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# **Women in political decision-making positions**

## **Facts and figures 2000**

About 80 years ago women secured for themselves the right to vote and the right to hold political office in most European countries. Since then they have been present in parliaments, governments and public bodies, but underrepresented. Although this imbalanced representation of women and men in politics conflicts with fundamental democratic principles, there is still no equal participation of women in political decision-making processes.

## **Equal opportunities policy of the European Union**

With 52%, women make up the majority of the EU population. They are better educated than ever before and are becoming increasingly involved in working life. However, their equal participation in senior positions in society, industry and politics continues to be the exception. Only in Sweden are more than 50% of its government members female. On average in the EU only one in five members of a parliament or government is female. The national differences are also considerable. And this despite the fact that there are important framework conditions for the equal treatment of women:

In the Treaties of Rome (1957) Article 119 stipulates "equal pay for equal work". This laid the foundation stone for the equal opportunities policy in the EU. Since the mid-1970s the EU Council of Ministers has adopted directives to establish the principle of equal treatment for women and men in EU Member States (e.g. equal opportunities for access to employment and vocational training, social security, self-employment, and protection for pregnant women in the workplace). The European Court of Justice has developed legislation which makes direct and indirect gender discrimination unlawful in all the legal systems of Member States. Since the beginning of the 1980s the European Commission has been organising action programmes to promote equal opportunities. Whereas in the first two programmes the emphasis was on equal opportunities at work, the 3rd Medium-Term Action Programme has recognized the importance of the active participation of women in political decision-making processes for equal opportunities policies. It has analysed and supported this through the Expert Network "Women in Decision-making". One of the main goals of the 4th Action Programme (1996 - 2000) is the balanced participation of women and men in decision-making. The follow-up programme announced in March 2000 will not change this weighting in any way. Since the support from the structural funds failed to reach women in the EU, or if so only to a minor degree, the principle of equal opportunities for women and men in the labour market has been given a reinforced basis through the 1993 reform in the framework regulation for all three funds. By means of the NOW (New Opportunities for Women)

scheme under the Community Initiative on EMPLOYMENT (1994 -1999) financed by the European Social Fund, the only programme specifically for women has been created within the framework of the Community Initiatives. Its goals are model qualifications for occupations of the future, professional independence, better reconciliation of work and family and the encouragement of promotion into decision-making positions. In 1995 the equal opportunities group was set up. It includes five members of the European Commission and is chaired by the President. Its task is to make equal opportunities for women and men an integral part of all areas of policy (gender mainstreaming). In the Charter of Rome (1996) the EU Ministers for Women's Affairs call for a renewal of politics and society by means of an active equal opportunities policy:

"The equal participation of women and men in decision-making processes is our major goal at European level".

In its Recommendation of 2 December 1996 the Council of the European Union calls on the Member States to develop suitable measures and strategies to correct the under-representation of women in decision-making positions. Forty years after the Treaties of Rome the EU Member States undertook in the Amsterdam Treaty (1997) to make equal opportunities an essential component of European and national policies. This makes equality between women and men a criterion against which all areas of policy must be measured.

The Declaration of Paris (1999) carries on from the above commitment of the Commission and Member States in Athens (1992) and Rome (1996) and calls for a political pact between all the stake holders. Gender mainstreaming was the tool with which equality could at last be guaranteed not only de jure but also de facto. The Declaration explicitly involves decision makers in industry who should, in their own interests, tap female potential left fallow up to now in decision-making positions.

### Gender Mainstreaming

Thanks to the efforts of the European Union the gender mainstreaming principle was laid down in the action platform of the Beijing World Women's Conference in 1995. Since then it has shaped the EU's equal opportunities policy. In essence, mainstreaming means the commitment by the European Commission to pursue an equal opportunities policy as a cross-sectional task. With the Amsterdam Treaty ratified in 1999 by the Member States, the strategy was developed further under the term Gender Mainstreaming. The term stands for the inclusion of equal opportunities for men and women in all areas of policy coupled with the continuation of positive activities (specific promotion of women) until equality has actually been achieved. Hence, equal opportunities are no longer a special subject but a fundamental component of all EU policies as a guiding principle of the actions of the Community bodies and a commitment of all EU Member States. In concrete terms this means that all proposals, plans, measures and programmes must be examined prior to their adoption in order to determine what consequences they will have for equality between women and men. The same applies to the implementation of progress monitoring and evaluation. The first effects can be seen in the Luxembourg Process, named after the Luxembourg

Employment Summit (1997) at which the heads of state and government of the European Union adopted the European Employment Strategy (EPS). According to this strategy, the Council decides annually the employment policy guidelines which are then implemented by the Member States in National Action Plans (NAPs). Gender mainstreaming applies both to the EPS and to the most recent reform of the Structural Funds within the framework of the Agenda 2000. The new ESF-funded Community Initiative EQUAL (2000 - 2006) also incorporates the dual strategy of gender mainstreaming: inclusion of the equal opportunities for women and men dimension in all promoted measures and positive actions in the form of specific women's projects.

## Female politicians in the European Union

*Update: May 2000*

*\* Update: November 1999*

	Total	Women	in %
European Parliament	626	194	31.0
European Commission	25	5	20.0
Economic and Social Committee*	222	38	17.1
Committee of the Regions*	222	31	14.0

### The European Commission

The European Commission was established in 1957 but more than three decades passed before women were appointed as Commissioners. Vasso Papandreu (Greece) and Christiane Scrivener (France) were the first two female Commissioners to come to Brussels in 1989. In the following period of office (1995 - 1999) there were already five female Commissioners; this corresponds to a share of 25%. In the new Commission (1999 - 2003) this share has not changed.

### The European Council

The heads of state and government of EU Member States, represented on the European Council, no longer belong to a male-only club. At present, there is no female head of government in the EU but the Council has two members who are heads of state (Tarja Halonen/Finland and Mary McAleese /Ireland) and three ministers of foreign affairs (Anna Lindh/Sweden, Benita Maria Ferrero-Waldner/Austria, Lydie Polfer/Luxembourg).

### The European Parliament

Women account for 31.0% of the members of the European Parliament. In the "world rankings" of national parliaments it is in position 6 behind Iceland (34.9%) and Germany (31.2%), and in the EU in position 7 behind the Netherlands (36.7%) and the Federal Republic of Germany. The French Nicole Fontaine was elected President by the European Parliament at the European elections in 1999. Of her 14 deputies one is a woman. Women chair five of the 17 parliamentary committees (environment, health and consumer protection, legal affairs and internal market, economic and monetary affairs, budget control, women's rights). In committees like the environment, culture, foreign trade and petitions they reach the "critical mass" of 30% and more. As a rule they make up one in five committee members.

### The Economic and Social Committee

The various interest groups from economic and social life in the EU are represented on the Economic and Social Committee. It is chaired by the Italian, Beatrice Rangoni-Machiavelli. There is roughly the same number of women in each of the three socially relevant groups – employers, employees and various interests. This amounts to a total share of 17.1% which is very low. Compared to the previous period of office, however, this number did increase by 2.1%.

### The Committee of the Regions

222 delegates from local and regional politics in the EU Member States look after the interests of their regions in Brussels. In this political body, too, women are very much under-represented with a share of 14% (31 women). They are, however, far more active than their male colleagues. In the first period of office of this body (1994 - 1998) they prepared around 20% of the Committee drafts, twice as many as their percentage share in that body (9.9%). Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal do not send any female delegates to the Committee of the Regions. Finland and Ireland have the highest proportion of women (both 44.4%).

### WOMEN IN THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

POLITICAL GROUPS	SEATS	IN %	WOMAN	IN %
European Democrats/European People`s Party - EPP	233	37,2	62	26,6
Party of European Socialists -PES	180	28,8	69	38,3
Liberal, Democratic and Reform Party - ELDR	50	8,0	16	32,0

Greens/European Free Alliance – V/Ale	48	7,7	20	41,7
European United Left/ Nordic Green Left – GUE/NLG	42	6,7	15	35,7
Union for a Europe of Nations - UEN	30	4,8	7	23,3
Technical Group of Independent Members - TDI	18	2,9	1	5,6
Europe of Democracies and Diversities - EDD	16	2,6	2	12,5
Non-attached - NI	9	1,4	2	22,5
Total	626	100	194	31,0

Update: 2000

## Women in the national parliaments

One in four members of the national parliaments in the EU is a woman. However, this figure ignores the considerable national differences. Sweden with a proportion of women of 43.6% (1994: 40.4%) comes closest to parity-based representation. There are far fewer women in the parliaments of the Mediterranean region (aside from Spain) and in France, Belgium and Ireland. In five Member States women are parliamentary presidents (Finland, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom). In almost all parliaments, women chair one or more parliamentary committees (with the exception of Ireland). The subjects are highly diverse and have long since moved beyond "soft" policy areas like social affairs, culture, youth or the family.

In almost all Member States women are also active in "hard" areas. They sit on budget and financial committees (exception: Ireland) but on a lower scale than their presence in parliament. All the same, in the Netherlands, Finland and the Federal Republic of Germany at least one in five members of the budget committee is female. In Sweden this committee is almost equally composed of women and men.

### Upper and lower chambers

In nine EU Member States the parliaments are made up of two chambers. In the "upper chambers" (the name varies) women are represented on a lower scale than in the "lower chambers" (exceptions: Belgium, Ireland). The EU average is 15.8%. Not all these chambers have elected members.

WOMEN IN THE NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS OF THE 15 EU MEMBER STATES:

EU Member States	As at	Total	Men	Women	in %
Sweden	26.08.99	349	197	152	43.6
Denmark*	19.05.00	175	110	65	37.1
Finland	30.05.00	200	126	74	37.0
Netherlands	27.08.99	150	95	55	36.7
Germany	09.05.00	669	460	209	31.2
France	23.05.00	577	518	59	10.2
Spain	13.04.00	349	252	97	27.8
Austria	29.10.99	183	134	49	26.8
Belgium	23.05.00	150	114	36	24.0
Portugal	12.01.00	230	185	45	19.6
United Kingdom	26.08.99	658	537	121	18.4
Luxembourg	30.05.00	60	50	10	16.7
Ireland	17.01.00	166	144	22	13.3
Italy	30.05.00	626	556	70	11.2
Greece	20.04.00	300	269	31	0.3
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>4,842</b>	<b>3,747</b>	<b>1,095</b>	<b>22.6</b>
Norway	29.06.99	165	105	60	36.4
Liechtenstein	26.05.00	25	24	1	4.0
Iceland	30.05.00	63	45	23	36.5

\*175, with the exception of 4 seats for Greenland and the Faeroe Islands

## Women in the national governments

The era of group photos without any women is over. In each government of the EU Member States there are at least two women. Besides Ireland, Finland now also has a female president. In the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Denmark, queens are the highest representatives of state. The highest state office in female hands, however, is no guarantee for the balanced participation of women in government. In Portugal only seven women amongst 53 men have governmental responsibilities (11.7%).

