

Sida Gender Country Profile – Zambia



Preamble

Zambia is one of the world's poorest countries. The majority of the population lives in absolute poverty with limited access to productive and material resources. As elsewhere in the world, poverty impacts on women and men in different ways; Zambian women are on average poorer than Zambian men. Patriarchal and socio-economic structures lock women into poverty traps, where they have less access to education and formal employment, and they earn less than men.

However, gender is not only about women's rights. It is about women and men working together to reduce poverty. It is our belief that respecting universal human rights for all, and empowering any disadvantaged collectives, is essential in the fight against poverty.

The previous Sida Country Gender Analysis of Zambia was made in 1993. Since then, much has happened. The country has mobilised efforts for poverty reduction within the framework of its Poverty Reduction Strategy and the Fifth National Development Plan. Poverty levels have been brought down, multi-party democracy has been developed and, in 2005, Zambia reached the HIPC completion point for debt cancellation. At the same time, heavy restructuring in fiscal and public government have affected the population severely, and HIV/Aids has become a pandemic with infection rates at 16%, threatening all levels of Zambian society. All these changes affect power relations between women and men.

As a cooperating partner with Zambia, Sida aims to mainstream gender into all strategies and programmes. It is our hope that this Country Gender Profile will provide information to serve this goal, but also be of interest of other organizations and individuals dedicated to sustainable development in Zambia.

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Gender in Zambia – a Summary

As mentioned in the preamble, analysing gender power relations is crucial to understanding both the causes of, and remedies for, poverty. In Zambia, the differences between women and men in socio-economic and socio-cultural status are in many cases striking. In some fields men can be said to be disadvantaged. For example, more young men are arrested and suffer from the lack of legal rights caused by a judiciary system operating at half its capacity.

Also, there are some positive indicators in gender equality. Surprisingly enough, 49.4% of the electorate is female suggesting that both women and men are using their democratic rights. In the education system, equal participation of both sexes is promoted in learning as well as management, and gender gaps are de facto narrowing. The women's movement is fairly well organized and centralised, and is acknowledged as a respected voice in civil society.

In most cases though, women are disadvantaged as a group. Women's average monthly income is less than half of men's, and they are more often found in the informal sector. Both general poverty and extreme poverty are slightly more significant in women, and women's education and literacy levels lag behind those of their brothers and husbands. Maternal mortality rates are very high and young women aged 15-19 are four times more vulnerable to HIV/Aids infection than their male counterparts. Women in rural areas spend more than 2 hours per day collecting firewood and 4 more hours cooking – time that could be spent on income-generating activities e.g. small agricultural businesses. Furthermore, it is estimated that 80% of the country's food stock is produced by women but women farmers are most often found engaged in small scale subsistence farming with lower access to good land, seeds, technology, markets and credit. Women are by far the most targeted victims of gender-based violence and more than every second married woman reports having been beaten, kicked or slapped at least once. Women are significantly more unlikely to be found as owners of land or holders of bank accounts. Only 15% of members of parliament are female.

Causes of these inequalities can be found both in poverty and in patriarchal social systems and attitudes - often in complex interplay. If a child does not go to school, it is often because the family is poor and cannot afford to keep all their children away from household food production. If then a girl is retained while her brother goes to school, this might be because of what is culturally demanded of her; most Zambian

girls are expected to do more household chores than their brothers. A number of traditional practices, both new and old, reinforce the lower status of girls and women - structures that are perpetuated by both women and men, by mothers and fathers.

Zambia has ratified most international human rights documents, and GRZ has made substantial efforts to translate such principles into national legislation and policy. However, actual implementation has been quite irregular; decision and policy makers in some sectors (health, education) have embraced gender concepts while others have not come as far (energy, agriculture). Despite empirical data indicating that gender-sensitive policies facilitate poverty reduction, there is still a perception that gender is a “donor-driven” issue imposed by external stakeholders. In addition, there is still a common understanding in public opinion, government and civil society that gender is about women, not about women and men equally. As a result, resource allocation, awareness and motivation concerning gender issues have remained low.

Some key activities to promote future gender in development in Zambia could be; increased coordination of gender mainstreaming in public sector and statistics collection, increased awareness of rural-urban perspectives on female poverty, further review of customary law, increased inclusion of men into gender projects and increased dialogue with the private sector.

List of Acronyms

ADB	African Development Bank
ART	Anti-Retroviral Treatment
CEEEZ	Centre for Energy, Environment and Engineering Zambia
CSO	Central Statistics Office
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
CDC	Centre for Disease Control
CHAZ	Churches' Health Association of Zambia
CIDRZ	Centre for Infectious Disease Research in Zambia
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EOC	Emergency Obstetric Care
FAWEZA	Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia
FHH	Female-headed Households
FNDP	Fifth National Development Plan
GCF	Gender Consultative Forum
GDI	Gender Development Index
GFP	Gender Focal Point
GIDD	Gender in Development Division
GRZ	Government of Zambia
HDI	Human Development Index
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HIV/Aids	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HMIS	Health Management Information System
LCMS	Living Conditions Monitoring Survey
LEGATRA	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Association
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender
MACO	Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MHH	Male-headed Households
MMD	Movement for Multi-party Democracy
MSM	Men having Sex with Men
NAP	National Agricultural Policy
NDF	National Democratic Focus
NGOCC	Non-Governmental Organizations' Coordinating Council
NGP	National Gender Policy
NWLG	National Women's Lobby Group
PF	Patriotic Front
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper

PUDD	Party for Unity Democracy and Development
SADC	Southern African Development Community
Sida	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SPA	Strategic Plan of Action
UDA	United Democratic Party
UNDP	United Nations' Development Programme
UNIP	United National Independence Party
WFC	Women for Change
WILDAF	Women in Law and Development in Africa
WILSA	Women and Law in Southern Africa
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association
ZARD	Zambia Association for Research and Development
ZDHS	Zambian Demographic and Health Survey
ZSBS	Zambian Sexual Behaviour Survey
1.	General Background - Zambia

Zambia at A Glance

General		Year
Surface	752 600 km ²	
Religion	75% Christian, 25% others (Muslim, Hindu, indigenous beliefs)	
Number of tribes	73	
Provinces	Central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka, Northern, North-Western, Southern, Western	
Languages	English (official), Luvale, Lunda, Bemba, Lozi, Kaonde, Tonga, Nyanja	
Constitution	Republic	
Former Colonial Rule	British (Independence 1964)	
HDI Rank	165th (177)	2005
GDI Rank	143rd (157)	2005

Demography		
Population	11.9 million	2006
Average annual population growth, %	1.6	2005
Population density, inhabitants per km ²	16	2005
Fertility rate, children per woman	5.9	2002
Urbanization rate, %	39	2004
Share of population under 15 years of age, %	44	2004
Life expectancy at birth, years	38.4	2005
Share of female-headed households, %	22	2004

Economic situation		
GDP per capita (PPP US\$)	1023	2005
Average GDP growth 2001-2005, %	4.6	

Socio-Economic Situation	Female	Male	Total	
Poverty, %	70	63	64	2006
Extreme poverty, %	57	49	51	2006
Adult literacy rate, %	58	77	67	2004
Average monthly income, ZBK	196,453	354,988	293,621	2005
Average household monthly income by sex of household head, ZBK	382,314	535,790	502,030	2005
Combined Gross Enrolment Ratio*	58	63	n/a	2005
Access to formal banking, % of population	11.6	17.5	14.6	2005
Media exclusion, % of population	51.3	30.9	n/a	2002
HIV prevalence, % of population aged 15-49	18	13	16	2002
Maternal Mortality, no. per 100,000 live births	729	n/a	n/a	2002
Infant mortality, no. per 1000 births	n/a	n/a	95	2002
Under 5-mortality	n/a	n/a	168	2002
Number of patients on ART	n/a	n/a	137 000	2007

General				Year
Malaria incidence, number per 1000 population	n/a	n/a	373	2005
TB notification rate, number per 100,000 population	n/a	n/a	545	2002
Government exp. on health, % of general government expenditure			11.3	2005
Legal Situation				
Supreme and High Court Judges	13	30	43	2007
Magistrates	27	92	119	2007
Local Court Justices	90	718	808	2007
Political Situation and Decision Making				
Members of Parliament, by sex	24	134	158	2006

*) for primary, secondary and tertiary education

Sources: LCMS 2004, LCMS 2006, CSO Labour Force Survey Report 2005, Human Development Report 2007-8, 2001-2002 ZDHS, World Development Indicators database, April 2007, Census 2000, WHO National Health Accounts, ZNWL, National AIDS Council



Table of Contents

PREAMBLE	2
1. General Background - Zambia	10
2. National Gender Framework	12
3. Economic Background	16
4. The Socio-Economic Situation	19
4.1 Gender and Agriculture in Zambia	24
4.2 Gender and Health in Zambia	30
4.3 Energy and Gender in Zambia	37
5. Socio-cultural Situation	43
6. Legal Situation and Human Rights	47
7. Political Situation and Decision Making	53
8. Overall Challenges and Key Opportunities	56
9. Resources and Further Reading	59

1. General Background – Zambia

Situated in the heart of sub-Saharan Africa, the Republic of Zambia shares borders with eight countries; Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). It became a British protectorate in the early 1920s under the name Northern Rhodesia. In 1964, it was one of the first countries in sub-Saharan Africa to gain independence from colonial rule.

The new government was led by Kenneth Kaunda and his party, United National Independence Party (UNIP), and introduced a socialist system, labelled “humanism”. It was characterised by generous social welfare systems, extensive public spending and, from 1972, one-party rule. Led by the slogan One Zambia, One Nation Kaunda built a nation from 73 different tribes – all with their own, often similar, languages and cultural practices. English was introduced as a common official language and is still today the language of public life and government administration. Civil servants followed a rotating schedule, where they were moved between the nine provinces and different cultural groupings. The Kaunda policy of national unification has been mentioned as an important contributing factor to Zambia remaining relatively peaceful compared to some of its neighbours in the region. Under its first decades of independence, Zambia acted as an home in exile to many independence movements from neighbouring countries, and accepted refugees from other conflict-ridden countries such as Angola, DRC (former Zaire), Rwanda and Burundi.

Ever since copper mining began in the 1920s, Zambia’s economy has been closely linked to world copper prices. When copper prices started to decline in the 1980s, foreign lending increased. From being one of the region’s most promising, if poor, economies after independence, Zambia soon came to witness alarming poverty levels and food security was put at risk. The one-party system left citizens with little political freedom. By the end of the 1980s, international and domestic pressure from labour movements eventually increased demands for government change and in 1991 the first multi-party elections were held. President Kaunda saw himself evicted by Frederick Chiluba and Movement for Multi-party Democracy (MMD).

In the years that followed, markets were liberalised and over 400 state-owned corporations were privatised. However, consequences were tough for the population including job cutbacks in the public sector and downscaling of social security and health guarantees. Copper prices

remained low, and foreign investors were not as easily attracted as was once assumed. Economic growth stayed low at less than 1% annually.

Since 1991, Zambia has held three free elections; in 1996, 2001 and 2006. In 2001, when Chiluba was not allowed to run for a third term of presidency, Levy Patrick Mwanawasa was elected President of Zambia, and in 2006 he was re-elected. His governments have since scored some successes, such as establishing an Anti-Corruption Commission, and negotiating and implementing debt cancellations in 2005. (See Chapter 3)

Demographic Profile

In 1963, Zambia had a population of 3.5 million. Over four decades of independence, population grew rapidly, to reach 11.9 million in 2006. Although the fertility rate has decreased somewhat over the years, it is still among the highest in Africa with 5.9 children per woman. The size of an average Zambian household is 5.2 people, compared with 5.6 people in 1992. Females and males each make up 50% of the population. According to the LCMS 2004, 44 % of the total population or more than 5 million people, are under 15 years of age. (CSO 2005a)

HIV/Aids. HIV/Aids is by far the single most important reason that life expectancy has dropped from 53.8 in 1981 to 38.4 in 2005 and is also responsible for increasing the number of orphans and widows. By 2005, at least 1.1 million Zambians were estimated to have died from AIDS-related diseases, and today, 16% of the adult population are infected. The disease has caused major break down of both professional and family structures and severely affected the demographic structure.

In the early days of HIV/Aids pandemic, infection was more common in men, which is still reflected in the number of female-headed households (FHH). Between 1992 and 2004, the proportion of FHH increased from 13% to 22%. The lion's share is women who were widowed by HIV/Aids. Of more than 6.5 million citizens under 20, 1.1 million are either single or double orphans. Of these, 57% are paternal orphans, 16% maternal orphans and 27% have seen both parents die.

Religion

Zambia is a predominantly Christian country, although few have totally abandoned all aspects of traditional belief systems. The Roman Catholic Church is today the largest single denomination, but Anglicans, Baptists, Methodists, and others are well established. There are small Hindu and Muslim minorities. In 1991, the then President Frederick Chiluba declared Zambia a "Christian nation", a formulation included in the Zambian constitution by amendment in 1996. It is not very clear what this sentence means legally, even though it has been referred to occasionally in religious debates and debates on homosexuality. (See Chapter 6)

2. National Gender Framework

In all three post-independence constitutions, from 1964 to date, the protection of women's legal rights has been incorporated into a Bill of Rights. However it was not until the beginning of the 1980s that a more explicit institutional framework was developed for recognizing inequalities between women and men in Zambia.

