

State of Gender and Family Well-Being in OIC Member Countries



ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION
STATISTICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH AND
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FOREWORD

Strong and healthy societies are comprised of cohesive families in which women and men are treated equally in all aspects of social and economic life. However, today there is a widespread painful reality that many societies across the world are facing new challenges of weakened family structure and degraded status of women. For instance, millions of children have to be raised solely by their fathers or mothers due to increased divorce rates. In this context, ensuring gender equality and restoring the status of women are critically important in order to empower the family institution and build up healthy societies.

Over the last two decades, many governments and several international organizations, including the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), have started to include the gender and family well-being issues in their priority policy agenda. Some key strategic and policy-oriented documents have been adopted by international organizations such as the United Nations' Beijing Declaration (1995) and the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (2008). Moreover, many countries, including some OIC member countries, have even established ministries which are dedicated to address the challenges and related issues of women and empowering the family structure more effectively.

Though at varying degrees, the OIC member countries are not exception in terms of suffering from gender inequality. In general, as a group, they share some common concerns on the state of gender and family well-being. In this context, this report highlights, in a comparative perspective, the state of gender inequality in OIC countries in selected social and economic aspects and provides insights into the current state of family well-being. The report examines four important aspects of social and economic life from a gender-equality perspective, namely education, health, violence and social security. In addition, the report elaborates on the role of women in decision-making process, especially by using indicators related with the representation of women in politics. Finally, the report discusses the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in creating a more enabling environment for empowering women and family well-being in the OIC countries. The report concludes with some specific policy recommendations for addressing the issues of gender inequality, empowering women, and improving the overall family well-being in the OIC countries.

Amb. Musa Kulaklıkaya
Director General
S E S R I C

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Gender equality and women's empowerment in all fields of social and economic life are gaining increasing importance from the perspectives of both policy development and human rights. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) "gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities and attributes that a particular society considers appropriate for men and women". Many OIC member countries have been suffering from gender inequality at varying degrees and they share some common concerns on the state of family union and well-being. Against this backdrop, this report highlights differences between men and women in selected social and economic aspects, and provides insights into the current state of the well-being of family in OIC member countries in a comparative perspective.

Overall State of Gender and Family Well-Being

This section looked at the state of gender equality and family well-being in OIC member countries in a holistic approach by analysing two globally recognized comprehensive indices, namely the *gender gap index* of the World Economic Forum and the *gender equality index* of the CIVICUS Foundation. The figures on the *gender gap index* show that all country groups, including the OIC group, recorded a decrease in their gender gap (inequality) which is reflected in the increase in their average scores. The average *gender equality index* scores in 2013 reveal that the OIC group has the lowest gender equality index score compared with all three country groups (non-OIC developing, developed and world). These two indices overall show that in the OIC group, on average, gender equality has been improving slowly. However, the current state of gender and family well-being is still relatively underdeveloped compared with other country groups. On average, OIC member countries could only get 0.37 points in the gender equality index, whereas non-OIC developing countries obtained 0.40 points while the world average is 0.43. In contrast, developed countries, on average, obtained 0.60 points indicating the existence of a high degree of equality.

Education and Health Status of Women

Education and health are two important aspects of human development that are used to assess the state of gender equality in a country. The existence of major differences between women and men in terms of education and health indicators implies the prevalence of severe inequality that is impediment for development in many developing countries including OIC members.

Education

In terms of literacy rates, there is a larger disparity across genders in the group of OIC member countries compared to other country groups. On average, out of 100 women, only 64.2 can read and write while in male population this rate reached 79.3, indicating almost 15 percentage points disparity. In youth population, gender disparity in the OIC group goes down to 6.5 percentage points in the 2008-2012 period. These two basic figures indicate the existence of a inequality in access to education of male and female population.

In terms of participation in education, gender disparity is still an issue for many OIC member countries. The data show that the gender gap, in favour of male, becomes particularly evident at the primary and secondary education both in terms of gross and net enrolment rates. Enrolling into a school is only the first step of the education life. Staying in schools, going on education until the last grade and most importantly graduating successfully from the educational institution are other important steps of the education life. In terms of completion, female population in many OIC member countries are in a more disadvantaged position especially in primary education, according to data in 2012.

Health

Health is a crucial factor that directly affects well-being of individuals, family and societies. Healthy people contribute to economic progress to a higher extent since they live longer and stay more productive. On average, OIC member countries, as a group, witnessed an improvement in life expectancy at birth between 2006 and 2012 where male life expectancy at birth rose from 62.7 years in 2006 to 64.4 years in 2012. In the same period, female life expectancy at birth increased from 66.1 in 2006 to 67.9 in 2012. The global female life expectancy hit 73 years in 2012 that is 5.2 years higher than the average of the OIC group. The adult mortality rate (AMR) in the OIC member countries exhibited a downward trend during the period 2006-2012. Between 2006 and 2012, AMR for males decreased from 244 to 228 where AMR for females went down from 191 to 175.

Although the average fertility rate of the OIC countries decreased from 3.94 in 2006 to 3.70 in 2012, the OIC group has had the highest average fertility rate in all the years during this period. This indicates the existence of high fertility pressure on women in OIC member countries. On average, 86.5% of the pregnant women in the OIC member countries were receiving some form of prenatal care in 2012 that is a significant improvement compared with 79.1% in 2006. In developed countries, 99% of all births attended by skilled health staff both in 2006 and 2012. The OIC group also achieved to reduce the maternal mortality ratio from 270 to 247 in this period.

Violence against Women in the Family and Work

There is a growing worldwide recognition that violence against women is a gross violation of women's human rights. It is also widely acknowledged that violence has significant negative adverse effects on women's health. In OIC member countries it is relatively more challenging to measure violence and abuse against women correctly and to cope with this social problem due to some social norms and attitude of women. According to the available data in 2012, the average physical violence rate reported in the OIC group was 14.4% that was higher than that of the world average (12.9%) and the average of developed countries (4.4%).

Female genital mutilation, marrying at early ages (before 18) and bearing children at early ages are other forms of violence against women, which are discussed in the section. According to data, compared with other country groups, the OIC group has the highest child marriage prevalence where 7.9% of all marriages are being exercised before 15 years old and 27.3% of all marriages are being performed before 18 years old. The section finally looks at the divorce and marriage figures in OIC member countries. The analysis reveals

that average divorce rates are on the rise and the average marriage rate goes down over time. To this end, such a trend in these critical indicators constitutes a serious threat for family well-being in OIC member countries.

Social Security, Women and Family Well Being

Women are disadvantaged in access to social security and employment in many developing and developed countries. Women's participation in the labour market in OIC member countries reached 45.1% in 2013. Besides, there is a wide disparity across OIC member countries regarding the female labour force participation. The female youth unemployment rate in OIC member countries was higher than in the adult category. Women are predominantly employed in the services sector. This sector represents almost three quarters of women's employment in OIC member countries. The share of employment in the agriculture sector for women in OIC member countries represent the highest rate with 18.5% compared with other country groups. Qatar and Malaysia have the highest wage equality score with 0.81 points. This signifies that these countries have the lowest gender pay gap in OIC member countries. In 2013, only 14% of OIC member countries have durations of maternity leave that meet the 12 week standard. On the other hand, 36 OIC member countries provide 14 weeks or more maternity leave.

The Role of Women in Decision-Making

One of the main reasons behind the inequality between men and women that is seen clearly in the case of OIC member countries is the limited participation of women into decision-making process. The lack of women's ideas and views on decision-making limits the scope of the policy-analyses as well as the effectiveness of policy intervention in many socio-economic aspects of life. Therefore, limited participation of women into decision-making creates an environment where the dominant actors are male. In this environment, critical issues such as gender equality and empowerment of women get less attention than they deserve. In this regard, many policy issues need to be addressed on gender equality and family well-being solely by men where views of women are missing. Data showed that in the world, on average, 28.8% of the senior managerial positions are women while the OIC average is 15.6%, which is less than half of the average of the non-OIC developing countries (33.1%).

NGOs, Women and Family Well-Being

NGOs have adopted many interventions to address women issues in OIC member countries. The emergence of microcredit has been also an important tool for addressing women issues. On the other hand, NGOs in many OIC member countries have become successful in their advocacy role because they associated local experiences with national or international policy. Most of the NGOs have adopted gender mainstreaming policies in order to promote the well-being of the women in OIC member countries. However, a large number of women remained outside of the scope of service delivery or received less attention in developing countries including OIC members.

1 INTRODUCTION

Gender equality and women's empowerment in all fields of social and economic life are gaining increasing importance from the perspectives of both policy development and human rights. As the smallest unit of society, without a strong and healthy family structure, it is not easy to empower women and achieve perfect gender equality.

Following international commitments and guidelines most of the development policies have already been based on the principle of incorporating the priorities and needs of both women and men in order to offer equal opportunity for access to all the benefits and services provided to the society. The United Nations' Beijing Declaration (1995) is one of the key documents in this field. The United Nations Beijing Declaration's 12 critical areas of concern provided an international framework for action on the advancement and empowerment of women, however, there are still some problems regarding integration of gender related aspects into all operational levels of policy implementations across the world (UN, 2010).

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) "gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities and attributes that a particular society considers appropriate for men and women". Consequently, gender relations are the ways in which a culture or society defines rights, responsibilities, and the identities of men and women in relation to one another. Unfortunately, the "gender" term is often misunderstood as only referring to women. However, gender issues encompass the relationships between men and women, their roles, access to and control over resources, the division of labour, etc. Furthermore, gender is not all about disparity between men and women that has implications on households, well-being of the family, fertility planning, production and many other aspects of socio-economic life (Bravo-Baumann, 2000).

Given the fact that many OIC member countries have been suffering from gender inequality at varying degrees and they share some common concerns on the state of family union and well-being, gender related issues have been incorporated into the political agenda of the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC). The OIC Ten-Year Programme of Action (2005) calls for the enhancement of the involvement of women in economic, cultural, social and political fields of life and encourages member states to sign and ratify agreements to ensure gender equality, empower women and strengthen family well-being. Another major step was taken by the OIC towards achieving advancement of women was the adoption of the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) by the 2nd Ministerial Conference on Women held in Cairo in 2008. The OPAAW document provides a road-map for the advancement of women in the OIC member countries by taking their concerns into account (see annex I).

Against this background, this report highlights differences between men and women in selected social and economic aspects, and provides insights into the current state of the well-being of family in OIC member countries in a comparative perspective. Four important aspects of social and economic life, namely education, health, violence and social security are examined from a gender-equality perspective. The report also highlights the

role of women in decision-making process. Finally, the report elaborates on the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in creating a more enabling environment for empowering women and family well-being in the OIC countries. The report concludes with specific policy implications for addressing gender equality, empowering women, and improving overall family well-being in OIC countries.

2 OVERALL STATE OF GENDER AND FAMILY WELL-BEING

This section looks at the state of gender equality and family well-being in OIC member countries in a holistic approach by analysing two globally recognized comprehensive indices, namely the *gender gap index* of the World Economic Forum and the *gender equality index* of the CIVICUS Foundation. By doing this, it is aimed to show the overall state of gender equality and family well-being from a broader perspective. The following sections attempt to highlight and investigate the root causes of gender inequality and associated problems with family well-being by focusing on different aspects such as education, health and violence.

2.1 Gender Gap Index

The World Economic Forum (WEF) has been preparing annually a flagship report namely “Global Gender Gap Report” since 2006 with a view to capturing the magnitude of gender-based disparities and tracking the progress on this track. In these annual reports, the WEF uses its unique index called the *gender gap index* that covers four main dimensions:

- a) economic participation and opportunity;
- b) educational attainment;
- c) health survival; and
- d) political empowerment.¹

There are two main identifying features of the gender gap index of the WEF. First, the index encompasses four main dimensions that help to capture both social and economic aspects related with the gender gap/inequality. Second, the index has been reported since 2006 annually that allows to maintain an analysis over time and to monitor the direction of development in the gender inequality both at the national and global level.

The most recent WEF dataset on the gender gap index provides data between 2006 and 2014 for 137 countries, of which 41 are OIC member countries, 60 are non-OIC developing countries and 36 are developed countries. Under the gender gap index, the highest possible score is 1 (equality) and the lowest possible score is 0 (inequality). Therefore, an improvement in the score implies a progress towards gender equality.

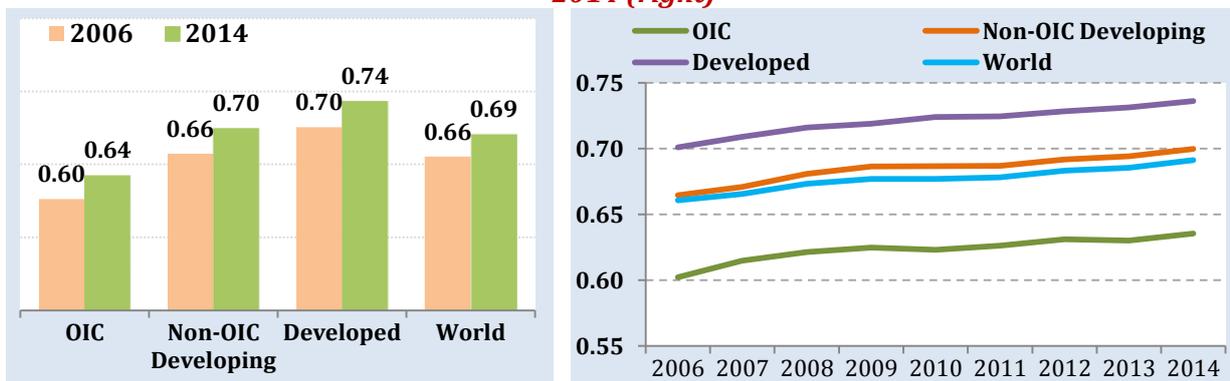
Figure 2.1 (left) compares the average gender gap index scores of country groups in 2006 with their scores in 2014. The Figure shows that the gender gap (inequality) in OIC member countries has been slightly decreased where the average score increased from 0.60 in 2006 to 0.64 in 2014. Non-OIC developing countries and developed countries also experienced a

¹ The details about the calculation methodology of the index can be found on pages 3-7 in WEF (2014). See Table A.3.1 in Annex II for the indicators’ list on sub-dimensions and data sources.

similar increase in their average scores. During the period under consideration, the world average climbed from 0.60 to 0.70 that is the highest increase recorded among all groups analysed.

Figure 2.1 (right) shows the annual changes trend in the gender gap index scores between 2006 and 2014 at the country groups' level. Two main messages emerge from this figure. First, albeit with a slow pace, all country groups, including the OIC group, recorded a decrease in their gender gap (inequality) which is reflected in the increase in their average scores. Second, the differences in average gender gap scores between the country groups have not changed remarkably over the period analysed, where the OIC group stayed at the bottom below the world average throughout the period.

Figure 2.1. Global Gender Gap Index Scores in the World (left) and Changes between 2006-2014 (right)



Source: World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Reports 2006 and 2014.

Finally, at the individual country level, Mozambique (0.74), Kazakhstan (0.72) and Guyana (0.70) get first three rows in terms of the gender gap index score values (i.e. OIC member countries with the highest gender equality) in 2014. On the other side of the spectrum, OIC member countries, namely Chad, Pakistan and Yemen, obtained the lowest scores which imply the existence of high gender inequality (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2. The Highest and Lowest Global Gender Gap Index Scores in OIC Countries in 2014



Source: World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Reports 2006 and 2014.

2.2 Gender Equality Index

The Enabling Environment Index (EEI) prepared by the CIVICUS Foundation in 2013 defines the enabling environment as “a set of conditions that impact on the capacity of citizens (whether individually or in an organised fashion) to participate and engage in the civil society arena in a sustained and voluntary manner.” The index has three main dimensions namely socio-economic, socio-culture and governance. Each dimension is comprised of

several sub-dimensions. The socio-economic environment dimension covers four sub-dimensions: education, communications, equality and *gender equality*. This sub-section uses the gender equality sub-dimension and analyses the state of gender equality in OIC member countries in a comparative perspective.

According to the CIVICUS, one of the main requirements to provide an enabling environment to civil society is to ensure gender equality where men and women are treated equally. In this regard, the gender equality sub-index is calculated by using three indicators:

1. Seats in national parliament (% female) of UN Human Development Index.
2. Gender inequality index [0-1] of UN Human Development Index.
3. Gender equity index [1-0] of Social Watch.

Firstly, the indicator on *seats in national parliament* of the UNDP is aimed to show the participation rate of women into decision-making process, which indicates to what extent women are active in shaping the future of countries. Secondly, the UNDP *gender inequality index* measures gender inequalities in three important aspects of human development—*reproductive health* measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates; *empowerment*, measured by proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by females and proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education; and *economic status* expressed as labour market participation and measured by labour force participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years and older. Finally, the *gender equity index* of the Social Watch measures the gap between women and men in education, economy and political empowerment. The *gender equity index* is the simple average of these three dimensions. In the *education dimension*, the index looks at the gender gap in enrolment at all levels and in literacy; *economic participation* computes the gaps in income and employment and *empowerment* measures the gaps in highly qualified jobs, parliament and senior executive positions.

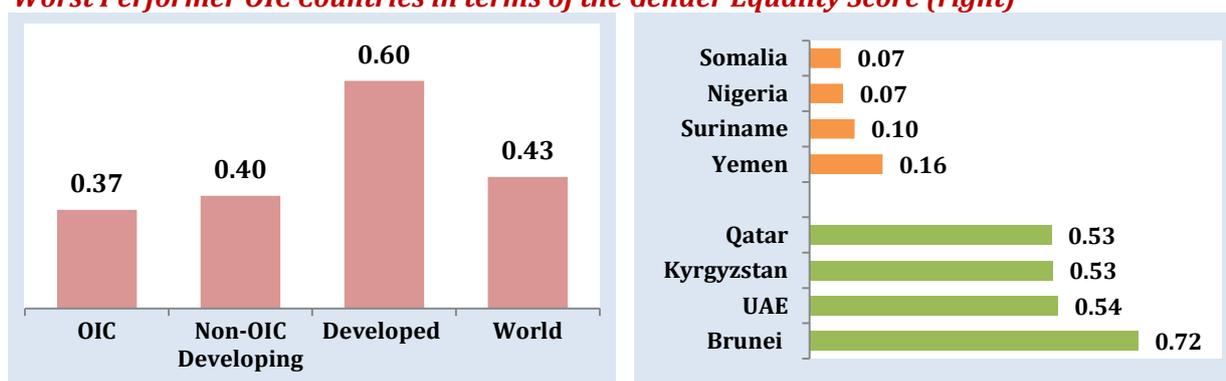
The number of countries in the expanded version of the gender equality index of CIVICUS is 223, of which 57 are OIC countries, 128 are non-OIC developing countries and 38 are developed countries. Overall the index takes values between 0 and 1. A score of 1 represents a country that has a perfect gender equality that helps to build up an enabling environment for civil society.

Figure 2.3 (left) presents the average gender equality index scores for country groups in 2013. It is clear that the OIC group has the lowest gender equality index score compared with all three country groups (non-OIC developing, developed and world). On average, OIC member countries could only get 0.37 points, whereas non-OIC developing countries obtained 0.40 points while the world average is 0.43. In contrast, developed countries, on average, obtained 0.60 points.

Another fact on the gender equality can be revealed by looking at the performance of individual member countries of the OIC group. For instance, Brunei (0.72), United Arab Emirates (0.54) and Kyrgyzstan (0.53) have the highest gender equality scores in the OIC group. However, countries like Yemen (0.16), Suriname (0.10), Nigeria (0.07), and Somalia (0.07) are the OIC member countries with the lowest scores in terms of the gender

equality index (Figure 2.3, right). The existence of high gaps between the scores of the best and the worst performer OIC member countries indicate that in the OIC group there is a wide disparity in terms of policies towards gender equality and the status of women in respective societies. In OIC member countries with low gender equality scores, practicing positive discrimination towards women and implementing policies with a gender equality perspective such as in education and politics would build up societies where men and women are treated more equally.

Figure 2.3. The Stance of the Gender Equality in the World (left), and the Best Performer vs. the Worst Performer OIC Countries in terms of the Gender Equality Score (right)



Source: SESRIC Staff Calculations based on the CIVICUS 2013 Enabling Environment Index Dataset.

3 EDUCATION AND HEALTH STATUS OF WOMEN

Education and health are two important aspects of human development that are used to assess the state of gender equality in a country. The existence of major differences between women and men in terms of education and health indicators implies the prevalence of severe inequality that is impediment for development in many developing countries including OIC members. Therefore, looking at education and health indicators from a gender perspective is important to understand the root causes of inequality among women and men in OIC member countries.

3.1 Education

3.1.1 Literacy Rates

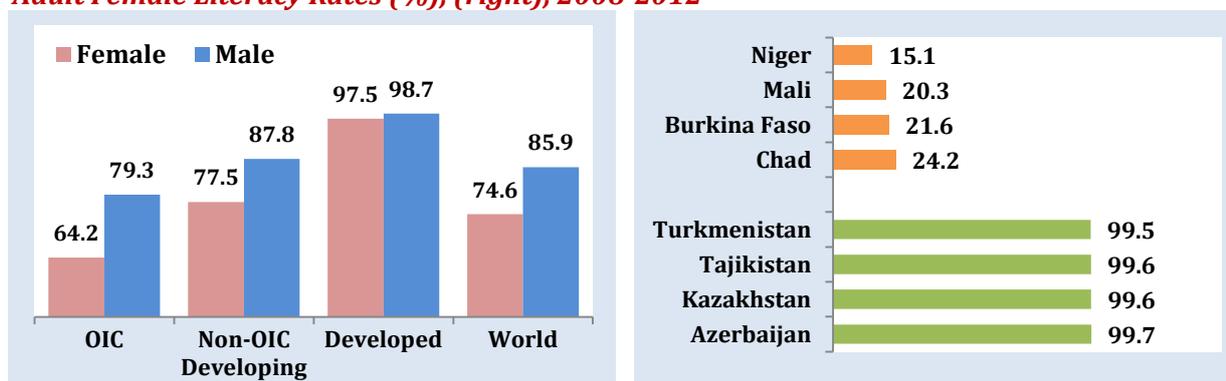
Literacy rate is one of the developmental indicators included in the measurement of the Human Assets Index (HAI) as well as the Human Development Index (HDI). It is as an important indicator of social development that indicates the existence of capability of reading and writing skills in a society.

Broadly speaking, the literacy rates in the OIC countries are not impressive. With an average adult literacy rate of 72.3% in 2012 OIC countries as a group lagged well behind the world average of 82% and also non-OIC developing countries' average of 84.5% (SESRIC, 2014). Looking at the adult literacy rates from a gender disparity perspective shows even a less optimistic picture for OIC member countries. There is a larger disparity across genders in the group of OIC member countries compared to other country groups. On average, out of 100 women, only 64.2 can read and write while in male population this rate reached 79.3, indicating almost 15 percentage points disparity (Figure 3.1, left). While the average adult literacy rate among males in OIC member countries is comparably

better, it is still below the average of non-OIC developing countries (87.8%) and the world (85.9%). The gap between the OIC group average and the world average exceeds 10 percentage points in literacy rates of female population. This indicates a problem of inequality in access to education of male and female population.

