

Republic of Zambia
Ministry of Gender

GENDER STATUS REPORT
2017-19





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The Republic of Zambia is party to a number of regional and international protocols on gender equality and women’s empowerment like the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development; the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights; the Maputo Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa; the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; the Convention on the Rights of Children; and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

The country has enacted various pieces of legislation to ensure the effective mainstreaming of gender in all sector policies, laws, plans, programmes, projects, and outputs. The aim is to ensure equitable distribution and access to national resources among women and men, girls and boys, and people with disabilities. These pieces of legislation include, among others, the 2016 Constitution of Zambia, Gender Equity and Equality Act No. 22 of 2015, and the National Gender Policy.

The Government of Zambia, through the Ministry of Gender, has over the past several years been publishing the Gender Status Report to show the progress made towards implementing the above protocols and legislation, as well as to provide information about the status of the country in terms of achieving gender equality and equity in various development sectors.

This report is the third country report. It is an improvement on previous reports as it provides a critical analysis of gender statistics, presenting data through a gender lens in order to give a clear outlook on the progress made and persistent logjams. The report shows the gender gaps in demographic structures and population dynamics, as well as the strides that have been made in promoting women and men’s participation in various aspects of life.

Hon Elizabeth Phiri MP
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The Government of Zambia is committed to ensuring the achievement of gender equality and equity in its development agenda. The Gender Status Report is a management and planning tool that evaluates the gender responsiveness of government programmes and the extent to which gender is being integrated in the development process across all sectors. The Ministry of Gender and the Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) have taken the lead in preparing the report on selected gender indicators, since 2014, to monitor progress. The process of preparing this Gender Status Report involved wide consultations with all key stakeholders implementing various developmental programmes.

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7NDP	Seventh National Development Plan	STI	Sexually transmitted infection
50MAWSP	50 Million African Women Speak Project	SWL	Support Women's Livelihoods initiative
ADVANCE	Agriculture Development Through Value Chain Enhancement project	TFR	Total fertility rate
AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome	TV	Television
ASFR	Age-specific fertility rate	UN	United Nations
AU	African Union	UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
BDPfA	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (U.S.)	U.S.	United States
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	WIN	Women in News programme
CEEC	Citizens Economic Empowerment Commission	ZamStats	Zambia Statistics Agency
CIDP	Cashew Infrastructure Development Project	ZDHS	Zambia Demographic and Health Survey
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease	ZICTA	Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority
CPR	Contraceptive prevalence rate	ZILMIS	Zambia Integrated Land Management Information System
DREAMS	Determined, Resilient, Empowered, AIDS-free, Mentored, and Safe programme	ZRA	Zambia Revenue Authority
EU	European Union		
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization		
FISP	Farmer Input Support Programme		
FSP	Food Security Pack		
GBV	Gender-based violence		
GDP	Gross domestic product		
GER	Gross enrolment rate		
GEWEL	Girls' Education and Women's Empowerment and Livelihood project		
GII	Gender Inequality Index		
GIZ	German Agency for International Cooperation		
GPI	Gender Parity Index		
GSR	Gender Status Report		
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus		
ICSE	International Classification of Status in Employment		
ICT	Information and communication technologies		
ILO	International Labour Organization		
MMR	Maternal mortality ratio		
MP	Member of parliament		
NCC	National Council for Construction		
NEET	Not in employment, education, or training		
NER	Net enrolment rate		
NGO	Non-governmental organisation		
NHIMA	National Health Insurance Management Authority		
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme		
PACRA	Patents and Companies Registration Agency		
PMRC	Policy Monitoring and Research Centre		
PRMR	Pregnancy-related mortality rate		
PWAS	Public Welfare Assistance Scheme		
SADC	Southern African Development Community		
SCT	Social Cash Transfer scheme		
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal		
SDGEA	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (AU)		
SHaSA	Strategy for the Harmonisation of Statistics in Africa		
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency		
SRHR	Sexual and reproductive health and rights		
SRHS	Sexual and reproductive health services		
STEM	Science, technology, environment, and mathematics		



Age-specific fertility rate (ASFR)

The number of births per 1,000 women in a specified age group. This indicator shows the age pattern of fertility in the population.

Child

Any person below the age of 18.

Child marriage

The marriage of a person below the age of 18 under the Constitution and the Laws of Zambia.

Median age at first birth

The age at which childbearing commences. This has a direct influence on a woman's cumulative fertility, particularly when there is little or no contraceptive use.

Gender Inequality Index (GII)

Defined by the United Nations (UN) as a composite measure that quantifies the loss of achievement within a country due to gender inequality. It indicates the percentage of potential human development lost because of this inequality.

Contributing family workers

Refers to persons who work without pay for 15 or more hours per week on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household.

Contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR)

Usually defined as the percentage of currently married women using a method of contraception.

Economic activity status (working age population)

Refers to all persons aged 15 or older at the time of the survey.

Economically active population

Refers to all persons aged 15 or older who are either employed or unemployed at the time of the survey.

Employed population

The total number of persons who have a paid job in cash or kind, are in self-employment, or are a contributing family worker. All persons who have a paid job and are on leave, as well as those in self-employment but are absent from work due to various reasons such as inadequate raw materials, labour disputes, absence of business opportunities, etc., are all considered employed.

Employment population ratio

A measure of the number of employed persons as a proportion of the working-age population expressed as a percentage.

Formal employment

Employment in which employees are entitled to social security coverage under their contracts, in addition to annual paid leave or any such entitlement.

Formal sector employment

Employment, whether formal or informal, in a registered production unit.

Gender

Refers to the socially constructed traits attributed to being female or male. These attributes involve the roles and responsibilities assigned to men and women by society. The attributes also include expected, allowed, valued, and accepted behaviour and conduct among men and women.

Gender-based violence (GBV)

Any physical, mental, emotional, social, or economic abuse against a person because of that person's gender, including sexual or psychological harm or suffering to the person, threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life.

Gender Parity Index (GPI)

The ratio of females to 100 males. This index is a composite measure that captures the loss of achievement within a country due to gender inequality.

Gross enrolment ratio (GER)

Indicates the total enrolment of learners in a specific level, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population for that level.

Household

A group of persons who usually live and eat together. These people may or may not be related by blood but make common provision for food or other essentials for living, and they have only one person whom they all regard as head of the household.

Industry

Refers to an economic activity that takes place at the employed person's place of work.

Infant mortality rate

The probability of dying between birth and the first birthday.

Informal sector

Refers to all production units that are not registered with a tax or licensing authority.

Informal employment

Employment characterised by lack of an entitlement to annual paid leave and absence of social security. This type of employment can be found in both formal sector and informal sector production units.

Labour force participation rate

The ratio of the labour force to the overall size of the working-age population.

Life expectancy at birth (e0)

The average number of years expected to be lived by a birth cohort, based on prevailing age-specific mortality rates.

Maternal death

The death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 hours of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and the site of the pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management but not from accidental causes.

Maternal health

The healthcare given to mothers during pregnancy, in the time of delivery, and soon after delivery, which is key to the well-being and survival of the baby and mother.

Maternal mortality ratio (MMR)

The number of maternal deaths during a given period per 100,000 live births during the same period.

Occupation

The set of jobs whose main tasks and duties are characterised by a high degree of similarity.

Population growth or decline

Shows how the number of people in a place is changing over time.

School attendance

Attendance at any accredited educational institution or programme, public or private, for organised learning at any level of education.

Total fertility rate (TFR)

The average number of children a woman is expected to have in her entire reproductive age group (15–49 years) assuming the prevailing conditions remain constant throughout her reproductive period.

Unemployment rate

The ratio of the unemployed population to the total population in the labour force expressed as a percentage.

Women's empowerment

The process of facilitating access to resources and developing one's capabilities with a view to participating actively in shaping one's own life and that of one's community in economic, socio-cultural, political, and religious terms.



This Gender Status Report (GSR) highlights Zambia's current progress towards attaining gender equality and equity in various development sectors. The report highlights not only the strides that the country has made so far, but also the critical challenges in its efforts, towards achieving desired national, regional, and international gender mainstreaming outcomes. It casts light on existing inequalities across regions and in the population at large. While the intention of the report is to ensure that all categories or groups of people are represented, much of the sub-thematic analysis is limited to women, men, girls, and the youth – and does not include a critical interrogation of existing inequalities within these categories, due mainly to the lack of disaggregated gender data and statistics in most sectors.

Zambia has made significant progress in promoting the rights of girls and women. However, much more needs to be done to promote gender equality and attain gender equity. The Gender Inequality Index (GII) value increased from 0.517 in 2017 to 0.540 in 2018, signifying an increase in the inequalities that exist in the participation of women in labour markets, in the number of women parliamentarians, in secondary and higher education attainment by both men and women, and in terms of falling adolescent birth rates. Despite notable improvements, Zambia remains in the bottom 38 countries with the highest levels of gender inequalities.¹ Inequalities persist within population categories and across geographical areas for most social and economic indicators. Key highlights of this report are as follows:

- a. Since the previous Gender Status Report for the period 2015–2016, the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) increased from 111 deaths per 100,000 live births to 252 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2018,² while the pregnancy-related mortality rate (PRMR) was 278 deaths per 100,000 women.
- b. Though infant mortality reduced to 42 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2018, overall child mortality increased from 31 per cent to 69 per cent.³
- c. Teenage pregnancies have declined by 1 per cent to 29.2 per cent.
- d. Use of family planning is low at 35.4 per cent, with an unmet need at 20 per cent.
- e. Adolescents' access to sexual and reproductive health services (SRHS) is extremely low at 12.1 per cent.
- f. The labour force participation of women has declined since the previous Gender Status Report, from 77.7 per cent to 35.3 per cent in 2019.
- g. Only 26.7 per cent of women are participating in the labour market, compared to 44.8 per cent of men.
- h. The employment-to-population ratio has declined by 44 percentage points since the previous Gender Status Report, from 71.9 per cent to 30.9 per cent in 2019. Women's employment ratio has reduced from 73.1 per cent to 23.2 per cent, while men's employment ratio also reduced from 70.6 per cent to 39.4 per cent over the same period.
- i. Women's participation in traditionally male-dominated industries remains notably low at 20 per cent.
- j. Women's participation in decision-making at all levels is low, with no women appointed as Provincial Ministers.

It is remarkable that the government continues to strive to achieve the objectives of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development, the Sustainable Development Goals, the targets of the Seventh National Development Plan (7NDP), and Zambia Vision 2030, all of which emphasise the need to address gender inequality. Although certain issues have been resolved through existing policy and legal frameworks and programmes, major challenges persist, and in some sectors, disparities have widened even more. The persistent and widening inequality gaps between men and women, and between boys and girls, not to mention people with disabilities (who are completely excluded even in the way sector data is collected), calls for reflection and re-evaluation of policies and programmes, in order to make them more gender-responsive and to identify implementation approaches that leave no one behind.

Lack of institutional and human resource capacities, coupled with the persistence of patriarchal cultural beliefs or norms and Zambia's dual legal system (though recently revised to give supremacy to constitutional law) continue to hamper efforts aimed at achieving the full participation of women, girls, and the youth in various sectors, notably in education, sexual and reproductive health, and access to resources and economic opportunities, among others.

¹ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2018. *Human Development Indices and Indicators: 2018 Statistical Update: A Briefing Note for Countries on the 2018 Statistical Update*.

² This is using the previous Gender Status Report (2015–2016) as the base year for comparison of progress to date.

³ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2016. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2013–2014*.

Introduction



This Gender Status Report (GSR) presents the progress Zambia has made towards achieving gender mainstreaming in various sectors. It is the third such report that has been produced, and thus builds on previous reports, while introducing new critical indicators.

The report is organised according to themes and sub-themes derived from a rigorous process of identifying regionally and internationally comparable parameters and frameworks. The authors have endeavoured to offer a critical analysis of gender equality in Zambia, highlighting both legal and institutional frameworks, as well as the current status of progress towards a Zambia where every citizen is empowered to engage actively in social and economic activities.

Country Profile

2.1 Demography and Population

The population of Zambia is estimated to be 17.38 million, with an annual growth rate estimated at 2.9 per cent. It must be noted that 50.5 per cent (8,779,056) of the population is women, while men account for 49.5 per cent (8,602,112), as shown in table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Population of Zambia by sex, 2017-2019

Year	2017	2018	2019
Total	16,405,229	16,887,720	17,381,168
Male	8,117,939	8,357,340	8,602,112
Female	8,287,290	8,530,380	8,779,056

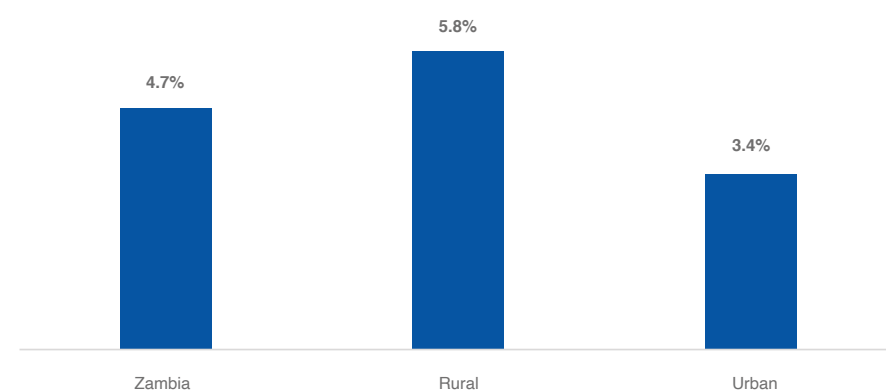
Source: Central Statistical Office (CSO), 2013. *Population and Demographic Projections 2011–2035*.

Although national population growth during the period from 2017 to 2019 remained at 2.9 per cent, it was higher in urban areas at 3.6 per cent than in rural areas at 2.4 per cent. Furthermore, the population of Zambia is predominately young, with 45 per cent accounting for those aged below 15 and 45 per cent for those aged between 15 and 35.

2.1.1 Total Fertility Rate

It is estimated that the total fertility rate (TFR) is 4.7 children per woman and is highest among women in rural areas, those in the lowest wealth bracket, and among adolescents (135 per 1,000 births), as indicated in figures 2.1 and 2.2. (For provincial TFR distributions, see appendix 2.)

Figure 2.1 Total fertility rate by residence, 2018

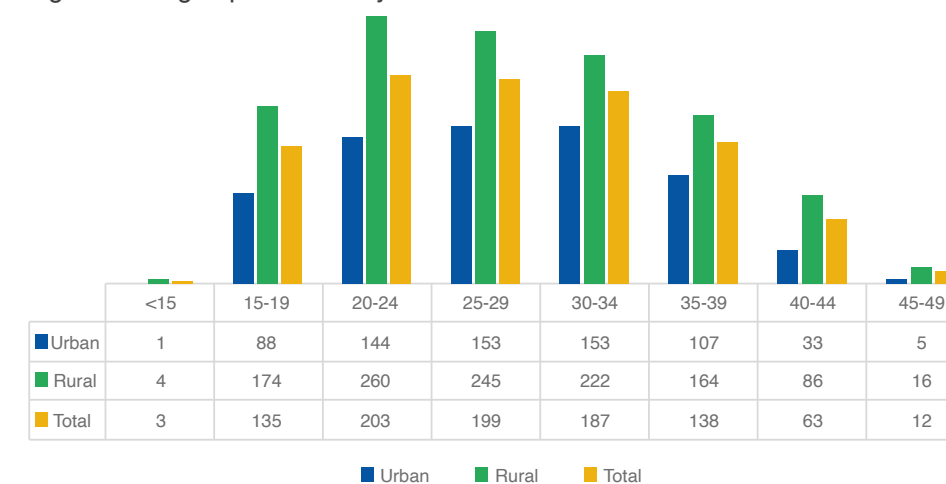


Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*.

2.1.2 Age-Specific Fertility Rate

The 2018 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) shows that among women aged 20–24, 203 women gave birth per 1,000 women; while the lowest live-birth rate was in the below 15 age group, in which only three per 1,000 women gave a live birth. Women in rural areas experienced more births than their urban counterparts across all age groups.

Figure 2.2 Age-specific fertility rate

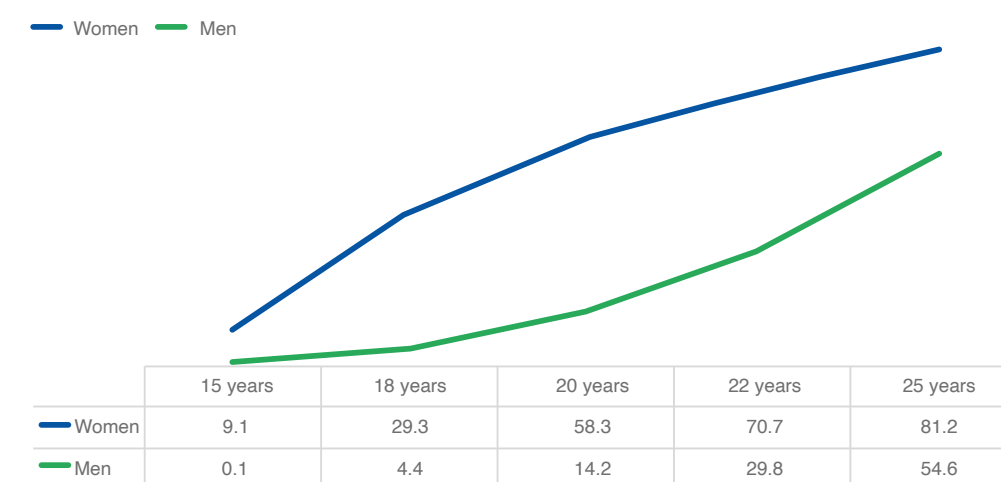


Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*.

2.1.3 Age at First Marriage

About 9 per cent and 70 per cent of Zambian women get married by age 15 and 22 respectively, whereas 1 per cent and 29.8 per cent of the men marry by age 15 and 22 respectively. Further disaggregation of age at first marriage is shown in figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Age at first marriage



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*.

With regard to age at first marriage, the ZDHS has established that the median age at first birth in Zambia is 19.7 years. This, to a greater extent, influences a woman's fertility. It is plausible to suggest that the earlier a woman begins childbearing the more likely she is to have many children, especially in the absence of family planning methods and amid high illiteracy. Similarly, having children at very young ages may lead to maternal complications, as well as infant and child mortality or other negative repercussions for the mother and the child's health and well-being. There is no significant difference in age at first marriage between rural women (18.7 years) and urban women (19.9 years).

2.2 The Context of Gender Equality and Equity

2.2.1 Background and Purpose

Zambia has historically been associated with patriarchal tendencies that have significantly affected the country's human and economic development. The daunting power imbalances between men and women and between men and women, and other vulnerable groups such as children, the youth, and people with disabilities means that those with greater power and ability to access productive resources (mostly men) are likely to participate more in economic activities, whereas those with less power or control and access continue to be marginalised.

Against this background and amid global and regional calls to address gender inequalities within and across countries, the Government of Zambia has adopted the African Union's (AU) Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA) and ratified the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development. The Zambian

⁴ Central Statistical Office (CSO), 2013. *Population and Demographic Projections 2011–2035*.



government has also ratified the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BDPfA) and aligned it to the Seventh National Development Plan (7NDP) and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development including 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), factoring in all aspects of inclusion. In addition, the country has committed to creating a legal framework conducive for gender equality.

2.2.2 Policies and Mechanisms for Gender Equality

Several measures have been put in place to promote women's empowerment in Zambia. Notable among these is Gender Equity and Equality Act No. 22 of 2015, which is aimed at domesticating international human rights instruments such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (adopted in 1979); the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2008); and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003). The Gender Equity and Equality Act gives effect to CEDAW and is intended to implement women's empowerment targets that meet the international standards of the SDGs, as well as Zambia Vision 2030.

In addition to these policy measures, in 2016, the Zambian Constitution was amended to include critical and progressive articles for gender equality. The amended Constitution acknowledges that every citizen, man or woman, has equal rights to participate in, determine, and build a sustainable political, legal, and socio-economic order freely. The Constitution further provides for human dignity, equity, social justice, equality, and non-discrimination among the national values and principles.⁵ In addition, the Gender Equity and Equality Commission was created to further enhance the protection of women's rights. The mandate of the commission is to promote the mainstreaming and attainment of gender equality. To increase the participation of both men and women in national governance and decision-making, the Constitution provides that nominations to public office must ensure 50 per cent representation of each gender category.⁶

The Constitution has further mandated the Human Rights Commission to take necessary steps to appropriately redress the rights of all persons, which includes women, children, and people with disabilities.⁷ In addition to the constitutional rights and privileges, and policies earlier alluded to, other policies and strategies, like the National Child Policy and the Re-Entry Policy, have also been developed to promote gender mainstreaming to attain equality and equity. The National Child Policy is aimed at promoting and protecting children's rights, whereas the Re-Entry Policy allows re-admission of girls in school after giving birth. Other policies and strategies include: the Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health Policy, the Comprehensive Sexuality Education Curricula for In-School and Out-of-School Adolescents, and the Ending Child Marriage Strategy.

Equally, the country has made strides to ensure institutional capacity is developed and strengthened for effective implementation of gender equality-related policies and programmes. The Zambian government's efforts have included the establishment of fast-track courts that deal with gender-based violence (GBV) issues; the creation of space for civil society organisations also to promote gender equality; and support for the capacity development of key personnel in the Ministry of Gender, and line ministries in gender mainstreaming and gender analysis.

2.2.3 Overview of Achievements and Challenges in Promoting Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

Zambia has made significant strides in mainstreaming gender over the past decade; and has a woman as vice president, as well as women ministers in several strategic portfolios such as the Ministries of Information and Broadcasting, Fisheries and Livestock, National Development and Planning, and Gender. Women have also been taking seats in quasi-public institutions and in the private sector. This includes the banking sector, as well as the Electoral Commission and the Auditor General's Office, among others. Nonetheless, Zambia's 2018 Gender Inequality Index (GII) value of 0.540 highlights the inequalities between men and women in parliament, health, and education, as well as labour markets.⁸ This GII value reflects an increase in inequality from 0.517 in 2017.⁹ It must also be noted that Zambia's GII value is very close to the SADC region's average of 0.573.¹⁰

The GII reflects gender-based inequalities in three dimensions: 1) reproductive health (measured by maternal mortality and the adolescent fertility rate); 2) empowerment (measured by the numbers of women in parliament, and girls completing secondary and higher education); and 3) economic activity (measured by participation in the labour market). The index represents a percentage of potential human development lost because of existing inequalities between men and women.¹¹ Although this definition is limited because it excludes other groups of interest in the development process, it provides a

plausible and relevant basis for interpreting the country's losses in human development resulting from inequality between the achievements of women and men in the three GII dimensions.

2.2.3.1 Key Challenges Affecting Progress in Achieving Gender Equality and Equity

Although Zambia is making steady progress towards achieving gender equality and equity generally, there are some notable challenges that continue to jeopardise the government's efforts, particularly with regard to enhancing women's access to productive means such as land, as well as early and child marriages, to note a few areas. Some of these challenges are institutional but the most critical ones are embedded in social structures. For instance, socially held beliefs – such as, a lame baby is a curse or punishment from God, a girl's place is in the kitchen, or a menstruating woman or girl is unclean and must stay isolated during her period – have all contributed to, and continue to perpetuate, inequalities in some areas.

Another aspect that has significantly affected implementation of well-meaning gender strategies and programmes is the disharmony and dual aspect of Zambian laws. While article 11 of the 2016 Constitution acknowledges equal rights regardless of gender or sex, article 23 accepts personal and customary law that perpetuates unconstitutional rules and disciplines for as long as they are accepted by an ethnic group(s) as customs or traditions. This contradiction in the laws, coupled with social prejudices and stereotypes, has seriously affected access and participation in empowering socio-economic activities by some groups of society. Another example has to do with child marriages. While it is constitutionally illegal for one to be married off before the age of 21, in most cultures, under customary law, a girl can be married off as soon as she reaches puberty and a boy can marry likewise, provided he is able to provide for a family. Additionally, the unfair distribution of property and land ownership rights under customary law has mainstreamed the non-observation of women's rights.

Despite the government's commitment, the Ministry of Gender still faces financial, institutional, and technical capacity challenges, such as inadequate funding and human resource capacity to effectively implement its programme as stipulated in the Seventh National Development Plan. Both the private and public sectors continue to develop non-gender responsive budgets; most sector policies remain gender-blind, making it difficult to highlight and measure gender equality and equity issues. Therefore, there has been slow progress made in mainstreaming gender across all sectors of the economy.

While the legal and policy frameworks have been adequately articulated, there has been inadequate attention paid to capacity-building, financial resources, and inclusive implementation approaches to enable implementing officers' to mainstream gender in their programming and programme implementation. There is also a general lack of appreciation of the importance of gender issues by people working in the public and private sectors, which translates to a reluctance to properly implement gender mainstreaming strategies and participate in gender and development programmes.

There is, in addition, an absence of sub-national implementation structures through which the Ministry of Gender could foster gender analysis and mainstreaming at provincial and/or district levels. Furthermore, there are inadequate personnel employed to specifically focus on gender issues in line ministries and most quasi-public and private institutions.

Despite the gaps and challenges affecting accelerated gender mainstreaming for equality and equity, there are also opportunities for change. These opportunities include those provided by strongly leveraging partner strengths; consistent and continued sector-specific gender awareness-raising; and institutional capacity development to ensure improved sector reporting and accountability for gender equality and equity.

2.3 Partnerships for Gender and Development

The Zambian government has established strategic partnerships with local, regional, and global institutions and organisations for enhancement and acceleration of gender mainstreaming in the country. The support received from these partnerships includes financial and technical support.

⁵ Article 8 of the Constitution of the Laws of Zambia.

⁶ Article 259(1)(b) of the Constitution of the Laws of Zambia.

⁷ Article 230 of the Constitution of the Laws of Zambia.

⁸ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). n.d. "Gender Inequality Index (GII)". Available online: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii> [accessed 10 July 2020]. Zambia's GII value is very close to 1, indicating an increase in the inequalities that exist between men and women in the two years.

⁹ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). n.d. "Gender Inequality Index (GII)". Available online: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii> [accessed 10 July 2020].

¹⁰ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2019. *Human Development Report 2019: Beyond Income, Beyond Averages, Beyond Today: Inequalities in Human Development in the 21st Century*. Briefing Note for Countries on the 2019 Human Development Report – Zambia.

¹¹ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). n.d. "Gender Inequality Index (GII)". Available online: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii> [accessed 10 July 2020].

Methodology



This section outlines the methods used in generating this Gender Status Report. The report is based on secondary data analysis, with data drawn from two main sources: national surveys and administrative data. The Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), line ministries, and other agencies, including some private sector actors, provided the data, which was re-analysed and used for compilation of this report.

3.1 Data Sources

The Zambia Statistics Agency collects data through censuses and surveys at the household and establishment/enterprise levels. The resulting data and statistics from the surveys are used to generate the select indicators required for developing the Gender Status Report. Specific data sources, both published and unpublished, include: Zambia Demographic and Health Survey reports; Labour Force Survey reports; the Crop Forecasting Survey; and the National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies.

