BEIJING + 10: AN EVALUATION FROM A PARLIAMENTARY PERSPECTIVE

Revised report prepared by the co-Rapporteurs
Ms. Margreth Mensah-Williams (Namibia) and Mr. Josef Philip Winkler (Germany)

Background

1. At the Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW), held in Beijing in September 1995, 189 countries endorsed the Beijing Platform for Action calling on governments to take action in 12 critical areas of concern. These areas covered women and poverty, education and training of women, women and health, violence against women, women and armed conflict, women and the economy, women in power and decision-making, institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women, human rights of women, women and the media, women and the environment, and the rights of the girl child. Governments, the international community, as well as civil society were called upon to formulate strategic objectives and actions in the framework of national plans of action. As of April 2000, 119 Member States, and one observer, had submitted National Plans of Action.¹

2. A United Nations General Assembly Special Session was convened from 5 to 9 June 2000 (it has come to be known as Beijing +5) to conduct a high-level review to appraise and assess the progress achieved in the implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and to consider further actions and initiatives. Since the FWCW in Beijing, the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW) has been responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action. It meets every year.

3. In September 2000 governments agreed to promote and achieve by 2015 the Millennium Development Goals of eradicating poverty and hunger; achieving universal primary education; achieving gender equality and women empowerment; reducing child mortality; improving maternal health; combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensuring environmental sustainability and developing a global partnership for development. The specific target date for the elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary education was set for 2005.

¹ See http://www.un.org/womenwatch/confer/beijing/national/natplans.htm
4. The UNCSW has decided that the Beijing +10 review, scheduled for 2005, should provide an opportunity to focus on the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome of Beijing +5, to identify gaps and challenges, and to share best practices. The review and appraisal of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action will draw on a variety of sources of information and statistics, including National Action Plans for the Platform for Action, reports submitted to the United Nations by States parties under the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), other United Nations reports, as well as a questionnaire distributed to States parties by the UNCSW. The process will also benefit from parliamentarians' active role in ensuring that the UNCSW has the necessary sources of information to properly review the implementation of the Platform for Action and the Beijing +5 outcome document.

5. In view of the broad scope of the 12 Beijing critical areas of concern outlined above, the rapporteurs have deliberately chosen to focus in this report on four areas, namely: women in power and decision-making, women and violence, women and the economy, and the girl child. On the other hand, the draft resolution is intended as a more comprehensive document, and outlines a number of recommendations for parliamentary action relating to a wider range of issues raised in the Beijing Platform for Action.

6. The sections of this report respectively deal with each of the four chosen critical areas of concern. After a brief presentation of the objective, examples of parliamentary implementation in a few select countries are examined, followed by recommendations for further parliamentary action.

I. Women in power and decision-making

A. Strategic objectives based on the Beijing Platform for Action

- Gender equality in government programmes, committees, public administration, and the justice system;
- Recording, analysis, and publication of data on women and men in various decision-making positions;
- Ensuring better compatibility of family and career by sharing parental responsibilities;
- Inclusion of gender-specific issues in political programmes;
- Restructuring of hiring and career-advancement programmes;
- Leadership and self-esteem training programmes to strengthen women and to encourage them to assume decision-making positions.

B. Examples of implementation in select countries

7. The percentage of women at the highest levels of national and international decision-making has not changed significantly since the Beijing Conference, despite the existence of an active policy on gender equality. Women remain the exception at the executive level. Even though women in industrialised countries are on a par with men in terms of educational and career
training qualifications, worldwide they hold less than ten per cent of the managerial positions in industry, public service, government, and higher education.

8. Women account for 15.4 per cent of members of parliament worldwide. Rwanda currently leads the world with the highest percentage of women in its national parliament (48.8 per cent). At the regional level, however, the Scandinavian countries have consistently ranked the highest, with 39.7 per cent, while the Arab countries continue to be at the lower end of the spectrum, with 6.2 per cent.

9. The figures for Germany show a relatively high level of women in positions of political power and decision-making responsibility. Women currently account for 38.6 per cent of the positions of this kind in federal and state executive government, and for 29.6 per cent of the representatives in the German Bundestag (federal parliament). Interestingly, the figure varies from parliamentary group to parliamentary group as a result of the use of different quota systems.

10. In several parliaments changes and mechanisms have been introduced to create a work environment respectful of gender equality. In the United Kingdom for example, "family-friendly" sitting hours were introduced in 2000, allowing MPs to return earlier to their constituencies and families. In addition to a change in sitting hours, women in South Africa were able to institute a crèche in the parliamentary building and to alter the rules governing members' attire. In several countries, including India and Uganda, parliamentary committees dedicated to women have been established, often with mandates to examine the gender impact of all legislation.

11. Other countries have created specific institutional bodies to promote the participation of women in society and in the political field. Egypt established the National Council for Women under Presidential Decree No. 90 of 2000, and this has been a major step forward. Political participation is considered one of the components of a society's development. In this regard, efforts have been made in Egypt to ensure that all women are given national identity cards to enable them to vote and to receive loans and other benefits so as to stimulate their political and economic role in society. Another measure undertaken has been the establishment of the Arab Women’s Organisation, operating under the umbrella of the League of Arab States. This Organisation assists in deciding upon common Arab cooperation and coordination measures for the promotion of Arab women and in defining their role in society at the national level.

12. Gender mainstreaming is also now quite high on the agendas of many countries. In 1999, the German government recognised gender mainstreaming as an integral part of its work. This policy, also in place at the European level, means that the different life situations and interests of women and men need to be taken into account from the outset in any project planning, on the

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3 IPU, Women Elected in 2003 - the Year in Perspective. The presence of Australia and New Zealand skews the percentage of women in the countries of the Pacific region. In fact, women represent 2.4 per cent of parliamentarians in the developing countries of this region.

4 The parliamentary group of Alliance90/The Greens has 55 seats, 58 per cent of which are held by women; the SPD has 250 seats, 38 per cent of which are held by women; the FDP has 47 seats, 26 per cent of which are held by women, while the CDU/CSU parliamentary group has 247 seats, 23 per cent of which are held by women. The governing parties use a principle of alternation; the Alliance90/The Greens political party reserves at least every odd-numbered position on their lists for women, which effectively means that every top position is reserved for a woman. Within the SPD, at least 40 per cent of the functions and mandates must be held by women, and within the CDU at least one third of the positions are reserved for women. The FDP disapproves of any quota system.
understanding that there is no such thing as gender neutrality in real life. Since 1999, federal ministries have had an obligation to take this policy into account in implementing all executive, legislative, and administrative projects carried out by the federal government. Government-funded pilot projects have been carried out relating to ministry personnel development, the conception, tendering, awarding, and realisation of research projects, as well as the development of practical instruments for concept implementation in child and youth work. The ministries are called upon to assess gender-specific impact potentials when formulating draft legislation, and to outline possible alternatives.

C. Further action

13. Despite the progress, it is clear that more needs to be done. Only 14 countries have at least 30 per cent representation of women in parliament, this being the benchmark set in the Beijing Platform for Action (paragraph 182). In most of the countries where the 30 per cent target has been reached (namely, Rwanda, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Belgium, Costa Rica, Austria, Germany, Argentina, Iceland and Mozambique), some kind of affirmative action measure has been instituted, such as the reservation for women of seats in parliament or electoral candidate quotas endorsed by political parties.

14. Affirmative action measures may not be sufficient by themselves. The electorate can also benefit from sensitisation campaigns organised by the government or non-governmental groups and focused on promoting political participation by women. Workshops can also be organised for women running for election. They may cover a variety of issues, including campaign strategies and constituency representation.

15. Institutions like parliaments need to become more gender-sensitive so as to ensure women's equal political participation with men and the introduction of gender-sensitive policies. A parliament's structure and rules and the attitude of its members can all have an impact on the capacity of women parliamentarians to contribute and participate fully. Specific parliamentary mechanisms and structures for the promotion of gender equality should be developed. Furthermore, national institutions on gender issues could also be useful.

16. The Beijing Platform for Action urges States to implement mechanisms to promote the advancement of women, including promoting an active policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes. Gender mainstreaming can include work with legislative bodies to promote a gender perspective in all legislation and policies. One possibility to explore is the use of gender impact statements to determine the differential impact of legislation on women and men.

II. Women and violence

A. Strategic objectives based on the Beijing Platform for Action
- Take integrated measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women;
- Study the causes and consequences of violence against women and the effectiveness of preventive measures;
B. Examples of implementation in select countries

17. Eliminating violence against women remains a major priority and responsibility for all governments, particularly as violence against women and children is the most widespread of all human rights abuses.

18. Acts of violence against women most often occur within the family or at the community level. Violence in the family can take such forms as threats, intimidation, beatings and sexual abuse of children, forced marriages, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women. In the community, violence takes the form of threats, rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment, negative portrayal of women in the media, intimidation, trafficking in women and children, forced prostitution and violence against women in armed conflict. Domestic violence, for example, is not openly addressed in many countries and other parts of the world because it is regarded as a private matter.

19. Since the Beijing Conference, important steps have been taken at the international level toward the elimination of violence against women:

- The Statute of the International Criminal Court, adopted in June 1998, specifically addresses gender-based crimes, as do the statutes of the criminal tribunals for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda.
- In 2000, the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime was supplemented by a Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, which defined trafficking in persons as follows: “Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.
20. Governments have also been forthcoming by enacting legislation to protect women against violence. In Nigeria, for example, the Prevention, Protection and Prohibition Act (2002) outlaws violence against women. The Nigerian Government also provides funding for support services for women victims of violence, including the provision of free legal services and the payment of medical bills, and facilitates the provision of alternate shelters or safe homes.

21. In Namibia, the Combating of Rape Act (Act No. 8 of 2000) was adopted, which affords protection against rape to young girls and boys, as were the Combating of Domestic Violence Act (Act No. 4 of 2003), which makes domestic violence a crime, and the Vulnerable Witnesses Bill. Women and Child Protection Units have also been established to provide temporary safety and shelter, counselling services and legal advice. A Plan of Action on combating gender-based violence has also been developed.

22. With the passing of the act on protection against domestic violence in 2002, a new approach has been adopted in Germany. Women affected by domestic violence can now request the police and the courts to remove the offender from their homes and to prohibit any further contact. The victim remains in the home, and the perpetrator is obliged to leave. These provisions also apply to unmarried couples. The protection of children is explicitly enshrined in the law.

23. In Egypt, measures have been taken to prevent and eliminate violence against women, in particular through the establishment of the Ombudsman's Office in the National Council for Women (NCW). Equal opportunity units have also been created in ministries, as well as the National Criminal Social Research Centre, which conducts studies on violence against women. The country has developed a Gender Equality Measured through Statistics (GEMS) project aimed at developing gender-sensitive statistics for the Arab region in the area of violence against women.

24. In Australia, in addition to laws on domestic violence, anti-stalking legislation and (in most states and territories) legislation expressly banning female genital mutilation, a number of initiatives have been introduced aimed at violence prevention. For example, the Partnerships Against Domestic Violence campaign aims to develop knowledge about what actually works best, for example by testing and researching new ways of addressing domestic violence, enhancing and sharing knowledge, developing and documenting best practices and educating the community. In 2001, the National Initiative to Combat Sexual Assault (NICSA) was introduced. It has focused on making better use of existing sexual assault data, collecting new national data and establishing a research body to explore issues relating to sexual assault.

25. In Malaysia, several measures have been taken to prevent and eliminate violence against women. These include the implementation of awareness programmes and campaigns throughout the country, the introduction of early education at home campaigns promoting gender awareness and the non-violation of women, the provision of support to the victims and their families and the empowerment of certain bodies to exercise auxiliary powers with respect to perpetrators.

26. In the United Kingdom, priority has been given to eradicating violence against women in all its forms and bringing perpetrators to justice. In addition to the Crime and Disorder Act (1998), which statutorily requires local authorities to monitor the level of domestic violence, Parliament has recently introduced the Domestic Violence Crime and Victims Bill, which focuses on prevention, protection and justice; a White Paper (Safety and Justice: the Government's proposals
on domestic violence) was issued in 2003; and the Sex Discrimination (Indirect Discrimination and Burden of Proof) Regulations were adopted in 2001.

27. Men’s support for gender equality has taken a variety of forms, including advocacy, alliances, campaigns and educational programmes for young men. Projects and programmes for men and boys have been implemented by institutions ranging from Governments and large international organisations to small community-based groups. Networks of men against gender-based violence have, for example, been developed in many countries, and men’s groups and networks are challenging existing stereotypes and addressing men’s roles and responsibilities in sexual relationships, as well as in the promotion of gender equality.

C. Further action

28. Combating and eradicating violence against women require enhanced and concerted efforts to protect women at the local, national and international levels. Parliaments should ensure that the laws they pass protect victims and punish perpetrators, and thereby redefine the limits of acceptable behaviour. Codes of conduct should also be established criminalising sexual harassment.

29. Once it is adopted, parliaments should monitor the implementation and enforcement of such legislation. Sufficient resources must be allocated to programmes targeted at eradicating violence against women. Training programmes should be instituted for members of the legal profession, the medical corps and security services as well as the multidisciplinary staff of centres providing primary care. Women should be encouraged to enter those professions which have direct contact with victims of violence, such as the police, the legal professions and medicine. Research into the causes, extent, effects and prevention of violence perpetuated against women should also be conducted. Data must be systematically collected and analysed.

30. A comprehensive and multifaceted approach to combating violence should both address the root causes of the problem and treat its manifestations. For instance, in the case of trafficking, the Beijing Platform for Action encourages governments to consider the ratification and enforcement of international covenants on trafficking in persons, to address the factors that encourage trafficking in women, to increase collaboration among law enforcement agencies to dismantle networks in trafficking and to allocate resources to rehabilitate victims of trafficking in society.

31. Society at large, including legal professionals and police officers, must be educated to change the social attitudes and beliefs that encourage male violence. Men themselves have a critical role to play in this. Combating violence against women requires challenging the way that gender roles and power relations are articulated in society, particularly where women have a low status or are considered inferior. Sensitisation campaigns must be organised on the issue of violence against women, educating boys and men to view women as valuable partners in life, in the development of a society and in the attainment of peace. The media should also be discouraged from portraying sensational images of crimes of violence, especially against women. They should instead educate and inform the public so that any acts of violence against women and girls are seen as serious violations of human rights.
III. Women and the economy

A. Strategic objectives based on the Beijing Platform for Action

- Increase in the number of women in employment;
- Equal status at work, and equal pay;
- Equal access to resources (financial services, educational opportunities, access to markets, information, technology);
- Elimination, in the labour market, of gender-related job categories corresponding to traditional concepts of women's and men's professions;
- Improvement of the compatibility of career and family.

B. Examples of implementation in select countries

32. A United Nations report on the situation of women in the economic sphere shows contradictory trends. Since the Fourth World Conference on Women was held in Beijing, many countries have taken measures to increase the percentage of women in employment, to afford housewives and women without steady employment access to social security protection, to create opportunities for rural women to purchase land and other property, as well as to make it easier for women to start their own businesses through low-interest loan schemes and targeted financial assistance. A number of countries have passed laws aimed at ensuring gender equality and preventing sexual harassment in the workplace.

33. Yet despite these measures, the economic situation of women around the world has not improved. The process of globalisation has continued to accelerate. This has been accompanied by further deregulation of the labour, services, and financial markets. Poor women, particularly rural women and immigrants, have been the hardest hit by the economic crises that have taken place in Latin America, Southern Asia, and Eastern Europe.

34. According to United Nations findings, this has led to an increase in gender inequality with regard to job quality, working conditions and pay for women. The work done by women in the services sector and in part-time jobs continues to be undervalued. The will of women to start their own businesses is growing around the world. At the same time, more and more women are being forced into the informal sector, where they are trapped in jobs that provide fluctuating income at subsistence levels, and with insufficient or non-existent social security.

35. Around the world, the desire of women to have careers and income levels that provide them financial security is in conflict with prevailing attitudes regarding gender roles, according to which women are the ones who are responsible for raising children and taking care of the family. The compatibility of career and family is one of the keys to gender equality in the economic sphere. The reform of statutory social security and health insurance systems as a result of the

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demographic changes taking place in the industrial countries will mean that women will again inherit the role of primary caregivers, given their "traditional" responsibility in this sphere.

36. Despite an increase from 5 to 8 per cent since 1999, the share of women in top managerial positions in industry continues to be very low. By comparison with other countries, women in Germany are strongly underrepresented in managerial positions in small and medium-sized enterprises, accounting for only 16 per cent of the total. The leading countries in this economic sector are the Russian Federation (42 per cent) and the Philippines (39 per cent). The international average is around 20 per cent.

37. At the same time, the share of women in part-time employment is 30 per cent for the enlarged European Union (EU), well above the figure of 7 per cent for men. There is an average gender-related pay differential of 16 per cent in the EU, the differential is 30 per cent in Germany. According to information from the United Nations Statistics Division, this figure is considerably higher in many non-European countries.

38. The percentage of women who are employed has increased in Germany. Today women account for 43 per cent of the total workforce. However, there are opposing trends in the east and the west of the country. In the east – the former GDR – the employment rate for women, i.e. the percentage of women of working age who are employed, was more than 90 per cent in the early 1990s. Since then it has declined to a present level of 72 per cent. In the west, the employment rate for women has risen to 62 per cent. The overall amount of time worked by women declined between 1997 and 2000. This is a result of women's increasing tendency to be employed part-time, whether this be by choice or owing to economic necessity.

39. The rules on parental leave have been reformed to improve the work and family balance for mothers and fathers. In Germany, the Law on Part-Time Work and Time-limited Work Contracts of December 2000 for the first time created a general right to part-time employment in the job market. The availability of child-care facilities continues to be insufficient. In Canada, the proportion of men taking parental leave has tripled since the paid parental leave period was extended from ten to thirty-five weeks in 2000.

40. Tax incentives for employers who provide child-care facilities and parenting regulations that create obligations for both parents have also improved the compatibility of work and family, in particular in northern European Countries. In Sweden, for example, specific incentive structures made it possible to increase the number of fathers who took family leave from 2.8 per cent in 1974 to 36.2 per cent in 1999.

41. In Canada, the national contributory pension plan has been changed to ensure that women are not penalised if they leave the labour force for a period to raise their children. This plan effectively means that fewer women will become burdens on the State because of poverty in their old age.

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8 Some 42 per cent of women are employed in part-time jobs in the west of the country, as opposed to 23 per cent in the east. Only five per cent of men work part-time.
C. Further action

42. Many of the measures governments have taken since the Beijing Conference have not been effective because they were insufficiently funded or were not systematically implemented. Furthermore, many women are not aware of their economic rights and the opportunities available to them for financial assistance.

43. A number of funding programmes and projects have been created to help implement the Platform for Action in Germany. They include agreements between the federal government and private industry and regularly published federal government reports and statistics on the advancement of women, which show the percentages of women employed in different areas. However, the agreement between the federal government and the private sector on the advancement of women in the corporate sphere has not yet had the desired effect.

44. In Germany, projects aimed at promoting the rise of women to positions of leadership were created in the framework of the medium-term community action programme on equal opportunities for women and men (1996-2000), e.g. a mentoring project by Deutscher Jugendbund e.V and a project entitled "Preparing Women to Lead" by the Technical University of Berlin. The federal government and a number of state governments have created programmes to promote business start-ups by women.

45. Globally, more needs to be done to fully value and assess women's input, be it paid or unpaid, to the economy. This can be done by encouraging and developing research on women's input by developing appropriate statistical tools and by obliging government departments to disaggregate by sex all the data they collect.

46. Parliamentarians must also ensure that economic policies are gender-sensitive. Gender should be considered a cross-cutting issue, and women must be involved in the elaboration of all public policies. More women should be appointed to those parliamentary committees dealing with finance and the economy. Women must be encouraged to enter the economic decision-making arena, and training should be provided so as to enable women to reach positions of seniority.

47. Ensuring that budgets are gender-sensitive has proven effective in a number of countries, but many more countries should be institutionalising this practice in their parliaments. Gender budgeting requires political will, adequate resources and capacity, and a high level of budget "literacy" among civil society partners and within women's policy-making machinery. Partnerships between parliamentarians, civil society groups, researchers and budget analysts can increase and sustain pressure for the introduction of policy changes in support of gender equality goals.
IV. The girl child

A. Strategic objectives based on the Beijing Platform for Action, Millennium Development Goals and IPU resolutions

- Eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl child, irrespective of race or origin (descent, adopted status or status as a child born in or out of wedlock);
- Eliminate negative cultural attitudes and practices against girls;
- Promote and protect the rights of the girl child and increase awareness of her needs and potential;
- Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training;
- Realise the Millennium Development Goal of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005;
- Eliminate discrimination against girls in health and nutrition;
- Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work;
- Eradicate violence against the girl child;
- Promote the girl child's awareness of and participation in social, economic and political life;
- Strengthen the role of the family in improving the status of the girl child.

48. In 2001, the 106th Conference of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, held in Ouagadougou, adopted a resolution entitled “Protecting and caring for children, the driving force of future society.” This resolution called on all States to take the necessary measures to ensure equal rights and fundamental freedoms for the girl child; to take effective actions against sexual abuse and female genital mutilation, and to develop programmes and policies for the girl child that place her on an equal footing with the boy child.

B. Examples of implementation in select countries

49. The girl child faces discrimination through various phases of her life. Her low status is reflected in the denial of fundamental needs and rights and in such harmful attitudes and practices as a preference for sons, early marriage, female genital mutilation, domestic abuse, incest, sexual exploitation, discrimination and less access to food and education. Due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic, many children have had to take on parenting responsibilities for their young brothers and sisters after the death of their parents, and have thus been forced to look for any means of survival, including carrying out sexual favours. Girls are especially vulnerable in this regard.

50. At the Beijing Conference in 1995, African nations joined forces to push for the inclusion of the girl child as one of the Platform's critical areas. Six countries in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region, namely, Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland and Zambia, declared their commitment to making the welfare of the girl child a priority in their respective countries.
51. Since that time, various efforts have been made by governments, parliaments and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to safeguard and improve the situation of the girl child. An increasing number of countries have introduced legislation to ban female genital mutilation and have imposed heavy penalties on offenders.

52. In Nigeria, while laws have not yet been enacted at the State level, draft bills have been introduced, such as the Criminal Code (Amendment) Law (2000), prohibiting the discriminatory and exploitative practices of trafficking in women and girls for prostitution and other immoral acts. In Cross River State, the Girl Child Marriages and Female Circumcision (Prohibition) Law (2000) prohibits child marriage and impregnating of a girl child as well as circumcision or mutilation of her genital organ whether or not her consent is obtained. The Nigerian parliament has passed a Child’s Rights Act (2003), which sets out the rights and responsibilities of a child and provides for a system of juvenile justice administration.

53. In Egypt, a Personal Status Law (2000) was passed, ensuring women’s rights, including the right to terminate marriage under certain conditions. In 1996 the Egyptian People’s Assembly adopted a Children’s Bill which protects children from exploitation in unlawful employment. A series of legislative instruments have also been adopted providing benefits to women. These include acts relating to social welfare, health and education services.

54. In Malaysia, the Child Act (2001) was designed to provide care and protection to all children. The Ministry of National Unity and Social Development has established a National Advisory and Consultative Council on Children; there is also a Coordinating Council for the Protection of Children.

55. Namibia has passed a Children’s Act aimed at protecting the rights of all children. The Namibian Women’s Association (NAWA), an NGO, has implemented two projects. Under the Affirmative Action Project for the Girl Child, which aims at total empowerment for the girl child, 104 girls from all over the country are undergoing training to take up leadership positions in all spheres of society. The other project is the Namibian Girl Child Organisation which has 186 Girl Child Clubs all over Namibia. In Namibia initiatives have been taken to advance the cause of the girl child. Girls are empowering themselves and playing an active role in their liberation. They are making contact with other girls throughout Africa, with the aim of replicating best practices. Girls are actively establishing networks to share information. By belonging to a common organisation, they will have an easier time challenging customs and practices that discriminate against girls. Countries such as South Africa and Swaziland have established girl child organisations as well. In addition, a SADC girl child movement and the African girl child movement are to be launched in early 2005.

56. In Senegal and Tanzania, legislation has been adopted that prohibits female genital mutilation. In Tanzania, the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (1998) makes female genital mutilation a criminal offence.

57. In the United Kingdom, the Female Genital Mutilation Act (2003) was adopted. The Act makes it an offence to carry out female genital mutilation, and anyone convicted of doing so could face a maximum penalty of 14 years imprisonment. The Sexual Offences Act (2003) was also
adopted, creating a new range of offences specifically designed to offer children under 13 years of age the maximum protection the law can offer.

C. Further action

58. Despite these important steps, there remains a continued cultural discriminatory attitude towards girls, as well as a lack of financial resources which prevents them from completing their education and training. In addition, there are few established national mechanisms to implement policies and programmes for the girl child. Throughout the southern African region, for example, there is a lack of services available to children who have been sexually exploited for commercial purposes. Shelters and services for abused children have been established in some countries in the southern Africa region, but overall they are not especially adequate for the girl child.

59. This is clearly the case, for example, with respect to the issue of female genital mutilation (FGM). Governments have a tendency to leave the matter to the community concerned, on the grounds that the decision is a tribal or cultural one. Public campaigns to sensitise, educate and mobilise people against FGM must be organised, and substantial funds need to be committed to these projects.