There is a total of 77 female ministers and 62 female junior ministers in the EU. Almost one in four members of government is a woman (24.8%). The classical women's area, family policy, continues to be a female domain. In many countries it is located along with labour and social policy or youth and equal opportunities policy in one ministry. Women are becoming increasingly responsible for the so-called hard areas – a total of 23 times as ministers or junior minister of foreign affairs, justice, economic affairs, internal affairs and defence.



## WOMEN IN GOVERNMENT IN THE EU AND EFTA COUNTRIES TOTAL, MINISTERS AND JUNIOR MINISTERS

Update: 2000

	TOTAL	MEN	WOMAN	IN %
S	19	8	11	57,9
DK	20	11	9	45,0
FI	18	11	7	38,9
UK	85	55	30	35,3
D	40	26	14	35,0
F	32	21	11	34,4
AT	16	11	5	31,3
NL	29	20	9	31,0
L	14	10	4	28,6
E	17	14	3	17,6
B	18	15	3	16,7
IRL	32	27	5	15,6
I	78	67	11	14,1
FL	83	73	10	12,0
P	60	53	7	11,7
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>561</b>	<b>422</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>24,8</b>
N	19	11	8	42,1
IS	12	9	3	25,0
FL	5	4	1	20,0

## Women in regional and municipal policy

In most countries the proportion of women in regional and local parliaments and governments is lower than on the national level. Only 11 out of 15 EU Member States have elected regional parliaments. In almost all cases the proportion of women is below the critical mass of 30% in parliament and government (female ministers and female junior ministers). In Sweden, by contrast, women and men are almost equally represented in regional parliaments (47.2%). In three regions they have reached a share of more than 50%. In Styria/Austria and in Schleswig-Holstein/Germany women are at the top of regional government.

Political participation at the local level can be measured by counting the number of local female councillors. The database for this area of policy is, however, very incomplete. Where data could be collected, women are underrepresented on the local councils. Only

in Sweden and Finland do they account for more than 30% (1997: Sweden: 41.2%, Finland: 31.5%).

## Strategies for the equal participation of women

The proportion of women in executive political positions has increased almost everywhere in the EU in the 1990s. The critical mass of 30% has still not been reached in most decision-making bodies. Only a long-term strategy can lead to the balanced participation of women and men in political decision-making processes. In the Scandinavian countries laws on equality between women and men introduced in the 1980s contain provisions for the balanced participation of women and men in public committees. The participation of women in political decision-making processes in these countries is a model for the EU.

Quota regulations are an important tool for giving women access to leading political positions.

Up to the spring of 2000 Belgium was the only EU Member State with a statutory quota regulation. It obliges all parties to give one-third of their list positions to women. After the elections in 1999, this led to a considerable increase of women in the national parliament from 13.3% to 23.3%. 1994 saw the establishment in France of the association "Demain la Parité." It organised campaigns for the equal representation of women and men in politics – successfully. The public debate led to the adopting of a statutory regulation in the spring of 2000. The law stipulates that parties must present an equal number of women and men on their lists of candidates for local and European elections as well as the elections to the Senate conducted according the principle of proportional representation. National and regional elections are covered by the majority vote principle which does not allow quotas. Here, the law envisages financial sanctions for parties which deviate by 2% or more from the parity principle. They will lose part of their state subsidies. The law will be applied for the first time to the local elections in the year 2001.

In Italy there was a statutory quota regulation in 1993 for the local and provincial elections. It was rescinded in 1995 by the Italian Constitutional Court on the grounds that it contradicted the principle of equality. The proportion of women in the respective bodies more than doubled in the space of those two years from 6% to 13%. The Dutch government is pursuing a different path towards increasing the number of women in parliament. It offers the political parties financial support for strategies and activities aiming to increase the proportion of women in elected bodies. Aside from one small party, all organisations have accepted the subsidies and are developing strategies to promote women.

In most EU Member States the political parties have under taken to increase the political participation of women by means of a quota system.

"1 in 2 a woman" was the undertaking of the Swedish Social Democrats in 1994. Since then Swedish women have not in fact been represented everywhere by 50%, but they are present in political office in far greater numbers than before.

In general the quotas have a positive effect on the nomination of female candidates. There is a higher representation of women in executive bodies of political parties with a quota regulation. Only in rare cases, however, are the quotas of the political parties reached in the national parliaments.

In Finland and Austria the Social Democrats have also reached their quota of 40% and 25% in their parliamentary factions. In the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany it is the small, left-wing parties which enforce their 50% quota in parliament, too. The position of female candidates on the lists is an important factor in their election. Some parties like the alliance of ecological parties in the Federal Republic of Germany, "B90/Grüne", consistently use the "zipper" principle (men and women are placed alternately on the party list). With this same principle the alliance of socialists (P S), left-wing radicals (P R D G) and citizens' movement (M D C) in France succeeded in increasing its proportion of female parliamentarians. The same holds for the French ecological alliance: from 29.4% to 45.5%; ecological party to 44.4%.

By means of awareness-raising campaigns non-governmental organisations in particular encourage male and female voters to vote for female candidates. This increases the pressure on parties to put forward more women. In the United Kingdom the "300 group" runs public campaigns. Its goal is to have 300 female MPs elected to parliament (at present they have a total of 121 or 18.4%). "Emily's list" provides financial support for the election campaign of female candidates irrespective of the political party they belong to. Prior to the elections for the European Parliament in 1999 the Commission published a brochure in 11 languages and a "campaign kit" which can be used in all E U Member States by governments and NGOs. The material distributed free of charge contains templates for ads and a TV spot. This is modeled on the campaign "Vote for Balance" organised in 1994 by the European Expert Network "Women in Decisionmaking".

(The "European Database – Women in Decision-making" is an excellent source for the political participation of women in the European Union. It contains data on the European Economic Area – Norway, Ireland and Liechtenstein – and on countries which will be regarded in the accession countries as potential candidates for membership.)

The database can be accessed publicly via the Internet ([www22.gva.es/women](http://www22.gva.es/women)) and is regularly updated (e.g. updates after elections).

The project is part of the Community's 4th Medium-Term Action Programme of Opportunities for Women and Men. In the year 2000 the database will be updated.

take in the banking and financial sector - especially in the  
communications technologies.

The database is the basis for EU wide analyses and reports on the  
volume of information on progress in equal opportunities policies in the 15 states  
and about women's paths into politics. It offers politicians, researchers, and  
the media arguments and incentives for political action with the goal of  
participation of women in decision-making positions. In addition, it is available  
everywhere in Europe the project "Network of decision-makers" (db-decision)  
database beyond the support period of the 9th and 10th EU.

#### Female Experts Network

The database draws on the work of the European Expert Group "Women in  
making" (1992 -1996). Today, it cooperates with female experts from 18 EU and 14  
Member States and is coordinated by the FrauenComputerZentrum Berlin (aka  
Women's Computer Centre Berlin). Another cooperation partner is the Center for  
American Woman and Politics (CAWP) at Rutgers University.  
(<http://webus.rutgers.edu/~cawp/>) which has been monitoring the political  
participation of women in the USA since 1977.

#### European Database - Women in Decision Making

FrauenComputerZentrumBerlin, Gubrystraße 11, D-10967 Berlin

Homepages: [www.db-decision.de](http://www.db-decision.de), [www.fczt.de](http://www.fczt.de)

June 2000

## **FACT SHEET - Women In Parliaments**

-Women occupy only 17.1% of parliamentary seats around the world.

- Regional averages of the percentage of women in parliament vary greatly. As of May,  
31 2007:

- Nordic countries - 41.6%
- Americas - 20.0%
- Europe (excluding Nordic countries) - 17.7%
- Sub-Saharan Africa - 17.4%
- Asia - 16.4%
- Pacific - 12.4%
- Arab states - 9.6%

-The U.S. ranked 63rd world wide with only 15.2% women in the House and 14%  
women in the Senate.

- In September 2003, Rwanda became the country closest to reaching parity between men and women of any national legislature. As of May 2007, Rwanda had 48.8% of Lower House seats held by women and 34.6% of the Upper House.

- From 1945 to 1995, the number of sovereign states with parliaments increased seven-fold but the percentage of women members in parliament worldwide increased only four-fold. From 1945-1997 only 42 of the 186 States with a legislative institution have at one time or another selected a woman to preside over Parliament or a House of Parliament; 18 European, 19 of Americas, 3 Africa, 1 Asia, 1 Pacific.

### Women Ministers

- Women ministers remain concentrated in social areas (14%) rather than legal (9.4%), economic (4.1%), political (3.4%) and executive (3.9%) areas.

### Women Heads of Government

As of July 2007, there are only 10 female Heads of State out of 189 governments.

- Angela Merkel, Chancellor of Germany
- Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf, President of Liberia
- Dalia Itzik, Acting President of Israel
- Michelle Bachelet, President of Chile
- Portia Simpson Miller, Prime Minister of Jamaica
- Tarja Halonen, President of Finland
- Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo, President of the Philippines
- Mary McAleese, President of Ireland
- Micheline Calmy-Rey, Member of the Federal Council
- Helen Clark, Prime Minister of New Zealand

### Women's Suffrage

- Countries such as Brunei Darussalam, Kuwait, the Sultanate of Oman, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates still do not have universal suffrage.

### Quota Systems

- In 1994, South Africa ranked 141st in the world in the percentage of legislative seats held by women. After the African National Congress enacted a 30% quota for female candidates, South Africa jumped to 13th place in 2004 with women elected to 32.8% of its lower parliamentary seats.

- The Panchayat Raj Act in India reserves 33% of the three-tiered panchayats (village council, council of cluster villages and the district council) for women. Today there are close to one million elected women leaders at the village level. A recent assessment

revealed that corruption has gone down and transparency has greatly increased because of women's participation in the panchayats.

- Finland's law requiring that at least 40% of each sex should be represented in the membership of various decision-making bodies led to an increase in women's membership from 25% in 1980 to 48% in 1996.

- Argentina has a 30% quota for women on electoral lists. As a result, the number of women in the House has remained the same from 2001 to 2003 at 34.1% in the lower house. Women have made no significant impact in Senate commissions where they are still traditionally represented in the social and family commissions while their male counterparts are in the commissions for industry, custom revenues, mining, energy, defense and foreign relations.

- The French Constitution was reformed in 1999 to state that "the law favors the equal access of women and men to electoral mandates and elective functions." In 2000, French law was changed so that political parties must present equal numbers of men and women (within two percent) for most elections. In 2007, socialist Ségolène Royal stood for the Presidency, but lost with 47% of the vote to conservative Nicolas Sarkozy.