Other data sources used in producing this report have included published and unpublished reports or documents generated from the administrative records/reports of different government ministries. Data from administrative sources are usually collected routinely as part of ongoing data collection processes. Line ministries and other agencies obtain administrative data as by-products of various programmes or routine activities. The sources of the administrative reports include: the Ministries of Agriculture, Chiefs and Traditional Affairs, Community Development, Education, Gender, Health, Labour and Social Services, and Local Government; the Public Service Commission Division; the judiciary; the National Assembly; the Citizen Economic Empowerment Commission; and Indaba Agricultural Policy Research Institute. Data on peacebuilding was collected from the United Nations (UN) open-access site on women in peacekeeping.

3.2 Methods for Data Compilation

3.2.1 Desk Review

A desk review was undertaken, which involved reviewing reports, development/strategic plans, and policy documents pertaining to gender mainstreaming and empowerment. Relevant data was then extracted and re-analysed through a critical gender lens.

3.2.2 Analysis

The analysis involved generating indicators from the reports or data sets of different surveys and statistics/information compiled from administrative processes.

Qualitative and quantitative data triangulation using a gender lens was adopted. The focus was mostly on, but not limited to, women and men having equal rights, and their life prospects, opportunities, and power to shape their own lives and contribute to society (gender equality).

Data from the various reports and other sources – noted in section 3.1 above – was re-analysed to identify patterns that speak to gender equality among men and women, adolescents, and youths in relation to the indicators of interest for this report. The idea behind this re-analysis of data was to ensure an analytically enriched Gender Status Report that highlights the conditions of vulnerability and empowerment among men, women, and other groups of interest, while showing, where possible, the needs and potential for change in each category.

3.3 Data Quality

In order to ensure the production of quality data, the Zambia Statistics Agency uses international standards and best practices. To ensure international compliance, ZamStats follows guidelines such as the UN Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics, Principles of the African Charter on Statistics, and Strategy for the Harmonisation of Statistics in Africa (SHaSA), as well as National Statistics Act No. 13 of 2018.

3.4 Limitations

The process of compiling the 2017–2019 Gender Status Report encountered the following limitations:

- The technical working team did not get a timely response from select institutions to requests for gender-related data. As a result, the production of the report was a protracted process.
- Some of the provided data were not disaggregated by sex, as required for gender analysis.
- In some cases, current data was not available, resulting in data gaps. For example, surveys and censuses are conducted at specific intervals, hence data is only available during survey/census years.
- There was no standardised format for administrative data, as all ministries have different ways/tools of collecting it, and this further contributed to protracting the process of compiling this report.
- All the available data sources had limited desegregation (i.e. only sex- and age-disaggregated data was available). Hence, this report lacks analysis on the country's performance in terms of inclusion of persons in socio-economic activities.

Governance and Decision-Making



PROGRESS IN KEY THEMATIC AREAS

In basic terms, governance is how society or groups within society organise to make decisions. According to the World Bank, it is the way in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development.¹² Therefore, participation in governance at any level is critical because it influences how power is distributed and used; determining who has decision-making power, how other players make their voices heard, and how accountability is given.

Equal participation of women and men in governance and decision-making is key to achieving sustainable development. In Zambia, although women (50.5 per cent) outnumber men (49.5 per cent), they are mostly on the side-lines when it comes to participation and leadership in all forms of decision-making, including in political office, constitutional bodies, public administration, the judiciary, and the private sector, as well as local, regional, and global development fora. This has led to the under-representation of women and directly impacted national development. Therefore, the government has committed to improving women's active participation in both the public and private sectors. For instance, the Constitution of Zambia upholds women's rights to equal participation, and freedom of assembly and association.

This section, thus, provides an update on the current status of women's participation, particularly in the legislature, executive, and judiciary; local government; traditional leadership; public and quasi-public institutions; as well as households.

4.1 Participation in the Legislature (Parliament)

As of 2019, the percentage of women in Zambia's parliament had declined from 18.7 per cent in the preceding year to 17.5 per cent. Women's representation in parliament is, thus, below the SADC and global average of 23.9 per cent and 24.3 per cent of women parliamentarians respectively.¹³ Table 4.1 shows the distribution of elected members of parliament (MPs) by sex. Note that while the number of women MPs decreased by 1.3 percentage points in 2019, their male counterparts increased in number by the same margin in the same year.

Table 4.1 Distribution of members of parliament by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Number of women	Percentage of women	Number of men	Percentage of men	Total
2017	30	18.0	137	82.0	167
2018	31	18.7	135	81.3	166
2019	29	17.4	138	82.6	167

Source: National Assembly. 2019.

The number of women parliamentarians remains low for various reasons. Among others, these reasons include weakness in the legal framework to compel political parties to include more women and the poor economic status of women – campaigning for a political seat is an expensive undertaking that only few women with access to financial resources can take on. Another reason is the lack of a grade 12 school certificate, which is the minimum qualification to stand as MP.

¹² World Bank. n.d. "Understanding Poverty: Governance". Available online: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/governance/overview> [accessed 9 July 2020].

¹³ United Nations Women (UN Women). 2019. "Facts and Figures: Leadership and Political Participation: Women in Parliaments. Available online: <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/leadership-and-political-participation/facts-and-figures>.



4.2 Nominated Members of Parliament

Table 4.2 shows the distribution of nominated members of parliament by sex, 2017-2019.

Table 4.2 Distribution of nominated members of parliament by sex

Year	Number of women	Percentage of women	Number of men	Percentage of men	Total
2017	2	25.0	6	75.0	8
2018	3	37.5	5	62.5	8
2019	2	25.0	6	75.0	8

Source: National Assembly. 2019.

While the amended Constitution of 2016 calls for 50 per cent representation of each sex (men and women) in nominations,¹⁴ table 4.2 (75 per cent men vs. 25 per cent women nominees) suggests that a shortfall exists in terms of adherence to the constitutional law that aims to bridge the sex gap in parliamentary participation.

4.3 Participation in Cabinet

In Zambia, cabinet ministers are appointed by the head of state (the president), and they should ideally be appointed on an equality basis. However, as in the case of nominated members of parliament, the number of women ministers appointed to cabinet in 2019 was only nine (see table 4.3). Cabinet is the supreme policymaking and decision-making body in Zambia, requiring representation of the voices of all citizens. The disproportionate representation of women in cabinet suggests that their opinions on decisions of national development are often likely to be overshadowed, especially if they do not align with the patriarchy.

Table 4.3 Distribution of cabinet ministers by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Number of women	Percentage of women	Number of men	Percentage of men	Total
2017	10	33.3	20	66.7	30
2018	10	33.3	20	66.7	30
2019	9	30.0	21	70.0	30

Source: National Assembly. 2019.

4.4 Provincial Ministers

Senior political positions at the provincial level are still completely dominated by men – all 10 Provincial Ministers are men.

4.5 Participation in Local Government – Councillors

Table 4.4 shows the numbers of women and men selected as councillors by all the political parties. Out of a total of 1,624 selected councillors, only 7.7 per cent were women, while 92.3 per cent were men. The data is based on the previous elections, held in 2016.

Table 4.4 Distribution of selected councillors by sex

Number of women	Percentage of women	Number of men	Percentage of men	Total
125	7.7	1,499	92.3	1,624

Source: Local Government Service Commission. 2017.

This poor performance in terms of enhancing women's participation at the local government level has led to Zambia being ranked in the bottom four (i.e. in the fourth lowest position) among SADC countries, whose progress in this regard is seriously concerning.¹⁵

4.6 Traditional Leadership

Traditional leadership has existed in Zambia since long before the advent of modern methods of governance. However, the introduction of modern governance and human rights have led to a decline in some of the traditional and customary practices associated with traditional leadership. Notwithstanding this development, the Zambian government has continued to work closely with traditional leaders on critical national development issues.

The chieftaincy is a position of power and influence. Chiefs in Zambia have control and power over their subjects, even more so than the state in some cases (depending on the degree of urbanisation). This level of influence, thus, makes traditional leaders (chiefs) essential stakeholders in advancing gender equality and equity in Zambia. It has been observed that female chiefs have contributed more to achieving gender equality in sub-Saharan African countries, especially in addressing early and child marriage, and girls' education. However, men dominate traditional leadership in Zambia, as shown in table 4.5. This status quo is perpetuated by traditional establishments that explicitly or implicitly assert that while the chieftaincy lineage is matriarchal, mostly only sons are considered for leadership positions.

Table 4.5 shows traditional leadership in Zambia by sex, from 2017 to 2019, while table 4.6 shows traditional leadership by sex and province. Of the 288 traditional leaders in 2019, only 27 were women; all paramount chiefs (the highest level of traditional leadership) were men and only three women were second in rank as senior chiefs.

Table 4.5 Traditional leaders in Zambia

	2017					2018					2019				
	Women		Men		Total	Women		Men		Total	Women		Men		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	No.	%	No.	%	No.	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Paramount Chief	0.0	0.0	4.0	100.0	4	0.0	0.0	4.0	100.0	4	0.0	0.0	4.0	100.0	4
Senior Chief	3.0	6.7	42.0	93.3	45	3.0	6.7	42.0	93.3	45	3.0	6.7	42.0	93.3	45
Chiefs	24.0	10.1	214	89.9	238	24.0	10.1	214.0	94.5	238	24	10.1	214	95.1	238
Vacant Thrones	0.0	0.0	1.0	100.0	1	0.0	0.0	1.0	100.0	1	0.0	0.0	1.0	100.0	1
	27.0	9.4	260.0	90.6	288	27.0	9.4	260.0	90.6	288	27.0	9.4	260	90.6	288

Source: Ministry of Chiefs and Traditional Affairs. 2019.

Table 4.6 Number of senior chiefs by sex and province, 2019

Province	Women	Men	Total
Central	0	4	4
Copperbelt	0	3	3
Eastern	0	5	5
Luapula	0	8	8
Lusaka	1	1	2
Muchinga	0	3	3
Northern	1	5	6
North Western	0	10	10
Southern	0	1	1
Western	1	2	3
Total	3	42	45

Source: Ministry of Chiefs and Traditional Affairs. 2019.

4.7 The Judiciary

The judiciary indisputably plays a critical role in determining how the law is interpreted and administered, and most important, in protecting the rights of every person and group, regardless of sex, age, residence, and abilities. It is essential that men and women are equally represented in the judicial systems of any country to minimise biases towards one sex or group of people. Therefore, it is essential that both men and women have equal opportunities and are equally represented in positions of influence or decision-making in the judiciary. According to the Doha Declaration on promoting a culture of lawfulness, having the representation of women as judges, attorneys, and advocates, among others, is the missing link to restoring judicial legitimacy and trust.¹⁶ It is plausible to suggest that women adjudicators are more likely to bring a more comprehensive and gendered perspective to the judicial system, by balancing the legal basis for judicial action with how it may be influenced by gender stereotyping, as well as a strong awareness of the consequences on those affected.¹⁷

¹⁶ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). n.d. The Doha Declaration on Promoting a Culture of Lawfulness. Available online: <https://www.unodc.org/dohadeclaration/>

¹⁷ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC). n.d. "The Role of Women Judges and a Gender Perspective in Ensuring Judicial Independence and Integrity".



Like all SADC countries (except Seychelles),¹⁸ Zambia needs to make greater efforts to ensure that more women take up management positions in the judicial system. Currently, of the 283 adjudicators in Zambia, 39.6 per cent are women, while 60.4 per cent are men. However, it must be noted that women's representation is greater than that of men at the Constitutional Court, Court of Appeal, and High Court levels, with women accounting for 57.1 per cent, 58.3 per cent, and 53.3 per cent respectively – which is a trend similar to that in countries such as Tanzania and Zimbabwe.¹⁹

Table 4.7 shows the distribution of adjudicators in the judiciary by type of court and sex, from 2017 to 2019.

Table 4.7 Distribution of adjudicators (judges) by sex and type of court, 2017–2019

	2017					2018					2019				
	Women		Men		Total	Women		Men		Total	Women		Men		Total
	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%	
Supreme Court	4	30.8	9	69.2	13	4	30.8	9	69.2	13	4	33.3	8	66.7	12
Constitutional Court	4	57.1	3	42.9	7	4	57.1	3	42.9	7	4	57.1	3	42.9	7
Court of Appeal	7	58.3	5	41.7	12	7	58.3	5	41.7	12	7	58.3	5	41.7	12
High Court	22	57.9	16	42.1	38	24	54.6	20	45.5	44	25	53.3	20	46.7	45
Subordinate Court	69	33.3	138	66.7	207	71	34.30	131	65.70	202	72	35.3	132	64.7	204
Total	106	38.3	171	61.7	277	110	38.87	173	61.13	283	112	39.6	171	60.4	283

The importance of equal representation of women and men in the judiciary – on the bar, the bench, and other managerial positions in the justice delivery system – cannot be overemphasised: it has the potential to lead to greater access to justice in a country.

4.8 Public Service Commissions

Table 4.8 shows the percentage distribution of managers in rural and urban areas by sex. In 2019, the percentage of women managers was higher in urban than in rural areas at 33.8 per cent and 31.8 per cent respectively. In the case of men managers, it was higher in rural than in urban areas at 68.3 per cent and 66.2 per cent respectively.

Table 4.8 Distribution of senior/middle management by sex, 2017–2019

		No. of women	% of women	No. of men	% of men	Total
2017	Rural	3,431	25.3	10,126	74.7	13,557.00
	Urban	16,080	34.8	30,144	65.2	46,224.00
	Total	19,511		40,270.00		59,781.00
2018	Rural	19,062	38.6	30,288.00	61.4	49,350.00
	Urban	45,677	41.3	64,912.00	58.7	110,589.00
	Total	64,739		95,200.00		159,939.00
2019	Rural	12,274	31.8	26,388.00	68.3	38,662.00
	Urban	39,626	33.8	77,486.00	66.2	117,112.00
	Total	51,900		103,874.00		155,774.00

Source: Central Statistical Office (CSO). 2018. Labour Force Survey.

4.9 Permanent Secretaries

Table 4.9 shows the distribution of permanent secretaries by sex, from 2017 to 2019. In 2017, out of a total of 55, 13 were women and 42 were men. In 2018, out of a total of 56, there were 12 women and 44 men. In 2019, of 57 permanent secretaries, 13 were women and 44 were men.

Table 4.9 Permanent secretaries

Year	No. of women	% of women	No. of men	% of men	Total
2017	13	23.6	42	76.4	55
2018	12	21.4	44	78.6	56
2019	13	22.8	44	77.2	57

Source: Cabinet Policy Analysis and Coordination Division. 2019.

¹⁸ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2016. *SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016*.

¹⁹ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2016. *SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016*.

The data in table 4.9 shows an extreme variance at this level of management, with only about 23.6 per cent of permanent secretaries being women in 2017, 21.4 per cent in 2018, and 22.8 per cent in 2019. This suggests that either there is a bias towards having men in senior government positions or there are cascaded inequalities in education (where fewer women are educated to higher education levels and therefore able to take up senior roles).

4.10 Directors in the Civil Service

Table 4.10 shows the distribution of directors in the civil service by sex. In 2019, the total number of directors in the civil service was 265, with 85 women and 180 men accounting for 32.1 and 67.9 per cent respectively.

Table 4.10 Directors in the civil service, 2019

Year	No. of women	% of women	No. of men	% of men	Total
2019	85	32.1	180	67.9	265

Source: Public Service Management Division (PSMD). 2019.

4.11 Management Positions in State-Owned Enterprises

Table 4.11 shows the percentage distribution of management positions in state-owned enterprises in 2018. The table further shows that there was a total of 523 individuals in management positions in state-owned enterprises, and of this total, only 110 were women.

Table 4.11 State-owned enterprise management positions, 2018

No. of women	% of women	No. of men	% of men	Total
110	21.0	413	79.0	523

Source: Industrial Development Cooperation. 2018.

To reiterate, advancing the equal participation of both men and women in all sectors of governance and decision-making is more likely to lead to a greater ethos for gender-aligned legislation, programming, budgeting, and programme implementation; thus, accelerating progress towards the achievement of national, regional, and global development aspirations. Women's participation in politics, as well as all other aspects of decision-making as presented in this section, truly advances gender equality, affecting both the range of policy issues that get considered and the types of solutions that are proposed. Additionally, the fact that whether a decision-maker is a woman or a man has a distinct impact on their policy priorities cannot be overlooked when discussing the need for equal participation in this respect.

Despite improvements to the legal framework to enhance women's participation, particularly in political leadership at the national and sub-national levels, counter policies have also been instituted that have, in fact, excluded most women from participating by way of contesting political seats. For instance, it is evident, and almost common knowledge, that there are fewer women than men educated to the secondary and tertiary levels, yet the Constitution of Zambia adds the caveat of a minimum education qualification for those contesting the position of ward counsellor (grade 12 certificate), MP, or president (at least a higher education qualification). In addition, media coverage of male political candidates is greater than that of women aspirants.²⁰

²⁰ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2018. *Gender Statistics on Women's Representation in Local Government: The Case of Zambia*.

Poverty

and Economic Empowerment



Addressing poverty among women, and empowering them and ensuring their control over resources is essential for realising gender equality, and consequently, accelerated sustainable development. Women's empowerment here refers, thus, to the ability of women to control and benefit from resources, assets, and income, as well as to have control over their own time. It also means the ability to manage risk and to improve their social and economic status and well-being.²¹ Such empowerment enhances both the quality and the quantity of human resources available for development. It is, therefore, beneficial for the government and public institutions to implement policies and programmes that empower citizens, especially women and girls who, by virtue of their sex, face socio-economic marginalisation, have limited access and control over productive resources, and face barriers to participation in decision-making at all levels from the household level on up.

The Government of Zambia has, for that reason, focused on increasing the ability of women and girls, as well as the youth, to actively seize economic opportunities that enhance their well-being, and in the case of women and girls, that enable them to compete favourably with their male counterparts in the development arena. This section highlights the programmes implemented in Zambia over the last three years (from 2017 to 2019) with regard to women and girls' empowerment.

5.1 Policy Environment and Mechanisms to Address Poverty and Women's Empowerment

As alluded to in previous sections, the Zambian government continues to be committed to reducing poverty and promoting women and adolescent girls' empowerment, as well as the youth in general, through legislation such as Gender Equity and Equality Act No. 22 of 2015. Apart from aiming to domesticate regional and international treaties, conventions, and declarations, this Act gives effect to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. It is also envisaged that through this Act, women's empowerment targets that meet the international standards set by the Sustainable Development Goals, as well as those of Zambia Vision 2030, will be effectively realised.

Several programmes tailored to reducing the poverty gap and addressing the marginalisation of individuals and groups are underway in Zambia. Most of these programmes are targeted at rural and peripheral urban areas where inequalities are highest. Implementation of these programmes is also aligned with the Seventh National Development Plan, and aims to increase productivity and support the capitalisation of start-ups.

Key empowerment programmes include: the Agriculture Development Through Value Chain Enhancement (ADVANCE) project; the Cashew Infrastructure Development Project (CIDP); and the Girls' Education and Women's Empowerment and Livelihood (GEWEL) project. In addition, Zambia has several social protection schemes. All programmes and poverty alleviation schemes are being implemented with support from partners, either through direct financial and technical support to the Ministry of Gender and relevant line ministries or through partner implementing non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

5.2 Women's Empowerment and Livelihood Programmes

5.2.1 Agriculture Development Through Value Chain Enhancement

Empowering women in agriculture is one way of enhancing food security and increasing household incomes and agricultural productivity. Several programmes are underway with the aim of empowering women to participate in agricultural activities, including the Agriculture Development Through Value Chain Enhancement project.

The ADVANCE project started in 2015 and is still ongoing. The project aims to empower women in rural agriculture, encouraging them to leverage existing social capital schemes by joining or forming cooperatives and to use mechanised forms of agriculture. It aims to provide agricultural equipment to all chiefdoms (288) in the country. The project also endeavours to create jobs, through the value chain approach, by engaging women-led cooperatives in the mechanisation of the agriculture sector.

²¹ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2016. *SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016*.

5.2.2 Girls' Education and Women's Empowerment and Livelihood

The GEWEL project is an economic empowerment programme, aimed at empowering 75,000 women in 51 rural districts with entrepreneurial skills and start-up capital worth \$225 per beneficiary. The purpose is to contribute towards increasing women's access to finance and enhancing their participation in the economy; and to alleviate women's poverty. Since its inception, a total of 74,998 women in 51 districts have benefited from this programme. (See table 5.1 for more information on the distributions under the programme for the years under review.)

Table 5.1 Distribution of beneficiaries under the GEWEL project, 2017–2019

Phase	Year	No. of districts	No. of beneficiaries
Phase I	2017	11	11,983
Phase II	2018	20	20,837
Phase III	2019	20	42,178
Total		51	74,998

Source: Ministry of Gender, Planning Department. 2019.

5.2.3 Microcredit Scheme – Livelihood and Empowerment Support Scheme

The government continued facilitating the Microcredit Scheme for vulnerable women, as a means to empower them to develop and grow business skills for survival, while stimulating savings and financial inclusion at the community level. The scheme benefited 14,849 women with seed money of about 3.6 million Zambian kwacha in 2019, from which seed money worth K4.7 million was projected to be realised by the end of 2020 (see table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Distribution of microcredit financing to women, 2019

Province	Working capital started with	Current working capital	Amount of loans disbursed in 2019	# of women loaned	Amount of loans recovered/ expected to be recovered	Total # of women loaned since inception	Projection of growth for the working capital by end of 2020
Central	400,000.00	546,840.00	455,700.00	518	546,840.00	2,249	656,208.00
Copperbelt	405,000.00	511,000.00	467,000.00	505	557,652.80	2,530	863,958.00
Eastern	236,000.00	442,116.00	400,000.00	485	481,980.00	1,996	700,000.00
Luapula	375,000.00	244,200.00	124,700.00	358	119,953.36	1,671	341,880.00
Lusaka	289,000.00	289,050.00	289,050.00	291	346,860.00	291	346,860.00
Muchinga	200,000.00	214,585.00	214,585.00	207	254,502.00	207	307,520.00
Northern	230,000.00	280,000.00	135,000.00	149	336,000.00	954	392,000.00
North Western	334,200.00	183,085.70	157,300.00	174	208,070.00	833	234,746.00
Southern	375,000.00	255,625.00	255,625.00	258	306,670.00	2,600	306,670.00
Western	125,000.00	359,141.00	435,801.00	381	399,660.00	1,518	544,196.00
Total	2,969,200.00	3,325,642.70	2,934,761.00	3,326	3,558,188.16	14,849	4,694,038.00

Source: Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS). 2019. *Annual Report*.

5.2.4 Mechanised Farming Equipment Programme

This is a social protection programme, which supports women's groups to engage in agricultural production through the distribution of farming equipment to cooperatives countrywide. To be eligible to receive farming equipment under this programme, cooperatives are required to have membership comprised of at least 70 per cent women and 30 per cent men. It is also required that the cooperative chairperson be a woman.

Table 5.2 shows the number of tractors distributed to cooperatives by province. Between 2017 and 2019, tractors had been distributed to various cooperatives for agricultural use in four provinces: Eastern province received 20, followed by Copperbelt, which received two, with Central province and Muchinga each receiving one.



Table 5.3 Distribution of tractors to cooperatives by province, 2017–2019

Province	No. of tractors distributed	No. of beneficiary cooperatives/clubs	Women (%)	Men (%)
Eastern	20	200	70	30
Central	1	10	70	30
Muchinga	1	10	70	30
Copperbelt	2	20	70	30
Total	24	240		

Source: Ministry of Gender, Gender in Development, Empowerment Unit. 2019.

5.2.5 50 Million African Women Speak Project

In 2018, Zambia launched the digital networking platform known as the 50 Million African Women Speak Project (50MAWSP). The aim of the platform is to empower women and youth to start, grow, and scale up their businesses, as well as to mentor each other through a real-time, one-stop comprehensive information hub. The platform also provides women and youth with access to online marketing to sell their products. From the time of its launch in 2018 to 2019, over 2,500 women and youth have registered on the platform and are using it to access finance and networking.

While the project's aim is to increase access to business information and to improve skills, it only benefits those women and youth with access to information and communication technologies (ICT), particularly smart phones or computers with Internet access. Thus, it may widen the gap within the demographic groups (i.e. women and youth), given that those residing in rural areas are most challenged by the lack of, or inefficient, ICT infrastructure and services.²²

5.2.6 Financial Assistance

Women face challenges in accessing productive resources, including finance, be this individually or in groups. For this reason, initiatives to ensure women have access to financial support are being implemented. In 2018, the Bank of Zambia launched a gender unit specifically to look at patterns in access to finance through a gender lens. Also, a National Financial Strategy for 2017–2022 was developed with the objective of providing a framework for the development of a stable, resilient, competitive, and inclusive financial sector that contributes viably to economic growth and wealth creation. This strategy anchors on a structure that integrates strategies for improving access, usage, and quality to improve the standard of living of all Zambians.²³

Building on this strategy, the Zambian government, in collaboration with partners, provides financial support to women and youth through Citizens Economic Empowerment grants; Youth Empowerment grants; and other cooperative support programmes offering women and women's groups interest-free and, in some cases, collateral-free loans.

Table 5.4 shows the number of women's clubs that received start-up capital by province. Of the three provinces that received financial support, Eastern province had the highest number of beneficiary clubs (82), followed by Copperbelt (12) and Lusaka (1).

Table 5.4 Number of women's clubs that received start-up capital by province, 2019

Province	No. of beneficiary clubs	Women (%)	Men (%)
Eastern	82	100	0
Copperbelt	12	100	0
Lusaka	1	100	0
Total	95	100	0

Source: Ministry of Gender, Gender in Development, Empowerment Unit. 2019.

The 2017 annual report of the Citizens Economic Empowerment Commission (CEEC) indicates that funding was apportioned as follows: 43 per cent to women, 26 per cent to youth, 2 per cent to people living with disabilities, and 29 per cent to men.

Despite the measures that have been taken to improve the uptake of financial assistance among women and youth, the disparity in terms of access to finance still exists. Factors that create this disparity include low literacy levels; lack of awareness of ICT; poor flow of information on how and where to access financial assistance;²⁵ lack of awareness of existing

²² Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

²³ Ministry of Finance (Zambia). 2017. *National Financial Inclusion Strategy 2017–2022*.

²⁴ Citizens Economic Empowerment Commission (CEEC). 2017. *2017 Annual Report*.

²⁵ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

financial support schemes; lack of available local financial institutions, especially in rural areas; lack of access to ICT for access to digital financial services; and, quite simply, lack of bank accounts. Other factors include high interest rates from lending institutions.²⁶

5.2.7 Transforming Rural Livelihoods in Western Zambia

The Ministry of Water, Sanitation, and Environmental Protection is implementing this \$38.22 million project. It is aimed at providing sustainable and equitable access to improved water supply and sanitation to meet the basic health needs and alleviate the poverty of the rural population across Western province. As of 2019, 568,401 people had been provided with access to improved water supply and sanitation, with 52 per cent of this number estimated to have been women. Also, 288 area pump minders were trained in the operation and maintenance of water points, of which number 50 per cent are women. This implies that women have been empowered to generate income from pump-minding work. Furthermore, with improved access to water supply, women's burden of looking for and fetching water has been eased, and thus they can actively engage in other productive activities to enhance their well-being and household incomes.

