CONTENTS

PREFACE

The first complete census of Africans in Zambia was held in May, 1963; two years after the enumeration of non-Africans residing within its territorial boundaries. This was followed by the 1969 Census, the first complete census after independence. The exercise was repeated in 1980 with the main objective of updating the information on the size, sex/age structure and other characteristics of the Zambian population, as well as ascertaining any specific changes in the demographic parameters that had taken place since the 1969 Census was conducted.

The information obtained in the field enumeration was compiled and published in 4 volumes:

Volume 1. General Population and Migration Tables
Volume 2. Economic and Social Tables
Volume 3. Fertility Tables
Volume 4. Housing Tables

In addition to the above mentioned volumes the results of the analyses of the 1980 Census and Housing data have been published in the following analytical reports, including an Administrative Report (Volume 1) which describes the census programme and the methodology used in the census.

1. Volume I - Administrative Report
2. Volume II - Analytical Report - Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of Zambia Population
3. Volume III - Analytical Report - Major Findings and Conclusions and Policy Implications
4. Volume IV - Analytical Report - Fertility and Mortality
5. Volume V - Analytical Report - Demographic Projections

This third volume of the Analytical Reports is intended to bring home to the general public including policy-makers,the major findings and conclusions of the results of the analyses of the 1980 Population and Housing Census data.In order to highlight the important demographic characteristics of the population of Zambia,technical terms and the number of tables have been reduced to the bearest minimum and detailed information on any aspect of the population may be obtained form the relevant chapters in the other volumes.It is our fervent hope that the volume will meet the needs of all those who concern themselves with the future of mankind in Zambia.

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

1. THE SETTING

1.1 In October, 1964, Zambia, a former British colony known as the Northern Rhodesia, achieved political independence after a long period of struggle for survival. Historical and archaelogical evidence indicates that morden Zambia has been inhabitated by human beings for many centuries. By 1500 much of Zambnia was occupied by farming people who were ancestors of many of the present inhabitants. Migrations into Central and North-Eastern parts from Luba-Lunda country in Southern Zaire began since the eleventh or twelveth century. The Tonga Diaspora people occupied Souther Zambia round about the same period (i.e. circa 1200) whilst the Nsenga and the Chewa arrived in the East by 1500. The Bemba crossed the Luapula well before 1700 and moved eastward, setting up villages or camps as they went along. The Lozi, detaching themselves from the Lunda-Luba empire well before 1700, headed south and the south-west to the upper regions of the Zambezi and after a series of battles, the Ngoni under Mpezeni finally settled down in their present abode in 1865. These are some examples of how Zambia's peoples reached their present homes. The peoples were organised into clans which performed varied functions including formulation and enforcement of rules and regulations relating to the principles and normal tenets underpining the institution of marriage: whom one could marry; avoidance of incest, proper allocation or acquisition of genetrical as well as uxorial rights are some of the important concerns of the senior members of the clans. Majority of the clans are matrilineal: descent was reckoned in the female line. Inheritance to social position and property was usually passed from a man to his sisters' sons. The custom is still prevalent among many Zambian communities. There are, however, bilateral and partrilineal clans such as the Lozi and Ngoni. THe clan and the lineage were the kingpins of the political and social organizations of the people with the lineage performing the primary function of regulating disputes and the senior representatives of the clan intervening where the lineage groups failed to settle quarrels.

CHAPTER 2

2. GENERAL DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ZAMBIA'S POPULATION

2.1. Ethnic-Language Group

The great bulk of zambia's population continues to be of indigenous African origin. There are, however, small European and Asian minority groups. The proportion of Africans among the Zambian population has increased since 1963. Reverse projection of the 1963 African population to 1961 shows that if the Africans were counted in 1961 they would have constituted about 97.3 per cent of the entire Zambian population; the corresponding percentages for Europeans, Asians and Coloureds being 2.4, 0.2 and 0.1 respectively. By 1969 the African segment had increased to 98.6 per cent whilst the European component decreased considerably from 2.4 to 1.1 per cent with the Asian increasing their quota slightly to 0.3. Eleven years later, the proportion of African rose sharply to 99.3 per cent as compared with that of the Europeans which plummeted to 0.3 per cent and thereby being of the same numerical strength with the Asians. The proportion Coloured, on the other hand, remained virtually constant over the period under discussion.

Although the 1969 population census revealed that 4.9 per cent of the total population were foreigners, 67 per cent of the foreign born immigrants hailed from the neighbouring African Countries of Malawi, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Angola and Zaire, the foreign component of the population decreased slightly to 4.1 per cent in 1980 with the proportion of the immigrants from other African Countries increasing to 82.5 per cent.

The Zambian population is also made up of a large number of ethnic groups, among the major ones are the Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga, Lozi and the North-Western Group. [See table 2.1]. Although no question on ethnic affiliation was asked in the censuses, the responses to the question on first language spoken as a child (i.e. mother tongue) may be used as a proxy for classifying the major ethnic groups. We are assuming of course, that laguange groups overlap to a large extent with ethnicity though this may not be the case in all situations.

2.2. Languages and Communication

The large measure of cultural continuity noted in terms of pottery styles is a strong indication of broad similarity between the languages spoken in Zambia circa 1500 or so and most of those spoken to-day. It is probable that in many parts of the country, the various language groups reflect the impact of migratory flows which evidently brought in their trail the Later Iron Age. Though virtually all Zambian languages belong to the Bantu linguistic family, linguists have not found it easy task to identify and count the languages in Zambia. A study has listed about Eighty (80) Bantu languages or dialects that fall into sixteen groups within several larger groups. Since we are only interested in the broad patterns and distributions of the language spoken (or mother tongue) and used as communication channels, we have confined ourselves to seven major groups which encompass several language groups or dialects. In other words, our prime objectiveis to present the results of the analysis of the census data without delving into a linguistic study. The Bemba group which comprises of about 16 languages and/or dialects is the most widespread. It is the most commonly spoken maternal language in the country; the proportion of the total population who learned to speak forms of Bemba as a first language during childhood (or mother tongue) rose from 35.2 per cent in 1969 to 37.6 per cent in 1980. Virtually similar pattern is exhibited by the provincial figures except in the North-Western Province where the proportion dropped from 6.9 to 4.9 percent during the intercensal period. The Nyanja Group (i.e. about six languages and/or dialects) is the next commonly spoken language but the proportion speaking forms of Nyanja as mother tongue increased by only 0.4 percentage points. The corresponding figures for the other provinces range from 0.1 in the Central Province to 0.8 percentage points in the Lusaka Province. Copperbelt and Eastern Provinces experienced declines in the proportions of residents who first learned to speak forms of Nyanja during childhood. Declines were also noted among the remainder of the major language groups (i.e. Tonga, Barotse, North-Western, Mambwe and Tumbuka) except in certain provinces but even there the increases were very small as compared with that noted among the first two major groups.

It is noteworthy that decreases occurred among the Barotse, Tonga, Mambwe, and Tumbuka Groups in the Western, Southern, Northern and Eastern Provinces respectively whereas the same language groups experienced slight increases in the other provinces; particularly in the Lusaka Province where most language groups exhibited intercensal increases in the proportions learning these languages during childhood. Thus Lusaka Province appears to be a melting-point of the inter-provincial migratory flows. These observations are reflections of the undercurrents of the volume and direction of migratory flows which are in turn set in motion by socio-economic and cultural factors.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY SEX, LANGUAGE FIRST SPOKEN (MOTHER TONGUE) AND FIRST LANGUAGE OF COMMUNICATION ZAMBIA-1980

TABLE 2.2

SEX / LANGUAGE FIRST SPOKEN (MOTHER TONGUE)	FIRST LANGUAGE OF COMMUNICATION									
	All Languages	Bemba Group	Tonga Group	N.West-Group	Barotse Group	Nyanja Group	Mambwe Group	Tumbuka Group	English Group	All Others
MALE										
Bemba Group	100	86.96	0.69	0.52	0.20	4.11	0.51	0.23	6.39	0.39
Tonga Group	100	5.53	77.27	0.33	1.47	9.16	0.04	0.06	5.91	0.23
N.Western Group	100	15.93	1.81	66.91	7.94	2.97	0.03	0.03	3.92	0.46
Barotse Group	100	5.19	3.93	1.70	75.94	6.08	0.03	0.04	6.69	0.40
Nyanja Group	100	12.08	1.90	0.14	0.39	77.93	0.13	0.64	6.37	0.42
Mambwe Group	100	29.83	0.30	0.08	0.10	4.65	60.06	0.19	4.32	0.48
Tumbuka Group	100	17.31	0.72	0.09	0.11	14.70	0.30	60.03	6.15	0.58
English	100	5.73	1.33	0.42	0.90	5.49	0.23	0.38	79.37	6.15
All Others	100	19.53	6.91	1.59	5.14	14.41	1.01	0.75	15.59	35.07

