

# **Proposal for an African Wellbeing Index**

**African Union Commission, Department of Social Affairs**

Table of Contents	
<b>Abbreviations</b> .....	<b>2</b>
<b>Executive Summary</b> .....	<b>3</b>
<b>Purpose:</b> .....	<b>3</b>
<b>2. Conceptual and Policy Background</b> .....	<b>5</b>
<b>3. Rationale and Proposed Approach</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>4. Technical Constraints</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>5. African Wellbeing Index Dimensions and Components</b> .....	<b>26</b>
<b>6. African Child Wellbeing Index</b> .....	<b>29</b>
<b>7. Recommendations</b> .....	<b>30</b>
<b>Bibliography</b> .....	<b>32</b>

## **Abbreviations**

ACERWC	African Committee of Experts on the Rights & Welfare of the Child
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights & Welfare of the Child
ACPF	African Child Policy Forum
AfDB	African Development Bank
AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
AUC	African Union Commission
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
AWDF	African Women’s Development Fund
CPI	Corruption Perception Index
CPRC	Chronic Poverty Research Centre
DAC	Development Assistance Committee of OECD
DHS	Demographic & Health Survey
DSA	Department for Social Affairs (AUC)
ECCD	Early Childhood Care & Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNH	Gross National Happiness (Bhutan)
HDI	Human Development Index
HIS	Integrated Household Survey
IIAG	Ibrahim Index of African Governance
LSMS	Living Standards Measurement Surveys
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MIS	Management Information Systems (of sector ministries)
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MPI	Multi-dimensional Poverty Index
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ONS	Office for National Statistics (UK)
PEFA	Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability
REC	Regional Economic Community
SD	Standard Deviation
SWB	Subjective Well-Being
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
VAWG	Violence Against Women and Girls
WHS	World Health Survey

## Executive Summary

The African Union committed, in its 2010 Implementation Strategy for the Social Policy Framework for Africa, to developing an African Wellbeing Index by 2012, which could confirm evidence that good social policy is being effected and the lives of all citizens improved. This paper explores global and African experience with defining and measuring wellbeing and the theoretical and practical problems associated with doing so. Despite these problems, it is possible to construct a meaningful Wellbeing Index with a sufficient range of available data across Africa in line with Africa's own goals that are emerging for its post-2015 agenda. An African Wellbeing Index will enable governments to monitor their overall progress towards these goals and identify policies and programmes that are increasing their citizens' wellbeing. The paper also recommends that a parallel African Child Wellbeing Index should be generated that will enable governments to see that they are investing in policies that will benefit future generations. The African Union should use its convening power to get agreement on the structure of the African Wellbeing Index and negotiate with various statistical institutions, including the African Centre for Statistics and the African Symposium on Statistics Development, to generate comparable data across all Member States that include community based monitoring. Several Member States and the African Child Policy Forum have already embarked on such work. The paper suggests generating the Wellbeing Index with four dimensions of Opportunity, Social Inclusion, Security, Governance, each constructed from components and sub-component indicators that are, in principle, available. The sense of "community belonging" is included in the dimension of Social Inclusion, while aspects of the Plan of Action on the Family in Africa have been included in a number of indicators for sub-components of the Wellbeing Index.

## Purpose:

- 1.1. The African Union Commission, through its Department for Social Affairs, wishes to generate a realistic composite measure of Wellbeing that is consistent with Africa's targets, its shared values and the interests of her peoples and nations. The AUC will develop a measurable standardised African Wellbeing Index that can be adopted by all national statistical systems. Through disaggregation, it will be capable of identifying social categories whose wellbeing is significantly lower than the national average. It will also enable countries to assess progress towards raised wellbeing.
- 1.2. This paper<sup>1</sup> sets out how to achieve an African Wellbeing Index that will require the agreement of countries and technical data collection and statistical analysis institutions in a process of finalising the structure of the Index and its data sourcing. The footnotes provide more background detail and coverage of the literature for what is a technically complex task. The resulting African Wellbeing Index should be a presentationally simple index that helps improve policy and investment focus to better address multi-dimensional poverty and to maximise the

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<sup>1</sup> The author, Dennis Pain of ACTS Consultancy [www.acts-consultancy.com](http://www.acts-consultancy.com), wishes to thank various colleagues for commenting on the final draft, including Charles Lwanga-Ntale and Chrystelle Temah Tsafack.

wellbeing of most citizens and seek to eliminate the conditions that result in low wellbeing for certain categories who currently may be socially excluded.

## 2. Conceptual and Policy Background

*Background to the concept and measurement of wellbeing and its relationship to AU policies and best practices and AU values and ambition*

There is increasing global interest in measuring wellbeing, with consideration of various dimensions, material, social, psychological, political and environmental, having internal and external components relating to access and outcomes with a range of objective and subjective indicators. These can measure the capability of people to function in a given society and their feelings about their functioning, often relative to others. A Wellbeing Index can contribute to policy design and policy appraisal as well as monitoring overall progress. An African Wellbeing Index needs to be aligned with Africa's ambitions for a post-2015 agenda from an African perspective. Wellbeing is clearly much more than a measure of economic prosperity.

- 2.1. Various measures of human development progress have been used to capture a range of aspects. Most of these have been measures of outcomes as a result of government interventions. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were developed over a period prior to 2000 and revised through negotiations between the UN, DAC, World Bank and IMF to produce in 2001 the MDGs. One strength of the MDGs is that these broadened the debate from a narrow focus on formal measured economic growth<sup>2</sup>.
- 2.2. There have been various attempts to combine indicators into single composite indicators of human development. The UNDP HDI (Human Development Index), in its annual reports, uses a composite index combining the 3 dimensions of Health (measured by life expectancy at birth), Education (measured by mean years of schooling combined with expected years of schooling) and Living Standards (measured by Gross National Income per capita). The newer Multi-Dimensional Poverty Index (MPI), used for the first time in the 2010 Report, measures the same three dimensions by 10 indicators (nutrition; child mortality; years of schooling; children enrolled; cooking fuel; toilet; water; electricity; floor; assets)<sup>3</sup>. There

<sup>2</sup> The Goals include: eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; achieving universal primary education; promoting gender equality and empowering women; reducing child mortality rates; improving maternal health; combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensuring environmental sustainability; and developing a global partnership for development.

<sup>3</sup> See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/hdi/>. The author of this multi-dimensional poverty index, Sabina Alkire, has explained the approach as follows: "The MPI measure has meaning in itself and can also be broken down immediately into its component parts. Every time you see an MPI figure – for a person, an ethnic group, a state, or a country – you know that it also contains what could be thought of as a drop-down menu in two layers. The first layer shows incidence and intensity. The second breaks the MPI down by indicator and shows what poverty is made of. If we know someone is income poor, we do not know if they are also illiterate or malnourished. If we know someone is multidimensionally poor, we can unpack the MPI to see how they are poor. That is one added value of our methodology. That is why we call it a high resolution lens: you can zoom in and see more. This feature could add value to the MDG indicators too. These show us the percentage of people who are malnourished, and the rate of child mortality and many other things, but not how the deprivations overlap. If 30% of people are malnourished and 30% of children are out of school, it would be useful to know if these deprivations affect the same families or different ones. With the MDG indicators we cannot see that; with the MPI, we can. ... The method first determines the dimensions in which a person is deprived, and then 'adds up' that person's deprivations using weights that reflect the relative importance of each deprivation. A person who is sufficiently 'multiply deprived' is considered poor. We measure multidimensional poverty as the incidence (or the percentage of the population that is poor) times the intensity (or the average percentage of deprivations poor people experience)". Alkire notes that Sen makes pertinent observations in favour of setting weights, provided the weighting is transparent: "first, prices may not exist for some aspects of poverty (morbidity, mortality, illiteracy) but giving zero weight to these does not seem right either. Second, setting precise weights may not be necessary: comparisons may be robust to a range of weights. Third, the weights trigger public debates which may be constructive as policy makers weight tradeoffs in practice anyway". – see the July 2010 Oxfam blog *From Poverty to Power* on <http://www.oxfamblogs.org/fp2p/?p=3092>. Technical Note 4 of the HDI provides the methodology for calculating the MPI – see <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/mpi/>.

have also been Indexes of gender equality, including the African Gender & Development Index.

- 2.3. These indicators have not taken into account people's own perceptions of development and how their lives are improving. Self-perception of wellbeing may be a more important measure of progress than government's measures of wellbeing. "In relation to financial situation, perceptions can be more important to life satisfaction than objective circumstances. ... On the whole, people's perceptions of their circumstances (domain perceptions) often provide more explanatory power than models that rely on objective circumstances alone. There is strong evidence from abroad that trust (in other people and public institutions such as policy and government) is significantly associated with wellbeing<sup>4</sup>". Once a certain GDP per capita is reached, the strength of the relationship between income and reported levels of happiness declines markedly – the "Easterlin" paradox suggests that "reported happiness has remained broadly level in the US over 30 years while GDP per head in real terms has continued on an upward trend"<sup>5</sup>. Easterlin argues that subjective wellbeing depends on individuals' relative economic position<sup>6</sup>, showing that equality not only has benefits for individual wellbeing, but also for national wellbeing and prosperity, as has been shown from analysis of Brazil's and Indonesia's success in promoting growth with equity<sup>7</sup>.
- 2.4. There is likely to be disagreement between external objective measures and internal subjective measures. The latter may relate partly to relative wellbeing as individuals compare their position relative to others in the same society. Comparing subjective measures of wellbeing between societies will not produce a parallel measure with objective measures of wellbeing. Where expectations are high, possibly fuelled by knowledge of inequity in access to basic services and inequalities in outcomes within a nation or between nations, then wellbeing satisfaction may be lower, with individuals comparing their situation both with past experience and with perceptions of others' position. If overall objective standards improve, but with increasing inequality, then people may report lower subjective wellbeing, as different social groups experience different levels of wellbeing, relating to their actual own, and perception of others', access to basic services and inequalities in outcomes, depending on age, sex, disability, location, wealth status etc. However, subjective quality of life, taking account of many intangibles felt by individuals and communities, is what determines consequent behaviour.
- 2.5. While there has been much theoretical debate internationally, there have been increasing practical attempts to generate measures of wellbeing, with Bhutan's measure of gross national happiness moving from the periphery of development

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<sup>4</sup> See Newton (2007)

<sup>5</sup> See UK ONS: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/hub/people-places/communities/societal-wellbeing/index.html>

<sup>6</sup> See Harkness (2007) p 89.