5.2.8 Lake Tanganyika Development Project

This is a \$29.62 million project implemented by the Ministry of Water, Sanitation, and Environmental Protection. It is aimed at improving the quality of livelihood of populations dependant on Lake Tanganyika and to protect the ecological integrity of the lake basin. The project involves promoting sustainable management and use of Zambia's natural resources in the Lake Tanganyika catchment area, improving livelihoods of lake basin communities through economic infrastructure development and diversification of economic activities, and promoting market linkage and value chains of natural resource products.

Table 5.5 Achievements under the Lake Tanganyika Development Project–Northern Province, 2017–2019

Project area	Activity	Target	Achieved	Beneficiaries (%)
Promoting sustainable management and use of Zambia's natural resources in the Lake Tanganyika catchment area	Conduct awareness campaigns on sustainable land management	4 campaigns	4 campaigns	920 men and 516 women
Improving livelihoods of lake basin communities through economic infrastructure development and diversification of economic activities	Raise and distribute fruit tree seedlings for establishment of fruit orchards	80,000 fruit tree seedlings	13,432 fruit tree seedlings	760 men and 1,140 women
	Train women in hygienic fish processing aimed at reducing illegal capture fishing methods, establishment of fish ponds and fish cages, and improved hygienic fish processing, leading to increased household incomes from fisheries	100 training sessions	29 training sessions	348 women
	Establish women and youth groups for seed diversification and bee-keeping. This is meant to promote environmentally friendly livelihoods and raise women and youth's participation in meaningful economic activities that uplift their own lives and create employment for them.	155 women and youth groups	155 women and youth groups	2,325 women and youths
Promoting market linkage and value chains of natural resources products	Undertake functional literacy classes for women and women drop-outs	100 sessions	100 sessions	308 women, with 44 already linked to income-generating cooperatives

Source: Ministry of Water Development, Sanitation, and Environmental Protection. 2020.

²⁶ Bank of Zambia. 2018. *Financial Inclusion Journal*.

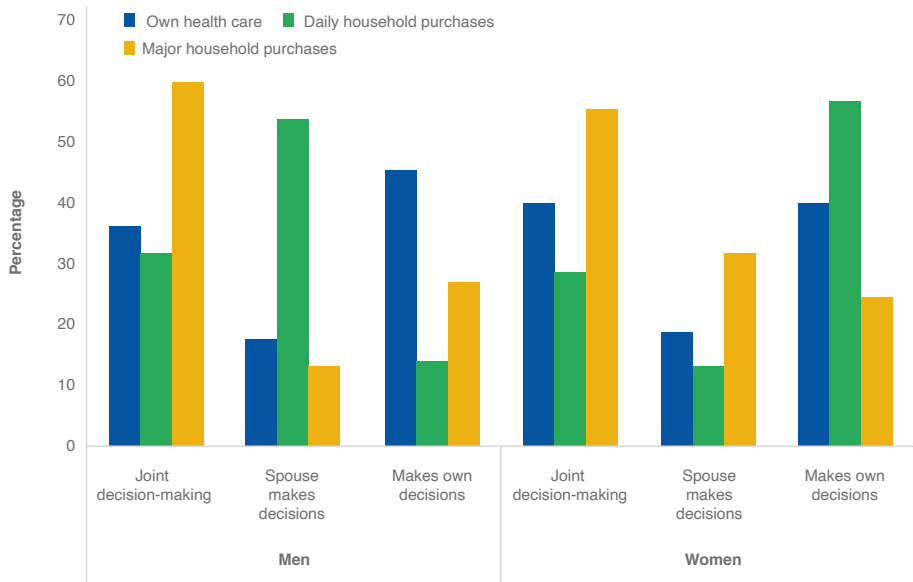
5.3 Decision-Making at the Household Level

Decision-making at the household level depicts the disproportionate power relations between men and women. It influences several issues such as the ability to negotiate for safer sex, access to reproductive health, education, as well as access to and control over resources – with the one who has less decision-making power mostly affected.

In this report, women are considered to have participated in household decisions if they make the decisions alone or jointly with their husbands in the following four areas: 1) their own healthcare; 2) daily household purchases; 3) major household purchases; and 4) visits to their own family or relatives.

Figure 5.1 suggests that except for decisions about their own health, married women aged 15 to 49 are less likely to make independent decisions on major household purchases compared to married men in the same age group. For instance, as of 2018, 24.2 per cent of women compared to 26.8 per cent of men independently decided on major household purchases. Gender inequalities are further highlighted when the data is considered from the perspectives of education level, area of residence, and wealth. Women with a higher education level and those in urban areas seem to be more assertive than their rural and lowly educated counterparts. According to the 2018 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey, 27 per cent of women with a higher education level tended to make decisions in all four areas. Similarly, women in the highest wealth quintile are most likely to make independent or joint decisions in all four areas.

Figure 5.1. Married women aged 15–49 who participate in decision-making at the household level, 2018



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

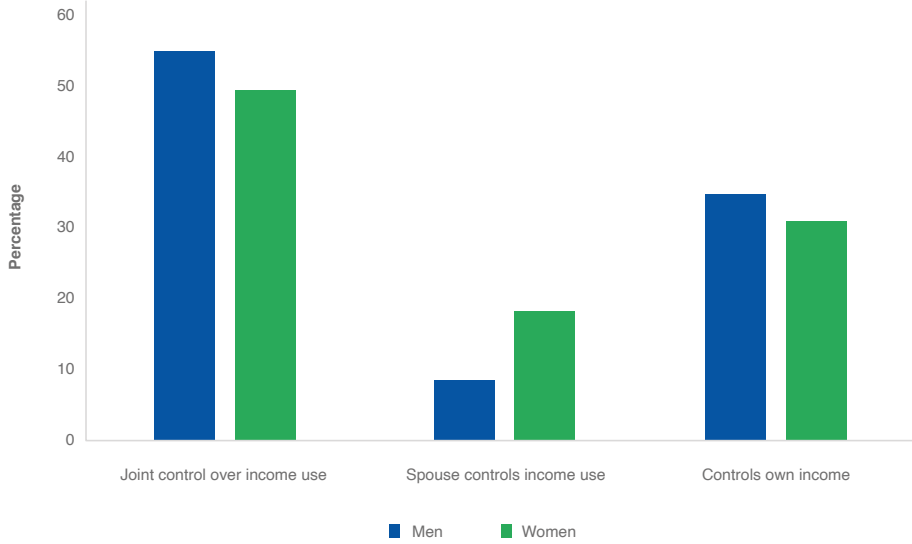
While there is a positive shift in women's participation in household decision-making, more effort is required to address issues prohibiting rural and uneducated women from fully engaging in such decision-making. The reality is that poverty, education level, and access to resources, all play a significant role in the extent to which women are assertive in household decision-making.

5.3.1 Control over Household Income Among Married People in Zambia

Women's access to economic resources, such as finance, is meaningless if they are unable to control how these resources are used. In Zambia, among married people, there has been a growing shift from men having ultimate control over women's income to joint control over resources. However, the percentage of women (31 per cent) who independently control their own resources lags behind men (34.5 per cent). Furthermore, 18 per cent of women with access to an income have their husband determine how the money is used, compared to 8.4 per cent of men whose income use is determined by their wives.²⁹

Joint control over one's income among married people in Zambia can be classified as a stepping block towards creating household wealth. This is because 69.1 per cent and 70 per cent of the wealthiest men and women respectively jointly decide how to use their individually earned income. It is also worth noting that the decision to jointly control income features more among those in a higher income bracket and dwelling in urban areas. Figure 5.2 shows overall control of use of one's income by sex.

Figure 5.2 Control over income by sex



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

Although it appears (in figure 5.2) that husbands are more likely to jointly decide on how their income is used, it must be reiterated that the opposite is, in fact, true considering that there are more married men (97 per cent) in payable employment than there are married women (59 per cent).³⁰

According to the Zambia Demographic and Health Survey, there has been a decline of 10 percentage points in women controlling use of their own income since 2001. In 2001/2002, 41 per cent of women controlled use of their income compared to 31 per cent in 2018. However, during the same period, there was an increase in the percentage of women who made joint decisions with their husbands, from 31 per cent to 51 per cent; providing a possible explanation for the noted decline.

It suffices to note once again the influence education level, wealth, and residential area have on determining how partners decide on financial resources. About 73 per cent of women with a higher education level are likely to jointly decide on how to use their income; this is more than those with no education or primary and secondary level education. Similarly, both men and women in urban areas and those in the medium to highest wealth quantiles are more likely than those in rural areas and in low wealth quantiles to make decisions together. It can thus be argued that addressing women's empowerment must go hand in hand with improving their literacy (education); and continuously challenge the detrimental cultural and social beliefs of both men and women in rural areas and those with low education, among whom such beliefs (and practices) may still hold the strongest.

Unequal power relations between men and women, with men being more domineering, remain a significant challenge, affecting how a household, particularly married women, use income for empowerment investments.

5.3.2 Negotiating Sexual Relationships

The power dynamics in a sexual relationship have the potential to perpetuate gender inequalities, pushing women and youth further into positions of social and economic disadvantage. The ability to negotiate for sex, particularly safer sex, is critical in the prevention of sexually transmitted infections (STIs), including HIV, and unwanted pregnancies. In addition, having mutual responsibility for, and understanding towards, each other's sexual desires helps in reducing sexual violence against both sexes. Unfortunately, in Zambia, as in most SADC and African countries, addressing power inequality in sexual relations is hindered by cultural teachings that suggest that a woman may not negotiate for sex. Interestingly, it is the women who believe that men should take control in a sexual relationship. According to the Zambia Demographic and Health Survey, 56 per cent of married women aged between 15 and 49 believe that a wife is not justified in refusing to have sexual intercourse with her husband if she knows he has sex with other women. Meanwhile, 66 per cent of Zambian married men in the same category believe otherwise. Similarly, 81 per cent of men, compared to 73 per cent of women, believe that it is a woman's right to ask her partner to use a condom during sexual intercourse.

Strong belief in the idea that a woman cannot negotiate sex is predominant among rural communities. Women (59 per cent) and men (72 per cent) in urban areas are more likely than those in rural areas (52 per cent of women and 61 per cent of men) to believe that a woman is justified in refusing sexual intercourse with her husband when she knows that he has sex with other women. Likewise, a greater percentage of men and women in urban areas (82 per cent and 75 per

²⁷ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

²⁸ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

²⁹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

³⁰ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.



cent respectively) than in rural areas (80 per cent and 71 per cent respectively) believe that a woman can demand use of a condom during sex, especially if her partner has an STI.³¹

5.4 Access and Ownership of Assets – Housing and Land

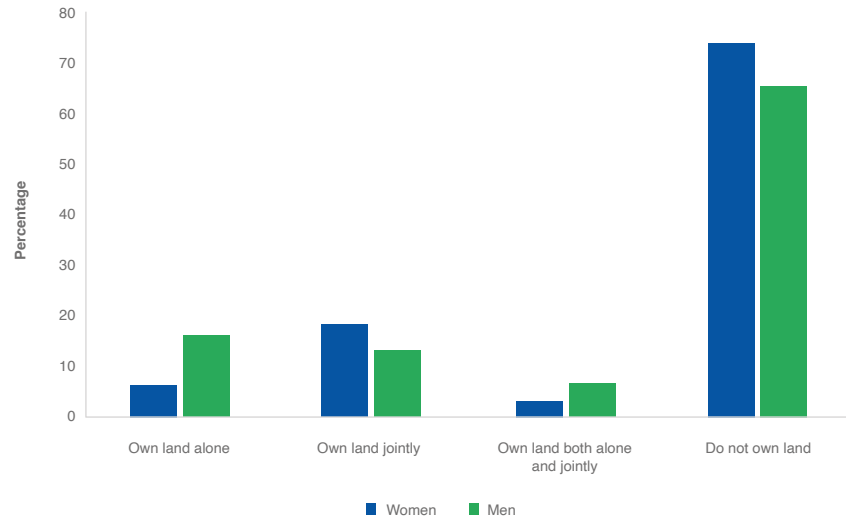
Access to and ownership of housing and land is essential as it provides both social and economic security. Other than providing shelter for the owner, housing can be used as a source of income, as well as acceptable collateral for financial loans. Similarly, land offers economic benefits as it can be used as collateral, for farming or any other business opportunity requiring use of land. Land can also be leased out, thus providing the owner income. Access to land, in particular, is fundamental to social and economic development.³²

As indicated in section 2.1, Zambia’s population is predominantly female (50.5 per cent) and youthful (45 per cent). Furthermore, when compared with men, women contribute more to national development through unpaid and agricultural labour. Yet, women and youth have limited access to the critical resources of land and housing, which they need in order to be able to contribute fully and tangibly towards improving their livelihoods, as well as towards the country’s social and economic security.

Against this background, the Land Policy of Zambia was recently revised to include provisions prioritising the issuance of state land to women. For instance, it is now law that for every piece of state land on sale, 50 per cent must be offered to women first, while maintaining their right to still contest for the other 50 per cent offered to the general public.³³ In addition, civil society organisations have also stepped in and sought to compliment the government’s efforts by supporting women and youth in accessing land, by offering them affordable and flexible land payment plans.

However, statistics still show that women’s access to land is significantly lower than that of men. Figure 5.3 shows land ownership by sex, while figure 5.5 shows titled land ownership by sex. Note that joint ownership of land or housing is also considered as empowerment for the woman.

Figure 5.3 Ownership of land by women and men aged 15–49



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

As seen in figure 5.3, though land ownership is generally low among both sexes, women remain the least likely to own land and constitute the majority (73.8 per cent) of those who do not own any land. However, despite being in the minority among landowners, women are more likely to share ownership of land, as suggested in figure 5.3, with 18 per cent of women co-owning land.

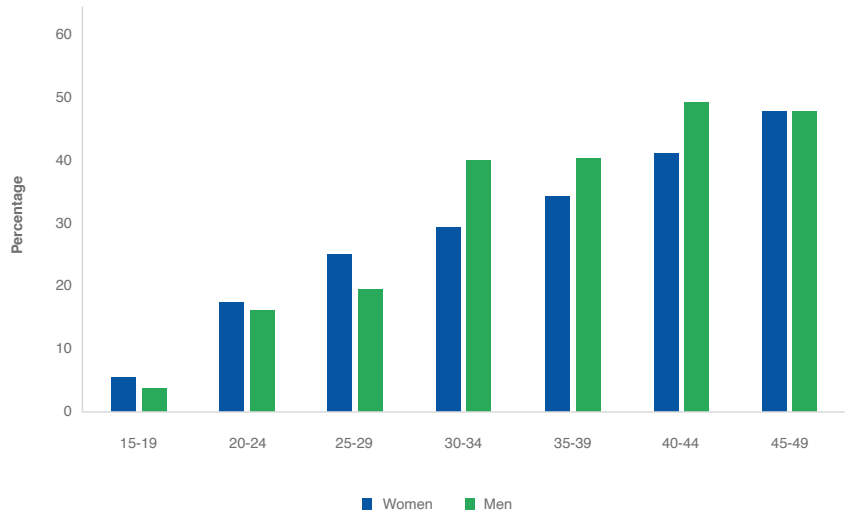
Ownership of land also increases by age, generally speaking. As figure 5.4 illustrates, young people, regardless of age, are further constrained in accessing and owning land. This is perhaps because most Zambian young people are not engaged in income-generation activities, making it difficult for them to buy either state or customary land. However, note the change in pattern between young women and older women. Among women landowners, there are more women aged between 15 and 29 than in older age groups, suggesting a shift in mind-set and desire for more empowerment among younger women.

³¹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

³² Ministry of Lands (Zambia). 2000. Land Policy.

³³ Ministry of Lands (Zambia). 2018. Land Policy.

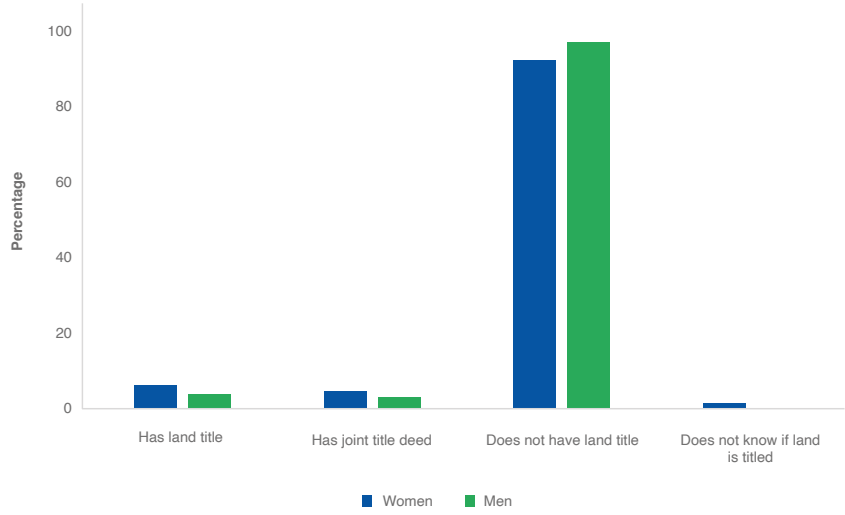
Figure 5.4 Ownership of land either alone or jointly by sex and age



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

Just as access to and ownership of land is important for social and economic reasons, owning land on title is preferable.

Figure 5.5 Type of land ownership by sex



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

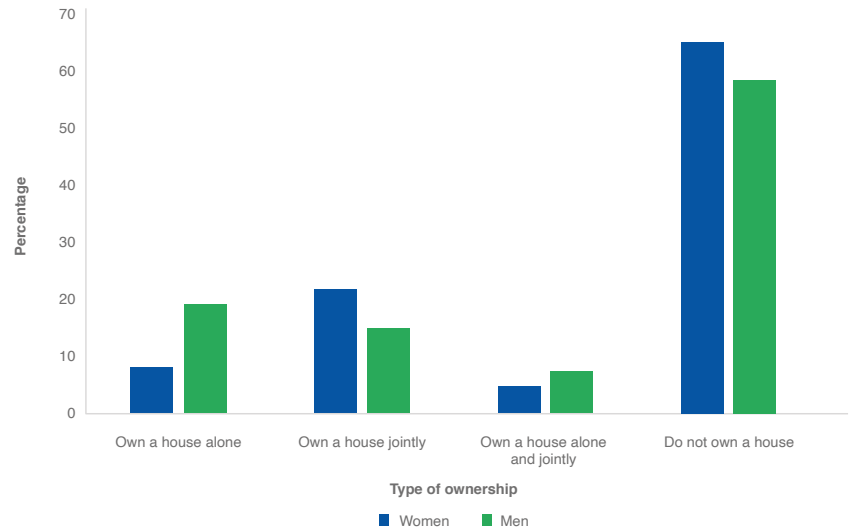
Land ownership by women in rural areas is higher (32.7 per cent) than it is among women in urban areas (6.8 per cent), just as it is in the case of rural men (39.4 per cent) vs. urban men (10.5 per cent).³⁴ But, the percentages of men and women who own land or a house with a title is higher in urban areas compared to rural areas. A possible explanation for this lies in the difference in the land tenure system. Allocation of land in rural areas is mainly guided by customary law, which does not permit (unless approved by traditional leadership) a person to acquire title as the land is customary land.³⁵ Also, customary land is easily accessible: the only requirement is membership of the community, and the village headman, with approval from the chief, allocates the land to the person. As a result, individuals in rural areas (where land is mostly customary) are at an advantage compared to their counterparts in urban areas, where land is state-owned and requires a longer, competitive, and sometimes expensive and complicated process to acquire. However, having land or a house that is titled is easier for urban residents because of easy access to the Ministry of Lands, which is responsible for issuing and changing ownership of these assets.

³⁴ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

³⁵ Ministry of Lands (Zambia).

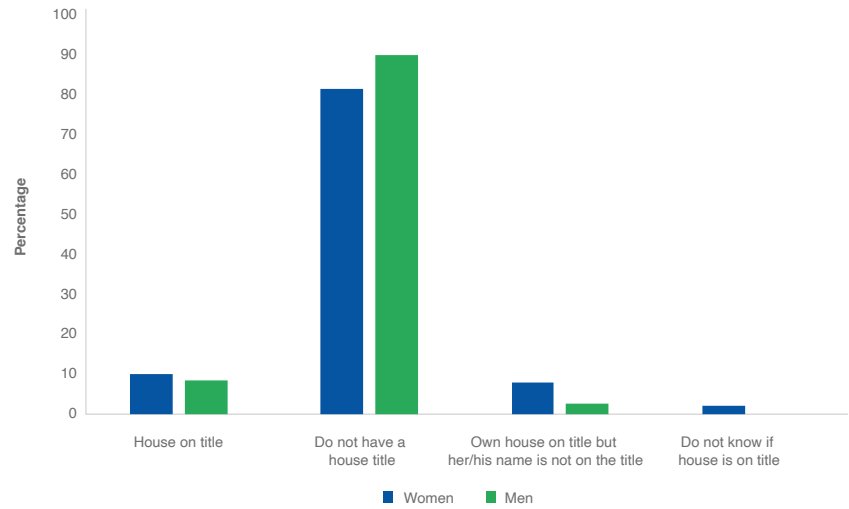
Patterns of access to and owning a house, and whether the owned house is on title, are not very different to those vis-à-vis land. Still, women across the country have less ownership when considered separately. However, it suffices to note that slightly over 20 per cent of women jointly own a house compared to about 15.2 per cent of men. Figures 5.6 and 5.7 show house ownership and titled house ownership, respectively, among men and women aged 15–45, while figure 5.8 shows ownership by sex and age of house owner(s).

Figure 5.6 House ownership by sex



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

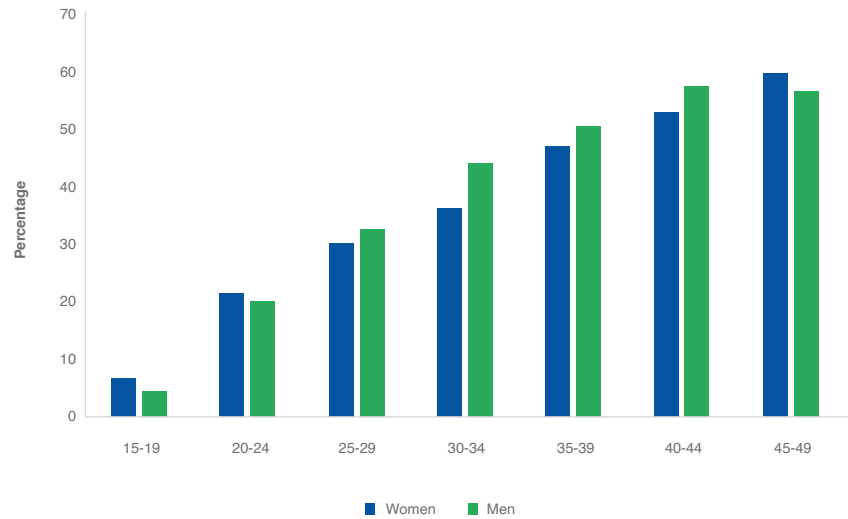
Figure 5.7 House ownership on title by sex



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

In terms of regional discrepancies, women and men in urban areas have more access to land and house title than their rural counterparts: 27.4 per cent and 1.6 per cent of urban and rural men respectively have access to a house with a title deed, while 29.1 per cent and 3.2 per cent of urban and rural women respectively have access to the same. As in the case of land, a house built on customary land cannot have title unless a chief authorises the land upon which the house is built to be state land (i.e. have title).

Figure 5.8 House ownership either alone or jointly by sex and age



Adapted from Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

The emphasis on the need for women and youth to own assets such as the ones discussed here is to enable them to achieve greater participation in social and economic activities, and to improve their own and their family's well-being. However, while access to land allows individuals, for instance, to farm, untitled land in Zambia cannot be used as collateral; titled land or housing is a key requirement for accessing financial assistance, and having money is necessary for business investments, whether as a start-up or for business expansion. The latter also implies that one can compete at a larger scale, and consequently, contribute more to the national economy.

For as long as ownership of land and housing continues to be untitled, both men and women, as well as youth – except for those in the higher wealth quantiles – will remain trapped in a cycle of poverty.

5.5 Social Protection Programmes

In addition to economic empowerment, social protection is a human right and an integral part of efforts towards achieving the global 2030 Agenda, as well as Zambia's Vision 2030 and 7NDP, of poverty reduction and social and economic development.³⁶ Social protection aims at addressing poverty inequalities among and within given population groups. The Zambian government defines it as “policies and rules that look after the lives and welfare of people, especially poor people.”³⁷ According to the Policy Monitoring and Research Centre (PMRC), social protection is a viable tool for reducing poverty because it targets households that, by virtue of their lack of basic needs being met, are more susceptible to risk and shock.³⁸

In order to alleviate poverty – especially among women and girls in Zambia – the government, with support from partners, developed the 2014–2018 National Policy as a guide for the provision of social protection services. To operationalise the policy, the government has been working, and continues to work, with various partners in ensuring the provision of regular and targeted social protection measures through the Social Cash Transfer (SCT) scheme, the Public Welfare Assistance Scheme (PWAS), and Food Security Pack (FSP), as well as building community skills to make communities more resilient in this era of climate change and health pandemics like cholera and COVID-19 (coronavirus disease). Other projects include a Women Empowerment Programme, Supporting Women's Livelihoods (SWL) initiative, and Keeping Girls in School under the Girls' Education and Women's Empowerment and Livelihood project.

This section discusses some social protection schemes, and how they have benefited the target populations in the years under review.

³⁶ Ministry of Community Development, Mother, and Child Health (MCDMCH) (Zambia). 2014. *Republic of Zambia National Social Protection Policy 2014–2018*.

³⁷ Ministry of Community Development, Mother, and Child Health (MCDMCH) (Zambia). 2014. *Republic of Zambia National Social Protection Policy 2014–2018*, p. 6.

³⁸ Policy Monitoring and Research Centre (PMRC). 2016. *Social Protection and Livelihood Series*. “Assessing the Impact of Social Cash Transfer” (PMRC briefing document).



5.5.1 Social Cash Transfer Scheme

The Social Cash Transfer scheme is the largest social assistance programme being implemented in the country. It aims to assist the most vulnerable households in meeting their basic needs, such as food, health, education, and shelter essentials. This programme has been successful in lifting the standards of living of vulnerable households, with some being able to send children to school and to attain food and nutrition security. Note that the data presented here is reflective of 2019, therefore no comparisons with other years are made.

In 2019, a total of 632,327 individuals directly benefited from the scheme. Table 5.6 shows the breakdown by sex. The selection of beneficiaries for the scheme was based on assessing the vulnerability of households. Households with the most vulnerability (i.e. those that could not meet their food, healthcare, education, and essential shelter needs) were, thus, selected to receive additional support in the form of cash.