SEX / LANGUAGE FIRST SPOKEN (MOTHER TONGUE)	FIRST LANGUAGE OF COMMUNICATION									
	All Languages	Bemba Group	Tonga Group	N.West-Group	Barotse Group	Nyanja Group	Mambwe Group	Tumbuka Group	English Group	All Others
FEMALE										
Bemba Group	100	87.02	4.65	0.51	0.18	3.45	0.54	0.23	3.17	0.25
Tonga Group	100	5.22	80.64	0.38	1.52	8.66	0.03	0.07	3.26	0.22
N.Western Group	100	13.67	1.63	73.00	7.45	2.25	0.03	0.03	1.65	0.38
Barotse Group	100	4.05	3.05	1.94	82.73	4.32	0.03	0.02	3.52	0.34
Nyanja Group	100	11.41	2.00	0.15	0.38	81.98	0.12	0.62	3.08	0.35
Mambwe Group	100	27.70	0.24	0.07	0.06	4.02	65.40	0.17	1.91	0.43
Tumbuka Group	100	15.44	0.54	0.08	0.10	11.72	0.27	68.91	2.37	0.57
English	100	5.20	1.03	0.36	0.99	5.10	0.14	0.35	80.62	6.21
All Others	100	18.57	8.10	1.97	6.16	14.84	1.12	0.92	11.78	36.54

POPULATION GROWTH, DISTRIBUTION AND URBANIZATION

2.4 Population Growth

The first complete census of Africans in Zambia was held in May, 1963; two years after the enumeration of non-Africans residing within its territorial boundaries. The 1963 census yielded a total African population of 3,405,788 comprising of 1,689,612 males and 1,716,176 females. The 1961 count returned a non-African population of 84,382 with Europeans, Asians and Coloureds constituting 88.4, 9.2 and 2.4 per cent of the total population (i.e. Non-African) respectively. The results of the 1969 census, the first complete census after independence, showed that the non-African population had dwindled to 58,351, a decrease of 31 per cent though the Asians and Coloureds increased their numbers from 7,790 and 2,043 to 10,785 and 4,176 respectively during the eight-year period. The African population, on the other hand, increased from 3,405,788 in 1963 to 3,998,644 in 1969 with the female component climbing from 50.4 per cent to 51.1 per cent during the period.

The 1963-1969 period witnessed an average annual growth rate of 2.6 per cent among the African population; with the male and female population increasing at rates of 2.4 and 2.8 per cent per annum respectively. The enumerated population of about 5.7 million in 1980 indicates that the population of Zambia has been growing at a higher rate of about 3.1 per cent since 1969. The proportion of females remained virtually constant over the eleven year period (i.e. 51.1 per cent).

Estimates based on the 1969 census data suggest that the poopulation has been growing at a rate of natural increase of 3.0 per cent per annum; a difference between a crude birth rate of between 49 and 50 and a crude death rate of between 19 and 20 per thousand population (See Table 2.4). The crude death rate seems to have fallen from between 19 and 20 in the 1960's to about 18.9 in 1974, and our estimates put it at 16,7 in 1980. The infant mortality rate of 110 in 1974 also appears to be declining gradually, reaching 97 deaths per 1000 live births in late 1970's (estimates based on 1980 data). The corresponding figures for the rural and urban areas in 1980 are 98.0 and 80.0 respectively. The estimated life expectancies at birth of 47.8 years for females and 44.6 years for males in 1969 increased to 52.5 and 50.4 years respectively in 1980. The corresponding figures for the rural and urban areas in 1980 are 50.5 and 48.5 years and 56.0 and 53.3 years respectively.

The provincial populations have been growing at varying rates since 1963. Luapula and Northern Provinces experienced negative growth rates during the 1963 and 1969 period whilst populations of the Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces grew at relatively high rates of 7.0 and 10.4 per cent per annum respectively during the same period (Table 2.5). The remainder of the provinces underwent comparatively low growth rates of between 1.0 and 2.5 per cent per annum. The provincial growth pattern is a strong indication of the differential impact of migration on the size of the populations in the provinces; the provinces at the receiving end of the migratory flows experiencing high growth rates (e.g. Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces) whilst low and medium growth rates prevailed in the provinces affected by massive out-migration. The rate of population expansion slowed down considerably in most urbanized provinces (i.e. Copperbelt and Lusaka) during the 1969-1980 period with Luapula and Northern Porvinces registering positive growth rates and moderate increases were recorded in the growth rates of the remaincer of the provinces except the Western Province which experienced a decline in its growth rate.

2.5 Population Distribution

Zambia's population density increased from 4.4 persons per square kilometer in 1963 to 5.1 and 7.3 in 1969 and 1980 respectively. These figures, however, show that Zambia is a soarsely populated country, a large part of the country being uninhabited with 8.0 per cent of the land allocated to National Parks and 30 per cent outside the National Parks being infested by tsetse flies and/or seasonally flooded.

The 1980 figures show that the highest densities are in the Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces, followed by the Eastern, Luapula and Southern Provinces. The other provinces exhibit a population density of not more than 5 persons per square kilometer. It is worthy of note that the density in the Lusaka Province virtually doubled in 1969 as well as in 1980.

Due to certain social, economic, historical and cultural factors the population of Zambia is unevenly distributed. The Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces comprise of only 7.1 per cent of the land but they contain nearly 34 per cent of the total 1980 population. On the other hand, the Northern Province occupies the largest land area in Zambia (19.6 per cent) but it has only 11.9 percent of the country's inhabitants. The North-western and Western Provinces with nearly five times the land area of both Copperbelt and Lusaka Province, accounts for only 13.9 per cent of the total population as compared with 33.9 percent in the latter provinces. Three provinces (i.e. Central, Copperbelt and Lusaka) contain 43.2 per cent of Zambia's population though their land area is virtually the same as that of the Northern Province (i.e. 19.8 as against 19.7). The greater number of Zambians therefore reside in the central part of the country where commerce, industry and other economic activities are more developed than in the other parts of the country. Thus the spatial distribution of Zambia's population reflects the way in which the individual economic as well as administrative activities are distributed within the society and this in turn determines the basis of the economic infrastructure.

TABLE 2.6 URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION GROWTH 1963 - 1980

	POPULATION			PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION			POPULATION CHANGE: ABSOLUTE AND %		AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE	
	1963	1969	1980	1963	1969	1980	1963-69	1969-80	1963-69	1969-80
RURAL	2,774,914	2,864,579	3,403,232	79.6	70.6	60.1	89,965 (3.24)	538,653 (17.17)	0.6	1.6
URBAN	715,256	1,192,116	2,258,569	20.5	29.4	39.9	476,860 (66.67)	1,066,453 (89.45)	8.9	6.0
TOTAL ZAMBIA	2,490,170	4,056,995	5,661,801	100.00	100.00	100.00	566,825 (16.24)	1,605,106 (39.56)	2.5	3.1

NOTES 1. Defined as settlements (of over 5,000 inhabitants in the 1980 Census of Population according to the 1980 Census definition of an Urban area.

The pattern of urbanization over the 1963-1980 period exhibit considerable spatial and temporal variations. During the 1963 - 1969 intercensal period the large line-of-rail centres grew at a more rapid rate than the small provincial and district administrative and service centres. The policies of decentralisation and rural industrialisation programmes contributed significantly to the rapid growth of small urban centres during the 1969 - 1980 period. One important consequence of the growth of small urban centres has been a dispersal of the urban population away from the line-of rail. Areas where urbanization has been extremely rapid include the new Tanzania-Zambia Railway (TAZARA) corridor. A deconcentration of the urban population is indicated by a decline in the percentage of the urban population living in the four line-of-rail provinces (Copperbelt, Lusaka, Southern and Central) from 96.30 percent in 1969 to 84.10 percent in 1980.

In addition to natural increase, rapid urbanization in Zambia has been due to internal migration with net migration contributing over 50 percent of urban growth during the 1969 - 1980 period. Despite the high rate of migration and the rapid grwoth of large cities during the 1963-1969 period, a primate urban pattern has not emerged in Zambia. This has been dure to rapid growth of small and medium-sized urban centres. During the 1969-1980 intercensal period, urban centres with less than 50,000 inhabitants accounted for 22.0 percent of the total urban growth. The total number of small and mediun - sized towns rose from 10 in 1963 to 41 in 1980 accounting for 24.7 percent of the total urban population.

TABLE 2.8 URBAN POPULATION GROWTH BY MAJOR CATEGORIES, 1963 - 1980

	Population in thousands			Contribution to total Population growth (%)	
	1963	1969	1980	1963-1969	1969-1980
Large Urban Areas[2]	682.0 (95.4)	1,117.8 (93.8)	1,760,677 (75.3)	91.3	78.0
Other Urban Areas	33.0 (4.6)	74.3 (6.2)	497,892 (24.7)	8.7	22.0
Total Urban[1]	715.5	1,192.1	2,258,569	100.0	100.0

Source: Text

Notes: 1. Figures in parenteses denote percentages
2. All the Copperbelt towns and Livingstone and Kabwe (Population over 50,000 people

Rapid urbanization will be a continuing trend for some time to come. At present the attraction of large cities is no longer so powerful. However, rapid urbanization is likely to continue due to migration to small urban centres. In addition because of the preponderance of young people in the urban population and the large population already living in urban areas, rapic growth of the uroan population is likely to continue.