*(Sources: Inter-Parliamentary Union; Women's Environment and Development Organization; UN Division for the Advancement of Women; Gender Equality and Development; WomanKind; Global Database of Quotas for Women.)*

## **WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION AND GAINS IN THE FORMULATION OF THE 1995 CONSTITUTION**

### **THE DEMOCRATISATION PROCESS**

During the 70-ties, the country suffered many years of political and social turmoil, following Idi Amin's coup of 1971. He was ousted from power in 1979, but the succeeding governments were unable to restore the security situation in the country to normal and many people continued to lose their lives. The democratisation process in Uganda only started when the National Resistance Movement (NRM), led by Yoweri Museveni, came to power in 1986.

The NRM government introduced a ten-point recovery programme and measures to increase the participation of all citizens in creating a democratic society. Significant among these measures was the establishment of Resistance Councils (RCS), whose main purpose was to facilitate peoples' participation in national development, through ensuring sound local levels of politics.

Another significant measure the NRM government started, was the introduction of affirmative action in favour of marginalised groups in society, particularly women. Their involvement in political decision making through representation on RCs was stressed.

One of the most important components of the democratisation process was the drafting of a national constitution. Preparations hereto began in 1989 and culminated in its promulgation in 1995. As the word "resistance" was no longer relevant, the constitution re-named RCs to Local Councils (LCs).

## **WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE DRAFTING OF THE CONSTITUTION**

For the first time, women in Uganda found that there were structures they could use to their advantage. A Constitutional Commission was established to collect people's views for incorporation in the draft constitution. The Ministry of Women in Development and NGOs organised seminars on women's issues in each of the 760 sub-counties in Uganda. Women became so well organised, that they produced more memoranda than any other social interest group. One of the greatest successes for women in this drafting process was that their submissions emphasised similar issues without any marked difference between educated and illiterate, urban and rural, rich and poor women. This contributed greatly to the overall success.

Furthermore, women realised the necessity to integrate the principles of equality in the supreme law of the country. During debates of the Constituent Assembly, they fought hard to ensure that their issues were adequately addressed. "They did not simply let their voices be heard, they cried aloud for everyone to hear. They refused to be ignored by anyone". (*Waligo J.M. - Arise Magazine No.7 1996.*)

Women left their own circles to network effectively with all other interest groups. They worked with the youth, people with disabilities, organisations for children's rights and the rural poor. The women delegates to the Constituent Assembly created a strong caucus. They met regularly to get views from fellow women. There was a fully established desk to co-ordinate their activities during the debates. Women utilised every opportunity to articulate their interests in the Constitution.

## **WOMEN'S ACHIEVEMENTS IN THE CONSTITUTION**

The most obvious victory is that there is no discrimination in any way against women anywhere in the Preamble, the National Objectives, the nineteen chapters and seven schedules of the Constitution. There is only positive 'discrimination' in the form of affirmative action in favour of women. Apart from the provision for affirmative action, every Chapter and provision in the Constitution applies equally to both women and men. "This means that women should never try to concentrate solely on those sections of the constitution which deal exclusively with women, but regard the entire Constitution as

guaranteeing them all their dignity, equality, social justice and development." (Waligo J.M. - Arise magazine No.7 1996.)

### Language

Another achievement is the use of non-sexist, all-inclusive language throughout the Constitution. Many men and even women had become accustomed to the word 'man' to include women as well. However, women insisted that this was not correct and they demanded that the language in the Constitution include both genders - women and men.

It still remains a challenge to alter all Uganda's laws written in an all inclusive, non-sexist language. The same challenge is extended to the country's mass media, books, constitutions of associations at all levels, and above all, in books used in schools. The use of inclusive and non-sexist language has become an example for all to follow.

### Gender Balance and Fair Representation

Article 3 paragraph VI of the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda states that:

*"The state shall ensure gender balance and fair representation of marginalised groups on all constitutional and other bodies".*

This means that it is unconstitutional to have any public body where women are not fairly represented. Women have insisted that fair representation mean at least 30% of women for the time being. The goal is to attain gender parity in the long run.

This is a very important objective. It challenges women to identify all the Constitutional and other bodies on which gender balance and fair representation must be realised and to hold appointing authorities accountable on their representation. The Constitution itself identifies 19 Constitutional bodies and many other bodies are to be established by Parliament.

### Recognition of the role of women in society

This has been recognised as a general and all embracing principle. It demands due recognition of the role of women as house managers, mothers, caretakers of children and other dependants, providers of food, the backbone of agriculture and the national economy. This principle is to create positive attitudes in society, for it to become fully considerate and just in the treatment of women.

### Promotion of fundamental and human rights

The Constitution also addresses the protection and promotion of fundamental and other human rights and freedoms. It affirms the equality of all persons, women and men,



before and under the law in all spheres of political, economic, social and cultural life and in every other respect. It specifically prohibits any discrimination in the enjoyment of these rights and freedoms based on sex or other considerations.

### The Affirmative Principle

On the basis of this principle, Article 78 (b) allows one woman district representative in Parliament while Article 180 (b) ensures that one third of the members of each local government council be women. Both concessions were achieved through a strong women's lobby and support of gender sensitive men during the Constituent Assembly debates.

The Ugandan Constitution provides unique opportunities for women. The achievements are still in theory and the real test of what women have achieved will be in the implementation of the various legislations and policies. For example, the Local Governments Act of 1997 provides for the operationalisation of decentralisation and local governance. One of its objectives is:

*"To establish a democratic, political and 'gender sensitive' administrative set up in local government"*

Each District contains several constituencies, each providing one District representative for Parliament. One of the District Representative seats for Parliament is reserved for a woman, for which only women can contest. The remaining District representative seats are open to men and women.

## UNESCO STATISTICS

The UNESCO Institute for Statistics, based in Montreal, Canada, is a part of the system of UNESCO. It was established in July 1999 in order to reinforce UNESCO's statistical capacities. Although gender mainstreaming in statistics is at its beginning, the UNESCO website provides some very useful sex-disaggregated data :

At national level, on teaching staff, pupils and students (by level of education (primary, secondary and tertiary education) and information on access to education, and participation in education.

At regional and worldwide level, on literacy rates, total expenditure of education, personnel engaged in R&D) by category of personnel.

Information on technical specifications including definitions, calculation and interpretation are provided along with the indicators.

## FEMALE STAFF IN THE SECRETARIAT

The tables below reflect the percentage of women and men in the Secretariat from 1996 to 2001 at headquarters and in the field. Temporary staff is not included. UNESCO has begun to redress the gender imbalance that is still prevalent in the UN system. Figures concerning the status of women in the Secretariat confirm a positive trend: since October 1996, the percentage of professional women has increased from 37,3 per cent to 48,6 per cent as of October 2001

### Personnel at Headquarters

	M		F		%F		Total	
	1996	2001	1996	2001	1996	2001	1996	2001
DG	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
DDG	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	1
ADG	9	8	2	2	18,2	20,0	11	10
Professional Category including Directors	445	346	265	327	37,3	48,6	710	673
GS	317	291	760	556	70,6	65,6	1077	847
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>774</b>	<b>647</b>	<b>1027</b>	<b>885</b>	<b>57,0</b>	<b>57,8</b>	<b>1801</b>	<b>1532</b>

### Personnel in the Field

	M		F		%F		Total	
	1996	2001	1996	2001	1996	2001	1996	2001
Professional Category	208	213	95	126	31,4	37,2	303	339
General Services	117	113	197	193	62,7	63,1	314	306
<b>Total</b>	<b>325</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>292</b>	<b>319</b>	<b>47,3</b>	<b>49,5</b>	<b>617</b>	<b>645</b>

## MORE DATA AND STATISTICS

[inpolitics.org](http://inpolitics.org)

- The record world average was reached in 1988 with 14.8% women MPs.

Rwanda now has the world's highest proportion of female members of parliament, a study shows. Following elections in October 2003, 48.8% of Rwanda's MPs are women, says the Inter-Parliamentary Union. Sweden, where 45% of MPs are women, has been the long-standing leader of the IPU ranking of women in parliament. Source: BBC News

A world record was set on 02 May 2003 when the Welsh assembly became the first legislative body with equal numbers of men and women. Women's rights groups hailed the breakthrough after 30 women were elected to the 60-strong assembly - an increase of five. Source: The Guardian

Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Iceland, Netherlands and Germany had all reached the 30% goal of parliamentary seats taken by women by the end of 2002 along with Argentina, Costa Rica, South Africa and Mozambique. According to UNIFEM's report 'Progress of the World's Women 2002' these states had met the target through quota systems. Despite these gains, however, women still accounted for only about 14% of members of parliament worldwide in 2002. Source: BBC News

In the same report by UNIFEM, 13 developing countries in the sub-Saharan region - the poorest area on Earth - had higher proportions of women MPs than the US (12%), France (11.8%) and Japan (10%). Rwanda has 25.7% and Uganda, 24.7%. Of the Gulf states which have parliaments, neither Kuwait nor the United Arab Emirates give women the right to vote or stand for election.

On May 2003 Qatar appointed Sheikha bint Ahmed Al-Mahmud as the Gulf state's first woman cabinet minister. The appointment followed an April 29 referendum in which Qataris overwhelmingly approved a written constitution recognising a woman's right to vote and run for office. Source: Dawn

Austria was the only State to have elected a woman to the presidency of one of the Parliament's Chambers (the Bundesrat) before the Second World War.

Currently, 26 women preside over one of the Houses of the 178 existing Parliaments, 64 of which are bicameral.

In 1995, Sweden became the first country to have an equal number of women and men in ministerial posts. At present, however, the Swedish cabinet is below parity with 43% women ministers.

Quota systems are being established in some countries to ensure greater participation of women in decision-making.

#### Reserved Seats:

In Jordan, women activists launched a campaign in November 2002 advocating for reserved seats to help increase the number of women parliamentarians.

In Morocco, 10% of parliamentary seats are reserved for women. (Following the October 2002 elections, the number of female parliamentarians increased from two to an Arab-world record of 35.)

In India, 33% of seats at the local government level are reserved for women.

In Tanzania, 20% of national seats and 25% of local government seats are reserved for women.

#### Legislated Quota for Political Parties:

In France, a 1999 constitutional amendment requires political parties to include 50% of women candidates on party lists submitted for election.

In South Africa, a municipal act states that political parties must ensure women comprise 50% of lists submitted for local-level elections.

#### Voluntary Quota Adopted by Political Parties:

In Norway, the Labour Party in 1993 introduced a 40% quota for women.

In Sweden, the Social Democratic Party in 1994 introduced the (zebra) principle of listing a woman on every second line of the party list.

Women ministers remain concentrated in social areas (14%) compared to legal (9.4%), economic (4.1%), political affairs (3.4%), and the executive (3.9%).

7% of the world's total cabinet ministers are women.

There are 9 women ambassadors to the United Nations. They are from Finland, Guinea, Jamaica, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Liberia, Liechtenstein, Somalia, and Turkmenistan.

In the United Nations system, women hold only 9% of the top management jobs and 21% of senior management positions, but 48% of the junior professional civil service slots.

In 1893, New Zealand became the first nation to grant women full voting rights.