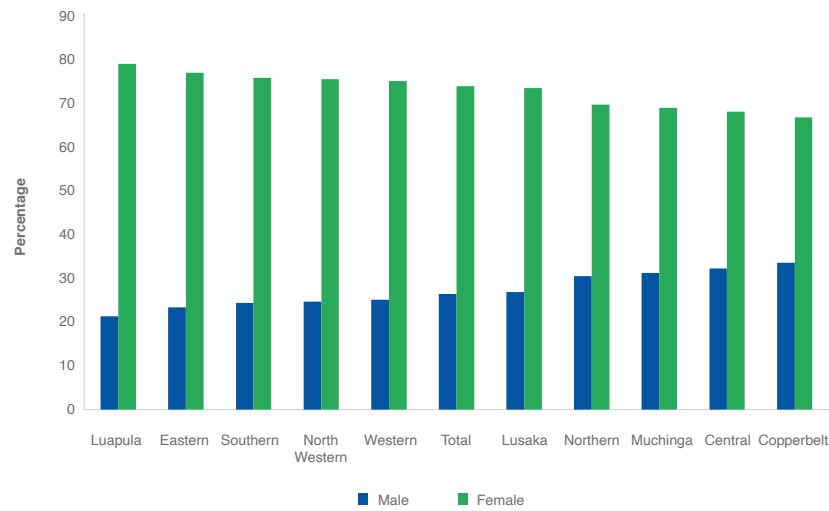
Table 5.6 Number and percentage distribution of beneficiaries of Social Cash Transfer, 2019

Sex	No. of beneficiaries	% of beneficiaries
Men	166,523	26.3
Women	465,804	73.7
Total	632,327	100

Source: Ministry of Community Development and Social Services. 2019. Social Cash Transfer (SCT) Annual Report.

Figure 5.9 shows the percentage of women and men that benefited from the Social Cash Transfer scheme in each province in 2019. Overall, there were more women beneficiaries than men beneficiaries in all the provinces, indicating that there are more women-headed households than men-headed households that fail to meet their basic needs. The highest percentage was in Luapula province, where men comprised 21.3 per cent and women 78.7 per cent of beneficiaries.

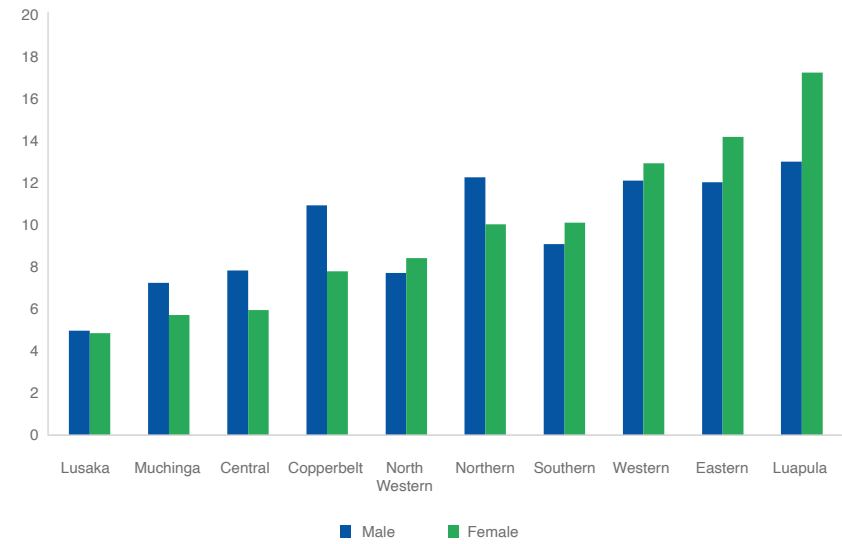
Figure 5.9 Percentage of beneficiaries of the Social Cash Transfer scheme by sex and province, 2019



When considered by sex distribution,³⁹ Luapula province (17.7 per cent) still emerges as having the highest percentage of women facing challenges in accessing their basic needs, followed by Eastern and Western provinces. Conversely, Northern province has the most men (12.6 per cent) failing to meet the basic needs of their households, followed by Copperbelt, Central, and Muchinga provinces, as shown in figure 5.10.

The noted variability within the sex categories is an indication of the heterogeneity of the province – a critical factor for consideration in the distribution of economic empowerment and social protection support, if poverty inequalities are to be effectively addressed.

Figure 5.10 Sex distribution of Social Cash Transfer beneficiaries for each province in 2019



5.5.2 Food Security Pack Programme

The Food Security Pack is another national safety net programme. This programme is in line with SDG Goal 2 (zero hunger), which appeals to countries to end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture. Zambia's FSP programme targets vulnerable but viable households, which are then given access to production inputs to enable them to engage in food production that can lead to improved food security.

In the 2018/2019 farming season, the FSP-targeted population comprised caregivers to orphans; households headed by people living with disabilities; households headed by women, children, or the terminally ill; unemployed youths; and aged persons. The programme supported 54,663 poor and vulnerable but viable farmer households, falling short of a target of 80,000 due to budget constraints. The target comprised 12,389 continuing beneficiaries from the previous season, entering the second and last year of the support cycle, and 42,274 newly identified beneficiaries.

The support comprised nutrition-sensitive inputs, including maize seed (10 kilogrammes), legumes (10 and 2.5 kilogrammes), and Compound D (50 kilogrammes) and Urea (50 kilogrammes) fertilisers. The majority of beneficiaries were women-headed households, accounting for 69.2 per cent, with men-headed households comprising 30.8 per cent of the total, as shown in table 5.7. Of these households, 84 per cent had orphans and/or were child-headed and/or terminally-ill-headed households; 7 per cent were headed by persons with disabilities; while 9 per cent were households headed by unemployed youth.

Table 5.7 Number distribution of household heads that benefited from the Food Security Pack programme, 2018/2019

	Women		Men		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
Rural household heads	24,527	70.1	10,453	29.9	34,980
Urban household heads	13,298	67.6	6,385	32.4	19,683
Total	37,825	69.2	16,838	30.8	54,663

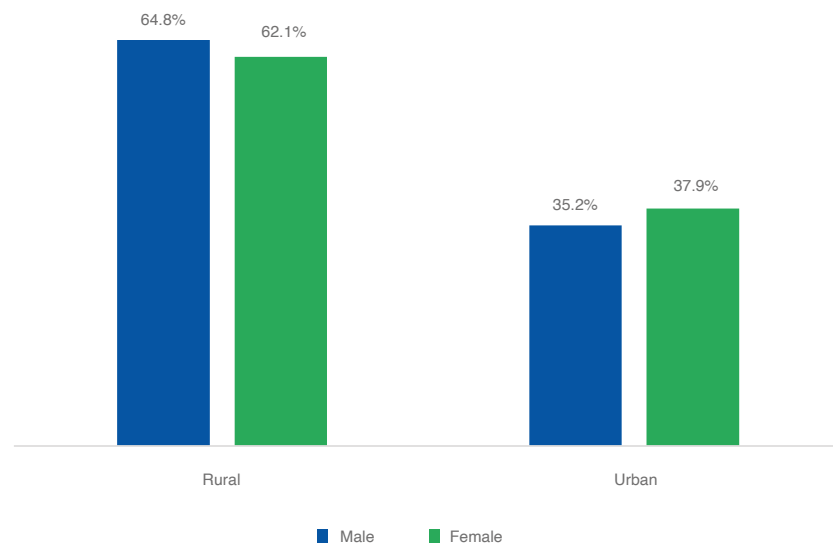
Source: Ministry of Community and Social Services. 2018. Annual Report.

As figure 5.11 shows, rural areas had the highest percentage share of households that benefited from the Food Security Pack, with men-headed households accounting for 64.8 per cent and women-headed households for 35.2 per cent. Urban areas had a lower percentage share of FSP programme beneficiaries, with 62.1 per cent of the beneficiaries being female-headed households and 37.9 per cent male-headed households in these areas.

³⁹ Sex distribution or proportion distribution is calculated as the proportion of women or men in a given province.



Figure 5.11 Percentage distribution of household heads that benefited from the Food Security Pack programme, 2018/2019



Despite every indication that poverty, as measured by the proxies of wealth and income (in this case), is highest among women-headed households in both urban and rural areas, the distribution of farmer inputs under the FSP programme seems to benefit more men than women in rural areas. This inequality has the potential to hold women back from escaping the poverty cycle and instead to push them further into deeper vulnerabilities of risk and shock.

5.5.3 Community Skills Development

This programme is aimed at imparting survival skills and knowledge for improved livelihoods to vulnerable people. The government continued implementing the programme in all the districts, with 26,832 learners maintained on functional literacy in 2018. As indicated in table 5.8, 75 per cent of the learners on this programme were female and 25 per cent were male during the period under review.

Table 5.8 Number of Community Skills Development programme beneficiaries by province

Province	Female	Male	Total	% of women
Central	2,713	999	3,712	10
Copperbelt	1,606	489	2,095	6
Eastern	1,000	631	1,631	4
Luapula	2,452	797	3,249	9
Lusaka	1,184	254	1,438	4
Muchinga	2,719	663	3,382	10
Northern	3,264	966	4,230	12
North Western	912	336	1,248	3
Southern	1,734	609	2,343	6
Western	2,488	1,016	3,504	9
National (Total)	20,072	6,760	26,832	75

Source: Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS). 2018. Annual Report.

Table 5.8 shows that in 2019, Northern province had the highest number of women accessing community skills training at 3,254 (12 per cent of total beneficiaries), while North Western had the least at 912 (3.39 per cent). This could be attributed to the low number of community skills development centres in North Western province.

The Government of Zambia runs Skills Training Centres in eight of the country's 10 provinces; the two exceptions being Muchinga and Lusaka. This skills training is an empowerment programme that provides the trainees with skills to make them employable or to start their own business. They are offered livelihood skills training in general agriculture, home management, power electrical, carpentry and joinery, bricklaying and plastering, and tailoring.

In 2017, the Skills Training Centres had a total of 5,828 students, of which 2,469 were women and 3,359 were men. The number of students in skills training programmes increased in 2018 to 9,090, of which 4,383 were women and 4,707 were men. Female enrolment in 2018 was lower than male enrolment by 3.7 per cent. (See table 5.9).

Table 5.9 Number distribution of persons in skills training programmes by sex

Year	Men		Women		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
2017	3,359	57.6	2,469	42.4	5,828
2018	4,707	51.8	4,383	48.2	9,090

Source: Ministry of Higher Education. 2017, 2018.

Access to livelihood skills training is disproportionate and remains low among women, despite the policy environment aimed at promoting women's participation. This raises concerns as to why uptake of such well-intentioned programmes is low among women, compared to men, even though women are the majority in Zambia.

Education and Training



6.1 Gross Enrolment Rates

Gross enrolment rate (GER) indicates the total enrolment of learners in a specific level regardless of age, in a particular year, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population for that level. GER is widely used to show the general level of participation at each level of education. It also indicates the capacity of the education system to enrol learners of an age group.

A negative gender gap value indicates that girls' enrolment was lower than that of boys and vice versa. Ideally, the gender gap is supposed to be zero; indicating that there are no enrolment inequalities between the sexes. In 2017, the national GER for primary education enrolment was 90.3 per cent for girls and 93.4 per cent for boys, giving an absolute gender gap of 3.1 percentage points; whereas the secondary enrolment gap was 3.1 and -1.7 percentage points in 2017 and 2018, respectively.

6.1.1 GER – Primary Education

Table 6.1 shows a shift in enrolment inequality: more boys than girls were enrolled in primary school in 2017, but more girls than boys were enrolled in 2018. Note that in 2017, though, six of the 10 provinces had high enrolment rates for boys, while the remaining four – Central, Luapula, Muchinga, and North Western – had notably high absolute gaps in favour of boys. Copperbelt, Lusaka, Western, and Southern provinces had negative absolute gender gap values in the same year.

Table 6.1 Gross enrolment rates in primary education by province, 2017–2018

	2017			2018		
	Boys	Girls	Absolute gap (percentage points)	Boys	Girls	Absolute gap (percentage points)
	%	%		%	%	
National	93.4	90.3	3.1	101	104.1	-3.3
Central	126	112.5	13	130	131.8	-1.8
Copperbelt	79.5	84.8	-5.3	85.3	91.6	-6.3
Eastern	87.3	83	4.3	94.9	102.9	-8
Luapula	101	84.4	16.9	114	108.1	6
Lusaka	76.5	80.5	-4	71.6	76.6	-5
Muchinga	100	86.1	14.1	119	113.8	5.5
Northern	117	115	1.6	127	137.2	-10.1
North Western	89.8	72.6	17.2	109	105	4.2
Southern	110	110.5	-0.2	96.4	99.3	-2.9
Western	88.4	90.1	-1.7	117	123.2	-6.2

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

6.1.2 GER – Secondary Education

Secondary school enrolment gaps mimic those at the primary level in the years under review. Although there were more boys than girls enrolled in secondary school in 2017 (except in Copperbelt, which had more girls enrolled in both years), 2018 saw a shift that disproportionately disadvantaged boys. Northern province experienced the highest gender gap shift, from 6.2 in 2017 to -17.7 per cent in 2018 – i.e. a 11.5 percentage point increase in favour of girls. (See table 6.2.)

Table 6.2 Gross enrolment rates in secondary education by province, 2017–2018

	2017			2018		
	Boys	Girls	Gap (percentage points)	Boys	Girls	Gap (percentage points)
	%	%		%	%	
National	48	44.9	3.1	44.1	45.8	-1.7
Central	58.9	55.3	3.6	54.6	54.9	-0.3
Copperbelt	59.3	61.1	-1.8	57.2	55.6	1.6
Eastern	38	35.4	2.6	30.3	32.4	-2.1
Luapula	49.4	41.3	8.1	40.3	44.1	-3.8
Lusaka	40	37.6	2.4	40.5	41.9	-1.4
Muchinga	41.4	33.7	7.7	32.2	34.6	-2.4
Northern	69.4	63.2	6.2	63.4	81.1	-17.7
North Western	35.5	28.9	6.6	30.3	33.5	-3.2
Southern	46	44.1	1.9	41.3	41.8	-0.5
Western	49.3	44.9	4.4	50.6	48.5	2.1

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

The primary and secondary school enrolment scenarios presented here indicate that while so much of the focus has been on addressing girl-child enrolment, there needs to be a balance between the two sexes. If uncorrected, the currently growing inequalities, with fewer boys enrolled in school, will lead to future human resource capital development challenges and to the marginalisation of young men in the competition for economic opportunities with their female counterparts.

6.2 Net Enrolment Rates

Net enrolment rate (NER) is the number of pupils – boys and girls – of an official age group in a specific education level (in this case, primary and secondary education) enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. NER helps to account for all children's education at a given age and school level; a NER below 100 per cent indicates that not all children of that age group are in school. NER is an indication of the country's progress towards achieving universal access to education.⁴⁰

Primary NER is the proportion – in percentage – of learners of primary-school-age (aged 7–13) who are enrolled in primary school (grades 1–7) as a ratio to the total number of 7–13-year-olds in the total population. Secondary NER is the percentage of secondary-aged learners (aged 14–18) who are enrolled in secondary school (grades 8–12) as a proportion of the 14–18-year-olds in the population.

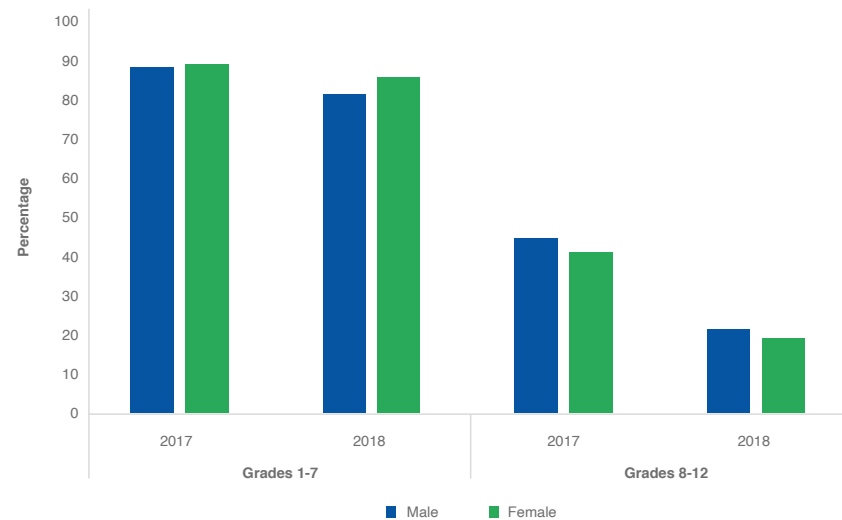
Figure 6.1 shows the NER for both primary and secondary school enrolments in the years 2017–2018. There is a decline in NER, from 2017 to 2018, at both the primary school level – from 88.5 per cent to 81.4 per cent for boys and from 89.2 per cent to 85.8 per cent for girls – and the secondary school level – from 44.7 per cent to 21.4 per cent for boys and from 41.1 per cent to 19 per cent for girls. Secondary school NER has the sharpest decline – almost less than half of the pupils enrolled in 2017. Unlike in the case of primary education, where NER for girls is higher than boys, secondary school enrolment at the right age is extremely low for girls compared to boys.

The perceived decline in secondary school enrolment compared to primary school enrolment could be an indication of other underlying issues such as families aiming at giving their children just basic education, high dropout rates, and early marriage, among others. Ultimately, the continued decline in already low net enrolment rates at all levels of education in Zambia is a cause for concern; especially given that the country has policies and programmes – including feeding programmes and cash transfer schemes for education – in place to ensure universal access to education. According to SADC, as of 2017, Zambia was among the worst performing countries in the region in terms of secondary school net enrolment, placing second from the bottom (among 16 countries) with a NER of 27.9 per cent, ahead only of Mozambique (21.8 per cent).⁴¹

⁴⁰ United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). 2011. "International Standard Classification of Education". Available online: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/documents/UNESCO_GC_36C-19_ISCEDD_EN.pdf.

⁴¹ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2018. "SADC Selected Economic and Social Indicators".

Figure 6.1 Net enrolment rates by sex and grade, 2017–2018



Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

Table 6.3 shows that the NER for girls was higher (85.8 per cent) than that for boys (81.4 per cent), implying that the rate of enrolment of girls in the age group for primary education exceeded that of the rate of boys in 2018. The total NER in 2018 was 83.6 per cent, while the Gender Parity Index (GPI) was 1.05. The NER reduced from 87.9 per cent in 2017 to 83.6 per cent in 2018, with a marginal increase in GPI. This reduction indicates that the country has not met the target of a net enrolment rate of at least 95 per cent. However, it must be pointed out that primary school enrolment rates were relatively high, with higher rates for girls than boys.

At the provincial level, the NER in 2018 ranged from 61.1 per cent in Lusaka to 109.2 per cent in Central province. Only four out of the 10 provinces – Central, Western, Muchinga, and North Western – had a NER over 95 per cent in 2018, indicating that there is need for the country to double its efforts to reach the 95 per cent target. The provinces closest to achieving this target of universal primary education, with NERs consistently in the 95 to 103 per cent range between 2017 and 2018, are Central, Muchinga, North Western, and Western. Luapula and Northern provinces were in the 90–94 per cent range in 2017, but have since dropped into the 85–88 per cent range in 2018.

Table 6.3 Primary net enrolment rates by province and sex, 2017–2018

Province	2017				2018			
	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI
National	86.5	89.2	87.9	1.03	81.4	85.8	83.6	1.05
Central	112	109.3	110.6	0.98	107.8	110.7	109.2	1.03
Copperbelt	76.3	81.1	78.7	1.06	72.5	78.5	75.5	1.08
Eastern	78.5	87.2	82.9	1.11	69.7	79	74.3	1.13
Luapula	95.9	92.1	94	0.96	87.6	83.7	85.6	0.96
Lusaka	61.9	66.9	64.4	1.08	58.9	63.3	61.1	1.07
Muchinga	98.7	95	96.8	0.96	97.6	95.3	96.4	0.98
North western	102.6	106.6	104.6	1.04	100.6	116.3	108.3	1.16
Northern	94.7	91.3	93	0.96	89.1	87.2	88.1	0.98
Southern	84.3	89	86.6	1.06	75.2	79.7	77.4	1.06
Western	102.6	107.1	104.4	1.04	99.1	10.7	102.8	0.11

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

6.3 School Attendance Gender Parity Index

6.3.1 Net Enrolment and Gross Enrolment Rates

A look at the net enrolment and gross enrolment rates facilitates a clear understanding of whether children are progressing in terms of their education according to the set official standards. As earlier defined, NER looks at age-specific enrolments in each education level, while GER looks at enrolments regardless of whether a child is the right age

for that level. To further chart progress, the two indicators are considered together – if the gap between the GER and the NER is big, it implies that enrolled learners do not progress regularly through the grades. It also means that the education system's internal efficiency needs to be improved. A GPI for NER that is higher than the GPI for GER further indicates and a greater proportion of girls compared to boys are in the correct age range.

In 2017 and 2018, more boys than girls were in the right grade at the right age in primary school. Similarly, the GPI for the NER was lower than the GPI for the GER in both 2017 and 2018, meaning that a greater proportion of boys compared to girls are in the correct school-age range. This difference suggests that there could be reasons affecting the girl child's ability to be in the correct school at the right age.

Table 6.4 Net enrolment and gross enrolment rates

		Net enrolment rate (NER)			Gross enrolment rate (GER)		
		Boys	Girls	GPI	Boys	Girls	GPI
Grades 1-7	2017	88.5	89.2	1.01	93.4	90.3	0.97
	2018	81.4	85.8	1.05	101	104.1	1.03
Grades 8-12	2017	44.7	41.1	0.92	48	44.9	0.94
	2018	21.4	19	0.89	44.1	45.8	1.04

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

6.3.2 Dropout Rates

The dropout rate indicates the proportion of pupils who leave school without completing a given grade in a school year. Table 6.5 shows that the national dropout rate for primary education (grades 1–7) increased from 1.5 per cent in 2017 to 1.7 per cent in 2018. The dropout rate in primary schools was higher among girls than boys for both years. This indicates that although the enrolment of girls seems to be increasing, at some point these girls are leaving school before completion. This scenario also partly explains why progression to the next level of education for girls is higher (see figure 6.2). The primary school dropout rate has increased since the last Gender Status Report in 2016, from 1.5 per cent to 1.7 per cent, while the secondary school dropout rate has remained the same at 1.2 per cent.⁴²

Table 6.5 Primary and secondary school dropout rates by sex

		2017	2018
Grades 1-7	Boys	1.3	1.4
	Girls	1.7	1.9
	Total	1.5	1.7
Grades 8-12	Boys	0.6	0.7
	Girls	1.5	1.7
	Total	1.0	1.2

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

6.3.3 Transition Rates

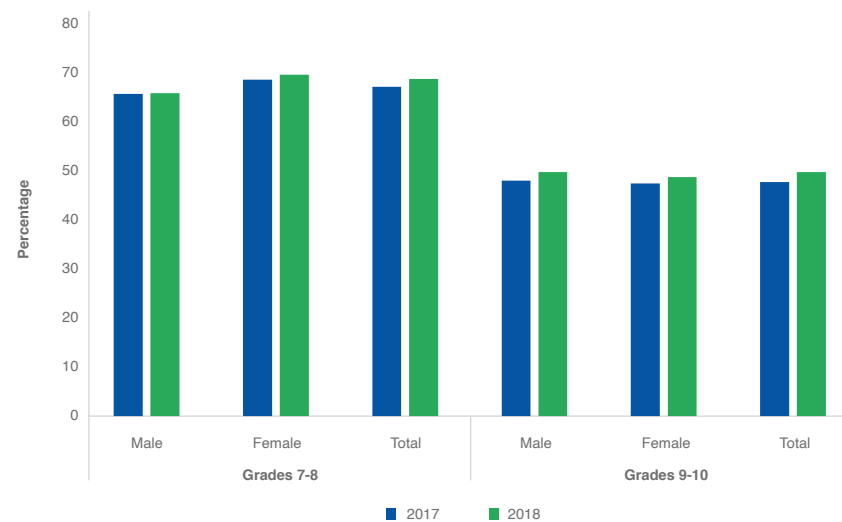
Transition rate is the number of pupils (or students) admitted to the first grade of a higher level of education each year, expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils (or students) enrolled in the final grade of the lower level of education in the previous year. The indicator conveys information on the degree of access or transition from one cycle or level of education to a higher one. When viewed from the lower cycle or level of education, it is considered as an output indicator; viewed from the higher education cycle or level, it constitutes an indicator of access. It can also help in assessing the relative selectivity of an education system, which can be due to pedagogical or financial requirements.⁴³

The proportion of girls and boys who completed primary education (grade 7) and progressed to lower secondary education (grade 8) increased from 67.5 per cent in 2017 to 69.1 per cent in 2018. Also, transition to lower secondary education for boys in 2017 and 2018 was lower than that for girls, as shown in figure 6.2. It is worth noting that transition rates for both boys and girls increased during the reporting period, from 66.1 per cent in 2017 to 68.2 per cent in 2018 for boys and 69 per cent in 2017 to 70 per cent in 2018 for girls. Overall, the transition from grades 7 to 8 was higher for girls than boys in both years. Similarly, the transition from grades 9 to 10 was higher for girls than boys during the same period. Given the marginal increase in primary completion and transition rates, a slightly higher proportion of children are participating in lower secondary education, which explains the stagnant gross enrolment rates in lower secondary.

⁴² Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) and Ministry of Gender. 2017. *Gender Status Report, 2015–2016*.

⁴³ United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). 2009. *Education Indicators: Technical Guidelines*, November 2009.

Figure 6.2 Percentage distribution of transition rates by sex, 2017–2018



Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

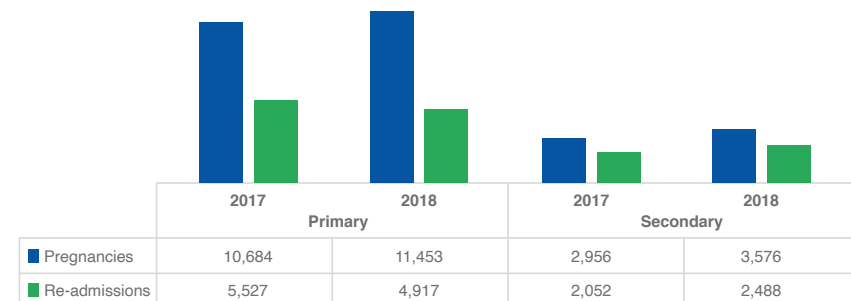
6.3.4 Re-admission of Girls into School After Pregnancy

The National Education Policy of 1996, *Educating Our Future*, recognises gender equality as a critical factor in education and aims at providing equal access to education for all. In line with this, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training, and Early Education has implemented policies such as the Re-Entry Policy, which are part of a wider strategy aimed at improving access and retention of girls in schools. This policy provides for girls who drop out of school due to pregnancy to be re-admitted after giving birth.