2.7 INTERNAL MIGRATION

The analysis of the major features of internal migration in Zambia has shown that the majority of migration occurs between districts in the same province, while migration flows to districts along the line of rail are next in importance (and occasionally more important as in Luapula and Northern Provinces). Migration between districts in different provinces along the line of rail is third in importance, with migration between districts in different provinces outside the line of rail least important. It thus appears that rural-rural migration, primaryly within provinces outside the line of rail, is the most important type of migration which is occurring in Zambia today. This may in fact be increasing in relative importance as faster population growth in rural areas and an imorovement in the attractiveness of agriculture as a livelihood lead to increased demands for agricultural land and the expansion of farming settlement through colonization. Rural-urban migration remains important, although this is probably declinig somewhat in importance as the impact of recession in urban areas makes movement to towns less attractive. Conversely urban-rural return migration appears to be growing (Witness the declinig efficiency figures for migration flows[see Census Report Volume II] as urban-born people with rural links move to the countryside, often as dependents of retiring or unemployed former rural-urban migrants. Migration between urban areas may have increased in the late 1960s and early 1970s when, as communications improved, a more intergrated national migration system developed. However, with the recession hitting the urban areas particularly severely, it seems likely that this form of migration has declined in relative importance in recent years.

The birthplace category data, which consinder for each province the district of residence of people relative to their district of birth, show a decline in net migration with less people living outside their district of birth in 1980 compared to 1969 . Other evidence showing a decline in the relative importance of migration comes from the time-specific, or current, migration data. This shows that the number of people involved in inter-provincial migration in the year before the 1980 census was equal to 4.7 percent of the 1980 population, in contrast to a figure of 5.5 percent of the 1969 population for the number of people involved in such migration in the year leading up to the 1969 census. On the other hand lifetime migration figures show that the percentage of the population involved in inter-provincial migration and still living outside their province of birth rose between 1969 and 1980, from 18 to 21 percent.

These data suggest that while inter-provincial migration continues to grow, it is doing so at a declining rate (cf. the current migration figures), while inter-district migration, reflected in the birthplace data figures, is declining. Indeed the impact of inter-provincial migration is also declining as net flows had fallen in relative size between 1969 and 1980, as migration counter streams had grown in importance - a fact reflected in the declining migration efficiency figures. This reduction in the impact of migration is further shown in the provincial population pyramids which had less variation from the national one in 1980 than in 1969.

in intercistrict migration in provinces along the line of rail. As a result male dominance in migration has declined but the masculinity ratio of Zambian internal migrants remains at 107, confirming that more men are involved in migration than women. Education is also higher among migrants than non-migrants, as studies in other parts of the developing world have shown. Zambian migrants in particulr have more secondary and tertiary level education than non-migrants. In conclusion it may be suggested that a more 'mature' migration situation is developing in Zambia. This is characterised by greater balance in several respects. These incluce increased counter flows balancing original migration flows, and so giving lower migration efficiency figures. There is also less dominance of young adult males in migration and increased involvement by women. There is some evidence for a little less diversity in the volumes of migration into and out of the various provinces as peripheral provinces become more fully integrated into the migration system. Finally, because of the recession, and the changes in the relative attractiveness of rural and urban areas, there is evidence of a slow-down in the growth of inter-provincial migration, especially to the urban provinces, and a relative decline in intercistrict migration.

2.8 MARITAL STATUS

In 1969, 69.5 percent of the males and 86.0 percent of the females aged 15 years and over had ever been married. The corresponding proportions in 1980 were 63.5 and 79.4 percent respectively. The figures show that a sizeable proportion of Zambians, especially the females do marry though the proportions entering wedlock declined during the intercensal period by 6.0 and 6.6 percentage points among males and females respectively.

The proportion of spinisters in 1969 declined from 58.4 percent among the 15-19 year olds to 1.8 percent in the age group 35-39 years and then rose systematically with increase in age to 7.1 percent. Similar pattern is noted among the males.

The proportions never married among both males and females were higher in 1980 than in 1969; the male proportions declined from 98 percent among the 15-19 age group to 2.9 percent among the 50-54 year olds whilst that of the females decreased rather irregularly, particularly between ages 40-54, from 68.3 percent to 3.7 percent among the 15-19 and 50-54 age groups respectively. (Table 2.9).

By age 35, 95.6 percent of the females enumerated in the 1980 census had ever been married; indicating the universality of marriage and early age at marriage. The proportions ever-married among the females increased from 92.0 percent among the 25-29 year olds to 96.7 and 96.8 percent among the 35-39 and 40-44 age groups respectively. The figures show that most adult females marry before they are 25 years old. The proportions among males increased from relatively low figure of 2 percent among the 15-19 year olds to 89.7 percent among the 30-34 year olds as compared with 96.7 among the females in the same age group. And it was not until in the 45-49 age group that the proportion ever-married climbed to 96.6 percent; a level achieved by females as far back as in the age group 35-39 ten years earlier. These figures are indications of early marriage among females as well as males marrying much younger females.

Six important points to note about the marriage patterns described above are: (1) Females marry at younger ages than males and on the average tend to be between five and ten years younger than their husbands, (2) Males remarry more rapidly than females. (3) Most Zambians get married at some stage in their lives and most adult females marry before they reach age 25. (4) Marriage seems to be more stable in the urban than in the rural areas. (5) Proportion widowed is also higher in the country side. (6) Proportion Never-married at the old ages (e.g. 45 and over) seems to be relatively high as compared with other populations; a strong indication of misclassification of marital status, especially among the females.

TABLE 2.9: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ADULT POPULATION BY SEX, AGE AND MARITAL STATUS - ZAMBIA 1969

AGE GROUP	NEVER MARRIED		MARRIED		DIVORCED/ SEPARATED		WIDOWED	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
15 - 19	97.3	58.4	2.3	37.7	0.3	3.7	0.1	0.2
20 - 24	63.8	9.4	33.7	81.4	2.3	8.5	0.2	0.7
25 - 29	21.6	3.6	73.5	86.8	4.3	8.5	0.6	1.1
30 - 34	8.4	2.1	85.7	86.9	5.3	8.9	0.6	2.1
35 - 39	5.2	1.8	88.8	85.3	5.3	9.3	0.8	3.6
40 - 44	3.6	1.9	90.2	80.7	5.2	10.6	1.0	6.8
45 - 49	2.9	2.1	90.6	74.3	5.1	11.9	1.4	11.7
50 - 54	2.4	2.7	89.7	61.6	5.6	14.5	2.3	21.2
55+	2.8	4.4	86.4	38.6	6.1	16.5	4.7	40.5

Source: Census of Population and Housing 1969
Final Report Vol.1 Total Zambia
Central Statistical Office-November, 1973.

TABLE 2.11: AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE AND FIRST BIRTH BY TOTAL COUNTRY, PROVINCES, RURAL AND URBAN AREAS ZAMBIA 1980.

COUNTRY AND PROVINCES	AGE AT MARRIAGE			AGE AT BIRTH		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Zambia	18.3	18.5	18.0	18.9	19.2	18.2
Central	18.1	18.3	17.6	18.7	18.9	18.1
Copperbelt	17.8	17.9	17.8	18.2	18.6	18.1
Eastern	18.7	18.7	18.5	19.6	19.7	18.8
Luapula	17.8	17.9	17.5	18.6	18.7	18.1
Lusaka	18.3	18.5	18.2	18.4	18.7	18.3
Northern	18.0	18.0	17.7	18.7	18.8	18.1
North-western	18.6	18.5	18.3	19.4	19.6	18.4
Southern	18.8	18.8	18.6	18.8	18.9	18.5
Western	19.1	19.1	18.9	19.9	20.1	19.1

TABLE 2.12: REPORTED MEAN AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND RESIDENCE-(FEMALES) ZAMBIA 1980

RESIDENCE	LEVEL OF EDUCATION					
		GRADE		SECONDARY		
	NO SCHOOLING	1-4	5-7	1-3	4-6	TERTIARY
Total	18.7	17.9	17.5	17.9	20.6	23.7
Rural	18.8	17.9	17.6	18.0	20.2	+
Urban	18.3	17.7	17.4	17.9	20.7	23.6

Notes: + Small number of cases

The mean age at first birth is about 0.6 years higher than the mean age at marriage with the urban women having their first births, on average, about 0.2 years after marriage as compared with 0.7 years in the rural areas. The first birth intervals range from between 0.8 and 0.9 years in the Eastern, Luapula, North-Western and Western Provinces to between 0.6 and 0.7 years in the Central and Northern Provinces with Lusaka and Southern Provinces on the verge of experiencing negative interval. On the whole, the first birth interval is relatively short (i.e. less than the gestation period) except perhaps in the Eastern Provinces where the average interval is equal to the gestation period and even here pre-marital conception may be rampant.

TABLE 2.13: POPULATION DISTRIBUTION (5 YEARS AND OVER) BY EDUCATIONAL GROUP AND SEX: 1969 AND 1980 (%)

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	1969	1980	1969	1980	1969	1980
No Schooling	41.2	35.3	59.2	48.8	50.4	42.2
Lower Primary	30.1	24.4	25.2	23.9	27.6	24.1
Upper Primary	19.6	24.6	10.0	19.4	14.7	22.0
Junior Secondary	4.2	9.3	1.6	5.1	2.9	7.1
Senior Secondary	2.2	4.3	1.0	1.4	1.6	2.8
Higher Education	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2
Not Stated	2.3	1.7	2.8	1.3	2.5	1.5
	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
Total	1619698	2262213	1686249	2379561	3305947	4641774

Note: The percentages do not always add up to 100 because of rounding.