Among the countries in the developing world that were the earliest to grant women the right to vote were: Finland (1906), Albania (1920), Mongolia (1924), Ecuador (1929), Turkey (1930), Sri Lanka (1931).

Some of the latest countries to grant women suffrage are: Switzerland (1971), Iraq (1980), Namibia (1989), Kazakhstan (1994).

In the 21st century, some countries still do not have universal suffrage. Among them are Brunei Darussalam, Kuwait, Sultanate of Oman, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates.

Among the developing nations who have not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) are: Bahrain, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sultanate of Oman, Syrian Arab Republic, United Arab Emirates.

The United States is the only industrialized nation that has not ratified CEDAW.

## **Economic decision-making facts and figures**

- Only 1% of the world's assets are in the name of women.
- Men in the Arab states have 3.5 times the purchasing power of their female counterparts.
- 70% of people in abject poverty-- living on less than \$1 per day-- are women.
- Among the developed countries, in France only 9% of the workforce and in the Netherlands 20% of the workforce are female administrators and managers.
- Among the developing countries, in Ecuador and the Bahamas, 33% of the workforce is comprised of women administrators and managers.
- Women's participation in managerial and administrative posts is around 33% in the developed world, 15% in Africa, and 13% in Asia and the Pacific. In Africa and Asia-Pacific these percentages, small as they are, reflect a doubling of numbers in the last twenty years.
- There are only 5 women chief executives in the Fortune 500 corporations, the most valuable publicly owned companies in the United States. These include the CEOs of Xerox, Spherion, Hewlett-Packard, Golden West Financial, and Avon Products.
- In Silicon Valley, for every 100 shares of stock options owned by a man, only one share is owned by a woman.

[http://ec.europa.eu/news/employment/070718\\_1\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/news/employment/070718_1_en.htm)

## **EU against discrimination in the work place**

### **EU proposes policies to eliminate persisting discrimination in the workplace.**

Women earn less than men – 15% less, to be precise. This figure has remained steady over the past decade, in spite of greater numbers of women in the workplace. Of the eight million jobs created in the EU since 2000, six million have been taken by women. Add to that the fact that 59% of university graduates are female and you'll begin to wonder why things are stagnating rather than moving with the times.

"This is an absurd situation and needs to change," declared employment commissioner Vladimír Špidla, on the release of a new report outlining ways the EU can bridge the gender gap. Redressing the situation is not straightforward - the causes are multiple, complex and often hidden, he explained. Women are more likely to do unpaid or part-time work and those in occupations with a mostly female workforce are often on lower pay scales.

Skills typically associated with women are frequently less valued than those associated with men. Jobs requiring similar qualifications tend to pay less when dominated by women rather than men. Nannies earn less than car mechanics, shop cashiers less than warehouse workers, and nurses less than the police.

More frequent career breaks, often due to family responsibilities, also mean that women are less likely to climb the career ladder and make it into managerial positions, even though more women managers is seen as a good thing by a large proportion of society - 77% according to a survey published earlier this year.

The EU has identified four main courses of action for closing the pay gap:

- applying current laws more effectively
- integrating measures into national employment policies and making full use of the European social fund
- promoting equal pay as part of employers' social responsibility
- supporting the exchange of good practice across the EU

For the response to be effective, the EU believes all parties must get involved and all factors be addressed. The pay gap has also been highlighted in its recent gender equality roadmap, which aims to bring the issue into the twenty-first century

## The facts about equal pay for equal work

<http://www.worksmartontario.gov.on.ca/scripts/default.asp?contentID=1-3-7>

Employers can't pay you less or more just because you're a man or woman. That's discrimination and it's not allowed.

The Employment Standards Act, 2000 (ESA) provides that women and men must receive equal pay when:

1. doing substantially the same kind of work
2. requiring the same skill, effort and responsibility
3. performed under similar working conditions in the same establishment.

According to the ESA, a woman can't be paid less than a man if she is doing "equal work." This also applies in reverse -- a man can't receive less pay than a woman if he is doing "equal work."

What does it mean?

1. Substantially the same work

This means that any differences in the work are insignificant. The jobs don't have to be identical in every respect.

2. Substantially the same skill, effort and responsibility

*Skill* refers to the degree or amount of knowledge or physical or motor capability needed by the employee performing the job.

*Effort* is the physical or mental exertion needed to perform a job.

*Responsibility* is measured by:

- the number and nature of a worker's job obligations
- the degree of accountability, and
- the degree of authority exercised by a worker in the performance of the job.

### 3. Similar working conditions in the same establishment

Working conditions refer to such things as:

- exposure to the elements
- health and safety hazards
- workplace environment
- hours of work (e.g. shift schedules)

The "same establishment" means a location where the employer carries on business. Two or more locations are considered a single establishment if:

- they are in the same municipality, or
- there are common "bumping rights" for at least one employee across municipal borders.

Here are two examples to show how these provisions apply:

- **When two people do substantially the same work**

Andy and Kyra both work on a production line. Kyra packs plastic spoons into small boxes, and Andy packs the small boxes into bigger boxes. There isn't anything about either of these jobs that requires more skill, effort or responsibility than the other.

Andy and Kyra are doing substantially the same work, and they must be paid the same wages (unless one of the exceptions listed below applies).

- **When a business has two locations**

An employer owns two clothing stores in the same city. One sells women's clothes and the staff are women. The other sells men's clothes and the staff are men. The two stores are considered one establishment under the ESA because they are in the same municipality.

Since the male staff and the female staff do substantially the same work -- selling clothes -- they should receive the same pay.

If employees haven't been paid equal pay for equal work, employers must raise wages -  
- not lower them -- to achieve equal pay.

Are there any exceptions?



If a man and a woman are doing substantially the same work, they can be paid different rates of pay if the difference is due to:

- a *seniority system*. Under an established seniority system, the time an employee has worked for an employer is credited. This can be used to justify paying a more senior employee a higher wage than a less experienced employee
- a *merit system*. An employee can be paid more money or a bonus based on a system that measures the work performance of the employees objectively
- a *quantity or quality-based earnings system*. An employer may have a system that measures higher quality or quantity of work. If this is the case, an employee can be paid a higher rate for producing more work or better quality work if the system is applied equally to both sexes
- any *difference that isn't based on the sex of the employee*. For example, an employee can receive more money for working at night.

How is »equal pay« different from »pay equity«?

Pay equity is equal pay for work of **equal value**. The Pay Equity Act is intended to eliminate the wage gap that exists due to the undervaluation of what is typically thought of as "women's work".

The Pay Equity Act is administered by a Pay Equity Commission, under the direction of a Pay Equity Commissioner who reports to the Ministry of Labour. See "Resources" (below) for contact information.

## SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Wikipedia:

The rape of women by men is the most frequent form of the assault, with an estimated over 90%-91% of rape victims being female. Male-male rape is less common, with less than 9%-10% of victims being male, primarily in correctional facilities. An estimated 99% of rape offenders are male. Most female assailants convicted of rape are convicted of statutory rape. It is thought that female rapists who rape other women are almost never caught or convicted and research on female rapists is rare.

A survey conducted by the American Association of University Women (AAUW 2002) on 2064 students in 8th through 11th grade:

- 83% of girls have been sexually harassed
- 78% of boys have been sexually harassed
- 38% of the students were harassed by teachers or school employees
- 36% of school employees or teachers were harassed by students
- 42% of school employees or teachers had been harassed by each other

In their recent study (AAUW 2006) on sexual harassment at colleges and universities, the AAUW reported:

- 62% of female college students and 61% of male college students report having been sexually harassed at their university.
- 66% of college students know someone personally who was harassed.
- 10% or less of student sexual harassment victims attempt to report their experiences to a university employee.
- 35% or more of college students who experience sexual harassment do not tell anyone about their experiences.
- 80% of students who experienced sexual harassment report being harassed by another student or former student.
- 39% of students who experienced sexual harassment say the incident or incidents occurred in the dorm.
- 51% of male college students admit to sexually harassing someone in college, with 22% admitting to harassing someone often or occasionally.
- 31% of female college students admit to harassing someone in college.

In the "Report Card on Gender Equity," the NCWGE that 30 percent of undergraduate students, and 40 percent of graduate students, have been sexually harassed. (NCWGE, 1997)

## Rape

As many as 80,000 women were raped by the Japanese soldiers during the six weeks of the Nanking Massacre. Comfort women is a euphemism for up to 200,000 women, who were forced into prostitution in Japanese military brothels during World War II.<sup>1</sup> At the end of World War II, Red Army soldiers raped at least 2,000,000 German women and girls. French Moroccan troops known as Goumiers, committed rapes and other war crimes after the Battle of Monte Cassino.<sup>1221</sup>

An estimated 200,000 women were raped during the Bangladesh Liberation War by the Pakistani army and at least 20,000 Bosnian Muslim women were raped by Serb forces during the Bosnian War.

Types of rape:

There are several types of rape, generally categorized by reference to the situation in which it occurs, the sex or characteristics of the victim, and/or the sex or characteristics of the perpetrator. Different types of rape include but are not limited to: date rape, gang rape, marital rape, prison rape, acquaintance rape, and wartime rape. UCSB's SexInfo: almost all rape research and reporting to date has been limited to male-female forms of rape.

### Gang rape

The word *tournante* is a French adjective meaning "turning". It is used as a slang term to mean a gang rape. According to the testimony of numerous victims, young Muslim women who stray from traditional conduct in the immigrant neighborhoods such as behaving and dressing like a

westerner, or wanting to live as Europeans or refusing to wear the traditional clothing have been considered by some to be "fair game" for *tournantes*. As Samira Bellil said in a CNN Interview, there was a trial in Lille where a 13-year-old girl was gang raped by 80 men. In some cases the unlucky victim is killed, as in the case of Sohanne Benziane, a young 17-year-old Muslim girl burned alive in a basement after being brutally gang-raped in a *tournante*.

### Crime statistics

A United Nations report compiled from government sources showed that more than 250,000 cases of rape or attempted rape were recorded by police annually. The reported data covered 65 countries.

Many reports suggest that rape statistics are not reliable because some kinds of rape are excluded from official reports altogether, (The FBI's definition for example excludes all rapes except forcible rapes of adult females by males), because a significant number of rapes go unreported even when they are included as reportable rapes, and also because a significant number of rapes reported to the police cannot be verified and possibly did not occur.

In addition, rape by women is a barely understood phenomenon that is widely denied in most societies and one that usually causes surprise, shock, or utter revulsion.

In the United States, according to the National Crime Victimization Survey, the adjusted per-capita victimization rate of rape has declined from about 2.4 per 1000 people (age 12 and above) in 1980 to about 0.4 per 1000 people, a decline of about 85%. But other government surveys, such as the Sexual Victimization of College Women study, critique the NCVS on the basis it includes only those acts perceived as crimes by the victim, and report a higher victimization rate.