Although there is a policy framework that allows for girls to come back to school after maternity leave, re-admission rates remain low, as seen in figure 6.3. Out of the 10,684 girls in primary schools who got pregnant in 2017, only half (5,527) were re-admitted, representing 51.7 per cent. It must be highlighted that despite the increase in the number of pregnancies at the primary school level – from 10,684 girls in 2017 to 11,453 girls in 2018 – the number of re-admissions reduced from 5,527 to 4,917 girls over the same period. At the secondary school level, the number of pregnancies increased from 2,956 girls in 2017 to 3,576 girls in 2018, while the number of re-admissions also increased from 2,052 girls in 2017 to 2,488 girls in 2018.

It must be pointed out that there has been a reduction, by 312 (2.7 per cent), in the number of pregnancies at primary schools since the previous Gender Status Report of 2016. In contrast, pregnancies among secondary school learners have increased, by 123 (3.6 per cent), since the previous report.⁴⁴

Figure 6.3 Number of pregnancies and re-admissions by grade groups, 2018–2019

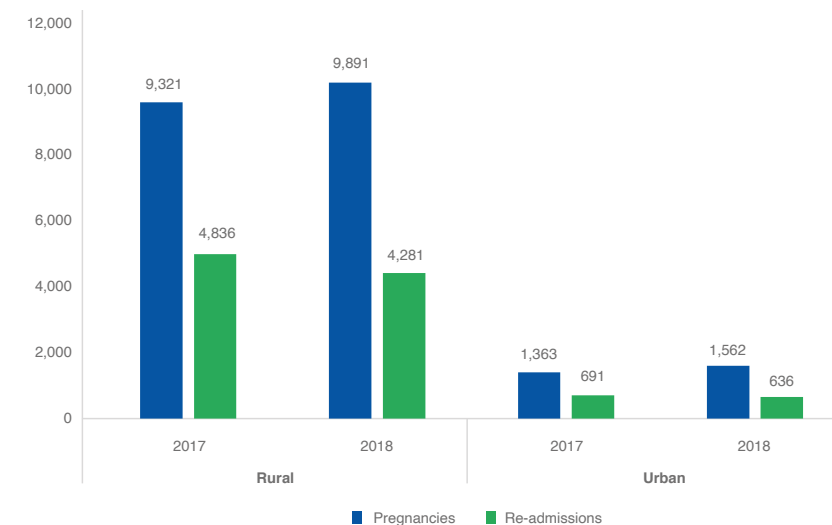


Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

Figures 6.4 and 6.5 show the number of pregnancies and re-admissions at the primary and secondary education levels, respectively, by residence (rural/urban). While primary education pregnancies in rural areas increased by 6.1 per cent from 2017 to 2018, re-admissions decreased by the same margin. A similar pattern is observed in urban areas, where primary school pregnancies increased by 14.6 per cent, yet re-admissions decreased by about 4 per cent. In contrast, the re-admission rate was higher in rural areas than urban areas for secondary education.

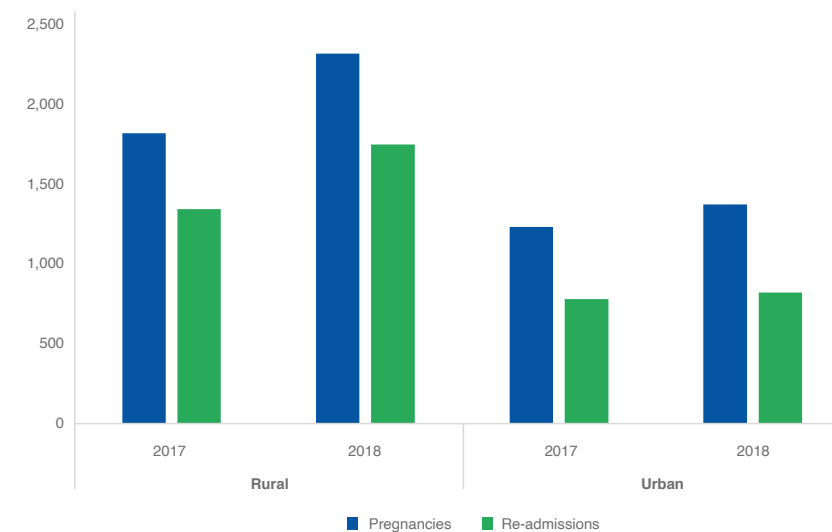
The results in figure 6.4 could be due to challenges with implementing the re-admission policy or due to girls not being able to return to school for other reasons. Be as it may, the results suggest that girls who become pregnant at primary school level are potentially at higher risk of dropping out of school; a situation which may have the effect of widening and extending inequality gaps in other sectors of development in the present and in the future.

Figure 6.4 Number of pregnancies and re-admissions in primary schools by residence, 2018–2019



Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

Figure 6.5 Number of pregnancies and re-admissions in secondary schools by residence, 2018–2019



6.3.5 Completion Rates

Completion rate is the number of learners who have successfully completed a given grade (each year), expressed as a percentage of the total number of learners of official school age for that grade. It measures both the coverage of the education system and the educational attainment of learners. School completion rate is an important measure of the retention capacity of an education system. In particular, ensuring that all boys and girls complete primary school is a major target of SDG 4 (quality education). Completion rate is a more accurate indicator of human capital formation, as well as the quality and efficiency of the school system, than gross enrolment and net enrolment ratios.

Table 6.6 shows completion rates for grades 7, 9, and 12 by sex. The completion rate for primary school (grade 7) shows continuous improvement in the case of both girls and boys, whereas the completion rates for secondary school, especially for final grade 12, are extremely low. As of 2018, the completion rates were 99.8 per cent for girls and 94.8 per cent for boys at grade 7, showing a desirable improvement since 2016 (when these rates were 93.7 per cent and 91.3 per cent for girls and boys respectively). Similarly, improvements have been noted for completion rates at grades 9 and 12 since the previous Gender Status Report – the completion rates rose from 64.2 per cent in 2016 to 77.3 per cent in 2018 for girls, and from 69.4 per cent in 2016 to 76.6 per cent in 2018 for boys. However, though table 6.6 indicates

⁴² Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) and Ministry of Gender. 2017. *Gender Status Report, 2015–2016*.

improvement from 2017 to 2018 at grade 12, a comparison with the base year (2016) shows that completion rates have continued to decline significantly – specifically, girls’ completion rate declined from 68.3 per cent in 2016 to 31.9 per cent in 2018, while that of boys declined by a marginal 1 per cent, from 41.4 per cent to 40.4 per cent in the same period.

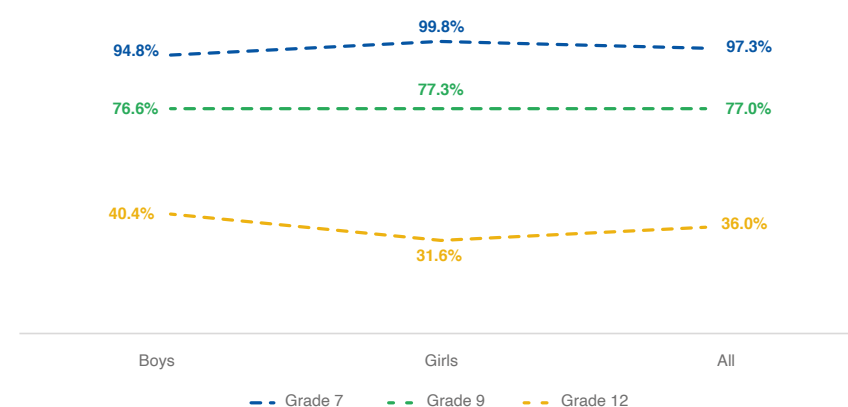
Table 6.6 Completion rates for grades 7, 9, and 12 by sex

	Sex	2017	2018
Grade 7	Boys	93.45	94.8
	Girls	90.30	99.8
	All	91.82	97.3
Grade 9	Boys	73.6	76.6
	Girls	69.7	77.3
	All	71.7	77.0
Grade 12	Boys	34.2	40.4
	Girls	29.8	31.6
	All	31.8	36.0

Source: Educational Statistical Bulletin. 2017, 2018.

In general, while improvements have been noted within grades from 2017 to 2018, there is a declining trend across grades, as shown in figure 6.6. The decline suggests that children start out well at primary school, but then start to drop out as they get to secondary school, with almost half of them failing to complete grade 12. This can be attributed to the low transition rates at grade 10, as well as other social and economic factors affecting households.

Figure 6.6 Trend in completion rates in 2018



Health, and HIV and AIDS

Good health is essential to development. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and SDG 3 (good health and well-being) emphasise the importance and need for women and children to access quality and affordable healthcare. The BDPfA notes that women should have decision-making powers in matters concerning their health. Therefore, the Government of Zambia has established policies to promote good health among its citizens.⁴⁵ Policies and strategies that address the unique challenges faced by women, adolescent girls, and children, in particular, have been adopted. However, despite the progress made towards increasing access to healthcare, women, children, and adolescents continue to face health challenges, especially with regard to nutrition, reproductive health, HIV and access to HIV treatment, and infant mortality, to mention but a few aspects.

This section presents select health issues affecting women, men, and children such as infant mortality, maternal mortality, access to reproductive health services, life expectancy at birth, and health insurance, among others.

7.1 Health Insurance (Private and Government)

There are various health insurance schemes in Zambia, such as social security, employer-based health insurance, mutual health organisation/community-based insurance, and privately purchased commercial insurance. However, according to the Zambia Demographic and Health Survey,⁴⁶ health insurance coverage remains very low in the country, with only 2.1 per cent of women and 3.1 per cent of men accessing any type of health insurance. Most of those with health insurance are covered by their employers (1.4 per cent of women and 2.2 per cent of men).⁴⁷ Additionally, there are gender gaps by region, with those in rural areas having almost no access at all to health insurance, as indicated in table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1 Any health insurance coverage by region and sex, 2018

Geographical location/sex	Men	Women
Rural	0.6%	0.4%
Urban	5.7%	3.9%

Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

To ensure inclusive coverage, the government introduced the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) under Act No. 2 of 2018, which provides improved financing to the national health system. It is aimed at providing universal access to quality insured healthcare services. However, access to the NHIS requires registration and minimal monthly contribution to the scheme through the National Health Insurance Management Authority (NHIMA).

7.2 Key Health Issues

7.2.1 Access to Sexual and Reproductive Health Services

Zambia’s Seventh National Development Plan, as well as SDG 5 (gender equality) and the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, all indicate the importance of enhancing women and youths’ access to sexual and reproductive health services (SRHS); setting a target of universal access by 2030. According to Zambia Vision 2030, all women, and especially youths of reproductive age, must have non-discriminatory access to reproductive healthcare services, including family planning, and reproductive health information and education. This has led to the integration of sexual and reproductive health into national and partner-supported strategies and programmes such as the DREAMS (Determined, Resilient, Empowered, AIDS-free, Mentored, and Safe) programme focusing on adolescents, the integration of youth-friendly corners in all health facilities, as well as the scaling up of family planning, and maternal and child health services for all.⁴⁸

⁴⁵ Ministry of National Development Planning (Zambia). 2017. *Seventh National Development Plan 2017–2021*. Lusaka.

⁴⁶ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁴⁷ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁴⁸ Ministry of Health (Zambia). 2017. *Reproductive Health Services Strategy 2017–2022*.

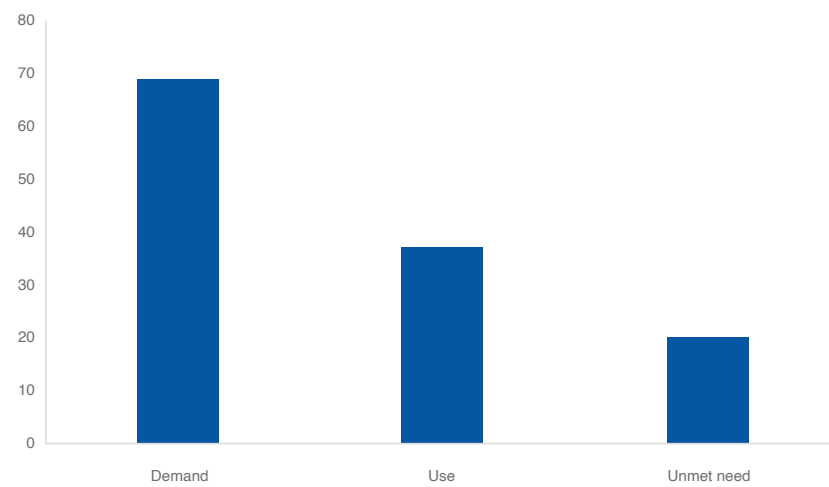
For sexual and reproductive health to be attained and maintained, the sexual and reproductive health rights of all persons must be respected, protected, and fulfilled, implying that the government must ensure the availability of relevant information and services to the populations of interest. This sub-section, therefore, discusses progress made in increasing SRHS for women and adolescents in Zambia. Key themes of discussion include: access to and use of family planning, teenage pregnancies, and access to information on SRHS.

7.2.1.1 Access to Family Planning

Ensuring access for all people to their preferred family planning methods advances several human rights including the right to life and liberty, freedom of opinion and expression, and the right to work and education, while bringing significant health and other benefits. Use of contraception prevents pregnancy-related health risks for women, especially for adolescent girls, that are likely when births are separated by less than two years. Couples can use contraceptive methods to limit or space the number of children they have. In particular, women have the right to decide the number of children they want if they chose to have children.

Figure 7.1 indicates that 69 per cent of women of reproductive age in Zambia demanded family planning methods in 2018, but only 36.7 per cent had access.

Figure 7.1 Percentage of demand for family planning among women aged 15–49 years, 2018

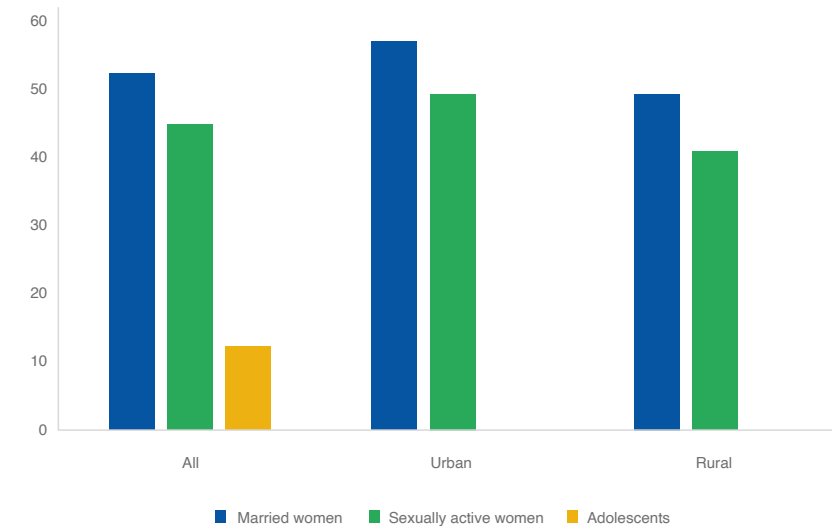


Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

There are observed inequalities in contraceptive use in Zambia, as indicated in figure 7.2. Use of contraceptives is highest among married women at 51.7 per cent and lowest among adolescents at 12.1 per cent. While urban women seem to have easy access to contraceptives, rural women face challenges like long distances to health facilities as well as traditional and cultural barriers. Although almost all the men and women in Zambia have received information on family planning and contraceptives, unmet need is still high.

It is imperative to continue efforts to bridge the gaps in access and use of family planning, particularly because it is a strong conduit for reducing maternal mortality locally and regionally. According to SADC, family planning services have the potential to reduce the maternal mortality rate by almost 30 per cent.⁵²

Figure 7.2 Percentage distribution of family planning usage among women by residence, 2018

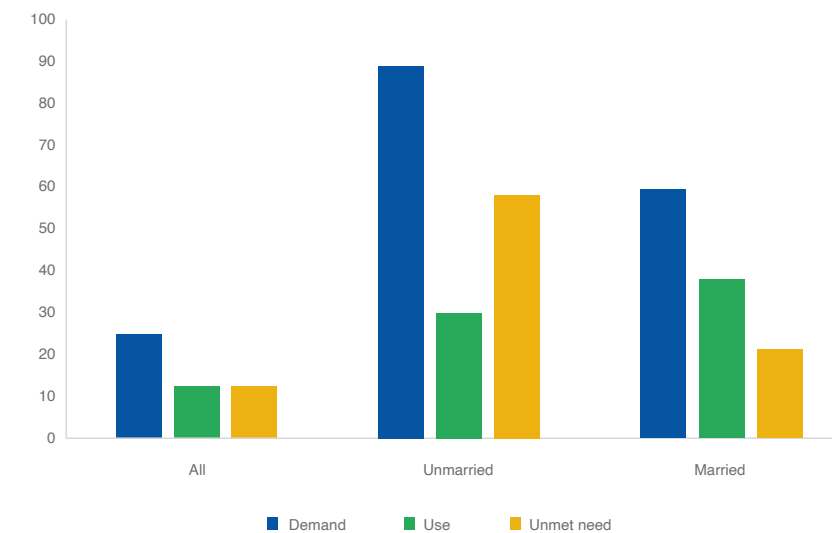


Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

7.2.2 Access to Reproductive Health Services Among Adolescents

While information on SRHS is readily available among adolescents (98.1 per cent of girls and 96.1 per cent of boys), access to family planning methods/services like contraceptives remains significantly low (at 12 per cent) compared to the adult population (as shown in figure 7.3). It suffices to note that only about 38 per cent of married adolescents used any form of family planning in 2018. This was the case despite all the targeted SRHS-related policies and programmes for adolescents. Strengthening linkages and creating conducive environments for adolescents to access SRHS is critical for Zambia. Young people are highly vulnerable to sexual exploitation and cross-generational sex, which makes it difficult for young girls to negotiate for safer sex with their older boyfriends. Additionally, adolescents are prone to other physical vulnerabilities that make them more susceptible to maternal mortality and increased infant mortality too. Furthermore, SRHS for adolescents are critically necessary for reducing unwanted pregnancies and pregnancy-related school dropout. As implied, SRHS for adolescents are key for empowering young girls; for allowing them to enjoy healthy lives, complete their education, and eventually participate effectively in national development.

Figure 7.3 Percentage distribution of family planning access among women, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

⁴⁹ Article 1(b) of the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

⁵⁰ Ministry of Health (Zambia). 2013, 2017. *Strategy for Scaling Up Family Planning*.

⁵¹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁵² Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2008. *Sexual and Reproductive Health Strategy for the SADC Region*.

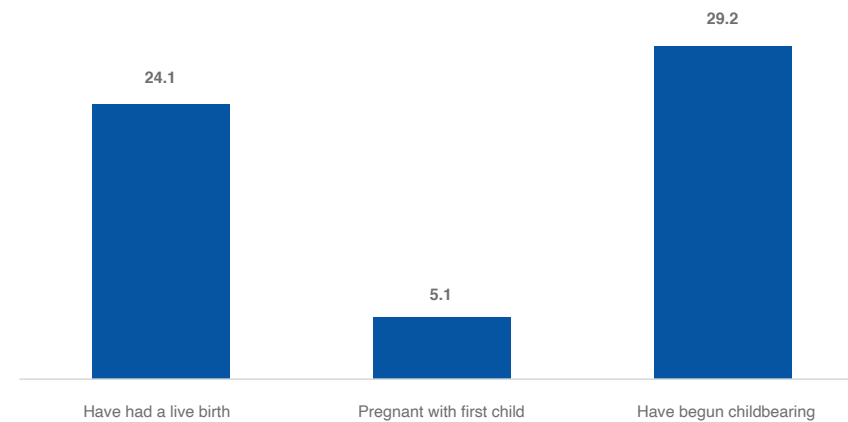
⁵³ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁵⁴ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

7.2.2.1 Teenage Pregnancies

Figure 7.4 shows that about 29.2 per cent of adolescent girls in Zambia had begun childbearing and 24.1 per cent had given birth, while 5.1 per cent were pregnant with their first child, in 2018.

Figure 7.4 Percentage distribution of teenage pregnancies, 2018

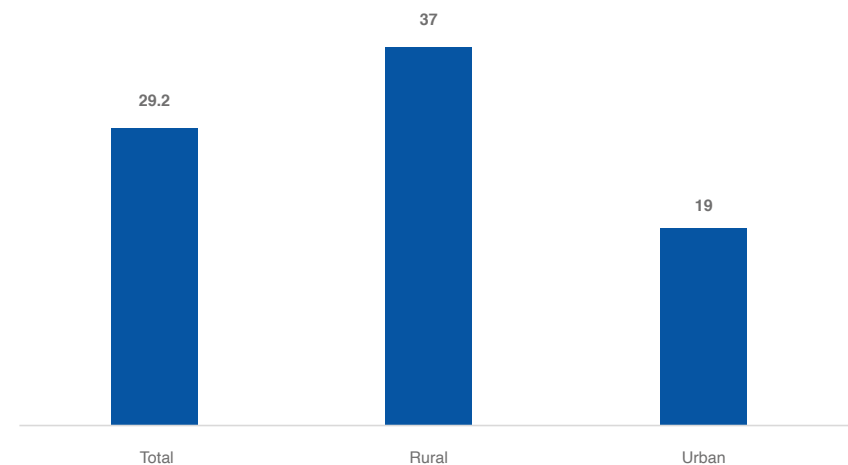


Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

The percentage of teenagers who began childbearing was higher in rural areas (37 per cent) than in urban areas (19 per cent), as seen in figure 7.5. Rural teenage pregnancies have increased by 1 per cent (from 38 per cent to 37 per cent), while urban teenage pregnancies have reduced by the same margin (from 20 per cent to 19 per cent), since 2014.⁵⁵ Teenage pregnancy disadvantages girls residing in most rural settings. It undermines girls' human rights and compromises their opportunity to fully realise their socio-economic development potential. Teenagers who have early exposure to sexual intercourse are at high risk of pregnancy and childbearing.

Overall, given the fact that Zambia has a legal framework and strategy for scaling up SRHS that includes adolescents, the high teenage pregnancies noted could, thus, indicate the absence, inaccessibility, or inefficiency of adolescent-friendly and responsive family planning services in both urban and rural areas. According to the 2018 ZDHS, women in Zambia are still getting married at very young ages. It is evident that a good number of girls (9.1 per cent) get married at age 15. This shows that girls are still being deprived of their reproductive health rights, and it impinges on their opportunity to realise their full potential and enjoy their human rights.

Figure 7.5 Percentage distribution of teenage pregnancies by residence, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

7.3 HIV and AIDS

Zambia is committed to achieving the 90-90-90 target for HIV prevention set by the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), as well as to adhering to the SADC protocol on health aimed at ensuring that women and girls have access to HIV services, as they are often the most vulnerable to contracting HIV.⁵⁶ The country's HIV prevalence is at 11.1

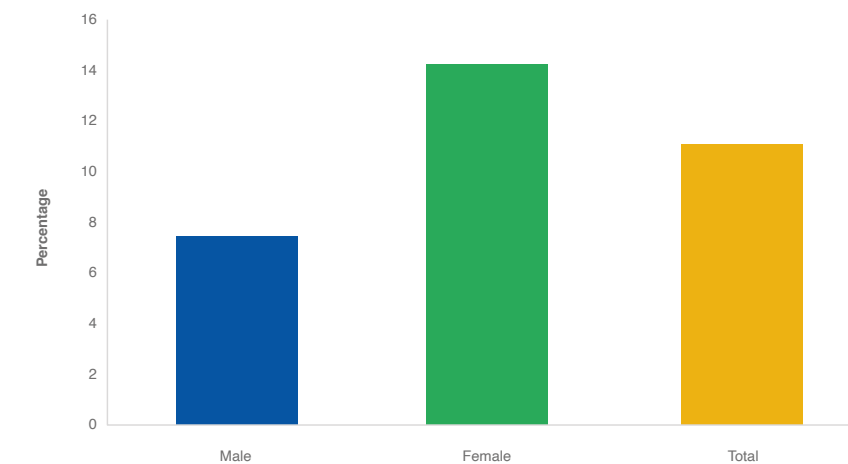
⁵⁵ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) and Ministry of Gender. 2017. *Genders Status Report 2015–2016*.

⁵⁶ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2018. *SADC Gender Protocol 2018 Barometer*.

per cent (with 1.2 million people living with HIV) among the population aged 15–49⁵⁷ – less than 12.3 per cent in 2016,⁵⁸ and also lower than the estimated SADC average of 38 per cent.⁵⁹

The HIV epidemic in Zambia has continued to have a female face. HIV prevalence among women aged 15–49 is 14.2 per cent, compared to 7.5 per cent among men in the same age range and 8.8 per cent among young people aged 15–24.⁶⁰

Figure 7.6 HIV prevalence among adults (aged 15–49) by sex, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

The ZDHS report⁶¹ indicates that there are regional variations with regard to HIV among persons aged 15–49. Copperbelt has the highest HIV prevalence at 15.4 per cent, followed by Lusaka (15.1 per cent), then Central and Southern (both 12.4 per cent), Western (10.6 per cent), Eastern (7.4 per cent), and Northern (5.6 per cent). Prevalence in Muchinga and North Western is estimated to be 5.4 per cent and 6.1 per cent, respectively.

The high levels of HIV prevalence among women and young people below the age of 25, as well as variations by region, depict profound differences in underlying causes. These differences reflect sexual behaviour, social attitudes, and pressure (peer pressure or other), but mainly economic and social power dynamics that render women and young people more vulnerable to contracting HIV. Thus, in addition to the already existing policy and programme frameworks available in Zambia, it is critical for everyone to understand the socially constructed relations between men and women that, to a large extent, underpin the individual behaviour that presents a higher risk of HIV to one sex over the other or one age group over another. Only when gender inequalities are addressed will the fight against HIV be won.

7.4 Other Health Issues

7.4.1 Maternal Mortality

Maternal mortality rate (MMR) is a key indicator of the socio-economic status of any given country. It is the number of deaths per 100,000 women including women who died when pregnant, during delivery, or within 42 days of delivery or the termination of a pregnancy, except when death was due to an accident or violence.

In Zambia, maternal mortality is one of the contributing factors to mortality. It accounts for 10 per cent of women's deaths in the country.⁶² As a result, the Government of Zambia, through the Seventh National Development Plan 2017–2021 and the National Health Strategic Plan 2017–2021, is committed to improving maternal health services, with emphasis on increasing the proportion of live births attended by skilled providers, understanding where pregnancy complications occur, and enhancing access to emergency obstetric care services.⁶³ This commitment is in tandem with target 3.1 of the SDGs, which aims at reducing the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.⁶⁴ It also aligns with the SADC strategic plan for increasing access to SRHS in SADC member countries to ensure no woman dies during pregnancy, and during and after delivery.⁶⁵

⁵⁷ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁵⁸ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2016. *ZaPHIA Survey*.

⁵⁹ Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS). 2019. *Communities at the Centre: Defending Rights, Breaking Barriers, Reaching People with HIV Services*.