TABLE 2.14: SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATE FOR TOTAL POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX ZAMBIA AND PROVINCES: 1980 (%) AGE GROUP

PROVINCE	5-29		5-6		7-14		10-14		15-19		20-24		25-29	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
COPPERBELT	40.4	34.2	2.3	2.4	63.5	63.6	83.8	81.8	64.5	41.1	15.1	3.0	1.5	0.6
CENTRAL	37.0	30.3	2.8	3.0	57.6	57.0	73.7	70.9	56.7	31.2	11.6	2.0	1.3	0.6
LUSAKA	38.0	32.4	4.8	5.9	63.2	61.9	79.3	75.0	61.6	37.5	14.4	4.3	2.0	1.0
SOUTHERN	41.0	34.2	3.1	3.6	61.6	61.7	76.3	75.1	59.4	36.3	14.5	3.9	1.7	1.3
LUAPULA	39.6	28.9	2.9	3.0	55.9	52.7	71.7	66.4	58.1	28.7	14.8	2.6	1.6	0.7
NORTHERN	41.0	28.4	3.5	3.5	57.3	52.2	73.1	65.1	60.7	26.5	17.3	2.4	2.3	0.7
EASTERN	33.6	23.7	3.4	4.0	46.7	44.0	58.7	54.3	49.6	22.7	14.2	2.0	1.9	0.8
NORTH-WESTERN	37.5	26.1	3.3	3.4	51.4	48.3	64.9	59.1	57.5	25.5	15.8	2.5	2.3	0.9
WESTERN	39.4	29.0	2.5	3.2	56.2	55.7	70.5	68.4	56.4	31.5	18.3	3.0	2.8	0.9
ZAMBIA	38.9	30.5	3.1	3.5	58.1	56.7	74.1	70.6	59.1	32.8	14.9	3.0	1.8	0.8

TABLE 2.15: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT BY PRIMARY GRADES : PROVINCES, URBAN AND RURAL, 1980 (%)

PROVINCE		GRADE 1	GRADE 2	GRADE 3	GRADE 4	GRADE 5	GRADE 6	GRADE 7	TOTAL
COPPERBELT	Urban	10.3	10.3	11.4	12.5	13.2	14.2	28.1	432,430
	Rural	11.4	12.3	13.2	14.1	13.1	12.9	23.0	82,117
CENTRAL	Urban	10.3	10.7	11.2	13.0	12.8	14.3	27.8	63,056
	Rural	11.7	12.9	13.0	16.1	12.3	13.0	21.0	132,482
LUSAKA	Urban	12.2	10.4	11.0	12.8	12.4	14.0	27.3	214,031
	Rural	14.9	11.3	12.1	13.7	12.3	13.2	22.4	54,478
SOUTHERN	Urban	10.2	10.9	11.5	14.6	11.6	13.2	26.0	68,267
	Rural	10.3	11.5	12.2	18.0	11.4	12.2	24.3	205,815
LUAPULA	Urban	12.0	12.1	12.3	14.5	13.4	13.0	22.6	22,975
	Rural	12.7	13.9	14.9	18.2	12.2	11.9	16.1	142,270
NORTHERN	Urban	12.1	12.4	12.8	15.3	12.5	13.1	21.9	46,873
	Rural	13.4	14.0	14.9	17.3	12.0	12.2	16.3	210,170
EASTERN	Urban	12.5	11.7	12.7	15.0	12.0	13.5	22.6	25,302
	Rural	13.1	13.9	15.1	19.3	11.1	11.5	16.0	181,626
N-WESTERN	Urban	10.3	11.1	11.7	14.6	13.2	13.0	26.3	15,869
	Rural	12.7	14.5	15.0	17.4	11.9	11.3	17.2	76,598
WESTERN	Urban	10.9	10.4	12.2	16.8	12.1	13.7	23.9	32,834
	Rural	11.9	12.2	14.7	20.2	11.4	12.2	17.3	132,418
ZAMBIA	Urban	11.0	10.6	11.5	13.2	12.8	13.9	27.1	921,637
	Rural	12.3	13.0	14.0	17.6	11.8	12.2	19.0	1,217,976

Notes: Percentages shown in Table 6.4(a) relate to total educational attainment (primary grades) for the urban or rural component in the province as the case may be.

Nonetheless, majority of the physically handicapped were neither working nor married except in the case of the sick. Thus, a disabled person almost invariably finds it extremely difficult to find a job as well as a partner; the twin socio-economic problems which must be the pre-occupation of the welfare officer. It is , however, encouraging to note that nearly 4.4 percent of the males residing in the urban areas who had lost a limb were working and nearly seven out of every ten of those with two or more disabilities were working. In contrast, not many persons with such physical defects were in employment in the rural areas.

2.11 ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND LABOUR FORCE

In 1980, 54.1 percent of the population aged 12 years and above were economically active in Zambia (Table 7.1). The corresponding figures for the rural and urban populations were 54.3 and 53.7 percent respectively. As many as 72.1 percent of the males, as compared with only 37.3 percent of the females were reported as economically active. included in the labour force; the difference of 34.8 percent points is quite high.

The provincial activity rates differ substantially. The highest rate of 59.4 percent is recorded in the Western Province, while Northern Province exhibhits the lowest rate of 48.6 percent. The lowest rates for both urban (48.3 percent) and rural (48.7 percent) areas are recorded in the Northern Province, while the highest rates are recorded in the urban areas of Lusaka Province (58.5 percent) and in the rural areas of the Western Province (59.6 percent).

The activity rate for males in Zambia is higher in the urban areas (73.4 percent) than in the rural areas (70.4 percent). The highest rate is recorded in the Lusaka Province with (76.9 percent) while the lowest is recorded in the Northern Province (66.3 percent). The urban/rural differentials indicate that the highest rate for males in the urban areas is found in the Lusaka Province (77.3 percent) whilst the highest rate for rural areas is recorded in the Copperbelt Province (80.4 percent).

Table 2.16: REFINED ACTIVITY RATE OF THE POPULATION IN ZAMBIA AGED 12 YEARS AND ABOVE BY PROVINCE AND SEX, 1980 (%).

Province		Refined Activity Rate Both Sexes	Refined Activity Rate Males	Refined Activity Rate Females
Zambia	Total	54.1	72.1	37.3
	Urban	53.7	73.4	32.8
	Rural	54.3	70.4	39.9
Central Province	Total	54.1	74.0	33.8
	Urban	52.2	73.3	29.6
	Rural	54.9	74.4	35.4
Copperbelt Province	Total	52.8	73.9	29.3
	Urban	51.6	72.5	28.3
	Rural	58.1	80.4	33.8
Eastern Province	Total	53.6	72.7	38.4
	Urban	51.8	73.3	31.0
	Rural	53.8	72.7	39.1
Luapula Province	Total	57.4	79.8	46.8
	Urban	57.2	70.0	45.2
	Rural	57.4	69.8	47.0
Lusaka Province	Total	58.2	76.9	37.9
	Urban	58.5	77.3	37.8
	Rural	57.1	75.1	38.3
Northern Province	Total	48.6	66.3	33.9
	Urban	48.3	66.6	32.3
	Rural	48.7	66.3	34.2
North Western Province	Total	54.9	70.5	41.5
	Urban	53.0	72.0	35.3
	Rural	55.2	70.3	42.4
Southern Province	Total	51.9	68.5	36.1
	Urban	53.8	71.8	36.1
	Rural	50.9	67.3	36.0
Western Province	Total	59.4	72.1	49.7
	Urban	57.4	72.8	43.7
	Rural	59.8	71.9	50.8

TABLE 2.17 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE WORKING POPULATION AGED 12 YEARS AND ABOVE BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND SEX

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
Employer	0.5	0.6	0.3
Employee	61.0	66.2	48.9
Self Employed	32.1	30.4	36.0
Unpaid Family Worker	32.1	30.4	36.0
Not Stated	1.3	0.7	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural			
Employer	0.5	0.7	6.7
Employee	49.8	51.4	47.1
Self Employed	40.2	43.6	34.3
Unpaid Family Worker	7.5	3.3	14.9
Not Stated	1.9	1.1	3.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban			
Employer	0.6	0.6	0.4
Employee	80.5	86.8	54.8
Self Employer	17.7	12.0	41.8
Unpaid Family Workers	0.72	0.3	2.4
Not Stated	0.4	0.3	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.11.4 Educational Level:

Out of the total working population, 33.2 percent have never attended school, 43.5 percent have completed primary education, 21.4 percent secondary education and only 0.4 pecent have had University education. It is observed that 52.3 percent of the female working population have never attended school as compared to 33.2 percent of the males. At all educational levels, males have higher proportions than females.

As expected the labour force in urban areas is more educated than in rural areas; only 15.6 percent of the working population, in the urban areas never attended school as compared with 44.3 percent in rural areas. The proportion of working population with primary education is virtually the same in rural and urban areas. But the working population with secondary and higher education is higher in urban areas.

2.12 HOUSEHOLDS AND HOUSING

2.12.1 Introduction

Families and households constitute primary units where individuals are socialized and interact with each other. It is within these primary units that the practices by which societies regulate the association of the sexes in marriage and the family and also sanction reproduction are established. Families and households are also primary units of consumption which are used in various marketing. Both governmental and non-governmental agencies use house projections for the planning of housing and building construction, the development of public utilities, the provision of essential social services and for the production and distribution of consumer goods. Any serious and effective development planning exercise therefore requires up-to-date information on the formation and growth of households and families and their demographic characteristics. The following therefore highlight the major findings regarding variations and trends in household size and characteristics of the heads of households.

2.12.2 Households

The total number of households increased from 856,156 in 1969 to 1,128,350 in 1980; an increase of 31.8 per cent during the intercensal period. The number of female headed households also increased by 53.3 per cent as compared with 25.0 per cent in respect of households managed by males. Furthermore, the proportion of households run by females rose from 23.8 per cent to 1969 to 27.7 per cent in 1980 whereas that of male heads declined from 76.2 to 72.3 per cent (See Table 2).

The Rural-Urban classification shows that nearly eight out of ten households with female heads were in the rural areas. Majority of the urban households were headed by males with the female running only 18.0 per cent of the households. Within the rural setting, however, one-third of the households were managed by females. Although monitoring of trends in household formation in both the rural and urban areas is hampered by non-classification of the 1969 data by residence, the national figures indicate quite clearly that there has been a tremendous increase in the number of households over the past years; especially among female-headed households. The proportions of households run by males decreased in all the provinces with Lusaka, North/Western, Southern, Western and Copperbelt Provinces experiencing the greatest declines. The females were therefore faced with greater responsibilities of managing households without men; a phenomenon which is clearly reflected in the increases in the proportions of female-headed households during the intercensal period (Table 2.10). The rural females shoulder a greater burden than their urban counterparts though there has been significant increase in the urban households headed by females. The increase in the female headed households is undoubtedly related to a number of socio-demographic factors such as rural-urban migration, marital instability and mortality differentials among the sexes. The analysis of household size and characteristics of head will throw more light on the extent to which the observed trends are influenced by the factors noted above. It is important, however, to remind ourselves of the implications of such trends for the roles played by women in the whole spectrum of social and economic development and the reader's attention is drawn to the United Nations document on "State of the World's Women Report 1985": a paper prepared for the World Conference which took place in Nairobi to mark the end of the United Nations Decade for Women.

TABLE 2.18: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION; HOUSEHOLDS BY SEX OF HEAD, RESIDENCE AND PROVINCE : 1969 - 1980.

Province	TOTAL				RURAL		URBAN	
	1969		1980		1980			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All Provinces	76.2	23.8	72.3	27.7	67.3	32.7	82.1	17.9
Central	80.2	19.8	78.4	21.6	76.7	23.3	82.4	17.6
Copperbelt	90.4	9.6	85.8	14.2	78.2	21.8	88.0	12.0
Eastern	64.0	36.0	62.4	37.6	61.1	38.9	78.2	21.8
Luapula	66.0	34.0	64.2	35.8	63.3	36.7	72.0	28.0
Lusaka	88.2	11.8	79.2	20.8	71.8	28.2	81.2	18.8
Northern	61.4	38.6	63.1	36.9	62.8	37.2	64.3	35.7
N/Western	75.7	24.3	69.0	31.0	68.5	31.5	72.5	27.5
Southern	82.9	17.1	74.9	25.1	73.2	26.8	80.0	20.0
Western	73.9	26.1	64.0	36.0	63.1	36.9	69.4	30.6

Notes: 1969 data are not classified by residence.

AVERAGE HOUSEHOLD SIZE BY PROVINCE AND RESIDENCE: 1969-1980

TABLE 2.19

PROVINCES	TOTAL		RURAL	URBAN
	1969	1980	1980	
All Provinces	4.7	5.0	4.7	5.6
Central	4.7	5.7	5.7	5.6
Copperbelt	5.6	5.7	4.5	6.1
Eastern	4.3	4.3	4.2	5.4
Luapula	4.0	4.2	4.1	5.1
Lusaka	4.7	5.1	5.3	5.2
Northern	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.9
N/Western	4.1	4.6	4.5	5.1
Southern	5.3	5.8	5.9	5.6
Western	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.8

2.12.4 Characteristics Of the Heads

As would be expected, establishment of separate households is inversely related to age and a good index of the rate of separate household formation is the headship rate (i.e. proportion of heads in the group considered). Headship rates among males and females by age are displayed in Table 2.21. The proportion of heads among the various age groups increased with age and the rate of household formation rises more steeply after age 24 among the males; indicating a steady rise in the proportion of males who become married and also self-sufficient to form their own households. The female rates, on the other hand, increase sharply after age 19 but continue to rise gradually until the end of the age distribution whilst the rates of the males fall after age 54. Thus, the high male mortality rates at the old ages places more and more females at the headship of the households.

The changes in the headship rates between 1969 and 1980 account for part, if not most, of the increase in the number of households. Thus, both socio-economic and demographic factors affect the number and the size of households and sex-age specific headship rates may be regarded as summarizing the net effects of all the influencing factors. The provincial headship rates portray some of the effects of socio-economic factors. For example, the relatively high female headship rates in the Eastern, Luapula, Northern and, to a large exent, in the Western Provinces are indicative of massive male migration into the provinces with comparitively low female headship rates though cultural influences might have played significant roles.

AGE-SEX SPECIFIC HEADSHIP RATES BY RESIDENCE ZAMBIA-1980

TABLE 2.22

Age Group Of Head	TOTAL		RURAL		URBAN	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
15-19	4.27	4.98	4.62	5.64	3.76	4.01
20-24	31.15	14.01	37.05	17.21	25.07	10.13
25-29	71.97	19.88	82.45	24.91	62.52	14.01
30-34	85.71	22.52	93.82	27.35	78.48	15.14
35-39	89.71	25.08	96.00	30.00	83.26	16.26
40-44	91.92	27.34	97.37	31.45	85.52	18.20
45-49	91.21	30.59	94.37	33.76	86.86	21.40
50-54	92.01	33.46	95.54	35.90	85.95	24.25
55-59	90.98	35.82	94.87	38.21	81.36	25.25
60-64	89.51	40.59	93.32	43.15	74.44	26.44
65+	83.83	44.76	86.70	47.06	66.22	29.15

The trend is fundamentally related to urbanization, the rise in per capita income and improved employment for educated females. The influence of socio-economic factors on the patterns noted above may also be gleaned from the figures for Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces where a sizeable number of both male and female heads were engaged in non-agricultural activities. Farming, however, is the main occupation of the female heads in the other provinces except in the Southern Province where the occupational structure is more akin to the former provinces.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION HOUSEHOLD HEADS BY OCCUPATION AND RESIDENCE-1980

TABLE 2.24

	MALE			FEMALE		
Occupation of Head	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Professional, Technical, and Related Workers.. ..	8.84	7.06	11.28	8.35	6.06	15.44
Administrative and Managerial (workers)..	1.82	0.85	3.16	0.52	0.21	1.48
Clerical, and Related Workers..	4.43	2.56	7.02	5.42	2.28	15.13
Sales Workers..	5.50	3.23	8.63	14.00	6.35	37.64
Service Workers..	12.04	7.25	18.65	4.64	2.37	11.65
Agricutural, Animal Husbandary, Forestry, Fishermen, and Hunters..	38.96	62.70	6.22	60.96	77.64	9.40
Production, Transport, and Related Workers	26.09	14.80	41.66	5.17	4.41	7.51
Workers not Classified Elsewhere..	2.32	1.55	3.38	0.94	0.68	1.75

Nearly each household occupied one housing unit with more than one-quater of the housing units containing only one room, and eight out of every ten dwellings consisted of not more than three rooms. In other words, majority of the households occupied dwellings with not more than three rooms; six out of every ten housing units occupied by one household contained not more than two rooms. The corresponding proportions for the rural and urban areas were 62.7 and 45.1 per cent respectively [Table 2.27]. The urban household therefore tends to occupy dwellings with more rooms but we must not lose sight of the larger average urban household size.

A classification of housing units by number of rooms and number of occupants throws more light on the housing situation in the country. A slightly more than a third of the dwellings were occupied by households with between four and six persons whilst housing units with seven or more occupants accounted for about 30.0 per cent of the total housing. Thus, sixty-four per cent of the total number of dwellings were occupied by 4 or more persons per dwelling. Though there is a general tendency for the number of rooms per a housing unit to increase with an increasing number of occupants, a close examination of the figures presented in Table 2.27 show that majority [64.5 per cent] of the housing units with seven or more occupants per unit contained only three rooms; an indication of a possible overcrowding in certain communities. It will be seen from table 2.27 that seven out of ten housing units in the urban areas were occupied by 4 or more persons and that more than one third of the urban dwellings contained households with 7 or more persons. And the number of rooms in six out of ten of these dwellings was not more than three; seven or more persons would therefore be sharing three rooms including a living room. The problem of acequate number of rooms for a household appears to be more acute in the rural than in the urban areas.