While researchers and prosecutors do not agree on the percentage of false allegations, one study has shown that approximately 40% to 50% of charges are recanted by the victim. This number does not include unresolved allegations held "in limbo" where evidence is too weak to try the case even under shield laws, relaxed rules, and comparatively weak evidential standards applied to rape cases. Many times this is cited as being "false" reports. Recanting can have many causes.

### Some statistics:

- According to United States Department of Justice document Criminal Victimization in the United States, in the United States in 2005, 37,460 white females were sexually assaulted or raped by a black man, while between zero and ten black females were sexually assaulted or raped by a white man. There were overall 111,590 white victims of rape/sexual assault in 2005. In those 111,590 cases the offender was White in 44.5 percent of the cases and Black in 33.6 percent of the cases.

The belief that false allegations of rape are a problem is common, another factor that makes victims feel like they are put on trial for reporting:

- According to a report of the Defense Department Inspector General released in 2005, approximately 73% of women and 72% of men at the military service academies believe that false accusations of sexual assault are a problem.

From 2000-2005, 59% of rapes were not reported to law enforcement. One factor relating to this is the myth that rapists are strangers hiding in bushes. In reality 38% of victims were raped by a friend or acquaintance, 28% by "an intimate" and 7% by another relative, and 26% were committed by a stranger to the victim. About four out of ten sexual assaults take place at the victim's own home. Two in ten take place in the home of a friend, neighbor or relative. One in ten take place outside, away from home.

Even when rapes are reported to the police, the chance of a successful conviction is very small:

- If the rape is reported to police, there is a 50.8% chance that an arrest will be made.
- If an arrest is made, there is an 80% chance of prosecution.
- If there is a prosecution, there is a 58% chance of a felony conviction.
- If there is a felony conviction, there is a 69% chance the convict will spend time in jail.
- So, even in the 39% of attacks that are reported to police, there is only a 16.3% chance the rapist will end up in prison.
- Factoring in unreported rapes, about 6% of rapes—1 out of 16—will result in jail time for the rapist.

More than 67,000 cases of rape and sexual assaults against children were reported in 2000 in South Africa. Child welfare groups believe that the number of unreported incidents could be up to 10 times that number. A belief common to South Africa holds that sexual intercourse with a virgin will cure a man of HIV or Aids. South Africa has the highest number of HIV-positive citizens in the world. According to official figures, one in eight South Africans are infected with the virus. Edith Kriel, a social worker who helps child victims in the Eastern Cape, said: "Child abusers are often relatives of their victims - even their fathers and providers."

According to University of Durban-Westville anthropology lecturer and researcher Suzanne Leclerc-Madlala, the myth that sex with a virgin is a cure for AIDS is not confined to South Africa. "Fellow AIDS researchers in Zambia, Zimbabwe and Nigeria have told me that the myth also exists in these countries and that it is being blamed for the high rate of sexual abuse against young children."

## Victim blame

"Victim blaming" is holding the victim of a crime to be in whole or in part responsible for what has happened to them. In the context of rape, this concept refers to the Just World Theory and popular attitudes that certain victim behaviours (such as flirting, or wearing sexually-provocative clothing) may encourage rape. In extreme cases, victims are said to have "asked for it", simply by not behaving demurely. In most Western countries, the defense of provocation is not accepted as a mitigation for rape. A global survey of attitudes toward sexual violence by the Global Forum for Health Research shows that victim-blaming concepts are at least partially accepted in many countries. In some countries, victim-blaming is more common, and women who have been raped are sometimes deemed to have behaved improperly. Often, these are countries where there is a

significant social divide between the freedoms and status afforded to men and women. Evolutionary psychologists regard blaming the victims as an effect of evolutionary pressure on men to want to monopolize their access to their women.

## Feminism

### Civil rights

Feminism has effected many changes in Western society, including women's suffrage, broad employment for women at more equitable wages, the right to initiate divorce proceedings and the introduction of "no fault" divorce, the right to obtain contraception and safe abortions, and access to university education. According to studies by the United Nations, when both paid employment and unpaid household tasks are accounted for, on average women work more than men. In rural areas of selected developing countries women performed an average of 20% more work than men, or an additional 102 minutes per day. In the OECD countries surveyed, on average women performed 5% more work than men, or 20 minutes per day. At the UN's Pan Pacific Southeast Asia Women's Association twenty first International Conference in 2001 it was stated that "in the world as a whole, women comprise 51 percent of the population, do 66 percent of the work, receive 10 percent of the income and own less than one percent of the property."

Islamic feminism is a form of **feminism** concerned with the role of women in Islam. It aims for the full equality of all Muslims, regardless of gender, in public and private life. Islamic feminists advocate women's rights, gender equality, and social justice grounded in an Islamic framework. Although rooted in Islam, the movement's pioneers have also utilized secular and Western feminist discourses and recognize the role of Islamic feminism as part of an integrated global feminist movement. Advocates of the movement seek to highlight the deeply rooted teachings of equality in the Quran and encourage a questioning of the patriarchal interpretation of Islamic teaching through the Quran (holy book), *hadith* (sayings of Muhammed) and *sharia* (law) towards the creation of a more equal and just society.

### Pro-feminism

Pro-feminism is support of **feminism** without implying that the supporter is a member of the feminist movement. The term is most often used in reference to men who are actively supportive of feminism and of efforts to bring about gender equality. The activities of pro-feminist men's groups include anti-violence work with boys and young men in schools, offering sexual harassment workshops in workplaces, running community education campaigns, and counseling male perpetrators of violence. Pro-feminist men also are involved in men's health, activism against pornography including anti-pornography legislation, men's studies, the development of gender equity curricula in schools, and many other areas. This work is sometimes in collaboration with feminists and women's services, such as domestic violence and rape crisis centers. Some activists of both genders will not refer to men as "feminists" at all, and will refer to all pro-feminist men as "pro-feminists".

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13. <sup>^</sup> *Ibid*
14. <sup>^</sup> *Ibid'*
15. <sup>^</sup> *see* for example, Michigan Statutes for the first degree felony, section 520b. "(1) A person is guilty of criminal sexual conduct in the first degree if he or she engages in sexual penetration of another person."
16. <sup>^</sup> *Male rape victims left to suffer in silence*. abc.net.au (February 9, 2001). Retrieved on 2007-05-30.
17. <sup>^</sup> *Women now 'raping' men*. Sowetan. Retrieved on 2007-05-30.
18. <sup>^</sup> *Chinese city remembers Japanese 'Rape of Nanjing'*
19. <sup>^</sup> *Comfort Women Were 'Raped': U.S. Ambassador to Japan*
20. <sup>^</sup> *"They raped every German female from eight to 80"*
21. <sup>^</sup> *"Red Army troops raped even Russian women as they freed them from camps"*
22. S<sup>^</sup> *How did rape become a weapon of war?*
23. <sup>^</sup> *Bosnian kids born of war rape asking questions*
24. <sup>^</sup> *Fourth Annual Report of ICTR to the General Assembly (1999)* March 23, 2007
25. <sup>^</sup> *See* for example in the British Virgin Islands under the Criminal Code, 1997
26. <sup>^</sup> *Under the English common law*, marriage has not been a defense to rape since 1991. *see R v R* [1992] 1 A.C. 599.[3]
27. <sup>^</sup> [english.pravda.ru](http://english.pravda.ru)
28. <sup>^</sup> [english.pravda.ru](http://english.pravda.ru)
29. <sup>^</sup> *Sexism in the Cités*
30. <sup>^</sup> *Girls terrorized in France's macho ghettos*
31. <sup>^</sup> *Muslim Women Rebel In France*
32. <sup>^</sup> *Acting on The Outrage*
33. <sup>^</sup> *The Eighth United Nations Survey on Crime Trends and the Operations of Criminal Justice Systems (2001 - 2002) - Table 02.08 Total recorded rapes*
34. <sup>^</sup> Dick Haws, "The Elusive Numbers on False Rape," *Columbian Journalism Review* (November/December 1997).[4]
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37. <sup>^</sup> Bonnie S. Fisher, Francis T. Cullen, Michael G. Turner. *Sexual Victimization of College Women*

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Evaluation on Women situation in Aceh - Indonesia in 2006

Gender Working Group

8<sup>th</sup> March 2007

### Women and Education

Unfortunately, the data regarding the condition of education during 2006 is minimal, including the unavailability of data that segregate male and female beneficiaries. From the experience of some organisations in Gender Working Group, there is a reflection that generally education for women is less prioritised because there are some cultural values that give more opportunities for boys more than girls. Economic factor becomes a supporting factor, for example when parents have to choose which child gets to school. In some barracks in Aceh Barat, for example, many girls cannot continue their study because of that reason. In some cases, girls will be married or they decide to marry in young age because economic and socio-cultural reasons. Forced marriages in the barracks are one of the cases found and reported by Pelapor Khusus Komnas Perempuan (Special Reporter of Women National Committee).

### Women and Government (BRR) institutions

Some indicators for the non-existence of gender mainstreaming in BRR programmes is as follows: First, from planning to the programmes implementation in 2006, BRR never use gender analysis to conduct assessment, planning and implementation. The programmes implemented are also not included gender division, therefore gender composition of beneficiaries cannot be detected. BRR has made a breakthrough by publishing Gender Policy but without any planning or strategy in the implementation of the policy, in particular to ensure that BRR programs referred to it in its the implementation.

The second indicator is regarding staff, where female staff recruited is less, they are 145 out of 1,219 total staff or only 11.9%. This number is even less in the level of decision making, only 12 out of 281 or 4%. This affects on the minimal understanding of women specific experience that should have been a part of policy and implementation of BRR programmes.

The third indicator is funding. Because of the incapability of BRR to identify beneficiaries based on division data, BRR programmes are considered to be "gender neutral" and do not allocate significant budget for women and children. BRR budget for Women and Children Directorate in 2006 is 0.3% out of total budget.

Biro PP, as the only institution with mandate to empower women, often works alone and is not integrated with a Dinas or other offices. There is no significant support for



Biro PP, both in terms of funding from APBD (local budget) or institutional supports. Furthermore, Biro PP is structurally weak therefore it does not have any power to prevent itself from deletion and becomes a part of Bureau of Community Empowerment (BPM).

Related to government programmes that specifically targets women, in 2006 the government only allocated 0.16% from total APBD for the purpose. This percentage is very minimal remembering there are many problems faced by women, including the high rate of birth death and mortality rate of labouring mothers that become one of human development indicators.

The result of population census conducted by BPS NAD in 2005 shows that the percentage of women in Aceh is 52,25%.<sup>26</sup> The demographic data should become a basis to see the important role of women in all aspects, in politics, economy, social and culture. In fact, women are marginalised in public sectors, including formal political position such as described in table below.

