still lack access to economic decision-making (26%), land, credit and other means of production. They constitute the majority of the poor; the unemployed; the dispossessed and those who work in the informal sector.
- **Women lack a say in the decisions that affect their lives:** Whether in the bedroom or the board room, women are effectively rendered voiceless, with little say for example, in the use of male condoms so essential to preventing the spread of HIV and AIDS. Women’s lack of “voice” reflects in the media, where the proportion of women sources remains stubbornly at 19% of the total.
- **HIV and AIDS continues to threaten the fragile gains that have been made:** Young women remain the majority of those newly infected by HIV and AIDS as well as those who bear the burden of caring for People Living with HIV.
- **Gender violence remains the most telling indicator of women’s lack of rights and agency:** Evidence emerging from prevalence studies in three diverse countries - South Africa, Mauritius and Botswana - shows that one in three if not more women have experienced some form of gender violence over their lifetime, often multiple times, and multiple forms of violence.

Key successes

- **Education is still the bright star of the SADC region:** Gender parity is rapidly being achieved at all levels. The gender division of labour in subjects is slowly changing, and this will eventually result in a change in the gender division of labour in the work force.
- **Taking advantage on Constitutional Reviews:** One of the major Alliance successes over the last year has been getting gender onto the agenda of constitutional reviews in several countries, notably Zimbabwe and Zambia. Activists are especially fighting for the removal of claw-back clauses and constitutional guarantees of gender equality.
- **50/50 campaigns go for the bulls eye:** Since the relaunch of the 50/50 campaign in August last year, activists have realised that the way to achieve women’s equal representation and participation in decision-making is through Constitutional and legislated provisions. The amendment of the Mauritius Constitution and local government electoral law to allow for quotas is a strategic breakthrough for the island and the region. Detailed projections in the Barometer show that if rigorously pursued, these could still raise the level of women’s representation to over 30% in the remaining twelve elections at local and national level by 2015.
- **Evidence of attitude and behaviour change emerging:** The attitude survey administered to nearly 8000 women and men in the region shows that at least...
rhetorically citizens subscribe to the core principles of gender equality. There is now some evidence of behaviour change leading to lower levels of HIV and AIDS. The care work campaign has raised awareness on the unwaged work of women.

• **A better understanding and more holistic approach to GBV:** The three country attitude and prevalence survey (South Africa, Botswana and Mauritius) has established the disparity between police and actual GBV figures. The study also shows that the highest levels of violence - psychological and economic - are the most under-reported. These findings have accelerated the campaign for routine surveys of this nature to strengthen National Action Plans to End Gender Violence. Zimbabwe is the latest country to embark on GBV indicators research.

• **Focus on implementation:** Now that the Protocol has been ratified, the focus has shifted quickly to implementation. The SADC Gender Unit, Alliance national focal networks, and Gender Links as the alliance coordinator have worked or will work with seven countries over two years to align their action plans to the SADC Gender Protocol and cost its implementation. This is gender responsive budgeting @ work!

• **Change from the ground upward:** Local government across the region has joined the SADC Gender Protocol campaign. 150 local councils have become Centres of Excellence (COE’s) for Gender in Local Government and another 150 are set to join. The COE’s develop gender action plans aligned to the SADC Protocol and mobilise communities around its implementation.

• **The Protocol@work:** Nothing succeeds like success! Raw numbers do not always capture the mobilising and inspirational qualities of the Protocol. This Barometer marks the centenary of the Protocol @work series, with the total number of case studies hitting exactly 100 (see Table II). The evidence shows that from community to national to regional level, partners are making use of this unique sub-regional instrument to demand change.

### Key priorities

“A radical mind shift. That is what we need is to shift gear from the slow, incremental changes in the numbers of women at executive levels to a dramatic increase in the way we perceive, promote and protect women….” Kunyalala Maphisa, President, Business Women’s Association of South Africa, in her forward to the annual survey of women in the private sector against the provisions of the SADC Gender Protocol.

Renewed energy is needed over the coming year to:

- Ensure that all countries sign and ratify the Protocol.
- Make use of strategic opportunities like Constitutional reviews to domesticate the Protocol.
- Raise awareness of the Protocol and its provisions at community level.
- Ensure that all governments and local authorities incorporate the targets of the Gender Protocol into their action plans and cost implementation.
- Campaign for an Addendum on Gender and Climate Change.
- Strengthen the Alliance, from local to national to regional level, in the final count down to 2015.
SADC GENDER PROTOCOL MILESTONES

- **2005**: Audit of achievements against the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development leads to a paper - “Rationale for the Elevation of the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development to a Protocol” - the most legally binding of SADC instruments. Civil society organisations for the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance.

- **2005-2008**: Alliance members form part of a Task Team constituted by the SADC Gender Unit to prepare drafting notes for a legal team, comment on and canvass seven drafts of the Protocol before its final presentation to Heads of State.

- **August 2008**: 13 out of 15 HOS sign the SADC Gender Protocol, a unique sub regional instrument that brings together and enhances existing commitments to gender equality through 28, time bound targets aligned to the 2015 deadline for MDG 3. Alliance members launch a campaign to get Mauritius and Botswana to sign.

- **August 2009**: The Alliance launches the SADC Gender Protocol Baseline Barometer - a key tracking tool assessing progress of 15 countries against the 28 targets of the Protocol before its final presentation to Heads of State.


- **August 2009**: Alliance launches the “Roadmap to Equality” - strategies and lessons learned in the campaign; key provisions of the Protocol in 23 languages; radio spots; a DVD; knowledge and attitude quiz; village level meetings to popularise the Protocol that have since reached 15,000 citizens directly and thousands more indirectly.

- **2009/2010**: Alliance devises a Citizen Score Card that is used to gauge citizen perceptions of government progress and is administered at village meetings.

- **August 2010**: Progress Barometer and Alliance annual meeting. Alliance gets better organised into country and theme clusters, each leading on a key issue, eg GBV, economic justice.

- **September 2011**: The Alliance collaborates with the SADC Gender Unit on a tool and process for aligning national gender action plans to the targets of the SADC Gender Protocol, and costing their implementation. Namibia pilots this process - [http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/implementation](http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/implementation)

- **November 2011**: Intense lobbying for an Addendum to the Protocol on Gender and Climate Change linked to COP 17; gender ministers accept this premise.

- **January 2012**: Seychelles reviews and aligns its gender policy and action plan to the SADC Gender Protocol, and costs implementation.

- **By August 2012**: Seven SADC countries had bought into aligning their gender policies and action plans to the Protocol and costing implementation. Zambia and Swaziland started these processes in August 2012.

- **August 2011**: SADC Gender Protocol goes into force with South Africa becoming the ninth country to ratify the Protocol giving the two thirds critical mass required. With data from 15 countries on 23 indicators, the 2011 Barometer introduces the SADC Gender and Development Index - see [http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/sadc-sgdi](http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/sadc-sgdi). Alliance forms a Think Tank to guide the work of the Alliance in between annual meetings.

- **2011/2012**: Alliance networks in country identify champions for the 28 targets of the Protocol, begin to collect case studies of the Protocol@work - see [http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/protocol-work](http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/protocol-work)

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Overall, performance by SADC countries improved over the past year as shown by the increase in the regional Southern Africa Gender and Development Index (SGDI) score from 64% to 66%. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) that complements the SGDI increased by the same margin, two percentage points from 55% to 57%. A new addition this year is sex disaggregated data for the CSC score. Women scored their governments slightly more critically than men - 57%, compared to 58%.

### How the CSC and SGDI work

The CSC has been running for four years now, and it is a key accountability tool. For example, at village level workshops, when the Protocol is being explained, participants are asked to rate how their governments are doing. The CSC gives ordinary men and women the opportunity to hold their government accountable. It also ensures that women and men engage critically with the provisions of the Protocol. **Annex One** summarises the findings of the CSC over the four years.

The sample size for the CSC increased this year. As illustrated in Table III 2329 citizens from 14 SADC countries where the Alliance has focal networks (the focal network in Angola is still being formalised) participated. Women constituted 55%, and men 45% of the total.

The challenge is to couple perception measures (qualitative) with empirical measures (quantitative). As detailed in **Annex Two**, there have been several attempts globally and in Africa to develop indexes for measuring progress towards attaining gender equality. Running through all these is the challenge of obtaining a wide enough variety of indicators to capture the many facets of gender equality or the lack of it.

By 2011, through online searches and data gathered for the country barometers, the team had assembled data on 23 indicators in six sectors (see Table V). Considering the various efforts at global and continental level to develop a basket of indicators for measuring gender equality (see **Annex Two**) this represented a significant amount of information.

The indicators are grouped under six categories, namely Governance (3 indicators), Education (3), Economy (5), Sexual and Reproductive Health (3), HIV and AIDS (3), and Media (6). To create the composite index, each category was given equal weight by calculating the average score across the indicators in that category. Therefore, for example, for categories with three indicators, the score for that category was the average across the three. This approach also solved the problem of how to deal with countries for which some indicators were missing, as the average was calculated on the available indicators for each country. In order to standardise, all “raw scores” had to be converted into values that range from 0 (for the worst possible performance) to 100 (for the best possible performance).

While the majority of indicators measure a desirable characteristic, for which a high score indicates good performance, there are a few indicators that measure undesirable characteristic for which higher scores reflected poorer performance (such as unemployment rate female share of people living with HIV, and maternal mortality rate). For these indicators the rate was inverted by subtracting the standardised rate from 100.
<table>
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<th>BOTSWANA</th>
<th>DRC</th>
<th>LESOTHO</th>
<th>MADAGASCAR</th>
<th>MALAWI</th>
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<th>MOZAMBIQUE</th>
<th>NAMIBIA</th>
<th>SEYCHELLES</th>
<th>SOUTH AFRICA</th>
<th>SWAZILAND</th>
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<th>ZIMBABWE</th>
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</table>
Figure II compares the SGDI scores for 2011 and 2012. The regional average increased from 64% to 66%. Seychelles and South Africa (79%) scored highest; this score is the same as last year. Botswana remained constant at 70% and Tanzania at 65%. Eleven countries received a rating that is above the 2011 score. Although DRC ranked the lowest in both years, it registered the biggest increase from 45% to 50%. At this rate, DRC may be able to catch up with other countries.

Figure III shows that citizens in eight SADC countries scored their countries upwards over the last three years. Madagascar (from 44% to 66%) and Zimbabwe (47% to 65%) stand out for the substantial rise in score. Bursts of optimism are common in countries emerging from conflict, which often opens a brief window of democratic space for women’s rights. Despite the decline in women’s political representation in Zambia, citizens there upped their score from 41% to 64%. This could reflect a thumbs-up for the creation of a dedicated gender ministry led by a strong gender activist, Inonge Wina, following a barrage of criticism over the decline in women’s political representation.
Citizens in more mature democracies tend to be more critical. For example, Seychelles has continued on a steady path of three percentage point increments, along with Lesotho and Botswana. South Africa experienced a decline from 74% to 64%. This may reflect growing disgruntlement with gender justice discourse under President Jacob Zuma, who among others has championed the Traditional Authorities Bill.

Figure IV shows that women scored higher than men in Seychelles, Lesotho, Namibia, Mozambique, Malawi, Tanzania and DRC. In the rest of the countries, women were harsher. The biggest divergence is in Mauritius (women 53% compared to men 69%). This gap in perceptions points to the underlying social conservatism, with men apparently perceiving a far more conducive environment than women.

As highlighted in the 2011 SADC Gender Protocol Barometer, the SGDI and CSC are not directly comparable since the latter is based on perception and covers all 28 targets of the SADC Gender Protocol in ten sectors compared to 23 indicators in six sectors in the case of the SGDI. It is however important to compare the extent to which citizen perceptions correlate to the SGDI that is based on actual numbers.

Figure V shows that there can indeed be wide divergences between how citizens perceive reality and the reality itself. For example, South Africa and Seychelles top the charts on the SGDI, but come quite far down the scale in the CSC. As noted earlier, two countries in transition (Madagascar and Zambia) top the CSC charts, together with Zambia. The lesson here is to use the two scores together in shaping an opinion on progress, but to be clear on the strengths and limitations of each weighting.
Figure VI shows that SGDI scores on for sectors have remained relatively constant from 2011 to 2012, with education scoring highest, followed by the economy, media, sexual and reproductive health. HIV and AIDS has replaced governance in fifth place, owing to the increase in this score from 47% to 55%. As reflected in the key data Table 3, this is largely due to the increase in HIV and AIDS awareness among women.

**What the SGDI measures**

**EDUCATION**
- Primary school: The number of girls enrolled in primary school expressed as a percentage of total primary school enrolment.
- Secondary school: The number of girls/women enrolled in primary school expressed as a percentage of total secondary school enrolment.
- Tertiary education: The number of women enrolled in tertiary education institutions expressed as a percentage of total tertiary enrolment.

**ECONOMY**
- Female share of economic decision-making: The number of women occupying high-level economic decision-making positions expressed as a percentage of all such positions in the country. The positions included in the measure are Minister and Deputy Minister of Finance, Minister and Deputy Minister of Trade and Industry/Commerce, Minister and Deputy Minister of Planning Commission, Central Bank, or their equivalents, permanent secretaries.
- Female LFP/ Male LFP. The Labour Force Participation rate of women expressed as a percentage of the labour force participation of men. The labour force participation rate is calculated as the (number of women/men of working age (usually 15+ or 15-64) who are either employed or looking for work) divided by the total number of women/men of working age.
- Female/male unemployment rate. The unemployment rate of women expressed as a percentage of the unemployment rate of men. The unemployment rate is calculated as the (number of women/men who are looking for work) divided by the (number of women/men who are either employed or looking for work).
- Female share of non-agricultural paid labour. The number of women employed in paid work outside of agriculture expressed as a percentage of all people employed in paid work outside of agriculture.
- Length of maternity leave: The number of weeks leave to which a woman is entitled in respect of pregnancy and childbirth.

**MEDIA**
- Women employees as % of total: The number of women employees working in media institutions expressed as a percentage of all employees in media institutions.
- Women as % of board of directors: The number of women directors of media institutions expressed as a percentage of all directors of media institutions.
- Women as % of management: The number of women managers in media institutions expressed as a percentage of all managers in media institutions.
- Female % of staff in institutions of media learning: The number of female staff in institutions of media learning expressed as a percentage of all staff in institutions of media learning.
- Female % of students in institutions of media learning: The number of female students in institutions of media learning expressed as a percentage of all students in institutions of media learning.
- Percent women news sources: The number of women referenced as sources in the media expressed as a percentage of all people referenced as sources.
**SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH**
- Women using contraception: The percentage of women aged 15 to 49 years reporting that they use a modern form of contraception.
- Births attended by skilled personnel. The percentage of births in a given year in which the woman is assisted by trained staff such as midwives or nurses.
- Maternal mortality ratio: The number of women who die while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy for every 100,000 live births of babies.

**HIV and AIDS**
- Comprehensive knowledge on HIV and AIDS: The percentage of women aged 15-24 years who can correctly answer specified questions about HIV and AIDS.
- Living with HIV as proportion of total: The number of women who are HIV-positive expressed as a percentage of all people who are HIV-positive.

- HIV-positive pregnant women receiving PMTCT: The number of HIV-positive pregnant women receiving prevention of mother-to-child transmission treatment expressed as a percentage of all HIV-positive pregnant women.

**GOVERNANCE**
- Parliament: The percentage of parliamentarians who are women. The measure includes both upper and lower houses of parliament for countries that have more than one house.
- Local government: The percentage of local government councillors/representatives who are women.
- Cabinet. The percentage of members of the Cabinet who are women. The measure includes deputy ministers and ministers of state where they are members of the Cabinet. Similarly, it includes the President if s/he is a member of Cabinet.

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**Figure VII: Comparative sector scores from Citizen Score Card**

Figure VII shows the trend for the CSC for sectors from 2009 - 2012. Not surprisingly, given the positive trends in the sector, citizens have consistently ranked education performance highest. Peace building comes last but with a higher score: from 40% last year to 51% this year. This may reflect the mobilising done by the cluster lead - the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) over the last year, building one of the strongest cluster groups within the Alliance.

Citizen perceptions of progress in the media sector have also increased from 40% to 55%. This may reflect that hands-on work in the media sector with 109 media houses in 13 countries now joining the Centres of Excellence for Gender in the Media programme. Interestingly GBV, features as number three in the CSC ranking. This can be attributed to Sixteen Days of No Violence Against Women campaigns and multi sector action plans that have taken root in most countries. Almost every SADC country has some form of strategy or action plan to address violence as well as extensive legislation. This may explain why, despite alarming rates of GBV, citizens see governments as able to move towards meeting their GBV targets.
Figure VIII compares the SGDI (empirical scores) and CSC (perception) scores in the six sectors that have both these scores. While the scores are constructed in different ways, the trends are interesting, as they reflect the extent to which perceptions and reality either converge or diverge. The graph shows that:

- Both the SGDI and the CSC rank education highest.
- The SGDI ranks productive resources second, while the CSC ranks HIV and AIDS second. The SGDI captures a relatively narrow range of economic indicators. These do not include access to land, finance and productive resources. The divergence between the SGDI and CSC is therefore not surprising.
- Positive citizen perceptions with regard to HIV and AIDS can be attributed to the tremendous increase in access to ARVs, Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission Treatment (PMTCT) and care work policies.
- The SGDI scores governance last. The CSC scores governance second to last. The empirical SGDI score of close to 50% reflects the reality that the average representation of women in political decision-making - averaging 20% to 25% for parliament, local government and cabinet - is half way where it should be. The CSC score (56%) reflects the desire by citizens for their governments to redouble their efforts in this area.
- The CSC scores media lowest, whereas the SGDI puts media in third place. The SGDI media score includes women’s representation in media training, within the media, in media management, and in media content. The first two categories tend to skew the score, because women are now relatively numerous in these two categories. They are however painfully absent from decision-making and as sources in the news. Because the SGDI is quantitative, it does not measure the portrayal of women in the media. This, more than any other factor is likely to account for the low CSC score. The divergence between the two scores shows why both scores are important in understanding what is happening within a sector.
### Annex 1

#### SADC Gender Protocol 2012 Barometer Citizen Score Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MAIN PROVISIONS</th>
<th>SPECIFIC TARGETS TO BE ACHIEVED BY 2015</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ARTICLES 4 - 11: CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL RIGHTS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides for all Constitutions in the region to enshrine gender equality and to give such provisions primacy over customary law. All laws that are discriminatory to women are to be repealed. It also provides for equality in accessing justice, marriage and family rights and the rights of widows, elderly women, the child girl, women with disabilities and other socially excluded groups.</td>
<td>1. Endeavour to enshrine gender equality and equity in their Constitutions and ensure that these are not compromised by any provisions, laws or practices.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Review, amend and or repeal all discriminatory laws.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Abolish the minority status of women.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **ARTICLES 12-13: GOVERNANCE (REPRESENTATION AND PARTICIPATION)** | | | | | |
| Provides for the equal representation of women in all areas of decision-making, both public and private and suggests that this target be achieved through Constitutional and other legislative provisions, including affirmative action. It further stipulates that Member States should adopt specific legislative measures and other strategies, policies and programmes to ensure that women participate effectively in electoral processes and decision-making by, amongst others, building capacity, providing support and establishing and strengthening structures to enhance gender mainstreaming. | 4. Endeavour to ensure that 50% of decision-making positions in all public and private sectors are held by women including through the use of affirmative action measures. | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |

| **ARTICLE 14: EDUCATION AND TRAINING** | | | | | |
| This article provides for equal access to quality education and training for women and men, as well as their retention at all levels of education. It further provides for challenging stereotypes in education and eradicking gender based violence in educational institutions. | 5. Enact laws that promote equal access to and retention in primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the Millennium Development Goals. | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 |
| | 6. Adopt and implement gender sensitive educational policies and programmes addressing gender stereotypes in education and gender based violence. | 6 | 5 | 6 | 6 |

| **ARTICLES 15-19: PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES AND EMPLOYMENT, ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT** | | | | | |
| This Article provides for the equal participation of women in economic policy formulation and implementation. The article has provisions and targets on entrepreneurship, access to credit and public procurement contracts, as well as stipulations on trade policies, equal access to property, resources and employment. | 7. Ensure equal participation by women and men in policy formulation and implementation of economic policies. | 4 | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| | 8. Conduct time use studies and adopt policy measures to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 5 |
| | 9. Adopt policies and enact laws which ensure equal access, benefits and opportunities for women and men in trade and entrepreneurship, taking into account the contribution of women in the formal and informal sectors. | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 |
| | 10. Review national trade and entrepreneurship policies, to make them gender responsive. | 4 | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| | 11. With regard to the affirmative action provisions of Article 5, introduce measures to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including through public procurement process. | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| | 12. Review all policies and laws that determine access to, control of, and benefit from, productive resources by women. | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 |
| | 13. Review, amend and enact laws and policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment in all sectors of the economy. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |

| **ARTICLES 20-25: GENDER BASED VIOLENCE** | | | | | |
| This article makes provision for the implementation of a variety of strategies, including enacting, reviewing, reforming and enforcing laws, aimed at eliminating all forms of gender based violence, and trafficking. There are specific stipulations for the provision of a comprehensive package of treatment and care services for survivors of gender based violence, including the access to Post Exposure Prophylaxis and the establishment of special courts to address these cases. There are specific provisions on human trafficking. A section which provides for monitoring and evaluation sets targets and indicators for reducing gender based violence levels by half by 2015. | 14. Enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender-based violence. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 15. Ensure that laws on gender based violence provide for the comprehensive testing, treatment and care of survivors of sexual assault. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 16. Review and reform their criminal laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 17. Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent human trafficking and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society. | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| | 18. Enact legislative provisions, and adopt and implement policies, strategies and programmes which define and prohibit sexual harassment in all spheres, and provide deterrent sanctions for perpetrators of sexual harassment. | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 |
| | 19. Adopt integrated approaches, including institutional cross sector strategies, with the aim of reducing current levels of gender based violence by half by 2015. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |

| **ARTICLE 26: HEALTH** | | | | | |
| This article provides for the adoption and implementation of policies and programmes that address the physical, mental, emotional and social well being of women with specific targets for reducing the maternal mortality ratio and ensuring access to quality sexual and reproductive health services. | 20. Adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies, programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 21. Reduce the maternal mortality rate by 75%. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 22. Develop and implement policies and programmes to address the mental, sexual and reproductive health needs of women and men; and | 6 | 6 | 5 | 6 |
| | 23. Ensure the provision of hygiene and sanitation facilities and nutritional needs of women, including women in prison. | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |

| **ARTICLE 27: HIV AND AIDS** | | | | | |
| This article covers prevention, treatment care and support in relation to HIV and AIDS. | 24. Develop gender sensitive strategies to prevent new infections. | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| | 25. Ensure universal access to HIV and AIDS treatment for infected women, men, boys and girls. | 7 | 6 | 7 | 7 |
| | 26. Develop and implement policies and programmes so ensure the appropriate recognition, of the work carried out by care-givers, the majority of whom are women; the allocation of resources and psychological support for care-givers as well as promote the involvement of men in the care and support of People Living with AIDS. | 6 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| **ARTICLE 28: PEACE BUILDING AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION** | | | | | |
| This article provides for gender to be mainstreamed in all information, communication and media policies and laws. It calls for women’s equal representation in all information, communication and media policies and laws. | 27. Put in place measures to ensure that women have equal representation and participation in key decision-making positions in conflict resolution and peace building processes, in accordance with UN Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. | 4.5 | 4 | 4 | 3 |

| **ARTICLES 29-31: MEDIA, INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION** | | | | | |
| This article provides for the equal representation of women in conflict resolution and peace building processes as well as the integration of a gender perspective in the resolution of conflict in the region. | 28. Take measures to promote the equal representation of women in ownership of, and decision-making structures of the media, in accordance with Article 12.1 that provides for equal representation of women in decision-making positions by 2015. | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 |

**2009 Total = 154 / 280 x 100 = 55%**

**2010 Total = 152 / 280 x 100 = 54.3%**

**2011 Total = 153 / 280 x 100 = 54.6%**

**2012 Total = 156 / 280 x 100 = 56%**
This background note provides information on the various existing indicators considered in developing the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) that is introduced for the first time in this Barometer.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The GEI covers eight dimensions, each of which has a number of indicators. The dimensions are:
- Gender identity;
- Autonomy of the body;
- Autonomy within the household;
- Political power;
- Social resources;
• Material resources;
• Employment and income;
• Time use.