Nearly 40.0 per cent of the housing units were constructed with either burnt brick, stone or concrete and the dwellings built with poles and dagga and kimberly bricks accounted for 27.5 and 23.8 per cent respectively. The corresponding figures for 1969 were 26.5, 46.3 and 21.1 for the three types of materials respectively. There was therefore a significant increase in dwellings built with burnt bricks etc whilst the proportion of the total housing units constructed with pole and dagga decreased substially from 46.3 per cent in 1969 to 27.5 per cent in 1980. The urban dwellings are usually constructed with either burnt or kimberly bricks; nearly nine out of every ten dwellings were built with these bricks in 1980. On the other hand, about one-half of the rural houses were erected with bricks and the other half were built with pole and dagga grass, corrugated iron or other materials.

A little over 4 out of even ten houses were roofed with grass and nearly the same ratio of buildings had either corrugated iron or asbestos roofs. However, majority of the urban dwellings [84.7 per cent] were roofed with either asbestos or corrugated iron sheets with only 8.1 per cent of the urban houses having roofs made up of grass. The rural houses, on the other hand, were mostly roofed with grass though nearly three out of ten houses had either a corrugated iron or thatch roof.

Majority of the housing units, however, obtained their water supply from wells and boreholes or rivers and streams. The proportion of dwellings depending on these sources for their water supply decreased from 67.5 per cent in 1969 to 52.4 per cent in 1980. Notwithstanding, more than one-half of the dwellings had no access to piped borne water at the time of the 1980 census. The degree of dependence on sources other than piped water varies among the provinces; the proportions ranging from 89.1 per cent in the Eastern Province through 85 and 82 in Luapula and North/Western Provinces to 8.6 per cent in Lusaka Province.

A little over eight out of ten households had no electricity supply in 1980 though the proportion with electricity increased from 11.9 in 1969 to 17.8 per 1980. In the rural areas, Eastern, Luapula, Northern, North/Western and Western Provinces more than nine out of ten households had no access to electricity supply and it was only on the Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces that electricity was available to between 30 and 40 per cent of the households. Majority of the households [i.e. 87.5 per cent] therefore used wood or charcoal as a source of energy for cooking as well as for heating. The importance of wood and charcoal as a source of energy is confirmed by the figures for the urban areas which show that nearly eight out of ten urban households depended on wood and/or charcoal. It must be noted that only small proportion of households used electricity and gas or paraffin for cooking purposes. In other words even where electricity is available it may be used mostly for lighting purposes rather than for cooking.

Pit latrine was the most common toilet facility and the proportion of households using it was relatively high in the Luapula (76.0%), Northern (75.0%) and North-Western (70.0%) Provinces. In the Eastern and Western Provinces nearly seven out of ten households had no toilet facility. Majority of the rural households used pit latrines though 41.0 per cent of them lacked toilet facilities. Flush toilets appears to be a common features in the urban settings though a sizeable number of the households use pit latrines

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION:HOUSING UNITS BY NUMBER OF ROOMS AND NUMBER OF OCCUPANTS

TABLE 2.27 ZAMBIA-1980

Number of Occupants	Total Housing Units	NUMBER OF ROOMS					
		Total	1	2	3	4	5+
1	10.71	100	51.85	28.13	11.96	5.04	3.02
2-3	25.25	100	36.64	34.83	17.15	7.02	4.36
4-6	34.41	100.	23.14	34.36	24.68	11.07	6.75
7+	29.63	100	10.24	24.19	30.02	20.03	15.51
Total	100.00	100	25.80	30.61	23.00	12.05	8.34
Rural							
1	11.71	100	55.79	27.23	10.76	4.14	2.08
2-3	27.62	100	40.26	34.94	15.72	5.82	3.26
4-6	34.60	100	27.93	34.51	22.65	9.45	5.46
7+	26.07	100	14.62	25.98	26.59	17.94	14.87
Total	100.00	100	31.16	31.56	20.36	10.03	6.89
Urban							
1	8.79	100	41.71	30.46	15.03	7.35	5.45
2-3	20.67	100	27.33	34.56	20.81	10.12	7.18
4-6	34.05	100	13.81	34.05	28.64	14.23	9.27
7+	36.49	100	4.30	21.77	34.69	22.86	16.38
Total	100.00	100	15.55	29.35	28.05	15.94	11.11

Gross Reproduction rate is the average female children a woman would have if she survived to the end of the childbearing years. It measures the number of daughters who would grow up to replace their mother as mothers in the next generation in absence of mortality.. Thus, barring the effects of mortality, and all things being equal, each fertile woman in Zambia would, on the average, be replaced in the next generation by more than 3 daughters who would grow up to become mothers. The net Reproduction rate provices a similar measurement of fertility except that it takes into account the fact that death will reduce the number of daughters who would grow up to become mothers. In Zambia the effect of mortality would reduce the number of daughters to 2.6, implying that each mother would be replaced by nearly three or, at least, two mothers in the next generation of mothers. In other words, for every one mother to-day there would be at least two mothers in the next cohort of mothers. Fertility level in Zambia is therefore very high and it seems to have remained relatively constant over the past years.

TABLE 3.1: REPORTED TOTAL FERTILITY RATES AND COMPLETED FAMILY SIZE, TOTAL COUNTRY AND PROVINCES ZAMBIA,1980

	1969		1980	
PROVINCE	TOTAL FERTILITY	COMPLETED F/S*	TOTAL FERTILITY	COMPLETED F/S*
ZAMBIA	4.0	4.9	5.7	6.5
CENTRAL	4.8**	5.0	6.9	6.8
COPPERBELT	5.4	4.7	6.2	6.6
EASTERN	3.2	5.7	5.0	6.6
LUAPULA	5.2	5.3	5.8	7.6
LUSAKA	-	5.3	5.7	7.0
NORTHERN	6.1	6.3	6.0	7.2
NORTH-WESTERN	3.0	3.3	4.7	4.7
SOUTHERN	4.2	4.2	5.4	7.0
WESTERN	1.9	3.5	4.1	4.9

* AVERAGE OF PARITIES FOR 45-49 AND 50-54 AGE GROUPS
** CENTRAL AND LUSAKA PROVINCES.

3.2. FERTILITY DIFFERENTIALS

3.2.1. Residence and Fertility

A number of studies indicate that the level of fertility in urban settings is not stable. It may be higher or lower than that of the rural areas or there may not even be any significant difference between the two levels of fertility, depending on the mix of factors influencing the level of fertility in a specific situation.

It is, therefore, not surprising that recent findings generally point to higher fertility in urban areas than in rural areas in several developing countries. For instance, the latest estimates for Liberia show an urban general fertility rate of 218 births per 1,000 women aged 15 to 49 years; this being 10 percent higher than the correspoding rural rates. In Somalia, it was found that though child-bearing starts early in rural areas as compared with the urban areas, by the time the females reach the end of child-bearing, urban females exhibit larger comoleted family size than rural females. The results of the world Fertility Survey (WFS) also indicate that cumumlative fertility in three Asian countries (Indonesia, Nepal and Pakistan) is higher in the urban than in rural areas. Nonetheless, negative influence of urban living on fertility is also noticed in a number of countries surveyed by the W.F.S.

In this study, it is quite apparent from Table 3.3 that the level of fertility in the urban areas is higher than thatof rural areas the difference between the two levels is about 8 percent. It can be seen from Table 3.3. that, even though at the beginning of child-bearing period (15-49) both rural and urban females reported the same average parity, at subsequent ages urban females consistently exhibit higher average parities than their rural counterparts.

There is a number of possible reasons why the level of fertility is higher in urban areas than in the country side. For instance, better health facilities in the urban areas might have led to improvement in fecundability as well as reduction in pregnancy wastage. On the other hand, shortening of durations of breastfeeding and post-partum abstinence and non-use or little use of contraceptives might have given rise to shorter birth intervals with consequential increase in the level of fertility among the urbanites. This appears to be the prevailing situation in Zambia at the moment. Furthermore, the ECA/GRZ survey of 1978-1979 pointed out that, only about a tenth of the population inhabiting the low density areas can be classified as truly urban (1982). The rest though enjoying certain urban facilities, still adhere to the tradtional customs and norms relating to childbirth. This may in part explain the prevailing higher fertility with levels in the urban areas.

There are variations in the proportion of childless women aged 30 years and over. The provinces with relatively low fertility levels (e.g. North-Western and Western) exhibit higher levels of childlessness whilst the reverse situation tends to prevail in the other provinces. Though the differences in the proportions childless are not significantly large among the latter provinces, Northern and Copperbelt Provinces have slightly lower proportions than Luapula, Lusaka, Southern, Central and Eastern Provinces.

The proportion of single women aged 30 years and over is higher in the North-western, Western and Southern provinces with Northern, Luapula and Copperbelt exhibiting the lowest proportions. The provincial fertility differentials may therefore be attributed, in part, to variations in the proportions childless and single among the provinces. However, since childbearing outside marriage is prevalent in all the provinces though more pronounced in the Southern Province infertility seems to account for a substantial portion of the fertility differentials among the provinces.