⁶⁰ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁶¹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁶² Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁶³ Ministry of National Development Planning (Zambia). 2017. *Seventh National Development Plan*; Ministry of Health (Zambia). 2017. *National Health Strategic Plan*.

⁶⁴ World Health Organisation (WHO). n.d. Available online: www.who.int/sdg/target/en

⁶⁵ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2018. *Strategy for Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights in the SADC Region, 2019–2030*.

A similar indicator to maternal mortality is the pregnancy-related mortality rate (PRMR), which includes women who died when pregnant, during delivery, or within two months of delivery or the termination of a pregnancy. This indicator includes deaths due to an accident or violence.

The 2018 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey found that the maternal mortality rate is at 252 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births, while PRMR is at 278 deaths. This falls short of reaching the national and global targets of reducing MMR to at least 100 deaths per 1,000 live births and 70 per 100,000 live births respectively.⁶⁶ Furthermore, the current MMR is higher by almost 50 per cent than in 2016, when it had reduced from 180 to 111 deaths per 100,000 live births.⁶⁷

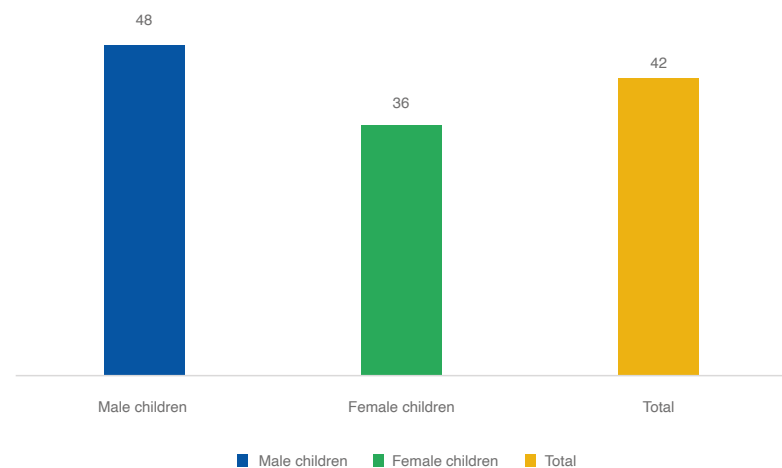
With all the government policies and interventions that are in place, the expectation is that PRMR and MMR would be declining in Zambia. The continued rise instead of MMR suggests that there are some gender dynamics at play that cannot be ignored. These dynamics include gendered power relations, which have a significant effect on maternal healthcare access and utilisation, and relate, among other things, to access to resources; women's workload during and after pregnancy; low levels or lack of support from a spouse, especially with regard to child preparedness and health education during antenatal clinics; social norms and perceptions of women's attitudes and behaviour during pregnancy; and attitudes towards domestic violence.

7.4.2 Infant Mortality

Infant mortality is the death of a baby before s/he reaches her or his first birthday, or rather the probability of dying between birth and the first birthday. Infant mortality is a critical indicator that informs on existing gender inequalities among women by age, level of education, and geographical location, as well as access to SRHS. According to the United States (U.S.) Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), it is also an essential marker of the general health of a population.⁶⁸ Target 3.2 of the SDGs aims at ending preventable deaths of new-borns and children less than five years of age.

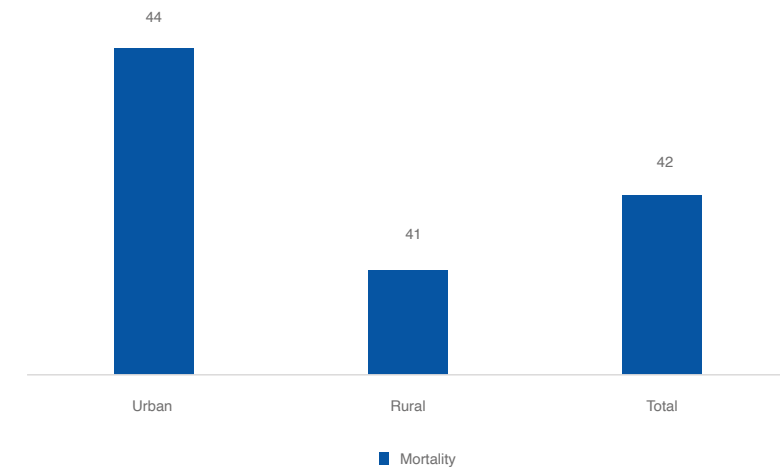
In Zambia, infant mortality has reduced, since 2016, from 73.3 deaths per 1,000 live births to 42 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2018. Infant mortality is higher among male children at 48 deaths per 1,000 children as compared to female children at 36 deaths per 1,000 children (see figure 7.7). Also, infant mortality is higher among women in urban areas as compared to women in rural areas (see figure 7.8).

Figure 7.7 Infant mortality per 1,000 among male and female children, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

Figure 7.8 Infant mortality per 1,000 by residence



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

Infant mortality has declined since the previous Gender Status Report, but remains high, especially among adolescent mothers (58 deaths per 1,000 live births). Overall, child mortality (which includes neonatal and under-five deaths) stands at 69 per cent,⁶⁹ which means that 69 per cent of children in Zambia are dying before their fifth birthday. These high rates imply that although some maternal and child healthcare interventions seem to have been successful, there are other significant inequalities affecting efforts to reduce and possibly end infant and child mortality in Zambia. These inequalities relate to differing access to safe drinking water and sanitation, lack of or low education among women of reproductive age, and low access to and use of family planning and other sexual and reproductive health services (resulting in high teenage pregnancies and poor child spacing).

However, an infant mortality rate of 86 deaths per 1,000 live births and a child mortality rate of 116 deaths per 1,000 live births were recorded among women whose previous birth interval was less than two years, which increases the risk of infant and child mortality. For example, the highest infant mortality rate is in Luapula (110 deaths per 1,000 births) – a province with the highest fertility rate, low levels of women's empowerment, and low literacy levels among women.⁷⁰

Also, ZamStats notes that during the 2018 ZDHS, infant and child mortality rates reduced with the level of education and age of the mother. There were 69 deaths per 1,000 live births among mothers with no education, 66 deaths per 1,000 live births among those with primary education, 62 deaths per 1,000 live births among those with secondary education, and 47 deaths per 1,000 live births among those with higher education.⁷¹

⁶⁶ Ministry of Health (Zambia). 2016. *Strategic Plan 2017–2021*; United Nations (UN). 2016. "Final List of Proposed SDGs".

⁶⁷ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats) and Ministry of Gender. 2017. *Gender Status Report, 2015–2016*.

⁶⁸ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). n.d. "Reproductive Health: Infant Mortality". Available online: <https://www.cdc.gov>

⁶⁹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁷⁰ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁷¹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018*. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

Access

to Productive (Economic) Resources and Employment



It is important for economic growth that people have access to productive resources and employment; and that there are other enabling mechanisms in the environment, allowing them to have income to support themselves and their families. This section presents information on select key labour market indicators, namely employment, labour force participation, occupation, sector of employment, type of employment, economically inactive persons, and unemployment. The section also gives a perspective on gender-responsive budgeting, focusing on the country's current status in this regard, while highlighting the importance of gender-responsive budgeting in enhancing women's economic empowerment and participation in the labour market.

Indicators presented in this section are in line with SDG 8, which promotes sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth; full and productive employment; and decent work for all. Furthermore, evidence-based policy-making relies on identifying and quantifying best practices and inefficiencies in the labour market – such as labour underutilisation and decent work deficits. It is the first step in designing employment policies aimed at enhancing the well-being of workers, while also promoting economic growth. This broad view of the world of work calls for comprehensive collection, organisation, and analysis of labour market information, disaggregated by socio-demographic characteristics and regions.

8.1 Gender-Responsive Budgeting

The impact of macroeconomic policies on gender equality through markets and state interventions that distribute key economic and financial resources cannot be overemphasised.⁷² However, gender equality perspectives have been largely ignored in the formulation and distribution of national financial resources. In Zambia, fiscal policies in support of gender mainstreaming require additional attention. In 2018, public funding for gender mainstreaming activities was reduced to 24 per cent from 45 per cent in the previous year.⁷³

A country's macroeconomic policies must consider the distributional consequences of economic growth strategies; including monetary, investment, and other labour market policies and the specific restrictions they may present for women's economic empowerment, including the unequal gender distribution of paid and unpaid work.⁷⁴ They must also factor in the implications for access to economic resources and opportunities. It must be understood that existing fiscal policies almost always have gender-differentiated impacts through the labour market. For instance, tax systems can create and perpetuate gender inequalities through influencing the allocation of time to formal, informal, and unpaid work. Also, deregulated financial markets and high borrowing rates not only affect supply of credit but also make it hard for other economic actors with limited capacity, particularly women in agriculture and small- and medium-scale entrepreneurs, to borrow.

Therefore, it becomes imperative that national budgeting processes consider all these differentials and take a gender-responsive approach, to ensure that economic growth is not hampered by widening inequalities. In other words, the national budget is an essential mechanism for the government to ensure women benefit from public-sector expenditures. Gender-responsive budgeting has the potential to promote change in budget policies, allocations, and outcomes to ensure that resources are allocated to the implementation of commitments on gender equality and equity.⁷⁵

8.2 Select Labour Market Indicators

8.2.1 Labour Force

Labour force refers to all persons aged 15 or older who are either employed or unemployed at the time of the survey. Overall, the labour force increased from 3,398,294 in 2017 to 3,423,486 in 2019. However, there are more males in the labour force despite the total working age population being dominated by females in the three-year period from 2017 to 2019.

⁷² Article 15 of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development.

⁷³ Ministry of Gender (Zambia). 2019. "Data Collection Tool for the Monitoring of the SADC Gender Protocol", submitted to SADC for the 2018 SADC Gender and Development Monitor.

⁷⁴ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA). 2009. *Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, Including Micro-finance*.

⁷⁵ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA). 2009. *2009 World Survey on the Role of Women in Development*.

Table 8.1 Number distribution of the labour force by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Both sexes	Males	Females
2017	3,398,294	2,041,306	1,356,988
2018	3,329,147	2,040,650	1,288,498
2019	3,423,486	2,059,965	1,363,521

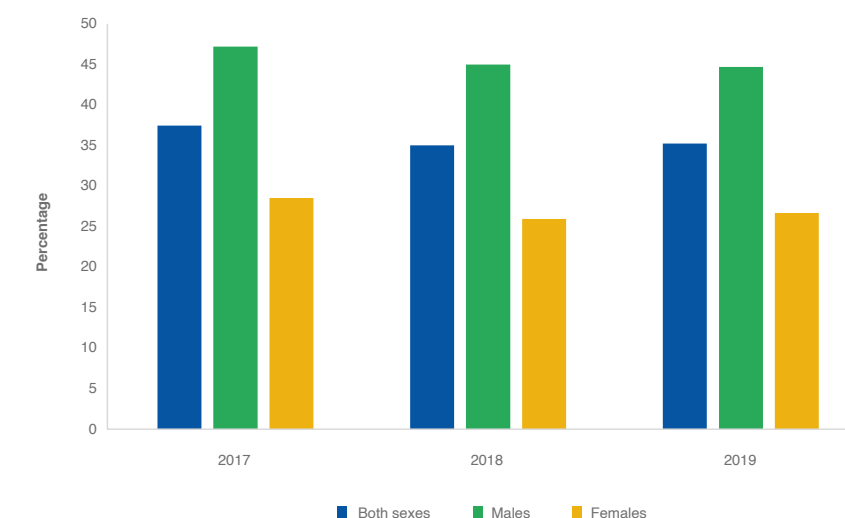
Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. *Zambia Labour Force Survey*.

8.2.2 Labour Force Participation Rate

The labour force participation rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. It provides an indication of the relative size of the supply of labour available to engage in the production of goods and services. Equal participation in the labour market is not about equality, rather it is a desirable aspect of economics because it presents gains in economic growth, especially given that most of the productive population in Zambia is comprised of women. However, equal participation is also hindered by low education among women, limiting their participation to low or unpaid work.

The labour force participation rate has been declining since the previous Gender Status Report, decreasing from 77.7 per cent in 2016 to 35.3 per cent in 2019, with higher participation by men (44.8 per cent) than by women (26.7 per cent). This is an indication that there is a lower supply of labour among women engaged in the production of goods and services than there is among men. Figure 8.1 shows participation in the labour market by sex over the three years under review (2017, 2018, and 2019).

Figure 8.1 Labour force participation rate by sex, 2017–2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. *Zambia Labour Force Survey*.

8.3 Employment

Effective employment and labour market institutions and policies are critical for creating productive and sustainable jobs. Notwithstanding, it is also important to have in place sector skills and education policies that support structural transformation, eventually translating into equal participation in the labour market of both men and women as well as the youth. Note that well-designed and effective employment policies contribute to the achievement of the national development agenda and the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, as well as SDGs 3 (good health and well-being), 4 (quality education), and 6 (clean water and sanitation) – and especially, SDG 8, which specifically aims to promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment, and decent work for all.

8.3.1 Employed Population

Employed population is the total number of persons who have a paid job in cash or in kind, regardless of whether they are on leave, absent, or suspended; in self-employment; or contributing to family work.

In the period under review, the employed population increased from 2,971,170 in 2017 to 2,995,103 in 2019. As expected, (given the trend in labour force participation), there were more men than women employed (see table 8.2). Furthermore, fewer women were engaged in paid productive activities. The latter is a general observation among all SADC member countries and across the globe.⁷⁶

Table 8.2 Number distribution of employed persons by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Both sexes	Males	Females
2017	2,971,170	1,797,957	1,173,213
2018	2,948,971	1,826,418	1,122,553
2019	2,995,103	1,811,243	1,183,860

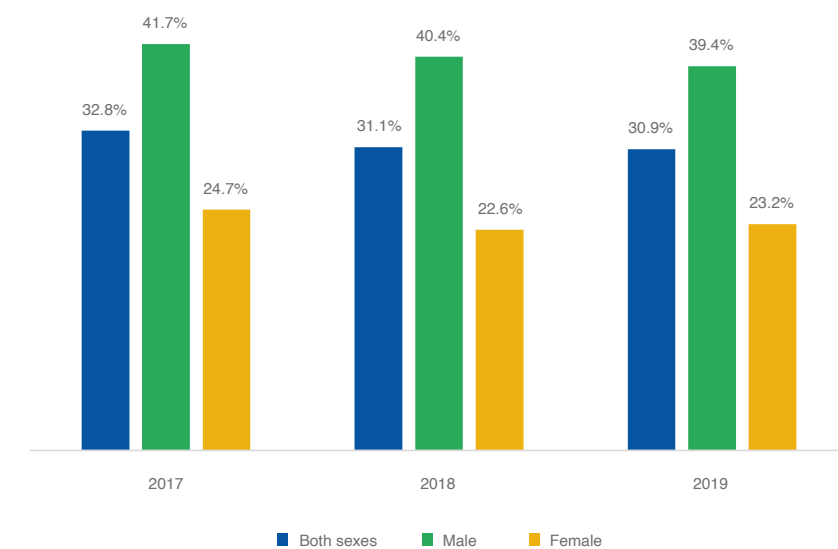
Source: Ministry of Labour and ZamStats, 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.3.2 Employment-to-Population Ratio

The employment-to-population ratio provides information on the ability of an economy to create employment. A high employment-to-population ratio leads to economic growth and improved quality of life and well-being as a benefit of economic development. It may also lead to a reduction in poverty-related crimes.

The employment-to-population ratio was 32.8 per cent in 2017 and declined to 30.9 per cent in 2019. A performance comparison with the previous Gender Status Report shows that the employment-to-population ratio has significantly reduced by 41 percentage points (from 71.1 per cent in 2016 to 30.9 per cent in 2019). The ratio has proportionately reduced between sexes too; from 73.1 per cent in 2016 to 23.2 per cent in 2019 for women and from 70.6 per cent in 2016 to 39.4 per cent in 2019 for men. It must be noted that there has been greater absorption of men than women in this reporting period. This could be because of continued bias or stereotyping of women in the labour market. It could also be a manifestation of other gender inequality and equity issues requiring urgent address. Globally, regionally, and locally, there is a demand to ensure 50/50 participation of women and men in labour markets. To achieve this, it is necessary to ensure that women and men's contributions to economic growth are considered equal and complimentary at the same time and that the environment is set up to allow equity (guaranteeing full participation of both sexes by addressing differences in the needs of men and women in a work environment).

Figure 8.2 Employment-to-population ratio by sex, 2017–2019



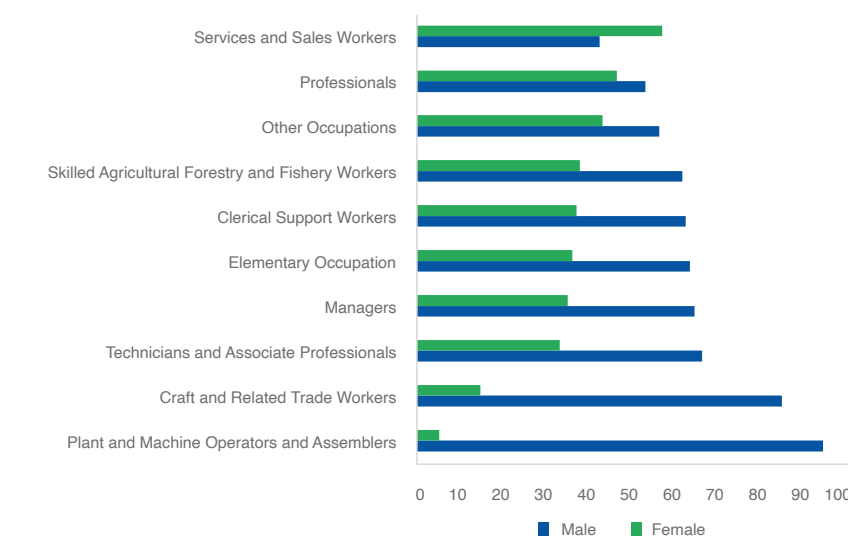
Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.4 Employment by Occupation

Occupation is a person's principal task or job in his/her workplace. Women are often considered for low-earning positions in Zambia, as is the case in many other countries. This trend keeps women perpetually in social and economic positions of disadvantage, as their incomes might not allow them to make significant investments while at the same time meeting personal and household needs.

In 2019, there was a higher percentage of women employed as service and sales workers at 57.3 per cent. Across all occupations, the percentage of employed men is higher than that of women (see figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 Percentage distribution of employed persons by occupation and sex, 2019



8.5 Employment in Select Industries

Women's representation in certain industries, such as mining; water, sanitation, and waste management; construction; the media; manufacturing; professional, scientific, and technical services; and energy, remains extremely low. The highest percentage of women (61 per cent) is employed in household activities, compared to men at 39 per cent. (See appendix 5 for further details.) Note that only those engaged in technical work are represented in this section.

8.5.1 Construction

The construction industry in Zambia has contributed to improving the state of infrastructure in the country. The industry has also employed a good number of women and men. Construction of roads, the Pave Zambia 2000 project, and construction of office blocks and housing units in new districts are among the various construction projects that the government has engaged in.

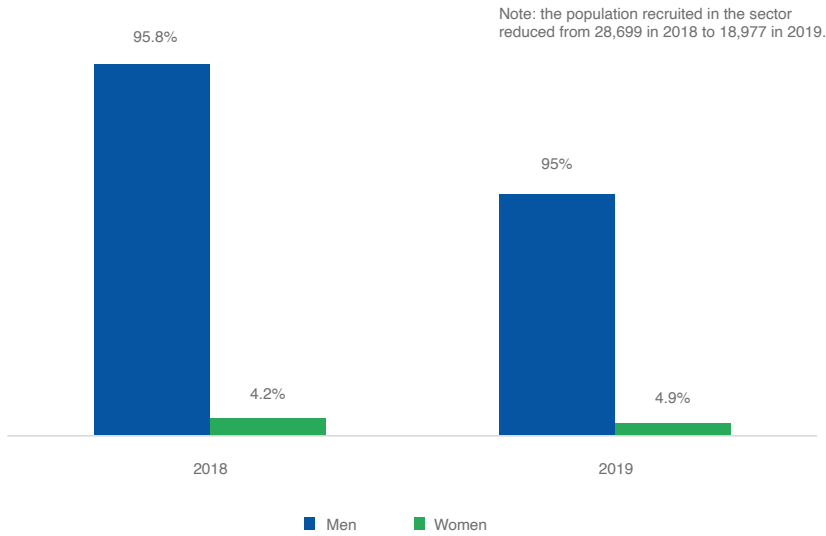
The National Council for Construction (NCC) – a statutory body formed under the National Council for Construction Act of 2003 – came into operation to, among other things, provide information on people employed in the construction industry. This information is collected by the NCC through quarterly inspection forms administered to select companies registered with the Council.

The construction sector in Zambia is a male-dominated industry. There is only about one woman for every five men in this sector. There are several factors that explain this enormous gender gap, ranging from unconscious gender bias to lack of adequate training to overall perceptions of women working in construction – traditionally a male-dominated career.

Figure 8.4 shows that as at 2018, there were 27,488 men as compared to only 1,211 women working in the construction sector. In 2019, the number of men (18,031) working in this sector remained more than that of women (944).

⁷⁶ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2016. *SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016*; International Labour Organisation (ILO). n.d. "Measuring Decent work in Zambia".

Figure 8.4 Employment in the construction sector by sex, 2018–2019

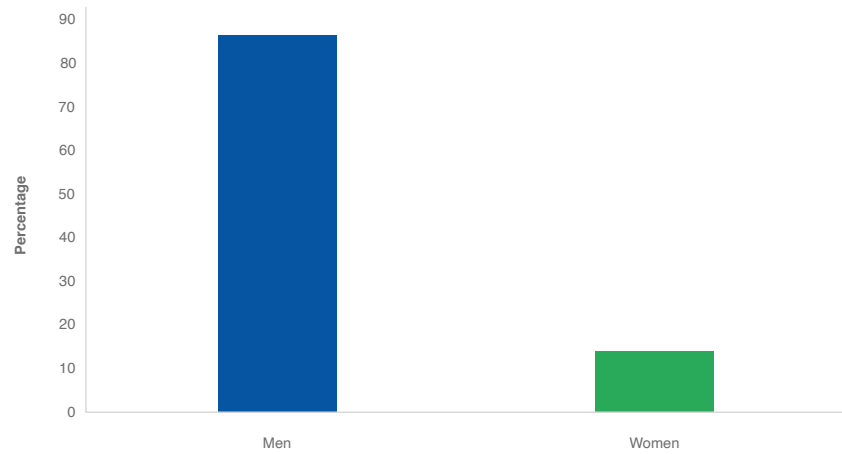


Source: Ministry of Housing and Infrastructure Development, 2018–2019.

8.5.2 Mining and Quarrying

Figure 8.5 shows participation in the mining sector. Some of the significant gender inequality issues can be traced back to education and stereotyping of women in Zambia. Like the construction and energy sectors, the mining sector is still considered a man’s sector by society, including women. According to SADC, there are considerable environmental and economic benefits in championing women’s participation in the mining sector.⁷⁷

Figure 8.5 Employment in the mining and quarrying sector by sex, 2019

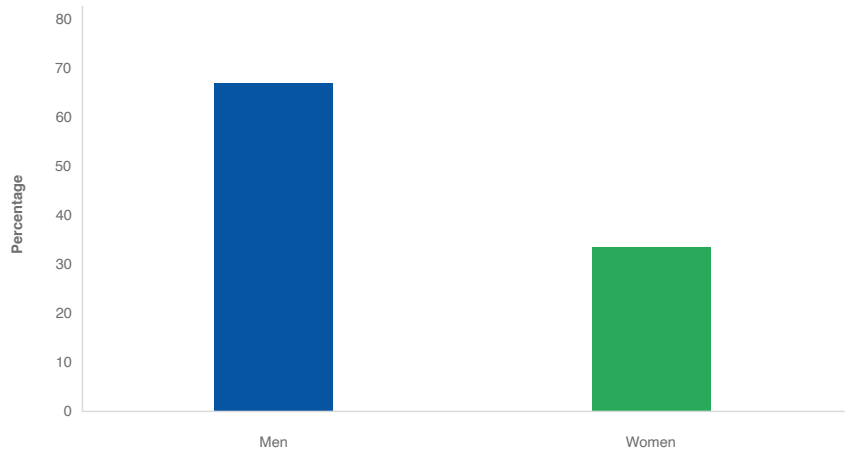


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.5.3 Energy

Like in any other traditionally male-dominated sector, women employed in the energy sector constituted 32.9 per cent of the workforce, compared to 67.1 per cent men, as shown in figure 8.6. This indicates good progress towards gender mainstreaming in the sector, although more support to women hires is still necessary to reach the 50/50 recruitment policy target.

Figure 8.6 Employment in the energy sector by sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

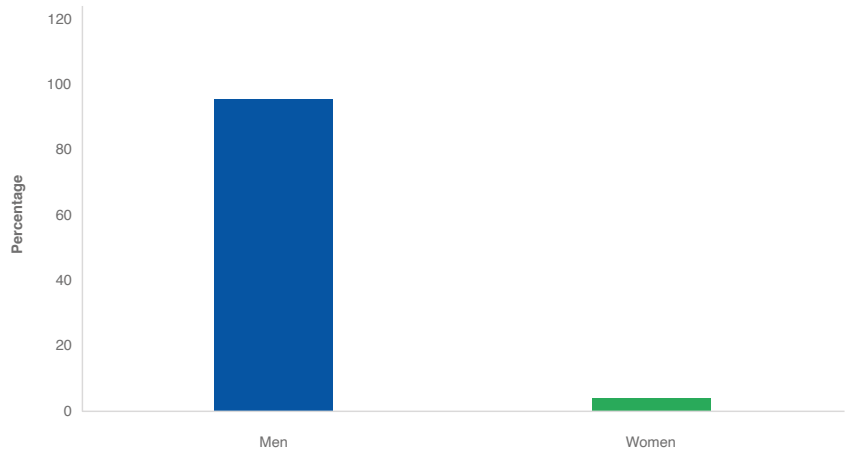
8.5.4 Environment – Water, Sanitation, and Solid Waste Management

The Beijing Declaration stipulates the need for an integrated approach to the management of water resources. Despite Zambia having ratified the declaration, and notwithstanding the critical role of water and the competing needs of men and women for the resource, the country still lags in including women in water resources, sanitation, and waste management roles.

8.5.4.1 National-Level Recruitment of Women in Technical and Senior Decision-Making Roles

Women comprise 4.2 per cent of those employed in the water, sanitation, and waste management sector, with men accounting for 95.8 per cent (see figure 8.7) – far below the desired recruitment threshold of 50/50. This disproportionate representation of women is detrimental to all progress towards improving economic development anchored in inclusive participation. Men and women attach different values to water, sanitation, and hygiene; and hence, equal participation in this sector is important for promoting a balanced approach to the design of programmes and infrastructure, as well as sustainable and impactful implementation and public health benefits.