<sup>7</sup> See African Union (2012b) p 24 in relation to social protection in Brazil and Indonesia.

debates to being discussed in international fora and presenting a challenge on the quality and limits of development in advanced economies. Europe has recently started piloting indicators of wellbeing in its national statistics system. Academics have recognized the technical problems in measuring wellbeing that permit comparison between communities and over time. However, the difficulties can be surmounted and measures generated that permit comparison between Member States.

2.6. Joseph Stiglitz and Amartya Sen were asked by President Sarkozy to consider how to measure wellbeing. The Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi report (2009) suggests that using changes in GDP as the only measure of national well-being is insufficient and that other measures of the economy than GDP should be used together with wider measures of social progress, the state of the environment and sustainability. “In principle these dimensions should be considered simultaneously: (i) material living standards (income, consumption and wealth); (ii) Health; (iii) Education; (iv) Personal activities including work; (v) Political voice and governance; (vi) Social connections and relationships; (vii) Environment (present and future conditions); (viii) Insecurity, of an economic as well as physical nature”<sup>8</sup>. Subsequent international responses to this report include OECD’s *Better Life* initiative and Eurostat’s Sponsorship Group on *Measuring progress, well-being and sustainable development*.

2.7. It is difficult to come up with an agreed definition of national well-being and many attempts have been made, over a long period of time, to define it. Dolan, Layard and Metcalfe in a 2011 paper for the UK ONS<sup>9</sup> suggest that there are three uses for any subjective well-being (SWB) measure: (i) monitoring progress; (ii) informing policy design; and (iii) policy appraisal. They distinguished three broad types of SWB: (i) evaluation (“global” assessments); (ii) experience (feelings over short periods of time); and (iii) ‘eudemonic’ (reports of purpose and meaning and worthwhile things in life). Earlier work by Dolan et al (2006)<sup>10</sup> outlined five main approaches to the measurement of individual well-being, which is generally agreed to be at the heart of understanding national well-being<sup>11</sup>:

- *Objective lists approach* – this approach involves defining an objective list of needs or conditions which foster well-being. Well-being can then be measured as to the extent to which these needs are met

<sup>8</sup> Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi (2009) para 28.

<sup>9</sup> See also earlier UK work for Defra summarised in Julie Newton (2007) of the “Wellbeing in Developing Countries” Research Group at the University of Bath, who presented summaries of four Defra-funded research projects.

<sup>10</sup> See Dolan, Peasgood & White (2006) where they grouped these under the description of Subjective Well-Being (SWB). See also Lord (Richard) Layard and “Action for Happiness” foundation: see <http://www.actionforhappiness.org/> See also The Wellbeing Institute, University of Cambridge, Director Prof Felicia Huppert <http://www.cambridgewellbeing.org>

<sup>11</sup> Theoretical approaches are also discussed in the paper ‘Developing a Framework for Understanding and Measuring National Well-being’ which was published as a supplementary paper to ‘Measuring what Matters’ (the National Statistician’s Reflections on the National Debate on Measuring National Well-being) which can be found at the UK ONS website: <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/guide-method/user-guidance/well-being/index.html>. The link between sustainable development and wellbeing has been explored in [http://collections.europarchive.org/tna/20080530153425/http://www.defra.gov.uk/science/project\\_data/DocumentLibrary/SD12007/SD12007\\_4606\\_FRP.pdf](http://collections.europarchive.org/tna/20080530153425/http://www.defra.gov.uk/science/project_data/DocumentLibrary/SD12007/SD12007_4606_FRP.pdf)

- *Preference satisfaction approach* – this is an economic approach. It assumes that people make rational choices and use their resources to satisfy their wants and desires (preferences). Income can therefore be used as a proxy for well-being as people’s well-being will be highest when they have more income with which to satisfy their preferences (to the extent that preferences can be bought with money)
- *Hedonic approach* – here, well-being is defined as the balance between pleasure and pain
- *Evaluative approach* – this approach is based on people’s assessment of how well their life is going. Here, well-being can only be judged by the individual themselves rather than by some objective measurement
- *‘Capabilities and functioning’ approach*, based on the work of Amartya Sen

2.8. Although there are a number of different approaches that can be taken when trying to define well-being, there is a considerable degree of overlap in what these approaches suggest should be measured. These include:

- people’s material living standards (income, expenditure, housing conditions)
- health
- education and skills
- work (not just employment but the quality of people’s working lives)
- leisure time and individual relationships
- subjective well-being (emotions, life satisfaction and sense of meaning and purpose)

2.9. ONS' method of measuring individuals' reports about their own well-being (subjective well-being) is a broad based approach that not only takes account of evaluative (life satisfaction) and hedonic (positive and negative emotions) measurement but also draws from the psychological approach (also sometimes referred to as functioning, flourishing or eudemonic approach). The UK's annual Integrated Household Survey (IHS) introduced 4 complementary satisfaction perception questions on wellbeing in 2011 and began an open-access national debate on the questions and the domains to be assessed. ONS recognises that there is more to the psychological approach than a single measure<sup>12</sup>.

2.10. Veenhoven, after reviewing many approaches to defining and measuring wellbeing, generated a matrix that distinguished life chances in terms of access and means, from life results, in terms of outcomes, and also distinguished external qualities in the environment from internal qualities located within the individual. This generated four qualities of life:

<sup>12</sup> For more on above, see: <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/guide-method/user-guidance/well-being/publications/index.html> , particularly “Measuring National Well-being – summaries of proposed domains and measures, published by ONS 24 July 2012 Accessed 8 Oct 2012, which shows the range of indicators available from various data sources. See also: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/hub/people-places/communities/societal-wellbeing> and <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/index.html> and the Research tab plus “Attitudinal Indicators” under <http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org>. See Huppert et al (2009).

	Outer qualities	Inner qualities
Life chances	<i>Liveability of environment</i>	<i>Life-ability of the person</i>
Life results	<i>Utility of life</i>	<i>Appreciation of life</i>

Veenhoven pointed out that three of these qualities, liveability, life-ability and utility of life, could not be measured comprehensively, but that “only happiness can be measured completely, because it is an over-all judgment in itself” and that it would be hard to meaningfully add *chances* and *outcomes*<sup>13</sup>. “Subjective happiness implies two things: first, the minimal conditions for humans thriving are apparently met and, second, the fit between opportunities and capacities must be sufficient”<sup>14</sup>.

2.11. Bhutan’s reporting for an index of Gross National Happiness (GNH) has nine dimensions, assessing both objective and subjective measures obtained through direct surveys, of: psychological wellbeing; time availability; community vitality; culture; health; education; ecological diversity; living standard; governance<sup>15</sup>. The GNH Index is then constructed identifying anyone with sufficiency in all 9 dimensions as “happy” and shortfalls aggregated. The Bhutan approach, with its inclusion of community vitality and culture, has much in common with African values.

2.12. An agreed measure that can be regularly generated by national statistical systems will enable comparisons and monitoring through such instruments as the African Peer Review Mechanism. The African Union’s Social Policy Framework for Africa in its Implementation Strategy (2010) committed to “progress Indicators that will confirm evidence that good social policy is being effected in order to achieve these”, including a “new Africa Well-being Index agreed by 2012 and reported on by 25 countries by 2014 and 35 by 2015”<sup>16</sup>. The African Wellbeing Index needs to be aligned with Africa’s ambitions for a post-2015 agenda from an African perspective<sup>17</sup>. It should also include measures in the five focus areas of harmful practices affecting women and girls, namely: sexual and gender-based violence, both inside and outside the home; removal of choice in marriage; sexual initiation and female genital cutting; opportunity marginalization; and land and inheritance exclusion<sup>18</sup>.

<sup>13</sup> Veenhoven (2006) page 77ff, with quotation from p 95.

<sup>14</sup> Veenhoven (2006) p 96.

<sup>15</sup> See e.g. Kroll (2011) and the short guide on <http://www.grossnationalhappiness.com> accessed on 8 Oct 2012, which provides a technical explanation of the domains and indicators and their aggregation into the index.

<sup>16</sup> African Union (2010) Social Policy Framework for Africa – Implementation Strategy: para 22h.

<sup>17</sup> See draft paper on Africa’s Post-2015 Goals (African Union 2012b).

<sup>18</sup> See report on Harmful Traditional Practices towards Women and Girls in Africa (African Union 2012a). In this regard the component indicators proposed below include: Percentage of women aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence during the last 12 months; median age of marriage within an African Child Wellbeing Index; female genital cutting and sexual initiation within an African Child Wellbeing Index; ratio of women in formal employment and secondary completion rate of girls; rights of women and girls to property and land inheritance.

### 3. Rationale and Proposed Approach

*Rationale for, and proposed approach to, measuring wellbeing in Africa as a composite index, including disaggregation and aggregation, with proposed component indicators*

An African Wellbeing Index, utilising objective and subjective measures, covering capabilities for living a life with dignity and individual and community control over decisions affecting the lives of all citizens and their perceptions of personal and community security will need to assess aspects of the four dimensions of Opportunity, Social Inclusion, Security and Governance. Although many social categories within a nation will have different experiences of their wellbeing at any one time and through their life-cycle, it is proposed that a special sub-index of an African Child Wellbeing Index should be generated in addition to the African Wellbeing Index. It is clear that chronic poverty as an accumulation of multiple deprivations, often compounded by discrimination, can ensure inter-generational transmission of poverty which sustained growth does little to address.

- 3.1. An African Wellbeing Index should ideally combine (i) absolute objective measures of access to the capabilities for living a life with dignity; together with (ii) measures of relative access to public and private goods within a society, with complete equality of access measuring highest; and (iii) subjective measures of psychological wellbeing<sup>19</sup>, including physical, social, emotional and spiritual dimensions, combining together to give a sense of community and belonging; and (iv) indicators of control over decisions affecting the lives of individuals and communities; and (v) perceptions of personal security, predictability and opportunity. In practice, these five measures with their multiple components contribute to the choice of Dimensions and inform the components proposed for generating the African Wellbeing Index. Some measure of the sense of belonging to a community, central to most African conceptualisation and definition of wellbeing, is included below as a sub-component of the Social Inclusion Dimension. It could be argued that this should be a Dimension in itself, providing it greater weighting in the overall Wellbeing Index. Sub-components of “control over decisions affecting the lives of individuals and communities”, included under Governance & Empowerment and role of pensions enabling older persons to live a life of dignity, speak to the same issue of belonging to a community.
- 3.2. Wellbeing indicators will draw on a number of indicators for Africa’s post-2015 development goals in the domains of (1) **Opportunity** - Decent Work & Economic Growth (depth of poverty and inclusive growth); (2) **Social Inclusion** for effective human development with respect to basic services and outcomes, as well as the capability and feeling of belonging to a community; (3) **Security**, both personal and national, but also environmental; (4) **Governance and Empowerment**, providing basic rights to development and accountable and responsive governance, with communities included in monitoring their own wellbeing.

<sup>19</sup> See e.g. Abbott et al (2006) <http://www.springerlink.com/content/u257w4tr3x14461t/fulltext.pdf> which takes Ryff’s scales of Psychological Well-Being (PWB) designed to measure six theoretically motivated constructs of psychological wellbeing: autonomy – independence and self-determination; environmental mastery – the ability to manage one’s life; personal growth – being open to new experiences; positive relations with others – having satisfying high quality relationships; purpose in life – believing that one’s life is meaningful; and self-acceptance – a positive attitude towards oneself and one’s past life. Such constructs could be developed by Afrobarometer or other for standardised use across Africa.

3.3. Partly by disaggregating for age, but with specific child related indicators, there should be the capability to generate an **African Child Wellbeing Index** that also addresses children’s ambitions, hopes and expectations for a future that fulfils their potential, without allowing irreversible damage in the early years<sup>20</sup>. High levels of child wellbeing will have an impact on national wellbeing, but may also raise productivity due to positive human capital formation. “The expansion of educational opportunities for girls in particular is correlated with reduced gender inequalities, declining fertility rates, and reductions in child mortality”<sup>21</sup>. Assessing wellbeing through the various stages of the life-cycle could be valuable, including for older persons, whose wellbeing has impact on the whole family and its sense of wellbeing. The loss of assured family care and respect for older persons, their increasing vulnerability and loss of moral authority and central role in the family, all show a loss of traditional African wellbeing.

3.4. **Social exclusion** is a serious threat to certain individuals’ and national wellbeing, threatening social, political and economic stability and prosperity<sup>22</sup>. Each Member State may have various forms of social exclusion, based on location, ethnicity, religious identity, age, disability, gender, educational status, wealth ranking or other diacritica of identity. Policy and programme regard for diversity, which reduces the risks of conflict as well as increases a nation’s depth in quality of human resources, is a clear indicator of wellbeing. This could be measured by appropriate disaggregation by identity category of a number of social development indicators and providing a mean ratio of lowest to highest values of, say, 3 pairings of the most disparate social categories across a set of 8 indicators – MMR; child mortality; moderate stunting; girls’ completed secondary education and quality of early primary learning; safe drinking water; slum housing; rate of labour force participation<sup>23</sup>. This relates to the indicators for those with the poorest outcomes among Africa’s Post-2015 goals<sup>24</sup>. However, such an approach would be complex and not readily transparent and require a larger sampling base than the current Afrobarometer surveys or even DHS offer. It would provide a strong composite indicator for the degree overall nationally of social exclusion in terms of differential access and outcomes. Another approach would be to generate overall wellbeing indices for different social categories, which would invite the dual problems of lack of sufficient sample base to generate such disaggregated composite indices as well as that of potential for balancing out inequalities in opposite directions<sup>25</sup>. A less satisfactory approach, recommended here, is to generate a simple, composite indicator of overall access to key services. This could

<sup>20</sup> For example, see UNICEF 2011, drawing on the UNICEF-supported ongoing Global Study on Child Poverty and Disparities, taking place in 52 countries, including 22 African Union Member States.

<sup>21</sup> Harkness (2007) p 103.

<sup>22</sup> See Harkness (2007).

<sup>23</sup> It would be necessary to combine no more than 4 diacritica to define a category – e.g. (i) Rural women in the east with urban women, for MMR; (ii) households in poorest quintile in the north east with wealthiest quintile of households in the capital, for child mortality or for moderately stunted percentage less than – 2SD below average height-for-age in under 5-year olds; (iii) rural girls aged 15 – 19 from the north compared to urban girls aged 15 – 19 in the south, for completed secondary education; (iv) households in poorest rural quintile in south-west with households in wealthiest quintile in rural central, for access to a currently functioning safe drinking water supply within 1km; (v)

<sup>24</sup> African Union (2012) Proposed African Development Goals and indicators, Annexe 1.

then be weighted by one measure of social exclusion, such as the factor of the percentage of those with a recognised disability that have completed primary school, if this could be collected by DHS or other means. This would act as a proxy for other excluded groups. Also included here is the sense of belonging to a community in terms of trust and levels of “social capital”<sup>26</sup>.

3.5. Higher income inequality results in reduced impact of economic growth on human development<sup>27</sup>. For both its impact on national performance and in light of the Easterlin factor relating to subjective wellbeing, income inequality measures should inversely contribute to the wellbeing index. Related to this, the existence of basic income support for the most vulnerable, which can protect them from the greatest risks of not sustaining a life with dignity, is a positive indicator for wellbeing as well as contributing to social development and indirectly to economic growth. The wellbeing contribution could be measured by linear scores for a country’s Gini coefficient for income or another measure of income inequality such as the ratio of income of the richest quintile to the income of the poorest quintile<sup>28</sup>.

3.6. Chronic poverty and its multi-dimensionality, as opposed to transient poverty, is what prevents households from breaking out of poverty and almost guarantees that poverty is transmitted from one generation to another. This has been well researched by the Chronic Poverty Research Centre over a decade from 2001 – 2011<sup>29</sup>. As chronic poverty declines in a country, “it becomes more concentrated in socially and politically marginalised communities and regions”<sup>30</sup>. CPRC “research shows people are trapped by combinations of insecurity, poor work opportunities, locational disadvantage, limited citizenship and discrimination”<sup>31</sup>. Although not capturing the multi-dimensionality of chronic poverty, which effectively only panel data can provide, and the threats to wellbeing that the chronic poor experience

<sup>25</sup> See some discussion of the problem of balancing out with regard to the Gender Equity Index in Klasen (2007) p 177. An underlying problem here is the variability of wellbeing and its characteristics across social categories, life-cycle stages and locales. However, if these were determined at a more disaggregated level, then it would not be possible to generalise on broad trends across these characteristics and between countries. More nuanced indices would have lower impact on broad policy directions and national performance in delivering improved wellbeing for all.

<sup>26</sup> See De Luca & Verpoorten (2012).

<sup>27</sup> Harkness (2007) p 102, drawing on Bruno et al (1996).

<sup>28</sup> The Gini Coefficient is a measure of the deviation of the distribution of income (or consumption) among individuals or households within a country from a perfectly equal distribution. A value of 0 represents absolute equality, a value of 100 absolute inequality. One could construct an indicator such as the cube of the inverse of the Gini coefficient divided by 100, which would give income equality score ranges for example of: 5 for South Africa (2000); 5 for Angola (2000); 7 for Rwanda (2005); 9 for Kenya (2005); 12 for Uganda (2009); 13 for Ghana (2006); 15 for Tunisia (2000); 17 for Senegal (2005); 25 for Togo (2006); 25 for Niger (2007); 30 for Egypt (2005); 38 for Ethiopia (2005); compared with 15 for the USA, 44 for Germany, 58 for Norway or 64 for Sweden (all in 2000). Indonesia (2009) would have an equality score of 20, while Brazil (2009) would have an equality score of 6, but up from only 4 in 1990 – calculated from UNDP International Human Development Indicators – Income Gini Coefficient: <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/indicators/67106.html> accessed 20 Oct 2012. A grossly unequal income distribution with a Gini coefficient of 80 would give an equality score of only 2 i.e.  $((0.8)^{-1})^3$ . A simpler, but less discriminating, method is simply to provide a linear score for countries for their ordinal position with a Gini coefficient above 80 scoring 0; 70-79 = 1; 60-69 = 2; 50-59 = 3; 45-49 = 4; 40-44 = 5; 35-39 = 6; 30-34 = 7; 25-29 = 8. This gives South Africa, Angola & Rwanda scores of 3; Kenya a score of 4; Uganda, Ghana & Tunisia scores of 5; Senegal a score of 6; Togo, Niger & Egypt scores of 7; Ethiopia a score of 8, compared to Norway at 8 and USA at 5.

<sup>29</sup> For research analysis and policy recommendations by the Chronic Poverty Research Centre, including the international experience and recognition of social transfers as instruments that address chronic and extreme poverty, see <http://www.chronicpoverty.org/>. 8 of the 10 focus countries for the research were in sub-Saharan Africa.

<sup>30</sup> Shepherd et al, CPRC (2011) p 18.

<sup>31</sup> Shepherd et al, CPRC (2011) p 23.

almost continuously, the poverty gap ratio<sup>32</sup> is one measure that can highlight where chronic poverty is undermining national wellbeing. It will not identify, however, those social categories who are more prone to chronic poverty, whether the young, the old, those living in certain areas, minorities suffering discrimination and those with health problems or disabilities.

- 3.7. Access to decent work and regulated labour markets with inherent social protection mechanisms provide people with opportunity to fulfil their potential and ensure their households have access to lives of dignity. High unemployment and underemployment or unprotected informal economy employment affect directly those not in decent work and indirectly generate insecurity for all and their expectation for a predictable household developmental cycle, which in turn undermines national wellbeing. Measures of those in formal employment offer only a proxy for the sense of employment and income security.
- 3.8. Political and civil rights have a major impact on individuals' and communities' subjective wellbeing, yet have been neglected in much of the development statistics<sup>33</sup>.
- 3.9. There is an implicit expectation in much of the development literature relating to indicators of progress that assumes no limit to growth in the sense of what is optimal in any indicator. However, there is now broader consensus for the view that the relationship between economic growth or income and wellbeing is not linear nor even necessarily correlated.
- 3.10. Growth can also be artificially created at the expense of excluded groups or of future generations or of increasing the skills, opportunities and income of many, particularly where such "reckless growth" is built on extraction of raw materials that are not renewable, such as timber extraction for export resulting in irreversible deforestation, or excessive fishing that depletes sustainable fish stocks as has been happening off the coast of Africa and in some of its lakes, or oil or mineral extraction that destroys the environment for future livelihoods. Such minority-interest exploitation may contribute to wider global problems of climate change, risking the wellbeing of the most vulnerable, particularly those living in marginal environments, whose livelihoods have previously been well adapted to, and protective of, such marginal environments. Such improved wellbeing of one

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<sup>32</sup> "Poverty Gap Ratio: - expresses the total amount of money which would be needed to raise the poor from their present incomes (y) to the poverty line (z), as a proportion of the poverty line, and averaged over the total population, which measures the **depth** of poverty. The MDG's definition for Target 2 is: Poverty gap ratio is the mean distance separating the population from the poverty line (with the non-poor being given a distance of zero), expressed as a percentage of the poverty line.

<sup>33</sup> The most credible Index in this area is that produced by the Mo Ibrahim Foundation that draws on over 20 institutions and publicly available indices see <http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org/IIAG-methodology/> for data sources and methodology. The methodology of the Freedom House *Freedom in the World Survey's* political rights ratings and civil liberties ratings, combined to give a country's freedom rating, is based on judgments by a team of regional experts and scholars on 10 political rights and 15 civil rights questions, scored from 0 – 4, with an emphasis on actual practices rather than presence of legislation in theory. The sub-categories are related to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights – see <http://www.freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world-2011/methodology> Freedom House also produces a *Freedom of the Press Index*. The Freedom House ratings are used, among many other data sources and indicators, to contribute to the Ibrahim Index IIAG civil liberties and freedom of expression clustered indicators and to the IIAG political rights indicator.

generation at the expense of the wellbeing of future generations is hard to measure at a given point in time.

## 4. Technical Constraints

*Technical constraints and recommendations regarding measurement, data collection & analysis and comparability*

erating a Wellbeing Index, there are many technical constraints of aggregation of disparate indicators and the need to generate ordinal scales and the problems of disaggregating to see how wellbeing is experienced by different social categories across a nation. This is particularly apparent in comparing the wellbeing experienced by women and girls compared to that experienced by men and boys. Some may choose to forego their personal or immediate wellbeing in order to increase overall household wellbeing or that of the next generation. Certain private goods, such as education, may also have an element of public good for the whole household or community. The high value placed in Africa on family and community is not easily assessed in terms of wellbeing. Problems of data availability and quality are significant, but can be addressed through the AUC negotiating with those who generate data at regional and national levels, including community based monitoring. The African Wellbeing Index will assist APRM reviews.

- 4.1. A number of issues are addressed below that cover a range of technical and statistical problems in generating any wellbeing index that is more than simplistic: data quality and availability; subjective and objective measures; access versus outcomes; use of normalisation and ordinal scales; problems of comparability; disaggregation, aggregation and weighting; weighting of social exclusion, whether of half the population (such as women) or a small minority, such as a marginal ethnic group living on the periphery of a society; the dimensions of wellbeing and how much each dimension contributes to wellbeing and whether the contribution changes over time as primary needs are met<sup>34</sup>; comparisons over time and inter-country. Africa's values and traditions need to be recognised in wellbeing assessments, raising the question how this can be compared to other cultures and continents. If wellbeing is to some extent culturally determined and relative, this implies some limitations to aggregating wellbeing across the continent or even for a country.
- 4.2. Adequate disaggregation requires sufficient sample size to permit statistically significant data, which can be available in DHS and Afrobarometer surveys, if resources allow for enough respondents to be covered. DHS have covered 47 of African Union Member States, but need to be expanded to cover other countries or repeated, some being over 20 years old (such as Sudan and Tunisia) and only 33 countries within the past 5 years. Some have only MICS<sup>35</sup> (for example, Algeria, Guinea-Bissau, South Sudan, Somalia or Djibouti), while others of the 19 MICS African countries also have DHS available. There are also a number of countries that have WHS one-off surveys, some of which also have MICS and DHS surveys

<sup>34</sup> See, for example, Clarke (2006) for a discussion of wellbeing drawing on Maslow's categories of needs.

<sup>35</sup> See [http://www.childinfo.org/mics4\\_questionnaire.html](http://www.childinfo.org/mics4_questionnaire.html) for the list of indicators used in MICS, supported by UNICEF.

(for example, Tunisia, Chad). Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS)<sup>36</sup>, some of which are based on small samples, only include 7 countries in Africa<sup>37</sup>.

4.3. The MPI deprivation thresholds, enabling a focus on deprivation rather than wellbeing, are as follows<sup>38</sup>:

- 4.3.1. • Education: having no household member who has completed five years of schooling and having at least one school-age child (up to grade 8) who is not attending school.
- 4.3.2. • Health: having at least one household member who is malnourished and having had one or more children die.
- 4.3.3. • Standard of living: not having electricity, not having access to clean drinking water, not having access to adequate sanitation, using “dirty” cooking fuel (dung, wood or charcoal), having a home with a dirt floor, and owning no car, truck or similar motorized vehicle while owning at most one of these assets: bicycle, motorcycle, radio, refrigerator, telephone or television.

These are inadequate to cover all aspects of wellbeing, lacking indicators relating to social and political inclusion. Although useful as a measure of social exclusion and chronic poverty, more indicators need to be covered to generate the African Wellbeing Index.

4.4. Simply disaggregating is inadequate to provide a gendered wellbeing index that can show the relative wellbeing of women and men. Problems include aggregation of gender gaps which can balance out unequal outcomes in opposite directions (for example, women having higher life expectancy than men, but lower education or income levels); inability to assess the implications of choice in maximising household outcomes such as women’s use of time or choosing to forgo food to ensure better nutrition for their children, maximising wellbeing for the household as a whole. Education acquired by one household member, as a private good, can have benefits to the household as a whole, as a public good. UNDP’s Gender-related Development Index (GDI) constructs a composite measure that assesses the impact of gender inequality on aggregate well-being, showing that gender inequality in either direction impacts on the whole of society. Domestic Work is not measured well, nor included in standard national income accounting. Panel data, providing micro data sets are not widely available nor strictly comparable<sup>39</sup>. There are also problems in assuming that earned income determines access to other resources and services - as Klasen points out, it may affect women’s bargaining power, but not determine their access to resources within the household, which would require looking at intra-household allocation of resources. “The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) does not aim to measure well-being, but instead focuses on the relative empowerment of males and females in the political, economic and

<sup>36</sup> LSMS were carried out by the World Bank Development Research Group – see [www.worldbank.org/lsm](http://www.worldbank.org/lsm)

<sup>37</sup> Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Malawi, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.

<sup>38</sup> Technical Note 4 to the 2011 Report. See <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/mppi/>

<sup>39</sup> Drawn from Klasen (2007) who provides a full discussion of these issues, including pointing out that there is no statistical basis for oft-repeated claims that 70% of the poor are female.

household sphere”, which shows how gender empowerment is not only a means, but also an end<sup>40</sup>. Given the impact of women’s wellbeing on overall wellbeing, discrimination against women unequal access and inequality in outcomes must form a very significant part of any overall Wellbeing Index.

- 4.5. Women are not only constrained on entry to the labour market, but also constrained in their participation, as a result of far greater responsibilities than men for unpaid and generally unrecorded care work, which contributes to household production despite being unmeasured (See Box above). For rural women this may come on top of spending significantly more time in agricultural work than do men and that much of women’s productive work (up to 66% of women’s activities compared to 24% of men’s) is unrecorded in the System of National Accounts<sup>41</sup> and that women spend more than twice the time that men spend on this unpaid work. If such work were assigned a monetary value it would constitute between 10 and 39 per cent of GDP<sup>42</sup>. This cannot readily be incorporated into a Wellbeing Index due to the element of potential choice within households on maximizing household wellbeing by choosing a gendered allocation of tasks. One proxy indicator could be time spent on collecting water, or ratio of women’s total weekly labour averages to men’s total weekly labour averages, using data from the above mentioned time use surveys.

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<sup>40</sup> Klasen (2007).

<sup>41</sup> See Blackden et al (2006): “Gender and Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: Issues and Evidence”.

<sup>42</sup> See the 2010 UNRISD study, as part of the 2011 UNRISD input to WDR2012 and commissioned by DFID, on “The Political and Social Economy of Care (India, Republic of Korea, Argentina, Nicaragua, South Africa, Tanzania)”, with reference to Budlender (2008).

4.6.

### **Women's Unpaid Work – the unrecorded national economic contribution**

In countries where the reproduction of labour – its birth, health, nurturing, feeding and nutrition, educating and training, and care when out of production – largely falls on rural poor women and is unrecorded in national accounts, then its contribution to national growth and competitiveness is undervalued. But emerging evidence of this contribution is very strong and robust, based on random sampling and time use surveys.

Poor women are unable to pay for others to carry out care work on their behalf, limiting their participation and wages in the labour market. The economic potential of women can be realised when the state and employers meet some of the costs of this "public good".

It is critical that there be concurrent investment in areas which reduce women's excessive time burden. Here, time- and labour-saving infrastructure could play a role, especially in rural areas, including giving greater priority to water supply and sanitation, energy for household needs, access to appropriate means of transport commensurate with men's and women's different transport burdens, and investment in labour-saving technology in the area of food product transformation and processing.

In Cameroon, in the Centre province, men's total weekly labour averages 32 hours, whilst for women it is more than 64 hours. Even though much of this disparity results from differences in domestic labour hours (31 hours a week for women and 4 for men) a significant difference was also observed in agricultural labour hours: 26 a week for women and 12 for men (Henn 1988). Village transport surveys in Tanzania and Zambia also show that women spend nearly three times as much time in transport activities compared with men and carry about four times as much in volume.

In order to account for this discrepancy in labour average time, ECA has launched a series of time use surveys in six Member States, including Cameroon, Djibouti, Ghana, Morocco, Uganda and Zambia. As the first pilot country, Ghana developed a time use survey manual that can be adapted to other countries.

Source: UNU-WIDER Research Paper 2006/37 "[Gender and Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: Issues and Evidence](#)" Blackden, Canagarajah, Klasen & Lawson 2006 a literature review, with some additional cross-country analysis for Africa and regional comparisons to Asia, drawing on GenderStats (see <http://genderstats.worldbank.org/>); also various papers on care work and on gendered employment and social protection by UNRISD and see Blackden & Wodon eds (2006) Gender, Time Use and Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank Working Paper No 73.

4.7. Although gender inequality may not be entirely deleterious to household wellbeing, gendered role restriction removes the element of choice in households as to who is best suited to fulfilling various roles within the household that could maximise production and wellbeing. However, it also opens up complex knock-on effects that may reduce productivity and wellbeing at the macro level as well as at the individual level, even if not at the intermediate household level. Sen's approach applied to measuring gendered capability space, expanding choices available to individuals, offers important insights into gendered wellbeing and suggests that the breadth of choice and opportunities, particular for women, should be included in measuring national wellbeing<sup>43</sup>. There should be some rating assessment for

<sup>43</sup> See Harkness (2007) p 89 and Klasen (2007) p 186.

gender equality in access to assets, services and inheritance rights and quality of AGDI reporting.

4.8. Additional questions are needed to ensure generating an African Child Wellbeing Index as an extension of the African Wellbeing Index.

4.8.1. Child stunting for those aged under-two is a critical indicator of irreversible damage to a child's future cognitive development. Two levels of nutritional deprivation would be given as: "moderate malnutrition" – children, aged under 5 years, who are more than two standard deviations below the African reference point for stunting. A greater focus on those in chronic poverty might suggest using "severe malnutrition" - children, aged under 5 years, who are more than three standard deviations below the African reference point for stunting. With regard to the overall African Wellbeing Index, although the association between income and nutritional status at the individual level is not clear, aggregate under-nutrition is very responsive to income gains<sup>44</sup>, making it a potential candidate indicator, but not one that is as widely available as that for stunting.

4.8.2. Holistic early childhood care and development services, offering health and basic socialisation, learning and play are critical for children to be able to develop equally once they start school. Positive outcomes from this would be seen in reduction in child mortality as well as better outcomes from early years of formal schooling. Although access to Early Childhood Care & Development (ECCD) is critical for child wellbeing, it would be hard to collect such data reliably during the next 15 years or so in order to contribute to a Wellbeing Index.

4.8.3. Education needs to be measured in terms of quality provided in the early years, which determines long-term outcomes and opportunities - the percentage of children aged 7 years who are assessed as literate and numerate against a basic competency test. This needs to be disaggregated by sex and disability as well as ethnicity and location. Girls' education is correlated with reduced gender inequalities, declining fertility rates, and reductions in child mortality<sup>45</sup>, which suggests another powerful component of measuring national wellbeing.

4.9. Wellbeing depends on having adequate resources to function effectively in a society and to live a life with dignity. This may involve households receiving a basic income supplement to ensure minimum income per capita.

4.10. An approach to household wellbeing that focuses on household food security and resilience has been developed by FAO and tested in five communities under the Palestinian Authority, showing quite different patterns of resilience in each<sup>46</sup>, and also in Kenya in different communities. "Well-being and its dimensions such as

<sup>44</sup> See Harkness (2007) p 104, drawing on Ravallion.

<sup>45</sup> E.g. See Harkness (2007) p 103.

<sup>46</sup> Alinovi et al (2008).

food security or poverty are *ex-post* measures of a household's decision-making about its assets and incomes when faced with a variety of risks. ... Household resilience to food insecurity, defined as a household's ability to maintain a certain level of well-being (food security) in the face of risks, depends on the options available to that household to make a living and on its ability to handle risks"<sup>47</sup>. The model takes six dimensions of resilience: social safety nets; access to public services (including health, quality education, perception of security, mobility, water, electricity and telecommunications); assets; income and food access; adaptive capacity; stability. It then produces "radar graphs" for each area that show in which dimensions there is strength or vulnerability. This approach is strong in showing components of wellbeing for households in different communities, but depends largely on surveys in each community.

- 4.11. Maternal health has implications for every woman's wellbeing (what Sen refers to as 'intrinsic value') as well as impacting on the future wellbeing of their infants (or 'enabling significance'), while maternal mortality has 'associative significance' relating to life expectancy which impacts on other aspects of welfare<sup>48</sup>. This makes it important to measure the percentage of women having skilled attendants at their most recent birth delivery and possibly those receiving full ante-natal care, given that it is difficult to maintain accurate and timely maternal mortality ratio data. Maternal health is a good measure of a country's health system functioning and of access to health as well as relating to a critical risk in every household's developmental cycle.
- 4.12. Quality and accessibility of drinking water have major impacts on household health and time use and should be included in any measure of wellbeing – e.g. Lack of access to safe drinking water within 500 metres and used by no more than 300 persons (level 1 deprivation); lack of access to safe drinking water within 750 metres and used by no more than 500 persons (level 2 deprivation). Currently available data tend to only provide the weak measure of access to water within 1 km, without any qualification on the number of users.
- 4.13. Security has been shown to be high on the agenda of all poor people – physical security of self and assets, social security in terms of health protection and income security and predictability with a strengthened bargaining position in relation to production, markets and employment<sup>49</sup>. Access to permanently available counter-cyclical safety-nets is now widely seen as an investment for sustainable growth<sup>50</sup> as well as protection for those most vulnerable to the impacts

<sup>47</sup> Alinovi et al (2008) pages 8 & 9.

<sup>48</sup> See Harkness (2007) p 97.

<sup>49</sup> See World Development Report (2000/2001) "Attacking Poverty" background research report by Deepa Narayan: "Voices of the Poor: Can anyone hear us?" e.g. WDR Summary "Attacking Poverty: Opportunity, Empowerment and Security" <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPOVERTY/Resources/WDR/overview.pdf> accessed 22 Oct 2012

<sup>50</sup> See, for example, World Development Report (2000/2001), IMF (2009), Africa Development Bank et al 2012 MDG Report "Assessing Progress in Africa toward the Millennium Development Goals, 2012" page 24 and the 2009 G20 Summit commitments 17 & 25 [http://www.imf.org/external/np/sec/pr/2009/pdf/g20\\_040209.pdf](http://www.imf.org/external/np/sec/pr/2009/pdf/g20_040209.pdf) accessed 22 Oct 2012

of global or regional crises, such as the food, fuel and financial crises over the 5 years since 2007 as well as growing climate change impacts. A society with low levels of security in all its forms has its wellbeing undermined. The importance of the family in Africa and the evidence of the benefits from pensions to the whole household and extended family, particularly increasing grandchildren's school attendance and lowering fertility rates, suggests that a measure of pension availability should be included in the overall Wellbeing Index, given its fit with the high value that is placed on older persons in Africa<sup>51</sup>. A society that is undermining its natural resource base unsustainably puts the security of future generations at risk. As a component of wellbeing, a composite measure of security is critical. This could consist of a combination of measures of security in line with the post-2015 African Development Goals for redress for violence against women and girls; homicide rate; corruption; social protection; carbon footprint and climate change resilience.

4.14. Africa stresses the significance of the family as the basis for both individual and community wellbeing. In 2004, the African Union committed to a Plan of Action on the Family in Africa, with the goal of improving the quality of life of all families and focusing on nine priority areas: poverty alleviation; rights to social services of education, health and reproductive; promoting environmental sustainability in environment, water and sanitation, adequate shelter and land ownership; rights, duties and responsibilities; rights of protection for the family, including against domestic and sexual violence; strengthening family relationships; control of major causes of morbidity and mortality; ensuring peace and security; together with follow-up, evaluation and monitoring and a Management Information System on the African family<sup>52</sup>. The strengthening of African families is one of the priority strategies of the Social Policy Framework for Africa. The Mid-Term Review of the Plan of Action and African Union preparations for the 2014 twentieth anniversary of the International Year of the Family have highlighted three areas of focus: poverty reduction and the role of social protection programmes; work-family balance offering support for women entering the labour market; and intergenerational solidarity, including pension provisions and child-oriented social protection policies that assist grandparents to cope with increased responsibilities.

4.15. Africa also has a deep history and widespread endorsement of traditional approaches to maintaining consensus in societies, rather than the will of the powerful being imposed as in colonial and many post- or neo-colonial states. Together, these values of family and consensus promote the positive nature of a nation state based on the African model of solidarity, but currently Member States fall short of these African values and attributes. Measuring these values effectively

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<sup>51</sup> The African Development Bank (2011) has highlighted the demographic changes among older persons across Africa and the breakdown of informal social protection mechanisms and the impact of HIV & AIDS resulting in grandparents caring for grandchildren, rather than the older generation being cared for by the next generations. The AfDB paper promotes the role of pensions in preventing inter-generational transmission of poverty.

<sup>52</sup> African Union (2004).

would demand new inputs to data collection, although proposed sub-component indicators touch on these values. They are included in the proposed African Wellbeing Index through a sub-component of a sense of belonging to a community. It could be argued that the family should comprise a full Dimension of wellbeing, given its centrality to African perceptions of wellbeing. This aspect of community wellbeing is neglected by the more individualistic and instrumental approaches of western models.

4.16. For over a decade, development has sought to increase inclusion and equality through improved governance that is participatory, accountable, transparent and responsive, which together can improve growth and human resource capacity. Countries with poor governance have been shown to be vulnerable to “state capture” by large firms that can then buy influence to generate an operating environment to their advantage, such that “‘high capture’ countries achieved only half the sales and investment of ‘low capture’ countries” and conversely “countries with a high degree of empowerment in terms of civil liberties have low state capture”<sup>53</sup>. Not only do poor governance and low levels of empowerment undermine national wellbeing, but they affect individual and community wellbeing and people complain of being excluded from decision-making that affects their lives. Poor governance also relates to the capability of the state to deliver quality services to its citizens and fulfil its side of the state-citizen compact. There is a high correlation between poor governance countries and countries affected by conflict, although it is possible to have high levels of both exclusion and corruption in strong states that have the power to contain violent conflict or even deliver services. To some extent insecurity and its indicators are an outcome of countries that have poor governance.

4.17. Developing appropriate indicators for the quality of governance is part of the current agenda of the Busan “New Deal for engagement in fragile states” agreement that was endorsed by 11 African Member States and the African Development Bank<sup>54</sup>. For the African Wellbeing Index, it should be possible to select a combination of indicators from the African Development Goals<sup>55</sup> that include both objective expert technical and subjective public opinion elements, which relate to the quality of the citizen-state compact: birth registration, relating to the basic recognition of the existence of a citizen and her/his rights; independent Human Rights Commissions functioning; quality and timeliness of national auditing and response actions<sup>56</sup>; public perception surveys of levels of

<sup>53</sup> World Bank (2002) page 4.

<sup>54</sup> See, for example, International Dialogue on Peacebuilding and Statebuilding (2011) under [www.pbsdialogue.org](http://www.pbsdialogue.org): “Building Peaceful States – a New Deal for engagement in fragile states” accessed 25 Sept 2012 from <http://www.oecd.org/international%20dialogue/49151944.pdf> and also UNDP (2012).

<sup>55</sup> African Union (2012b) Annexe 1.

<sup>56</sup> Such an indicator could be drawn from the IMF-supported PEFA assessments – see [www.pefa.org](http://www.pefa.org) which enables access to publicly available reports on about 34 African Member States for various years on <http://www.pefa.org/en/content/pefa-publically-available-assessments> See, for example, Uganda’s report published by the Government of Uganda on 13 Sept 2012; Section 3.7 pages 62 - 67, showing some improvements in the scores on audit indicators since 2008.

government accessibility, accountability and responsiveness<sup>57</sup> to assess the national demand for official accountability and perceptions of government responsiveness. With regard to governance perceptions, which form only one component of the proposed governance dimension, there is a problem that rising levels of awareness of rights can lead to lower ratings despite objective improvements in governance. However, in assessing subjective wellbeing, perceptions are of critical importance and governments need to manage expectations while becoming more inclusive, participatory, accountable and responsive.

- 4.18. Methodologies for generating composite indicators that are comparable over time and between countries are complex, but should not prevent a good enough process which can be improved with increasing standardisation of sampling and data collection, working with the African Symposium on Statistics Development and survey institutions such as Measure DHS<sup>58</sup> and Afrobarometer as well as with those who collate data to form comparable Indices, such as the UNDP HDI and the Mo Ibrahim Foundation IIAG<sup>59</sup>. Such indicators would have improved reliability if Member States adopted an approach to triangulation of data from the three sources of (i) sector MIS reports; (ii) national sample surveys such as the DHS; and (iii) a national system of community based monitoring. Quality indicators should allow for individuals' and communities' own priorities and be enriched by qualitative studies that can explain quantitative outcomes.
- 4.19. Ideally, data should be first standardised to reduce excessive influence of outliers on composite indicators. There is also a problem of adding indicator values where the various indicators have nothing in common, such as monetary values, percentages or judgments of effectiveness of an institution. For simplicity, indicators should be selected that can be mapped onto an ordinal scale from 0 to 10. Component scores can then be readily generated from the mean average of sub-component scores and similarly Dimension scores from the mean average of component scores. The Wellbeing Index could then be aggregated across the four dimensions, but presented in a table of component scores by country, in which each component can readily be disaggregated. This has the advantage of simplicity and transparency in the calculation, which will enable governments and citizens to understand particular lows and highs and their relationship to specific sector policies and circumstances.

<sup>57</sup> See [www.afrobarometer.org](http://www.afrobarometer.org) for various country reports e.g. 2012 Round 5 survey for Ghana, particularly on governance accountability and responsiveness. For more information on the implementation of Afrobarometer surveys see the presentation on [http://afrobarometer.org/files/documents/media\\_briefing/gha\\_r5\\_presentation2.pdf](http://afrobarometer.org/files/documents/media_briefing/gha_r5_presentation2.pdf) accessed 22 Oct 2012 with more detail on questions.

<sup>58</sup> See from the Measure DHS website <http://www.measuredhs.com> the Demographic and Health Surveys Toolkit and the following, under Step 2 of the DHS Curriculum Module 1, that explains the background to DHS and its use by national governments: <http://www.measuredhs.com/pubs>

<sup>59</sup> A summary of the IIAG normalisation process that leads to each composite indicator can be found from <http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org/IIAG-methodology> accessed 20 Oct 2012. For the IIAG, 86 indicators are transformed to a common scale and grouped with similar indicators to form 14 sub-categories whose score is the simple average of the indicator scores. These are then grouped, using the average of the sub-category scores, into one of four categories: Human Development; Safety & Rule of Law; Sustainable Economic Opportunity; Participation & Human Rights. See <http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org/downloads/2012-IIAG-structure.pdf> For discussion on the HDI see <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics/hdi/>

- 4.20. Once agreed with all key stakeholders, the methodology and sources for the African Wellbeing Index must be published with the Index in order that it can be intelligently interrogated and carry credibility with all Member States.
- 4.21. Although a number of Dimensions include gendered indicators or sub-components, it is hard to judge what weighting should be given overall to this critical area of discrimination and exclusion affecting directly half the population, but indirectly the performance of a whole country and the wellbeing of all citizens, both male and female. The problem of weighting cannot be simply resolved, since the range of indicators of different Dimensions cannot be weighted in terms of their impact on overall wellbeing without establishing a survey of how strongly people believe a lack of a particular outcome or service or condition affects their feeling of wellbeing. On the basis of such a survey, one could generate a weighting across Africa, balancing differences between countries, cultures, age groups, wealth rankings etc. However, even this runs the risk of eliminating the concerns of those on the margins, possibly those with the worst outcomes in terms of wellbeing, as a result of a factor that is unknown to the majority population.
- 4.22. Although the IIAG comes from a governance perspective, its wide range of indicators under Safety & Rule of Law; Participation and Human Rights; Sustainable Economic Opportunity and Human Development, cover many of the same component indicators proposed for measuring the African Wellbeing Index, suggesting potential for close collaboration and further alignment. Collaboration could lead to greater alignment of Member State data collection through the African Symposium on Statistics Development and be linked to the APRM mechanism as a means for using the African Wellbeing Index to drive up Africa's rapid achievement of its own post-2015 Goals and improving governance and outcomes for the poor.
- 4.23. A possible structure for generating a composite African Wellbeing Index is outlined in the table below:

DIMENSIONS	<i>External - Environment</i>	<i>Internal - Individual</i>	<i>COMPONENT S</i>
Opportunity	Female inheritance/property ; Electric power Mobile connectivity	Assets/Employment;	<i>Access</i>
	Income inequality; GDP Growth Rate	Poverty Gap	<i>Outcomes</i>
Social Inclusion	Water; Housing	Maternal health; Secondary education	<i>Access</i>
		Child mortality;	<i>Outcomes</i>

		Child stunting; Early education	
Security	Social protection;	Community/religious association	<i>Access</i>
	VAWG; Homicide; Environmental footprint	Feeling safe	<i>Outcomes</i>
Governance	Rights; Corruption; Government accessibility, accountability & responsiveness	Birth registration	<i>Access</i>
	Audit	Trust for elected officials	<i>Outcomes</i>

4.24. Those measures in the External/Access box are objective measures of services that an individual cannot control. Those in the Internal/Access box are ones that involve some degree of choice by individuals. Those in the External/Outcomes box are objective measures of the result of national policy and overall outcomes, beyond the influence of individual choices. Those in the Internal/Outcomes box are either subjective individual assessments or objective measures of outcomes over which the individual may have some influence.

4.25. The only empty box is that for external outcomes for social inclusion, which would need some measure of overall social and political inclusion of all categories formally in the social compact between citizens and state and informally in participation of minorities in their local communities, in effect measuring the degree of experience of discrimination. A limited approach to this, regarding ethnic identity, is used by Afrobarometer in asking how often people of the respondent's ethnic group are treated unfairly by the government, but similar questions would need to be asked regarding gender, disability, age or any other possible aspects of social exclusion<sup>60</sup>. To some extent this is covered by a composite measure of "community belonging" with sub-components that are both external and internal. For this reason, as a composite sub-component, it has not been placed in this table.

4.26. The most fundamental problem is increasing the frequency of collection and quality of standardised data<sup>61</sup> across all Member States for each of the component and sub-component indicators. This need not be a binding constraint on developing new indicators, since it is important that indicators should determine future data collection, rather than current data determining indicators. This is

<sup>60</sup> For example, see Summary of Results, Kenya 2008 in <http://www.afrobarometer.org/results/results-by-country-a-m/kenya>

<sup>61</sup> In relation to generating wellbeing indices, Sumner (2006) has highlighted the problem of data availability, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and quality, with problematic cross-temporal and cross-country consistency.

precisely where the African Union's convening power and political mandate, working through the African Symposium on Statistics Development and the APRM, can deliver an effective African Wellbeing Index and an African Child Wellbeing Index that will help Africa monitor its progress towards its own African Development Goals. The African Union should also engage with the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) to ensure their active participation in generating wellbeing indices.

## 5. African Wellbeing Index Dimensions and Components

There should be **four dimensions** to the **African Wellbeing Index**: (i) **Opportunity**; (ii) **Social Inclusion** (essentially with respect to Basic Services and Outcomes, but including a sense of community belonging); (iii) **Security**; (iv) **Governance**. These should cover the various levels from individual, through household and community, to national, with both subjective and objective components. The range of components, which, given sufficient sample sizes, should be capable of interrogation of different layers, will itself smooth out any bias from too much reliance on one particular kind of assessment methodology. Ideally, at one layer of disaggregation, it should enable policy makers to determine which social categories are experiencing lower or declining wellbeing. Inter-country and over time comparisons should enable assessment of social and economic policies that are delivering wellbeing improvements, helping governments to make the most effective investment, legislative and administrative choices and sequencing within their national development plans. The African Economic Outlook<sup>1</sup>, a joint publication by AfDB, OECD, UNDP and UNECA, already draws together from a range of sources available data on most of the components outlined for generating the composite African Wellbeing Index.

<sup>1</sup> See the Tables in the African Economic Outlook in <http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/data-statistics>; For a note on the methodology for the data of the African Economic Report 2011, see pages 248-251.

- 5.1. 5.1. **Opportunity Dimension**: covering decent work & economic growth, including measures of depth of poverty and of inclusive growth. This dimension will comprise indicators for the following proposed components and sub-components: (i) income inequality based on the Gini coefficient<sup>62</sup>; (ii) poverty gap at \$2 per day (PPP) (%), measuring the depth of poverty as well as its incidence<sup>63</sup>, which effectively ensures children will themselves be poor (©)<sup>64</sup>; (iii) Asset and employment access, including percentage of households having access to at least one hectare of land<sup>65</sup>; decent employment in terms of percentage of workers in the formal economy<sup>66</sup>; gendered employment opportunities<sup>67</sup> (©); Female inheritance

<sup>62</sup> As given in the footnote on the Gini coefficient in Chapter 3 above, a linear score for countries for their ordinal position can be given, with a Gini coefficient above 80 scoring 0; 70-79 = 1; 60-69 = 2; 50-59 = 3; 45-49 = 4; 40-44 = 5; 35-39 = 6; 30-34 = 7; 25-29 = 8. This gives South Africa, Angola & Rwanda scores of 3; Kenya a score of 4; Uganda, Ghana & Tunisia scores of 5; Senegal a score of 6; Togo, Niger & Egypt scores of 7; Ethiopia a score of 8, compared to Norway at 8 and USA at 5.

<sup>63</sup> Source: see Index Mundi: <http://www.indexmundi.com/facts/indicators/SI.POV.GAP2/compare?country=gh#country=br> or see The World Bank Databank on <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator> The poverty gap as a percentage of the poverty line could be mapped onto an ordinal scale such that over 70% scores 0; 60-69% = 1; 50-59% = 2; 40-49% = 3; 30-39% = 4; 20-29% = 5; 15-19% = 6; 10-14% = 7; 5-9% = 8; 1-4% = 9; <1% = 10.

<sup>64</sup> (©) marks an indicator that will also be used in constructing the African Child Wellbeing Index.

<sup>65</sup> See <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/Worldswomen/Executive%20summary.htm> and the FAO paper on the role of women in agriculture <http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/am307e/am307e00.pdf>.

<sup>66</sup> This a very crude indicator since it includes those who are experiencing adverse incorporation in the formal economy.

<sup>67</sup> Ordinal scale of ratio (x10) of women to men in formal employment, with a score of 10 for a ratio above 1. For women in formal employment see ILO statistics <http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/lang--en/index.htm> and the Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) with its country level indicators disaggregated by sex and age <http://kilm.ilo.org/kilmnet>

and property rights<sup>68</sup> (©); (iv) GDP growth rate<sup>69</sup>; (v) Household energy supplies in terms of percentage of households having access to electricity for cooking<sup>70</sup> (©); mobile cellular penetration rates and internet user penetration<sup>71</sup> (©);

5.2. **Social Inclusion and Basic Services Dimension:** covers maternal health<sup>72</sup> (©); child mortality<sup>73</sup> (©); child stunting<sup>74</sup> (©); girls' secondary education<sup>75</sup> (©); quality education outcomes by Grade 3<sup>76</sup> (©); Access to safe water<sup>77</sup> (©); Housing<sup>78</sup> (©); sense of belonging to a community<sup>79</sup> (©); This Social Inclusion and Basic Services dimension score ideally should be weighted by a disability exclusion factor as a proxy, as earlier suggested in section 3.

<sup>68</sup> The rights of a widow to an equitable share in the inheritance of her husband's property is given by the 2003 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa. The protocol also protects the rights of girl children to equal inheritance with boy children. Data on the legislation and its implementation could be collected by the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, using a simple matrix relating to widows and girl children.

<sup>69</sup> Source African Economic Outlook, published by the African Development Bank, Table 2 – Real GDP Growth Rates, 2003-13 in <http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/data-statistics/table-2-real-gdp-growth-rates-2003-2013/> accessed 31 Oct 2012

<sup>70</sup> DHS reports on the percentage of households using electricity for cooking.

<sup>71</sup> See African Union (2012b) proposed target 4.6 and <https://www.budde.com.au/Research/Africa-Mobile-Voice-and-Data-Communications-Statistics-tables-only.html?r=51> and also RIA (Research ICT Africa) <http://www.researchictafrica.net/home.php> both accessed 16 July 2012

<sup>72</sup> Maternal health would use the proxy indicator of percentage of births attended by skilled health staff - <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.BRTC.ZS/countries> This could be combined with an ordinal scale for receipt of ante-natal care, using DHS data for those having at least 4 ante-natal visits preceding a birth in the past 5 years. If this proved to offer closely parallel data to the indicators for skilled attendance at birth it could be dropped as it would not add much nuanced value.

<sup>73</sup> Child Mortality as the probability per 1,000 that a newborn baby will die before reaching age five - <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT/countries> . This would be mapped onto an ordinal scale as follows: >200 = 0; 150-199 = 1; 125-149 = 2; 100-124 = 3; 85-99 = 4; 70-84 = 5; 55-69 = 6; 40-54 = 7; 25-39 = 8; 10-24 = 9; 0-9 = 10

<sup>74</sup> Stunting measured as percentage of children aged under 5 whose height for age is more than two standard deviations below the median for the international reference population ages 0-59 months - <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.STNT.ZS>

<sup>75</sup> A proxy indicator would be secondary completion rate of girls, using the gross intake rate into the final year before tertiary education, which would be mapped onto an ordinal scale of 0-5% = 0; 5-9% = 1; 10-19% = 2; etc. This data is not widely available and does not take account of the age of the students.

<sup>76</sup> Education data are notorious for lacking measures of quality, but this could be introduced through DHS using household head reporting or through community based monitoring. MIS data is likely to be significantly exaggerated by schools seeking to report success.

<sup>77</sup> Taking a population weighted mean of urban and rural access to water from an improved source within 1 km <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.H2O.SAFE.RU.ZS/countries> where 0-19% = 0; 20-29% = 1; 30-39% = 2; 40-49% = 3; 50-59% = 4; 60-69% = 5; 70-79% = 6; 80-89% = 7; 90-94% = 8; 95-99% = 9; 100% = 10. An alternative could be to take the time taken to collect water – percentage of households that take less than 30 mins or percentage that have water on the premises as recorded in DHS surveys. This would provide one proxy indicator of women's time poverty.

<sup>78</sup> Population living in slums (see <http://www.unhabitat.org/stats> ), given as percentage of total population and mapped onto an ordinal scale of >30% = 0; 25-29% = 1; 20-24% = 2; 15-19% = 3; 10-14% = 4; 7.5-9% = 5; 5-7.4% = 6; 2.5-4.9% = 7; 1.5-2.4% = 8; 0.5-1.4% = 9; <0.5% = 10

<sup>79</sup> The recognition of the spiritual dimension of wellbeing and being comfortable in one's sense of belonging, important in Africa, is hard to measure directly, so aspects of social and spiritual wellbeing of a person can be indirectly assessed by a proxy measure of active participation or leadership in community or religious associations, assessed by Afrobarometer questions, whose mean could be mapped onto an ordinal scale; for example 5.4 for Kenya (2008) or 4.0 for Uganda (2008) See Summary Reports <http://www.afrobarometer.org/> Afrobarometer surveys also measure levels of trust in terms of answers to the question whether most people can be trusted or that you must be very careful in dealing with people.

5.3. **Security Dimension**: covers violence against women and girls (VAWG)<sup>80</sup> (©); homicide rate<sup>81</sup>; social protection<sup>82</sup> (©); environmental security<sup>83</sup> (©); feeling safe<sup>84</sup>.

5.4. **Governance Dimension**<sup>85</sup>: covers birth registration<sup>86</sup> (©); Rights Assessment<sup>87</sup> (©); Audit accountability<sup>88</sup>; corruption perceptions<sup>89</sup>; Government Accessibility, Accountability & Responsiveness<sup>90</sup>; Trust for Members of Parliament/National Assembly and for Local Government Council<sup>91</sup>. In addition to these four sub-components, despite some overlap, the Ibrahim Index IIAG could be

<sup>80</sup> DHS collect data on VAWG. The most generic indicator would be: Percentage of women aged 15-49 who have experienced physical violence during the last 12 months. See [http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/Worldswomen/WV2010%20Report\\_by%20chapter\(pdf\)/Violence%20against%20women.pdf](http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/Worldswomen/WV2010%20Report_by%20chapter(pdf)/Violence%20against%20women.pdf) for discussion on indicators. This experience of violence over the past 12 months could be mapped onto an ordinal scale that scores over 30% = 0; 20-29% = 1; 15-19% = 2; 11-14% = 3; 9-10% = 4; 8-9% = 5; 7-8% = 6; 5-6% = 7; 3-4% = 8; 1-2% = 9; <1% = 10. See Measure DHS and enter DHS Final Reports and Domestic Violence in: <http://www.measuredhs.com/publications/Publication-Search.cfm>

<sup>81</sup> Sub-Saharan Africa has one of the highest sub-regional homicide rates. See UNODC 2011 Global Study on Homicide for homicide rates per 100,000 Table 8.1 page 92 and Statistical Annexe page 103ff <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/statistics/crime/global-study-on-homicide-2011.html>. The homicide rates could be mapped onto an ordinal scale: >50 = 0; 40-49 = 1; 30-39 = 2; 25-29 = 3; 20-24 = 4; 15-19 = 5; 10-14 = 6; 7.5-9 = 7; 5-7.4 = 8; 2.5-4.9 = 9; <2.5 = 10.

<sup>82</sup> The number of people, who receive a cash transfer pension, as a ratio of the population aged over 60 years. This will provide a proxy of the security that people can expect in old age, which is in line with a traditional sense of wellbeing for the old and the importance of the family in Africa. Data on cash transfers will need to be collected by DHS as part of its regular survey categories. Given research that shows how much of pensions are invested in grandchildren and the household security that this provides for household decisions in terms of managing risks, this sub-component indicator is also appropriate for the Child Wellbeing Index. See also the African Development Bank (2011) paper on the challenges of aging in Africa.

<sup>83</sup> It would be possible to use an indicator of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per capita from the International Energy Agency figures for 2010 in the Energy Indicators page 48ff in the 2012 Key World Energy Statistics publication [http://www.iea.org/stats/regionresults.asp?COUNTRY\\_CODE=11](http://www.iea.org/stats/regionresults.asp?COUNTRY_CODE=11) or from the World Bank data <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/EN.ATM.CO2E.PC/countries>. Alternative indicators regarding renewable energy sources or retention of forest cover are not readily available in a form that could easily be compared across Africa's ecological diversity. However, environmental security has significant implications for children's wellbeing and future and should be included in the Child Wellbeing Index.

<sup>84</sup> As expressed in the World Bank's 2000/2001 Background Report "Voices of the Poor", one of the most important measures of a person's wellbeing is their subjective feeling of security and safety, which could be determined by additional questions in current surveys e.g. by Afrobarometer.

<sup>85</sup> The Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG) is one African approach to comparative assessment of African states in terms of governance – see [www.moibrahimfoundation.org](http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org). UNECA also produces its African Governance Report that covers 35 African countries, based on perceptions by a sample of the elite of each country. One element of governance relates to "empowerment", but this has many definitions. UNDP (2012) p 4 defines empowerment as "the process of enhancing the capacity of individuals and groups to make purposive choices and transform these into desired actions and outcomes, to participate and negotiate with influence. There are four dimensions to empowerment including agency, political freedom, civil liberties and accountability", but qualifies each of the four dimensions in rather narrow terms. For a discussion of "agency" in relation to wellbeing, see Hicks (2006). Others have developed concepts of empowerment that relate more to the dimension of Social Inclusion e.g. World Bank (2002) page 11 defines "Empowerment is the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives" and further see World Bank (2000/2001) page 9 – 10. The UNDP Oslo Governance Centre's *Global Program on Democratic Governance Assessments* has recommended a country specific and country led definition and selection of indicators, which are pro-poor and gender sensitive, and their subsequent assessment – see UNDP (2012) page 5. A good example of this is Rwanda's *Imihigo* assessment – see the IDRP Oct 2010 draft report "A Study on the Development and Use of Governance Indicators in Rwanda" see [http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Democratic%20Governance/rwanda\\_report\\_idasa\\_comparative\\_study\\_2011.pdf](http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Democratic%20Governance/rwanda_report_idasa_comparative_study_2011.pdf) accessed 22 Oct 2012. There are also the World Bank Institute's Worldwide Governance Indicators.

<sup>86</sup> DHS assessments of percentage of children under 5 years whose birth has been registered.

<sup>87</sup> Scores as summation of (i) Gender (gender equality in access to land and inheritance rights: land ownership allowed = 1; guaranteed in constitution = 2; widow's rights to inheritance guaranteed = 3; backed by legal judgments = 4; female land ownership exceeds 50% of male land ownership = 5); (ii) independent Human Rights Commission (independent HRC = 1; with powers to take even government to court = 2; +1 if signatory to African Court for Human Rights) (iii) Report made to the Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC) within past 5 years = 1, + 1 for report made to African Charter on the Rights & Welfare of the Child (ACRWC).

<sup>88</sup> PEFA assessments for Audit items category C(iv) for External Scrutiny & Audit PEFA PI (26-28) with scores from D = 2; D+ = 3; C = 4; C+ = 5; B = 6 etc to A+ = 9 and mean for the three scores to two significant figures e.g. Botswana (2009) = 5.0; Ethiopia (2010) = 4.3; Ghana (2009) = 3.7; Liberia (2008) = 2.3. Reports Source: <http://www.pefa.org/en/content/pefa-publicly-available-assessments>

<sup>89</sup> As for the African Development Goals, Transparency International provides the best independent assessment that impacts on investor decisions – see <http://www.transparency.org/research/cpi/overview>. Its Corruptions Perceptions Index can be used directly as an ordinal scale. The Transparency International CPI is used by the African Development Bank in its African Economic Outlook. Alternatively, Afrobarometer questions people's perceptions of corruption in various institutions and their experience of paying bribes and also asks a question about how much people trust the police, which could be combined into an ordinal scale.

included as a fifth component to further smooth any spikes from this choice of governance indicators.

- 5.5. As Africa progressively adopts an approach to community based monitoring and data production that can be triangulated by the national statistical system with national surveys, such as the DHS and Afrobarometer surveys, and with sector ministry MIS data, the African Wellbeing Index should be made more robust with the reliable collection of community perceptions and improved real-time monitoring of quality of services. This will add to the sense of wellbeing in its governance dimension through inclusion in monitoring decisions and services that affect people's lives.

## 6. African Child Wellbeing Index

- 6.1. African Union committed in 2007 to a Call for Accelerated Action on the implementation of the Plan of Action towards an Africa Fit for Children, based on: enhancing life chances; overcoming HIV and AIDS; realising the right to education; realising the right to protection; and the right to participation of children and youth. The Call for Accelerated Action included the legislative and policy framework; the institutional framework; mobilizing and leveraging resources; and monitoring and evaluation of progress. The AU Commission committed to develop a framework for monitoring and evaluation of this Call for Accelerated Action. The ACERWC undertook to use the monitoring and evaluation framework as supplementary information to review the State Parties reports<sup>92</sup>. An African Child Wellbeing Index will assist African Union Commission and Member States to monitor progress in a transparent and accountable manner.
- 6.2. A Child Wellbeing Index could be generated by taking a sub-set of the African Wellbeing Index component indicators, as indicated by the symbol (©). This would produce a similar result, but weighted more in favour of children's current and future well-being, highlighting countries that are progressively moving towards improvements in future wellbeing, which will over time be reflected in improvements in the national Wellbeing Index. A pan-African index has been effected by the African Child Policy Forum in its production of the 2008 African Report on Child Wellbeing, which generated a Child Friendliness Index<sup>93</sup>. The Index

<sup>90</sup> Afrobarometer assessments – contacting official of a government agency or zero if no such council exists, e.g. for Uganda 21%; satisfaction with democracy in country, e.g. Uganda 51%; People never or rarely treated unequally under the law, e.g. Uganda 40%; Perception of government handling of improving the living standards of the poor at least fairly well, e.g. Uganda 22%; i.e. giving Uganda an ordinal score of 3.3. Although Freedom of Information allows citizens to know what is going on and how decisions affecting their lives are being made and the African Union's Special Rapporteur for Freedom of Expression and Access to Information in Africa reports to the ACHPR, it is possibly premature to develop an indicator for Freedom of Expression and Access to Information.

<sup>91</sup> Afrobarometer collects evidence of people's trust of various institutions and officials and the experience of bribery and corruption, the latter proving to be a higher risk for the poor. As noted by Newton (2007), trust is significantly associated with wellbeing. This report suggests an Index focus on elected officials, but this could contrast the trust in traditional leaders, which in Kenya or Uganda, for example, is significantly higher than for elected officials - see Summary of Results, Kenya 2008 in <http://www.afrobarometer.org/results/results-by-country-a-m/kenya> and Summary of Results, Uganda 2008 in <http://www.afrobarometer.org/results/results-by-country-n-z/uganda>

<sup>92</sup> See African Union (2007).

<sup>93</sup> African Child Policy Forum (2008). Mekonen (2009) provides a technical note of the methodology for constructing this composite Index, based on rights to which governments have committed under the CRC and ACRWC, particularly the obligations to respect, protect and fulfil those rights. The technical note provides the formulae for generating each standardised nominal scale for each indicator and the weighting.

was based on a range of indicators relating to children’s rights for **protection**, combining indicators on the legal and policy framework, and **provision**, combining indicators of budgetary commitments and outcomes relating to health services and education, but was unable to collate appropriate data for the third “P” of **participation**. The Index is revealing in showing that a government’s child-friendly status is not correlated with GDP per capita<sup>94</sup>.

- 6.3. Drawing on its rights-based constitution and provisions, South Africa’s President Zuma tasked the Department for Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities to “monitor other government departments to ensure the mainstreaming of gender, children’s rights, and disability considerations into all programmes of government and other sectors”<sup>95</sup>. In fulfilment of this, the Department has developed a framework for child rights and wellbeing monitoring in its commitment to a “South Africa Fit for Children”. The framework proposes a number of indicator domains, agreed with other government departments, using both quantitative and qualitative data relating to demographic characteristics of the child population; rights to a name and a nationality; right to a family environment or provision of appropriate alternative care; right to safety and protection and to a safe physical environment; right to an adequate standard of living and to a social security; right to survival and to health; right to education and development; and the right to participation. The framework also indicates the data sources for each of the domain indicators. Other Member States are also developing approaches to generating their national Child Wellbeing Index, but this lacks regional coordination and comparability.
- 6.4. Drawing on the South African framework, more work needs to be done with the African Centre for Statistics, in conjunction with the ACERWC and the African Child Policy Forum on the structure of a comprehensive and sustainable African Child Wellbeing Index, relating to the broader African Wellbeing Index and the ACPF Child-Friendliness Index. In addition, this could include indicators that are exclusively specific to children, such as: inverse of child labour prevalence; median age of marriage; percentage aged 20-24 employed in the formal economy (Opportunity Dimension); expectations for completing school or skills training; percentage that complete vocational training or tertiary education (Social Inclusion Dimension); experience of violence in home, school or community; prevalence of harmful practices that affect children, particularly girls<sup>96</sup>; percentage of children aged 10-18 living with both parents (Security Dimension); inclusion of children in household and local community decision-making (Governance Dimension). There should be a particular focus on the girl child that measures deficits in wellbeing compared to that of boys. The Child Wellbeing Index should ensure some indicators cover each of the five focus areas of harmful practices affecting girls and women<sup>97</sup>.

<sup>94</sup> African Child Policy Forum (2008) Chart 1 page 10.

<sup>95</sup> Republic of South Africa (2012) page 8.

<sup>96</sup> An inverse ordinal measure of the percentage of girls under the age of 18 years experiencing female genital cutting or sexual initiation – see report on Harmful Traditional Practices towards Women and Girls in Africa (African Union 2012a).

<sup>97</sup> See report on Harmful Traditional Practices towards Women and Girls in Africa (African Union 2012a) and footnote to Para 2.12 above.

## **7. Recommendations**

### *Recommendations to AUC on institutionalising and standardising an African Wellbeing Index across Africa*

- 7.1. Ministers for Social Development to mandate AUC DSA to approach every Member State's national statistical system, in collaboration with relevant national ministries, and the African Symposium on Statistics Development and the Centre for African Statistics, UNECA, AfDB, RECs, AWDF and ACPF to invite comments;
- 7.2. Ministers for Social Development to mandate AUC DSA to establish a Wellbeing Technical Task Group to advise AUC on implementing the African Wellbeing Indices and to agree on the methodology and sources;
- 7.3. Ministers for Social Development to work with their colleague Ministers responsible for finance and economic development portfolios in order to generate comprehensive poverty eradication objectives that recognise the social dimensions of wellbeing and Africa's broader development goals.
- 7.4. AUC DSA, with the African Centre for Statistics, to negotiate with Afrobarometer and Measure DHS (with ICF-Macro) for standardisation of questions to be included that will enable both the African Wellbeing Index and the African Child Wellbeing Index to be generated for each country covered and disaggregated accordingly to permit comparisons;
- 7.5. AUC DSA to discuss with the Mo Ibrahim Foundation how to align the Governance elements of the African Wellbeing Index and its sources with the IIAG and approaches to standardising data and generating a comparable composite indicator, which could be used as a sub-component of the governance dimension of the Wellbeing Indices or as an alternative.
- 7.6. Ministers for Social Development at CAMSD3, end Nov 2012 in Addis Ababa, to approve AUC DSA to work with the African Centre for Statistics to proceed with finalising the structure, data gathering system and reporting for the African Wellbeing Index and the African Child Wellbeing Index, in conjunction with ACERWC and ACPF, and to implement this through generating appropriate comparable data for an initial baseline in 2014 to be reported to CAMSD4.

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