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

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

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

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

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

Each indicator represents a simple arithmetic comparison of the number of women to the number of men, thus reflecting the gender “gap”. (A few of the indicators need a bit of manipulation to be able to get a gap.) Unlike the HDI and GDI, the GSI does not take the overall level of achievement into account.

As a result, a good score on the GSI could reflect a high level of equality, but at a level of achievement that is poor for both women and men (girls and boys).

For weighting purposes, each of the three blocks - social, political and economic - has equal weight. Further, within each component of each block, each of the indicators has equal weight. In effect, this means that indicators that are in a component with relatively few indicators “count” more than those in a component with a greater number of indicators. The developers of the GSI suggest that other weighting approaches could be considered, such as:

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

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

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

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

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

Within some of the categories there are disappointing gaps. Ideally, the SGDI would have included an indicator measuring the disparity in pay between women and men doing paid work. Unfortunately, as discussed in the section on other indicator measures such as the GDI, the available datasets of disaggregated earned income are heavily based on assumptions rather than on empirical data. In respect of the maternity leave indicator, the time given to a woman worker does not necessarily mean that she will receive pay while on leave. In some cases, no pay is guaranteed, in other cases only a proportion of the pay is guaranteed, and in some cases paid leave is only available to certain categories of employees, such as those employed by government. For next year’s index, more detailed information on maternity leave as well as paternity leave will be included.

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

**Weighting**

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

**Standardisation**

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

- Many of the indicators measure the female percentage of people with given characteristics. All the governance, education and media indicators have this form. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100. However, if our aim is to ensure that women do not face discrimination, then a raw score of 50 is the target. In standardisation, all scores of more than 50 – of which several were found, for example, for tertiary education - were therefore changed to 50.
- Several of the indicators measure the percentage of women and girls with a given characteristic. Two examples of such indicators are the percentage of women using contraception and the percentage of women aged 15-24 with comprehensive knowledge on HIV and AIDS. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100 and the score therefore did not need further standardisation.
- Several of the indicators measure the female rate for a given characteristic as a percentage of the male rate. Examples here are female labour force participation as a percentage of male labour force participation, and the female unemployment rate as a percentage of the male unemployment rate. In these cases possible scores could range from 0 to more than 100 where the female rate is more than the male rate. In the one case where the score was more than 100 (unemployment rate in Zambia), the score was changed to 100.
- Finally, two of the indicators that relate specifically to gender or women’s issues have scores that fall outside the above categories. The first is the number of weeks of maternity leave to which employees are entitled. The second is the maternal mortality rate, which is expressed as the number of deaths for every 100,000 live births. For the first of these indicators, we assumed that the possible range was from 0 to 16 weeks, and calculated the actual number of weeks as a percentage of 16. For the second of these indicators, we set the possible range between 0 and 2000 out of 100,000 (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maternal_death), and calculate a score out of 100 by dividing the raw score by 20.

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

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

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

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

Advances gender equality by ensuring accountability by all SADC Member States, as well as providing a form for the sharing of best practices, peer support and review.
In August 2008, Heads of State of the Southern African Development Community adopted the ground-breaking SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. This followed a concerted campaign by NGOs under the umbrella of the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance.

By the 2012 Heads of State Summit, 13 countries had signed, with additional country over the last year to bring to nine countries that have ratified the SADC Gender Protocol. This the region has reached the two thirds majority required to make the Gender Protocol enforceable. Five countries that have signed have not ratified it. With the Protocol now technically in force Members States have to accelerate implementation. The clock is ticking to 2015 when governments have 28 targets that they will have to account for. In keeping with the Alliance slogan: “The Time is Now” this 2012 Barometer provides a wealth of updated data against which progress will be measured by all those who cherish democracy in the region. The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) introduced in 2011 complements the Citizen Score Card (CSC) that has been running for four years to benchmark progress. While there are several challenges, the successes to date strengthen our view that change is possible.

“No we must!”