Figure 8.7 Employment in the water, sanitation, and waste management sector by sex, 2019



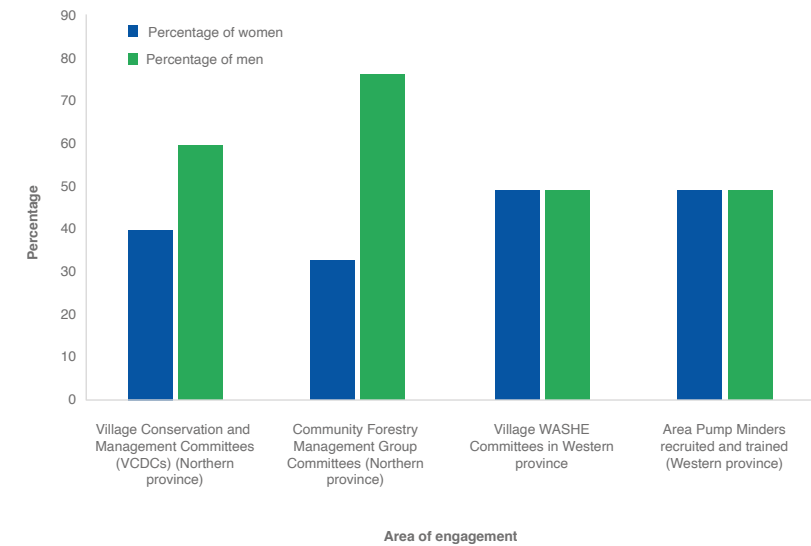
Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.5.4.2 Women’s Participation at the Community Level

Women’s participation in water resources management at the community level is still low. However, the Ministry of Water, Sanitation, and Environmental Protection is taking deliberate measures to ensure that women are actively involved in the management committees of various environmental and water initiatives, such as the Lake Tanganyika Development Project in Northern province and the Transforming Rural Livelihoods in Western Zambia Project. Figure 8.8 shows women’s participation in water, sanitation, hygiene, and environmental management in Northern and Western provinces in 2017–2019.

⁷⁷ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2016. *SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016*

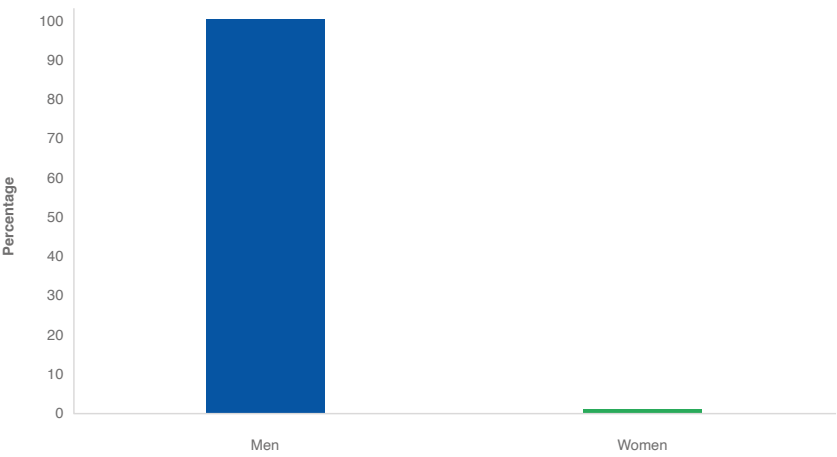
Figure 8.8 Percentage distribution of women’s participation in water, sanitation, hygiene, and environmental management – Northern and Western provinces, 2017–2019



8.5.5 Transport and Storage

There is an urgent need to address existing inequality in the transport and storage sector in Zambia, for the realisation of equal employment. According to the European Union (EU), women shun the transport sector because of the deep-rooted gender biases, the harsh conditions that do not consider the specific needs of women transporters, as well as the exploitation and harassment in the sector, which is seen as an area of work for men. Figure 8.9 shows the percentage of women employed in the transport and storage sector in Zambia by 2019.

Figure 8.9 Percentage of employment in the transport and storage sector by sex, 2019

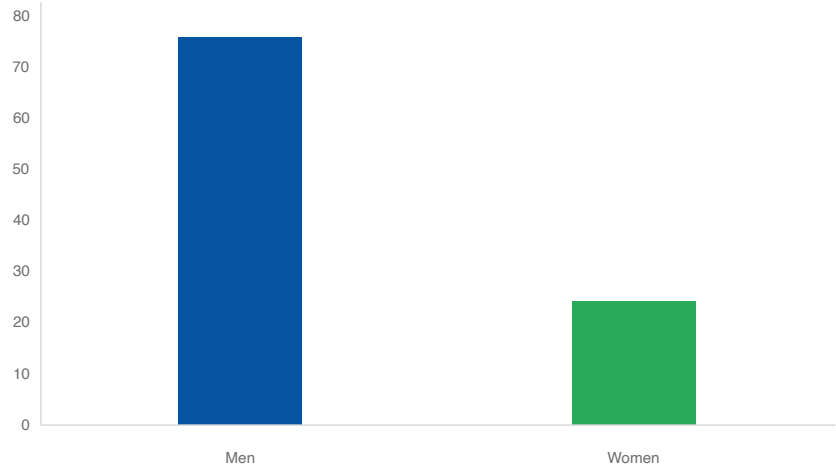


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.5.6 Manufacturing

Employment in the manufacturing industry is similarly biased towards men. Apart from the other gender issues highlighted in the preceding sub-sections, the low levels or lack of training among women is another major contributing factor for this situation.

Figure 8.10 Percentage distribution of men and women employed in manufacturing, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

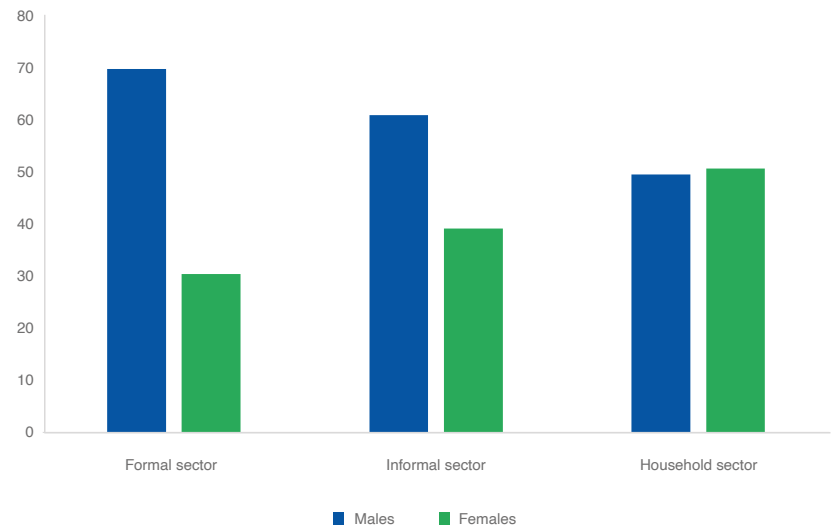
As observed earlier, despite the industries discussed here being critical to national development – and also being among the well-paying industries in Zambia – women’s recruitment in them is very low. This means that not only are women excluded from high-paying job opportunities, but also decisions made in these sectors will predominately represent the views of men, who to a larger extent may be blind to the inclusive needs of the whole population. Addressing this glaring exclusion of women, who by nature are more empathetic and care-givers, and have a more holistic approach towards ensuring that development and its associated benefits trickle down to all citizens, will help determine whether gender equality and equity are realised in Zambia’s economic development.

8.6 Sector Employment – Formal, Informal, and Household Sectors

The formal sector refers to all production units that are registered with a tax and/or licensing authority. Examples of tax and licensing authorities in Zambia are the Zambia Revenue Authority (ZRA), Patents and Companies Registration Agency (PACRA), and Local Authority, among others. The informal sector refers to all production units that are not registered with a tax or licensing authority, while the household sector refers to all households as producers of goods and services. Formal employment is associated with higher social security.

Figure 8.11 shows the percentage distribution of employed persons by sector and sex. In 2019, there were slightly more women (50.6 per cent) than men (49.4 per cent) employed in the household sector. Furthermore, men were more likely to be employed in the formal and informal sectors than women. Note that the household sector category in this report excludes unpaid work; it only includes those doing paid housework like gardeners and house helpers.

Figure 8.11 Percentage distribution of employed persons by sector of employment and sex, 2019



Employed men account for 69.7 per cent of the formal sector, 60.8 per cent of the informal sector, and 49.4 per cent of the household sector, as compared to employed women, who account for 30.3 per cent, 39.2 per cent, and 50.6 per cent of the formal, informal, and household sectors, respectively. In Zambia, social security cover tends to focus more on those in formal employment.⁷⁸ Therefore, it can be deduced from figure 8.11 that among both men and women, most lack social protection, because they are employed in sectors that are often not covered by social protection. Figure 8.11 further suggests that women in particular are excluded more than men.

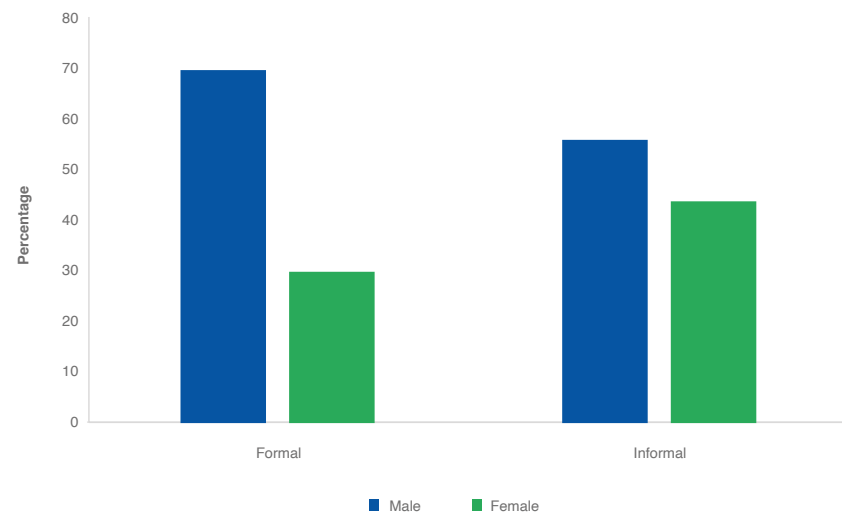
8.7 Types of Employment

8.7.1 Formal and Informal Employment

Formal employment is the type of employment in which employees are entitled to social security coverage and contract in addition to annual paid leave, or any such entitlement and any legal registration for own account workers/employers. Informal employment is the type of employment that is characterised by the lack of an entitlement to annual paid leave and the absence of social security. This type of employment can be found in both formal sector and informal sector production units.

In 2019, there were more men (70 per cent) than women (30 per cent) employed formally, which implies that more women than men are vulnerable to employment shocks in Zambia.

Figure 8.12 Percentage distribution of employed persons by type of employment and sex, 2019

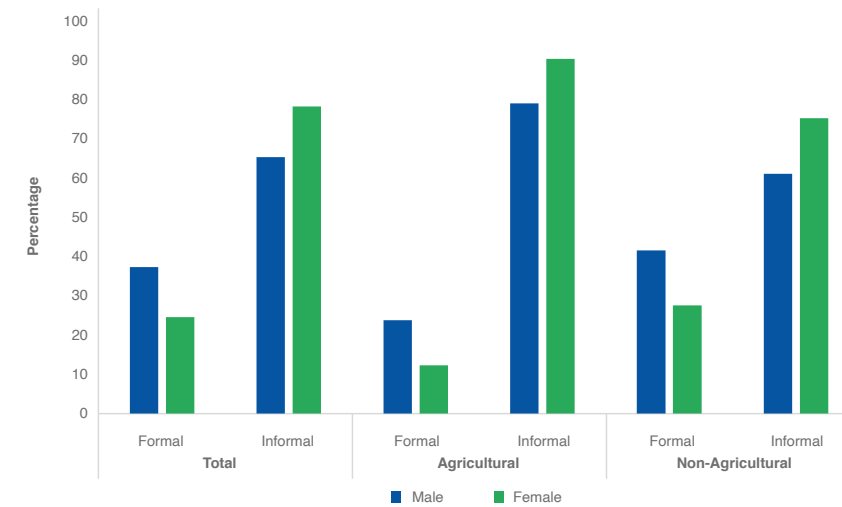


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.7.2 Agriculture and Non-Agriculture

Agriculture is one of the biggest employment sectors in Zambia for both men and women, as well as the youth. Like in many SADC and developing countries, women are the main contributors to the agriculture sector; contributing mostly cheap and unpaid labour. Currently, 88 per cent of the workforce in agriculture in Zambia comprises women who are not covered by social security. Only 12 per cent are covered by social security, compared to 23.1 per cent of men (see figure 8.13).

Figure 8.13 Proportion of employed persons by type of employment and sex, 2019

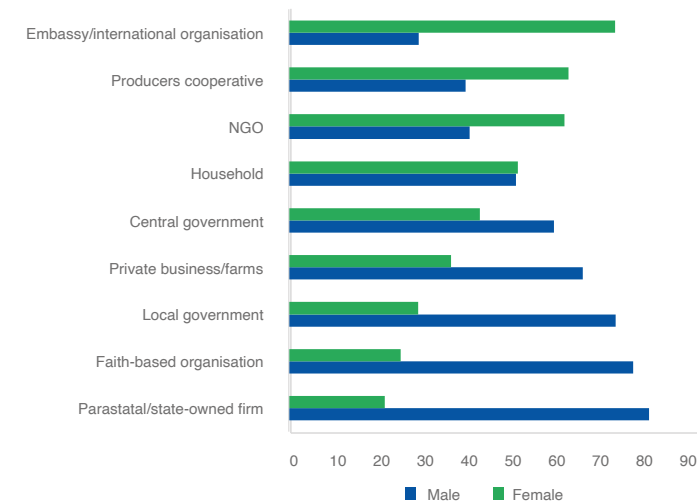


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.7.3 Institutional Sector Employment

In 2019, there was a higher percentage of men employed in central government (58.1 per cent), local government (71.6 per cent), and state-owned institutions (79 per cent). On the other hand, there were more women employed in embassies/international organisations (71.5 per cent), NGOs (60.4 per cent), and producer cooperatives (61.3 per cent) compared to men. For instance, only 28.4 per cent of women are employed in local government (see figure 8.14). This suggests a poor representation of women in decision-making, which has potentially grave consequences for inclusive development at all levels, including the community and national levels.

Figure 8.14 Percentage distribution of employed persons by institutional sector and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.8 Status in Employment

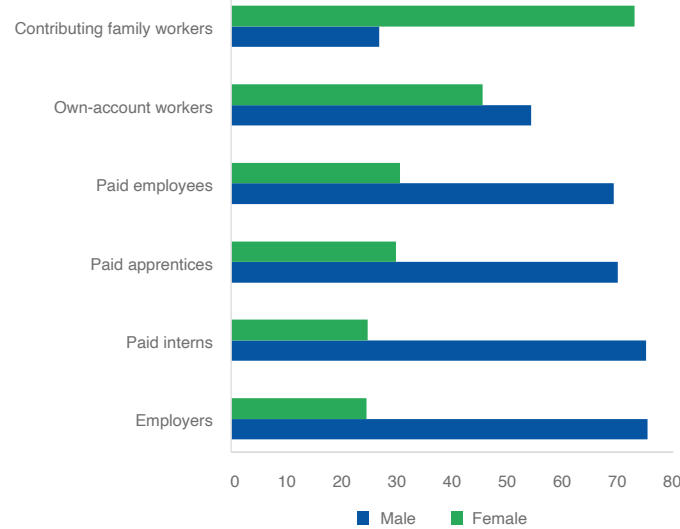
This indicator provides information on the distribution of the workforce by status in employment and can be used to answer questions such as: what proportion of employed persons in a country (a) work for wages or salaries; (b) run their own enterprises, with or without hired labour; or (c) work without pay within the family unit?

According to the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE), the basic criteria used to define the status groups are the types of economic risk that they face in their work, an element of which is the strength of institutional attachment between the person and the job; and the type of authority over establishments and other workers that the job-holder has or will have as an explicit or implicit result of the employment contract.

⁷⁸ International Labour Organisation (ILO), Irish Aid, and GIZ. 2016. *Extension of Social Protection to Workers in the Informal Sector in Zambia: Lessons Learnt from Field Research on Domestic Workers, Small Scale Farmers and Construction Workers*. Lusaka: ILO Country Office.

Figure 8.15 shows that more women are in indirectly gainful employment (engaged in unpaid family work) compared to men. Furthermore, the figure suggests that more women than men are not engaged or involved in participating in productive activities as employers (i.e. running their own businesses with employees).

Figure 8.15 Percentage distribution of employed persons by status in employment and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.9 Potential Labour Force

Potential labour force is defined as all persons of working age who during a short reference period were neither employed nor unemployed and:

- Carried out activities to “seek employment”, were not “currently available”, but would become available within a short subsequent period established in the light of national circumstances; or
- Did not carry out activities to “seek employment”, but wanted employment and were “currently available”.

The number of persons in the potential labour force increased from 1,650,765 in 2017 to 1,688,980 in 2019 (see table 8.3). There were more women than men in the potential labour force across all the years. This means that there were more women than men who carried out activities to “seek employment”, were not “currently available”, but would become available within a short subsequent period established in the light of national circumstances; or did not carry out activities to “seek employment”, but wanted employment and were “currently available”.

Table 8.3 Number distribution of the potential labour force by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Both sexes	Males	Female
2017	1,650,765	717,792	932,972
2018	1,684,317	772,778	911,539
2019	1,688,980	807,281	881,699

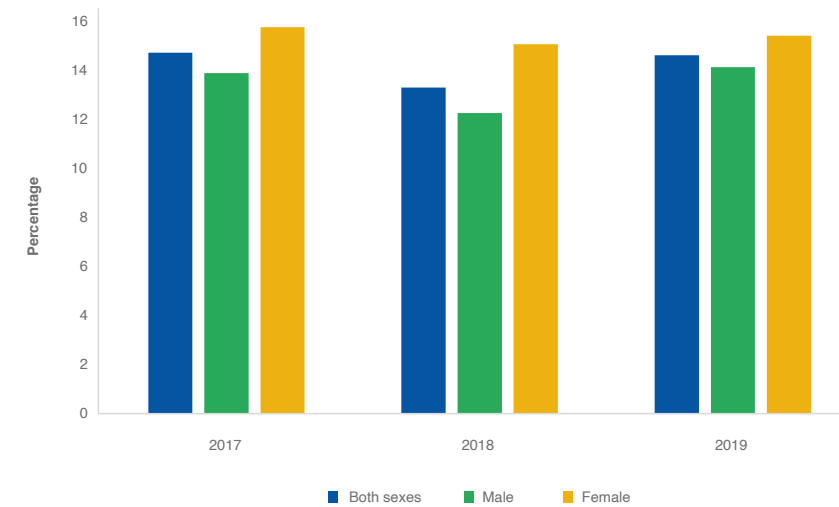
Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.10 Unemployment Rate

The unemployment rate is probably the best-known measure of labour underutilisation. It is the proportion of persons in the labour force without employment but actively searching and available to take up employment.

The unemployment rate declined from 12.6 per cent in 2017 to 11.4 per cent in 2018. However, in 2019, the rate increased to 12.5 per cent. In all the years under review, the unemployment rate was higher for females than males (see figure 8.16).

Figure 8.16 Unemployment rate by sex, 2017–2019

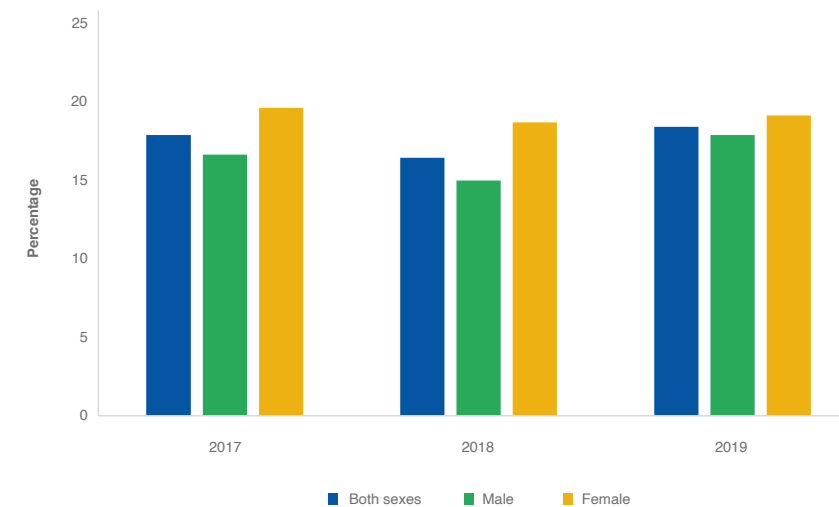


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.11 Youth Unemployment

Youth unemployment is an important policy issue for many countries, regardless of the stage of development. For the purposes of this indicator, the term youth refers to persons aged 15–35, in line with Zambia’s national youth policy. The youth unemployment rate declined from 17.4 per cent in 2017 to 16 per cent in 2018, but then increased to 17.9 per cent in 2019. This unemployment rate was higher among female youth than among male youth throughout the period under review (see figure 8.17).

Figure 8.17 Youth unemployment rate by sex, 2017–2019

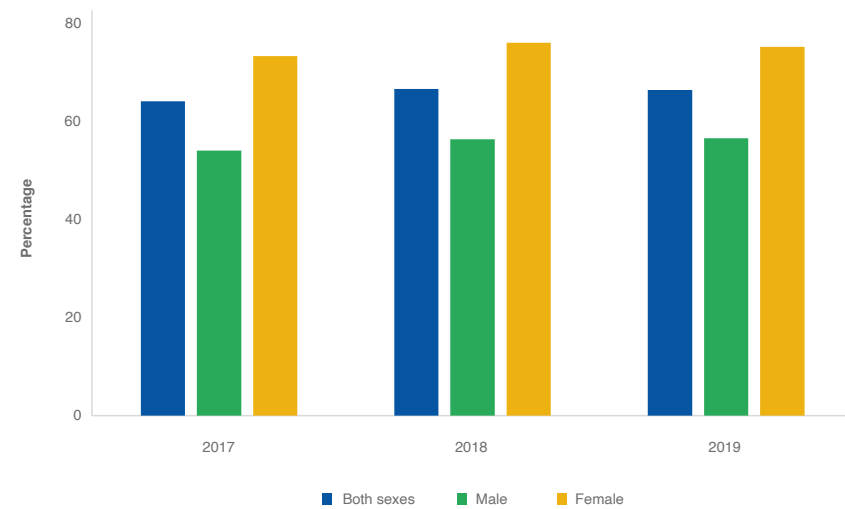


Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.12 Economically Inactive Population

The inactivity rate is defined as the percentage of the population that is neither working nor seeking work (that is, not in the labour force). The inactivity rate in 2017 was estimated at 62.5 per cent. It increased to 64.9 per cent in 2018, then declined to 64.7 per cent in 2019. The inactivity rate was lower among men than among women in this three-year period (see figure 8.18). This means that fewer women were engaged in productive and employment-related activities compared to men.

Figure 8.18 Inactivity rate by sex, 2017–2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.13 Youth Not in Employment, Education, or Training

Youth not in employment, education, or training (NEET) is a widely used indicator for formulating policies aimed at offering suitable places for young people in education or training, as well as for determining the participation age for economic activity. Furthermore, youth NEET is used to help young people find sustainable employment, such as through the expansion of apprenticeship schemes, reforms to technical education, and improved career advice. In addition, governments can use it for deploying strategic funding in various schemes aimed at improving the education outcomes for disadvantaged young people and those with learning difficulties or disabilities.

In 2019, the total number of youth NEET in Zambia stood at 2,895,712, with female youth accounting for 62.3 per cent of this number. There were more female youth than male youth NEET in both rural and urban areas. In urban areas, the women accounted for 66.9 per cent and men accounted for 33.1 per cent of youth NEET (see table 8.4).

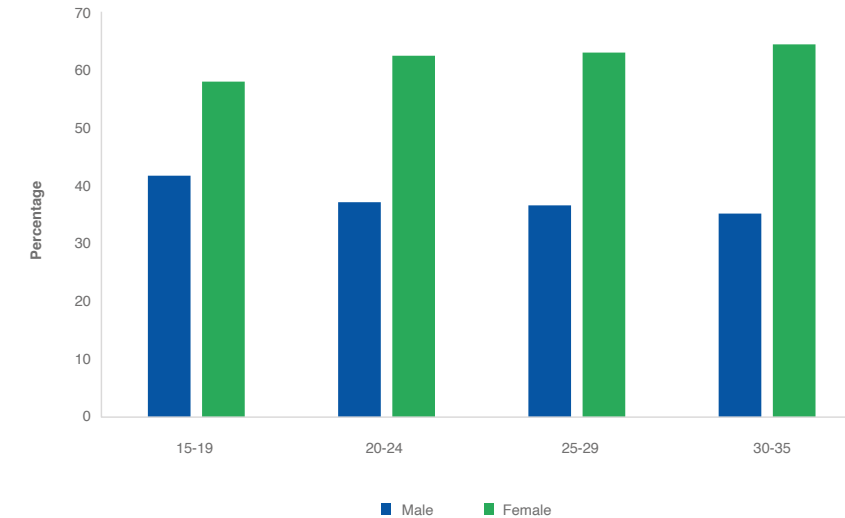
Table 8.4 Number and percentage distribution of youth (aged 15–35) not in employment, education, or training (NEET) by sex, 2019

Geographical location/sex	Both sexes	Male		Female	
		No.	%	No.	%
Total	2,895,712	1,091,818	37.7	1,803,894	62.3
Rural	1,674,163	687,569	41.1	986,594	58.9
Urban	1,221,548	404,248	33.1	817,300	66.9

Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

Figure 8.19 shows age-specific percentages of youth NEET by sex. In 2019, the proportion of female youth NEET was higher than that of male youth NEET across all youth age groups. The highest difference was observed in the 30–35 age group, with men at 35.3 per cent and women at 64.7 per cent.

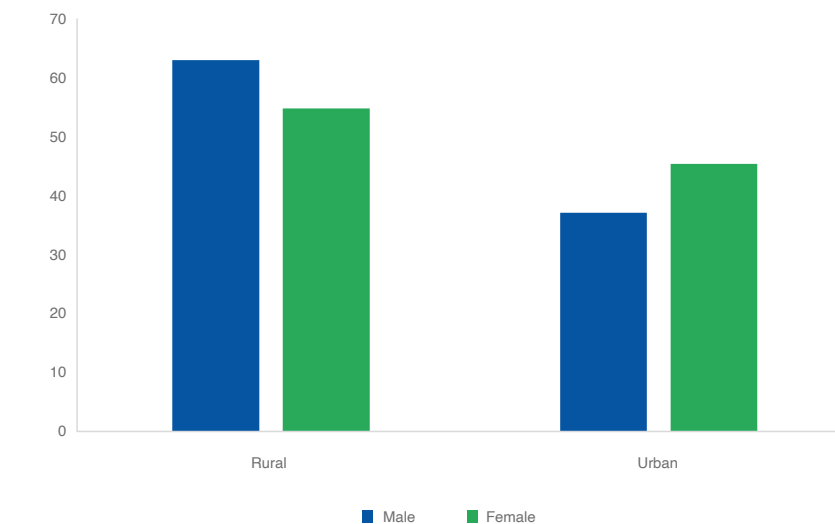
Figure 8.19 Percentage distribution of youth NEET by age group and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

As figure 8.20 shows, a majority of both female youth and male youth NEET are in rural areas. This implies that overall, there are more youths not in employment, education, or training in Zambia's rural areas.