To date Zambia has signed the following international governing documents on gender:

- the *Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)* in 1984,
- the *Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action* in 1995 and
- the *Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)* in 2000

On a regional level, the Government of Zambia (GRZ) has also signed:

- the *Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development* (1997) with the aim of achieving 30% female representation in public decision making by 2005,¹ as well as its
- *Addendum on the Prevention of Violence against Women and Children* (1998).
- *African Union's Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa* (2002) including an aim for gender parity in public sector and political representation
- *Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa* (2003)

Zambia is a signatory to all major international human rights treaties which also influences women's and men's rights. (See Chapter 6)

Government Initiatives

National Gender Policy and its Strategic Plan of Action. The key instrument for mainstreaming gender into the Zambian public sector is the National Gender Policy (NGP) of 2000. This policy has attempted to address some areas of concern including the following: poverty, health, education, decision making, gender-based violence, land and agriculture, environment, science and technology, legal reforms, natural resources, commerce and trade, labour and employment. The NGP was followed by a

¹ The new SADC Draft Protocol has a target for Gender Parity, i.e. 50% men and 50% women.

Strategic Plan of Action in 2004 describing in more detail gender activities in 17 priority areas of action. Sectoral adoption of the NGP has been rather uneven; some ministries such as Ministry of Education, Ministry of Science and Technology or Ministry of Community and Local Development have developed their own gender policies or integrated gender into their sectoral policies, while others have taken no gender initiatives.

In legal terms, the constitution and the penal code have been amended to protect women and children against discrimination and maltreatment, and GIDD is currently preparing a Gender-based Violence Bill. The SADC quota of 30% women in decision making has been introduced as a target in the public sector. Furthermore, gender aspects have been considered in key processes such as the development of the National Vision 2030 and the preparation of the current Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, the Fifth National Development Plan (FNDP).

In 2006, a separate cabinet portfolio was dedicated to Gender and Development. However, since its inauguration, there has been a considerable turnover of ministers and GIDD is still the main implementing institution.

GIDD - National Gender Machinery. The main government body responsible for gender issues is Gender in Development Division (GIDD), placed at Cabinet Office. Its ambitious mission is to coordinate, monitor and evaluate the implementation of the NGP and the SPA, and to support all stakeholders in Zambia with information and leadership support for their activities. GIDD operates through a number of mechanisms, the most crucial being;

- *Gender Focal Points (GFPs)* in all line ministries, provincial and district administrative centres who are responsible for overseeing the implementation of gender and development activities within their respective ministries.
- *Gender Sub-Committees* in all institutions where there are GFPs.
- *The Gender Consultative Forum (GCF)* gathers stakeholders from Government, NGOs, churches, academia, labour movement, and the private sector. It provides guidance and advice to GRZ through GIDD on emerging issues and ensures that policies implemented are gender responsive.

Since its establishment, GIDD's funding has been granted on an ad-hoc basis; a bulk amount from government has been topped up by donor grants directed towards specific projects with different time horizons. GRZ funds have often been delayed or not released at all. This has created problems with predictability and continuous processes have suffered. Line ministries seldom have a budget for gender-specific activities, and have poor or no access to technical and administrative support. Consultative and Gender Forums report irregular meeting intervals and the collection of sex-disaggregated data – often described as a major challenge to mainstreaming gender in developing countries - has been carried out on an irregular basis. After some ambitious attempts at gender reporting in the 1990s, the Central Statistics Office has not run any centralised, statistics collection programmes. Reasons given by CSO are lack of funding and increasing decentralisation, where statisticians are employed by the line ministries themselves and no longer co-ordinated by CSO.

From 2008, GRZ and active donors will coordinate funding in a new Gender Sector *Programme 2008–2010* elaborated on the Fifth National

Development Plan (FNDP), and hopefully bring about well-needed centralisation and harmonisation to gender issues.

Furthermore there have been problems of sustainability in the Gender Focal Point system. GFPs should, by decree, be the Directors of Planning at every institution. However the function is often delegated to other officers who, on the one hand, might have more time but also have other job descriptions and limited power to allocate to the efficient mainstreaming of gender activities.

Civil Society

NGOs. Within Zambian civil society, women's movements can be said to be fairly well organised and unified. NGOCC (Non-Governmental Organizations' Coordinating Council) was established in 1985 after the United Nations World Conference on Women in Nairobi. With time this has become coordinating body of the women's movement in Zambia and has a membership of 83 which consists of NGOs, community and faith-based organizations targeting about 3 million Zambian women. Its functions include advocacy, capacity building and promoting networking among member organizations. In addition, the NGOCC plays a crucial "watchdog" role on the ratification and implementation of national, regional and international instruments on gender in the country. Major advocacy issues for the women's movement during the next few years are said to be; land tenure rights, women's right to custody of children and the abolishment of certain traditional practices.

Some key NGOs among its members include Women For Change (WFC), Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD), Women in Law and Development in Africa (WILDAF), Young Women's Christian Council of Zambia (YWCA), Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA) and Women and Law in Southern Africa (WILSA) to mention but a few.

Very few men's organizations have been identified. YWCA has a Men's Network on a very small scale, and there are separate men's initiatives within some of the programmes of the women's movement.

Academia. The University of Zambia (UNZA) has a Gender Studies Department which offers a Master's Degree Programme in gender every year to an average of 15 students. Researchers at the department are active in many GIDD activities, in developing gender mainstreaming tools and in reports for government bodies.

Private sector. While many private corporations have HIV/Aids policies, very little is known about gender mainstreaming in the private sector. Their participation in the GCF is low, and no larger-scale corporations have today openly declared launches of gender-sensitive business offers, gender policies or declared willingness to implement the SADC quota of 30%. Neither the Economic Association of Zambia nor the main chambers of commerce have placed gender on their agendas. The NGO Women in Mining is the exception that proves the rule.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/ National Framework

In short, Zambia has a quite well developed national framework in gender as concerns both government policy and civil society. Problems seem to lie in weak implementation and predictability. Some of the main challenges include:

- **Challenge 1: Poor coordination within GIDD.** Irregular funding and planning has caused difficulties for GIDD in completing its task; supporting gender mainstreaming in government bodies.
 - **Opportunity:** Continued joint efforts from donors and GRZ and coordination of support and planning, e.g. within the Framework of a Gender Sector Programme. Inclusion of civil society into planning of the Programme could further foster good planning. Hopefully, increased harmonisation of activities will have a positive effect on implementation in different institutions.

- **Challenge 2: Uneven gender mainstreaming in GRZ institutions.** Some GRZ institutions have shown quite strong initiatives while others have done little.
 - **Opportunity:** Closer study of the driving forces in the institutions, e.g. Ministry of Education or Ministry of Health where progress has occurred, and then compare these to more “idle” institutions. Such surveys could provide a good indication of best practices for gender mainstreaming in Zambia.

- **Challenge 3: Low Private Sector Participation.** Private sector actors, such as the banks and large corporations, have shown little interest in gender issues. Nor are they interested in the GRZ target of 30% representation in decision making.
 - **Opportunity:** Increased private sector dialogue. GIDD, women’s and labour movements have great potential to discuss and sensitise businesses through business forums etc., to the advantage of fair representation between women and men, and ensure that women are noted as a valuable consumer group.

3. Overall Economic Situation

For a considerable period of time, Zambia's economy showed one of the weakest performances in the region burdened as it was by high levels of indebtedness, public sector inefficiency and inadequate fiscal policies. However, in recent years, there has been a positive trend in public income, mainly due to high copper prices on international markets and public sector reforms.

With its rich reserves of copper, Zambia was considered to be one of the wealthiest and most promising countries in the sub-Saharan region at independence in 1964. This situation changed drastically during the 1970s and 1980s due to the long-term decline in world copper prices coupled with economic policies that hindered growth. In 1993, gross domestic product (GDP) per capita was USD 290, one of the lowest in the world. Annual growth in GDP fell from 2.4 % in the decade after independence to an average of 0.7% over the next 15 years. (GIDD, 2007) By any measurement, Zambia has been among the worst-performing nations in the region and in the world when it comes to GDP growth.

Zambia's economy has always been lopsided, relying heavily on copper. Copper accounted for 95% of export earnings and contributed 45% of public revenue during the decade that followed independence. In 1973, the mining sector's contribution to GDP was 32.9%. During the 1970s and 1980s, GRZ responded to falling world copper prices by borrowing heavily, which resulted in a huge debt burden, considerable debt servicing and, in the long run, inadequate provision of essential services in infrastructure, health and education. An associated collapse in real income and employment led to a demand for free elections, which resulted in a new government headed by the Movement for Multi-Party Democracy (MMD). With assistance from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, Zambia embarked on a Structural Adjustment Programme, including liberalisation of trade, interest rates, prices and foreign exchange, removal of subsidies, public sector reforms and privatisation of parastatal companies.

The first decade of multi-party democracy was tough. In the mid-1990s, the country witnessed hyper-inflation at levels of over 100% and the virtual collapse of the currency, the Kwacha. Many workers, especially in the government sector, found themselves without employment. Several severe droughts exacerbated both the economic and the food security situation.

The last few years, however, have brought some economic advance-

ment. World copper prices have been surging and the period 2001–2005 recorded growth in real Gross Domestic Production (GDP) of an average of 4.7% per annum. GDP per capita in 2005 was 1023 USD (UNDP 2007-2008). Parallel to this, general poverty levels have decreased from 73% in 1998 to 64% in 2006. Inflation and interest rates are down to historically low levels. Fiscal discipline has paid off, and in 2005 Zambia qualified for debt cancellation. Following the attainment of the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Completion Point in April 2005 and implementation of the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI), Zambia's external debt stock has declined from USD 7.1 billion in 2004 to approximately USD 0.5 billion in nominal terms by year-end 2006.

In 2005, the Kwacha appreciated in value with ambiguous results; import of goods and industrial equipment has become cheaper. On the other hand, moving away from copper dependency has become more difficult since Zambian goods, such as processed agricultural products, have increased in price on international markets. Since then, the Kwacha has fluctuated, making it difficult for industries and organizations to plan their activities.

Even though a continued growth is projected, diversification of the economy remains the greatest challenge to Zambia today. Over the last few years, copper has contributed 6–9% to Zambia's GDP, and 70% of the country's foreign exchange earnings. (MoF, 2006) However, real figures are probably higher as the mining sector is constantly expanding and many other sectors of the economy are geared towards serving it. Moreover, recent growth has been driven by foreign investment so the sector's contribution to public income could be even greater if revenues were not taken out of the country. Recently, GRZ introduced new fiscal and regulatory regimes for the mining sector in order to bring about a more equitable distribution of mineral wealth between GRZ and the mining companies. Furthermore, investment-driven growth does not necessarily mean employment, and around 80% of adult Zambians are found outside the formal employment sector.

The current Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, the Fifth National Development Plan (FNDP) mentions agriculture, tourism and non-traditional mining (minerals other than copper) as potential pillars of growth and employment. Despite the GRZ' ambition that agriculture will increase its contribution from 18–20% to 25% of GDP by 2015, progress is still slow and agriculture's value added to GDP has actually been slightly decreasing over the last three year period (WB, 2007).

As a general trend, dependency on foreign aid has diminished over the years. During the period 1980–2000, aid averaged 15–30% of GDP and above 50% of the state budget. From 2000 to date there has been a gradual decline to around 7–10% of GDP and 30–35% of the state budget. With debt cancellations, composition of foreign aid has also changed; grant aid now represents 65–70% of total aid to Zambia while loan financing has diminished relatively.

With regard to gender, there has been a Gender Budgeting Initiative (GBI) headed by Ministry of Finance. The aim is to integrate gender into all budgeting processes, however so far implementation has been slow.

4. Socio-economic Situation

Despite some recent improvements, Zambia remains one of the poorest countries in the world. GRZ' vision is to reduce the 70% share of the population living in poverty to 15% by 2015. Although poverty has decreased steadily during the last decade (from 73% in 1998), Zambia is still far from reaching this goal; 64% of Zambian households still live below the national poverty line, or on less than the equivalent of USD1 a day. At the same time, rural poverty has actually been rather steady around 80% for the last ten years, however urban poverty has been dramatically reduced, from levels above 50% to 34%. (CSO 2007b) Around half the population is extremely poor, i.e. could not afford to meet basic food requirements even if they spent all their income on food. Households where the head is older than 60 years of age are the poorest and large households are poorer than smaller ones. Education is conversely correlated to poverty; in 2004, 81% of non-educated households were poor as compared to 30% of households where the head holds a tertiary level degree. (CSO 2005a)

Poverty affects society as a whole, people's access to facilities and services and their ability to do so. The UNDP's Human Development index (HDI) is a weighted measurement of a country's advancements shown by different socio-economic indicators in health, education and living standards. In 2005, Zambia's was ranked 165 of 177 countries, implying a relative status quo in human development since 1970s at a very low level.

Gender Aspects of Poverty in Zambia

Examining Zambian society, there are obvious gender gaps in several spheres of society. UNDP's Gender Development Index (GDI) is basically the HDI adjusted for inequality in achievement between women and men.² Zambia ranks 143 of 157, revealing large discrepancies in conditions for women and men.

One of the most telling gender gaps is income; 70% of Zambian female-headed households (FHH) are poor compared to 63% of male-headed households (MHH) (CSO 2007a). Historical data show that this gender gap is not new; in the 1993/94 Household Budget Survey FHH households were reported to earn only 43% of the annual income of a

² The greater the gender disparity in basic capabilities, the lower a country's GDI compared with its HDI. UNDP's second gender measure, Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), evaluates the progress of women's standing in political and economic forums. GEM rank is not yet available for Zambia.

MHH. In 2004, the same ratio was 76%. On the other hand, due to the HIV/Aids pandemic, the number of FHH has almost doubled during the same period and many of these are found in the poorest strata. On an individual level; in 2005 the average monthly income for female and male workers still differed by almost 100% as a Zambian woman earned on average ZBK 196,453 (compared to a Zambian man ZBK 354,453). (CSO, 2006a) In other words, Zambian women are poorer than men both within households and as heads of household entities. Not to forget, men/boys living in FHH are also poorer than boys living in MHH.

There are a number of mechanisms at play in creating these differences in power relations. Below, how female relative poverty is created in households, perpetuated in the education system and later reflected in labour and financial markets and public life is described.

Gender and Household Chores. In a traditional Zambian home, women are predominantly responsible for taking care of the household. They cook, collect firewood, rear children and care for sick relatives. Also, children contribute substantially to household maintenance, especially in rural areas. However, girl children are expected to perform more duties. According to GIDD, girls regularly perform 12 out of 20 identified chores whereas their brothers perform only three. (GIDD, 1999) Types of chores also differ; a girl is expected to assist the mother around the house; sweep, draw water, clean plates, fetch firewood and look after younger/sick relatives, while boys more often assist in productive activities such as fishing, farming or small family businesses.

According to most Zambian traditional customs, biological maturity is regarded as more relevant to the girl's readiness for marriage than age. At puberty the girl undergoes an initiation ceremony where she is taught how to be a good wife, catering for the household and wellbeing of the family. This type of socialisation process causes high numbers of early marriages; 15% of girls aged 15-19 are married, while only 2% of boys are. Teenage child bearing remains high at 31.3% (LCMS 2004, 2001-2002 ZDHS).

These customs exert an adverse impact on the advancement of girls in education. In cases of extreme poverty, many single parents prefer sending boys to school than girls who, regardless of age, can help to sustain the household and raise their siblings. Moreover, girls who fall pregnant/get married are taken out of school.

Gender and Education. Free universal education is a Millennium Development Goal, and in 2002 free primary education was introduced in Zambia. The programme helped to boost enrolment from 68% in 2000 to 92% in 2004 and to achieve equal enrolment in primary education for girls and boys. It will take time, though, before the effect of reforms can be seen in higher age groups and, as of today, completion rates for girls are lower across all levels of education (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Educational Data, Zambia

Grade	Total	Girls	Boys
Completion rates, grade 7, %	82	75	88
Completion rates, grade 9, %	43	39	47
Completion rates, grade 12, %	18	15	20
Enrolment rate, tertiary education, numbers (2005)	12792	4179	8613

Source: 2005 Educational Statistical Bulletin

The higher up the education ladder, the wider the gender gap. At the two universities, only 33% of enrolled students are female. (At Copperbelt University, where most engineering and technical educational programmes are offered, the rate is 20%.) In addition, females on the whole receive fewer years of university education than males due to, among other things, pregnancy and early marriage.

The Ministry of Education has been one of the most active ministries in translating the National Gender Policy into practice. Policies have been put in place for re-admitting pregnant girls, and girls require lower points to enter higher basic and secondary schools. As a step in implementing the National Gender Policy, GRZ has therefore reserved 25% of the places at UNZA for females only while both females and males compete for the remaining 75%.

Gender and Literacy. As a result of less education, literacy levels for women and men differ; 77% of Zambian men can read and write whereas only 58% of women can. This has severe repercussions on women's relative ability to get by in society; to act as full guardians of their children, to conduct business, to pursue their rights in court or apply for bank loans or process title deeds to land. Altogether, lower skills levels make women less attractive on the labour market.

Gender and Labour Market. Since a large part of the population is active in the informal sector, it is hard to obtain exact data on labour markets in Zambia. It is known that the economically active population in Zambia consists roughly of half women, half men, even though the two groups' employment may vary as concerns some basic characteristics. First of all, more than 90% of active women are found in the informal sector, and out of 1.9 million women employed 78% are engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing most of them at subsistence level. Moreover, about one million economically active women are unpaid family workers (compared to roughly 450 000 men) whereas men are more often self-employed. Women suffer more from unemployment than men especially in urban areas (urban female unemployment is 36%). In the formal sector, only one employee out of four is female which is reflected in the small number of women in managerial positions at 21%, falling short of the domestic SADC target for 2005 of 30%.

In conclusion, Zambian women work as much as men, but most of them do not receive any formal payment for their work and are kept outside the social welfare systems that formal employment offers. For those who do receive a salary in the informal sector, wage gender gaps are much more significant than in the formal sector. (CSO 2006a)

Gender and Financial Services. Gender inequalities in formal wage employment and income are reflected in the banking sector. According to FinScope Zambia (2005), 68% of women are financially excluded and women have less access to bank institutions at 11.6% compared to 17.5% for men. On the other hand, women have higher usage rate as concerns informal loan providers at 12.2% compared to 10.3% for men. (Interestingly, more women say they would spend potential credit on starting businesses than men.)

As mentioned above, most women have low incomes earned outside the formal sector and less access to collateral or other security. Some banks have gender-biased policies insisting that the husband should give his consent to a wife's application and/or collateral being proposed, even

when the woman owns the property in her name. (CATDM 2003) Consequently, it might be easier for women to access micro-credit within outgrower schemes and specific programmes. For example, the Agricultural Support Program (ASP), one of the largest programmes implemented by MACO, has more than 600 saving groups tied to it in which women are over-represented (55%) in relationship to their participation in overall programme activities (40%).

Gender and Media. In Zambia, Radio is the most frequently used media channel, followed by television and printed media. For all three media, men consume more than women. In the 2001-2002 ZDHS, more than half of the women reported having no access to any type of media, compared with about one-third of men (see Table 4.2). Women and men in rural areas have substantially lower access to all forms of media (less than 3% for both) than their urban counterparts (16% and 39%, respectively). Education has a major impact on media access e.g. weekly newspaper reading by women increases from less than 1% among those with no education to 65% among women with higher education. Moreover, the media also tend to concentrate their services on the elite, with the voices of poor women, youth, rural dwellers and the disabled rarely heard. A review of the media's portrayal of women and men in the media (print and electronic) shows that women are portrayed as subordinate to men, contrary to expectations of a democratic, fair and balanced media. (SARPN, 2005)

Table 4.2: Media Consumption Patterns

Weekly exposure, % of population	FEMALE	MALE
TV,	43.5	64.6
Radio	24.9	33.6
Printed media	10.6	23.5

Source: 2001–2002 ZDHS

One positive sign is how access to cellular phones appears to be fairly equal between FHH and MHH, a fact that opens up for new, potentially less gender-blind methods of communication.(CSO, 2005a)

According to the above situation, gender inequality between men and women exists on many levels in Zambian society. Lack of access and control to education, markets and public life reinforce each other and keep women in a female “poverty trap”, making them financially dependent. It also limits their control of resources and ability to make independent decisions. The situation is reflected in the country's low ranking in international human development indices and constitutes a major threat to Zambia's fulfilment of development visions and targets. In the following, women's and men's relative circumstances and conditions in three sectors – health, energy and agriculture – are studied in-depth.

4.1 Gender and Agriculture in Zambia

Background

In terms of employment, agriculture constitutes the major productive activity in Zambia. About 72% of the Zambian people are engaged in agricultural activities and it is the primary source of income for more than half of the Zambian population. It is easy to see why; rich rainfall, access to other water sources and good soil quality render 58% of the total landmass suitable for production of a broad range of crops, fish and

livestock. However, only 14% is currently utilised. (MoF, 2006)

In Zambia, there are approximately 1.3 million farming households (CSO, 2003a). Less than 0.1% of these are large-scale farms with more than 50 hectares that produce more than 90% of 'high value' crops such as tobacco, sugar, wheat, soya beans, cut flowers and coffee. Another 50 000 households are emergent agricultural businesses with land in the range of 5-20 hectares. In other words, the absolute majority of agricultural households are small, using 2 hectares or less for growing crops such as maize, groundnuts and sweet potatoes mainly for home consumption. (UNDP, 2006) Most of these small-scale agricultural households are classified as core poor or unable to guarantee themselves a nutritionally adequate diet. (GIDD, 2006)

Considering the problems of food security and underexploited natural resources, agriculture has been deemed by policy makers and donors alike to have great potential in poverty reduction and rural development. It is described as the key sector in diversifying Zambian economy away from copper dependency. In 2006, it contributed 16.1% to GDP. (WB, 2007)

Gender Aspects of Agriculture in Zambia

It is generally considered that women perform 65-70% of all agricultural tasks in Zambia, and produce 80% of the nation's food stock. (GIDD, 2007) In a typical small-scale agricultural household, women are generally responsible for more chores (weeding, harvesting, stocking, marketing and processing) than men (soil preparation and ridging), and perform them over a longer period of time in the year. Besides this, women farmers often bear the responsibility for cooking, heating and collecting firewood. The HIV/Aids pandemic has brought an extra burden to many women as caring for sick relatives (husbands) is traditionally seen as a feminine task instead of working in their fields.

Meanwhile, female-headed households (FHH) have increased in Zambia as a whole. Between 2000 and 2004, the number of rural FHH increased from 19% to 23%. The increase is primarily caused by HIV which has left many women as widows. (FSRP, 2007) FHH generally have poorer access to productive resources such as labour, funds and agricultural capital. For instance, FHH and MHH have been shown to grow different types of crops. Women farmers tend to devote more time and labour to growing a wider variety of crops for household use such as maize, sorghum, millet, beans, groundnuts and cowpeas for household food security or local markets. Meanwhile, MHH grow, to a greater extent, cash generating crops (cotton, tobacco, horticulture, sugar cane). Women either independently or cooperatively manage 60% of local maize fields but only 25% of areas used for hybrid maize that is sold commercially. (GIDD, 2007)

For all types of common livestock such as cattle, goats and pigs, FHH own a share less than their total share of population. This has been attributed to inability to buy livestock due to their lower incomes as well as to traditional management approaches in certain provinces which do not allow women to herd cattle. Furthermore, they own less equipment essential for developing farming. For example, it is twice as common that a MHH owns a plough or a wheelbarrow. (See Table 4.3)

Table 4.3: Percentage Distribution of Household Assets, by sex of head of household

ASSET	Male head	Female head
plough	10.8%	4.7%
crop sprayer	6.5%	1.6%
scotch cart	4.2%	1.4%
wheelbarrow	9.3%	4.8%
hoe	82.5%	81.8%
oxen	7.1%	2.8%
bicycle	39.8%	12.9%
radio	60.2%	34.1%
cellular phone	11.5%	8.2%

Source: CSO Living Conditions Monitoring Survey Report 2004, p.95

These differences between men and women as concerns conditions, behaviour and access to productive inputs may have a number of causes; traditional beliefs and patriarchal systems, different levels of training, different levels of access to markets and market information etc. Some of the primary contributing factors are discussed below.

Gender and Access to Land. Only 10% of rural FHH owned title deeds to land in 2000 as compared to 19% of the total rural population. Zambia has two systems of land tenure or ownership – statutory land representing 6% and customary land covering 94% of all land³ – of which customary law is by far the most commonly practised in land allocation. Customary law systems differ across the country, but are all patriarchal in structure. The local chief may allocate a plot to a single woman, particularly if she has children, but it would be unthinkable to allocate a plot to a married woman in her own right. Often though, women are given land of lower quality. (FSRP, 2007)

Traditionally, when divorced or widowed most women return to their parents' village where they are dependent on male kin for access to land for production. (Keller, 2000) Even if there is a recent trend in some provinces to let a widow use the land until the children are grown up, most widows are likely to lose at least 35% of their land after the death of their husband. (FSRP, 2007) Curiously enough, widows related to the local chief lose less land, which supports earlier findings that FHH are not per se discriminated against, it is FHH that lack adult male support who suffer most. (UNDP, 2006). In all cases, if a widow remarries she loses the right to use the land.

Furthermore, many women are, in reality, deprived of the opportunity to formalise their land tenure under statutory law due to their poor levels of access to transport, bureaucratic procedures for title deeds and low literacy levels (Zambia Land Alliance 2002:). Most women do not know their rights to title deeds and are more easily evicted and displaced when another actor wishes to invest in such areas.

Gender and Access to Credit. Without financial resources to buy equipment, seed and fertilizer, any farmer has little chance to enhance and sustain her/his production. Government-organized fertilizer loans are normally distributed through cooperatives, and since women membership in cooperatives is generally very low, these loans are mainly distributed to MHH. Moreover, women's generally lower access to

³ These figures are old estimates from the 1960s. Today, exact ratios are not known.

collateral (land and equipment) coupled with a low initial income make them unattractive candidates for official loans from commercial banks.

There has been some GRZ initiative to allow women to acquire small loans for entrepreneurial activities through the Micro Finance Trust. However, many micro-credits are granted within outgrower schemes and specific programmes. For example, the Agricultural Support Program (ASP), one of the largest programmes implemented by Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO), has more than 600 saving groups tied to it in which women are over-represented in relationship to their participation in overall programme activities (55% compared to 40%). (ASP 2007a)

However, financing sources for many women are savings and loans from friends, relatives and local business people who exploit them. In this way, poor households, and women in them in particular, are excluded from technological advancement and income generating crops, and remain more vulnerable to food insecurity and poverty.

Gender and Market Access. Poor farmers are often excluded from better markets due to lack of transport and market information. Hence their products are marketed locally at exploitatively lower prices. Women are at double disadvantage since they are often bound to home due to household chores. They lack transport to a greater extent than men, for example MHH are more than three times more likely to possess a bicycle or a scotch cart than FHH (see Table 4.3). Radio, which has hitherto been the most common source of agriculture information, is more than three times more common in MHH (see Table 4.3). Market information systems for cellular phones have been developed lately whereby farmers in remote area should be able to find buyers and prices via text messaging. In the LCMS 2004, cellular phone ownership was quite evenly distributed among the sexes, and has probably risen since then. This method could constitute an opportunity for gender-sensitive agricultural marketing in the future.

Gender and Extension Training. A prerequisite for growth in the agricultural sector is that farmers receive training on what to grow, how to do it and how to sell their produce. In the past, government agriculture extension training services have targeted farmers who own land, leaving the majority of women outside training schemes. Extension officers often receive no training in gender-sensitive approaches. In addition most of them are men, since remote posting has made it difficult to attract female staff.

However, experiences from the ASP show that training in agricultural and marketing skills pays off better for women. In general, households where both women and men participate in agricultural decision making and training witnessed higher incomes and value of assets compared to control groups. But more significantly, FHHs increased their income by an average of 78%, while MHHs in the programme raised their incomes by 31%, suggesting that marginal gains on training are higher for women. Compared to a control group, MHH in ASP training schemes increased the values of their assets by 21%, while this difference was twice as large (45%) for FHH. (ASP 2007 c)

Logically, increased female participation in training and decision making ought to increase the understanding of women's specific needs in agriculture – knowledge particularly useful in agricultural research i.e. in development of new agricultural technologies and tools.

Government Initiatives

Agriculture is one of five priority areas in the current GRZ development strategy, the FNDP. The main governing document for GRZ activities is the National Agricultural Policy 2004-2015, administered by the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO). It focuses on attaining food security, increasing the sector's contribution to GDP and incomes for agricultural labourers.

While the National Agricultural Policy hardly mentions gender, the FNDP lists some measures to promote gender equality. Initiatives include

- gender-balanced research-extension farmer linkages
- gender equality in resource allocation and access to agricultural services
- ensuring women's participation in business-oriented cooperatives and farmer organisations, gender awareness and sensitisation among agricultural staff and farmers
- ensuring gender equality in professional and technical training programmes in agriculture

However, little has been done when it comes to implementation. In 2001, attempts were also made to develop a Strategic Plan for Mainstreaming Gender within MACO. However, due to lack of resources the plan was never finalised. By November 2007, expenditures were not following the FNDP budget as a much larger share than initially intended was spent on fertilizer subsidies and consequently less on human resource development. The Gender Focal Point at MACO described most extension programmes as gender-blind. In general, gender issues are donor-driven i.e. only prioritised at donors' request. Even though motivation has been in place with some individuals within MACO, political will from high officials within the ministry is non-existent. Funding intended for gender activities were usually diverted to other purposes; at times GFPs were not even informed of the funds received and were called upon to write reports only.

The draft land policy states that 30% of land should be allocated to women according to SADC protocols, however this land policy as not yet been approved. Furthermore, if approved, the policy only targets statutory land. Customary land, to which women have access to through male members of their family, is not regulated in the policy. Until there are concrete proposals on how to translate issues of customary law into strategic implementation, the draft policy remains a paper tiger.

Civil Society

The Zambia Land Alliance has been involved in reviewing the draft land policy and is currently lobbying government for new land administrative measures to ensure that 50% of land is allocated to women rather than 30%. The organisation also carries out awareness and sensitisation programmes to educate people on their rights to own land and the significance of title deeds for security of land tenure. The Zambia Women in Agriculture (ZAW) also carries out certain advocacy work in mobilising rural women to participate in agriculture and especially focuses on land and credit issues. NGOCC are also implementing advocacy on women's rights to land. The Food Security Research Project (FRSP) researches into food security and agriculture.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/Gender and Agriculture in Zambia

In short, poverty and lack of food security is widespread among poor, rural, agricultural households. However, women to be disadvantaged. Even in the poorest households, men have better access to seed varieties, technology and market information. Discrimination against women takes place both inside male/jointly-headed agricultural households - in terms of division of labour and influence over decisions – and between MHH and FHH agricultural households. Some major challenges and opportunities for ensuring equal outcomes for women and men in agriculture are;

- **Challenge 1: Ensuring gender equity in access to/control of productive resources.** Women enjoy poorer access to land, markets and credit than men. This creates poverty and food insecurity for women in general, and for both women and men living in female-headed households.
 - *Opportunity 1a: promoting legal reform* (land policy and customary law review) on women's rights to land and credit AND promoting sensitisation on the same issues.
 - *Opportunity 1b: agricultural business training for both women and men.* Empirical data show that households where women and men participate in agricultural planning manage to increase their incomes compared to other households. (ASP 2007c) Moreover, FHH benefit more from business training than MHH in terms of capital formation; they increase their assets and income more.
- **Challenge 2: Gender-sensitive agricultural planning.** Most agricultural extension programmes are gender-blind. Furthermore, implementation of National Gender Policy provisions within MACO is slow and often experienced as “donor-driven”. From a poverty-reduction perspective it should be crucial to train FHH in agricultural business, since these are the poorest and profit most from initiatives.
 - *Opportunity 2a: Formulation of a Sectoral Gender Programme*, including sensitisation on gender aspects of agricultural planning, *sharing of knowledge* between MACO-associated programmes and regular gender audits of the same.
 - *Opportunity 2b: Gender-responsive training of extension personnel.* Women extension officers are not per se better at informing women about farming. Rather, it is important that GRZ extension officers become aware of gender aspects of crop selection, distribution of labour and land tenure.
 - *Opportunity 2c: Increased accountability.* Making high level officials, e.g. the Permanent Secretary of the relevant ministry, accountable for reporting on progress in gender mainstreaming could be a way of creating motivation.

4.2 Gender and Health in Zambia

Background

Between 1981 and 2005, life expectancy in Zambia dropped from 54 to 38.4 years. As in many other Sub-Saharan countries, the main reason for is the spread of HIV/Aids. By 2005, at least 1.1 million were estimat-

ed to have died from aids-related diseases in Zambia and another million Zambians, or 16 percent of the adult population, still remain infected. (MoH, 2007a, CSO, 2003b) Despite a recent slow-down of new infections, almost 95 000 are expected to die each year. (CSO 2005b) According to Ministry of Health estimates, half of Zambian hospital beds are occupied by HIV-positive patients.

The real number, as well as the complete impact of HIV/Aids on the health system, might be much higher. In many cases of the most common infections – such as skin diseases, respiratory diseases, diarrhoea or malaria – HIV/Aids is an underlying factor. Incidence of malaria, the greatest single cause of illness and death in Zambia, has tripled over the last three decades, and HIV/Aids is given as one of the causes behind this trend. (MoH, 2007a) TB notifications have increased from 105 per 100,000 in 1985 to 545 per 100,000 in 2002. The peak age group for TB is 20 to 35 years old, largely coinciding with the peak of HIV infection rates, and at least 70% of TB patients are expected to be HIV-infected. (MoF, 2006)

In the last Zambia Demographic and Health Survey conducted in 2001-2002 (2001-2002 ZDHS), maternal mortality was increasing from already high levels, at 729 deaths per 100 000 live births. At the same time, Zambian children survived to a greater extent than before. Infant mortality rates had decreased from 109 deaths per 1000 newborns in 1996 to 95 in 2002. During the same period, under 5 mortality rate decreased from 197 to 168 per 1000. Nevertheless, both parameters are far from hitting the MDG targets for 2015, stipulating the reduction of infant mortality to 36 per 1000 newborns, and under 5 mortality to 63 per 1000 children. (CSO, 2003b)

Approximately 65% of Zambian children are considered anaemic, and vitamin A deficiency is at almost 50% in some age groups. Water-borne diseases have incidental outbreaks; cholera is reoccurring and 2 million people in Zambia are infected with bilharzia. In addition to HIV/Aids, over 10% of reported outpatient attendance to clinics is due to sexually transmitted infections (STIs). At the same time, the health sector in Zambia is experiencing a human resource crisis. Many doctors and nurses opt to leave the country, consequently as many as 50% of positions within the public health system are vacant. (MoF, 2006)

Gender Aspects of Health in Zambia

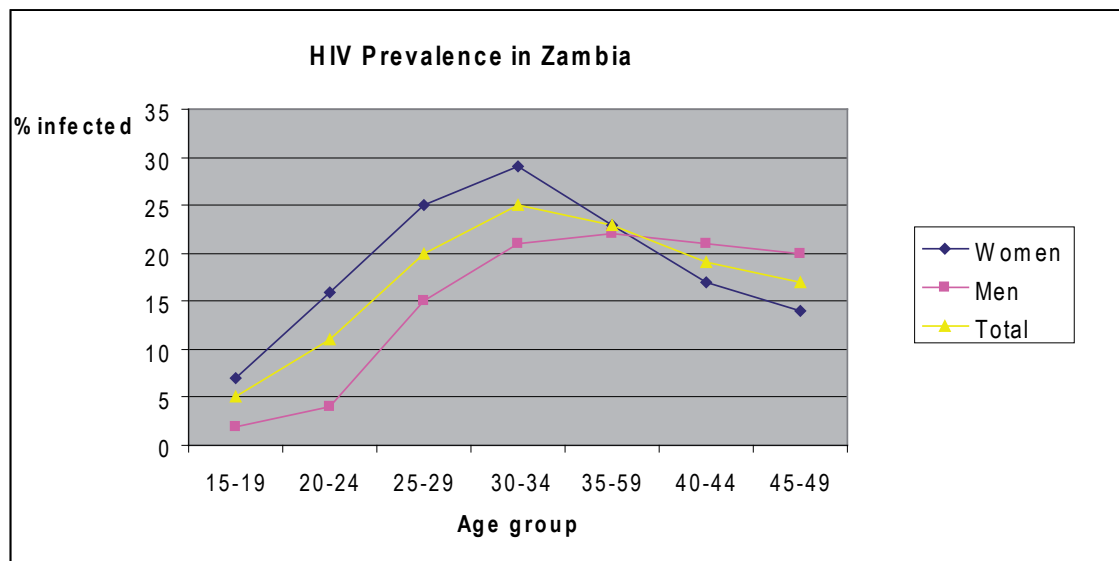
Zambian women and men have the same life expectancy, but the causes of illness and disease differ between the sexes, as do effects of illness on gender roles. Boys are, for example, more affected by child mortality and nutritional status is slightly better in girl children throughout. (CSO 2003b, CSO 2005a). Furthermore, men are slightly more prone to TB infection than women, despite the fact that there is a strong, confirmed correlation between TB and HIV, and more women are infected with HIV than men. (2007b) Also, according to the LCMS 2004, more Zambian men die from malaria (23.5% of deaths) than women (19.8%). As national health statistics for these diseases are not regularly sex-disaggregated, causes behind gender gaps in occurrence of these diseases (possibly opportunistic infections related to HIV) are not well researched in Zambia and worth further study. Women, on the other hand, are more vulnerable to HIV/Aids. Also, child-bearing and rearing increase their need for reproductive health services. Below, the relation-

⁴ On the other hand, women were more likely to die from diarrhoea – another common aids-related opportunistic infection – than men at 13.7% compared to 10.1%.

ship between gender, HIV/Aids and reproductive health are explored more in-depth.

Gender and HIV/Aids. At the beginning of the Aids pandemic, more men than women were infected. Today, this is visible in Zambian society; many women were made widows and the majority of orphans in Zambia, 57%, are single paternal orphans (as compared to maternal orphans at 17%). (CSO 2005a) Men still surpass women in infection rate in the higher age groups. However in general, Zambia does not deviate from the trend in most Sub-Saharan countries; women are more likely to be infected with HIV than men with 18% of the adult population being infected as compared to 13% in men. (See Diagram 4.1.) The difference is especially visible in younger age groups; girls aged 20-24 are four times more likely being infected than boys. (CSO 2003b) This can be explained by biological reasons as well as by socio-cultural factors such as the widespread practice of polygamy in certain rural areas of Zambia, and young girls' limited powers to negotiate conditions for sexual activity. A woman's lower status in marriage makes it hard to gain influence in sexual and reproductive matters in relationship to her husband (CSO 2003b). Female sex workers are especially vulnerable to infection, and in a 2006 study, HIV prevalence in this group was a shocking 69%. (MoH, 2007a)

Diagram 4.1



Source: 2001–2002 ZDHS (CSO 2003b)

As the diagram shows, women in the most productive ages are the most affected. This has serious implications since an immune system weakened by HIV infection renders both pregnancy and delivery harder for women to bear physically.

Since homosexuality is illegal in Zambia, little is known about HIV prevalence in the Zambian gay community. However, there are currently NGO initiatives aimed at surveying men having sex with men (MSM), since these are normally considered a high-risk group due to the common practice of anal sex.

In 2002, free provision of anti-retroviral therapy (ART) in public health institutions was introduced. In 2005, 42% of beneficiaries were

⁵ The highest rate of polygamous relationships reported to be in the Southern and Eastern Provinces of Zambia. (CSO 2003b)

male and 58% female, i.e. roughly proportionate to infection rates. (NAC, 2007) Even though the ART program is scaling up more quickly than earlier projected by GRZ - in 2007 it covered approximately 137 000 patients - it is still far from meeting the demand from the expected 280 000 HIV-infected people in immediate need of treatment. Approximately 39.5% of babies born to HIV positive mothers are infected with the virus, and even though GRZ has made substantial efforts to establish Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) programmes, only 25% of HIV-positive pregnant women received a complete course of prophylactic antiretroviral drugs in 2006. (MoH, 2007a)

Furthermore, the socio-economic effects of HIV/Aids are immense on all levels of society. There are reports of women chased from their homes as their husbands find out their status, and the responsibility of caring for the sick lies primarily with women and girl children, thereby increasing their total workload.

Gender and Reproductive Health. Zambia has one of the highest infant mortality rates in the world; 729 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2002. Medically, there are direct and indirect causes; the direct causes being postpartum haemorrhage, sepsis, obstructed labour, eclampsia and self-induced abortions. Indirect causes are malaria, anaemia and HIV/Aids. (CSO, 2003b)

On the practical side, the main problem is access to adequate health care. Although 93% of all pregnant women receive some kind of ante-natal care, only 43% deliver in health facilities (institutional births). (CSO 2007c) Institutional training of Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs) has not been successful in preventing maternal death. In cases of major complications at labour, TBAs are not well-equipped and many women die before reaching health facilities. (MoF, 2006)

The problem of gaining access to Emergency Obstetric Care (EOC) is largely a rural one. In Zambia, less than 50% of the rural population lives within 5 km of the nearest health facility. As a consequence, the number of institutional births is much higher in urbanised areas, and late referrals are more common in rural areas. (MoH, 2006a) According to the reproductive specialist interviewees, women's traditionally lower status often both delays the decision to take a woman in labour to hospital, and also affects the availability of transport. It is also very difficult for an unskilled person to know when a delivery is turning abnormal – and once it is found out, it is in many cases too late.

A final obstacle to rural women's access to maternal care is the shortage of staff in the health sector. Even if more health facilities are constructed on all levels of sophistication – health posts, health centres and hospitals - there will be major problems in recruiting qualified personnel to work in them, especially the more remote ones. At present, nearly 45% of the rural health centres are run by unqualified health workers. To this end, the GRZ has implemented initiatives such as Direct Entry for students to midwifery school (without first being trained as nurses), and sensitisation in communities to the role of male midwives. (MoF, 2006)

Fertility regulation. Not surprisingly, the 2001-2002 ZDHS shows fertility is inversely correlated to urbanisation and education levels. Hence, attitudes towards family planning grow more positive in well-educated women and women in urban areas. Between 1992 and 2002, the current use of modern contraceptives in women more than doubled.

Still the usage was quite low, at 34.2% of married women. The most common method of all was the pill. In the *Zambian Sexual Behaviour Survey 2005 (ZSBS 2005)*, only 5.5 % married partners reported condom use, and 35% of unmarried sexually active respondents. Not surprisingly, contraceptive use is higher in urban areas than in rural. And in all age and social groups, women report lower contraceptive use than men, suggesting that there is social stigma for women to insist on, and talk about, fertility regulation for women.

Zambia has one of the most liberal abortion legislations in southern Africa, permitting abortion on medical grounds or “other economic or social reasons”. However, rape or incest is not a viable ground for abortion and abortions cannot be carried out on request, and the *Termination of Pregnancy Act* from 1972 imposes a jail sentence of 14 years of imprisonment on a person carrying out an illegal abortion or 7 years for a woman who induces an abortion on herself. Moreover, very few health facilities keep the necessary technical equipment, or can satisfy the legal demand of consent from three physicians. In reality, these factors render the service unavailable to the majority of Zambian women, especially in rural areas. As a result, women carry out abortions illegally at home. (UNDP, 2002)

Even though WHO estimates that unsafe abortion is a direct cause of 13% of maternal deaths in Sub-Saharan Africa, it is hard to find statistical data as frequency is not surveyed in Zambian national statistical accounts. (MoH, 2006a) However, data from the University Teaching Hospital (UTH) in Lusaka show that around 20 incomplete abortions are treated every day, or more than 7000 in a year. Actual figures might be higher. The reproductive health specialist at Ministry of Health claims that there is a “culture of secrecy” around abortions, due to both legal and socio-cultural factors, making both patients and health personnel unwilling to report cases as abortions. In a 1998 study, women interviewed in Western Province revealed that 69% of them knew one or more women who had died from an unsafe illegal abortion. (Koster-Oyekun, 1998) In other words, despite the lack of official numbers, unsafe abortion occurs frequently in both rural and urban areas of Zambia.

Government Initiatives

According to WHO, total expenditure on health in Zambia as a share of GDP has been quite stable around 6% over the last decade. However, GRZ has gradually carried less and less of the total health costs in Zambia. In 1996, the government stood for 62.5% of total health expenditure, and the private sector – mining companies, churches, private clinics and NGOs – was responsible for the remainder. In 2005, the government’s share had dropped to 50%. At the same time, foreign aid to the health sector has scaled up; external financing was a mere 18% in 1996, while today it is over 50%.

Still, most health facilities are run by the government, especially those catering to the poorest. The current governing document for the Zambian health sector is the *National Health Strategic Plan (NHSP) 2006-2011*, linked to the FNDP. The Plan contains 12 National Health Priorities; the first one being to manage the human resources crisis. For example Goals 2-7 are concerned with Public Health; namely Integrated Child Health and Nutrition, Integrated Reproductive Health, HIV/Aids, TB, Malaria, Epidemic Control and Environmental Health. The final four goals are systemic and focus on drug provision, infrastructure,

strengthening of various financing and information systems, and coordination of the same.

Gender Aspects of Government Initiatives. Most areas mentioned above are covered by specific initiatives such as the National Aids Policy, the National Malaria Strategic Plan, TB Control Programme etc., each with their own projects and targets. The various “sub-sectors” are often supported by different donor organizations. As a result, gender mainstreaming and access to sex-disaggregated data differs in different areas. Environmental Health has no sex-disaggregated data at all and in malaria, surprisingly little has been done in gender research considering the importance of the disease. Reproductive health data is well-analysed from a gender perspective, while within the TB Control Programme some research is gender-blind and some is not.

In 2005, an evaluation of the Health Sector from a gender perspective was carried out which highlighted a number of key strategic areas for improvement. (MoH, 2006c) As a result, a Gender Management Team was put together and gender issues moved from a gender unit to the Department of Planning. Currently, there are measures taken to adapt the Health Management Information System (HMIS) to be able to sample and handle sex-disaggregation of health data. Furthermore, a manual has been developed to train Provincial and District level Gender Focal Points Persons in gender issues, an effort which, in the long run, is hoped to contribute to an increased level of awareness throughout the entire health system.

Civil Society

As mentioned above, mining companies, churches, private clinics and NGOs answer for almost 40% of health expenditure in Zambia, and also deliver a substantial share of health. One of the greatest actors is the Churches’ Health Association of Zambia (CHAZ). Some international organizations such as CDC and CIDRZ conduct research, either independently or in cooperation with Ministry of Health. A few NGOs are dedicated to advocacy and fewer yet concentrate specifically on gender. The Society for Family Health promotes sexual and reproductive health through supply of contraceptives and mass media awareness campaigns.

Main Challenges and Key Opportunities/ Gender and Health in Zambia

Even though data is relatively accessible in the health sector in Zambia and many initiatives are taken compared to other sectors, there are some areas in need of development:

- **Challenge 1: Lack of sex-disaggregated data.** Compared to other sectors, data collection is relatively centralised in the health sector. Sex-disaggregated basic health indicators are either available or in the pipeline (the HMIS under revision). Interviewees connect this fact largely to “donor push”. However, much information is gathered outside the HMIS. In addition, considerable variation between the different areas may be observed.
- **Opportunity:** Programme Officers and Specialists within the ministry (not only the gender focal points) should be included in gender mainstreaming training, and be made aware of gender aspects.

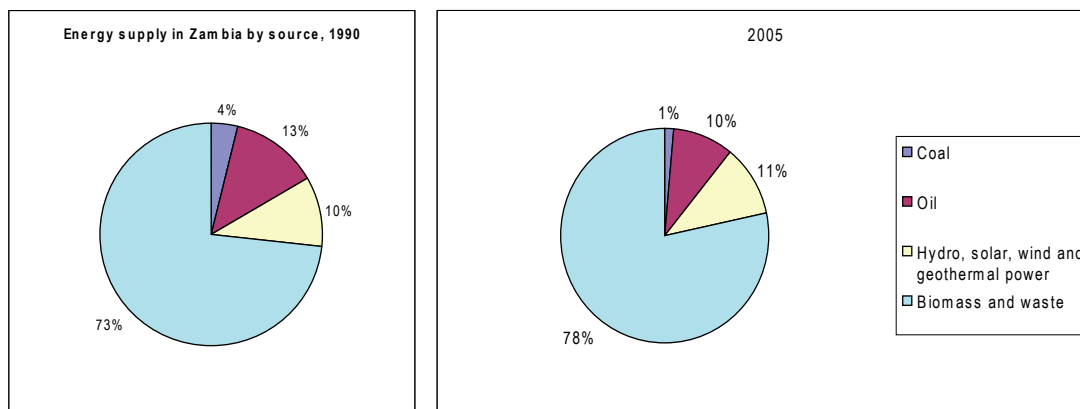
- Challenge 2: Exploring the gender aspects of certain diseases. In the same vein, research on connections between different illnesses in the Zambian setting is lacking. When statistics are examined there seems to be a disparity between opportunistic infections due to HIV/Aids in women and men, however in-depth study of these gaps is hard to find.
- Opportunity: Support further research on the interconnection of gender aspects with e.g. malaria and TB, as well as differences in opportunistic infections in female and male aids patients. Properly designed, such research could help Zambian women and men towards better health care.
- Challenge 3: Gender in the private health sector. Almost 40% of Zambian health expenditure is supplied by private actors. These are not surveyed in the HMIS or regulated by government gender mainstreaming policies.
- Opportunity: Explore opportunities for data collection and practices.

4.3 Energy and Gender in Zambia

Background

Zambia is richly endowed with natural resources exploitable for energy purposes. Within its borders, there is substantial potential within hydro-power, forest (firewood) and coal, and opportunities for using solar cells and wind power. Only petroleum is imported.

Throughout Sub-Saharan Africa, populations and markets are increasing and with them the demand for energy. Between 1990 and 2001, the region's total energy consumption more than doubled. Zambia is no exception; the country's consumption of energy increased from roughly 4.4 TOE (tonnes of oil equivalent) in 1990 to 10.8 million TOE in 2003.



Source: UNDP Human Development Report 2007, adjusted for hydro reserves

The primary source of energy in Zambia is wood fuel (firewood and charcoal), accounting for almost 80% of total energy consumption. According to UNDP, forest coverage is about 57% and wood is the most easily accessible energy source for Zambians in rural areas. However, deforestation rates are high and there have been alerts concerning an energy crisis should the use of wood continue at its current pace and mode, and given the present rate of population increase.

After wood fuel, electricity is the second largest energy source answering for 10% of national energy supply. The copper mines consume the bulk; only 19 % is used by households. In rural areas, as few as 3.1% of households have access to electricity. Low population density and lack of

capital formation has made the extension of centralised electricity grid relatively expensive. The parastatal company ZESCO manages all major hydropower plants, transmission lines and the distribution network. About 99% of Zambian electricity comes from hydropower, which is also exported, but resources are still largely underexploited due to lack of large-scale infrastructural investments. In a similar manner, Zambia's coal reserves are not used to their full potential, and even though GRZ has shown interest in renewable energy sources such as gel fuel, mini-hydros, wind energy, solar cells and biogas (i.e. biological waste such cow dung, sugar cane, cassava, or sorghum that can be used to produce gas), actual exploitation rates have been very low to date.

Gender Aspects of Energy Use in Zambia

The most obvious link between energy and gender in Africa is found on the household level. Like many countries in the world, household energy activities in Zambia are dominated by traditional gender roles, where women are the main providers of household services. As most Zambians do not have access to electricity, and use fuelwood to meet their household needs, the chore of collecting firewood is commonly carried out by women (and children). According to the international gender-energy network ENERGIA, Zambian women spend more than 800 hours every year, or 2.3 hours every day collecting fuelwood. This is much more than Zambian men (less than 50 hours per year!) or women in other countries such as Ghana and Tanzania (about 250-300 hours per year). Another 4-6 hours per day are assumed to be spent on cooking (CEEEZ). This time could be spent on income-generating activities, for example within agriculture businesses. Normally poor households spend more time searching, as richer households can afford to purchase better quality fuels. Reliance on traditional fuels is therefore directly linked to poverty, as well as to gender roles.

In addition, the type of business actually conducted by women can be analysed from an energy perspective. In a rural setting, traditional beer brewing is commonly carried out by women. According to research, Zambian women use more fuel than other countries in the region suggesting use of inefficient burning methods; in 1997, Zambian women used 2 kg wood to brew one litre of beer, while in Tanzania the same figure was 1 kg. (ENERGIA, 2000) Needless to say, electrification or even more efficient stoves could make a difference for these households.

Environmental problems connected to energy do have a gender aspect. The loss of Zambian forest cover 1975 – 2003 has been estimated at 1.2% per annum and shows no sign of slowing down. With continued deforestation, the physical distance to fuelwood can be expected to increase, hence increasing the time spent by women and children on gathering fuel resources. The situation of girl children should also be noted as they are considered to help out more with household chores than their brothers which is reflected in higher drop-out rates for girls etc.

Furthermore, there are gender health aspects of energy use. Carrying firewood is heavy, sometimes a load weighs up to 20 kg, which endangers the spine. In the settings where cooking is traditionally carried out indoors, women are more exposed to pollution and smoke. Indeed, some international surveys have shown how respiratory diseases and eye infections are more common in women spending time inside. Lung cancer and tuberculosis have been proved to increase with exposure to biomass combustion, and a 1992 WHO study saw inverse correlation

between exposure by pregnant women and the weight of the child. (Ballard-Tremere, 1997)

The only study conducted in a Zambian setting dates back to 1993 and shows that there is no statistically significant correlation between bio fuel use and respiratory diseases in low income women, but that eye problems are common, as are burns and scalding (SEI, 1993).

Cultural gender roles can be said to play a role in energy management. One of the potential energy sources for rural use is biogas; i.e. burning of biological waste products (human and animal waste, grass leaves) on a decentralised scale. However, in certain areas of Zambia, women are not expected to collect certain types of animal waste, e.g. cow dung. Cultural practices may differ in different provinces; nevertheless it is a factor to be taken into consideration.

Finally, a survey conducted by ERB in 2003 provides slight support to the hypothesis that poor women in high-density urban areas (compounds) show low participation in, and understanding of, decisions concerning energy in their households.

Government Initiatives

Government activities within the energy sector have been formally guided by the National Energy Policy from 1994. The main implementing authority is the Ministry of Energy and Water Development (MEWD). However, factors such as low private sector participation, population growth and expansion of the mining industry have changed the macroeconomic environment since 1994. The HIV/Aids pandemic was not considered, nor were gender aspects - perhaps reflecting the very low number of women consulted during the policy formulation process (3-16%, depending on energy source area).

In order to correct these problems, a new policy was formulated and approved in 2007 which aims to be more gender-sensitive. However, in its draft form only loose allusions are made to gender such as “mainstreaming gender in energy provision programmes”. The Policy mentions promotion of efficient stoves, and proposes gender-balanced representation within energy management, affirmative action and the introduction of energy into the school curriculum. However, without a final plan or an accompanying Plan of Action, results are yet to be seen.

Rural Electrification. The FNDP has seven core programmes for energy of which rural electrification is the largest in the budget, corresponding to roughly 30% of total planned spending on energy 2006-2010.

Sparsely populated, Zambia has a long history of rural electrification. Gender audits of rural electrification projects have been rare. When evaluated, they show varying results. A few projects were gender-sensitive, concentrating on alleviating the burden of women through e.g. provision of stoves and pressing irons, and thereby improving life quality for entire households. However most projects, such as pilot projects within solar energy, have been failing to meet gender equality goals; activities have been run by employing male-owned companies, training men as extension personnel and serving male customers. (AFREPREN 2001)

A Rural Electrification Master Plan is currently under development. However, gender has not been considered when identifying primary target locations for electrification or the type of electricity source to be used. For example, only business representatives in towns (shopkeepers)

have been interviewed on their future potential electricity demand and willingness to pay while it is known that women's productive work is often carried out in micro-businesses at home. On the household level, income and willingness to pay have been estimated in general terms even though it is reasonable to believe FHH and MHH would have different ability to pay.

Also, there is a general lack of sex-disaggregated statistics – neither the ministry nor Central Statistics Office survey gender energy indicators. Some studies on gender aspects of the MEWD's activities have been conducted as quoted above, but they were not statistically valid and have not been followed up.

Civil Society

The Centre for Energy, Environment and Engineering in Zambia (CEEZ) is linked to the University in Zambia and hosts activities and research within the energy field, but has done next to nothing on gender. Hence, there is almost no research carried out in the non-governmental sector. A number of NGOs work with promoting energy systems, such as solar cells or mini-hydros. However, in advocacy there is little activity. There is a *Zambian Gender and Energy in Network (ZGEN)*, a member organization of the international gender-energy network *ENERGIA* (conducting training for energy planners and policymakers in 18 different African countries). However as its contacts are high-level officials within the MEWD, ZGEN cannot be said to be an independent body of advocacy.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/Gender and Energy in Zambia

Above it has been shown that the majority of households, especially in rural areas, are still dependent on wood fuel for household use. Even though wood fuel collection is accomplished at zero direct monetary cost, it does impose other costs on households such as time spent on gathering wood, missed income from potential productive work, and ill health. These systems have a skewed impact on gender roles as FHH are generally poorer than MHH and also because women traditionally bear responsibility for cooking and collecting firewood for their households. Furthermore, women have poorer access to transport and facilities commonly targeted for electrification than men. Women's access to cleaner forms of energy is therefore limited, and their continued reliance on biomass creates a perpetuated poverty cycle. Anyone wishing to improve this situation will meet a number of challenges and opportunities:

- **Challenge 1: Making energy planning gender-sensitive.** So far, gender thinking has been fairly absent in the planning, implementation and evaluation of *Zambian energy projects*. Gender aspects are not considered in the new *DRAFT Rural Electrification Master Plan*, and it is the responsibility of implementing authorities to do this in their designing of interventions and projects.
- *Opportunity 1a: Capacity-building activities with GRZ officials and donor representatives.* Relevant stakeholders need more elaborated arguments on the link between gender equality and poverty reduction. To make the PS of MEWD accountable for gender reporting could also be a way of creating motivation in the higher ranks.
- *Opportunity 1b: Cross-sectoral cooperation with agriculture sector programmes.* Most agricultural activities are carried out by women on a household

scale and are affected by their access to energy. Experience from training women in basic agricultural business skills has shown that FHH gain more in income than their male counterparts. Also, household level interventions have proved to increase female participation in decision making and distribution of labour and resources within the household. This could also be relevant to energy management.

- *Opportunity 1c: Gender audits of GRZ policy, programmes and major infrastructure projects.* In Senegal, Kenya and Botswana gender audits of government energy policies have been carried out. Regular audits of both policies and programmes could create continuity in energy and gender activities. The influence of major infrastructural projects on gender roles could also provide interesting data for policy design.
- **Challenge 2: Lack of sex-disaggregated data** is not a new problem; it was highlighted in MEWD reports in 2001. As stated above, the absence of such information impedes effective design of policies and programmes and, in the end, poverty reduction for those who need it the most; poor, rural women.
- *Opportunity: Develop routines for collecting base-line statistics.* MEWD, together with GIDD and CSO, could survey indicators such as: time spent by women and men (and children) cooking, time spent by women and men (and children) gathering biomass, income spent on energy in FHH and MHH respectively, energy use and access to energy in female-owned business and male-owned business etc. *The Gender Sector Program 2008–2010*, developed by GIDD and active CPs, has made a main point of developing sex-disaggregated statistics and could potentially provide an opening for such activities.
- **Challenge 3: Development of civil society.** Today, there are very few CSOs within the energy sector; consequently there is lack of both data and advocacy in the field.
- *Opportunity: Supporting the formation of viable civil initiatives* in energy is crucial, but it is also vital to make the existing Zambian women's movement aware of the role that energy plays in women's everyday life. Mainstreaming energy into the e.g. NGOCC advocacy program, and connecting the issue to rural business development, could be a good way to put gender and energy issues on the agenda.

5. Socio-cultural Situation

Zambia has 73 tribal groups. The majority of them are matrilineal, meaning that tribal heritage is passed on by the mother, while a few are patrilineal. However, type of lineage has little influence on gender roles. Of 286 chiefdoms, only 22 are headed by a female, and in most Zambian tribes the socialisation process teaches girls through numerous practices to aspire to become wives, mothers and care givers who have to be submissive. On the other hand, boys are groomed to take up leadership roles and become providers. Consequently, men tend to dominate in decision making at household and community level, as well as being in control of family and community assets with women being in subordinate positions with limited powers.

Traditional Practices

Some of the most well-known practices that perpetuate gender imbalances are:

- *payment of lobola* (bride price). In most tribes, the husband is expected to pay a bride price, traditionally in kind or cattle but nowadays even in cash. The price of a bride depends on numerous factors, such as her educational level and the groom's, prior children etc.
- *polygyny* is the practice of having more than one wife at the same time. In the 2001–2002 ZDHS, 16% of married women in Zambia are in polygynous unions, and 9% of married men. This tradition is often translated into modern practice where a man has girlfriends instead of extra wives.
- *initiation ceremonies* and pre-marriage counselling emphasize gender roles and encourage stereotyping which is also manifested in songs and the arts where women are depicted in derogatory language.
- *sexual cleansing*. A widow or widower has sex with a relative of his or her late partner (regardless of the cause of death) as a means of getting rid of the ghost of the deceased spouse.
- *widow inheritance*. A widow is given in marriage to a male relative of the deceased.
- *dry sex* – In some cultures young men and women are taught that men should prefer the vagina to be dry during sex, a practice that facilitates the transmission of HIV/Aids.
- *forced early marriages*. When young girls are married off against their will by parents or guardians, usually to older men for financial reasons.

Furthermore, belief in witchcraft and traditional healing is still strong in many places.

Even though these practices contradict human rights principles, many of them are sanctioned by the customary law system (see Chapter 6). For example, there is no lower age limit for customary marriages; a fact reflected in the high rate of teenage fertility, especially in rural areas - 31.3% of all Zambian girls aged 15-19 have been pregnant at least once. (CSO, 2003)

However, except for lobola, these practices are not universal and differ by province. For example, cattle rearing is allowed for women in some provinces, whilst not in others. Polygyny is more common in Southern and Eastern provinces. Furthermore, many are no longer widely practised in the face of the HIV/Aids pandemic. At the same time, new practices occur. Lately, a “virgin cure” has been growing more common, in which adult men have sex with a virgin as a cure for HIV/Aids (mostly a prescription from traditional healers).

Gender-based Violence

In customary law, wife-beating has not been regarded as an offence. The 2001-2002 ZDHS reveals that 53.2% of married women interviewed have been beaten, kicked or slapped at least once, and 23.5% admit having experienced such physical violence during the past 12 months. Younger women are more vulnerable to domestic violence than their older counterparts, as are married women. The most common perpetrator is current or former husband or partner, who answer for 66% of all reported incidence of violence.

Overall, around one in six women (around 15%) report ever experiencing sexual intercourse with a man when they did not want to i.e. been subject to sexual violence or rape. One woman in twelve (8%) says that this has occurred the past 12 months. Again the most common perpetrator is current husband/partner or boyfriend, or a male friend. (CSO 2003b) Again, in the past customary law does not acknowledge the concept of rape inside marriage.

According to findings by the NGO Coordinated Response Centre for SGBV (Sexual and Gender-Based Violence), the major causes of SGBV are unequal power relations between women and men which instil fear in women to report cases as these matters are regarded as domestic issues in the private sphere. Consequently, women perpetuate this violence by shielding the men in the name of culture and tradition. Other causes are shame and fear of being known as a rape victim, and lack of user friendly mechanisms for reporting (i.e. distance and lack of doctors to issue medical reports especially in rural areas), women’s limited awareness of their legal rights, poor enforcement of the law and their low economic status. The fact that many women themselves agree that it is justifiable for a man to beat his wife if she cooks bad food, commits adultery or refuses to have sex with him (2001–2002 ZDHS, Chapter 3), suggests that wife-beating is deeply rooted in the culture.

However, the correlation between traditional culture and gender-based violence is not unproblematic. In fact, women living in urban areas – who otherwise represent less traditional attitudes regarding polygyny, family planning etc. – are more likely to report violent treatment than rural women; in urbanized areas frequency figures for violence are about 65%. Remarkably, the incidence of violence is inversely related to education levels; married women with no education at all have a rate of 52.5%, whereas 68% of women with post-secondary education report ever being

subjected to violence. These findings suggest that gender-based violence is a problem of emancipation; women who try to step out of traditional gender roles are more often beaten by their husbands. On the other hand, another explanation might be to skewed reporting since “the culture of silence” is high in rural areas and cases are not reported, and data from Coordinated Response Centre for SGBV indicate that rural women are more subject to SGBV.

Gender-violence against men is not as common, but reports do occur. The Victim Support Unit in Lusaka say that 4 out of 40 reports for November 2007 came from men. However, actual numbers might be much higher, since it is taboo for men to admit openly that they are hit or abused by their wives. Hence they do not often report such incidents.

Even though there has been an increasing tendency to pursue legal complaints, reported figures are much lower. Only 306 cases of gender-based violence were reported in 2000, 1511 in 2005 representing an increase of 393%. Reported cases of rape also increased from 198 in 2001 to 308 in 2003, and then declined to 290 in 2004 and 216 in 2005. Convictions still remain low at 19.4% for rape and 18.7% for defilement (2000–2004)

Government Initiatives

GRZ has developed a Cultural Policy which promotes the “positive” local customs such as extended family systems, folklore etc. while discouraging practices which could be regarded as negative such as sexual cleansing, widow inheritance and pre-marital sex, especially in the wake of the HIV/Aids pandemic. However, what is negative and positive is a complex issue; lobola for example, can both be seen as a way “commodifying” women, i.e. treating them as tradable goods, and as a security measure for the woman and her family. The current policy is under review in order to incorporate gender and human rights with specific emphasis on women’s rights.

Regarding gender-based violence, Victim Support Units have been established within the Zambian Police and the Penal Code has been amended to give perpetrators of sexual and gender-based violence stiffer punishments (min. 7 years–life). Gender-based violence is a priority area, and a gender-violence government bill is being prepared by GIDD. Still, there is a long way to go before customary law is harmonised with international legal obligations.

Civil Society

Civil society has been instrumental in conducting civic education for individuals including traditional leaders on the need to eliminate traditional customary practices that are negative from a women’s perspective and on the rights of women. Some NGOs such as WLSA, WILDAF, WFC, YWCA, LRF and FODEP have been sensitising and educating members of the public on issues of human rights and offering free legal services to the vulnerable. The YWCA has drop-in centres for physically abused women, men and children.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/Socio-cultural Situation in Zambia

In many ways, Zambia is a country in a transitional cultural process. Modernisation and urbanisation brings in new values that question many traditional structures and beliefs, at the same time as these continue to

co-exist with the new. Even gender roles are changing. Some of the challenges of socio-cultural transition in Zambia include:

- **Challenge 1: High prevalence of gender-discriminating traditional practices.** Gender inequalities are perpetuated by both old and new “traditional” practices.
and
- **Challenge 2: High level of gender-based violence.** Occurrence of both physical and sexual violence against women is very high by international standards. In most cases, the perpetrator is a male partner.
- *Opportunity:* Support to education of both girls *and* boys/women *and* men on human rights and gender roles. Men’s role is not to be underestimated in the fight against gender-based violence. Support for formation of men’s initiatives such as the Men’s Network under the YWCA to sensitise men on their attitudes towards women and the need for them to speak out about their being abused by women. Also, polygamy in a modern setting can be experienced as something that is socially expected of a man.

6. Legal Situation and Human Rights

Background

Zambia as a country is a party to the most important international treaties concerning Human Rights; The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (both 1966, ratified 1984), the Convention on the Elimination on All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965, r.1972), the Convention Against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984, r. 1998), and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989, r. 1991). The Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979 was ratified in 1985. Also, Zambia is party to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and recently ratified the African Union's Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on The Rights of Women in Africa. (UNDP 2007-2008)

By signing these treaties, GRZ has committed to incorporating their provisions into national legislation. Its implementation is endorsed by the judicial system, comprised of local courts, subordinate magistrates' courts, high courts and the Supreme Court. Zambia has a double legal system, where local courts are staffed by non-formally trained justices practising customary law. Local courts generally deal with civil law matters such as marriage, inheritance and property. The other type of courts judge according to statutory law, also known as "English law", since it is largely based on the British colonial legal system. Furthermore, a Human Rights Commission was established in 1997, receiving and investigating complaints about human rights violations.

Gender Aspects of Law in Zambia

The CEDAW is fundamental in introducing women's rights into the Zambian legal system. Also, Zambia's commitment to the Millennium Development Goals and the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action have bearing on gender and rights in Zambia, as well as its signing the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development (1997) and its Addendum on the Prevention of Violence against Women and Children (1998).

On a policy level, gender has been taken into account through the establishment of GIDD, National Gender Policy and its Strategic Plan of Action, but also in various sectoral policies and the national development plan. The Human Rights Commission has been training police officer, magistrates, prosecutors and local court justices on issues related to

property grabbing, spouse battering, sexual abuse, defilement and other forms of violence against women and girls.

On a legal level, Zambian legislation has been altered or complemented. Some of the most important changes are:

- Article 11 of the Constitution that prescribes discrimination including discrimination based on sex or marital status
- Amendment of Penal Code Act No.5 of 2005: Protecting women and children from indecent assault, sexual harassment, defilement and trafficking.
- Stiffer penalties introduced i.e. increased terms of imprisonment from 1–2 years to not less than 7 years and even life imprisonment.
- 3 months' paid maternity leave irrespective of whether married or not.
- Safeguarding inheritance rights of women as contained in the Intestate Succession and the Wills and Administration of Testate Estates Acts
- Guaranteeing rights to employment as stipulated in the Employment Act and Industrial and Labour Relations Act
- The prohibition of repugnant customary laws as provided in the Local Courts and Subordinate Courts Act
- Establishment of the Electoral Reform Technical Committee to revise electoral laws in order to level the political field for both women and men. The Committee recommended that government adopts the proportional representation system of elections

Some more changes are in the pipeline; a bill on gender-based violence is currently underway and, in the on-going constitutional review, it has been proposed that a clause reserving at least 30% of decision-making positions for women be included in a new (fourth) constitution.

However, the domestication of international human rights principles is not uncomplicated. Since customary law regulates most people's contact with the judicial system, and this law is neither universal nor written, implementation continues to be a challenge.

Gender and Customary Law. Customary law involves the rules and practices of one of the 73 ethnic groups and consequently varies across the country. It is deeply intertwined with cultural values and beliefs (see Chapter 5). It primarily applies to the majority of cases relating to family law and inheritance rights - areas where women are often subjected to gender-based discrimination. For example, customary marriage (over 90% of all marriages in Zambia) requires the payment of bride-price, or lobola. Likewise, divorce is completed first upon the reimbursement of the lobola by the bride's family to the husband. Adultery is permissible under customary law and the concept of forced sex does not exist, and women lack custodial rights of their children conceived in customary marriage and the custody of children after divorce is conferred upon the husband. In cases of the death of the husband, the children are legally considered the property of the husband's family. When it comes to property rights, women do not normally have any rights to family property or maintenance on the dissolution of a marriage under customary law. Women's opportunities to inherit land are limited (see Section 4.1).

Under the Zambia Law Development Commission, measures have

been taken to review and codify customary law with regard to women's rights. For example, the 1992 Local Court Act was amended to granted three years' maintenance for women married under customary law. Another example is how the Intestate Succession Act regulates the distribution of property to beneficiaries when a person dies intestate according to traditional custom; 20% for surviving spouse/s, 50% to the children, 20% to parents and 10% to dependents. In practice, these laws still disadvantage women since the children often go into the custodianship of the dead husband's family, who thereby also claim the children's share of property. This is commonly referred to as "property grabbing".

Gender and the Legal System. Women are underrepresented at all levels of the Zambian judicial system. In the villages, chiefs and their assessors are predominantly male (out of 286 chiefdoms, only 22 are headed by a female), as are local court representatives. According to data obtained from the Judiciary and Magistrate Courts, the justice delivery system is currently experiencing a human resource crisis with vacancy rates sometimes as high as 70–80%. As a result, many people are arrested kept in custody for long periods without facing fair trials in courts. According to Transparency International, investigation periods of 5 or 6 years are not uncommon. Thus, the lack of legal security is substantial for both women and men. However, most people arrested are young men who also are more vulnerable to human rights violations (physical and psychological abuse).

Also, in Transparency International's Global Corruption Report for 2007, corruption is claimed to be a wide-spread phenomenon within the Zambian judiciary. About 40% of Zambian households and 25% of business managers reported that bribes were paid to speed up legal proceedings. Over 80% of households surveyed that they needed to use the courts, but decided not to, because of corruption.

At all levels, the Zambian judiciary is still far from achieving significant female representation. Out of 80 most senior positions that have been filled, only 26 are occupied by women. Out of a total of 43 judges (both Supreme and High Court), only 13 are female accounting for slightly above 30%; in the Magistrates Court, 27 out of 119 are women representing 23%; the local Courts have 808 justices and only 90 are women translating to 11% of female representation.

Table 6.2: Justices by sex

POST	Chief Justice	Deputy Chief Justice	Supreme Court Judges	Special Assistant to Chief Justice (Legal)	Master of Supreme Court
FEMALE	0	0	3*	0	1
TOTAL	1	1	7	1	1

Source: Judiciary System, 2007

*) Out of the three female judges, one has been seconded to Electoral Commission of Zambia

According to the Ministry of Justice, a significant number of females are under training. However, there are still very few female adjudicators because most of them often opt to resign when they are posted outside Lusaka (Gender Focal Point Meeting: 2007). Furthermore, a WILDAF study from 1994 reveal that husbands of female justices often exhibit negative attitudes towards their spouses' professions, which negatively

affects the ability of women trained in law to pursue a judge's career.

In terms of justice-seeking behaviour, it has been observed that most women are unable to seek justice in the courts due to lack of knowledge of the judicial system and how it operates, lack of a litigious culture due to cultural belief (patriarchal nature of customary law), lack of access to legislature, lack of resources to engage lawyers to represent their cases (as women are poorer than men), inadequate awareness among women of their rights and the institutions that have been established to promote their welfare as well as inadequate staff in the Legal Aid Department leading to limited women's access to free legal services. Additionally, women's lower literacy levels and stigma negatively affect women's tendency to report cases of gender-based violence, rape or assault, or file for divorce.

LGBT Rights in Zambia. Traditionally, homosexuality is a taboo and is commonly described as a "non-African phenomenon", with reference to African culture. The Zambian Penal Code states that male homosexuality is illegal, and legally the Chapter applies even to lesbian relationships. Furthermore, church organizations have on repeated occasions openly condemned homosexuality.

Nevertheless, there is a Zambian LGBT community who are far from able to express their sexuality openly. In 1998, the NGO Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Association (LEGATRA) was founded. However, the initiative met stiff resistance from government officials, the church and in media. LEGATRA was denied official registration, the Vice President stated that "human rights do not operate in a vacuum" and urged arrests to be by the police of anybody who identified or supported gays and lesbians.

Since then, arrests of homosexual men have become more frequent, normally with ample media coverage, but charges have rarely led to imprisonment. There have been incidents of violence against gay people. LGBT organizations have gone underground, and some LEGATRA chief representatives are said to have left the country. The occurrence of homosexual sex in Zambian male prisons has been highlighted on numerous occasions in media, and even rapes have been reported. Some semi-open distribution of condoms in prisons has been endorsed by civil society organizations, but as the problem is not addressed on a government level and little has happened.

LGBT, women and men. When it comes to LGBT issues, men are discriminated in terms of legislation; gay men are explicitly targeted in legislation and are also more often arrested. On the other hand, women are consequently poorer than men and have less social mobility and access to the public sphere, consequently their opportunities to express their sexuality, even underground, are fewer. The majority of LEGATRA were men, and even on internet forums, Zambian gay men are more active.

Due to its illegal status, LGBT issues are not discussed by government. According to GIDD officials, GIDD does not consider LGBT issues to be a part of its agenda and condemns all expressions of homo- and bisexuality and transgender activities.

Both local and international LGBT activists have argued that the Penal Code contradicts the introduction of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) into Zambia's Constitution, granting fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual. But on an

institutional level, little has been done about LGBT rights in the last decade. When called to answer before the UN Human Rights Committee in 2006 on the issue, the GRZ delegation replied that Zambia is a Christian nation. When receiving a complaint regarding the treatment of people in same-sex relationships, the Zambian Human Rights Commission voted against pursuing the case with the motivation that Zambia ‘should be allowed to continue its belief’.

Civil Society

Civil society organisations have played an active role in advocating for equality before the law as well as in civil matters. The Law Association of Zambia set up the Legal Aid Clinic for Women in 1990 which gives legal aid to disadvantaged women and helps them enforce their legal rights. Other NGOs such as WLSA, WILDAF, WFC, YWCA, LRF and FODEP are active in promoting women’s rights. NGOCC is constantly pushing for legal change; land tenure rights and female custodianship of children are currently on the agenda. Transparency International is working extensively with anti-corruption, but has not had an explicit gender perspective.

However, very few of the large NGOs within the women’s movement have acknowledged the importance of LGBT issues. After LEGATRA was banned, the gay movement has been very quiet. However recently there has been organization on internet to promote LGBT issues including news updates, interviews and editorials. Also, there have been some attempts by NGOs, the Centre for Disease Control and Society for Family Health International to survey HIV/Aids prevalence among male homosexuals, since these are thought to be a high-risk group. In addition, South African LGBT organizations have informal branches in Zambia.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/Legal Situation and Human Rights

As can be observed above, several measures have been taken in order to incorporate international human rights documents into Zambian legislation. Still some challenges remain:

- **Challenge 1: Contradictory provisions of customary law and human rights.** Some practices legal according to customary law are not compatible with human rights instruments.
 - *Opportunity: Continued review of customary law and statutory law systems from a human rights perspective.* The continuation of Zambia Law Development Commission’s work and involvement of civil society in advocacy is crucial.
- **Challenge 2: Ensuring Legal Security in the Judiciary.** Relatively little spoken of, the current human resource crisis in the judiciary is a major threat to the development of governance. It is endangering legal procedures for everyone; girls and boys, women and men, and hence also the implementation of human rights treaties into Zambian national legislation. Many young men are arrested, and kept in custody for long periods without facing trial due to staff shortages. Furthermore, corruption is wide-spread. A system operating at such low capability levels also has limited ability to respect special needs, such as gender considerations or young girls in SGBV cases who could need special legal procedures.

- *Opportunity 2a: Support to Judicial Reform* including continued anti-corruption initiatives, improved salaries, revised appointment procedures and scaling up of continuous training.
- *Opportunity 2b: Gender-sensitive inventory of legal procedure.* Proposals such as gender-based violence cases being heard behind closed doors or female justice should be investigated.
- **Challenge 3: Promoting human rights for the LGBT community.** Homosexuality is illegal in Zambia according to the Penal Code. According to international human rights organizations, this contradicts the Zambian Constitution's provision that "every person in Zambia has been and shall continue to be entitled to the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual, that is to say, the right, whatever his race, place of origin, political opinions, colour, creed, sex or marital status (...)".
- *Opportunity:* From a human rights perspective, everyone living in a nation having signed ICCPR should be legally permitted to express their sexuality. In Zambia this would require a discussion on law change. Legal NGOs have to work with these issues from a constitutional viewpoint. Also, LGBT issues can be discussed from a health aspect – as in the CDC project surveying HIV/Aids in male homosexuals. Furthermore, opportunities for traditional women's organizations to fight for the rights of homosexual women could be further explored.

7. Political Situation and Decision Making

According to the Electoral Commission of Zambia (ECZ), there were a total of 2,604,761 registered voters in the 2006 election, of which women constituted 49.4%— a great achievement considering a quite complicated registration procedure. However, women still constitute a small percentage (21.3%) of those holding decision-making positions, falling short of the SADC target of 30% and severely failing to meet the African Union's target of gender parity in the public sector.

Gender and Political Representation. In the civil service, the dominant decision-making positions are Permanent Secretary, Deputy Director and Assistant Director accounting for 23%, 44% and 21% female representation respectively. At cabinet level, there are 6 female ministers out of 24 portfolios. In 2001 elections, there were 11 presidential candidates, only 2 were women. In 2006, there were no female presidential candidates though it is worth mentioning that one of the political parties, Forum for Democracy and Development (FDD) is under the leadership of a female president.

The 2006 election outcomes confirmed the pattern of under-representation over time. During the one party state (1964-1991) female representation remained low averaging around 4-5%. In the 1996 elections, female representation in parliament increased to 10% indicating an increase of more than 100%. In other words, the introduction of multi-party politics seems to favour female participation in Zambian politics. Since then, female representation has been increasing slowly but steadily—the current parliament has 24 female parliamentarians out of a total of 158.

Table 7.1 Female Parliamentarians over Time (1978–2006)

YEARS	1978– 1983	1983– 1988	1988– 1991	1991– 1996	1996– 2001	2001– 2006	2006–
PERCENTAGE (%)	5	3	5	6	10	12	15

Source: ZNWL

Other than multi-party democracy, there seems to be a number of factors promoting female participation in politics according to a 2006 study by the Zambia National Women's Lobby (ZNWL):

- **Level of candidature.** At local government level, fewer women were elected (7%) than on national level (15%) which may be attributed to the more conservative nature of the electorate at local level.
- **Size of party.** Larger political parties (MMD, PF and UDA) have more female candidates in comparison to smaller parties (PUDD, NDF).
- **Family background.** 41% of female candidates interviewed reported that their fathers are/were in politics while 18% and 12% said their uncles and brothers respectively were politicians at various levels.

The study further reveals that most women do not aspire to political office due to patriarchal attitudes, traditions and customs that favour men than women. These attitudes are reinforced by both females and males who believe that politics is a men's arena and not suitable for women. These attitudes are further manifested during the adoption process where selection committees are male-dominated. As a result, fewer women are adopted to contest elections and younger women lack older female role models. Lower literacy and income levels marginalise women further as they are unable to articulate issues in public forums and unable to raise finances to pay nomination fees and campaign costs.

Even outside the political system, female participation is low. Of 283 chiefdoms, only 22 are headed by women. The 30% SADC target does not apply to the private sector, where data on representation is largely missing.

Government Initiatives

The Government is a signatory to the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development aiming to reach 30% female representation by 2005. It has also adhered to the African Union target of absolute parity, or 50%, in political representation. An Electoral Reform Technical Committee is currently revising electoral laws with a view of levelling the political playing field for both women and men, and has recently proposed a reviewed constitution should include a clause that requires at least 30% of decision-making positions to be reserved for women. The creation in 2006 of a specific cabinet portfolio for Gender and Development aims to accelerate women's empowerment and in parliament, a Caucus for Women Parliamentarians help female MPs network and advocate for women's advancement in the political system.

Civil Society

Under the umbrella of NGOCC, Zambia National Women's Lobby (ZNWL) and other NGOs are running gender-sensitive civic and voter education in both rural and urban areas and capacity building workshops for women in politics. ZNWL has a Memorandum of Understanding with female MPs to support them in their offices.

Challenges and Key Opportunities/ Political Situation and Decision Making

Even if women make up half the Zambian electorate, female access to resources within the political system leaves a lot to be desired, as well as in the public sector and, presumably, in the private sector. Some of the main points of progress could be:

- **Challenge 1: Low level of female participation in the political, public and corporate spheres.** Despite theoretical adherence to international targets of 30%, female participation in decision making remains low in practice.
 - *Opportunity 1a: Work with political parties and civil society* in promoting women as candidates. Possible measures could include: review of candidate nomination and election process and increased training and targeted financial support for young women in politics.
 - *Opportunity 1b. Explore possibilities of 30% quota* in line with the proposal from the Electoral Reform Technical Committee.

8. Overall Challenges and Key Opportunities

Studying gender equality and inequality in Zambia, it can be concluded that there are situations where men are disadvantaged, such as in the judicial system where mainly young men suffer from long detention periods. Also, child mortality is higher for boys. In addition, some successes have been achieved such as the formulation of a National Gender Policy, or increasing female participation in political processes. Still, the overall trend is that Zambian women and girls are disadvantaged as a collective. They have less access to productive resources and education; they are more vulnerable to HIV infection and many of traditional practices supported by customary law degrade women. Both inside households and as heads of household, women have lower incomes than Zambian men. Some general problems can be identified throughout most sectors;

- **Overall Challenge 1: Uneven implementation of government initiatives concerning gender.** Some GRZ institutions have shown quite strong initiative while other institutions have done little. The GFP system is not functioning properly and many GFPs testify of difficulties in raising support in their own institutions. As a reason, they report lack of political motivation of superiors and a general feeling that gender is something “donor-driven”. As long as such attitudes prevail, all stakeholders involved in fighting gender inequality will meet stiff resistance in implementing policies and programmes.
- *Opportunity 1a: Increased sensitisation.* Understanding why gender equality is important to development is crucial to efficient gender planning. The link between gender equality and poverty reduction has to be made clearer to high level GRZ officials.
- *Opportunity 1b: Increased political accountability.* As of today, the Director of Planning in line ministries and provinces is the Gender Focal Point. However, there are no functioning systems for reporting. There is a current proposal from GIDD to place the obligation of reporting, and imposing sanctions, with e.g. the Permanent Secretary.
- **Overall Challenge 2: Gender Issues still Women’s Issues.** Both within government and civil society programmes, there is still a tendency to understand gender issues as “women’s issues”. There are few men’s initiatives in civil society and men, who are struggling with redefining traditional gender roles, are hardly ever targeted in e.g. hu-

man rights, energy and agriculture planning etc. This often creates unnecessary conflict around the concept and results in inefficient policy. For example, empirical evidence from agricultural training shows that household income, as well as female participation in decision making, increases when both men AND women in households are targeted together by extension officers.

- *Opportunity: Male and female empowerment.* Furthermore, men need to be sensitised on women's rights, especially with regard to gender-based violence. Civil society initiatives targeting men, or women and men together as a household should be encouraged throughout all sectors.
- **Overall Challenge 3: Urban-rural dimensions of female poverty.** Zambian women in rural areas are generally poorer and have less access to electricity, training, education and health care. It is also harder to recruit female personnel for agriculture extension offices, courts, health posts. However, in some cases such as gender-based violence, statistics suggest that well-educated women and urban women are challenging traditional gender roles and therefore are more targeted.
- *Opportunity: Integrate a rural-urban perspective* into all gender mainstreaming of policy.
- **Overall Challenge 4: Lack of Sex-disaggregated Data.** Access to reliable data is key to understanding gender inequalities and designing strategies to fight them. However, in many sectors in Zambia, such data is rarely available.
- *Opportunity: Centralised gender statistics collection procedure.* Central Statistics Office needs support from GIDD and others to mainstream sex-disaggregation into statistical collection procedure. Statisticians and researchers in the various ministries, who are primarily responsible for statistics collection in their sectors, should be trained in gender-sensitive data collection. CSO should also improve their relationship to the civil society where NGOs, academia and others collect a lot of information.
- **Overall Challenge 5: Lack of basic human rights, especially in gender-based violence and LGBT issues.** The frequency of gender-based violence is very high in Zambia; 53.2% of married women interviewed have been beaten, kicked or slapped at least once. The most common perpetrator is the husband or a male partner, but police reports are few. Both tradition and customary law sanction this type of behaviour. For example, marital rape does not exist as a concept in customary law. At the same time, Zambian legislation can be said to contradict itself on the issue of the rights of the LGBT (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender) community. The Zambian Constitution grants the freedom of the individual and protects every citizen from discrimination, while the Penal Code criminalises homosexuality.
- *Opportunity: Support for further harmonization of customary law, statutory law and human rights principles.* Regional human rights documents (SADC, African Union) might provide a “bridge” between international human rights and the Zambian context. Work with harmonising customary and statutory legacies (hitherto carried out by the Zambia Law Development Commission) must be continued and encouraged in the constitutional review process, and possibilities of gender-sensitive legal procedures further explored. Civil society initiatives concerning human rights are crucial for advocacy and training.

- **Overall Challenge 6: Low Private Sector Involvement.** In all sectors examined, data comes primarily from the public sector. This while private corporations and organizations answer for a substantial share of both service delivery (health) and employment (mining, banking, businesses, agriculture).

Opportunity: Increased dialogue between public and private actors on gender issues. Gender awareness, hitherto dominated by government and NGOs, can both contribute to better consumer options for women and better business opportunities for corporations. At the same time, experience, studies and statistics from private sector could be of use to public sector planners.

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MEETINGS:

- ASP: Mr Marvin M Siwale, Facilitation Coordinator Officer in Gender and Infrastructure
- CEEZ: Prof. Frances Yamba
- Energy Regulation Board
- Energy Regulation Board: Ms Mfuni
- Food Research Project: Dr. Chapoto
- Food Research Project: Dr. Govereh
- Gender Focal Point Meeting at Chrismar Hotel, November 1–2, 2007
- GIDD: Joe Kapembwa, Director
- GIDD: Samuel Mutale, Information Specialist
- GIDD: Yeta HHHH, Permanent Secretary
- Juvenile Justice Court: Miss Nalishebo Imataa, Coordinator
- Legal Resources Foundation: Mr Robby Shabwanga, Project Coordinator
- Magistrates Court: Mrs Arida Chuulu, Magistrate, Gender Focal Person Judiciary
- Ministry of Education: Mr Katundu
- Ministry of Energy and ZGEN (Zambian Gender in Energy Network): Mrs Chandi, Senior Energy Planner, Planning and Policy Department
- Ministry of Finance: Mrs. Simuchembo, Department of Social Planning
- Ministry of Health: Dr Kapata, TB Specialist
- Ministry of Health: Dr Mbewe, Reproductive Health Specialist
- Ministry of Health: Mr Kaliki, Senior Statistician
- Ministry of Health: Mr Mukobe, Gender Focal Point Person
- Ministry of Health: Mr Nyirenda, Environmental Health Specialist
- Ministry of Health: Mr. Mukuka
- Ministry of Justice: Mrs Oteng, International Law Advisor
- National Assembly of Zambia: Mr Hantoobolo
- National Assembly of Zambia: Mrs Kasankha Siwo
- National Legal Aid Clinic for Women: Ms Leah Chimimba, Programme Officer
- NGOCC: Mrs. Engwase Mwale, Executive Director
- Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM): Ms. Musonda
- Save the Children: Mrs. Nyambe
- UNFPA: Dr Bvulani Malumo, Reproductive Health Specialist
- UNFPA: Mekia Mohammed Redi, Gender and HIV/Aids Programme Officer
- WILSA: Mrs. Hope Kasese-Kumalo, Acting National Coordinator
- Women for Change: Mr. Lameck Simwanza, Acting Executive Director, Lusaka
- Zambia Land Alliance: Mr Henry Machina

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