INSTITUTION	Women	%	Men	%	Total
DPRD I	3	5,2	55	94,8	58
Governor	0	0	1	100	1
Head of District	0	0	21	100	21
Head of Provincial Bodies	0	0	15	100	15
Head of Provincial Offices	2	8,33	22	91,6	24
Head of Provincial Bureaus	1	8,33	11	91,6	12

### Women in Politics

Women in Aceh have fight for the accommodation of women's interests in the law number 11 year 2006. Some women organisations joined in Women Networks for Policy (JPUK) for example, have suggested inputs related to gender such as the minimal quota of 30% for women representation. Both in Aceh and in Jakarta, the held meetings with the special unit of LOGA (Law on Governing of Aceh) with a purpose to include women aspirations in the law.<sup>27</sup> The process of negotiation and lobbying were nor fruitless although the law number 11 year 2006 is also degraded compared to other national laws in relation to 30% quota for women. In the law number 11 year 2006, there is only a statement to consider women representation. Aceh women are also marginalised from political arena. Only 5 women were selected out of 258 bupati/mayor and the vice, they are candidates for mayor of Banda Aceh, two candidates for vice bupati of Aceh Barat, and one candidate for bupati in Aceh

Tamiang. Out of 9 pairs of Governor/Vice Governor candidates, 2 woman candidates were opted out. Their participation through independent course failed because they were considered to be incapable enough in reading the Quran.

Hesitancy of women to enter political arena is influenced by many factors such as the lack of tradition/awareness from women to choose politics as their profession/career, the lack of awareness on the importance of women's involvement in politics, and the lack of social climate that encourages women to enter politics, and there is an opinion from religious leaders that woman leadership is against the religious teachings, therefore it creates interpretation and understanding that are disadvantageous to women.

Furthermore, in national parties there is also lack of climate to encourage women involvement, for example because of the absence of rules/policies that support women to be leaders, or at least holding a strategic position in the party. Women position is mostly only ceremonial, it can be seen in the minimal emergence of woman party cadre, both as a leader in a party or as a candidate for legislative members or local leaders. The policy that does not support women also becomes a barrier for the establishment of women leadership role model.

<http://www.guttmacher.org/pubs/journals/3112405.html>

International Family Planning Perspectives  
Volume 31, Number 3, September 2005

## **Gender Inequality and Intimate Partner Violence Among Women in Moshi, Tanzania**

By Laura Ann McCloskey, Corrine Williams and Ulla Larsen

**CONTEXT:** In Sub-Saharan Africa, where rates of intimate partner violence are high, knowing the prevalence of abuse and associated patterns of risk is crucial to ensuring women's health and development. Intimate partner violence in Tanzania has not been assessed through a population-based survey.

**METHODS:** A household-based sample of women aged 20–44 in the urban district of Moshi, Tanzania, participated in face-to-face interviews in 2002–2003. The lifetime prevalence of exposure to intimate partner violence and the prevalence of exposure during the past 12 months were assessed among 1,444 women who reported having a current partner. Multivariate logistic regression was used to identify factors associated with intimate partner violence.

**RESULTS:** Twenty-one percent of women reported having experienced intimate partner violence (i.e., having been threatened with physical abuse, subjected to physical abuse or forced into intercourse by a partner) during the previous 12 months; 26% reported such an experience at any time, including the past 12 months. The likelihood of violence in the past year was elevated if the woman had had problems conceiving or had borne five or more children (odds ratios, 1.9 and

2.4. respectively); if her husband or partner had other partners (2.0) or contributed little to expenses for her and her children (3.3); and if she had had no more than a primary education (1.7).

**CONCLUSIONS:** Gender inequality within sexual unions is associated with intimate partner violence. Policies and programs that discourage men from blaming women for infertility, promote monogamous unions and expand access to education for women may reduce intimate partner violence in northern urban Tanzania.

International Family Planning Perspectives. 2005, 31(3):124–130

Violence against women is a global problem, and its prevalence in Sub-Saharan Africa ranks high even in comparison with levels in other developing regions. For instance, as many as 48% of Zambian married women report ever having experienced intimate partner violence, and 26% report exposure within the past 12 months; the latter rate is more than twice that obtained through similar surveys in other impoverished regions of the world (e.g., Latin America, Southeast Asia and South Asia). In Sierra Leone, a staggering proportion (66%) of women in a convenience sample had ever experienced partner violence. Population-based household surveys confirm high rates of intimate partner violence among women in rural Uganda (Rakai District)—20% for the past 12 months and 30% ever.<sup>3</sup> Nearly one in 10 South African women report exposure within the past 12 months, and 25% report lifetime exposure. Partner violence is so commonplace in some countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that it is accepted as justifiable by more than half of the women themselves, as in Zimbabwe.

Establishing the prevalence of and the associated patterns of risk for intimate partner violence is crucial to addressing women's health and development. Violence places a serious health burden on women and their children, and its role is amplified through its connection to the rising tide of HIV.

To date, no population-based studies have established the rate of intimate partner violence in Tanzania. Few countries hover on as dangerous a health precipice as Tanzania, which ranks among the poorest of African nations and has nearly the lowest life expectancy worldwide (44.6 years). Almost one in 10 Tanzanians are HIV-positive, and a greater proportion of women than of men in young age cohorts are infected. The odds of HIV infection among women younger than 30 visiting voluntary testing clinics in Tanzania are 10 times the odds among older women. It is essential to trace patterns of gender inequality and disease in Tanzania's growing towns and cities.

## **BACKGROUND**

Characteristics associated with intimate partner violence for women in Sub-Saharan Africa include having less than an eighth-grade education, having many children and having experienced sexual abuse during childhood. South African men who admit to sexually assaulting their intimate partners are more likely than nonabusive men to be physically aggressive outside of marriage, to drink heavily, to express intolerance of their wives' autonomy and to practice polygamy. However, in East Africa, the dynamics of marriage and fertility are undergoing dramatic change: Women are becoming more autonomous, and family size is decreasing. One

aim of our study was to identify, within a framework of the balance of power within marriage and heterosexual relationships, characteristics of Tanzanian couples that are associated with intimate partner violence.

Throughout Sub-Saharan Africa, marriage and sexual unions have long been managed through strong patriarchal traditions and institutions. Tanzania has been no exception, as has been evident in the practices of bride-price, polygamy, paternal control of the choice of marriage partners, emphasis on women's role in fertility and a powerful marriage mandate for women. Yet many of these overt emblems of patriarchy are changing. Bride-wealth has been supplanted by prospective husbands' payment for women's education fees and health care; polygamy is declining (although informal extramarital relationships persist); and women are usually free to choose their husband. Although women are still expected to marry and to have children, they now exercise somewhat more control over birthspacing and birth control options than they traditionally did.

We identified three general domains that reflect underlying power disparities or restrictions of women's options within unions: education (level of schooling completed), features of the union (whether the woman and her partner are legally married, whether he is monogamous and whether he contributes to expenses for her and her children) and fertility (whether the woman has had difficulty conceiving or has had five or more children). Within these three domains, spanning women's life course, gender inequality in Tanzanian marriages or relationships may create the terms for the kind of "sexual contract" that places women at a distinct disadvantage, setting the stage for intimate partner violence.

As a result of socialist policies, a greater proportion of women receive some education in Tanzania than in many other countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. Nevertheless, educational attainment remains low, and few women reach secondary school. When women are educated, they have occupational alternatives other than being housewives, and possess more choice in their partner or in whether they remain with him. Educated women also expect to be treated in more egalitarian ways than women without education. We therefore predict that intimate partner violence will be least common among women with the most education.

### Study Sample

Moshi Urban District contains 15 wards. Within each ward, clusters were selected with probability proportional to the number of women aged 20–44. In all, 150 clusters were selected for interviewing, and 18 households were selected randomly within each cluster. All women aged 20–44 who were de facto or de jure residents of the selected households were invited to participate in the survey interview. All interviews were in-person and were conducted in Swahili by local nurses after the women provided informed consent. To protect confidentiality, interviewers ensured privacy. The interview took 1–2 hours. Participants received no monetary compensation. This research project was approved by the institutional review board of the Harvard School of Public Health; by the Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre Research and Ethical Clearance Committee; and by the National Institute for Medical Research, the United Republic of Tanzania. Between mid-November 2002 and mid-March 2003, a total of 2,019 women completed the interview. Twenty-eight percent of these women reported no current partner and therefore were not asked about partner violence. All but nine women with a current

partner (fewer than 1%) answered the questions about partner violence. The analyses are based on the 1,444 women for whom complete data on violence history were collected.

## RESULTS

Three-quarters of the women were younger than 35. Two-thirds were Christian (e.g., Catholic or Protestant), and the remainder were Muslim; 48% were Chagga, 15% were Pare and the remaining 37% belonged to numerous other ethnic groups. Women's educational attainment was generally low; only one-quarter had more than a primary education. A majority of the women were either married or living with a partner, mostly in monogamous unions; 80% of the married women said that they and their partner had decided jointly to wed. Nearly all reported a high level of partner contributions to expenses for themselves and their children. One in 10 women reported that they had experienced problems getting pregnant. Most had had 1–4 children: 11% had had none, and 13% had had five or more.

During the past 12 months, 21% of women surveyed had been physically or sexually attacked or threatened with violence: Some 15–16% reported various types of physical violence, and 1% a forced sexual experience. Lifetime prevalence of physical and sexual violence was 26% overall and generally did not differ significantly from prevalence in the past year; the exception was that a higher proportion of women reported ever having been forced to have sex (3%).

The results of the unadjusted and adjusted analyses testing associations between gender and relationship factors and the odds of intimate partner violence yielded parallel results; we focus here on findings from the adjusted analyses. (Results of the unadjusted analyses are available from the authors.) Our findings were generally consistent with the conceptual model of relationship inequality and violence.

There were no associations between partner violence in the last 12 months and any of the control variables. However, education made a difference, such that women with a primary or lower education were more likely than their better educated peers to have been abused.

Marital status and freedom to choose a marriage partner were unrelated to intimate partner violence, while polygamous unions were associated with higher odds of violence than monogamous ones. Additionally, women whose partners made a low-level financial contribution to the household were more likely to report abuse than were women whose partners made a high-level contribution.

Fertility variables were associated with violence against women. Women who reported problems conceiving were more likely than those without such problems to experience violence. However, women who had had five or more children were the parity group at the highest risk of experiencing partner violence.

Women with only primary school education or less face an elevated risk of abuse. Women with more education, and hence more career and employment options, may be less likely to be abused because they are perceived as more valuable by their husbands, and perhaps by the extended family; they also may have more power to leave a relationship should their husband become abusive. As women's participation in the domestic economy in East Africa continues to increase,

early investments in daughters' education and development could potentially interrupt the cycle of violence in Tanzania. The type of union has major significance for violence. Unions that are either explicitly polygamous or implicitly polygamous because of extramarital relationships on the part of the men are more likely than monogamous ones to be characterized by violence against wives. In addition, men's increased contributions to the household are associated with decreased violence against their wives.