Table 3.4 shows quite clearly that in general fertility level is much higher among females with primary education than among females with no schooling secondary and university education. This is evident from the reported mean parities in almost all age groups apart from age group 15-19 where females with no education reported higher average parity. This implies that though females with no education may start childbearing earlier than those with primary education, by the time both groups of females reach the end of childbearing, women with no education are outpaced by those with primary education. However, the adjusted TFR shows that there is no significant difference between the fertility levels exhibited by the two educational groups. The other observation is that, the effect of education on fertility can only be realised when one has attained at least secondary level of education. The lowest fertility level is observed among females with at least university education.

It has been noted that, education does not have direct effect on fertility as such, but acts through other variables to affect the level of fertility. The variables may be duration and intensity of breastfeeding, duration of post-partum abstinence, improved health facilities and use or non-use of contraceptives. These variables are known as intermediate variables. The relaxation of traditional beliefs relating to post-partum abstinence may increase the level of fertility in societies where birth control is not practiced. However, in the absence of data on the intermediate variables, the effects that these variables will exercise on the level of fertility cannot be determined in this study.

TABLE 3.5: ESTIMATED INFANT AND CHILD MORTALITY RATES: ZAMBIA, RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

PARAMETERS	TOTAL COUNTRY			RURAL			URBAN		
	1	2	3						
	1969	1974	1980	1969	1974	1980	1969	1974	1980
Crude death rate per 1000 population	1920	18.9	16.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Infant Mortality Rate ($_{o}q_{1}$)	141.0	110.0	97.0	-	-	98.0	-	-	99.9
Child Mortality Rate ($_{4}q_{1}$)	-	-	72.3	-	-	82.8	-	-	63.7
Expectation of Life at birth (e_0)									
Female	46.2*	48.5	52.5	-	-	50.9	-	-	56.0
Male	43.1*	48.2	50.4	-	-	48.5	-	-	53.3

Source: (1) Census Population and Housing 1969, CSO Lusaka, 1974 Table 4.1
(2) Mortality levels, patterns and Trends in Africa: it comparative Analysis for selected countries in Eastern Africa, ECA/PD/UVP/1983/21.
(3) 1980 Estimates based on 1980 census data - CSO - 1985.
* Average of estimates prepared by CSO 1974, Ohadike & Tesfaghioris 1975, ECA 1983 and the CSO (1974) and ECA (1987) estimates tend to be on the low side whilst estimates are consistent with estimates prepared by Ohadike and his colleagues.

4.1. Mortality Differentials

Socio-economic variables such as residence and education are likely to reflect knowledge and use of medical and health facilities. Place of residence, for example, may be an indicator of provision of services whilst education may be an index of knowledge of medical and health services. Mother's education exercises significant impact on infant and child mortality. Husband's education has also been found to be an important factor in Africa. The variables considered in this report may be regarded as surrogates for other variables for which information is either inadequate or lacking.

The estimated child mortality rates show that urban areas enjoy lower mortality levels than the rural area. The implied life expectancies at birth range from 56.3 years and 53.9 years among female and male urban dwellers to 50.3 years and 48.6 years among their rural counterparts respectively. The pattern of higher male mortality rates is also prevalent within each Province. With the exception of Lusaka Province and, to some extent, the Central Province, the urban areas within each province exhibit lower mortality levels than the rural areas (Table 3.6); a reflection of differential distribution of medical facilities and services as well as public health provisions such as water supply, sewage and refuse disposal between the rural and urban settings. The Lusaka pattern is perhaps indicative of inequalities in the provision of health services between different communities such as the "compounds" and the residential areas.

TABLE 3.6: ESTIMATES OF LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH BY PROVINCE AND RURAL-URBAN AREAS: 1980

PROVINCE	EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT BIRTH					
	MALE			FEMALE		
	TOTAL	RURAL	URBAN	TOTAL	RURAL	URBAN
Central	52.5	52.6	52.5	56.6	56.6	56.1
Copperbelt	55.0	51.8	56.4	58.0	55.0	58.7
Eastern	44.3	43.4	48.7	45.5	45.1	51.6
Luapula	44.6	43.8	48.5	45.2	44.0	50.0
Lusaka	53.4	56.9	50.1	55.3	58.2	54.6
Northern	48.1	46.5	48.7	52.7	52.4	55.0
North-Western	51.8	50.4	57.8	53.8	53.3	57.3
Southern	49.7	49.6	52.0	53.9	53.0	55.9
Western	46.2	45.8	47.6	48.0	47.1	51.8

Notes: Extracted from Table 2.15 in Chapter 2 Volume IV
The values are based on the number of children ever born and surviving and Trussell's coeficients.

The estimates presented in Tables 3.7 confirm observations made in other third world countries that infant and child mortality are inversely related to the level of formal schooling of the mothers. It has been argued cogently that education of the mother has on direct influence on child mortality through improved child-care. (Caldwell 1979:395-413). As noted above, education may reflect knowledge and take-up of medical and health services. Nevertheless, it is most likely that persons with higher education and thereby being in the higher socio-economic group can afford expensive drugs and other care. They are also likely to enjoy better housing conditions together with water and electricity supplies and sewage systems. Thus, education of the husbands may play an important role in influencing child care practices. The husband's occupation, for example, has a direct effect on child survival in tropical Africa. It will also be noted from the tables that in spite of the level of the mother's educational attainment, inequalities in spatial distribution of medical/health facilities and services exercise great impact on child mortality. For instance women with the same level of educational attainment may experience differential levels of child mortality, depending on where they reside. The probability of surviving from birth to any age up to 5 years is higher in the urban than in the rural setting irrespective of the level of educational attainment. Availability of health facilities and services therefore plays a major role in the reduction of the levels of child-mortality. Thus the relationship between the levels of child mortality and mother's education is largely attributable to the association between mother's education, the occupation of the husband and her place of residence;

CHAPTER 4

5. DEMOGRAPHIC PROJECTIONS AND PUBLIC POLICY

The demographic projections of the total population and its sub-groups as well as that of the households and the labour force are intended to provide quantitative measures of future demographic changes on the basis of the present situation and underlying demographic processes (See Volume VI). They are therefore what one may cub as "realistic" projections as compared to "bench-mark" or "analytical" ones. Some aspects of the implications of these projections are summarized below. A more detailed and technical information about the projections is given in the Census Report Volume V.

5.1. SOME ASPECTS OF IMPLICATIONS OF THE POPULATION PROJECTIONS

5.1.1. Total Population of Zambia

Table 4.1 shows for three series the recorded and projected population of Zambia over the period 1980 to 2000. In the absence of any changes in the prevailing level of fertility and with an increase of 2.5 years in life expectancy at birth within a quinquenium (i.e. Medium Variant Projections), the population would double by 2000, a period of 20 years.

Thus, there would be three Zambians by the year 2000 for everyone in 1969. The population in the working age group (i.e. 15-64) would increase from 2.7 million in 1980 to 3.9 in 1990 and then to 5.7 million by the end of the century. The population in the working age group would also more than double within the next fifteen years. The number of women in the childbearing age brackets (i.e. 15-49) would increase from 1.3 million in 1980 to 2.6 million by 2000 and the child-woman ratio would climb from 893 in 1980 to 932 children per 1,000 women in the year 2000. The rate of natural increase of 3.4 per cent per annum between 1980 and 1985 would rise to 3.6 by the end of the decade (i.e. 1985-1990) and then to 3.8 per cent per annum during the last five years of the century. And nearly one-half of the population (i.e. 49.6 per cent) would be under 15 years of age.

RECORDED AND PROJECTED POPULATION (IN THOUSAND) ZAMBIA
1980-2000

TABLE 4.1

	VARIANT		
Year	High	Medium	Low
RECORDED			
1980	5661.8	5661.8	5661.8
PROJECTED			
1985	6725.3	6725.3	6725.3
1990	8089.8	8073.4	8073.4
1995	9794.1	9758.3	9744.6
2000	11890.5	11834.1	11788.5

If the 1165 schools are built by 1990 then only 1999 schools would be needed by the end of the century. The number of schools would probably be reduced by the system of streams but the effectiveness of this system and it's possible effect on the quality of primary schools must be carefully looked into by the authorities.

In order to meet the broadening demand for primary education, in the light of demographic and economic realities, the Gorvenment development planning and expenditures will have to increase substantially. Applying the per student development and recurrent costs to the primary school age enrolled population which is assumed to be 83.7 per cent of the total school age population, one would note that, at the 1980 cost basis, recurrent total could go up from K54.53 million in 1980 to K77.0 million and K93.0 million in 1990 and 2000 respectively. Applying the same assumptions for development expenditures, the K2.08 million spent in 1980 could well reach K2.94 and K3.57 million during the same periods.

An important yet often neglected economic consequence of dropouts between grades is the effect they have on the economic wastage of foregone investment in education. The available information shows that the progression rate of the same cohort of students going through primary grade 4 to grade 5 dropped from 82.3 per cent in 1968/69 to 74.6 per cent in 1971/72 and then rose gradually to 78.6 per cent in 1973-74. It fell to 77.7 per cent in 1974-75 and then rose to 80.6 per cent in 1975-76. [Ministry of Education 1978]. If one were to accent UNESCO's definition of functional literacy to mean at least 5 years of schooling, then any person who begins the schooling cycle at grade 1 but drops out before completing grade 5 generates a societal loss equivalent to the total cost spent on that student during his or her school years. Thus, in view of the substantial increases in government expenditure which would be needed to keep the same proportion of primary school age children in school, it is unlikely that the ultimate goal of achieving a nine-year basic universal education will be realized by the end of the century. Planning is therefore relevant at all stages of the educational pyramid and particular importance must be attached to the interrelationships between the successive stages.

5.1.3. The Secondary School Age Population (15-19 Years of Age)

This age group roughly encompasses those children aged between 15 to 19 years. Once again, the projected school age populations are indicative of the magnitude of the pressure being exerted on the secondary schools by the rapidly growing primary school age population. In 1980, the enrollment rate for secondary schools, excluding commercial and technical institutions was 15.8 per cent of the relevant age group for both males and females. The 1980 enrolment figures show that about 128,000 pupils in grade 7 would be competing for about 23,000 secondary school form 1 places; indicating that second cycle of education would be available for only 18.2 per cent of the boys and girls who would be knocking at the doors of the secondary schools. The secondary school age population as defined above has been growing at a rate of 4.2 per cent per year between 1980 and 1985 and it would be increasing at an average rate of 3.3 per cent per year thereafter; increasing from 879,5000 in 1990 to 1.2 million by the year 2,000. [See Table 4.1].

TABLE 4.3

DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS: ZAMBIA 1980 - 2000

POPULATION (IN THOUSANDS):	Medium Variant				
	1980	1985	High 1990	1995-2000	
Aged 15-64	2730.085	3280.705	3949.907	4734.033	5690.263
Women aged 15-49	1260.827	1513.771	1817.850	2160.782	1079.7
Dependency Ratio (per 1,000)	1073.9	1050.0	1043.9	1061.3	1079.7
Child/Woman Ratio (per women)	.893	.880	.899	.922	.932
Sex Ratio (per 1,000 females)	95.8	96.5	97.2	97.9	98.6
Medium Age (Years)	15.3	15.5	15.6	15.4	15.2
	1980-1985	1985-1990		1990-1995	1995-2000
Rate of National Increase (per 1,000)	34.34	36.44		37.80	38.45
Crude Birth Rate (per 1,000)	49.2	49.7		45.5	48.6
Crude Death Rate (per 1,000)	14.82	13.22		11.69	10.18
Births (in thousands)	1522.556	1837.475		2206.090	2625.291
Deaths (in thousands)	459.058	489.368		521.171	549.489
Gross Reproduction Rate	3.448	3.448		3.448	3.488
Net Reproduction	2.560	2.659		2.755	2.848
Total Fertility (per 1000 Women)	7.000	7.000		7.000	7.000
General Fertility (per 1,000 Women)	219.5	220.6		221.8	221.8
Expectation of Life (Males) at birth (Females)	50.40 52.50	52.50 55.0		55.40 57.50	57.90 60.00
Infant Mortality (Total)	100 52	89.56		79.04	68.97

Notes: Based on the medium variant projections

One of the major implications of rapidly growing labour force is that the stock of human and physical capital must be continually increased in order to maintain capital per worker and current productivity. In other words, as the labour force grows, intensification of capital formation is required to maintain capital per worker. And to maintain income or for income to rise, investment needs to grow faster than the labour force in order to ensure capital intensification which involves a growing demand for spending more on education, health, roads, communications, farm equipment etc. However, most african countries facing rapid increase in their labour force as noted in the case of Zambia, can only afford very small amount of investment per potential new worker. Investment in the Zambian economy is reported to have "declined, since 1980; the gross fixed capital formation recording a decline of 10 per cent as compared to 1983" [Republic of Zambia 1985-42]. The 1984 Economic Report of Zambia also observes, among other things, that "The share of capital expenditure on both health and education had been quite small relative to increased health and education demands brought about by increases in population. Thus, although both capital and recurrent expenditures are indicated to be rising for some years it does not necessarily imply increased provision of such services in relative terms" [Republic of Zambia 1985:82-83]. The report notes that employment levels declined from 2.6 percent of the labour force in 1969 to 20 per cent of the projected labour force for 1984. With regard to manpower utilization, only 143,755 new jobs were created between 1964 and 1984. The report then concludes that "manpower development and utilization have not been appreciably adequate in Zambia to date" [Republic of Zambia 1985:84].

Rapid growth in the labour force also tends to exacerbate income inequalities and increase the levels of various forms of unemployment. The latter in turn tends to contribute to crime and other social disorders. Thus, crime is tied primarily to poverty and it tends to increase wherever large cohorts of the youth are unemployed. There is therefore a need for policy reforms and strategies for easing some of the problems relating to manpower and development. The recommendations given in the 1984 Economic Report are therefore worth considering.

various forms of unemployment, particularly among the educated urban youths.

TABLE 4.6 LABOUR FORCE PROJECTIONS BY AGE GROUPS AND SEX 1980 - 2000.

ZAMBIA

AGE-GROUP	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
			MALE		
12-14	42756	50597	58798	69105	85306
15-19	107383	137231	166372	197525	235676
20-24	176218	213125	276365	331366	414660
25-29	152691	193194	242943	316626	390196
30-34	129978	160543	194201	249324	319823
35-39	105468	129051	157181	192241	248002
40-44	98077	111159	134626	163737	197015
45-49	90235	99525	110432	134109	160158
50-54	73498	80393	87609	95468	116440
55-59	51574	74039	73400	80156	95711
60-64	45313	54230	52846	65974	64141
65+	48867	57171	87609	103508	113390
TOTAL	1122058	1360258	1642382	1999139	2440518
			FEMALE		
12-14	51249	61970	68844	81359	98819
15-19	124367	154489	180700	205704	248706
20-24	100897	117672	144015	170007	197264
25-29	66841	87190	107556	130704	153872
30-34	57159	66056	81493	98191	118612
35-39	47062	55753	69150	82863	99514
40-44	43292	48988	57974	68972	82785
45-49	35359	42397	46097	55820	66746
50-54	32946	36142	42071	49820	58830
55-59	22189	29295	38004	44537	47624
60-64	25565	25517	29782	34737	40590
65+	15200	17995	18969	24258	28417
TOTAL	622126	743464	884675	1046972	1241779
BOTH SEX	1744184	2103722	2527057	3046111	3682297

The U.N.F.P.A. should coordinate all fellowships in the area of population activities with other agencies as well as United States Agency for International Development in order to streamline the manpower training programme for data collection, management and analysis. Infact, the government should throw its full weight behind the exercise.

6.4 The University programme should collaborate with the Central Statistical Office and other appropriate government departments to conduct a demographic Sample Survey of "Proximate Determinations of Fertility" (e.g. durations of breastfeeding, post-partum abstinence and amenorrhea) and socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the mother and the husband. Information obtained from this type of survey is relevant for formulation or reformulation of population policy and execution of ensuing action programmes.

6.5 The findings of the analyses also show that urbanization is one of the dynamic demographic processes taking place in Zambia with rural-urban migration progressing at a relatively high rate. There is the need therefore to supplement the information provided by the censuses with data from migration surveys in the gaining as well as the loosing provinces. In other words, attempt must be made to put flesh on the bones derived from the censuses in order to provide much more reliable inputs for the government's population redistribution policy and programmes.

6.6 Finally, but not the least, serious efforts should be made to integrate population data into the on-going development plans. The present work should not therefore be regarded as the end of the analysis of the 1980 data. Further analysis may be required for provision of specific demographic information for preparation, execution and monitoring of the Fourth Development Plan. Upgrading of demographic skills is therefore of paramount importance to the Central Statistical Office.

Thus, the circumstances in Zambia as well as in other developing countries to-day are different, and the observations noted above and in the other 1980 Census reports point to the need for policy action. It appears therefore that a less rapid growth would help to promote social and economic development.

The following are some of the major areas that need to be considered in any policy formulation and implementation:

I High Fertility

1.1 Adequate birth-spacing could be promoted for both health and demographic reasons.

1.2 Reduction of fertility among older women in order to reduce the number of high risk pregnances.

1.3 Reduction of child bearing at the very young ages should be encouraged for social, economic and medical reasons.

1.4 Reduction in the proportion of the involuntarity childless women in the communities afflicted by infecundity.

2. Mortality

2.1 Elimination of mortality differentials among the various sub-populations must be a high priority area for action.

3. Internal Migration

3.1 Zambia is one of the most urbanized countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and the process of urbanization is still going on at a relatively high rate. There is therefore the need to formulate comprehensive policies aimed to reduce migration to the large cities as well as rural-urban and provincial inequalities.

4. Manpower and Employment

4.1 The recommendation given in the 1984 Economic Report are worth considering.

4.2 In addition to these recommendations, mass employment programmes in agriculture, infractructual development and environmental improvement schemes should be encouraged. National Educational and training programmes of large organizations and enterprises in both public and private sectors must be ascertained by the government.

4.3 Periodical assessment of the manpower situation in the priority sectors of the economy and drawing up of realistic and meaningfull programmes for training and retraining of the various skills should also be encouraged.