At the individual country level, OIC central Asian countries occupied the top four positions as the best performing countries in terms of female adult literacy rates. According to the latest data available, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, and Turkmenistan achieved female adult literacy rates over 99%. In contrast, Niger (15.1%), Mali (20.3%), Burkina Faso (21.6%), and Chad (24.2%) had the lowest rates of female adult literacy in the OIC group (Figure 3.1, right).

Figure 3.1. Adult Literacy Rates (%), (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Adult Female Literacy Rates (%), (right), 2008-2012

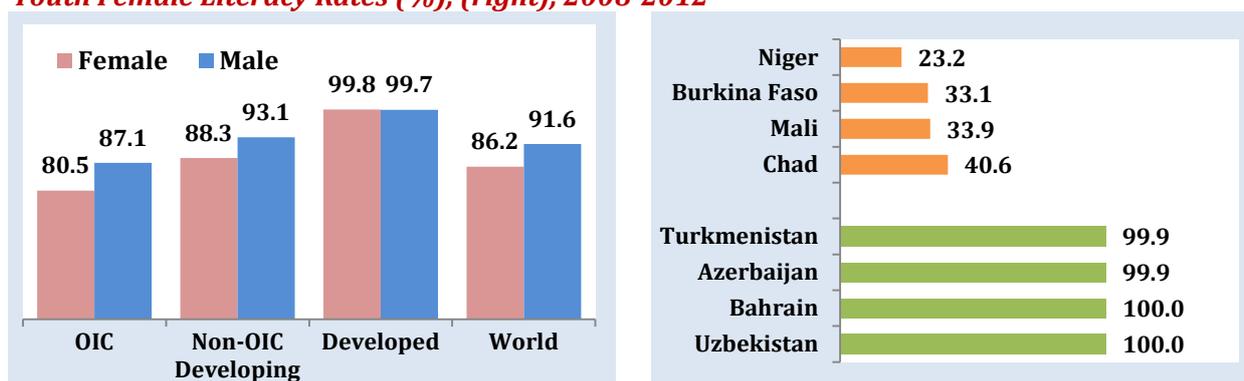


Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

However, when youth literacy is examined, a more optimistic picture for OIC member countries prevails compared with the adult literacy. Both female and male youth literacy rates in OIC country group are above 80% and the gender disparity among youth male and female is only 6.5 percentage points compared with 15 percentage points disparity in adult population (Figure 3.2, left). This implies that OIC member countries, on average, show a better performance in providing basic education to the youth population, both male and female, compared to the adult population; which is a result of huge joint efforts by OIC member countries and international institutions to improve access to education for both female and male of young population. However, a comparison between the OIC group in terms of youth literacy rates with non-OIC developing countries and developed countries shows that there is an ample room for development in youth literacy rates both to increase overall literacy rates and to reduce gender disparity.

According to the most recent available data, Uzbekistan, Bahrain, Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan ranked at the top within the OIC group with female youth literacy rates over 99%. On the other side of the spectrum, Niger (23.2%), Burkina Faso (33.1%), Mali (33.9%), and Chad (40.6%) had the lowest female youth literacy rates (Figure 3.2, right).

Figure 3.2. Youth Literacy Rates (%), (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Youth Female Literacy Rates (%), (right), 2008-2012



Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

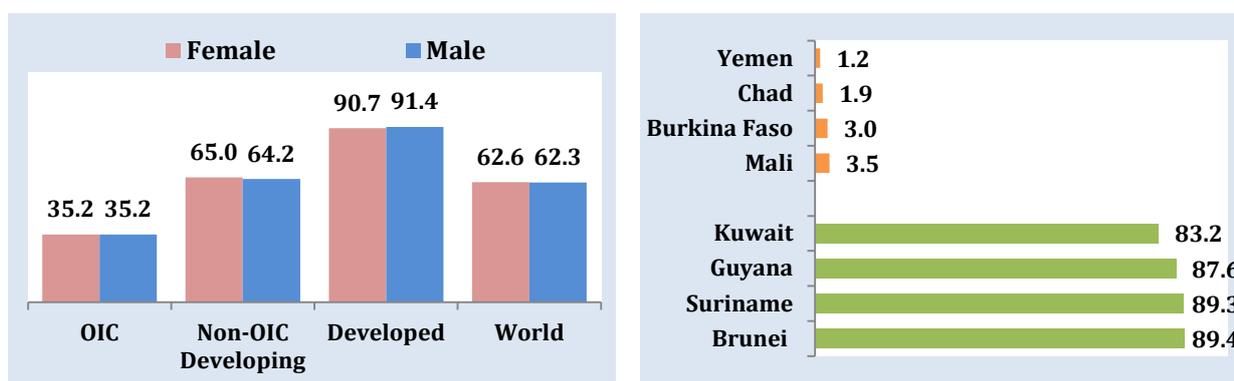
3.1.2 Participation in Education

This sub-section profiles the trends in school enrolment at all levels of education with a view to assessing the scope of and access to educational services from a gender equality perspective. Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) indicates the capacity of education system to enrol students of particular age groups and is used to provide a more standardized and comparable indicator of participation at various levels of the education system. More specifically, GER reflects the total number of students, regardless of their age, enrolled in a specific level of education expressed as a percentage of the total number of official school-age population which are eligible to attend that specific level of education in a given school year – except for the tertiary level where the population used is that of the five-year age group following on from the secondary school leaving. Calculated regardless of age, GER can exceed 100%, indicating the extent of over-aged and under-aged enrolments.

Figure 3.3 shows GER in pre-primary education during the 2008-2012 period across the globe. During this period, both for male and female population GER for OIC member countries, on average, measured as 35.2%, where the world average is above 62% both for male and female population. The OIC averages for male and female population also lag behind the average of non-OIC developing countries where their average is calculated around 64% (Figure 3.3, left). Overall, the GER figures for the OIC group at pre-primary education indicate that there is no significant difference between male and female population (i.e. gender disparity) whereas the enrolment figures are far behind the world average confirming low attention paid by parents to pre-primary education both for their boys and girls.

In terms of individual country performance in the OIC group, Brunei, Suriname, Guyana and Kuwait achieved more than 83% female GER in pre-primary education. On the other side, only a small portion of female population enrol into pre-primary education in Mali (3.5%), Burkina Faso (3.0%), Chad (1.9%) and Yemen (1.2%) (Figure 3.3, right).

Figure 3.3. Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) in Pre-Primary Education (%) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female GERs in Pre-Primary Education (%) (right), 2008-2012

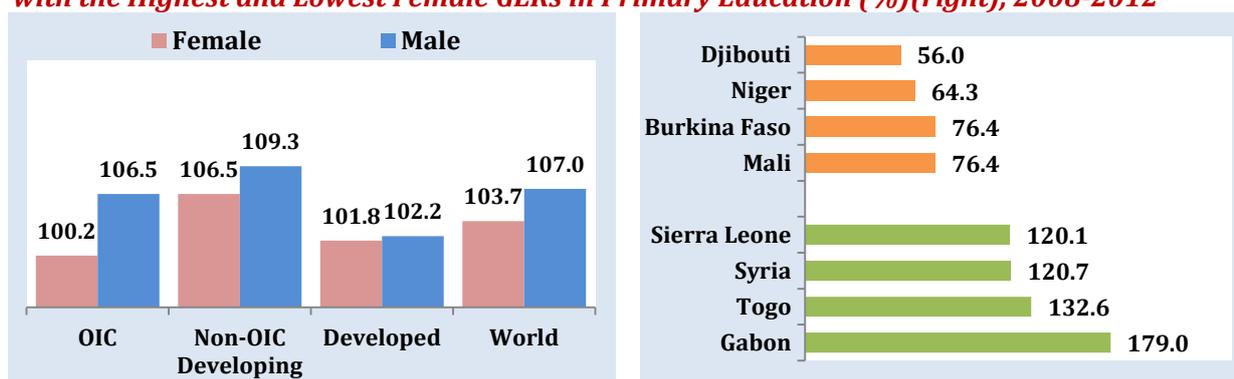


Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

Figure 3.4 shows GER in primary education during the 2008-2012 period across the globe. During this period, for male population GER in OIC member countries, on average, measured as 106.5%, where the world average is 107%. On the other hand, the OIC average for female population was 100.2% that lags behind the average of OIC for male population (106.5%) as well as the world average (103.7%) for female population (Figure 3.4, left). It is clear that GER figures at primary education indicate that female population is in a disadvantageous position that they lag behind their male peers in OIC member countries. Moreover, compared with the world average, female population in OIC member countries also register a lower GER at primary education.

In terms of individual country performance in the OIC group, Gabon (179%), Togo (132.6%), Syria (120.7%), and Sierra-Leone (120.1%) recorded the highest female GER in primary education. In contrast, Mali (76.4%), Burkina Faso (76.4%), Niger (64.3%) and Djibouti (56.0%) recorded the lowest female GER in primary education (Figure 3.4, right).

Figure 3.4. Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) in Primary Education (%) (left) and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female GERs in Primary Education (%) (right), 2008-2012



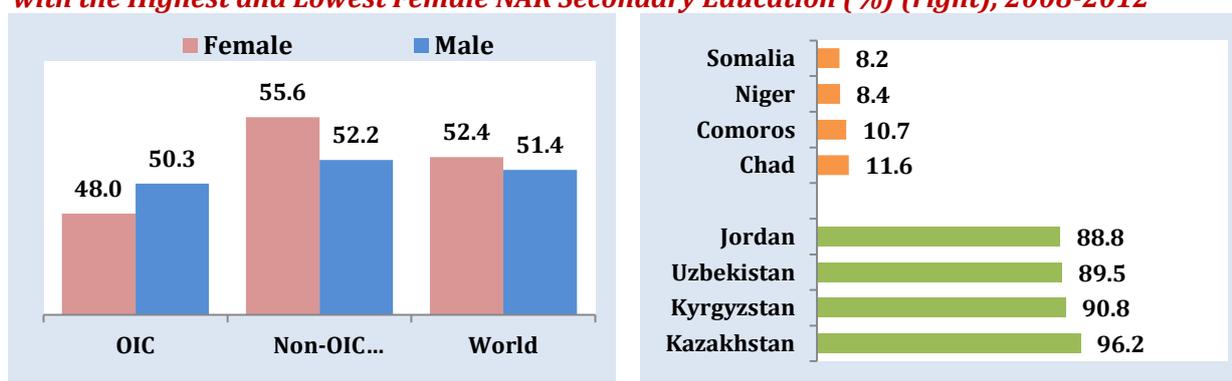
Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

Figure 3.5 presents net attendance rate (NAR) in secondary schools for male and female population during the 2008-2012 period. According to this, OIC member countries, on average, recorded 50.3% NAR that is close to the world average of 51.4% for male population. In the OIC group 48% of female population attended secondary education in net terms where the world average is 52.4%. Figure 3.5 (left) also shows that compared with non-OIC developing countries and the world average, only in the OIC group female population has a lower NAR in secondary education compared with male population.

Therefore, at secondary education female population is disfavoured in terms of NAR in the OIC group. At the individual country level, within the OIC group, Kazakhstan (96.2%) obtained the highest NAR for female population whereas Somalia (8.1%) had the lowest NAR for female population (Figure 3.5, right).²

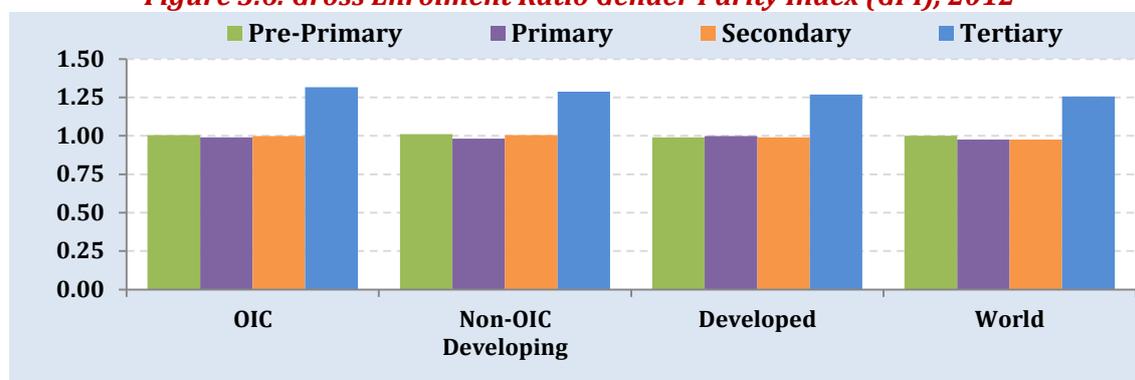
The gross enrolment ratio Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures progress towards gender parity in education participation and/or learning opportunities available for girls in relation to those available for boys based on gross enrolment ratios (GER). A GPI equal to 1 indicates parity between females and males. In general, a value less than 1 indicates a disparity in favour of boys and a value greater than 1 indicates a disparity in favour of girls.

Figure 3.5. Net Attendance Rate (NAR) in Secondary Education (%) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female NAR Secondary Education (%) (right), 2008-2012



Source: UNICEF, SOWC 2014.

Figure 3.6. Gross Enrolment Ratio Gender Parity Index (GPI), 2012



Source: UNICEF, SOWC 2014.

Note: The GPI measures progress towards gender parity in education participation and/or learning opportunities available for girls in relation to those available to boys.

Figure 3.6 presents GPI scores (based on GER) at all education levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary) for four country groups. According to 2012 dataset obtained from the UNICEF, the OIC group has a GPI score of 1 at pre-primary education that there is no significant gender inequality. However, at primary and secondary education GPI score goes down to 0.99 that implies a small disparity in favour of boys. On other hand, at tertiary education, as in other country groups, the GPI score of OIC group exceeds 1 where girls are in a more favourable condition compared with boys. Therefore,

² Due to incomplete Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) gender disaggregated dataset for secondary education, Net Attendance Rate (NAR) dataset is used.

in the OIC group, the gender disparity in terms of participation into education is more concentrated at the primary and secondary education.

3.1.3 Completion and Progression

Previous sub-section looked at the participation rates in education by using enrolment ratios from a gender equality perspective. However, enrolling into a school is only the first step of the education life. Staying in schools, going on education until the last grade and most importantly graduating successfully from the educational institution are other important steps of the education life. During this long process, the disparity between males and females can widen due to economic, social and cultural reasons in countries. In this context, it is important to examine completion and progression indicators in education from a gender equality perspective.

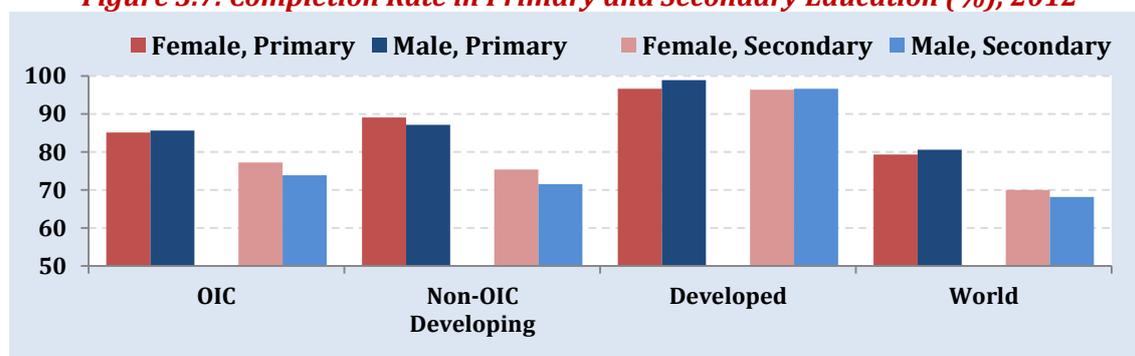
3.1.3.1 Completion and Survival

Completion rate indicates the total number of students completing (or graduating from) the final year of primary or secondary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of the official graduation age.

Figure 3.7 displays the completion rates for different country groups in 2012 both for male and female population. In primary education, the global completion rate is estimated at 80.6% for males and 79.3% for females. The OIC group, on average, had a completion rate of about 85.6% for males and 85.1% for females in 2012 that both figures exceed the world average. On the other hand, developed countries, on average, reached a completion rate of 98.9% for males and 96.6% for females. As mentioned in SESRIC (2014), OIC member countries, on average, witnessed a 4% increase in completion rate (for both sexes) between 2006 and 2012 due to successful policies and new technologies utilized in education. However, the existing gender disparity in favour of male population in primary education completion rate still remains as a concern for many OIC member countries.

In terms of secondary education completion rates, female population in OIC countries has a better outlook that they have, on average, 4 percentage points higher completion rate than male population. The OIC averages for male population (73.8%) and female population (77.2%) are slightly higher than the averages of non-OIC developing countries, which are 71.5% for male and 75.4% female population. Developed countries reached a completion rate around 96% that is almost equal for both male and female population.

Figure 3.7. Completion Rate in Primary and Secondary Education (%), 2012



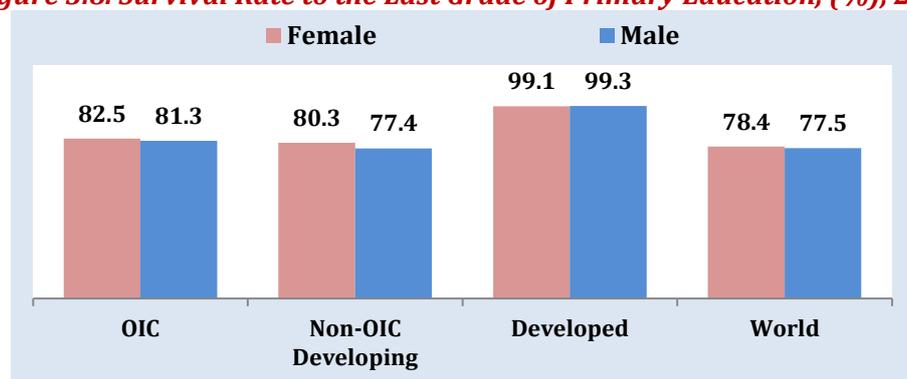
Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

The analysis on completion rates show that OIC member countries, on average, have some problems from a gender equality perspective that needs to be addressed by policy-makers, especially when compared with developed countries.

Survival rate is an indicator which shows the share of children enrolled in the first grade of primary school who eventually reach the last grade of primary school. It is used as indicator to assess the progression in education.

Figure 3.8 presents the survival rates for different country groups in 2012 both for male and female population. The global survival rate is estimated at 77.5% for male and 78.4% for female population. On average, OIC member countries recorded a survival rate of 81.3% for male and 82.5% for female population. These figures exceed those of the non-OIC developing countries and the world averages. In the case of developed countries, however, average survival rate recorded at a slightly higher than 99% for both male and female population. The relatively low survival rates observed in developing countries, including OIC members, reflect problems associated with students' and their families' commitment on continued education. Therefore, OIC member countries need to put more efforts to further improve the survival rate where the group average (for both sexes) increased very slightly from 82.4% in 2006 to 82.7% in 2011 (SESRIC, 2014). Meanwhile, these efforts should be orchestrated carefully in terms of gender equality in order to boost both male and female survival rates in a balanced way.

Figure 3.8. Survival Rate to the Last Grade of Primary Education, (%), 2012



Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

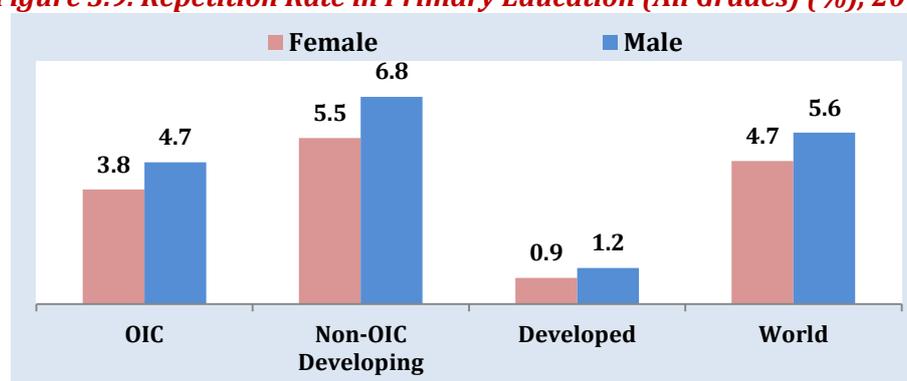
3.1.3.2 Repetition

Repetition rate is the proportion of students from a cohort enrolled in a given grade at a given school-year who studies in the same grade in the following school-year. It simply measures the phenomenon of students repeating a grade, and its effect on the internal efficiency of educational systems. It is one of the key indicators for analysing and projecting student flows from one grade to a higher grade within an educational cycle. From a gender equality perspective, attitudes of parent to their boys and girls, attitude of teachers at schools and cultural codes in local contexts may lead to significant differences in repetition rates between male and female population.

Figure 3.9 displays the repetition rates in primary education in different country groups in 2012 both for male and female population. In primary education, the global repetition rate is estimated at 5.6% for males and 4.7% females. The OIC group, on average, recorded a repetition rate of 4.7% for males and 3.8% for females in 2012; both figures are below the

average of non-OIC developing countries and the world average. On the other hand, developed countries, on average, recorded completion rates of 1.2% for males and 0.9% for females. Over time, the OIC group has successfully decreased the repetition rate from 7.8% in 2006 to 5.9% (for both sexes) in 2012 (SESRIC, 2014). This decreasing trend in developing countries, including the OIC group, throughout the last decade is mainly stemming from improving education system as a result of higher quality of teaching staff and increasing number of distance learning alternatives. Although OIC member countries, on average, reached lower repetition rates compared with the average of non-OIC developing countries and the world average, the figures show that the OIC group has to show further progress in order to reduce the repetition rates to the level of developed countries. Moreover, the OIC countries need to follow such policies by taking the gender disparities into account.

Figure 3.9. Repetition Rate in Primary Education (All Grades) (%), 2012

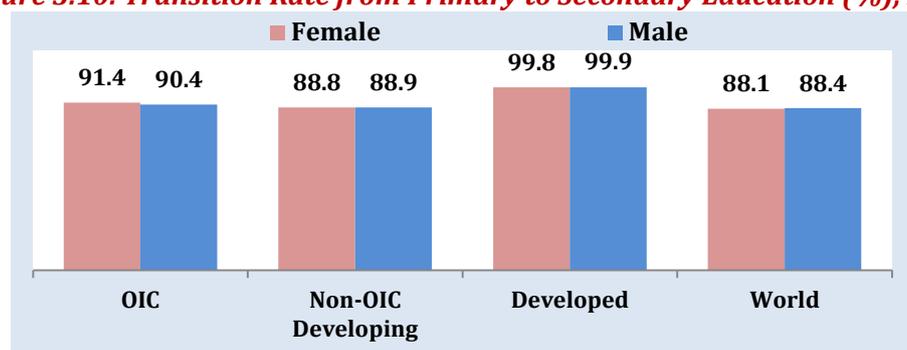


Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

3.1.3.3 Transition

Transition rate is the number of new entrants to the first grade of secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the number of students enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year. It has a prime importance to assess to which extent male and female students transit from primary to secondary schools. Due to economic, social and cultural barriers, in some countries female students experience difficulties to start secondary education after completing the primary education.

Figure 3.10 shows the transition rates for different country groups in 2012 both for male and female population. The global transition rate was around 88% in 2012 for both sexes. OIC member countries, on average, successfully increased their average transition rate from 78.1% in 2006 to 81.6% in 2011 for both sexes (SESRIC, 2014). The average of OIC group, as of 2012, reached 90.4% for male and 91.4% for female population where both figures slightly exceed the averages of non-OIC developing countries (both for male and female) as well as the world averages (both for male and female). In developed countries, the transition rate peaked up to 99% that is almost equal for both sexes. In this regard, OIC member countries need to design twofold policies with a view to both increase the transition rate in general and to eradicate the existing gender disparity that is evolving around 1 percentage-point.

Figure 3.10. Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education (%), 2012

Source: UNESCO, UIS Data Centre.

3.2 Health

Health is a crucial factor that directly affects well-being of individuals, family and societies. Healthy people contribute to economic progress to a higher extent since they live longer and stay more productive. Many diverse factors influence health status and a country's ability to provide quality health services for its people; for example, investments in transport and communications sectors can improve access to health services. Ministries of health play a key role for the provision of health services; however, government agencies, donor institutions, NGOs, civil society organizations also contribute to the overall functioning of the health sector. Over the recent decades, the issue of health has gained greater importance as a major driver of socio-economic progress around the globe. Therefore, health indicators have become an integral part of many development indices.

This section looks at selected indicators on health from a gender equality perspective by making comparisons among men and female population wherever possible. It also reports the health indicators that are directly affecting the health status of women and family well-being from pregnancy to birth.

3.2.1 Life Expectancy at Birth

Life expectancy at birth (LEB) is an important indicator on general health situation of the people in a country and the quality of health care they are receiving. It is defined as the average number of years that a new-born is expected to live if health and living conditions at the time of birth remained the same. In general, life expectancy at birth in a country is determined by a variety of socio-economic factors like state of poverty and undernourishment, access to clean water and sanitation, availability of primary health care services and immunization coverage.

Figure 3.11 (left) displays the life expectancy rates in 2006 and 2012 both for male and female population across the globe. Looking at the life expectancy by using gender disaggregated data indicates whether there are major differences in available health care services for men and women. On average, OIC member countries, as a group, witnessed an improvement in life expectancy at birth between 2006 and 2012 where male life expectancy at birth rose from 62.7 years in 2006 to 64.4 years in 2012. In the same period, female life expectancy at birth increased from 66.1 in 2006 to 67.9 in 2012. Over this period, gender gap in LEB has increased from 3.4 years to 3.5 years indicating a slight deterioration. The global gender gap in LEB remained as 4.7 years in the same period where developed countries achieved to reduce it from 5.9 years to 5.7 years. The global

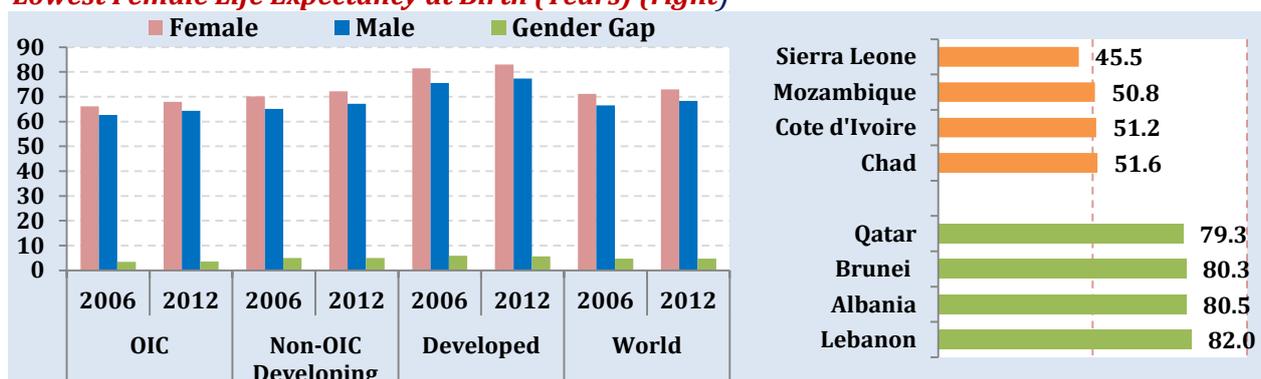
female life expectancy hit 73 years in 2012 that is 5.2 years higher than the average of the OIC group. On the other hand, a male in OIC countries, on average, live 4 years shorter than the global average and 13 years less than his peer in a developed country in 2012. The difference in female LEB between developed and non-OIC developing countries remained almost the same (about 11 years) during the period under consideration.

Due to more efficient and effective health care systems and better living standards, many developing countries, including OIC member countries, have succeeded to increase their LEB. However, developed countries continued to improve their living standards and, as a result, the gap in LEB between developing and developed countries has not narrowed down.

At the individual OIC country level, as of 2012, the highest LEB for female population was observed in Lebanon (82 years) followed by Albania (80.5 years). On the other side of spectrum, a female in Sierra Leone has only 45.5 years of LEB (Figure 3.11, right).

Overall, although LEB for both male and female population in OIC member countries increased over time, it is still lagging behind the average LEB of developed countries. It is also evident that in OIC member countries, LEB did not increase equally for both male and female population that is an impediment for gender equality.

Figure 3.11. Life Expectancy at Birth (Years) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female Life Expectancy at Birth (Years) (right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Note: Gender Gap= Female Life Expectancy- Male Life Expectancy.

3.2.2 Adult Mortality

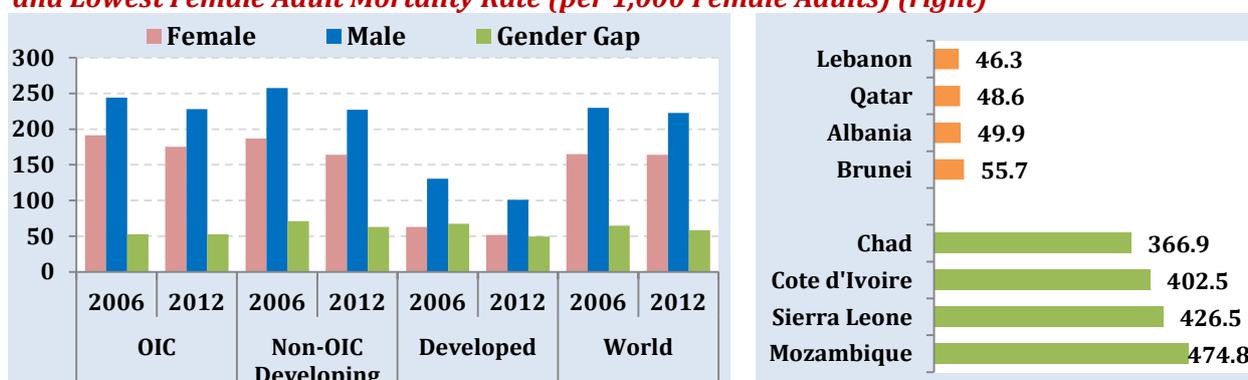
Adult mortality rate (AMR) is defined as the probability of dying between the ages of 15 and 60 years per 1000 population. It is considered as one of the most common measures to assess the health situation in a country. Looking at the AMRs for male and female population in 2006 and 2012 for country groups is helpful to understand the level of health progress made by these country groups.

As shown in Figure 3.12, the worldwide average AMR for males declined from 230 deaths per 1000 people in 2006 to 223 in 2012. For female population, world average AMR went down from 165 to 164 in the same period. In the OIC group, it is also seen that AMR figures are on the decline. Between 2006 and 2012, AMR for males decreased from 244 to 228 where AMR for females went down from 191 to 175. The gender gap in terms of AMR reduced from 52.7 to 52.5 that is a negligible change for the OIC group. Therefore, it is difficult to claim that there was a significant improvement in reducing gender disparity in

terms of AMR between 2006 and 2012. However, the global gender gap in terms of AMR declined from 64.8 to 58.6 and the gender gap also went down from 67.4 to 49.4 in developed countries. In non-OIC developing countries, the AMR gender gap decreased from 70.8 to 62.9 in the same period. Within the OIC group, Lebanon has the lowest AMR (46.3) whereas Mozambique records the highest AMR (474.8).

Overall, the adult mortality situation has been improved in the OIC member countries and their AMR exhibited a downward trend during the period 2006-2012. However, the improvement was not sufficient to catch up the world averages. Moreover, it was not developed in a way to reduce the gender disparity between male and female AMR. Therefore, policy-makers in OIC member countries need to invest into health services not only with a view to reduce overall AMR but also to eradicate the gender disparity in terms of AMR in order to generate more equal societies.

Figure 3.12. Adult Mortality Rate (per 1,000 Adults) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female Adult Mortality Rate (per 1,000 Female Adults) (right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Gender gap is the difference between male and female AMR.

3.2.3 Fertility

Fertility rate is equal to the total number of births per woman over her life span. High fertility is one of the main engines of population growth in a country. While developing countries suffer from high fertility rates that bear high health care costs, high population growth and pressure on education system among other effects, developed countries try to find ways to stop aging population due to decreased fertility rates.

Although the average fertility rate of the OIC countries decreased from 3.94 in 2006 to 3.70 in 2012, the OIC group has had the highest average fertility rate in all the years during this period (Figure 3.13, left), The world average fertility rate also decreased in the same period from 3.0 to 2.82, and the average of non-OIC developing countries dropped from 2.99 to 2.78. Despite significant efforts of governments in developed countries to boost fertility rate, it could only increase from 1.64 in 2006 to 1.67 in 2012.

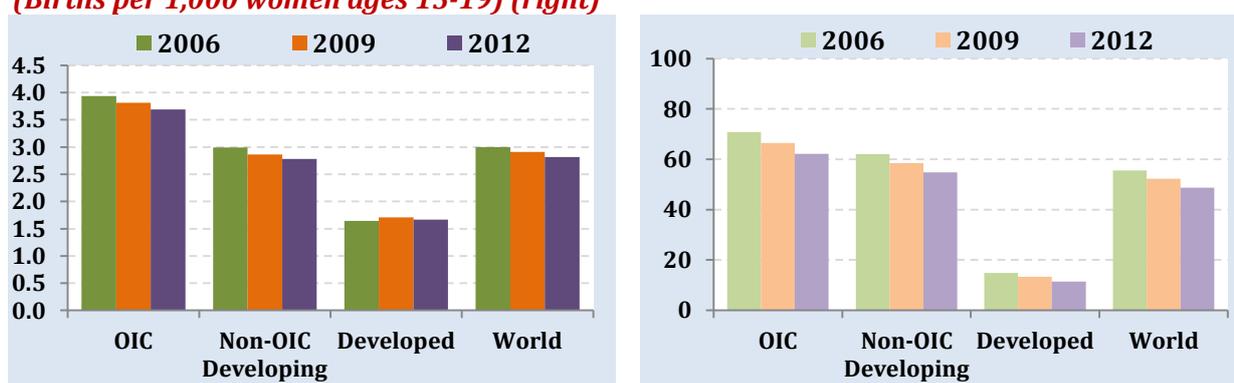
Another key indicator related with fertility rates is the *adolescent fertility rate (AFR)* which shows the number of girls between 15 to 19 years who give birth every year. Majority of these teenage mothers (more than 90%) live in developing countries (SESRI, 2013). Each year around 11% of total births worldwide is being delivered by teenage mothers. Being mother between 15 to 19 years have risks both for the health of infant and mother. In other words, adolescents are more likely to experience complications during the

pregnancy and delivery, mothers and babies both are therefore at a greater risk of mortality (SESRIC, 2013).

Figure 3.13 (right) shows the global adolescent fertility rate (AFR) across country groups. On average, global adolescent fertility rate decreased from 55.6 in 2006 to 48.7 in 2012 (measured as births per 1000 girls aged 15–19 years). In the same period, AFR in the OIC group went down from 70.7 to 62.1, which was still higher than the world average of 48.7 in 2012. Significant disparities exist among OIC member countries, where the highest AFR was recorded in Niger as 204 (per 1000 women) and the lowest AFR was observed in Libya as 2.5 (per 1000 women) in 2012.

Overall, it seems that women in developing countries, including OIC members, are under high fertility pressure that prevents women to invest into her self-development and leads to both pre-birth and pro-birth health problems both for mothers and new-born. Given this state of affairs, policy-makers in OIC member countries need to show further efforts to reduce fertility rates, especially among adolescents that are aged between 15-19 years in order to achieve sustainable development and have healthy mothers and children.

Figure 3.13. Fertility Rate, Total (Births per Woman) (left), and Adolescent Fertility Rate (Births per 1,000 women ages 15-19) (right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

3.2.4 Prenatal Care

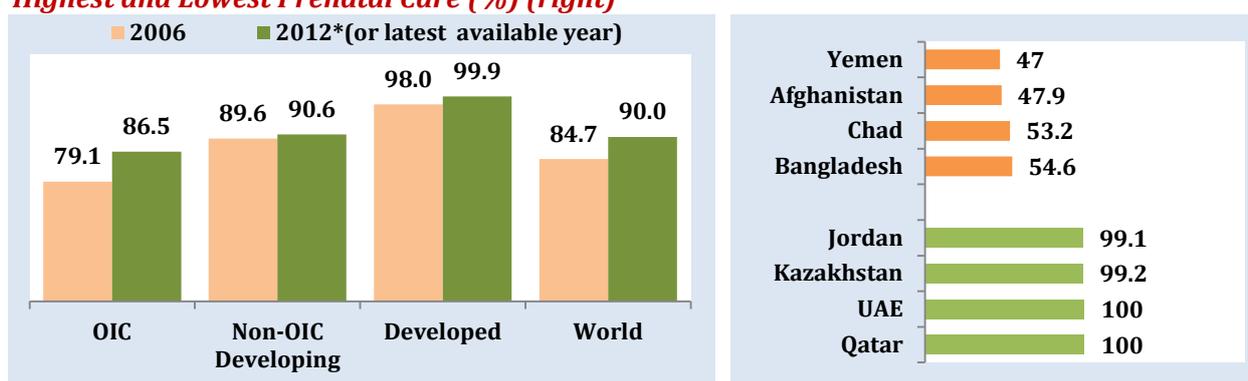
According to the UNICEF estimates (2009), around half a million maternal and about four million new-born deaths are mainly caused by the lack of quality prenatal health care, safe and clean delivery and post-natal care for mother and infant. Most of these deaths are preventable by ensuring proper care and counselling before and after pregnancy, at the time of delivery and after child birth.

Prenatal care and counselling is the entry point to the formal health care system and provides a solid base to monitor and improve the mother-baby health by identifying and preventing/controlling prenatal complications at the earliest stage. This health care package includes recording medical history, assessment of individual needs, advice and guidance on pregnancy and delivery, screening tests, education on self-care during pregnancy, identification of conditions detrimental to health during pregnancy, first-line management and referral if necessary (Partnership for Maternal, New-born and Child Health, 2006).

Figure 3.14, which displays the coverage of prenatal care between 2006 and 2012, shows that the world average prenatal coverage rate increased from 84.7% in 2006 to 90.0% in

2012. During this period, while non-OIC developing countries witnessed a slight increase in their average prenatal coverage rate from 89.6% to 90.6%, the OIC group witnessed a significant improvement an increase from 79.1% to 86.5%. In other words, on average, 86.5% of the pregnant women in the OIC member countries were receiving some form of prenatal care in 2012. Yet compared with the average rate of 90% in developed countries, the OIC member countries seem to consider the necessity of further efforts in this regards. At the individual OIC country level, 100% of pregnant women in Qatar and United Arab Emirates were receiving prenatal care in 2012. On the other side, this rate was estimated at only around 47% in Yemen and Afghanistan (Figure 3.14, right).

Figure 3.14. Pregnant Women Receiving Prenatal Care (%) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Prenatal Care (%) (right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

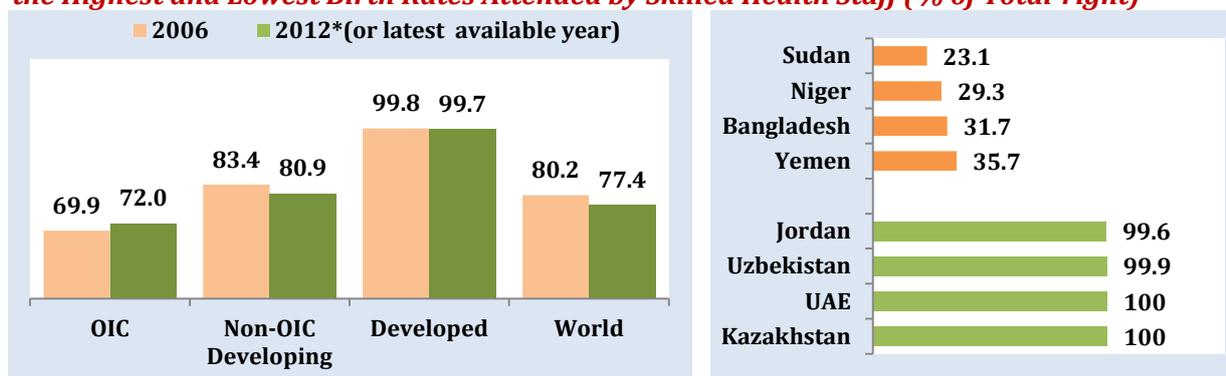
3.2.5 Births Attended by Skilled Health Staff

Skilled health care and assistance at the time of delivery are very critical for the healthy survival of both mother and baby. According to the WHO estimates in Partnership for Maternal, New-born and Child Health (2010) Report, lack of proper health care during pregnancy and child birth is the major cause for about 2 million maternal and new-born deaths every year. Most of these deaths could be prevented by ensuring assistance of skilled health personnel - a doctor, nurse or midwife- during the birth. In this regard, pregnant women should be educated, encouraged and facilitated by the authorities to give birth in the presence of skilled health personnel; and attendants should be given an enabling and supportive environment by providing necessary training, essential drug supplies and medical equipment (UNFPA, 2002).

Figure 3.15 displays the births attended by skilled health staff across country groups between 2006 and 2012. It is observed that while the global average slightly went down from 80.2% to 77.4% in this period, a small increase was recorded by the OIC group where their average went up from 69.9% in 2006 to 72.0% in 2012. In developed countries, 99% of all births attended by skilled health staff both in 2006 and 2012. In non-OIC developing countries, the average decreased from 83.4% in 2006 to 80.9% in 2012, however, it is still higher than the world average of 77.4%. Overall, this may be explained as results of the efforts made by OIC member countries towards enhancing health care services pay off where more births are delivered each year with the assistance of skilled health staff. However, it is not easy to claim that these efforts are sufficient, particularly when we considered the performance at the individual country level. In some OIC member countries such as Sudan and Niger only 23.1% and 29.3% of all births were attended by skilled

health personnel, respectively in 2012. On other side, in Kazakhstan and United Arab Emirates 100% of all births were attended by skilled health personnel.

Figure 3.15. Births Attended by Skilled Health Staff (% of Total- left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Birth Rates Attended by Skilled Health Staff (% of Total-right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

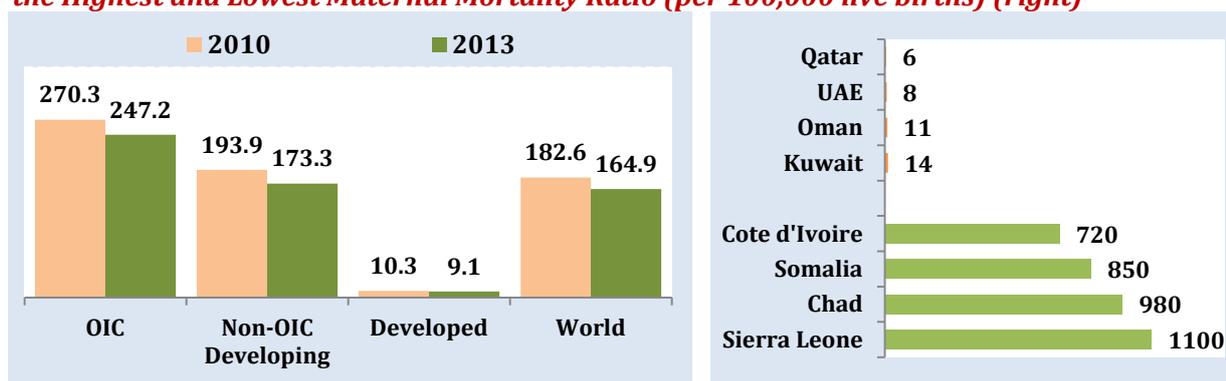
3.2.6 Maternal Mortality

Pregnancy and childbirth related complications remained the leading cause of death and disability for women age 15-49 especially in developing countries. According to WHO (2011), globally nearly a half million women die during and following pregnancy and childbirth. About 99.5% of these maternal deaths are occurring in developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia.

Figure 3.16 displays the maternal mortality ratio between 2010 and 2013 across country groups. The global maternal mortality ratio reduced from 182 in 2010 to 164 (per 100,000 live births) in 2013. In non-OIC developing countries, it went down from 193 to 173. In the same period, the OIC group witnessed a significant improvement where the maternal mortality ratio decreased from 270 to 247. In other words, as of 2013, on average, in the OIC group 247 mothers (per 100,000 live births) die during and following pregnancy and childbirth. However, in developed countries only 9 mothers die during and following pregnancy and childbirth. From a gender equality perspective, this is tremendous disparity among women in developed countries and in OIC member countries. In the OIC group, Qatar and UAE has the lowest maternal mortality ratio in 2013 that 6 and 8 women die during and following pregnancy and childbirth, respectively in 2013. On the other side, in Sierra Leone 1100 and in Chad 980 women die during and following pregnancy and childbirth. In other words, in Sierra Leone, maternal mortality ratio is 183 times higher than in Qatar where both countries are members of the OIC.

These figures show that OIC member countries need to invest more into maternal and new-born health in order to further reduce maternal mortality ratio. These investments should cover both physical investment (hospital, clinics, medicine schools etc.) and human capital investments (training of mother and health care personnel etc.).

Figure 3.16. Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000 live births) (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000 live births) (right)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

4 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN THE FAMILY AND WORK

There is a growing worldwide recognition that violence against women is a gross violation of women's human rights. It is also widely acknowledged that violence has significant negative adverse effects on women's health. Although violence against women is an important aspect of gender inequality, many composite global indicators could not provide a realistic picture on violence against women due to the lack of the relevant data and the qualitative nature of violence datasets (WHO, 2013). By implementing coherent and well-structured policies, governments can deliver education and health services to all men and women equally. It is hard to talk about gender equality while policies discriminate against women in the society and women are abused at home or at work. Therefore, looking at the violence aspect from gender equality perspective can be helpful to formulate policies to reduce abuse and violence against women. In this context, this section highlights three selected related-topics namely violence, early marriage and divorce, which are directly affecting the status of women in the family and work.

4.1 Violence

4.1.1 Violence and Abuse

OIC member countries host more than 750 million women that represent 48.4% of their total population. According to United World (2013), more than 370 million women in OIC member countries live without legal protection from violence. The term "violence against women" encompasses many forms of violence, including violence by an intimate partner (intimate partner violence) and rape/sexual assault and other forms of sexual violence perpetrated by someone other than a partner (non-partner sexual violence) (WHO, 2013). Violence that women suffer from their intimate partners carries particularly serious and potentially long-lasting consequences, as it tends to be repetitive and accompanied by psychological and sexual violence as well. This form of violence is especially in the focus of statistical surveys on violence against women (UN, 2010).

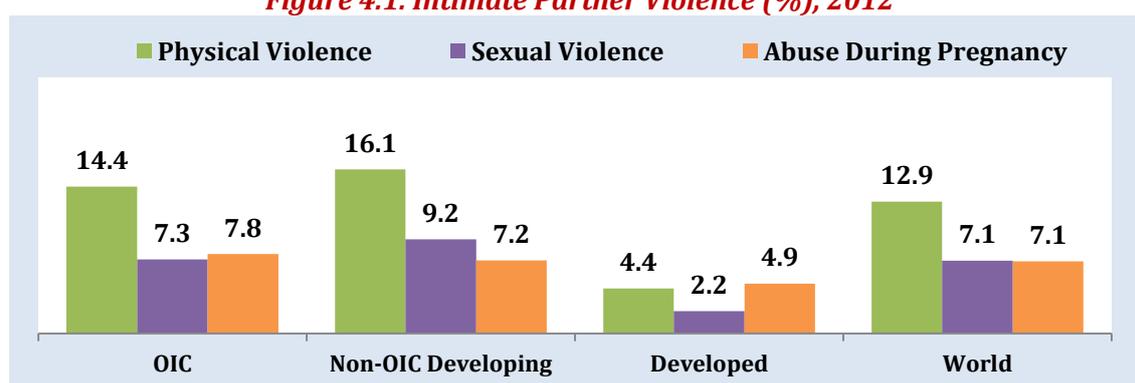
In this regard, Figure 4.1 displays the intimate partner physical and sexual violence rates as well as the prevalence of abuse during pregnancy in 2012. According to the available data, although the average physical violence rate reported in OIC group (14.4% of women reported that they experienced physical violence) was lower than that of the non-OIC

developing countries (16.1%), this rate was still higher than that of the world average (12.9%). In contrast, this rate was reported at 4.4% in developed countries. In terms of sexual violence, non-OIC developing countries have the highest prevalence rate of 9.2%. In OIC member countries, the average is estimated at 7.3%, a rate which comparable to the world average of 7.1%. In contrast, this rate was reported at 2.2% in developed countries. Finally, prevalence of abuse during pregnancy in the OIC group was recorded at 7.8%; the highest rate among other country groups where the world average of prevalence of abuse during pregnancy was estimated at 7.1% and that of the developed countries at 4.9%.

Overall, in developing countries, including OIC member countries, on average, violence and abuse against women is more prevalent compared with the average of developed countries and the world average. Therefore, governments need to develop more effective policies in order to protect women against violence and abuse. For instance, distributing panic buttons that is connected to GSM operators and police headquarters can help women who are under immediate threat. Enacting more restrictive laws and enforcing these laws more effectively can help to reduce violence and abuse against women.

It is important to remind that many cases of violence against women go unreported. For instance, a study based on interviews with 42,000 women across the 28 Member States of the European Union revealed that only 14% of women reported their most serious incident of intimate partner violence to the police (EU, 2014). Therefore, governments also need to encourage women for reporting violence cases through effective mechanisms. However, the abovementioned suggestions only cover some of the short and medium term solutions. Over the long-term, only through education and restoring the status of women in the society it is possible to eradicate violence and against women. Nevertheless, this requires long-term planning and political willingness to achieve such an ambitious goal in developing countries, including OIC members.

Figure 4.1. Intimate Partner Violence (%), 2012



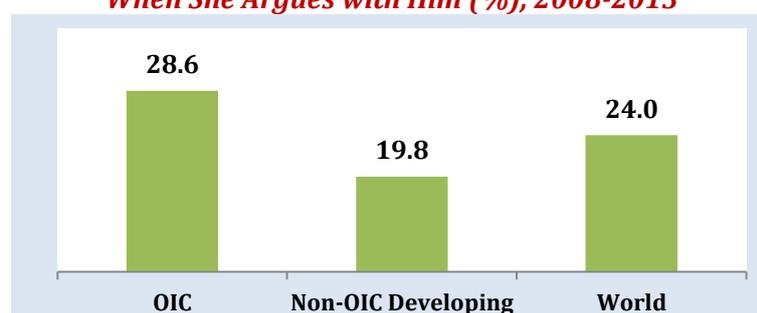
Source: UN Women, Violence against Women Prevalence Dataset 2012. Note: OIC average is calculated for 15 OIC member countries due to data constraints.

4.1.2 Attitude of Women against Violence and Abuse

The factsheet “Ending Violence against Women” prepared by the UN Women (2014) mentioned that both in developing and developed countries prevalence of violence and abuse against women are higher than the reported cases. One of the reasons behind this argument is stemming from the attitude of women in some cultures and societies against violence and abuse.

Figure 4.2 reports the results of an attitude survey that was conducted between 2008 and 2013. The results of the survey indicate that 24% of the women worldwide believe that her husband is justified in beating his wife when she argues with him. In non-OIC developing countries this rate is measured as 19.8%. The highest average is recorded in the OIC member countries, for which data are available, that 28.6% of women in the OIC region believes that husband of a woman can beat his wife when she argues with him. This is a reflection of cultural codes and local customs that are inherited to women who are living in these countries. Given this kind of attitude, in OIC member countries it is relatively more challenging to measure violence and abuse against women correctly and to cope with this social problem.

Figure 4.2. Women Who Believe a Husband is Justified in Beating His Wife When She Argues with Him (%), 2008-2013



Source: World Bank, Gender Indicators Database.

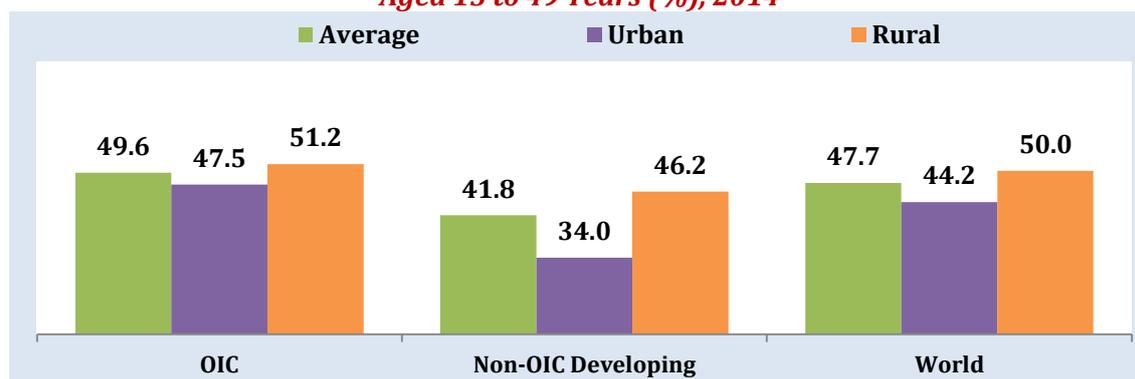
4.1.3 Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C)

The term “female genital mutilation” (FGM, also called “female genital cutting” and “female genital mutilation/cutting”) refers to all procedures involving partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons (UN, 2010). Female genital mutilation has been reported to occur in all parts of the world. It is recognized internationally as a violation of the human rights of girls and women, and constitutes an extreme form of discrimination against women (WHO, 2013).

Female genital mutilation is always traumatic. Apart from excruciating pain, immediate complications can include shock, urine retention, ulceration of the genitals and injury to the adjacent tissue. Some of the other major outcomes resulting from FGM/C are septicaemia (blood poisoning), infertility and obstructed labour (UN, 2010). Moreover, haemorrhaging and infection can lead to death (UNICEF, 2005).

According to the UNICEF 2014 dataset, in 29 countries, of which 22 are OIC member countries, the prevalence of FGM/C is common. Figure 4.3 indicates the average of OIC member countries in 2014 as 49.6%. In OIC member countries prevalence of FGM/C differ across urban and rural areas. In urban areas the average goes down to 47.5% whereas in rural areas it goes up to 51.2%. The average of 7 non-OIC developing countries is measured as 41.8% in 2014 that is lower than the average of OIC. In this regard, OIC member countries need to intensify their efforts to fight against this traumatic form of violence that affects both physical and mental health of women during entire life span.

Figure 4.3. Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C) Prevalence among Girls and Women Aged 15 to 49 Years (%), 2014



Source: UNICEF Global Databases 2014, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys. Note: Data are available for 29 countries in total where 22 are OIC member countries and 7 are non-OIC developing countries.

4.2 Early Marriage

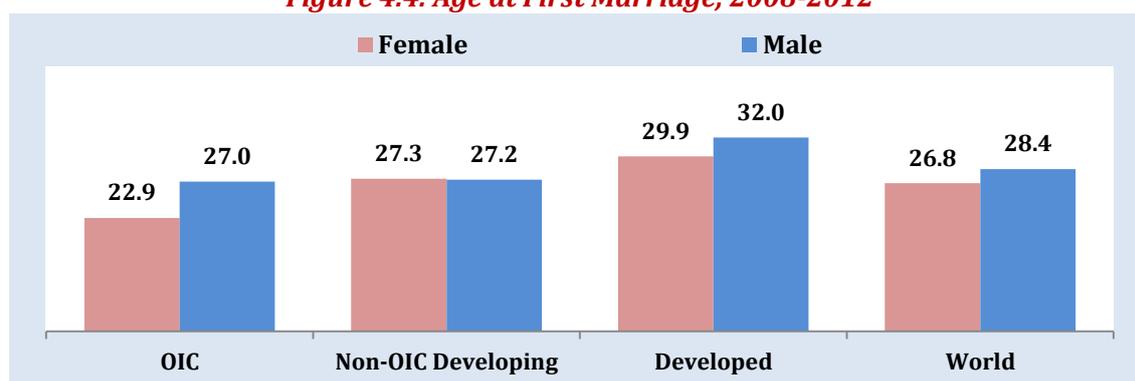
Families are accepted as the smallest units of a society. Marriage is the first step in the formation of a family union, which is the essential part of a healthy and well-functioning society. So changes in the number of marriages and divorces or their relative ratios are important elements in the assessment of the current status of the family structure and to understand the direction of development over time.

4.2.1 Age at First Marriage (AFM)

Age at first marriage (AFM) differs across countries due to culture, socio-economic development level, local customs as well as climate, which affects the adolescent development. AFM has serious implications for women and family well-being. Marriages at young ages may lead to health problems for men and women who are not ready for marriage both mentally and physically. Moreover, marriages at very early ages generally stem from social and family pressures that are important factors behind unhappy marriages (Haloi and Limbu, 2013). Unhappy families with unhealthy couples constitute a threat for the society. It is therefore important to look at the AFM figures.

Figure 4.4 displays the age at first marriage (AFM) across country groups between 2008 and 2013. In OIC member countries on average AFM for males and females are 27.0 and 22.9, respectively. The global AFM average is 28.4 for males and 26.8 for females. In developed countries, people tend to marry at relatively older ages where AFM for males is 32.0 and 29.9 for females. Marrying at older ages mainly stemming from economic factors and it has implications for fertility rate and population growth. According to Haloi and Limbu (2013), fertility rate tends to go down as AFM increases.

Overall, according to AFM figures, the OIC group has the lowest AFM average both for male and female population. Moreover, the age gap between couples at the first marriage is the highest in the OIC group that may bear problems such as limited cohesion between couples that reduces happiness and well-being of family.

Figure 4.4. Age at First Marriage, 2008-2012

Source: World Bank, Gender Indicators Database.

4.2.2 Child Marriage

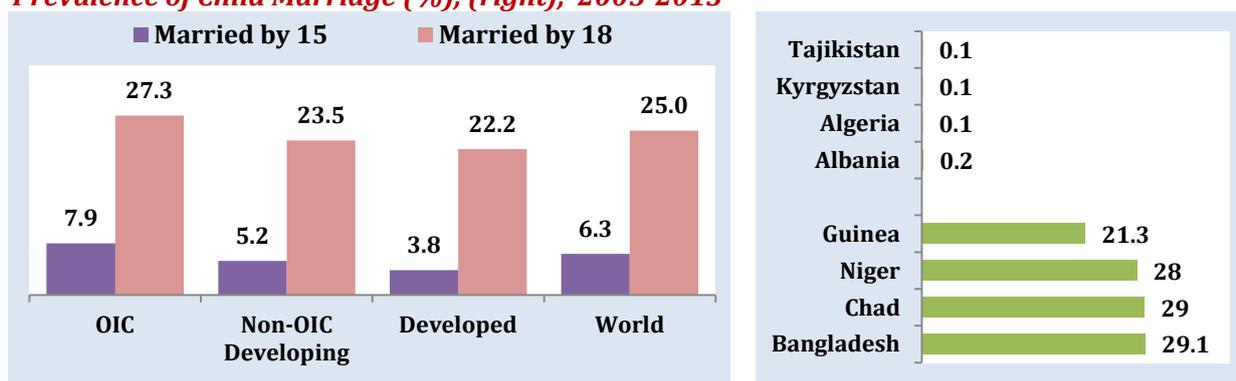
The right to ‘free and full’ consent to a marriage is recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights – with the recognition that consent cannot be ‘free and full’ when one of the parties involved is not sufficiently mature to make an informed decision about a life partner (UNICEF, 2005, p. 1). However, in many parts of the world marriage before 18 (i.e. child marriage) is a reality. The literature suggests that poverty, protection of girls, family honour and the provision of stability during unstable social periods are some of the main driving factors behind child marriage (UNICEF, 2001). Although most countries have laws that regulate marriage, both in terms of the minimum age and consent, but such laws usually do not apply to traditional marriages. The UNICEF (2001) Report states that many girls and a smaller number of boys enter marriage without being able to exercise their right to choose their marriage partner. This is more often the case with younger and uneducated girls since assuming a wife’s responsibilities usually leaves no room for schooling and almost certainly removes the girl from the educational process (UNICEF, 2001). This also results in early childbearing, which is identified as having higher health risk both for mother and child.

Figure 4.5 displays the prevalence of child marriage (both for marriages before 15 and 18 years) across country groups between 2008 and 2013. According to this, the OIC group has the highest child marriage prevalence in both groups where 7.9% of all marriages are being exercised before 15 years old and 27.3% of all marriages are being performed before 18 years old. The global average prevalence of marriages before 15 years old is 6.3% and for marriages before 18 years old the average is 25%. In non-OIC developing countries, child marriage is less common than the OIC group that their average is 5.2% and 23.5% for marriages before 15 and 18 years old, respectively.

At the individual country level, the highest prevalence of child marriage in the OIC group was seen in Bangladesh (29.1%) followed by Chad (29.0%). On the other side, the lowest prevalence of child marriage in the OIC group was observed in Tajikistan (0.1%) and Kyrgyzstan (0.1%).

Overall, the figures suggest that child marriage in OIC member countries is a serious social problem for the health of women and infant as well as well-being of family and society that needs to be addressed.

Figure 4.5. Child Marriage (%), (left), and OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Prevalence of Child Marriage (%), (right), 2005-2013



Source: UNICEF Global Databases, 2014 based on DHS, MICS and other national household surveys.

Note: Child marriage refers to percentage of women aged 20 to 24 years who were first married or in union before ages 15 and 18.

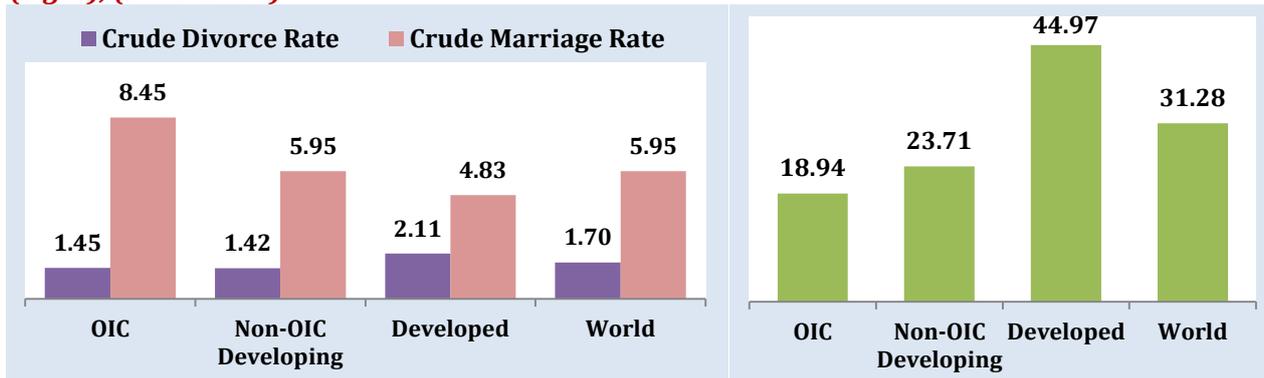
4.3 Divorce and Marriage

According to the UN, marriage is “the act, ceremony or process by which the legal relationship of husband and wife is constituted. The legality of the union may be established by civil, religious or other means as recognized by the laws of each country” (UN, 2001, para. 56). In the same report, divorce is defined as “a final legal dissolution of a marriage, that is, the separation of husband and wife which confers on the parties the right to remarriage under civil, religious and/or other provisions, according to the laws of each country” (UN, 2001, para. 57).

According to the abovementioned definitions standard marriage and divorce rate figures are calculated by the national statistical offices that allow cross-country comparisons. By using divorce and marriage data, a third indicator called divorce to marriage ratio is developed. This indicator shows the relative changes between divorce and marriage and therefore tracks the relative direction of development in divorce and marriage rates. In this regard, a higher divorce to marriage ratio stems from either due to increasing divorce rates or decreasing marriage rates both indicate the dissolution of family institution in the society. Therefore, monitoring marriage, divorce, and divorce to marriage ratio is crucial in order to draw right policy implications to build up a stronger society with enhanced family structure.

Figure 4.6 displays the crude marriage and crude divorce rates as well as divorce to marriage ratio for the period 2007-2011 across country groups. According to this, the OIC group has the highest crude marriage rate that is 8.45 marriages per 1000 people where the global average is 5.95. On the other hand, the OIC group has a low divorce rate that is 1.45 divorces per 1000 people where the global average is 1.70. The non-OIC developing countries group records the lowest crude divorce rate that is 1.42 divorces per 1000 people. The developed countries group suffers from a low marriage rate (4.83) and a high divorce rate (2.11). As a result it is the country group with the highest divorce to marriage ratio that is 44.97 for the period 2007-2011.

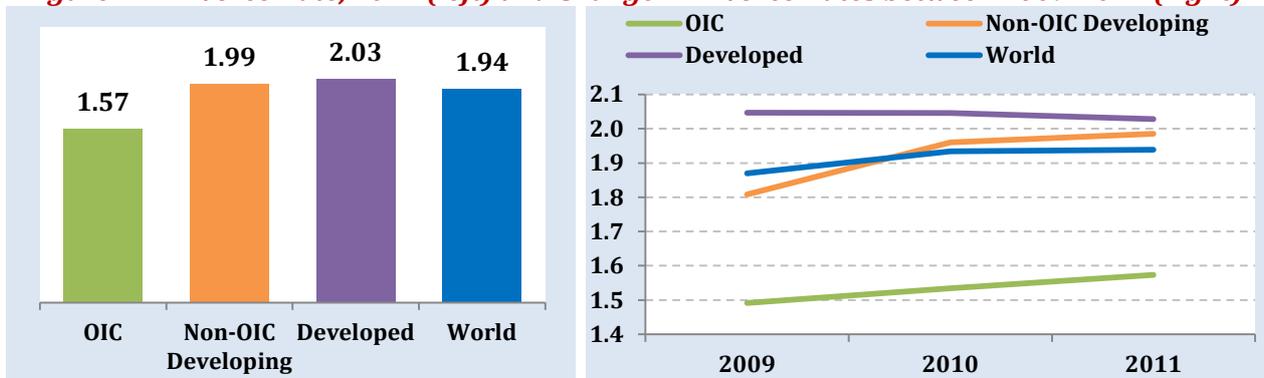
Figure 4.6. Crude Marriage and Divorce Rates (left), and Divorce/Marriage Ratio (as %) (right), (2007-2011)



Source: UN Statistics. Note: Crude Marriage Rate is the number of marriages per 1,000 population. Crude Divorce Rate is the number of divorces per 1,000 population.

In the same period, the OIC group has the lowest divorce to marriage ratio that is 18.94 followed by non-OIC developing countries with a ratio of 23.71. Overall, thanks to the high marriage and low divorce rates, family union in the OIC group is being relatively better preserved compared with all other groups. However, at the individual country level, there are three OIC member countries with quite high divorce rates that their averages surpass the average divorce rate of developed countries namely Jordan (2.6), Kazakhstan (2.3) and Kuwait (2.2). In the same period, nine OIC member countries have a higher crude divorce rate that is higher than the world average (1.69) namely Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Turkey, Lebanon, Kyrgyzstan, Iran, Albania and Egypt.

Figure 4.7. Divorce Rate, 2011 (left) and Change in Divorce Rates between 2009-2011 (right)



Source: UNStat, Demographic Year Book 2013.

Figure 4.7 presents an additional dataset on divorce rates that shows the change in divorce rates between 2009 and 2011 in order to reflect the trend in divorce rates. According to Figure 4.7, in line with the results presented in Figure 4.6, the OIC group witnesses the lowest incidence of divorce (1.57 per 1000 population) compared with other country groups. The average divorce rate in developed countries is the highest with 2.03 incidences per 1000 population. Figure 4.7 (right) displays a positive pattern for the OIC group in terms of divorce rates. It implies that the average divorce rate in the OIC group is increasing over time and if it goes on in the same direction, the OIC group will catch the average divorce rate seen in developed countries. Therefore, policy makers in the OIC member countries need to take actions in order to reverse the trend in divorce rates that constitutes a serious threat for the family structure and well-being. Otherwise, the OIC

member countries will have to embrace more divorced couples and children raised by a single parent.

5 SOCIAL SECURITY, WOMEN AND FAMILY WELL BEING

Women are disadvantaged compared to men in access to social security and employment opportunities as well as decent work in many developing and developed countries. The lack of social security and insufficient safety nets prevent many women to participate into economic life in a proper way. By recognizing these problems, the Beijing Declaration affirms nations' commitment to the inalienable rights of women and girls and their empowerment and equal participation in all spheres of life, including in the economic domain. The Beijing Platform for Action identifies women's role in the economy as a critical area of concern, and calls attention to the need to promote and facilitate women's equal access to employment and resources, as well as the harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) also target the achievement of full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women, as part of MDG 1 to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger (UN, 2010). Moreover, the post-2015 development agenda recognizes women as full rights holders and integrates a comprehensive strategy to fulfil women's economic rights and empowerment.

By following the developments and discussions in the international arena on gender equality, the OIC prepared and adopted the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) in 2008 in order to empower women at home and work, and improve gender equality in OIC member countries. This document has provided OIC member countries a strategic road-map in this field. A detailed discussion on the OPAAW is presented as an Annex of this Report.

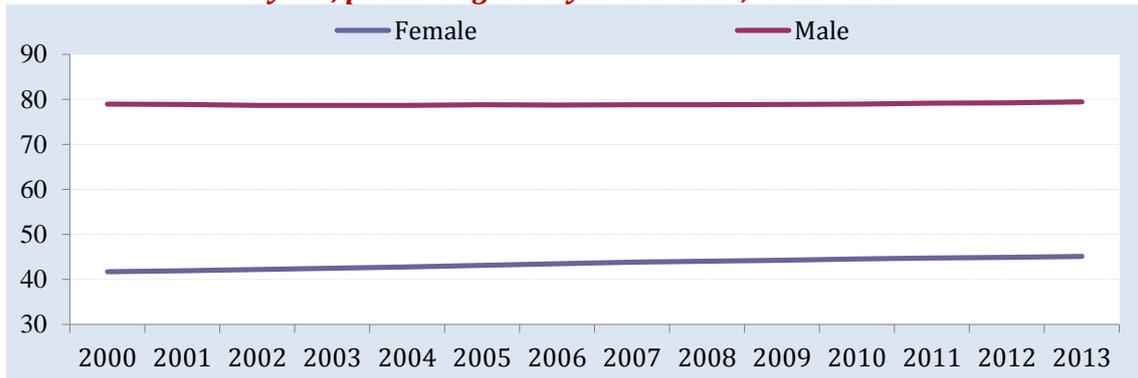
In this context, this section describes the current situation of women in the labour force, employment conditions and reconciliation of work and family life.

5.1 Labour Force Participation and Unemployment

The labour force participation rate (LFPR) is a critical indicator used to assess women's participation into economic life. The labour force participation rate measures the portion of the working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working (employed workers) or seeking work (unemployed workers). In other words, this rate refers to all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period.

Women's participation in the labour market in OIC member countries increased steadily from 41.7% in 2000 to 45.1% in 2013. In contrast, LFPR for men in OIC member countries remained steady over the same period, around 79% (Figure 5.1). Although the gap between participation rates of women and men has narrowed down slightly, it remained as high as 35 percentage points in 2013.

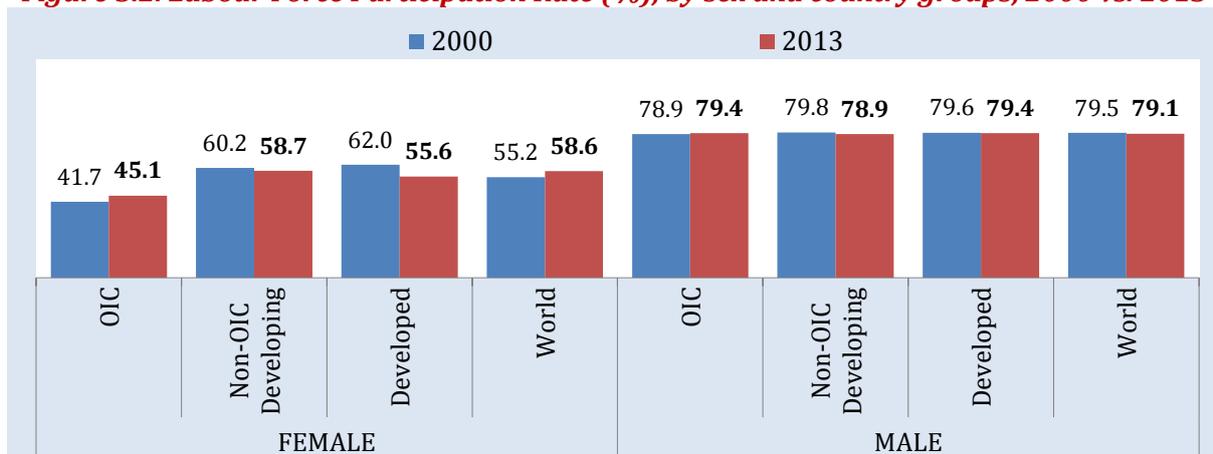
Figure 5.1. Labour Force Participation Rate (%) of OIC Countries by sex, persons aged 15 years or over, 2000-2013



Source: World Bank, Gender Statistics.

Figure 5.2 shows LFPR by sex and country groups. Despite the fact that OIC countries had the highest increase with 3.4 percentage points in favour of females during the period 2000-2013, their female labour force participation rate was still the lowest among the country groups with 45.1% in 2013. Despite the worldwide efforts to eliminate gender differences in accessing employment opportunities, the global female labour force participation rate in 2013 was still around 58.6%, with the non-OIC developing countries group having the highest rate of 58.7%.

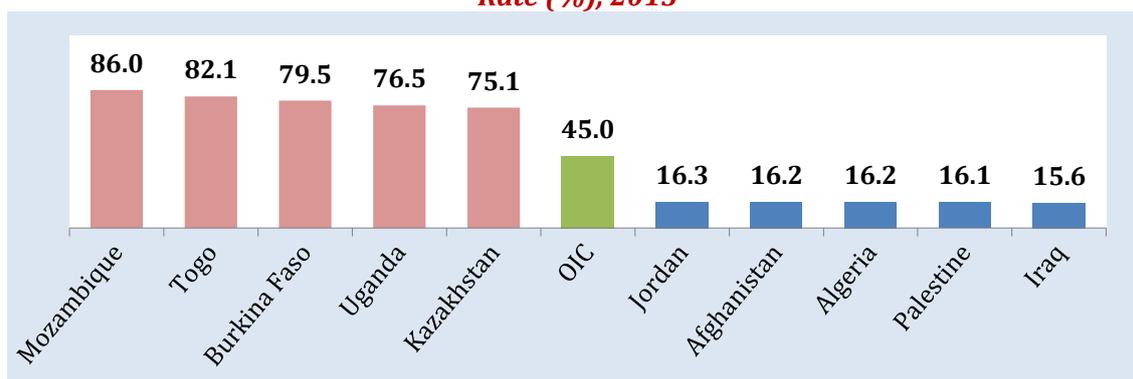
Figure 5.2. Labour Force Participation Rate (%), by sex and country groups, 2000 vs. 2013



Source: World Bank, Gender Statistics.

Figure 5.3 shows the OIC countries with the highest and lowest labour force participation rates for women. The figure also reveals the great difference between the OIC member countries in terms of female labour force participation. Among the OIC countries, Mozambique had the highest figure with 86%. In addition Togo, Burkina Faso, Uganda, Kazakhstan also had female labour force participation rates higher than 75%. In terms of the lowest female participation in the labour force as shown in Figure 5.3, Iraq had the lowest figure with 15.6% closely followed by Palestine, Algeria, Afghanistan and Jordan with less than 17% female labour force participation rates.

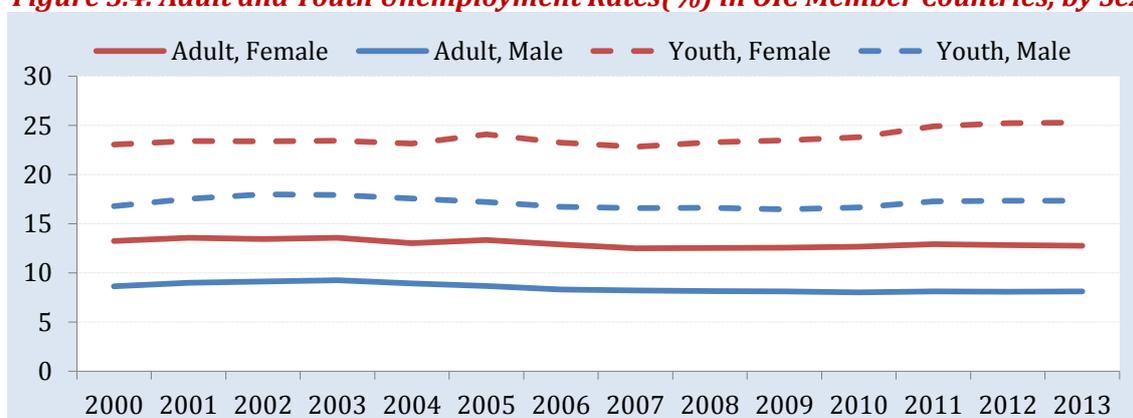
Figure 5.3. Ten OIC Countries with the Highest and Lowest Female Labour Force Participation Rate (%), 2013



Source: World Bank, Gender Statistics, 2013.

The unemployment rate is a measure of the prevalence of unemployment and it is calculated as a percentage by dividing the number of unemployed individuals by all individuals currently in the labour force. Figure 5.4 presents adult and youth unemployment rates both for male and female population in OIC member countries. The Figure shows that the female youth unemployment rate in OIC member countries was significantly higher than in the adult category. For instance, in 2013, female youth unemployment rate was estimated at 25.3% whereas the female adult unemployment rate was only 12.8%. This implies the existence of gender gap in terms of unemployment rates that disfavours female population in the OIC group. The gender gap in unemployment rate ranged from 4 to 5 percentage points among adult population and 5 to 8 percentage points among young population in the OIC group.

Figure 5.4. Adult and Youth Unemployment Rates(%) in OIC Member Countries, by Sex



Source: World Bank, Gender Statistics.

Women and men work in three major economic sectors agriculture, industry and services. For both women and men, the share of services sector in employment continues to grow compared to the agricultural sector between 2000 and 2012 (Table 5.1). This reflects the movement of the labour force from agriculture to services. In the same period, the relative importance of the industry decreased for all country groups in terms of generating jobs for women. The industry continued to employ significant portion of men for all country groups except for developed countries.

Table 5.1. Direction of Change in the Sectoral Share of Employment between 2000 and 2012, by sex and country groups

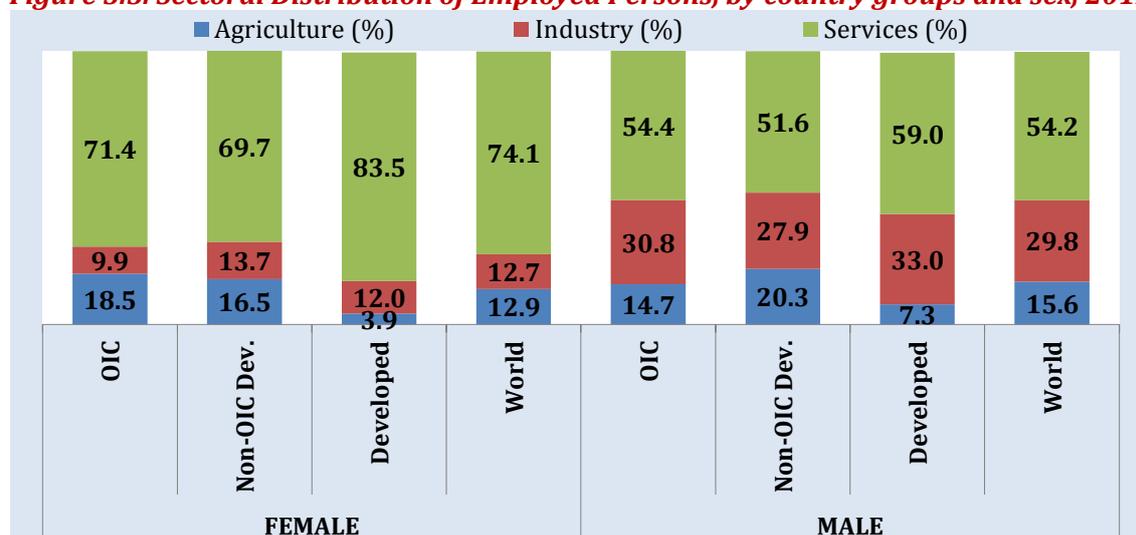
	Women			Men		
	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Agriculture	Industry	Services
OIC	↓	↓	↑	↓	↑	↑
Non-OIC Developing	↓	↓	↑	↓	↑	↑
Developed	↓	↓	↑	↓	↓	↑
World	↓	↓	↑	↓	↑	↑

Source: SESRIC Staff Calculations based on the World Bank, Gender Statistics

Moreover, as shown in Figure 5.5, women are predominantly employed in the services sector. This sector represents for approximately three quarters of women's employment in OIC member countries. On the contrary, the industry sector has the smallest share (10%) in women's employment in OIC member countries.

Compared to female population employment, distribution of male population across three sectors is more equal. For instance, in OIC member countries, the services sector employs 71.4% of all female labour force whereas 54.4% of male population work in this sector. This implies the existence of a gap by 17 percentage points between female and male population in terms of sectoral concentration. On the other hand, in all country groups, industry hosts more male workers than female workers. In 2012, approximately 30% of male employment was recorded in the industry sector in all country groups. Women in OIC member countries has the highest share of employment in the agriculture sector (18.5%) compared with other country groups. In developed countries only 3.9% of women work in agriculture. This reflects that as a result of economic development women move from agriculture sector to more productive sectors especially to the services sector.

Figure 5.5. Sectoral Distribution of Employed Persons, by country groups and sex, 2012



Source: World Bank, Gender Statistics.

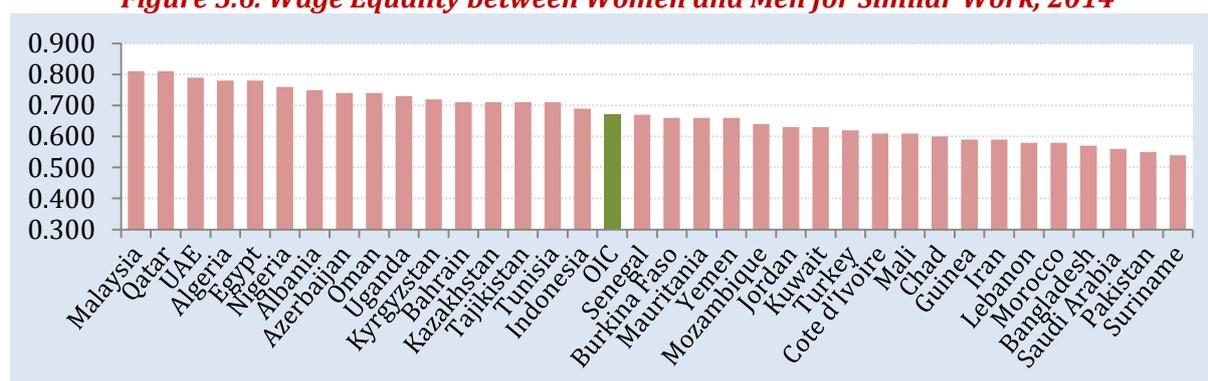
5.2 Gender Pay Gap and Wages

The gender pay gap reflects the remuneration differences and inequalities between female and men both horizontally (across occupations) and vertically (within the hierarchy of occupations) in the labour market (European Commission, 2007). In the literature, the factors which interpret the gender pay gap and wages include: (1) an undervaluation of women's work; (2) workplace characteristics; (3) sex segregation channelling women into low value added jobs; (4) the overall wage structure in a country (Goldin, 2014).

A basic indicator namely the wage equality is used in this section in order to examine trends in gender pay gap in OIC member countries. The wage equality refers to the ratio of female to male wages for similar work in non-agricultural sectors, expressed as a value between 0 (complete equality) and 1 (complete inequality).

Data concerning the wage equality indicator are available for 35 OIC member countries. As shown in Figure 5.6, Qatar and Malaysia have the highest wage equality score (0.81 points). This means that these two countries have the lowest gender pay gap. On the other side, Suriname, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Bangladesh, Morocco and Lebanon have the highest gender pay gap in 2014.

Figure 5.6. Wage Equality between Women and Men for Similar Work, 2014



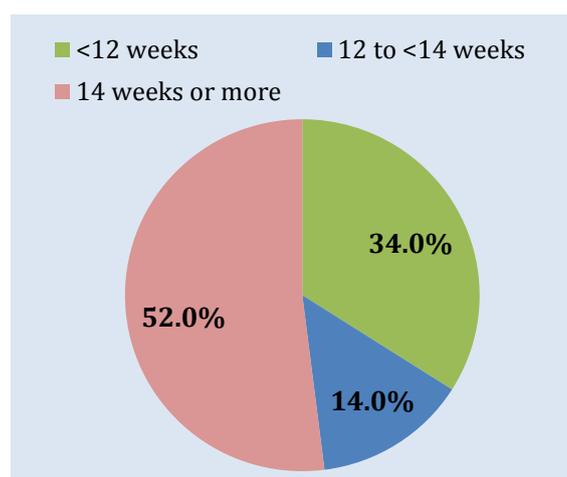
Source: SESRIC Staff Calculations based on the Global Gender Gap Report (2014).

5.3 Maternity Leave

Maternity protection for employed women is an essential element in order to preserve the health of the mother and her newborn as well as to provide a job security for women. More precisely, job security includes maintenance of wages and benefits during maternity, prevention of dismissal during pregnancy, maternity leave and a period of time after return to work (UN, 2010).

The current international standard for the duration of maternity leave as provided in the ILO Maternity Protection Convention 2000 (No. 183) is 14 weeks. This represents an increase from the standard of 12 weeks specified in the previous Convention.

Many OIC member countries did not meet the new standard of 14 weeks. In 2013, only 7 out of 50 OIC (14% of all) countries, for which the data are available, have durations of maternity leave that meet the 12 week standard stipulated in the previous ILO Convention. 26 out of 50 OIC member countries meet the new international standard of 14 weeks that represents 52% of all OIC member countries. However, 17 out of 50 OIC member countries (34% of all) meet neither the new nor the old standard of maternity leave (Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7. Distribution of 50 OIC Countries by legislated length of maternity leave*, 2013

Source: SESRIC Staff Calculations based on the UN, Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men, 2013.

**Length of maternity leave: The length of time for which maternity leave is provided, whether with or without pay.*

The right to access paid benefits during maternity leave is also essential for maternity protection, and the vast majority of OIC countries provide these benefits. Without paid benefits, a woman may find herself under pressure to return to work sooner before she recovers herself fully after delivery.

The new ILO Convention stipulates that cash benefits during maternity leave be paid at the rate of at least two thirds of the woman's previous or insured earnings for a minimum period of 14 weeks. Currently, 36 OIC member countries provide 14 weeks or more of cash benefit at the rate of at least two thirds the woman's average earnings (Appendix, Table A.5.1). Moreover, the funding of maternity benefits presents an important source of discrimination against women. Payment through social insurance or public funds may reduce discrimination against women of childbearing age in the labour market, as employers are freed from bearing the direct costs of maternity. However, 29 OIC countries continue to provide that payment during maternity leave by the employer with no public or social security provision (Appendix, Table A.5.1).

6 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING

This section looks at the role of women in decision-making. Women are often dynamic leaders of change. In this regard, galvanizing women and men to get involved, claim their rights will strengthen the communities as all societies had shortcomings that could only be overcome through strong cooperation between women and men. The participation of women is also fundamental to democratic governance and to the progress of humankind as a whole. Yet women still have far to go towards equal representation in positions of power and leadership, whether in corporate boardrooms, presidential cabinets or national parliaments.

Goal 3 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was about promoting gender equality and women empowerment. In the same token, Goal 5 of proposed Sustainable Development Goals also aims to achieve gender equality and to empower all women and girls. Especially, the objective of target 5.5 is to ensure women's full and effective

participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life.

The Beijing Declaration dubbed women in power and decision-making one of 12 critical areas of concern. It made two essential commitments to change. First, it called for measures ensuring women's equal access to and full participation in power structures and decision-making. Political quotas or positive measures are examples of these. By reserving seats or candidacies for women, they have driven dramatic increases in the number of women leaders in some countries. Second, the Declaration urged steps to increase women's ability to participate. Training on leadership, public speaking and political campaigning, for instance, grooms women to compete, win and be good leaders who can inspire others. However, 20 years after the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), there is still far to go in ensuring that half of the world's population took up its rightful place in the world's decision-making.

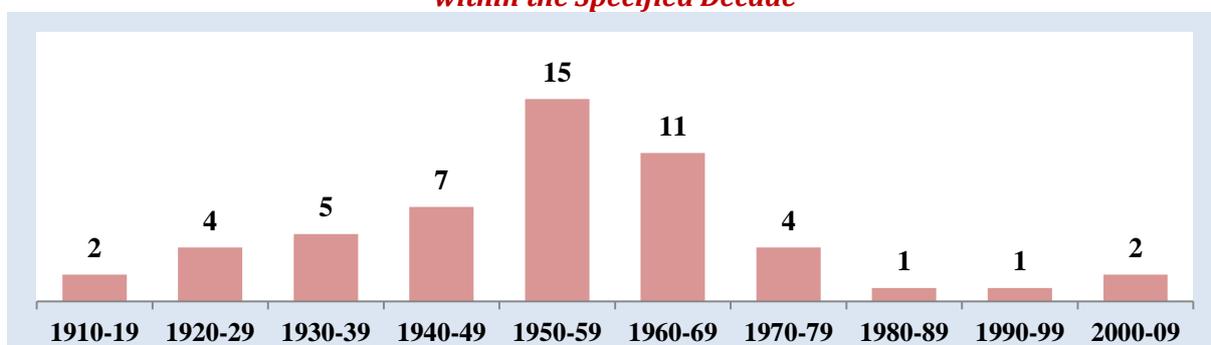
6.1 Women in Politics

Equal access of men and women to power, decision-making and leadership at all levels is a necessary precondition for the proper functioning of democracy. As women are in every walks of life, their contribution to the conduct of public affairs is essential to use their resources and potential to determine political and development priorities that benefit societies and the global community.

Women's suffrage is one of the important steps towards taking part in the decision making processes of a nation. In this regard, the year the women received right to vote or stand for election hints about the readiness of a country for participation of women in political arena as shown in Appendix, Table A.6.1.

In 15 of 52 OIC countries, the women suffrage was introduced within the decade of 1950-59. Adding 11 countries where the voting rights of women were first obtained during 1960-69, the women in half of the OIC countries began to vote during the period 1950-1969. Azerbaijan and Kyrgyzstan were the only two member countries the women's suffrage has been effective since as early as 1918 (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1. Number of OIC Countries that Recognized Women's Suffrage within the Specified Decade



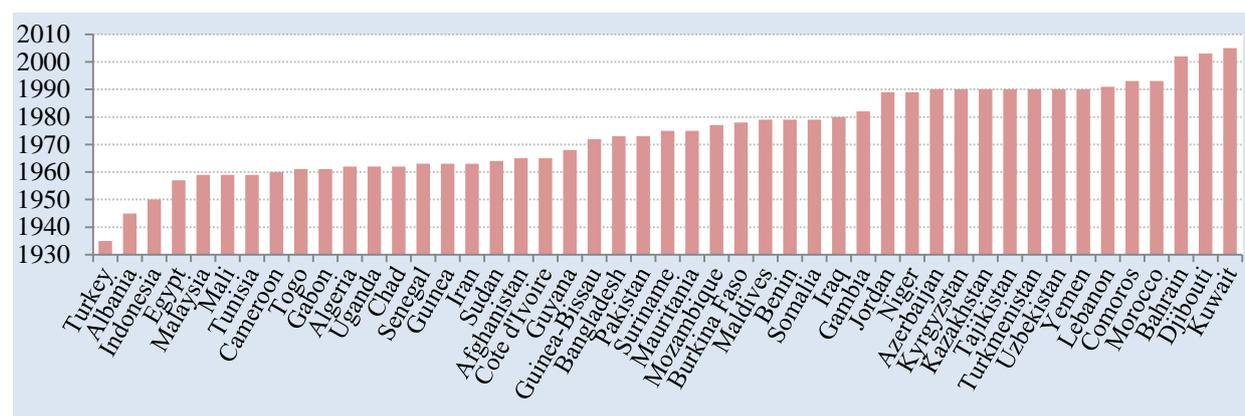
Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognizes the right of every person to take part in the political arena of his or her country. Once in leadership roles, women can make a difference that benefits all segments of society as women politicians tend to be more

sensitive to the real concerns of citizens, give more attention to social welfare and legal protections, and improve trust.

Among OIC member countries recognizing women's right to vote and stand for election, Turkey was the first country having a woman in the parliament back to 1935. Albania and Indonesia followed Turkey by electing/appointing a women parliamentarian in 1945 and 1950, respectively (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2. OIC Countries by the Year in which First Women Parliamentarian was Elected/Appointed

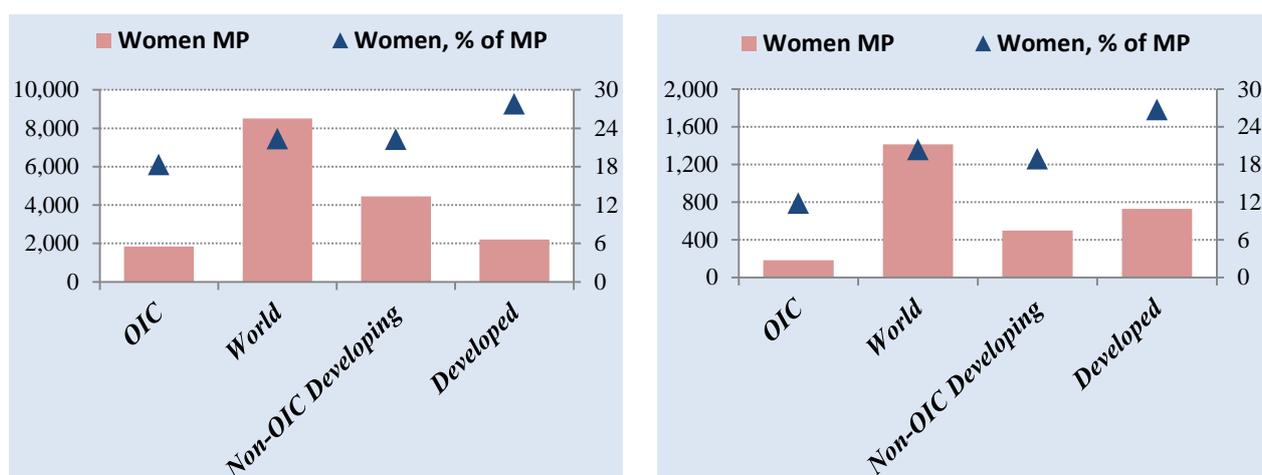


Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

Taking up the Beijing commitments and rallying around women's leadership have accelerated the progress towards equal participation. Since the Beijing Platform for Action was adopted in 1995, the global average for women's participation in national politics has gradually increased from 11.3% to almost 22.4% in 2015 with 8,510 women parliamentarians worldwide, taking the single houses or the lower chambers of bicameral parliaments into consideration. A similar trend is also observable in the OIC group. As of March 2015, 1,845 women MPs constituted 18.3% of total population of politicians in the lower or single houses of OIC member countries. Meanwhile, the shares of seats held by women MP are 22.2% and 27.8% in the parliaments of developed and non-OIC developing countries, respectively (Figure 6.3.a).

In 76 countries having upper houses or senates in their parliamentary system, there exist 6,934 seats, 1,564 of which belong to 17 OIC member countries. The percentages of seats held by women in the upper houses are comparatively lower than those of the lower houses for all country groups. However, the highest difference is observed in OIC member countries. 185 women MP accounted for only 11.8% of total number of parliamentarians in the OIC, which is 6.5 percentage points lower than the share of women MP in the lower house. The world average for the seats occupied by women in the upper houses or senates is 20.4% while the average of non-OIC developing countries is 18.9%. As a group, the percentage of women in the upper houses of developed countries (26.7%) is only 1 percentage point less than the corresponding share in the lower house of developed countries (Figure 6.3.b).

Figure 6.3. Seats Held by the Women in National Parliaments of OIC Member Countries
a. Lower or Single House **b. Upper House or Senate**



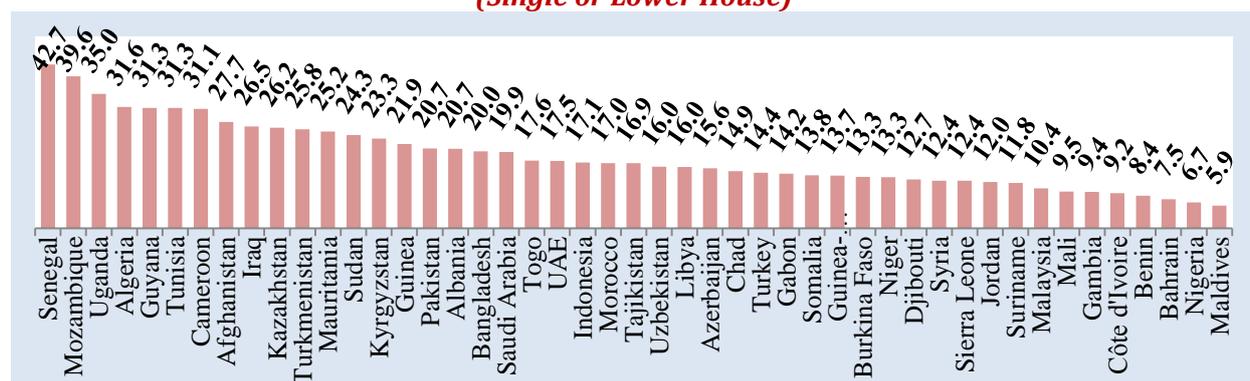
Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

Both houses combined, 2,030 women MP constituted 17.5% of the total MP population in the OIC group, whereas the world average is 22.1% with 9,923 women MP. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments was one of the indicators selected for monitoring progress under Goal 3 of Millennium Development Goals about promoting gender equality and women empowerment. As shown in Figure 6.3.a and 6.3.b, the OIC group is far beyond the 30% target set at Beijing as well as the world averages in any of the Houses. Hence, women still remained severely underrepresented at the highest levels of national decision-making.

Considering the current trend, an average of 30% women representation in parliaments is estimated to be reached by 2040 in the OIC region. Being a member of parliament is of course not an easy job, but there were cultural, as well as social and economic factors at play that made it difficult for women to enter politics and climb up to top echelons of government. Whether it was local traditions, lack of gender-sensitive policies and political party mechanisms, women's political empowerment was invariably fraught with challenges.

Drilling down to country level data reveals even more insightful patterns and disparities. The share of women MPs is found to be above the OIC average of 18.4% in the lower or single houses of 19 member countries as shown in Figure 6.4. Senegal was the top OIC country with the proportion of seats held by women being as high as 42.7% of total MPs in its national parliament. This very high percentage of women representation secured Senegal to hold the 7th position in the world, as well. Following Senegal, Mozambique and Uganda also situated within the top 25 countries in the world with women politicians constituting more than one third of the total seats in their parliaments. 11 OIC countries, namely Algeria, Guyana, Tunisia, Cameroon, Afghanistan, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Mauritania, Sudan and Kyrgyzstan, also managed to surpass the world average. On the other hand, the share of women in the single or lower houses of parliaments is lower than 5% in Lebanon, Iran, Kuwait, Oman and Yemen (Appendix, Table A.6.2).

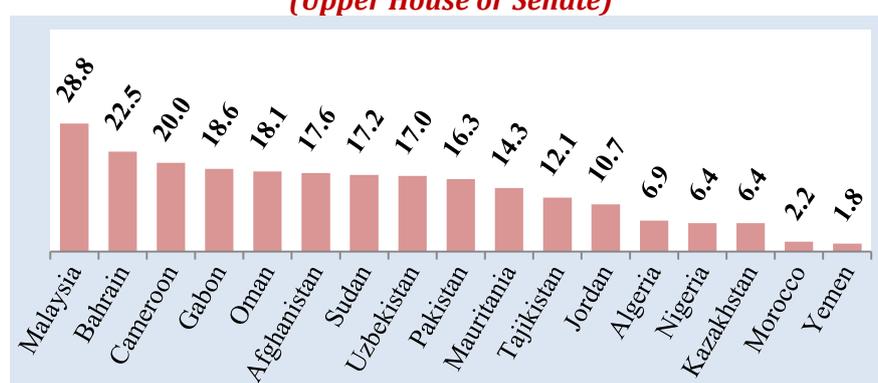
Figure 6.4. Percentage of Women Politicians in the Parliaments of OIC Member Countries (Single or Lower House)



Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

Among 17 OIC countries with bicameral parliaments, 29% of seats in the upper house of the Malaysian Parliament are occupied by women. It is also remarkable that 1 out of 5 MPs is woman in Bahrain and Cameroon. On the other hand, women representation rate is below 5% in the upper houses of Morocco and Yemen (Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5. Percentage of Women Politicians in the Parliaments of OIC Countries (Upper House or Senate)

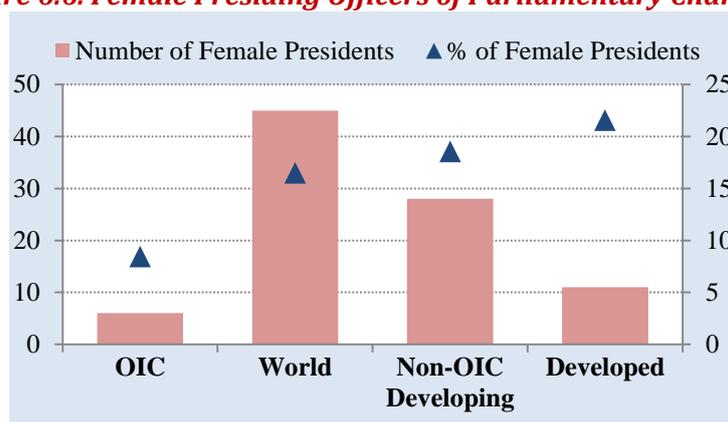


Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

Even with these recent improvements, men still largely dominate executive positions in the politics, and there is still a long way to go for achieving gender equality. As shown in Figure 6.6, only 45 women in the world currently preside over one of the Houses of the 194 existing Parliaments 79 of which are bicameral. Women therefore occupy 16.5% of the total number of 273 posts of Presiding Officers. In the OIC group, only 6 women preside over one of the Houses of the 54 existing Parliaments. As 17 of them have bicameral structure, this corresponds to 8.5% female representation in terms of Presiding Officer posts.³

As shown in Table A.6.3 in the Appendix, the concerned chambers of OIC member countries with female presidency are the Parliament of Bangladesh (Ms. Shirin Sharmin Chaudhury), the Senate of Gabon (Ms. Lucie Milebou-Aubu), the Assembly of the Republic of Mozambique (Ms. Verónica Nataniel Macamo Dlovo), the National Assembly of Suriname (Ms. Jennifer Geerlings-Simons), the Assembly of Turkmenistan (Ms. Akyta Tajiyewna Nurberdiyewa), the Parliament of Uganda (Ms. Rebecca Kadaga).

³ The countries that have bicameral parliaments are: Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Cameroon, Gabon, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Mauritania, Morocco, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Sudan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Yemen.

Figure 6.6. Female Presiding Officers of Parliamentary Chambers

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) PARLINE Database.

The indicator, proportion of women in ministerial level positions (%), also illustrates the status of female empowerment at political leadership level. Worldwide there are 715 women ministers representing only 17.7% of all government ministers in the world. The share of women ministers in the cabinets of OIC member countries is around 12.4%. Since 2005, the percentage of women ministers has only increased by 3.5 percentage points in the world and by 1.4 percentage points in the OIC region, respectively.

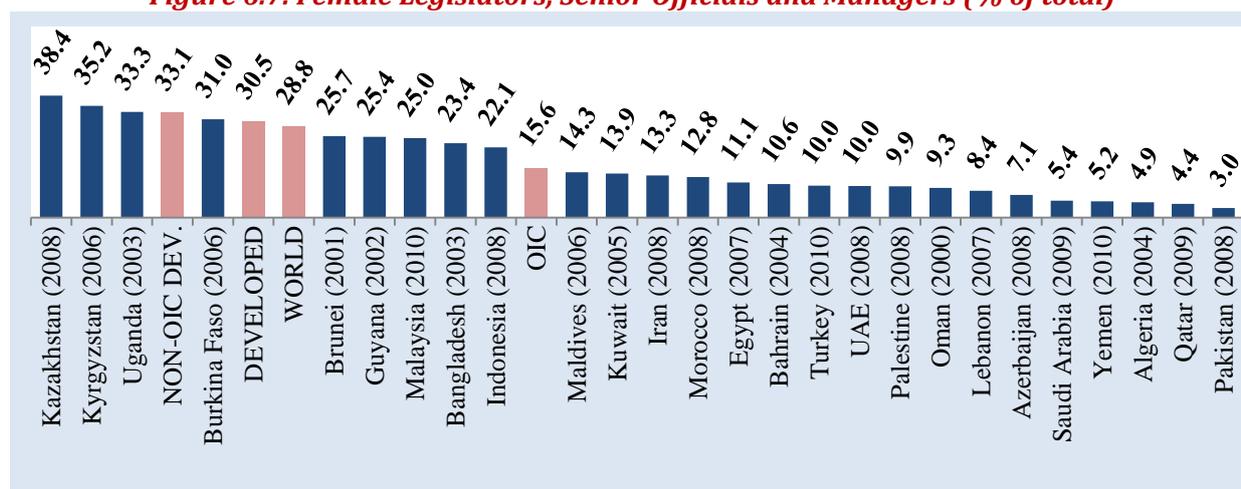
As for the ministerial portfolios held by women, the IPU-UN Women Map shows that social affairs, education, family and women's affairs continue to be the most common portfolios held by women ministers. The numbers of women holding posts considered more senior such as defense, environment and foreign affairs have grown slightly. These women ministers constitute valuable role models and they can also be powerful agents of change at the national and global level. However, for the most part, such women are still the exception rather than the rule, and more needs to be done to overcome the major obstacles that inhibit women's participation and representation in decision making.

6.2 Women in Managerial Positions

Beyond politics, empowering women as legal, economic and social actors can change policy choices and make institutions more representative of a range of voices. Although important progress has been achieved in the past decade, women are still underrepresented in the legislative, justice and economic decision-making areas.

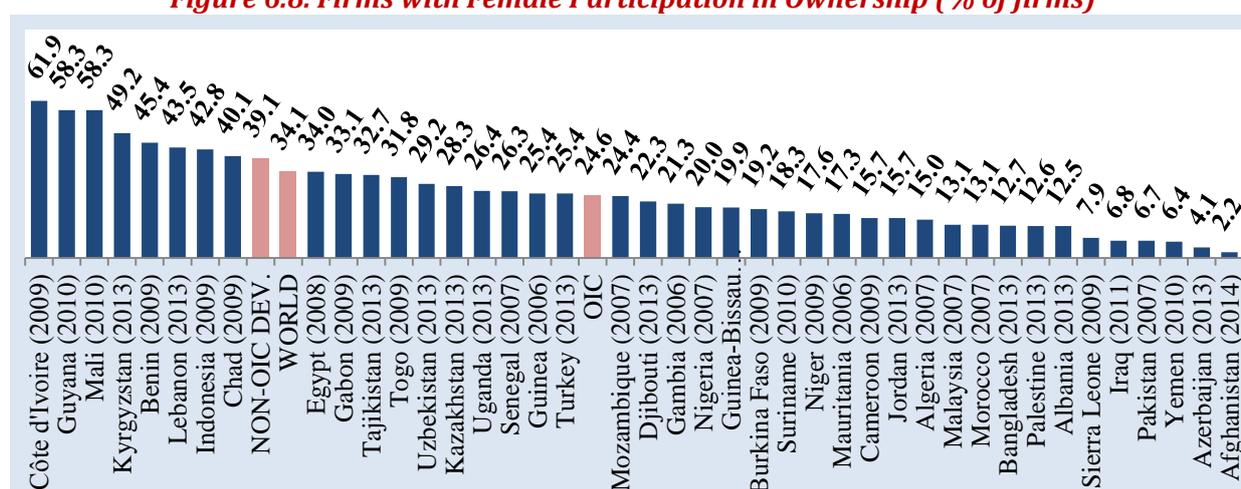
Much more needed to be done to attract talented and qualified women to decision-making posts by stepping up efforts with governments, civil society, companies, professional associations and academia. In the case of women who were on board, it was necessary to retain and encourage them, by improving internal procedures for mobility, training and career development.

Percentage of women among legislators and managers refers to the proportion of legislators and senior officials, corporate managers, and general managers (ISCO-88). In the world, 28.8% of the senior managerial positions are women while the OIC average is 15.6%, which is less than half of the average of the non-OIC developing countries (33.1%). Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Uganda are the only member countries where the female representation in senior management is more than one third of all professionals in this occupation group. (Figure 6.7)

Figure 6.7. Female Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers (% of total)

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

More diversity was needed in management of companies as diversity strengthened the companies' possibilities to rapid adjustments and improved the management of the companies. In this regard, female participation in ownership is crucial.

Figure 6.8. Firms with Female Participation in Ownership (% of firms)

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

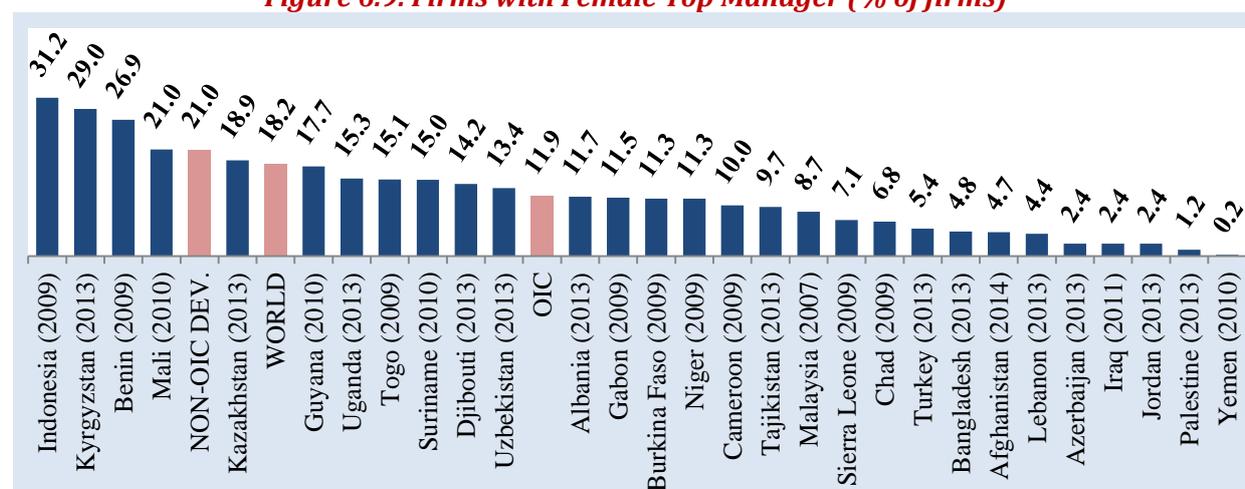
As shown in Figure 6.8, women are among the principal owners in nearly one quarter of total firms in OIC region. The female participation in firm ownership is above the OIC average in 18 member countries, 8 of which have higher female proportions than the average of the non-OIC developing countries, 39.1%. Among those, gender parity has been far exceeded in Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana and Mali with women owning around 60% of the firms.

Women are now entering high-level decision making positions in the private sector. Among Fortune 500 companies in 2015, 20 were run by women. Women leaders have an enormous potential to influence the way the companies work, by promoting fairer management practices, a better balance between work and family life and reducing gender disparities within the workplace.

However, due to the limitation of the data, the percentage of women assuming the role of top managers seems to be quite low. Only 11.9% of private firms in OIC region are led by women whereas the averages of the world and non-OIC developing countries are 18.2%

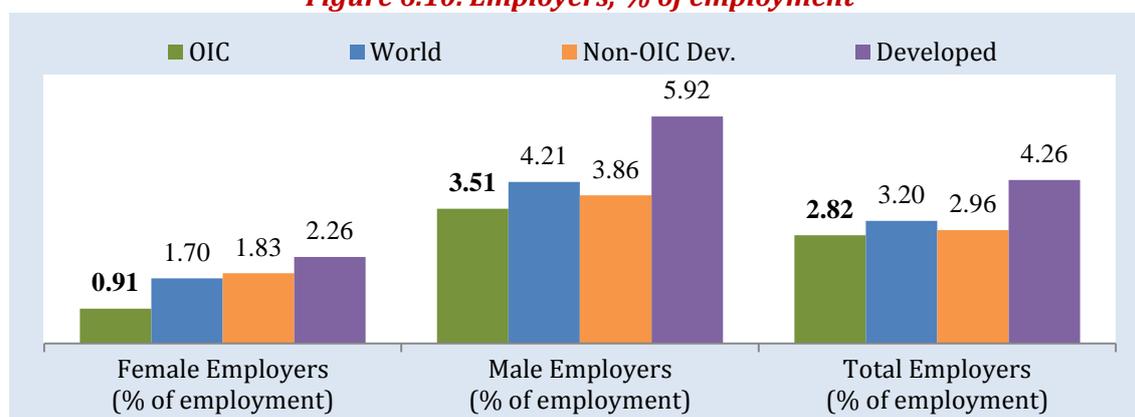
and 21.0%, respectively. Indonesia, Kyrgyzstan and Benin are the only three countries where more than 25% of firms are run by female CEOs (Figure 6.9).

Figure 6.9. Firms with Female Top Manager (% of firms)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Figure 6.10. Employers, % of employment



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

A similar situation is also observable in the case of the share of female employers⁴ in total employment (Figure 6.10). Women constituted even less than 1% of the total employers in the OIC countries, while their share is 2.3% in developed countries. The average of non-OIC developing countries is more than double of the OIC average.

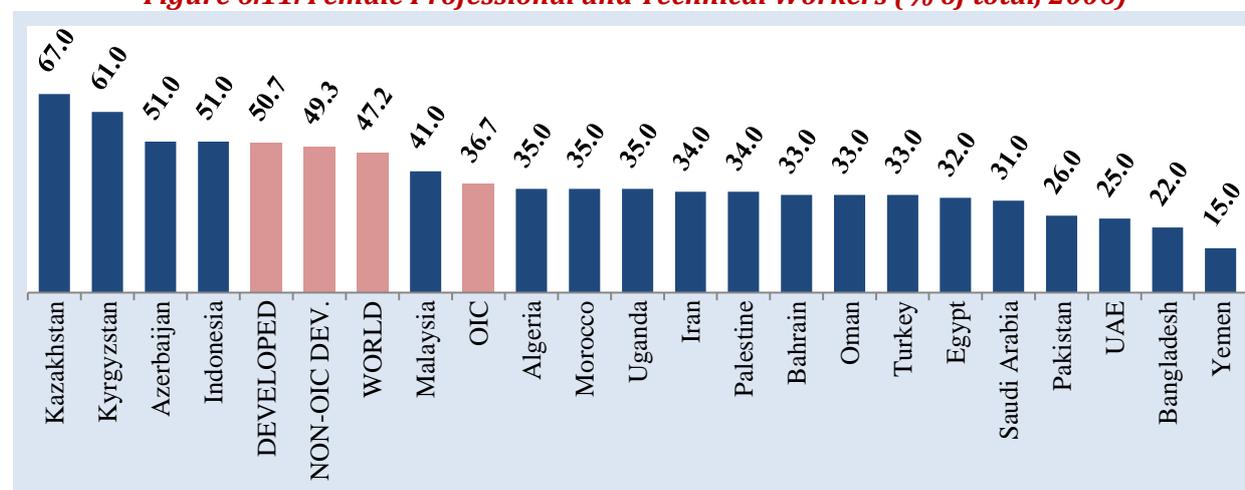
The share of female representation increases as the level of post declines. Based on the available data of 19 OIC member countries, the proportion of female professional and technical workers⁵ is around 36.7%. Though this figure is quite lower than the averages of world (47.2%), the non-OIC developing countries (49.3%) and developed countries (50.7%), the gender parity is more promising than the situation depicted in senior or top

⁴ Employers refers to those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs" i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced, and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).

⁵ Female professional and technical workers refer to the share of professionals and technical workers who are female. Women's share of positions are defined according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88) to include physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals (and associate professionals), life science and health professionals (and associate professionals), teaching professionals (and associate professionals) and other professionals and associate professionals.

management posts. With 67%, Kazakhstan is the top OIC country in terms of professional and technical women workers. Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan and Indonesia are the other OIC member countries where more than 50% of all professional and technical workers are female.

Figure 6.11. Female Professional and Technical Workers (% of total, 2006)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Overall, in the OIC group women are still underrepresented in positions related to decision-making, even though some important progress has been achieved in the last decade.

7 NGOs, WOMEN AND FAMILY WELL-BEING

NGOs refer to the voluntary formations of individuals that work for a common purpose. It is an area outside of the public and private sector. Generally, NGOs cover a wide-range of areas such as charities, environmental organizations, human rights groups, trade unions, chambers and particularly gender equality. In a tolerant country each citizen has the right to form his or her choice of organization freely. Besides, citizens have the right to engage into an existing NGO. They are also free to decide on to what extent they are going to be active in NGOs.

With the rise of globalization, the impact of NGOs on governments and citizens has become more significant in many open economies (SESRIC, 2014a). Well-structured NGOs provide benefit to societies in different ways such as providing constructive criticisms to governments in reshaping their policies or being a platform for delivering the message of underrepresented citizens such as women on different issues.⁶

Against this background, this section focuses on the different types of interventions undertaken by NGOs to empower women.

7.1 Approaches and Strategies by NGOs towards Gender Issues

Since the early 1980s, NGOs have raised the issue of discrimination against women by considering women's rights as human rights related to: 1) promoting the need for a gender

⁶ For more details on NGOs in OIC Member Countries, please refer to the report on "Civil Society in OIC Member Countries: Challenges and Opportunities", OIC Outlook Series, SESRIC, March 2014.

approach to health care, education and economic development, 2) promoting the needs of the girl child and, 3) exposing violence against women (Handy & Kassam, 2007).

Over the years, many approaches and strategies have been adopted by various NGOs to address women issues include empowerment and promoting a rights-based approach to social inclusion. In this context, Sen and Grown (1988) offered an approach of empowerment based on a commitment to collective action in order to address specific problems that women face in developing countries within the economic, political and cultural domains. According to Sen and Grown (1988), equality for women is impossible within economic, political, cultural processes that reserve resources, power and control only for small groups of people.

On the other hand, since the late 1990s, the rights-based approach has been adopted by the NGOs to bring the issues of economic, social and cultural rights to the centre alongside with the existing female political and civil rights.

7.2 Achievements of NGOs

Many studies have highlighted the role of NGOs in empowering women (Hunt & Kasynathan, 2002; Lewis & Kanji, 2009). NGOs have adopted several interventions to address women issues in OIC Member Countries. For example, the organizational objectives of Nijera Kori, an NGO based in Bangladesh, shifted to the struggle to create a society free from oppression and deprivation through the establishment of the fundamental rights of women. In order to achieve this goal, the strategy that Nijera Kori developed was to make women conscious of their rights and to assist them to develop the collective strength necessary to establish those rights.

Besides, the emergence of microcredit has represented a successful tool for addressing women issues. For instance, Grameen Bank is based on the voluntary formation of small groups of female borrowers that provide mutual guarantees. The assumption is that if individual borrowers are given access to credit, they will be able to identify and engage in income generating activities such as manufacturing and weaving. Women have been the main target of this organization as they have not only proved to be reliable borrowers but also entrepreneurs. As a result of microcredits, these women have been able to raise their status, diminish their dependency on their husbands and improve their children's nutritional and educational standards. Moreover, many governments in OIC member countries have endorsed microcredit and microfinance institutions and have integrated microcredit programs into their development planning.

On the other hand, advocacy has become a means by which NGOs seek to make empowerment of women more central to their missions (Lewis & Kanji, 2009). The most effective forms of advocacy include: 1) a clear and accessible program that explains how the goals connect with planned strategies and 2) specific and achievable objectives within a timeframe of the planned intervention. In this connection, NGOs in many OIC member countries have become successful in their advocacy role because they have been able to link local experiences with national or international policy. For example, in Uganda, ActionAid, and other NGOs used their advocacy initiative to support the passage of a

Domestic Relations Bill and added clauses for land co-ownership in the 1998 Land Act to protect women's rights to own land (Nabacwa, 2001).

Most of the NGOs have adopted gender mainstreaming policies to improve and promote the well-being of the women in OIC member countries. However the implementation of these policies at the institutional level is constrained by: 1) the lack of monitoring and evaluation of the policies and the participation of women, 2) the organizational culture, 3) lack of accountability mechanisms. A number of NGOs have focused on the male-biased organizational culture as an important constraint in the implementation of gender policies that are reflected in attitudes, recruitment practices and working conditions (Moser & Moser, 2002).

7.3 Role of NGOs in Promoting Gender Equality

The concept of gender equality refers to social, behavioural and cultural attributes, expectations and norms associated with being a woman or a man (World Bank, 2012). More precisely, gender equality term implies how women and men relate to each other in socio-economic life. On the other hand, gender inequality reflects the social condition in which the gender based relation is favoured and biased toward one side (men) and against another side (women). This relation associates with privileges to favoured side at the expense of discrimination of another side.

A large number of women remained out of the coverage of service delivery or received less attention in developing countries. One of the reasons behind this fact is the existence of instable and uncertain environment in which NGOs working on gender issues can emerge.

In addition, NGOs in developing countries that are specialized on gender issues did not take into account local realities and sensitivities that exist in gender issues. Although the degree of the sensitivity differs across developing countries, there is a common negative stereotype toward the women which reduce their impact in society. Therefore, there is need for long term planning rather than short term interventions.

Besides, NGOs working for gender equality in complicated environment have to know the ground reality in depth. In this context, a number of NGOs, without having knowledge of the ground reality adapted a more liberal-oriented approach toward promoting gender equality in developing countries which did not produce a fruitful result. For instance, recently a number of "Khana Aman" secure houses/shelters have been provided by NGOs in Kabul, Afghanistan for those women and girls who flee from their homes because of violence and torture. This initiative is harshly criticized by conservative and religious elites. These kind of unplanned initiatives not only severely damage NGOs' efforts for promoting gender equality but also reduce public support.

8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This report looked at the state of gender equality and family well-being in OIC member countries and highlighted a number of related socio-economic factors such as employment, education, health, etc.

In the field of education, the report showed that the OIC member countries, as a group, suffer from both low literacy and enrolment rates for female population compared with the global averages. In terms of completion and progression rates, it is also found that there are important gender disparities among men and women. At the OIC member country level, the figures on female education differ widely. In particular, there is a remarkable disparity between the Central Asian member countries and the Sub-Saharan member countries.

As a group, the OIC member countries have recorded a significant improvement in general health indicators, especially those related to maternal and newborn health. Large-scale realized investments in the health sector in OIC member countries helped them to increase their average life-expectancy at birth. Despite these positive developments, the indicators on health show that there are still many things to be done in the health field to achieve gender equality and empower family institution. Fertility rates, for example, are significantly higher than the world average, which means that women in OIC countries are under high fertility pressure. This does not only prevents women to involve actively in the society but also leads to both pre-birth and pro-birth health problems both for mothers and newborns. In particular, if child bearing starts at young ages (15-19), this adversely affect women's health and make them more vulnerable. It is also observed that there are still OIC member countries with low prenatal coverage rate and high fertility rates that threaten women's health status which ultimately affect the family well-being.

Another major factor that affects gender equality and family well-being is violence and abuse. As is the case in other developing countries, violence and abuse against women in OIC member countries is, on average, more prevalent compared to the developed countries and the world average. According to the WHO, reported violence figures in developing countries, including OIC member countries, are far lower than the actual cases due to lack of reporting mechanisms, relevant rules and regulations against violence and abuse, and existence of some cultural barriers. In this regard, violence and abuse should be an important concern area for OIC member countries which have implications on women's health status, women's participation to labour market, gender equality, and family well-being.

The existence of social security systems including safety nets for women and having equal labour payoff both for men and women for similar work encourage female population to be active in the labour market. However, in OIC member countries, on average, women cannot enjoy some rights such as maternity leave and childcare services as seen in developed countries. Moreover, there is high gender inequality in terms of wages that disfavour female population. As a result, OIC member countries on average, have limited participation rates of women to labour market that creates net loss for the OIC economies as well as harms gender equality. Therefore, provision of safety nets for women in line with the ILO standards and improving pay gap between male and female population would be important to improve labour force participation rate of women in the OIC group.

On another front, one of the core reasons behind the inequality between men and women that is seen clearly in the case of OIC member countries is the limited participation of women into decision-making process. The lack of women's ideas and views on decision-

making limits the scope of the policy-analyses as well as the effectiveness of policy intervention in many socio-economic aspects of life. Therefore, limited participation of women into decision-making creates an environment where the dominant actors are male. In this environment, critical issues such as gender equality and empowerment of women get less attention than they deserve. In this regard, many policy issues need to be addressed on gender equality and family well-being solely by men where views of women are missing.

On the other hand, NGOs play a critical role in development by filling the gap between public and private sectors. In terms of gender equality and family well-being, the NGOs contribution is remarkable in developing countries in which public institutions could not provide necessary services for women who are facing with several difficulties such as discrimination, abuse or limited access to education services. NGOs assume several roles in the field of gender equality and family well-being. Some NGOs, for example, provide shelters to divorced women and organize training programs. Despite their positive role, the overall environment for NGOs is far from being enabling in OIC member countries (SESRI, 2014a). Therefore, NGOs could not reach their potential in OIC member countries in their efforts to empower women and to address gender inequality. It is important to note that NGOs in developing countries are also not free from deficiencies. Some NGOs did not take the local context into account while addressing gender inequality and family well-being issues. In this regard, these NGOs could not gain the support of public that made their interventions unsuccessful.

9 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

While addressing the gender inequality and family well-being, education policies seem to have multiple positive effects. Policy-makers need to improve the provision of formal and vocational education as well as training programs, including life-learning programs, for both men and women equally. In many OIC Countries, specific programmes and mechanisms for women need to be utilised in order to address the existing gender gap that is mostly disfavours women.

Education programmes are important for the empowerment of all workers. However, for disadvantaged workers including women these programs have a particular importance. Through vocational education and training (VET) programmes, women can obtain additional skills which may help the facing the challenges that hinder them to participate into labour markets. By participating into labour market, women become economically active in the society and would live under better conditions throughout their entire life. Higher participation into labour force, as a result of enhanced education and VET programs, would enable OIC member countries reaching their potential economic growth rates that would bring higher prosperity to everyone.

In terms of the sectoral distribution of female labour force, the OIC country group possesses the highest share in agriculture and lowest share in non-agricultural sector compared to the rest of the world. Therefore, working for transition of female labour force from agriculture to more productive sectors is as equally important as trying to increase female labour force participation rates. In order to achieve such a transition, education

policies carry a key importance that would facilitate the process. In fact, the existing disparity in education indicators across OIC member countries can be seen as an opportunity for cooperation and exchanging knowledge and experience as well as best practices in terms of providing equal access to education for men and women.

Both men and women are not ready to wait that long to have truly representative, inclusive and participative parliaments, which are the cornerstone of any democracy. The first objective should be to increase the number of women in political life, most notably in parliaments, and to speed up the process of their access to politics. Women should feel fully confident in their capacity to contribute in a constructive way to the management of societies. A true partnership between men and women in politics must be established. An important part of the process is ensuring equal access to education for girls and boys.

Health policies would also help women in several ways to improve their status and overall well-being. Ensuring equal access to health for everyone is an effective policy to reach and sustain a high rate of economically active population. In particular, provision of high quality maternal and newborn health services is very important for the health of women and their decision to participate into economic life. Insufficient provision of maternal and newborn health services not only lead to complications after delivery but also may affect women's health adversely throughout for the entire life that prevent her to actively participate into labour markets.

Policy-makers in OIC member countries should consider the issue of reducing high fertility rates, especially among adolescents that are aged between 15-19 years in order to achieve sustainable development, and have healthy mothers and children. In this context, more investments are needed in maternal and newborn health infrastructure in order to further reduce maternal mortality ratio. These investments should cover both physical investment (hospital, clinics, medicine schools etc.) and human capital investments (training of mother and health care personnel etc.). Technical cooperation and exchanging of knowledge, experiences and best practices among OIC member countries in these areas are of utmost important.

Legislations are important building-blocks for empowering women and strengthening family institution. Without legal frameworks, it would be difficult for many reforms and policies to be realized or implemented. Governments should develop and enact the relevant legislations which help eradicating factors that put women in a disadvantaged position. For instance, legislations are very effective to stop gender discrimination at labour markets. Legislations to force implementation of positive discrimination for women would help many OIC member countries to reduce economically inactive women population. Also enacting legislations that provide enhanced rights to specific groups such as women would make them more active in the economy as well as allow them to better develop their skills such as through joining civil society organizations. In a similar fashion, legislations to stop violence and abuse at home and work would help to generate a more enabling environment for female population. As a result, they can feel more comfortable at work or in their family environment.

However, there is no one-size-fits-all legislation modality for all OIC member countries. Local market conditions at the individual member country level should be considered

while designing these legislations. Governments may implement some short and medium-run effective approaches and modalities to protect women against violence and abuse such as distributing panic buttons that is connected to GSM operators and police headquarters. This could help women who are under immediate threat. However, while such mechanisms may partially contribute to eradicating violence against women, the issue could only be totally addressed through education and restoring the status of women in the society.

In order to enhance women's participation into decision-making, efforts should be made at the level of OIC member countries to increase the number of women who are holding key positions. However, the efforts which aim to have more women in decision-making should start from political parties and public institutions in order to lead the process. Specific policies should be developed to address the private sector as well. Consultation meetings with private sector and encouraging them through some financial and non-financial incentives can help to increase the number of women in key positions in OIC member countries. However, in order to overcome the glass-ceiling that stop women to go upper positions, the legal base should be levelled by governments with a view to eradicating gender discriminating.

In this context, NGOs could be more effective and efficient in reaching different layers of the society or remote areas within a country. Moreover, due their capacity to implement specific programmes in a more effective way, NGOs can contribute to governments in OIC member countries in their efforts to achieve gender equality and enhance the family well-being. Despite all these possible positive effects, NGOs in OIC member countries are underdeveloped. SESRIC (2014a) reveals that two important factors hinder the development of NGOs in OIC member countries: underdeveloped infrastructure for NGOs (including organizational capacity, financial viability and support organizations) and NGO legal context. Therefore policies to provide relevant financial and legal infrastructure for NGOs would help OIC member countries to empower civil society that in turn would improve gender equality and family well-being.

The efforts of OIC can also provide some guidance and help to OIC member countries. In particular, some of the OIC official documents, namely the OIC Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (OPAAW) and Ten-Year Programme of Action (TYPOA) list the priority areas and reforms need to be done with some tangible goals. OIC Foras on women and family well-being such as ministerial level meetings, experts meetings, workshops, and consultative meetings can help policy-makers in member countries to identify cooperation opportunities within the OIC group and serve as a platform where member countries exchange their views and share best-practices on gender and family well-being. Also, the decision of OIC to form a specialized OIC organ in Cairo, Egypt to follow up gender equality, women and family-being issues was a strategic step. It is hoped that with the active support and participation of OIC member countries, this institution would help member countries at various capacities in this critical field of development.

APPENDIX

ANNEX I. CONCEPT NOTE ON THE ASSESSMENT

ON THE OIC PLAN OF ACTION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN (OPAAW)⁷

Introduction

The First Ministerial Conference on Women held in Turkey from 20 – 21 November 2006 approved the preparation of the OIC Plan of Action on the Advancement of Women. This plan was adopted by the 2nd Ministerial Conference on Women held in Cairo from 24 – 25 November 2008.

After more than six years have passed since the implementation of OPAAW, and the provision of five ministerial conferences on women (Istanbul, 2006; Cairo, 2008; Tehran, 2010; Jakarta, 2012; and Baku 2014), it is evident that there is a need to conduct an assessment study on this plan. This is in response to the wish of the OIC to ensure alignment between the 2nd Ten-Year Programme of Action “2nd TYPOA” (2016 – 2025) being prepared by the General Secretariat and OPAAW, in the context of the overall vision of the OIC on development issues in the 2nd TYPOA and for the elaboration of women’s role in the comprehensive development of Member States.

This paper aims to present the notion of OPAAW’s assessment; help in identifying OPAAW’s additional values; identify the already achieved OPAAW objectives; and to assess the role and contributions of the relevant stakeholders - OIC General Secretariat, OIC subsidiary organs, specialized and affiliated institutions, OIC Member States, civil society institutions and the media, OIC partners and other parties in the achievement of the OPAAW objectives. The study would also help to identify obstacles the parties face in the implementation of OPAAW, with the aim of making strategic proposals and recommendations that can assist Member States and all relevant parties in implementing the Plan and achieving the set objectives, in line with the 2nd TYPOA.

Steps

The assessment study is presented in the following steps:

1. **Overview of the background to OPAAW and assessment of its value addition to the OIC action in this domain:**

After the adoption of the drafting of the plan by the 1st OIC Ministerial Conference on Women (Istanbul, 2006), the OIC General Secretariat organized two meetings at its headquarters (i) 6-7 April 2008 which brought together experts from Member States to draft the plan and (ii) 12 – 14 October 2008 which brought together senior officials to study and analyze the draft ahead of submission to the 2nd OIC Ministerial Conference on Women, held in Cairo in 2008.

The major objectives of OPAAW include: eradication of poverty among women, strengthening women participation in decision-making at all levels (local and

⁷ This section was prepared by the OIC Department of Social and Family Affairs.

international), providing equal opportunities for women through access to quality education, and finally, elimination of all forms of violence against women.

The holding of the first ministerial conference (Istanbul 2006) to consider the role of women in the development of the Member States and to draft an OIC plan of action for the advance of women is an important historic turning point in the OIC's efforts to advance women in the Member States.

2. Assessment of the Role and Contribution of Major Parties in the Implementation of OPAAW

- OIC General Secretariat
- OIC subsidiary organs, specialized and affiliated institutions
- Member States
- Media
- Civil society organizations
- OIC partners

3. The assessment of the implementation of the plan shall be done through the comparative analytical method between the status of women in the Member States before the adoption of OPAAW and their status six years after the implementation of OPAAW using the following indicators and benchmarks:

- Sectoral plans derived from OPAAW for each of the implementation parties;
- Indicators developed by each party for the assessment of OPAAW implementation;
- Coordination of efforts among OPAAW implementing parties;
- Achievements of each of the parties in the area of:
 - a) Education, especially equal opportunity of access to quality education, illiteracy eradication programmes and rate of illiteracy in Member States before the adoption of the plan and the current condition.
 - b) All aspects of health (including mental and reproductive health)
 - c) Political participation of women, particularly in decision-making at the local and international levels;
 - d) Social justice and prosperity and elimination of poverty among women with focus on the role of some anti-women practices and customs.
 - e) Economic sustainability for women, particularly how women can achieve economic independence and acquire skills;
 - f) All parties concerned with the implementation of the plan improving budget allocated for women advancement.

4. Assessing the contribution of the OIC General Secretariat in the implementation of OPAAW and the extent to which mechanisms developed for OPAAW implementation are successful.

The General Secretariat embarked on several activities in the area of women advancement such as holding ministerial meetings, experts and specialists meetings as well as international meetings in collaboration with specialized international and multinational organizations. The OIC also issued several declarations, statements and resolutions aimed at women advancement. On another hand, the OIC commenced the establishment of structures, departments and mechanisms within and outside the General Secretariat to cater to women, children and youth, aged-people and people with special needs issues. It also follows up the implementation of resolutions and recommendations adopted by certain bodies.

Ministerial Meetings on Women

- a) The First Ministerial Conference on the Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States was held in Istanbul, Republic of Turkey in the period from 20 – 21 November 2006. The conference addressed strategies, benchmarks, programmes and common objectives for the advancement of women, national policies and strategies for increasing women employments, elimination of poverty among women, women participation in local and international decision making and better future for women through their inclusion in education, and how to eliminate all forms of violence against women. This conference also put in place follow up mechanisms.
- b) The Second Ministerial Conference on the Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States was held in Cairo, Arab Republic of Egypt from 24 – 26 February 2008. That conference adopted the draft OIC Plan of Action for Advancement of Women. The plan contains OIC Member States' vision on women and the objectives and measures as well as means of achieving those objectives. It put in place indicators, action-oriented studies and how to implement and evaluate the plan. The conference also approved the establishment of the Women Development Organisation with its headquarters in Cairo.
- c) The Third Ministerial Conference on the Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States was held in Tehran, Islamic Republic of Iran from 19 – 21 December 2010. Some of the key issues addressed by the conference include:
 - Vision for women, family and economy in the OIC Member States, status of the implementation of OPAAW, comprehensive study on the status of women in OIC Member States, and finally, mechanisms for the implementation of the Cairo Plan of Action on Women. Procedures were put in place at the level of OIC Member States, the civil society and the media. The Independent Permanent Human Rights Commission (IPHRC)

as an OIC-affiliated organisation to carry out its role in the area of human rights and women rights.

- The OIC Council of Foreign Ministers held in Tajikistan in 2010 ratified the statute of the Women Development Organisation.
- d) The Fourth Conference on the Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States was held in Jakarta, Republic of Indonesia, in the period from 20 – 22 Muharram 1434H (4 – 6 December 2012) under the theme “Strengthening Women’s Participation and Roles in the Economic Development of OIC Member States. The conference invited Member States to sign and accede to the statute of the Women Development Organisation to enable the Organisation carry out its functions and to strengthen the role of women in the economic development of OIC Member States.
- e) The Fifth Conference on the Role of Women in the Development of OIC Member States was held in Baku, Republic of Azerbaijan from 20 – 21 October 2014. The conference recommended that an assessment study of OPAAW should be conducted and called for a meeting of experts to be held for that purpose at the OIC headquarters in the second half of 2015.

Preparation of the Ten-Year Programme of Action (2005 – 2015) to confront the challenges facing the Islamic ummah in the 21st century. The programme was adopted by the 3rd Extraordinary Islamic Summit held in Makkah in 2005. It recommended that attention should be paid to the rights of women and the needs of the youth and families in the Muslim world. It called on Member States to promote laws aimed at women advancement in the Muslim community, especially in the economic, social, cultural and political fields and to protect them from all forms of violence and discrimination, in accordance with Islamic values based on justice and equality.

- a) Establishment of a department in the General Secretariat concerned with family and women affairs and with following up on the implementation of OPAAW and all relevant resolutions and issues.
 - b) Follow up of the ratification of the statute of the Women Development Organisation in Cairo as a specialized body on women advancement.
 - c) Finally, preparation of a second Ten-Year Programme of Action (2016 – 2025) that would address women issues and work to advance them as part of the family.
- 5. Assessment of the contribution of Member States on the implementation of OPAAW**
- a) Identifying national plans derived from OPAAW
 - b) Studying indicators developed by each state for the evaluation of the implementation of OPAAW.
 - c) Study and assessment of activities carried out by states in the implementation of OPAAW (policy making, legislations, setting up of institutions, increment of

budgetary allocations for women advancement, organisation of workshops on the issue, etc.

6. Assessment of the role and contribution of OIC institutions on the implementation of OPAAW

- a) Subsidiary organs
- b) Specialized institutions
- c) Affiliated bodies
- d) Standing committees and Islamic universities

This would be carried out through a study of their work and activities as well as their role in the implementation of OPAAW

7. Assessment of the role and contribution of civil society organizations in the implementation of OPAAW, especially study of the OIC's relations with civil society organizations and their role in the implementation of OPAAW with emphasis on the federation of private organizations in the Muslim world and the Union of Muslim parliaments in OIC Member States.

8. Assessment of the Role and Contribution of the Media in the implementation of OPAAW

Emphasis on the extent of media documentation of activities accomplished in the implementation of OPAAW and their role in highlighting the role of women in the development of Member States.

9. Assessment of the Role of and Contribution of Partners (especially with United Nations organizations and the Arab League given the existence of a Memorandum of Understanding between them and the OIC.

10. The assessment study of OPAAW will make a set of recommendations on:

- Vision and objectives of OPAAW, its clarity and agreement with the overall vision of the OIC in the context of the 2nd TYPOA.
- Challenges facing relevant parties in the implementation of OPAAW (General Secretariat, Member States, OIC institutions).
- Need for giving effect to partnership in the implementation of OPAAW and realization of the OIC's objectives on women advancement.
- Usefulness of the OPAAW implementation mechanism. Is there a need to create to new implementation mechanisms and organs in the future?

ANNEX II. ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table A.3.1. Gender Gap Index Sub-Dimensions and Data Sources

I. Economic Participation and Opportunity	
Variable	Source
Ratio: female labour force participation over male value	International Labour Organisation, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), 2012
Wage equality between women and men for similar work (converted to female-over-male ratio)	World Economic Forum, Executive Opinion Survey (EOS), 2014
Ratio: female estimated earned income over male value	World Economic Forum, calculations based on the United Nations Development Programme methodology (refer to Human Development Report 2009)
Ratio: female legislators, senior officials and managers over male value	International Labour Organisation, ILOStat online database, 2013 or latest data available
Ratio: female professional and technical workers over male value	International Labour Organisation, ILOStat online database, 2013 or latest data available
II. Educational Attainment	
Ratio: female literacy rate over male value	UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Education database, 2013 or latest data available; United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Report 2009, the most recent year available between 1997 and 2007
Ratio: female net primary enrolment rate over male value	UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Education database, 2013 or latest data available
Ratio: female net secondary enrolment rate over male value	UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Education database, 2013 or latest data available
Ratio: female gross tertiary enrolment ratio over male value	UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Education database, 2013 or latest data available
III. Health and Survival	
Sex ratio at birth (converted to female-over-male ratio)	Central Intelligence Agency, The CIA World Factbook 2014, data updated weekly
Ratio: female healthy life expectancy over male value	World Health Organisation, Global Health Observatory database, data from 2012
IV. Political Empowerment	
Ratio: females with seats in parliament over male value	Inter-Parliamentary Union, Women in Politics: 2014, reflecting elections/appointments up to 1 May 2014
Ratio: females at ministerial level over male value	Inter-Parliamentary Union, Women in Politics: 2014, reflecting appointments up to 1 January 2014, data updated every two years
Ratio: number of years of a female head of state (last 50 years) over male value	World Economic Forum calculations, 30 June 2014.

Source: Adapted from the World Economic Forum, *Global Gender Gap Report 2014*.

Table A.5.1. Maternity Social Security Legal Provision in OIC Member Countries

Country	Date of the First Law	Provider of Maternity Benefits	Length of Maternity Leave			% of Wages Paid in Period Covered
			Period	Unit	in Weeks	
Afghanistan	...	Employer	90	days	13	100
Albania	1947	Social insurance	365	calendar days	52	80, 50
Algeria	1949	Social insurance	14	weeks	14	100
Azerbaijan	1912	Social insurance	126	calendar days	18	100
Bahrain	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	45	days	6	100
Bangladesh	1939	Employer	16	weeks	16	100
Benin	1952	50% social security, 50% employer	14	weeks	14	100
Burkina Faso	1952	Social insurance and employer	14	weeks	14	100
Cameroon	1956	National social insurance fund	14	weeks	14	100
Chad	1952	Social insurance	14	weeks	14	50
Comoros	...	Employer	14	weeks	14	100
Cote d'Ivoire	1956	National social insurance fund	14	weeks	14	100
Djibouti	...	Employer	14	weeks	14	50, 100
Egypt	1959	Social security and employer	90	days	13	100
Gabon	1952	Social insurance system	14	weeks	14	50
Gambia	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	12	weeks	12	100
Guinea	1960	50% social security, 50% employer	14	weeks	14	100
Guinea-Bissau	...	Employer (if a woman affiliated to a social security scheme receives a subsidy, the employer pays the difference between the subsidy and the salary)	60	days	8,5	100
Indonesia	1957	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	3	months	13	100
Iran	1949	Social insurance	90	days	13	67
Iraq	...	Social insurance	62	days	9	100
Jordan	...	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	10	weeks	10	100
Kazakhstan	1999	Social insurance	126	calendar days	18	100
Kuwait	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	70	days	10	100
Kyrgyzstan	1922	Social security	126	calendar days	18	100
Lebanon	1963	Employer (through social insurance)	7	weeks	7	100
Libya	1957	Employer (social security for self-employed women)	50	days	7	50, 100
Malaysia	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	60	days	8,5	100
Mali	1952	Social insurance	14	weeks	14	100
Mauritania	1952	Social security fund	14	weeks	14	100
Morocco	1959	Social security	14	weeks	14	100

Mozambique	...	Employer	60	days	8,5	100
Niger	1952	Social insurance	14	weeks	14	100
Nigeria	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	12	weeks	12	50
Pakistan	1965	Employer	12	weeks	12	100
Qatar	...	Employer	50	days	7	100
Saudi Arabia	1969	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	10	weeks	10	50, 100
Senegal	1952	Social insurance	14	weeks	14	100
Somalia	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	14	weeks	14	50
Sudan	n.a.	Employer (no statutory cash benefits are provided)	8	weeks	8	100
Tajikistan	1950	Social insurance	140	calendar days	20	...
Togo	1956	50% employer, 50% social security	14	weeks	14	100
Tunisia	1960	Social insurance	1--2	months	4	67, 100
Turkey	1945	Social insurance	16	weeks	16	67
Turkmenistan	1955	Social insurance	112	days	16	100
UAE	...	Employer	45	days	6	100, 50
Uganda	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	60	days	8,5	100
Uzbekistan	1955	State social insurance scheme	126	calendar days	18	100
Yemen	n.a.	Employer (no statutory benefits are provided)	60	days	8,5	100

Source: United Nations, *Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men*

Table A.6.1. The Recognition Years of Women's Suffrage in OIC Member Countries

Country	Year Women Received Right to Vote	Year Women Received Right to Stand for Election	Year First Woman Elected (E) / Appointed (A)	Country	Year Women Received Right to Vote	Year Women Received Right to Stand for Election	Year First Woman Elected (E) / Appointed (A)
Afghanistan	1963	1963	1965	Libya	1964	1964	..
Albania	1920	1920	1945 E	Malaysia	1957	1957	1959 E
Algeria	1962	1962	1962 A	Maldives	1932	1932	1979 E
Azerbaijan	1918	1918	1990 E	Mali	1956	1956	1959 E
Bahrain	1973, 2002	1973, 2002	2002 A	Mauritania	1961	1961	1975 E
Bangladesh	1935, 1972	1935, 1972	1973 E	Morocco	1963	1963	1993 E
Benin	1956	1956	1979 E	Mozambique	1975	1975	1977 E
Brunei	NA	NA	NA	Niger	1948	1948	1989 E
Burkina Faso	1958	1958	1978 E	Nigeria	1958	1958	..
Cameroon	1946	1946	1960 E	Oman	1994, 2003	1994, 2003	..
Chad	1958	1958	1962 E	Pakistan	1935, 1947	1935, 1947	1973 E
Comoros	1956	1956	1993 E	Palestine
Cote d'Ivoire	1952	1952	1965 E	Qatar	2003
Djibouti	1946	1986	2003 E	Saudi Arabia	NA	NA	NA
Egypt	1956	1956	1957 E	Senegal	1945	1945	1963 E
Gabon	1956	1956	1961 E	Sierra Leone	1961	1961	..
Gambia	1960	1960	1982 E	Somalia	1956	1956	1979
Guinea	1958	1958	1963 E	Sudan	1964	1964	1964 E
Guinea-Bissau	1977	1977	1972 A	Suriname	1948	1948	1975 E
Guyana	1953	1945	1968 E	Tajikistan	1924	1924	1990 E
Indonesia	1945, 2003	1945	1950 A	Togo	1945	1945	1961 E
Iran	1963	1963	1963 E+A	Tunisia	1959	1959	1959 E
Iraq	1980	1980	1980	Turkey	1930, 1934	1930, 1934	1935 A
Jordan	1974	1974	1989 A	Turkmenistan	1927	1927	1990 E
Kazakhstan	1924, 1993	1924, 1993	1990 E	Uganda	1962	1962	1962 A
Kuwait	2005	2005	2005 A	U.A.E.	NA	NA	NA
Kyrgyzstan	1918	1918	1990 E	Uzbekistan	1938	1938	1990 E
Lebanon	1952	1952	1991 A	Yemen	1967, 1970	1967, 1970	1990 E

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, PARLINE database ; OECD Stat, Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base

*Data refer to the year in which the right to vote or stand for national election on a universal and equal basis was recognized. Where two years are shown, the first refers to the first partial recognition of the right to vote or stand for election. In some countries, women were granted the right to vote or stand at local elections before obtaining these rights for national elections. Data on local election rights are not included in this table.

Table A.6.2. The Number of Seats in OIC Member Countries

World Rank	Country	Lower or Single House				Upper House or Senate				Both Houses Combined		
		Elections	Seats*	Women	% W	Elections	Seats*	Women	% W	Seats*	Women	% W
39	Afghanistan	9 2010	249	69	27.7	1 2015	102	18	17.6	351	87	24.8
64	Albania	6 2013	140	29	20.7					140	29	20.7
27	Algeria	5 2012	462	146	31.6	12 2012	144	10	6.9	606	156	25.7
88	Azerbaijan	11 2010	122	19	15.6					122	19	15.6
123	Bahrain	11 2014	40	3	7.5	12 2014	40	9	22.5	80	12	15.0
68	Bangladesh	1 2014	350	70	20.0					350	70	20.0
122	Benin	4 2011	83	7	8.4					83	7	8.4
97	Burkina Faso	11 2014	90	12	13.3					90	12	13.3
31	Cameroon	9 2013	180	56	31.1	4 2013	100	20	20.0	280	76	27.1
90	Chad	2 2011	188	28	14.9					188	28	14.9
	Comoros	1 2015	33							33	0	0.0
117	Côte d'Ivoire	12 2011	251	23	9.2					251	23	9.2
102	Djibouti	2 2013	55	7	12.7					55	7	12.7
92	Gabon	12 2011	120	17	14.2	12 2014	102	19	18.6	222	36	16.2
116	Gambia	3 2012	53	5	9.4					53	5	9.4
61	Guinea	9 2013	114	25	21.9					114	25	21.9
95	Guinea-Bissau	4 2014	102	14	13.7					102	14	13.7
30	Guyana	11 2011	67	21	31.3					67	21	31.3
81	Indonesia	4 2014	555	95	17.1					555	95	17.1
132	Iran	5 2012	290	9	3.1					290	9	3.1
44	Iraq	4 2014	328	87	26.5					328	87	26.5
105	Jordan	1 2013	150	18	12.0	10 2013	75	8	10.7	225	26	11.6
45	Kazakhstan	1 2012	107	28	26.2	10 2014	47	3	6.4	154	31	20.1
136	Kuwait	7 2013	65	1	1.5					65	1	1.5
55	Kyrgyzstan	10 2010	120	28	23.3					120	28	23.3
132	Lebanon	6 2009	128	4	3.1					128	4	3.1
86	Libya	6 2014	188	30	16.0					188	30	16.0
113	Malaysia	5 2013	222	23	10.4	N.A.	59	17	28.8	281	40	14.2
128	Maldives	3 2014	85	5	5.9					85	5	5.9
115	Mali	11 2013	147	14	9.5					147	14	9.5
48	Mauritania	11 2013	147	37	25.2	11 2009	56	8	14.3	203	45	22.2
82	Morocco	11 2011	395	67	17.0	10 2009	270	6	2.2	665	73	11.0
13	Mozambique	10 2014	250	99	39.6					250	99	39.6
97	Niger	1 2011	113	15	13.3					113	15	13.3
125	Nigeria	4 2011	360	24	6.7	4 2011	109	7	6.4	469	31	6.6
137	Oman	10 2011	84	1	1.2	10 2011	83	15	18.1	167	16	9.6
64	Pakistan	5 2013	323	67	20.7	3 2012	104	17	16.3	427	84	19.7
139	Qatar	7 2013	35	0	0.0					35	0	0.0
69	Saudi Arabia	1 2013	151	30	19.9					151	30	19.9
7	Senegal	7 2012	150	64	42.7					150	64	42.7
104	Sierra Leone	11 2012	121	15	12.4					121	15	12.4
94	Somalia	8 2012	275	38	13.8					275	38	13.8
50	Sudan	4 2010	354	86	24.3	5 2010	29	5	17.2	383	91	23.8
106	Suriname	5 2010	51	6	11.8					51	6	11.8
83	Tajikistan	2 2010	59	10	16.9	3 2010	33	4	12.1	92	14	15.2
78	Togo	7 2013	91	16	17.6					91	16	17.6
30	Tunisia	10 2014	217	68	31.3					217	68	31.3
91	Turkey	6 2011	548	79	14.4					548	79	14.4
46	Turkmenistan	12 2013	124	32	25.8					124	32	25.8
79	UAE	9 2011	40	7	17.5					40	7	17.5
24	Uganda	2 2011	386	135	35.0					386	135	35.0
86	Uzbekistan	12 2014	150	24	16.0	1 2015	100	17	17.0	250	41	16.4
138	Yemen	4 2003	301	1	0.3	4 2001	111	2	1.8	412	3	0.7
	OIC		10,059	1,845	18.3		1,564	185	11.8	11,623	2,030	17.5

Source: International Parliamentary Union (IPU), PARLINE database (accessed on March 2015)

*Figures correspond to the number of seats currently filled in Parliament

Table A.6.3. The Presidents of Parliamentary Chambers in OIC Member Countries

Country	Structure of Parliament	Chamber	(F)emale / (M)ale	Name of the President
Afghanistan	Bicameral	House of Elders	M	Fazal Hadi Muselimyar
Afghanistan	Bicameral	House of the People	M	Abdul Raouf Ibrahim
Albania	Unicameral	Parliament	M	Iilir Meta
Algeria	Bicameral	National People's Assembly	M	Mohamed Larbi Ould Khelifa
Algeria	Bicameral	Council of the Nation	M	Abdelkader Bensalah
Azerbaijan	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Oqtay S. Asadov
Bahrain	Bicameral	Shura Council	M	Ali Bin Saleh Al-Saleh
Bahrain	Bicameral	Council of Representatives	M	Ahmed Bin Ebrahim Almulla
Bangladesh	Unicameral	Parliament	F	Shirin Sharmin Chaudhury
Benin	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Mathurin Nago
Burkina Faso	Unicameral	Transitional National Council	M	Moumina Chériff Sy
Cameroon	Bicameral	Senate	M	Marcel Niat Njifenji
Cameroon	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Djibril Cavayé Yeguie
Chad	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Haroun Kabadi
Comoros	Unicameral	Assembly of the Union	M	Abdou Oussen
Côte d'Ivoire	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Guillaume Soro
Djibouti	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Mohamed Ali Houmed
Gabon	Bicameral	Senate	F	Lucie Milebou-Aubusson
Gabon	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Guy Nzouba-Ndama
Gambia	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Abdoulie Bojang
Guinea	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Claude Kory Kondiano
Guinea-Bissau	Unicameral	People's National Assembly	M	Cipriano Cassamá
Guyana	Unicameral	National Assembly of the Parliament of the Co-operative Republic of Guyana	M	Raphael G.C. Trotman
Indonesia	Unicameral	House of Representatives	M	Setya Novanto
Iran	Unicameral	Islamic Parliament of Iran	M	Ali Ardeshir Larijani
Iraq	Unicameral	Council of Representatives of Iraq	M	Saleem Al-Jubouri
Jordan	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Atef Tarawneh
Jordan	Bicameral	Senate	M	Abdur-Rauf Rawabdeh
Kazakhstan	Bicameral	Senate	M	Kassym-Jomart Tokayev
Kazakhstan	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Kabibulla Jakupov
Kuwait	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Marzouq Ali M. Al-Ghanim
Kyrgyzstan	Unicameral	Supreme Council	M	Asilbek Jeenbekov
Lebanon	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Nabih Berry
Libya	Unicameral	House of Representatives	M	Aguila Salah Issa
Malaysia	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Tan Sri Pandikar Amin Haji Mulia
Malaysia	Bicameral	Senate	M	Tan Sri Abu Zahar Dato Nika Ujang
Maldives	Unicameral	People's Majlis	M	Abdulla Maseeh Mohamed
Mali	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Issaka Sidibé
Mauritania	Bicameral	Senate	M	Mohamed El Hacem Ould El Hadj
Mauritania	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Mohamed Ould Boilil
Morocco	Bicameral	House of Councillors	M	Mohamed Cheikh Biadillah

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Morocco	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Rachid Talbi Alami
Mozambique	Unicameral	Assembly of the Republic	F	Verónica Nataniel Macamo Dlovo
Niger	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Amadou Salifou
Nigeria	Bicameral	Senate	M	David Mark
Nigeria	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Aminu Tambuwal
Oman	Bicameral	Consultative Council	M	Khalid bin Hilal bin Nasir Al Ma'awali
Oman	Bicameral	State Council	M	Yahya bin Mahfoudh Al Manthri
Pakistan	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Sardar Ayaz Sadiq
Pakistan	Bicameral	Senate	M	Mian Raza Rabbani
Qatar	Unicameral	Advisory Council	M	Mohamed Bin Mubarak Al-Khulaifi
Saudi Arabia	Unicameral	Consultative Council	M	Abdullah Al Sheikh
Senegal	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Moustapha Niasse
Sierra Leone	Unicameral	Parliament	M	Sheku Badara Bashiru Dumbuya
Somalia	Unicameral	House of the People	M	Mohammed Sheikh Osman (Jawari)
Sudan	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Alfatih Izz Alden Almonsour
Sudan	Bicameral	Council of States	M	Adam Hamid Musa
Suriname	Unicameral	National Assembly	F	Jennifer Geerlings-Simons
Tajikistan	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Shukurjon Zuhurov
Tajikistan	Bicameral	National Assembly	M	Mahmadsaid Ubaidulloev
Togo	Unicameral	National Assembly	M	Dama Dramani
Tunisia	Unicameral	Assembly of People's Representatives	M	Mohamed Ennaceur
Turkey	Unicameral	Grand National Assembly of Turkey	M	Cemil Çiçek
Turkmenistan	Unicameral	Assembly	F	Akja Tajiyewna Nurberdiyewa
Uganda	Unicameral	Parliament	F	Rebecca Kadaga
UAE	Unicameral	Federal National Council	M	Mohammad Ahmad Al Mur
Uzbekistan	Bicameral	Senate	M	Nigmatulla Yuldashev
Uzbekistan	Bicameral	Legislative Chamber	M	Nuriddinjon Ismailov
Yemen	Bicameral	House of Representatives	M	Yahya Ali AL-Raee
Yemen	Bicameral	Consultative Council	M	Abdul Rahman Ali Othman

Source: International Parliamentary Union (IPU), PARLINE database (accessed on March 2015)

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