Women's education has also made notable gains. The gender gap in literacy and educational attainment has been gradually closing since the 1990s, providing women with alternatives to marriage. As expressed in the words of one young upwardly mobile woman in northern Tanzania, "Why shouldn't education be our husband?" Nevertheless, educational attainment has declined across Tanzania, and girls have been disproportionately affected by the reversals in school completion. Such trends would have affected a significant proportion of women in our sample, and should be kept in mind when interpreting the role of education in marriage inequality and violence.

<http://gateway.nlm.nih.gov/MeetingAbstracts/102218065.html>

## **Violence among women with or at risk for HIV infection.**

Vlahov D, Wientge D, Moore J, Flynn C, Schuman P, Schoenbaum E, Zierler S.

*Int Conf AIDS*. 1996 Jul 7-12; 11: 254 (abstract no. Tu.D.135).

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD. Fax: 410-955-1836.

**Objective:** To estimate prevalence and correlates of violence among women with or at risk for HIV infection. **Methods:** In a multicenter study of HIV infection, injection drug user (IDU) women and women with high sex risk underwent interviews, physical exams, and phlebotomy. A separate psychosocial interview was administered which included self-reports of physical and sexual assaults during childhood, in adulthood past, in the past year and since the last visit. Responses were cross-tabulated with demographic and risk factor information using chi-square statistics. **Results:** Of 771 women who completed the initial interview, median age was 34 years old, 57% Black, 25% White, 14% Hispanic, and 4% Other. Of these, 10.7% reported being physically attacked or raped in the past year; in a six month follow-up, the rate was 5.7% for physically attacked or raped and 2.7% when asked if sexually abused or raped. 42.4% were physically and 42.5% were sexually abused as children. 64.5% were beaten and 45.0% sexually abused as adults; 28.3% had seen a murder. Results did not vary by HIV serostatus or CD4 cell level. Recent sexual attacks, adult physical abuse, and adult sexual assaults each were associated with crack use and multiple sex partners. Also, recent sexual attacks were associated with childhood physical and sexual abuse, being homeless ever, but not IDU. **Conclusion:** Among women with or at high risk for HIV infection, physical and sexual assaults are disturbingly common throughout life. This background of violence needs to be addressed in the provision of care and services to this population.

## **Intimate Partner Violence Among Men and Women --- South Carolina, 1998**

Few studies provide population-based estimates of intimate partner violence (IPV) for men and women, especially at the state level. IPV may result in adverse health effects for victims and perpetrators (1--3). To estimate the lifetime incidence of IPV by type of violence (e.g., physical, sexual, and perceived emotional abuse) and to explore demographic correlates of reporting IPV among men and women, the South Carolina Department of Health and Environmental Control and the University of South Carolina conducted a population-based random-digit--dialed telephone survey of adults in the state. This report summarizes the results of the survey, which indicated that approximately 25% of women and 13% of men have experienced some type of IPV during their lifetime. Although women were significantly more likely to report physical and sexual IPV, men were as likely as women to report emotional abuse without concurrent physical or sexual IPV.

In November 1998, the University of South Carolina Survey Research Laboratory conducted a survey of South Carolina noninstitutionalized residents aged 18--64 years. A modified Abuse Assessment Screen (AAS) (4) was used to assess IPV among women; similar questions were used to assess IPV among men (5,6). One eligible adult per household was selected randomly. Data from households with more than one adult or more than one residential telephone number were weighted to adjust for unequal probability of sampling. In addition, data were weighted based on respondent age, race, and sex to represent 1990 South Carolina census data. Of 801 eligible residents contacted, 556 (69.4%) agreed to participate; 56.3% were women.

Among women, 25.3%) reported ever experiencing some form of IPV; among men, 13.2% reported ever experiencing IPV. Although women were significantly more likely to experience physical and/or sexual IPV men were as likely as women to report perceived emotional abuse without physical IPV. Women were five times more likely than men to experience forced or coerced sex outside an intimate relationship. Women were significantly more likely than men to report forced or coerced sex within an intimate relationship.

<http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=1083936>

## **GLASS CEILING**

All human beings are supposedly equal. But by looking at the gender distribution in high-level management positions in industry, academia and public services, one cannot escape the fact that men seem to be more equal than women. This is not a satisfactory situation, particularly in an economy that depends on well-trained and educated professionals, who are increasingly in short supply. Numerous strategies are being employed to close the gender gap, either through legislation or through raising awareness and training. Here, we would like to describe our

company's experiences with introducing mentoring programmes that aim to increase the number of women in leading positions. This strategy actually works both ways by providing better training for women while acquainting their male superiors with the specific problems faced by the opposite sex.

The European Technology Assessment Network report clearly illustrates the situation of women in academia. 'The status quo [of women in science] is wasteful and inequitable. The abuse of the "old boys' network" in some of our scientific institutions is an anachronism. The emphasis on gender in hiring and promoting has no place in modern institutions. It is not only bad for science but it denies many women the benefits of a scientific career that are enjoyed by men, such as the satisfaction of curiosity, setting one's own priorities, some status, and a certain degree of autonomy.' (ETAN report, 2000).

The main reason for this unsatisfactory situation is the '**glass ceiling**', symbolising all invisible structural and cultural barriers that prevent a woman from climbing the career ladder. But women are equally capable of meeting all the requirements a leading position demands, a fact that is supported by numerous studies. In the real world, however, the accumulation of small discriminations and specific problems that men do not experience on their career path serve to block a woman's progression up the career ladder. This is not limited to academia but also happens in both the private sector and public services.

Various strategies, legislation and other measures have been implemented to create a more even gender distribution in high-level management. Affirmative action and creating positions exclusively for women have already increased female appointments in leading positions, but they should be supported by other measures to heighten male awareness of the unequal opportunities for women. 'The tight interconnectivity between structural and cultural factors makes it necessary to pay more attention to the various internal groups within an organisation that actively participate in gendering. In addition to the top-level management and those responsible for personnel, predominantly male middle-level managers play an important role in the selection and promotion processes that lead to decisions about access to or exclusion from certain leading positions.' (Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin, 1997).

Mentoring is one strategy to help women break through the glass ceiling while simultaneously involving men in the process. An experienced manager personally accompanies and advises a female employee above and beyond the normal 'superior-employee relationship'. The mentor supports the woman in making herself more visible within a company or organisation and, by sharing their experiences, in acquiring the knowledge and skills necessary for high-level positions (Haasen, 2001). Mentoring is a very helpful tool: not only women profit but also men as they learn through personal contact about the specific problems and barriers that women experience. Furthermore, the company or the organisation makes better use of its women employees and thus increases productivity.



Mentoring programmes serve women first and foremost and they have already been shown to have a positive effect on their careers (Deutsches Jugendinstitut, 1999). But our experience reveals that men also profit. It is hoped that a long-term strategy of mentoring—although rather costly—would show positive long-term effects for working women. Clearly, this has to be investigated further, particularly regarding the payment of women, their positions and their long-term career prospects.

We believe that working with both sexes, will eventually show more pronounced and longer-lasting results than simply imposing quotas or guidelines. The latter approach is less productive, as it will alienate men and does not contribute to a better understanding about the specific problems that women face while breaking through the glass ceiling. Given our experience in the public and private sectors, we do not see a reason why similar mentoring programmes should not work equally well in the academic realm.

[http://www.hrw.org/reports/2002/afghnwmnl202/Afghnwmnl202-04.htm#P812\\_149074](http://www.hrw.org/reports/2002/afghnwmnl202/Afghnwmnl202-04.htm#P812_149074)

## Discrimination in the Right to Education

Girls and women have gone back to school in Herat in large numbers. Indeed, many women and girls point to education as the most significant change in Herat from the Taliban's rule. When we asked a university student how things had changed from the Taliban's rule, she replied: "There are no difference. Well one difference that girls come out and study. Otherwise there is no difference.... The only change in the situation is that girls can go to school." "Only the doors to the schools are open," another woman told us. "Everything else is restricted." And a Herati man noted, "What women's rights mean in our society is to go from primary school to university. This is all their rights."

While increased school enrollment is extremely positive, girl students still face restrictions not imposed on boys. Studying in separate girls schools, girls must follow strict dress codes as described above, enforced by school administrators and in some cases by the squads of boys trained by police; restrictions on their freedom of movement also hurt their ability to reach the schools. In addition, girls are not allowed to study music or play sports. A male music teacher explained, "Women don't take music classes. Like most things, no one announced it but people know." Girls who had studied music and played sports in Iran told Human Rights Watch that they missed these activities in Herat.

Teachers and administrators at two primary schools and one secondary school confirmed that their students were not allowed to play sports; according to a school supervisor, the Herat government had prohibited it.

Every school has one hour for sports, but girls don't play football or volleyball-they have to sit because Ismail Khan says it is bad for girls to play sports. . . . The students are really interested in doing sports, but they aren't allowed to do anything. They are eager to have a music class-to do something happy-but they can't. There are no sports, no music.

Ismail Khan has explicitly condemned girls playing sports. A teacher explained: "Last week Ismail Khan talked about three girls who went to Europe for sports [martial arts]. He said at a funeral speech last week that it was bad for our situation, bad that three girls went to Europe for sport, that he is very worried that he has heard that the government sent three girls."

Discrimination in employment, described above, diminishes girls' incentives to pursue education: although Ismail Khan claims to have given girls the right to education, he does not allow them to use it. According to an official in the Ministry of Higher Education, speaking both about Herat and elsewhere in Afghanistan: "Now, most girls don't try to go to faculties where there is no chance of work. Before, there were many girls studying to be civil engineers and there were government jobs available." Denying women and girls the opportunity to use their studies in effect makes a mockery of the right to education. "These things, these attitudes, mean that for the few women who have an education at the university-it is useless. If this is the situation, they cannot get a job in governmental offices."

## Herat University

Although women and girls are now, in small numbers, studying in Herat University, the discrimination they face there greatly constrains their participation and exemplifies the long catalogue of restrictions in Herat that combine to create an environment where their speech, behavior, and appearance are controlled and where the free exchange of ideas, central to a university education, is very limited. A woman who transferred from Herat to Kabul University in mid-2002 explained:

When I was studying in Herat University, all the lecturers and even the chancellor had very fundamentalist views. The effect was that the space for women was very closed, not at all open. . . . Have you been inside the Herat university? There was a small building with small rooms for girls to study in. It was a completely closed environment-there are no means for anything to happen there. We can't even call it a university.

One person responsible for the closed environment is Herat University's dean, Abdurrauf Mukhlis, the former head of Ismail Khan's religious police in the early 1990s. Ismail Khan appointed Mukhlis over the objections of the Ministry of Higher Education in Kabul, which tried, unsuccessfully to convince Ismail Khan to hold faculty elections for the post of dean, in accordance with ministry policy. Students were not happy with Mukhlis' appointment. As the former head of the religious police, Mukhlis hardly had the kind of background that would encourage free thinking or women's participation on campus. "You can imagine what he imposes," a student told Human Rights Watch. Students and professors reported that they fear discussing anything political, that interaction between boys and girls is suspect, and that women's behavior is tightly regulated.

Unlike in the universities in Mazar-e Sharif and Kabul, male and female students study separately, on Ismail Khan's order, over the objection of the Ministry of Higher Education in Kabul. An official in the Kabul ministry explained:

When boys and girls study together, it represents a symbolic change in civil rights because the university and faculty are symbols of institutions for civil rights. When they study separately it means that they do not have good civil rights, and it doesn't prepare women to work in an environment where there are men. Financially its good for them to study together because it is more efficient to teach everyone all together.

In all of Afghanistan's universities, women and girls still do not enjoy access equal with men. When Human Rights Watch asked an official at the Ministry of Higher Education what would happen if only one girl were interested in a particular class, he responded:

In that case, she has to change her subject because it is not appropriate for one girl to be in a class with so many boys. We have faced this situation twice. Four months ago in Kabul and one month ago in Herat there were situations where one girl wanted to study in an engineering class. We convinced them to change their subjects and to go to a different faculty, to medicine.

Women studying in the university also told Human Rights Watch that while male students had been allowed to study abroad in official exchange programs, female students had not, even to Iran. One woman explained: "Boys from Herat have gone. This is really wrong. And one of the countries is Iran, which is an Islamic country, but it was still not allowed."

The Herat University administration imposes a restrictive dress code for women that, as explained above, is promulgated by the dean. A student told Human Rights Watch that soon after the first semester began in March 2002:

The teacher was giving a lecture and suddenly he stopped and told my classmate: "Look at your shoes with high heels. They make noise. You should be ashamed!" My classmate studied all week long and was a good student. She was so deeply ashamed that she couldn't write even a word after that. We all felt sorry for her, and it took a long time for her to feel better.

Although the exchange of ideas is at the core of what constitutes a university, speech at Herat's university is tightly controlled by the local government. Political speech in Herat University is expressly forbidden, and students and teachers report that they fear retaliation if they criticize the government or the university itself, or even discuss current government policy. For example a number of university students said that while they disliked studying in a segregated environment, they are afraid to voice any complaints about it. One student related the following incident to Human Rights Watch:

A student told a journalist that we want to be in the same class with boys because it would be useful for us. The head of the university castigated her and said, "Why are you telling this to a journalist?" And it was an Afghan journalist from Kabul! She said, "Afghanistan is one government and so why is the situation completely different in Herat? In Kabul, the girls and the boys study together."

When she gave her ideas, this created problems. The head of the university said, "This is the last time that you will talk about these things to journalists."

If she did it again, maybe she wouldn't be allowed to study. She told me all of this.

Human Rights Watch was not able to interview the student who was castigated.

Another student told Human Rights Watch that she censors what she writes for her classes:

If I want to say something, for example, about the education department or the university, I know that they would probably kick me out of the university, and if they didn't do this, they would fail me on the exams. At first they come and say you are free to say everything, but when someone tells her ideas, the head of the university calls her and says, "Why did you say this?"

The woman who left Herat University and transferred to Kabul University because she found the environment stifling said that just as under the first period of Ismail Khan's rule, female students in particular are discouraged from speaking out. Another student noted: "If a girl says something she thinks in the university, the teachers (who are men) will say 'yes' but their behavior to her conveys that it is ridiculous."

The right to education is set forth in the ICESCR, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and CEDAW. Recognizing that different states have different levels of resources, international law does not mandate exactly what kind of education must be provided, beyond certain minimum standards: primary education must be "compulsory and available free to all," and secondary education must be "available and accessible to every child." Accordingly, the right to education is considered a "progressive right": by becoming party to the international agreements, a state agrees "to take steps . . . to the maximum of its available resources" to the full realization of the right to education. Although the right to education is a right of progressive implementation, the prohibition on discrimination is not. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which interprets the ICESCR, has stated: "The prohibition against discrimination enshrined in article 2(2) of the [ICESCR] is subject to neither progressive realization nor the availability of resources; it applies fully and immediately to all aspects of education and encompasses all internationally prohibited grounds of discrimination." Thus, regardless of its resources, the state must provide education "on the basis of equal opportunity," "without discrimination of any kind irrespective of the child's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status."

While international law permits the maintenance of separate educational systems or institutions for girls and boys, these must "offer equivalent access to education, provide a teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard as well as school premises and equipment of the same quality, and afford the opportunity to take the same or equivalent courses of study." However, in a post-conflict society where resources are extraordinarily scarce, maintaining a segregated system necessarily uses additional resources that might otherwise have gone to improve the education of both boys and girls.

Afghanistan's 1964 constitution provides that: "Education is the right of every Afghan and shall be provided free of charge by the state and citizens of Afghanistan."

<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2003/04/feature/sc0304103f.htm>

## **Women's representation in leading business positions increases**

A total of 500 organisations with 200 and more employees were covered by the new study, of which 82% were privately-owned limited companies. Of the organisations examined, 87% have boards of directors dominated by men - ie more than 60% of board members are males. Men dominate 93% of private company boards. Some 42% of all the organisations have no female representatives on their boards. Women constitute an average of 17% of board members in all organisations - falling to 13% among private companies - and men 83%. A large proportion of the women sitting on boards are trade union representatives appointed under the provisions of the Act on Board Representation (Lagen om styrelserepresentation för anställda, 1987:1245) (SE9907181F). Some 31% of the female board members in all organisations and 37% in private companies are such trade union representatives, appointed by local unions.

## **Top management teams**

Almost 86% of the organisations surveyed have top management teams that are dominated by men. In 32% of the organisations, the top management team consists exclusively of men. For privately owned companies, the corresponding figures are 90% and 34% respectively. In all organisations, women constitute 18% of all top managers, and 16% in privately owned companies. The most common sphere of responsibility for women in leading managerial positions is personnel/human resources, where 24% are women. The next most common activity for women in the positions mentioned is financial management.

In the private sector, the gender distribution of young managers, aged 35 years and younger, is 75% men and 25% women. The expectation that organisations will change through taking in younger employees is thus overestimated, the report states. The fact is that men and women do not enter and establish themselves in organisations on equal conditions. 'The young generation' is therefore not the solution to gender equality issues. It is also in this generation that problems of parenthood and home responsibilities are crucial. It is therefore very important to improve equality education and the will to change within organisations, according to the report.

## **Gender equality work**

In the 1994 survey, 58% of the organisations studied stated that they performed systematic gender equality work. In 2002, 78% of the organisations stated that they carry out this kind of work. The most common form of gender equality work is drawing up a gender equality plan (in line with the law), followed by measures relating to recruitment, pay and working hours. Some

18% of the organisations surveyed have in-house courses on gender issues for their staff, while 12% use special networks for women. Half of the organisations state that they have declared officially that they want to increase the number of women managers.

## Commentary

Comparing the results from the two studies, the 1994 survey found that 72% of the organisations had only men on their boards, while the corresponding figure for 2002 was 42%. In 1994, the top management team in 56% of organisations contained only men, whereas the figure for 2002 was 32%. While 58% of the organisations stated that they performed systematic gender equality work in 1994, some 78% stated that they did so in 2002. In 1994, a third of the organisations stated that they had problems with the fact that there were few women in leading positions in their organisation, and in 2002 as many as 50% admitted that they had such problems. A greater awareness has thus spread, the commissioner suggests.

However, men continue to dominate leading positions in large organisations in the private sector. Some organisations do engage in efforts to bring about change, aiming to create a more even representation of the sexes. Gender equality work in organisations has grown in scope over the past decade and to some extent has even changed in character. There are indications of an increased awareness of the skewed gender distribution at management and board levels. On the other hand, the commissioner points out, the proportion of women among young managers is still low.

Most of the measures to bring about change in this area that are undertaken in Swedish workplaces are of the type prescribed in the Act on Equality between Men and Women (Jämställdhetslagen, 1991:433). This legislation continues to play a major role in the field of equality between men and women at work. Another issue repeatedly discussed is the issue of possible quotas, for example setting quotas for the presence of women on company boards. There will be an opportunity to return to this issue, especially if the government presents a bill in this direction, which now seems possible. (Annika Berg, Arbetslivsinstitutet)

Page last updated 29 April 2003

Equal Opportunities Commission July 2003 (Great Britain):

## Equality today

Society has changed enormously over the last 75 years. In 70% of couples, both partners are in paid work. 73% of women with dependent children aged 5 or over work as do 53% of women with children under five. The EOC's research on fathers highlighted that since the 1970s there has been an upward trend in fathers' involvement in childcare – in the mid 1970s fathers with children under 5 years devoted less than quarter of an hour per day to child-related activities, in contrast to two hours a day by the late 1990s. Overall, fathers now take on one-third of all total parental childcare.

**However, equality is still an issue:**

Women working full-time earn on average 19% less per hour than men working fulltime; those working part-time earn 41% less per hour than full-time men

75% of women work in the five lowest paid sectors.

More than 50% of parents have no access to flexible working.

Only one in seven children under the age of 8 has a childcare place.

Men want to spend more time with their children, yet currently work some of the longest hours in the European Union.

The average woman in retirement will have an income just over half that of a similar aged man.

In 2001-02, around 24,000 people took a case of sexual discrimination or equal pay to an Employment Tribunal.

Women hold less than 10% of the top positions in FTSE 100 companies, the police, the judiciary and trade unions.

Police are called out to more domestic violence incidents than any other kind of incidents.

Every week, two women are killed by their partners or their ex partners.

The gap in what women are paid is a result of many of these different issues. Direct pay discrimination by employers is an important factor, although often unintentional - and it is difficult to quantify.<sup>3</sup> Yet recent EOC research shows that the majority of employers have no current plans to check whether they are paying women fairly by conducting an Equal Pay Review.<sup>4</sup> Other factors which contribute to the pay gap include the segregation of women in low paid occupations and the fact that women have greater family responsibilities than men, which means they are particularly likely to have to take low paid part-time jobs in order to balance work and family.

## **The case for equality**

This report suggests that inequality is still a key part of the daily experience of most people's lives. The case for change is powerful. Equality for women and men is in everyone's interests: individuals, employers and society as a whole.

**It helps to make the economy strong, because employers get the best workforce and women and men can use their talents and experience to the full.**

**It helps to reduce poverty, including poverty for children, through equal pay for women and equal access to job opportunities. These reduce dependence on benefits, and help women as well as men to save for retirement.**

**It reduces the damage that discrimination causes in individuals' lives. Fewer people become the victims of violence or unfairness simply because of their sex. Women and men do not have to face unfair burdens and responsibilities.**

**It means everyone has a fair stake in society and in the decisions that affect them. It means that women do not face unfair obstacles in becoming leaders in government, public life and business**

**It leads to better services that help everyone to lead their lives successfully. People often want to do something to achieve greater equality but have become resigned to 'how things are,' partly because change cannot be achieved by themselves.**