Figure 8.20 Proportion of youth NEET by residence and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.14 Access to Property and Resources

8.14.1 Own Business Account/Enterprise

In 2019, of a total of 1,596,728 persons aged 15 or older in business/own account employment, 47.4 per cent were females. Furthermore, as table 8.5 shows, 33.4 per cent of the own account workers in the formal sector were women, with men accounting for 66.6 per cent.

Table 8.5 Number and percentage distribution of own account workers by sector of employment and sex, 2019

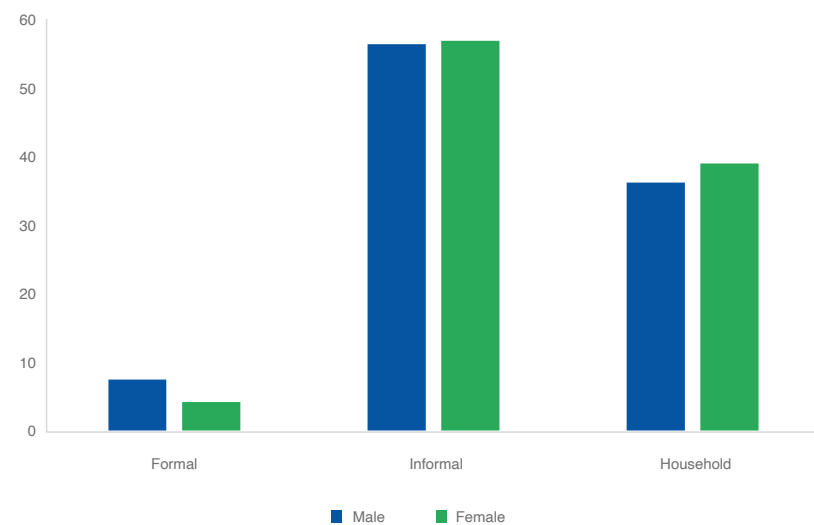
Sector of employment	Total	Male		Female	
		No.	%	No.	%
Total	1,596,728	839,698	52.6	757,030	47.4
Formal	94,272	62,739	66.6	31,533	33.4
Informal	904,071	473,355	52.4	430,715	47.6
Household	598,385	303,604	50.7	294,782	49.3

Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

As figure 8.21 shows, the majority of workers in business/own account employment are in the informal sector among both women and men. Of the total women in business/own account employment, 4.2 per cent are in the formal sector, 56.9 per cent are in the informal sector, and 38.9 per cent are in the household sector. Of the total men in business/own account employment, 7.5 per cent are in the formal sector; 56.4 per cent are in the informal sector; and 36.2 per cent are in the household sector.

Ownership of productive means, such as a business, has a significant impact on women's empowerment, as well as on addressing gender inequalities across the spectrum. However, in Zambia, business ownership – as seen in figure 8.21 – is low among women.

Figure 8.21 Percentage distribution of own account workers by sector of employment and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.14.2 Own-Use Production Work

Persons in own-use production work are defined as all those of working age who, during a short reference period, performed any activity to produce goods or provide services for own final use. In 2019, an estimated 4,085,187 persons were engaged in own-use work, a majority of them women across rural and urban areas (see table 8.6).

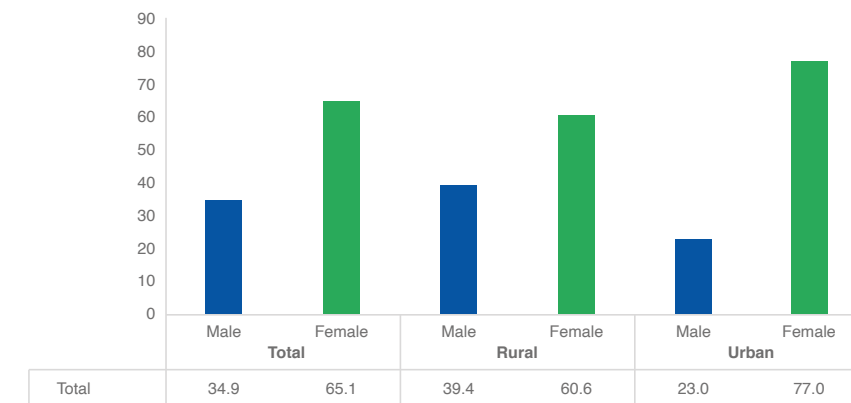
Table 8.6 Number and percentage distribution of own-use production workers by residence, goods/services, and sex, 2019

	Rural			Urban		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Goods	2,513,393	1,120,832	1,392,561	395,468	171,250	224,218
Services	433,086	40,857	392,229	716,240	84,330	631,910
Total	2,946,479	1,161,689	1,784,790	1,111,708	255,580	856,127

Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

Figure 8.22 indicates the percentage distribution by sex of those engaged in own-use production. There were more females than males engaged in own-use production, either of services or of goods, across rural and urban areas.

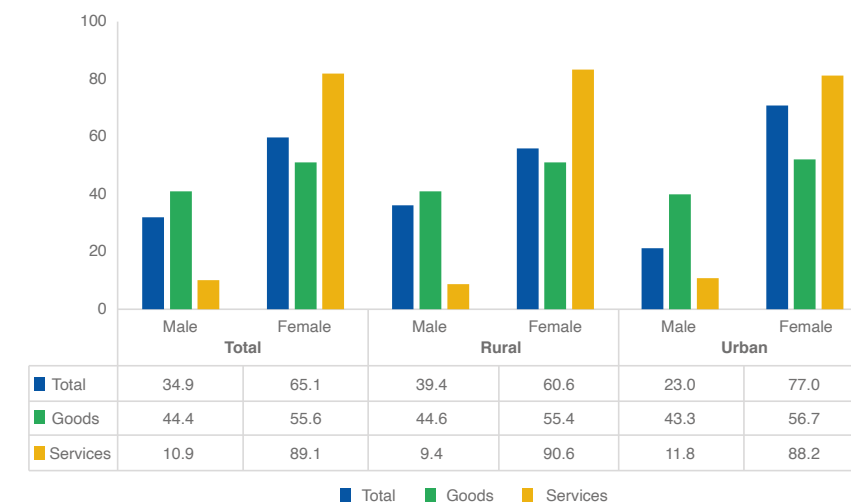
Figure 8.22 Percentage distribution of own-use production workers by residential area and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

Among men, those engaged in the production of goods accounted for 44.4 per cent and those engaged in the provision of services accounted for 10.9 per cent. Among women, meanwhile, those engaged in the production of goods accounted for 55.6 per cent and those engaged in the provision of services accounted for 89.1 per cent. When considered by area of residence, urban women seem to engage in the production of goods more than their rural counterparts; whereas rural women are engaged in the provision of services more than their urban counterparts. The opposite is true for men, as shown in figure 8.23. However, it must be noted that the differences between the rural and the urban populations are not very wide.

Figure 8.23 Percentage distribution of own-use production workers by goods/services and sex, 2019



Source: Ministry of Labour and Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. Zambia Labour Force Survey.

8.14.3 Land Ownership and Agriculture

8.14.3.1 Land Ownership

Land is the most critical resource in any given society, as it is the basis for human survival. It is also an important factor in the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment, as it empowers women to make decisions on land use and extends their negotiating power and ability to address vulnerability. It is for this reason that the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development addresses issues facing women in agriculture and calls upon states to fulfil women's equal rights to economic resources, basic services, technology and financial services, land and other forms of property, and natural resources; and double, by 2030, the agricultural productivity and incomes of women small-scale food producers through markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.

Under the Seventh National Development Plan, the Zambian government considers land to be a key resource to foster gender equality in access to economic resources and to increase women's productivity. It also emphasises the equality between women and men in access to land as a human rights issue. The Lands Act of 1995, Cap. 184 of the Laws of Zambia, also provides legal machinery through which the land alienation system can be governed to ensure



the fundamental right to property and ownership of land of all Zambians. It guarantees the possibility of becoming landowners with security of tenure of 99 years.

Zambia has a two-tier system of land ownership comprising state and customary land. State land makes up 6 per cent of the country's land, while customary land accounts for 94 per cent. The Lands Act provides support for women with regard to state land, but does not apply to customary land. With regard to customary land, land ownership does not provide women with significant land rights, and even when it does, traditional institutions often do not effectively implement the rules. Customary tenure rules and institutions vary across regions, and sometimes within ethnic groups. They are also dynamic, changing over time to address new challenges and circumstances. The customary tenure systems are generally unwritten, and thus most land held under these systems has no formal documentation, with traditional rules passed orally from generation to generation. Cultural inculcation is also evident with regard to state land, with few women applying for state land; and upon being offered it, a good number relinquish ownership to their male counterparts.

To make visible and address gender inequality in access to and ownership of land, the government, through the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, has developed an affirmative policy reserving 50 per cent of all land on offer for women, in line with the Revised SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2016). In addition, the government has developed the Zambia Integrated Land Management Information System (ZILMIS) to capture sex disaggregated data on land transactions, as part of its quest to improve gender statistics in land administration.

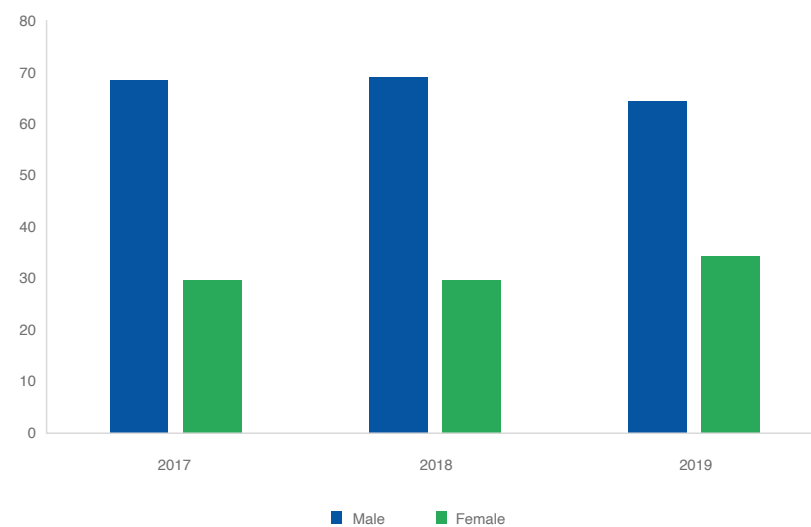
Table 8.7 shows state land offers from 2017 to 2019. In 2017, of a total of 17,392 offers, 12,103 were given to men, with women receiving 5,289. In 2018, of a total of 16,043 offers, 11,214 were given to men and 4,829 to women. However, in 2019, a total of 25,598 offers were given, with men receiving 16,715, while women received 8,883.

Table 8.7 State land offers by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Men	% of men	Women	% of women	Total
2017	12,103	69.59	5,289	30.41	17,392
2018	11,214	69.90	4,829	30.10	16,043
2019	16,715	65.30	8,883	34.70	25,598

Source: Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLN) and Land Information Management System (LIMS).

Figure 8.24 Percentage distribution of state land by sex, 2017–2019



Source: Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (MLNR) and Land Information Management System (LIMS).

Figure 8.24 shows that in 2017, of those offered state land, 69.59 per cent were men and 30.41 per cent were women. In 2018, men accounted for 69.9 per cent and women for 30.1 per cent of those offered state land. Then, in 2019, of those offered state land, 65.3 per cent were men, with women accounting for 34.7 per cent.

The data reveals that, from 2017 to 2019, fewer women than men were offered state land; despite women (51 per cent) outnumbering men (49 per cent) in the population. Women's lower levels of access to land can be attributed to factors such as the low education and high poverty levels among them, which make the costs of acquiring state land beyond most of their reach.

Also, the patriarchal traditional and cultural beliefs prevalent in Zambian society influence women's access to land, as most women are still reluctant to apply for land; and, as mentioned earlier, of the women that apply and are offered land, a majority surrender ownership to their spouses or male family members.

8.14.3.2 Agriculture

In the 21st century, agriculture has continued to be a fundamental tool for achieving sustainable development and poverty reduction. The Zambian government, with the support of non-governmental organisations and donor agencies, has prioritised agricultural development in the fight against poverty and hunger.

However, the government's efforts have been affected by several challenges, including poor soils; the impact of climate change, such as unpredictable rainfall patterns (droughts and floods); inadequate labour; pests and diseases; and poor rural infrastructure.⁷⁹ To overcome these constraints, the government, through its various ministries, has initiated a wide range of interventions aimed at fostering agricultural production and productivity. These programmes include the Farmer Input Support Programme (FISP) and the promotion of climate-smart agricultural technologies in crop production such as crop diversification, livestock production, aquaculture, and forestry.

a. Farmer Input Support Programme

FISP usually takes the form of distribution of subsidised inorganic fertiliser and improved seed to small-scale farmers. The selection criteria for small-scale farmers are based on the farmers' ability to pay 50 per cent upfront. Before farmers start redeeming the farming inputs, the Ministry of Agriculture usually carries out sensitisation programmes, through which farmers are encouraged to form cooperatives. In the sensitisation programmes, women are usually encouraged to participate and given an assurance that priority will be given to them. Additionally, the emphasis is also on the membership of the formed cooperatives, whereby any cooperative formed without the participation of any women is usually not considered at the approval stage.

The number of FISP beneficiaries increased from 459,152 in the 2016/2017 farming season to 998,903 in the 2018/2019 farming season. From 2017 to 2018, the majority of beneficiaries were men. During the 2018/2019 farming season, as just mentioned, the programme recorded a total of 998,903 beneficiaries, of which, 502,807 were women and 496,096 were men. (See table 8.8.)

Other programmes being implemented by the government to address poverty and vulnerability include: the Food Security Pack, which aims to promote food security; the Supporting Women's Livelihoods and Empowerment Project; and the Community Skills Development Programme (see section 5).

Table 8.8 Number and percentage distribution of beneficiaries of the Farmer Input Support Programme, 2017–2019

Farming season	Men		Women		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
2016/17	367,384	80.0	91,768	20.0	459,152
2017/18	555,619	65.0	299,180	35.0	854,799
2018/19	496,096	49.7	502,807	50.3	998,903

Source: Ministry of Agriculture.

Table 8.8 indicates that the number of women benefiting from FISP increased in 2018 and further in 2019 as compared to men. This indicates that more women were engaged in productive activities.

b. Crop Production

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations observed, in 2019, that if women had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20 to 30 per cent. This could raise the total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5 to 4 per cent, with significant contributions to the reduction of hunger and malnutrition.

In Zambia, male-headed households are more engaged in crop production as compared to female-headed households. However, literature reviews show that women are the major food producers and processors, accounting for over 60 per cent of the national food stocks.

Table 8.9 shows the number of national agricultural households engaged in crop production from the 2017/2018 to 2019/2020 agricultural seasons. In the 2017/2018 agricultural season, of a total of 1,437,679 agricultural households, 1,072,920 were male-headed households, while 364,759 were female-headed households. In the 2018/2019 agricultural season, of the 1,616,912 agricultural households in total, 1,244,953 were male-headed, while 371,959 were female-

⁷⁹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2019. *Crop Forecasting Survey (2017–2019)*. Lusaka: Ministry of National Development Planning.



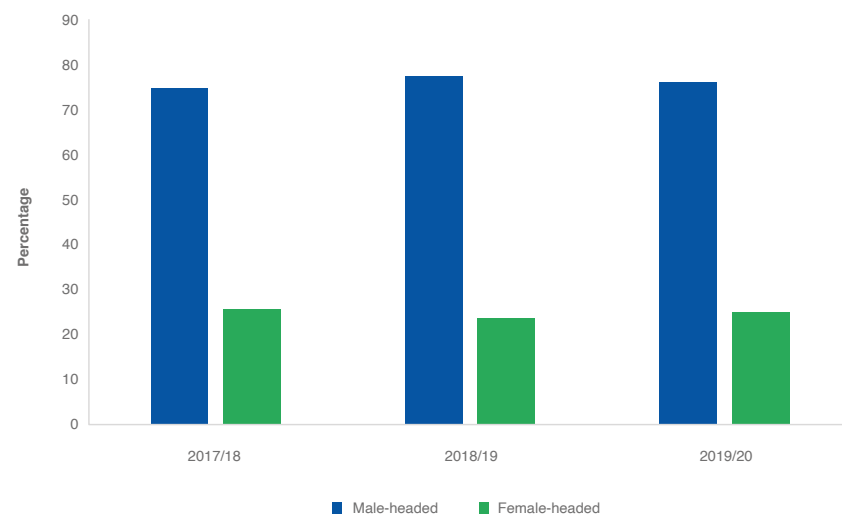
headed. However, in the 2019/2020 agricultural season, of the 1,640,786 agricultural households in total, 1,243,142 were male-headed households, while 397,644 were female-headed households.

Table 8.9 Number of national agricultural households engaged in crop production by sex, 2017/2018–2019/2020

Agricultural season	Total	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
2017/18	1,437,679	1,072,920	364,759
2018/19	1,616,912	1,244,953	371,959
2019/20	1,640,786	1,243,142	397,644

Source: Crop Forecasting Surveys, 2017/2018–2019/2020.

Figure 8.25 Proportion of national agricultural households engaged in crop production by sex, 2017/2018–2019/2020 agricultural seasons



Source: Crop Forecasting Surveys, 2017/2018–2019/2020.

The data indicate that there were more male-headed agricultural households as compared to female-headed agricultural households, from the 2017/2018 to 2019/2020 agricultural seasons, at the national level. The 2018/2019 agricultural season recorded the highest number of male-headed agricultural households, representing 77 per cent of the total crop-growing households, as compared to the other two seasons. In the same vein, the 2017/2018 agricultural season recorded the highest number of female-headed households, representing 25 per cent of the total crop-growing households, as compared to the other two seasons.

At the provincial level, in the 2017/2018 agricultural season, of the 1,437,679 agricultural households in total, the highest number of male-headed households (218,961) was in Eastern province, while Central had the lowest number of male-headed households (14,638). Eastern also had the highest number of female-headed agricultural households (70,129) at the provincial level, with Lusaka province having the lowest such number (11,627).

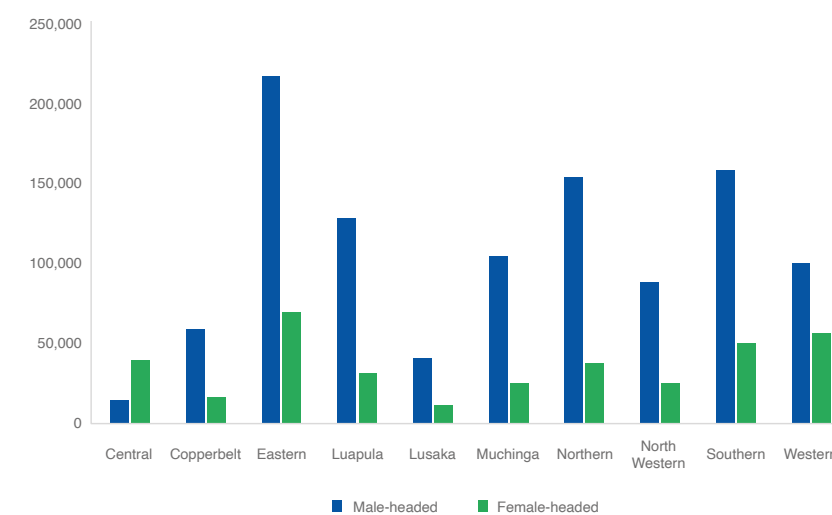
Table 8.10 shows the number of agricultural households engaged in crop production per province, by sex, during the 2017/2018 agricultural season.

Table 8.10 Number of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by sex during the 2017/2018 agricultural season

Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Central	14,638	39,860
Copperbelt	60,134	16,029
Eastern	218,961	70,129
Luapula	129,160	30,110
Lusaka	40,734	11,627
Muchinga	105,646	26,006
Northern	155,257	38,936
North Western	87,671	25,334
Southern	160,030	50,762
Western	100,689	55,966

Source: Crop Forecasting Survey 2017/2018

Figure 8.26 Distribution of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by sex in the 2017/2018 agricultural season.



Source: Crop Forecasting Survey 2017/2018.

In the 2018/2019 farming season, of the 1,616,912 agricultural households in total, the highest number of male-headed households (242,405) was in Eastern and the lowest such number (40,649) was in Lusaka at the provincial level. Eastern province also had the highest number of female-headed agricultural households (59,536) at the provincial level, with Lusaka having the lowest number of such households (11,483).

Table 8.11 shows the number of agricultural households engaged in crop production per province by sex during the 2018/2019 agricultural season.

Table 8.11 Number of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by sex during the 2018/2019 agricultural season

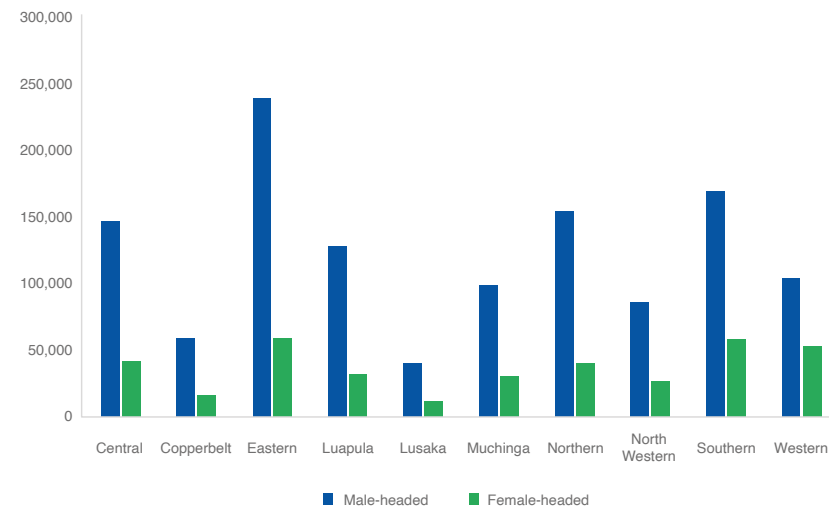
Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Central	149,273	42,236
Copperbelt	59,900	16,750
Eastern	242,405	59,536
Luapula	130,723	32,170
Lusaka	40,649	11,483
Muchinga	101,079	30,666



Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Northern	156,866	40,597
North Western	87,605	26,739
Southern	172,064	58,532
Western	104,389	53,250

Source: Crop Forecasting Survey 2018/2019.

Figure 8.27 Distribution of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by sex in the 2018/2019 agricultural season



Source: Crop Forecasting Survey 2018/2019.

In the 2019/2020 agricultural season, of the 1,640,786 agricultural households in total, Eastern had the highest number of male-headed households (231,317) and Lusaka the lowest number of male-headed households (44,213) at the provincial level. Additionally, Eastern province also had the highest number of female-headed households (74,907), while Lusaka had the lowest number of such households (1,184) at the provincial level. Table 8.12 shows the number of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by the sex of the household head during the 2019/2020 agricultural season.

Table 8.12 Number of agricultural households per province engaged in crop production by sex during the 2019/2020 agricultural season

Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Central	157,651	39,397
Copperbelt	55,207	21,133
Eastern	231,317	74,907
Luapula	131,140	32,570
Lusaka	44,213	1,184
Muchinga	103,447	36,088
Northern	166,049	35,408
North Western	80,371	36,737
Southern	172,641	60,875
Western	101,106	59,345

Source: Crop Forecasting Survey 2018/2019.

c. Livestock Production

Livestock is an important agricultural sub-sector, contributing 15.2 per cent of agricultural gross domestic product (GDP).

Livestock has the greatest potential to propel sector growth with more than half of rural households owning livestock. However, at the time of data compilation, the data indicating livestock production by type, disaggregated by sex, from

2017 to 2019, were not available. The only data available was the number of heads of household raising livestock as of January 2018.

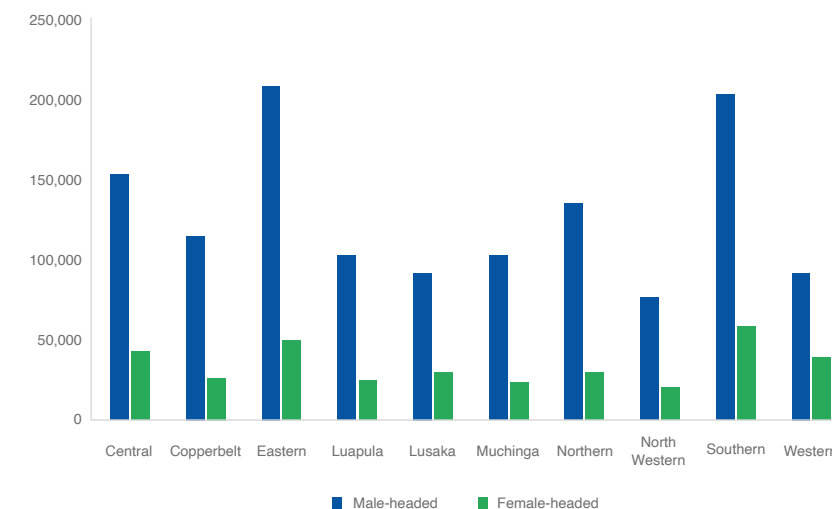
Table 8.13 shows that out of the 1,638,424 households that were engaged in raising livestock, as at January 2018, at the national level, 1,295,827 were male-headed households as compared to 342,597 female-headed households.

Table 8.13 Distribution of household heads raising livestock per province by sex, as of January 2018

Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Central	154,949	41,780
Copperbelt	116,243	26,759
Eastern	211,713	50,545
Luapula	103,744	24,586
Lusaka	92,464	28,939
Muchinga	104,022	23,022
Northern	136,546	30,195
North Western	77,278	20,504
Southern	205,918	58,278
Western	92,949	37,988
Zambia	1,295,827	342,597

Source: 2017/2018 Livestock and Aquaculture Census.

Figure 8.28 Distribution of household heads raising livestock by province and sex, 2018



Source: 2017/2018 Livestock and Aquaculture Census.

Figure 8.28 shows that Eastern province had the highest number of male-headed households raising livestock at 211,713, followed by Southern province with 205,918 male-headed households; while North Western had the lowest number of such households at 77,278.

Additionally, Southern province had the highest number of female-headed households raising livestock at 58,278, followed by Eastern province with 50,545 female-headed households; while North Western had the lowest number of female-headed households at 20,504.

d. Fisheries and Aquaculture

There are three major basins that provide capture fishery resources in Zambia, and these are the Zambezi, