

available and it is more up to date. In these regions there is no country (of those for which data is available) in which women have less than a 30 per cent share. In Latin America and the Caribbean, the shares range from Jamaica where women have parity with men, to El Salvador where women's share is 32 per cent. In Eastern Europe, there is a small 'reverse' gender gap in six countries, with women's share at slightly more than half. In Western Europe and Other Developed Countries, two countries have a reverse gender gap.

Changes in Women's Share

Chart 4 (pp. 34-36) shows changes in the female share, comparing the early 1980s, mid-1990s and the latest available data, although there is not much data on recent changes, except for Eastern Europe and Western Europe and Other Developed Countries. In 54 countries, women's share is increasing; in six it is going down.

In sub-Saharan and Northern Africa, there is an upward trend in the six countries for which data is available, except for Malawi, which has leveled off. There is a similar upward trend in all areas of Central and Western Asia, except for Turkey, and in Asia and the Pacific, except for the Philippines and the Republic of Korea. In the Philippines, women's share fell from 48 per cent in the early 1980s to 40 per cent in the mid-1990s and only slightly recovered to 41 per cent by 2000. In the Republic of Korea, women's share rose from 36 per cent to 39 per cent by the mid-1990s, and then fell one percentage point in 2000. The drops in women's share in both countries was probably due to financial crises, which led to the growth of informal employment for women.

In Latin America and the Caribbean as well as in Eastern Europe, trends have been mixed. There is an upward trend in Brazil, Costa Rica and Trinidad and Tobago. In Panama, the share rose and then fell below the previous level, while in Venezuela it rose and then stayed constant. Meanwhile, in Eastern Europe, there is an upward trend in the Czech Republic, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Slovakia and Slovenia, but in Estonia and Lithuania women's share fell in the mid-1990s and has not recovered. In Western Europe and Other Developed countries, there has been an upward trend in ten countries and a leveling off in seven, three of which had already reached parity. As countries approach parity they naturally tend to level off in this way.

Analysing Informal, Insecure Employment

Because the indicator for women's share of non-agricultural employment provides only limited information on women's paid work, various agencies and NGOs have proposed additional indicators that may help to provide a more complete picture. For a start, informal work must be more closely charted. The ILO has proposed a set of definitions for informal workers that include:

- workers who have no contract of [CONTINUED ON PAGE 37]

Table 4: Female Share of Wage Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector (latest available data)

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Botswana	1998	47
Mauritius	2000	38
Swaziland	1996	33
Kenya	1997	32
Eritrea	1996	31
Ethiopia	1993	28
Côte d'Ivoire	1990	23
Sudan	1991	20
Zimbabwe	1999	19
Burkina Faso	1992	12
Malawi	1995	11
Niger	1991	9
Chad	1991	6

NORTHERN AFRICA		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Egypt	1999	21

CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Kazakhstan	1998	50
Israel	2000	48
Cyprus	2000	44
Jordan	1993	23
Bahrain	2000	12
Syria	1991	11
Turkey	1998	10

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Thailand	2000	47
Sri Lanka	2000	46
Hong Kong, China	2001	45
Singapore	1999	45
Philippines	2000	41
China	1999	40
Korea, Rep.	2000	38
Indonesia	1990	38
Malaysia	1993	36
Fiji	1996	32
India	1998	16
Pakistan	1994	8

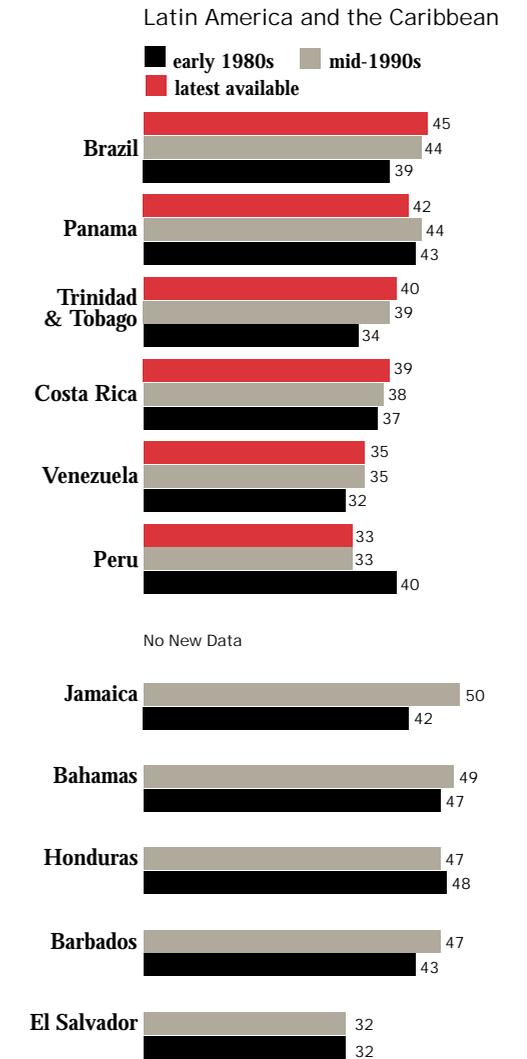
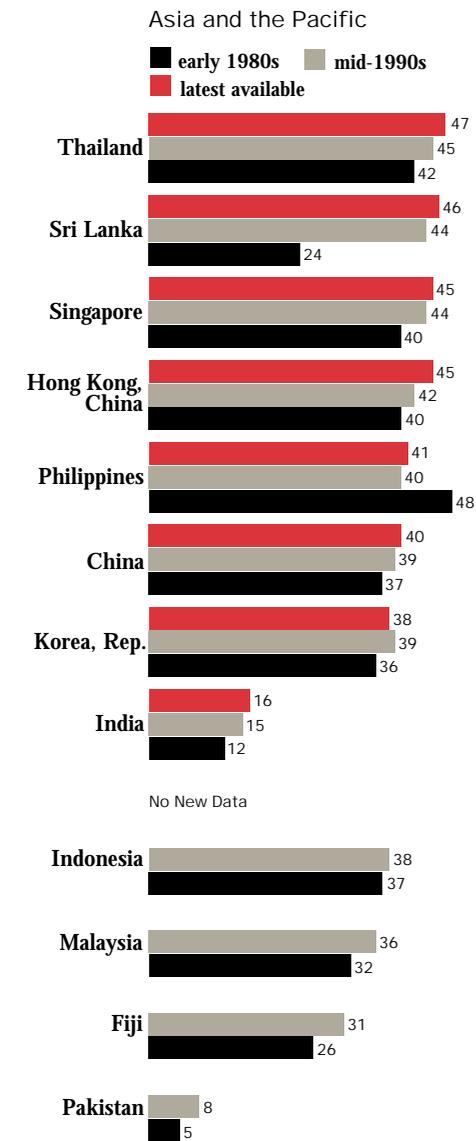
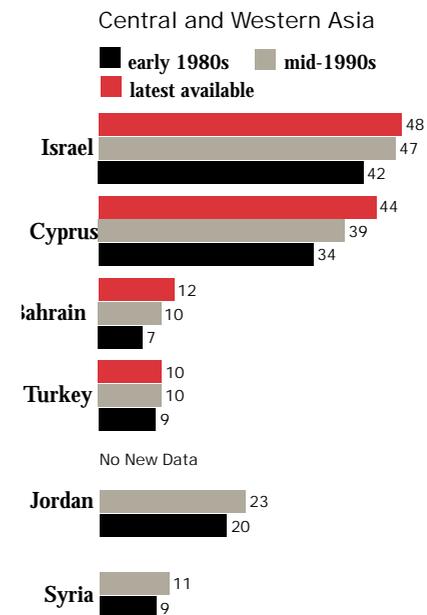
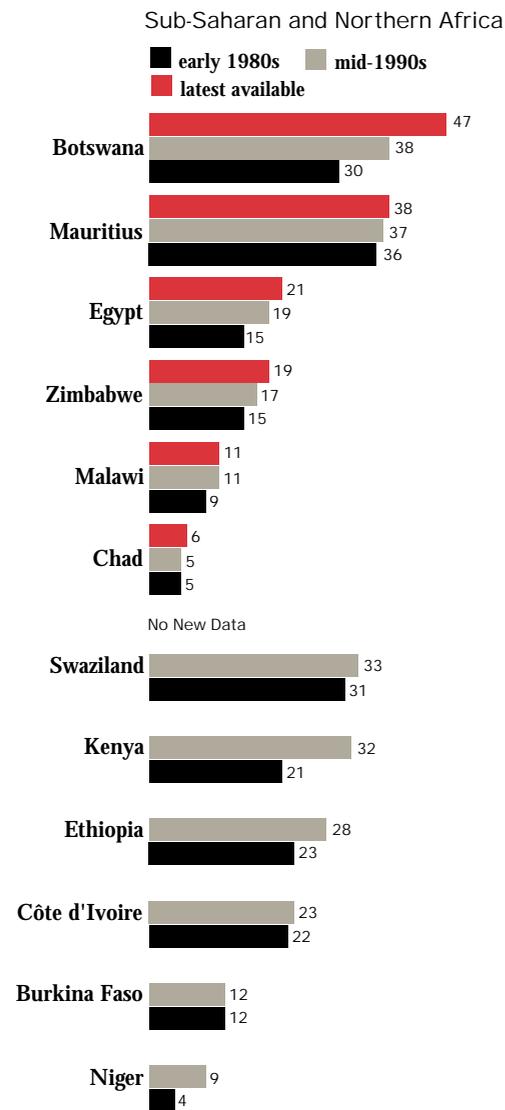
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Jamaica	1992	50
Colombia	2000	49
Bahamas	1994	49
Barbados	1994	47
Honduras	1992	47
Brazil	1999	45
Argentina	2000	43
Panama	1999	42
Trinidad & Tobago	1999	40
Costa Rica	2000	39
Mexico	2000	37
Bolivia	1996	37
Chile	1999	36
Venezuela	1993	35
Peru	2000	33
El Salvador	1996	32

EASTERN EUROPE		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Ukraine	2000	53
Lithuania	2000	53
Bulgaria	1999	52
Latvia	2000	51
Estonia	2000	51
Slovakia	1999	51
Slovenia	1999	48
Poland	2000	47
Czech Rep	2000	47
Croatia	2000	47
Hungary	2001	46
Romania	2000	45
Macedonia FYR	1999	41
Albania	1991	41

WESTERN EUROPE AND OTHER DEVELOPED COUNTRIES		
Country	Year	Female Share (%)
Iceland	2000	52
Sweden	2000	51
United Kingdom	2000	50
New Zealand	2000	50
Finland	2000	50
Denmark	2000	49
USA	2000	48
Norway	2000	48
Canada	2000	48
Portugal	2000	46
France	2000	46
Ireland	1999	46
Germany	2000	45
Australia	1996	45
Netherlands	2000	44
Belgium	1999	44
Switzerland	2000	42
Austria	1993	41
Spain	2000	40
Japan	2000	40
Italy	2000	40
Greece	2000	40
Luxembourg	1998	36
Malta	1999	31

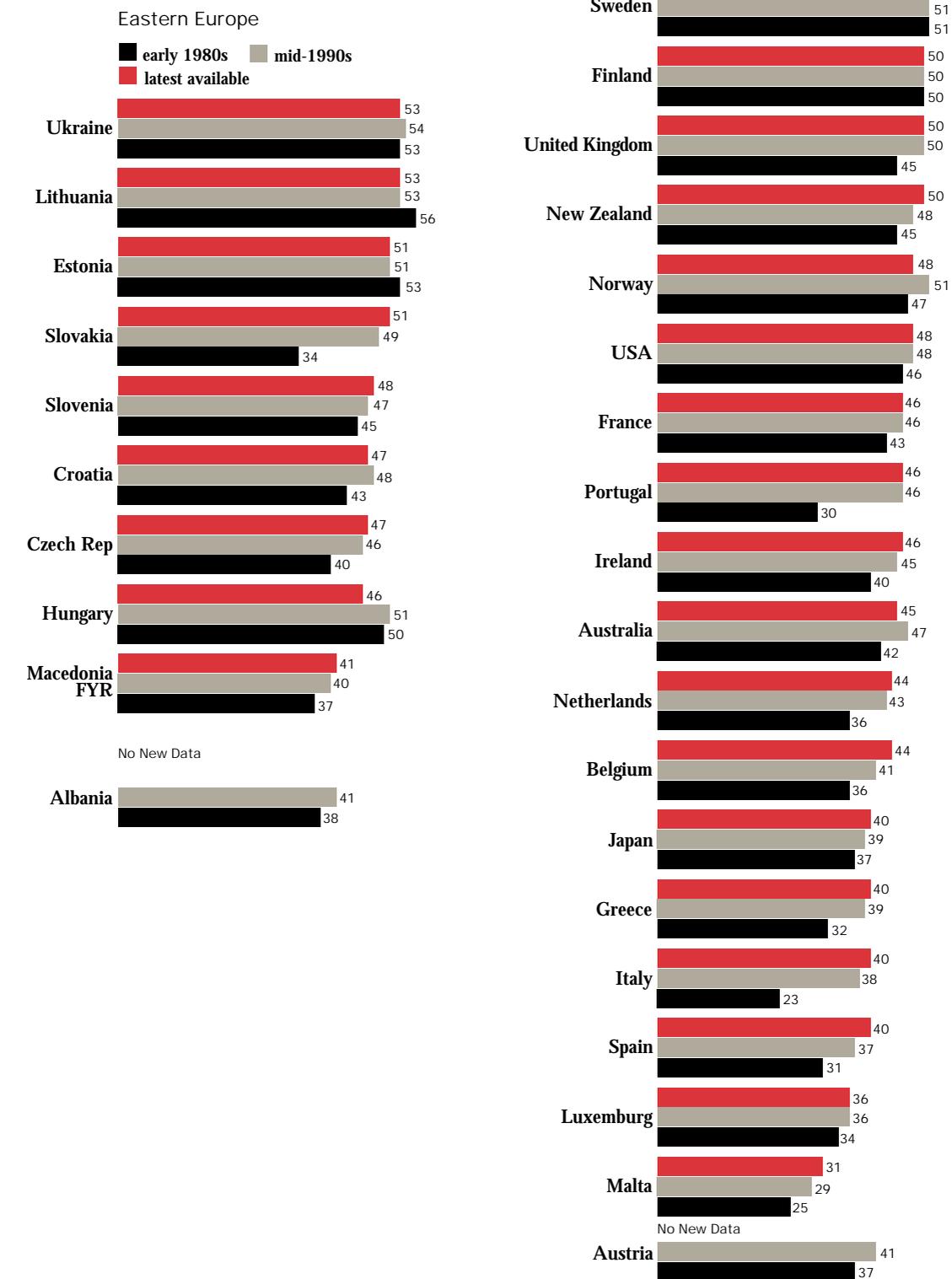
Source: ILO website; <http://laborsta.ilo.org>

CHART 4: Changes in Female Share of Wage Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector, Early 1980s, Mid-1990s, Latest Available Data



[CHART CONTINUED ON PAGE 36]

CHART 4: Changes in Female Share of Wage Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector, Early 1980s, Mid-1990s, Latest Available Data (cont'd.)



Source: ILO website; <http://laborsta.ilo.org>

[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 32] employment and no legal or social protection arising from the job, whether they work in the formal sector of the economy (factories that offer daily work, for example, as well as contract work) or the informal sector

- self-employed or 'own-account' workers and employers who have their own informal enterprises
- members of informal producers' cooperatives
- producers of goods for final use by their households (e.g., subsistence farming)
- paid domestic workers employed by households in informal jobs

Table 5 (p. 38) shows estimates of the share of informal employment (both waged and self-employed) in non-agricultural employment in the 1990s for a group of developing countries. It is clear that in many countries informal employment is a high proportion of non-agricultural employment. In sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America, women's informal employment as a percentage of their non-agricultural employment is higher than the corresponding figure for men.

Table 6 (p. 39) shows that much of women's informal employment is self-employment rather than wage work. In fact, in developing countries in all regions, self-employment is the largest share of informal employment for both women and men and appears to be on the increase. According to the ILO,

Between 1980 and 2000 self-employment increased from about one-quarter to about one-third of non-agricultural employment worldwide. Self-employment in non-agricultural activities increased in almost all developing regions. However, declines occurred in Eastern Europe where it dropped sharply, from 18 to 9 per cent of non-agricultural employment; and in Eastern Asia, where it dropped from 23 to 18 per cent (ILO 2002a:22).

Although the percentage of self-employment is increasing among both women and men, the proportion of women in non-agricultural work who are self-employed is increasing faster than the proportion for men. Worldwide, women's share increased from 28 per cent to 34 per cent between 1980 and 2000 while that for men increased from 25 per cent to only 27 per cent. There are many questions about the increase in informal and self-employed wage work for women: Is this increase beneficial? Are the benefits shared equally by women and men? Why is women's share of self-employment growing faster than men's? The answers will require more sophisticated statistics-gathering, models for which are being developed with support from UN agencies such as the ILO, UNDP, and UNIFEM.

As part of the effort to better understand the entire range of waged employment, the ILO is constructing a set of 'Decent Work' indicators (see Box 6, p. 38).

Should There Be a New Target?

Currently, there is no MDG target for gender equality in the labour market. Various individuals and groups have argued that an additional target is necessary since school enrolment alone does not address women's equality and empowerment. They have proposed that this additional target look at wage disparity. The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) has proposed such a target that would seek to:

"Significantly reduce wage differences between women and men with the same level of skills." To be measured by the ratio of women's to men's average wages by years of schooling. (ECLAC 2002:7)

While we believe this is a good step forward, the indicator (the ratio of women's to men's average wages by years of schooling) is hampered by the same problem as the gender disparity indicators for education and literacy: It is possible to reduce the gender wage gap by pushing men's wages down instead of increasing women's, as has occurred in the United States in recent years. To track whether the wage gap is reduced through equality in prosperity, it would help to include an indicator suggested by a recent ILO paper (Anker et al. 2002): the percentage of workers with gross hourly earnings that are less than half the median value of hourly earnings in the country concerned. The median value divides the distribution of earnings in two, so that 50 per cent of earners receive below the median pay and 50 per cent receive above it. A person who gets less than half the median can reasonably be considered a person with low pay. By measuring what percentage of women workers earn less than half the median compared to the percentage of men, it would be possible to identify and analyse gender disparities in the labour market.

Another, simpler, indicator might be the percentage of women and men with hourly earnings below what is considered a 'living wage,' although defining 'living wage' has not been easy. One possibility discussed by Anker et al. would be to take the World Bank poverty rate of \$2 a day as a starting point, and then to assume that a living wage should allow a worker to earn more than \$2 a day and support at least one other person besides themselves, working eight hours a day, six days a week, 50 weeks a year. This is a very minimum level of living since "this ... assumes long hours, a small dependency ratio and a poverty level income requirement" (Anker et al. 2002:29).

Reducing gender disparity in the economy is such an important issue that UN agencies should work together to set targets and improve indicators at regional and national levels, taking into account the differences in economic structures in different parts of the world.

BOX 6: ILO DECENT WORK INDICATORS

These indicators will be created through the use of a People's Security Survey conducted with 2,000-3,000 households in a variety of countries. The survey asks household members a broad range of questions about wage work, from salary to working conditions to job security to hours of work. In November 2001, a prototype index was presented, which drew on the Indonesian People's Security Survey. The Indonesian survey showed that while both men and women have a low average score for secure, decent work, women's score is lower. The gender gap increases as household income rises: Men's work is generally more secure than women's. In poorer, more vulnerable households, both men and women are equally at the mercy of the vagaries of the job market, with little protection from layoffs or reduced wages and few if any benefits.

Results for Argentina, Bangladesh, Brazil, Chile, China, Ethiopia, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Hungary, Pakistan, Russia, South Africa, Tanzania and Ukraine will be available through a series of ILO publications.

Sources: www.ilo.org
ILO 2002b

Table 5: Informal Employment in Non-Agricultural Employment, by Sex, 1994-2000

Region/Country	Informal Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Employment		
	Informal Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Employment	Women's Informal Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Employment	Men's Informal Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Employment
North Africa	48	43	49
Algeria	43	41	43
Morocco	45	47	44
Tunisia	50	39	53
Egypt	55	46	57
Sub-Saharan Africa	72	84	63
Benin	93	97	87
Chad	74	95	60
Guinea	72	87	66
Kenya	72	83	59
South Africa	51	58	44
Latin America	51	58	48
Bolivia	63	74	55
Brazil	60	67	55
Chile	36	44	31
Colombia	38	44	34
Costa Rica	44	48	42
El Salvador	57	69	46
Guatemala	56	69	47
Honduras	58	65	74
Mexico	55	55	54
Dominican Republic	72	84	63
Venezuela	47	47	47
Asia	65	65	65
India	83	86	83
Indonesia	78	77	78
Philippines	72	73	71
Thailand	51	54	49
Syria	42	35	43

Source: ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, Geneva 2002a

Table 6: Wage and Self-Employment in Non-Agricultural Informal Employment, by Sex 1994-2000

Region/Country	Self-Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Informal Employment			Wage Employment as % of Non-Agricultural Informal Employment		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
North Africa	62	72	60	38	28	40
Algeria	67	81	64	33	19	36
Morocco	81	89	78	19	11	22
Tunisia	52	51	52	48	49	48
Egypt	50	67	47	50	33	53
Sub-Saharan Africa	70	71	70	30	29	30
Benin	95	98	91	5	2	9
Chad	93	99	86	7	1	14
Guinea	95	98	94	5	2	6
Kenya	42	33	56	58	67	44
South Africa	25	27	23	75	73	77
Latin America	60	58	61	40	42	39
Bolivia	81	91	71	19	9	29
Brazil	41	32	50	59	68	50
Chile	52	39	64	48	61	36
Colombia	38	36	40	62	64	60
Costa Rica	55	49	59	45	54	41
El Salvador	65	71	57	35	29	43
Guatemala	60	65	55	40	35	45
Honduras	72	77	65	28	23	35
Mexico	54	53	54	46	47	46
Dominican Republic	74	63	80	26	37	20
Venezuela	69	66	70	31	34	30
Asia	59	63	55	41	37	45
India	52	57	51	48	43	49
Indonesia	63	70	59	37	30	41
Philippines	48	63	36	52	37	64
Thailand	66	68	64	34	32	36
Syria	65	57	67	35	43	33

Source: ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, Geneva 2002a

SEATS IN PARLIAMENT

Key Findings

- Around the world women are largely absent from parliaments, on average accounting for only about 14 per cent of members in 2002. There are no systematic differences between rich and poor countries, and considerable variations within each region.
- In 2002, only 11 countries had achieved the benchmark set in the Beijing Platform for Action of 30 per cent representation by women in parliament: Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Finland, Norway, Iceland, the Netherlands, South Africa, Costa Rica, Argentina and Mozambique. In all of these countries quotas were legislated or adopted on a voluntary basis.
- New Zealand just missed the target with women's representation in parliament at 29.2 per cent after its most recent election.
- Nevertheless, there was continued progress in all regions between 2000 and 2002 towards the benchmark.
- Women's share of seats in parliament fell in 22 countries. Particularly disappointing were two cases in which a return to democracy was accompanied by a reduction in women's representation. In Nigeria women's share of seats fell to a very disappointing 3.2 per cent. In Indonesia women's share fell from 11.4 per cent to only 8 per cent.
- The large fall in women's share of seats which followed the transition to market economies in Eastern Europe has been reversed in three countries: Bulgaria, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Poland.
- In some rich countries, women's representation in the legislature remains well below that achieved in many poor countries. Women's share of seats in the United States is 12 per cent but 38 developing countries have a higher share.

The Gender Gap in Representation in Parliament

The empowerment of women requires that women have more say in all the decisions that affect their lives, including in the household, the community, the market place, the workplace, and in all levels of public assemblies and offices, from the local to the national to the international. It is difficult to produce global estimates of the degree to which women have enhanced their position in all these arenas. The only indicator that can currently be tabulated for the world as a whole is women's share of seats in national parliaments. Although it does not truly cover the breadth of women's involvement in decision-making, it is nevertheless useful.

The goal of increasing women's representation in parliaments is a long-standing one, and was agreed upon at numerous international conferences prior to the

Millennium Summit. The target of 30 per cent representation in key decision-making positions was endorsed by the UN Economic and Social Council and was reiterated in the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (para. 182). Women in many parts of the world have been campaigning to meet this target, and to go beyond it to achieve true parity (see Box 7, p. 42).

But increasing women's share of seats in parliament is not a panacea. It can only level the playing field on which women battle for equality. While women the world over campaign for equal representation, most recognize that this is not, and never can be, a guarantee that women in power will make decisions that benefit the majority of women. And beyond the personal perspectives of individual candidates, many other factors prevent them from promoting laws and programmes that aid women: The power of parliamentarians may be limited by the decisions of international investors; by the rules of international bodies such as the World Trade Organization (WTO); by the loan conditions of international financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF); by national constitutions that hamper parliamentary power in relation to the executive powers of government; and by political parties that exert strong discipline over their members. Despite all this, women's presence is essential: Their absence from national legislatures signals that women are not accepted as equal partners in political decision-making for the nation.

Women's presence is especially important in post-conflict situations, when new constitutions and new parliaments are often being created. Until recently women were almost completely excluded from peace-building and post-war decision-making. Now, with the support of UNIFEM and many other organizations, the issue of women's participation is receiving more attention. The UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 in October 2000 urging Member States to increase women's representation at all levels of decision-making institutions for preventing, managing and resolving conflict. It calls on all actors negotiating and implementing peace agreements to adopt a gender perspective and to include women in implementing mechanisms of the peace agreement. Since then, women have been included in the decision-making mechanisms setting up the new Democratic Republic of East Timor. In August 2001 elections were held to set up a Constituent Assembly, with women gaining 26.1 per cent of the votes. This body became the national parliament on 20 May 2002, when East Timor officially became independent.

Table 7 (pp. 42-43) gives a regional and country breakdown of women's share of seats in national parliaments in November 2002, based on the data compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU).

Changes in Women's Share

There has been continued progress towards the 30 per cent benchmark in recent elections in a significant



PHOTO BY RADEK PETRASEK-APF

A polling station worker holds a ballot box for an elderly woman in the Czech Republic, part of an effort to help home-bound citizens vote.

Table 7: Women's Share of Seats in National Parliament, July 2002

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	
	(%)
South Africa	30.0
Mozambique	30.0
Rwanda	25.7
Uganda	24.7
Seychelles	23.5
Tanzania, UR	22.3
Namibia	20.0
Burundi	19.5
Senegal	19.2
Botswana	17.0
Angola	15.5
Eritrea	14.7
Mali	12.2
Congo	12.0
Zambia	12.0
Cape Verde	11.1
Liberia	11.1
Gabon	10.9
Lesotho	10.7
Zimbabwe	10.0
Burkina Faso	11.7
Sudan	9.7
Malawi	9.3
Ghana	9.0
Cameroon	8.9
Guinea	8.8
Côte d'Ivoire	8.5
Madagascar	8.0
Guinea-Bissau	7.8
Ethiopia	7.8
Central African Rep.	7.3
Swaziland	6.3
Benin	6.0
Mauritius	5.7
Gambia	5.7
Cameroon	5.6
Eq. Guinea	5.0
Togo	4.9
Kenya	3.6
Nigeria	3.2
Mauritania	1.8
Niger	1.2
Djibouti	0.0

NORTHERN AFRICA	
	(%)
Tunisia	11.5
Algeria	4.0
Egypt	2.4
Morocco	0.6

CENTRAL AND WESTERN ASIA	
	(%)
Turkmenistan	26.0
Israel	14.2
Tajikistan	12.3
Kazakhstan	11.2
Cyprus	10.7
Azerbaijan	10.5
Syria	10.4
Iraq	7.6
Uzbekistan	7.2
Georgia	7.2
Kyrgyzstan	6.6
Turkey	4.2
Jordan	3.3
Armenia	3.1
Lebanon	2.3
Yemen	0.7

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	
	(%)
Viet Nam	27.3
East Timor, DR	26.1
Lao PDR	22.9
China	21.8
Korea, DPR	20.1
Philippines	17.2
Malaysia	14.5
Singapore	11.8
Mongolia	10.5
Thailand	9.6
Cambodia	9.3
Bhutan	9.3
India	8.9
Indonesia	8.0
Maldives	6.0
Samoa (Western)	6.1
Nepal	5.9
Korea, Rep.	5.9
Fiji	5.7
Sri Lanka	4.4
Iran, Islamic Rep.	4.1
Bangladesh	2.0
Vanuatu	1.9

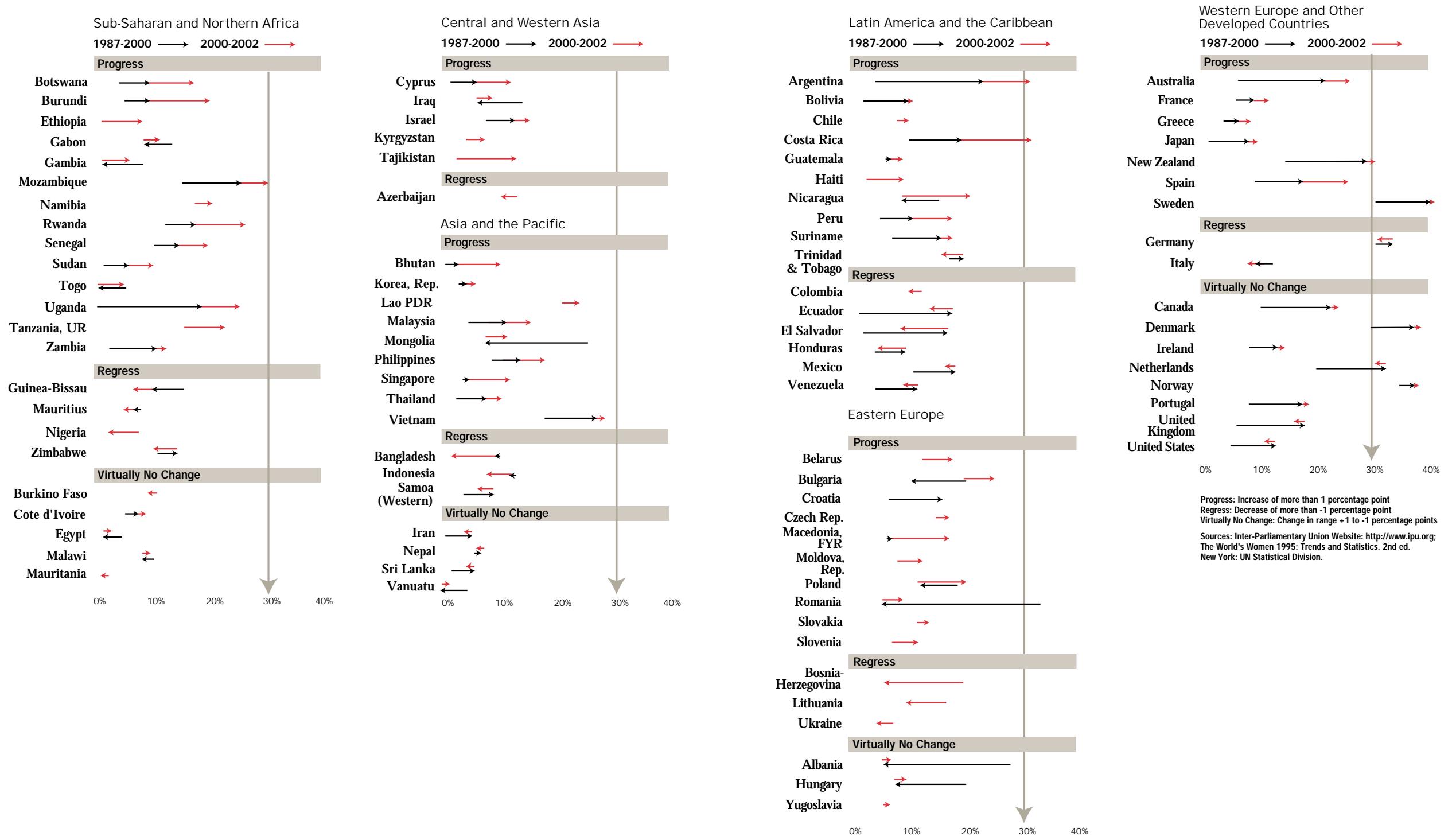
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN	
	(%)
Costa Rica	35.1
Argentina	31.3
Cuba	27.6
Nicaragua	20.7
Barbados	20.4
Guyana	20.0
Suriname	17.6
Peru	17.5
Trinidad & Tobago	25.3
Mexico	16.0
Jamaica	16.0
Dominican Rep.	15.4
Ecuador	14.6
Belize	13.5
Uruguay	11.5
Colombia	11.0
Bolivia	17.8
Chile	10.0
Panama	9.9
Venezuela	9.7
El Salvador	9.5
Haiti	9.0
Guatemala	8.8
Paraguay	8.0
Brazil	6.7
Honduras	5.5

EASTERN EUROPE	
	(%)
Bulgaria	26.2
Poland	21.0
Belarus	18.3
Latvia	18.0
Estonia	17.8
Macedonia, FYR	17.5
Croatia	16.0
Czech Rep.	15.6
Slovakia	14.0
Moldova, Rep.	12.9
Slovenia	12.2
Lithuania	10.6
Romania	9.2
Hungary	9.1
Russian Fed.	6.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	6.4
Yugoslavia	5.9
Albania	5.7
Ukraine	5.1*

WESTERN EUROPE AND OTHER DEVELOPED COUNTRIES	
	(%)
Sweden	45.0
Denmark	38.0
Finland	36.5
Norway	36.4
Iceland	34.9
Netherlands	31.5
Germany	31.0
New Zealand	29.2
Australia	27.0
Spain	26.6
Austria	25.1
Belgium	24.8
Canada	24.0
Switzerland	22.0
Portugal	19.1
United Kingdom	17.0
Luxembourg	16.7
Ireland	14.6
United States	12.0
France	11.8
Japan	10.0
Malta	9.2
Italy	9.1
Greece	8.7

Sources: Inter-Parliamentary Union
 website: <http://www.ipu.org>
 *www.uatoday.net

CHART 5: Changes in Women's Share of Seats in National Parliament, 1987-2000-2002



BOX 7: THE 50/50CAMPAIGN: GET THE BALANCE RIGHT!

Worldwide, women make up more than half the population, but they hold only 12.7 percent of all parliamentary seats. What's wrong with these numbers?

No government can claim to be democratic until women are guaranteed the right to equal representation. At the 1995 Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women, 189 governments agreed to this principle in the Beijing Platform, and committed themselves to take steps to achieve it.

But the percentage of women legislators has only increased .5 percent a year since then. At that rate, it would take 75 years to reach an equal gender balance!

WEDO 50/50 Campaign www.wedo.org

The Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO) launched its 50/50 campaign in 2000, during the five-year review of the Beijing Platform for Action (PFA). The campaign's goals are to take the target of 30 per cent in the PFA and push it to true gender equality: 50/50 representation between women and men. The campaign is working to increase the percentage of women in local and national legislatures worldwide through education, training potential candidates and meetings with political leaders. It has been adopted by 154 organizations in 45 countries and many countries have launched their own 50/50 campaigns. WEDO has also taken the campaign to the United Nations, where it is called on Member States to divide the top positions in their missions equally between women and men. At the end of 2002, 94 per cent of UN missions were headed by men.

number of countries in all regions. Chart 5 shows changes in women's share of seats in parliament, in the period from January 2000 to November 2002, in those countries where there have been elections (the red lines) and compares those changes to the period from 1987 to 2000 (the black lines). This may not exactly correspond to the dates of elections, since there is often a gap between the holding of elections and the posting of the results on the IPU website.

In sub-Saharan Africa, during the most recent period, there were elections in 23 countries, of which 14 increased their representation of women. Four experienced virtually no change, and four elected fewer women than previously. Mozambique and Uganda continued their upward trajectory. Equally noteworthy were the improvements in Burundi, where women's representation jumped from 6 per cent all the way to 19.5 per cent and Rwanda, where the increase was from 17.1 per cent

to 25.7 per cent. However, the return to democracy in Nigeria did not result in a greater voice for women in parliament, with women's share of seats falling below its previous level of 7.3 per cent to a very disappointing 3.2 per cent. In several countries in the region, racked by internal conflicts, there is no functioning parliament.

In Northern Africa, Egypt was the only country with an election during this period but there was virtually no change, with women's share of seats stuck at just above 2 per cent.

In Central and Western Asia six countries held elections in this period, with five of them showing improvements. The increase in Tajikistan was particularly marked: Women's share went from 2.8 per cent to 12 per cent. However, Azerbaijan, which had been one of the better performers in a region where representation is on the whole not high, slipped back from 12 per cent to 10.5 per cent. In this region there are a number of countries in which women's right to stand for election, and even to vote, has not yet been recognized. These include Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates. Oman, Qatar and Saudi Arabia have never had an elected parliament.

In Asia and the Pacific, there were elections in 16 countries, and of these nine showed some progress, three showed virtually no change and four showed deterioration. The large decline in Mongolian women's share of seats, which plummeted from 25 per cent in 1987 to 7.9 per cent in 2000, was reversed, although not dramatically. Women held 10.5 per cent of all parliamentary seats in 2002. In Bangladesh, however, women's representation was reduced from 9.1 per cent to only 2 per cent. And in Indonesia, as in Nigeria, democratization did not improve women's representation: Their share of seats fell from 11.4 per cent to 8 per cent.

Latin America and the Caribbean show significant progress in some countries, counterbalanced by deterioration in almost as many. There were elections in 16 countries during the period, during which Argentina and Costa Rica passed the 30 per cent benchmark and Nicaragua reversed its earlier decline, when it had dropped from 15 per cent in 1987 to 9.7 per cent in 2000. Women's share of seats is now at 20.7 per cent. In Mexico, although the 2000 election was heralded as a victory for democracy because it removed the Partido Revolucionario Institucional (PRI) from power after decades of unchallenged rule, there was no gain for women. Their share of seats fell slightly from 17.9 per cent to 16 per cent.

Women's share of seats in parliament has suffered dramatically in Eastern Europe during the transition to market economies. Three countries have managed to reverse that trend in recent elections: Bulgaria, where women had a 21 per cent share in 1987, dropped to 10.8 per cent in 2000, and then jumped to 26.2

per cent in 2002; Poland, which saw women's share go from 20 per cent in 1987 to 12.6 per cent in 2000 then back up to 21 per cent in 2002; and the Former Republic of Macedonia, where women's share improved from 7.5 per cent in 2000 to 17.5 per cent in 2002. In Bulgaria and Poland the increase can partly be attributed to the work of women's organizations. In Poland, OSKA, a national NGO, supported women candidates with the assistance of UNIFEM. In Bulgaria, several women's NGOs worked with a new political party to bring women into office (see Box 8).

In Russia, there is no real sign of recovery. There has been a slight change in the last two years, with women representing 5.6 per cent of parliamentarians in 2000 and 6.4 per cent in 2002, compared to their 32 per cent in 1987. In some of the new countries in the region, such as Croatia, the Czech Republic, Moldova and Slovenia, women's share of seats has increased in the last two years. At the same time, women's share fell substantially in Bosnia and Herzegovina (from a high of 21% all the way down to 6.4%), Lithuania (from 17.5 to 10.6%) and slightly less so in Ukraine (from 2.8 to 5.1%). There is clearly no guarantee that upward trajectories can be maintained or that losses can be recouped.

In Western Europe and Other Developed Countries, there were elections in 17 countries. New Zealand almost succeeded in attaining the 30 per cent goal and Australia and Spain came closer to it than ever before. However, Canada and the United Kingdom did not maintain their upward trajectory and are stuck at around 17 per cent and 24 per cent respectively. Germany and the Netherlands registered slight drops, though their shares remained above 30 per cent. The United States remained at one of the lowest levels of all developed countries: 12 per cent.

AN MDG SCORECARD

The following charts show those countries that are in the lead according to the targets and indicators set out in the Millennium Development Goals as well as those that have the furthest to go. We are presenting these charts in full recognition that many of the countries in the lead have benefited from years of development, stable political situations and robust economies (see Table 8, p. 48). That is why it is particularly noteworthy that Argentina, Costa Rica and South Africa are in this group, since none of the three have had the same social, economic or political stability as the Western Developed nations on the list.

Table 9 (p. 48) summarises the MDG indicators for those countries that have the furthest to go in achieving the goals. These are largely poor countries, many of which have suffered from internal conflict as well as other factors that intervene in their ability to attain the goals. All but one of the countries with the lowest levels of achieve- [CONTINUED ON PAGE 49]

BOX 8: WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION IN THE NEW BULGARIAN PARLIAMENT

The rise in the representation of women in Bulgaria's parliament has been credited to two factors: campaigning by women's NGOs and the policies of a new political party.

Campaigning by NGOs

The Bulgarian Gender Research Foundation (BGRF) produced a report at the end of 2000 entitled 'Equal rights and equal opportunities for women in political life in Bulgaria,' which advocated for increased attention by political parties to the problems of women in politics and for new legislation introducing affirmative action. The report called for at least 40 per cent of the candidates in eligible positions to be women.

- The Women's Alliance for Development (WAD) conducted a pre-election campaign for more women in parliament.

- Under the slogan 'Women can do it,' the Gender Project of the Bulgaria Foundation conducted extensive training for women who wished to develop political careers.

- Women's NGOs organized meetings with parliamentarians from all the political parties and suggested changes in the electoral law that would provide for 50/50 participation of women and men in all eligible electoral positions.

- The NGOs were supported by the Gender Task Force of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe.

Policies of a New Political Party

In April 2001 Simeon Kobourg Gottha, the returning former King of Bulgaria, formed a new political party. The new party accepted the ideas put forward by the women's NGOs and placed women in 40 per cent of eligible positions. It went on to win the national elections in June 2001 with 40 per cent of the votes. Women won 26.2 per cent of the seats in the new parliament.

Assessment

The representation of women in the Bulgarian parliament has not been an unmitigated success. A study for the BGRF found that women in parliament were not fully prepared for their new careers. They did not see themselves as representing women's interests, nor did they see themselves as having common interests with each other. NGOs will need to continue to work with the new women parliamentarians to bring women's issues higher up on their agendas.

Source: personal communication, Genoveva Tisheva (BGRF)

Table 8: Countries with Highest Levels of Achievement in Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

Country	30% Women's Share of Seats in National Parliament	Female/Male Ratio Net Secondary School Enrolment, (95-105%)	Female Enrolment Rate in Secondary School	Female Share of Paid Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector, (44-55%)
Sweden	45.0	104	98	51
Denmark	38.0	103	91	49
Finland	36.5	102	96	50
Norway	36.4	101	96	48
Iceland	34.9	104	78	52
Netherlands	31.5	100	92	44
Germany	31.0	101	88	45
Very Close to the Highest Levels of Achievement in Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment				
Costa Rica	35.1	113	46	39
Argentina	31.3	109	79	43
South Africa	30.0	110	95	n.d

Table 9: Countries with Lowest Levels of Achievement in Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

Female Enrolment Rate in Secondary School	Female/Male Ratio in Secondary School Enrolment	Female Youth Literacy Rate	Female Share of Wage Employment in Non-Agricultural Sector	Women's Share of Seats in National Parliament	
Below 10%	Below 50%	Below 50%	Below 20%	Below 5%	
Burkina Faso	Benin	Bangladesh	Bahrain	Algeria	Morocco
Burundi	Cambodia	Benin	Burkina Faso	Armenia	Nigeria
Cambodia	Chad	Burkina Faso	Chad	Bangladesh	Niger
Chad	Côte d'Ivoire	Guinea-Bissau	India	Djibouti	Sri Lanka
Congo, DR	Equatorial Guinea	Iraq	Malawi	Egypt	Samoa
Guinea	Guinea	Mauritania	Niger	Iran	(Western)
Mozambique	Guinea-Bissau	Nepal	Pakistan	Jordan	Turkey
Niger	Mali	Niger	Syria	Kenya	Togo
Tanzania, UR	Togo	Pakistan	Turkey	Kuwait	Yemen
	Yemen	Senegal	Zimbabwe	Lebanon	UAE
				Mauritania	Vanuatu

Table 10: Poverty and Economic Growth, by Region

	Percentage Population Below \$1 a Day 1999	Per Capita GDP 2000 (ppp US\$)	Growth of Per Capita GDP, Annual Average 1990-2000 (%)
Sub-Saharan Africa	47	1690	-0.3
Middle East and North Africa	2	4793	0.7
South Asia	37	2404	3.3
East Asia and the Pacific	14	4290	5.7
Latin America and Caribbean	15	7234	1.7
Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia	4	6930	-2.4

Sources: Population below \$1 a day: MDG data base
Per capita GDP: UNDP, *Human Development Report 2002*, Table 1, p.152
Growth of per capita GDP: *Human Development Report 2002*, Table 12, p. 193

Table 11: Maternal Mortality, by Region

	Maternal Deaths per 100,000 Live Births, 1995
Sub-Saharan Africa	1100
Middle East and North Africa	360
South Asia	430
East Asia and the Pacific	140
Latin America and Caribbean	190
CIS/CEE and Baltic States	55

Source: Maternal mortality in 1995: Estimates developed by WHO, UNICEF and UNFPA, Geneva, 2001.

[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 43] ment in girls' enrolment in secondary school and gender equality in enrolment are in sub-Saharan Africa. As numerous studies, including our own, have shown, women in this region are more disadvantaged than in any other region. As Table 10 shows, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest poverty rates and the lowest per capita GDP. Moreover, on average, the region's production is not growing but shrinking, with GDP per capita declining in the period 1990 to 2000 at an average rate of -0.3 per cent a year.

This deepening poverty has profound impacts on women's lives. As Table 11 shows, maternal mortality rates are much higher than in other regions—more than twice as high as in South Asia, the next highest region. HIV/AIDS prevalence among adults is also much higher in sub-Saharan Africa (see Table 12, p. 50)—more than four times the rates in the Caribbean which has the next highest rates.

Despite the dire conditions in sub-Saharan Africa, women are taking steps to increase their voice in public decision-making. As shown in chart 5, in most of the 23 countries in which there have been elections in the region between January 2000 and November 2002, women's share of seats in parliament has increased. At the end of 2002 women in 13 sub-Saharan countries had a higher share of seats in parliament than did women in the United States.

Women parliamentarians in several sub-Saharan countries are working together with women researchers and community activists to develop gender budget initiatives (see Box 9, p. 51). These initiatives examine the impact on gender equality of the ways in which governments raise revenue and spend money. They advocate for more attention to the priorities of poor women and greater accountability towards them, providing a beacon of hope in an area of mounting distress.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In assessing the progress of women in the context of the MDGs, the limitations of the MDG indicators become apparent. We have proposed certain alterations or additions that will provide a clearer picture of actual achievement.

- For girls' enrolment rates in school:
 - Monitor the actual level of girls' enrolment in addition to gender disparities.
 - Track completion rates as well as enrolment rates.
- For literacy:
 - Track the actual level of literacy, as well as the gender disparity.
- For women's economic equality and empowerment, develop additional indicators to:
 - Track women's participation in informal wage work.
 - Develop a decent work indicator.
 - Create a target to end gender disparity in wages.
 - Measure the extent to which women are paid a living wage.

Table 12: HIV/AIDS, by Region, 2002

	Adults and Children Living with HIV/AIDS	Adults and Children Newly Infected with HIV/AIDS	Adult Prevalence Rate (%)*	% of HIV Positive Adults Who Are Women
Sub-Saharan Africa	29.4 million	3.5 million	8.8	58
North Africa and the Middle East	550 000	83 000	0.3	55
South and South-East Asia	6.0 million	700 000	0.6	36
East Asia and the Pacific	1.2 million	270 000	0.1	24
Latin America	1.5 million	150 000	0.6	30
Caribbean	440 000	60 000	2.4	50
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	1.2 million	250 000	0.6	27
Western Europe	570 000	30 000	0.3	25
North America	980 000	45 000	0.6	20
Australia and New Zealand	15 000	500	0.1	7
Total	42 million	5 million	1.2	50

Source: UNAIDS/WHO. AIDS Epidemic Update: December 2002. <http://www.unaids.org/>

* The proportion of adults (15 to 49 years of age) living with HIV/AIDS in 2002, using 2002 population numbers

BOX 9: GENDER BUDGET INITIATIVES

Following the pioneering work of South Africa, at least 10 other countries in sub-Saharan Africa are carrying out gender budget initiatives, including Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe. Started in response to the structural adjustment policies imposed in the region in the last two decades, they have highlighted the fact that the contributions of men and women to economies are counted and recompensed very differently. Women contribute 90 per cent of all food processing, water and fuelwood collection, 90 per cent of hoeing and weeding on farms and 60 per cent of harvesting and marketing, along with almost all the work of caring for family members, but most of this is unpaid.

Most of the gender budget initiatives also reflect the movement towards more transparent and participatory forms of governance in the region, including a concern to give poor and marginalized populations a political voice as well as a greater share in public resources. While parliaments are finding ways to play a greater role in determining budget priorities, women's groups and civil society organizations are advocating with parliamentarians to influence this process and providing their own analysis of existing budget flows.

As a result, some of the most effective initiatives are carried out jointly by civil society and parliamentarians. One example is the Gender Budget Project in Uganda, which is a creative partnership between the Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE) and a caucus of parliamentarians representing women, youth, workers and people with disabilities. Through the partnership, supported by the UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNIFEM and other international agencies, research and analyses done by FOWODE are taken up in parliamentary committees and included in parliamentary reports on the budget. Focused on expenditures in education, health and agriculture, the project has succeeded in involving government planners from those three sectors as well as the Ministries of Finance and Economic Planning and Gender, Labour and Social Development. Recently, it has also begun to focus on how revenue is raised.

Elsewhere, Tanzania's Gender Budgeting Initiative, started in 1997 by a coalition of women's groups, and taken forward by the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme, was a response to the dramatic cuts in social services, particularly to health care and education, together with massive layoffs of public sector workers caused by structural adjustment policies. In addition to examining resource allocation in national and local budgets, the initiative seeks to strengthen women's lobby-

ing and advocacy skills in order to increase resources to sectors that impact women, youths and other disadvantaged groups. An integral part of the initiative is a popular education effort, featuring a reader-friendly guide to the budget process and economic policy.

Mozambique is an example of a government-led initiative. Under the leadership of the Ministry of Planning and Finance, the Government presented a Social and Economic Plan with a gender perspective to Parliament in 1998 and began collecting gender-disaggregated data for the 1999 budget proposals. The Ministry also facilitated training for technical staff in preparing the national budget from a gender perspective. UNIFEM has recently supported the production of a popular guidebook on gender budget analysis that aims to make women's unpaid work visible and to see that it is accounted for in macroeconomic policy making.

In Nigeria a UNIFEM-supported gender budget exercise is being developed under the leadership of the Ministry of Women's Affairs and Social Development as part of its work to implement the Beijing Platform for Action. The initiative focused first on the federal budget for agricultural and rural development as well as on two state-level budgets — the budget for health in Akwa Ibom state and the budget for commerce and industry in Ebugu state. A training manual is in the process of development. UNIFEM is also liaising with the European Union and the Open Society Institute for West Africa (OSIWA) to promote gender mainstreaming in their public budget reform programmes.

In Rwanda, which is struggling to recover from a decade of war and upheaval, the Government faces the twin challenges of building democratic governance and restarting a devastated economy. Poverty rates, especially among women, are among the highest in the region: 62 per cent of female-headed households are living in poverty compared to 54 per cent of male-headed households. Most people depend upon farming for livelihoods, but while women make up over 80 per cent of farmers, they have limited access to or control over land, markets and credit. With support from the UK Department for International Development (DfID), the Rwanda Government is carrying out a gender budget exercise under the leadership of the Ministry of Gender and Women in Development. It is collaborating with the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, which is coordinating reform of governance and development strategy. Starting with pilots in five sectors, the initiative is focused on building capacity within the ministries and working with the Directorate of Statistics to generate sex-disaggregated data.

BOX 10: THE MILLENNIUM PROJECT

To accelerate progress towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals, the UN Secretary-General and the Administrator of UNDP have launched the Millennium Project, a three-year effort to identify the best strategies for meeting the MDGs. The Project's analytical work will be carried out by 10 Task Forces, comprised of representatives of academia, the public and private sectors, and civil society organizations.

The Task Force on Education and Gender Equality has produced background papers on each of its two components. The paper on gender equality, entitled "Promises to Keep: Achieving Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women," offers an analysis of the selected targets and indicators for Goal 3, summarizes progress to date along these measures, and makes recommendations for tracking progress in the future. Many of the Task Force's observations and recommendations affirm what is contained in this volume. They also propose alternative targets and indicators for tracking progress.

The Task Force puts forward three primary domains or components of equality between men and women:

- **The capabilities domain** refers to basic human abilities as measured through education, health and nutrition. It is the most fundamental of the three domains and is necessary for achieving equality in the other two domains.
- **The access to resources and opportunities domain** refers primarily to equality in the opportunity to use or apply basic capabilities through access to economic assets (such as land and property) and resources (such as income and employment).
- **The agency domain** is the defining element in the concept of empowerment and refers to the ability to make choices and decisions that can alter outcomes. Gender equality in this domain can only result from an equalizing in the balance of power between women and men in the household and societal institutions.

These three domains of equality are inter-related. Progress in any one domain to the exclusion of the others is insufficient to meet the goal of gender equality. While they are inter-related, the three domains are not necessarily dependent on one another. For instance, illiterate women, who are lacking in the capabilities domain, may organize, thereby building their agency to influence their circumstances and those of their households. Not surprisingly, the women then use that agency to demand capability (better health or education) and opportunity (access to decent work). Similarly, women with capabilities (as measured by education) may have limited economic opportunities, owing to persistent gender discrimination in employment and access to resources.

The Task Force recommends using this framework to expand the number of targets necessary to reach Goal 3

and adding some indicators to the four that were originally selected. For the targets, it recommends two additional ones to be met by 2015: 1) eliminate gender inequality in access to economic assets and employment; 2) achieve a 30 per cent share of seats for women in national parliaments.

For the indicators, it recommends the following supplements:

- Completion rates in addition to enrolment rates for all levels of education;
- Region-specific economic indicators such as gender gaps in earnings in wage and self-employment, sex-disaggregated unemployment rates or occupational segregation;
- Prevalence of domestic violence in the past year – particularly focusing on physical violence experienced by women ages 15–49 at the hands of intimate partners.

The paper contains a brief discussion on policies and programmes needed to achieve the two proposed targets and the already-existing one. Some of the highlights include:

Target 1 – Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015. On the global level, the authors recommend using the "Education for All" (EFA) framework established after the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 to set priorities and channel resources. The EFA declaration includes a commitment to "ensure access to and improve the quality of education for girls and women and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation." In 2002, the EFA Fast-Track Partnership was endorsed, which would channel increased development support to countries identified as having a sound educational sector strategy.

At the regional and national levels, the authors highlight the need to address supply and demand constraints. On the supply side, strategies include increasing the number and reach of primary and secondary schools, particularly in rural areas; reducing school costs; staffing schools with female teachers; instituting policies that promote girls' attendance (such as permitting married adolescents to attend); and improving the safety of schools, the quality and gender-sensitivity of curricula, and the design of facilities. Demand-side strategies include mobilizing parent and community involvement in monitoring the quality of education, undertaking campaigns to increase awareness of the value of girls' education, and introducing broader economic policies that increase the returns to girls' education.

Target 2 – Eliminate gender inequality in access to economic assets and employment by the year 2015. The authors recommend using the ILO's Decent Work campaign (see Box 6, p. 38) as the global framework for mon-



A labour market for women in Beijing. Women gather here to wait for an employer to offer them a job.

itoring equal access to employment and remedying inequalities in access to economic resources. Specifically, they propose two pathways: improving women's access to economic assets and improving women's access to employment and labour markets.

With regard to the first, they propose that an essential first step is legislation allowing women to inherit, acquire and control productive assets, including land and housing. These legal reforms will need, as well, effective enforcement mechanisms. Beyond land and housing, providing poor women with access to credit is another way to enhance their asset ownership and access to savings. Microcredit programmes have been recognized as contributing to the stabilization of household income, although they are less effective in stimulating economic growth. With regard to employment and labour markets, the authors note that strategies for improving women's access to employment include expanding their advancement from primary to tertiary schooling and boosting their participation in science, engineering, technology and other fields to prepare them for jobs in the global economy. They also note the importance of: a) employment-targeted economic growth as a prerequisite for low-income countries coupled with social policies that eliminate discriminatory employment barriers; b) equity in earnings, with secure earnings as an important means to

improve women's bargaining power; c) equitable distribution of state resources that close gender gaps in economic and social well-being.

Target 3 – Achieve a 30 per cent share of seats for women in national parliaments by the year 2015. The authors point out that quotas have been an effective way of bringing about change in the number of women in positions of political leadership in the short term. While noting that opinion is mixed about whether or not a greater number of women in political office translates into policies and budget authorizations that benefit women overall, they point out that it does have an important symbolic effect by generating a public discussion of gender equality in politics and decision-making.

In addition to the discussion of the targets and indicators, the authors propose that women's agency can be increased by a commitment to ending violence against women. They call on the Secretary-General of the UN to lend his leadership to a campaign of zero tolerance for such violence, and recommend CEDAW as a useful international mechanism to hold countries accountable for meeting Goal 3. They point out that all the nations that have ratified CEDAW are required to report on the specific measures they have taken to advance women's status, and that the CEDAW mechanism can similarly be used to monitor progress toward the MDGs.

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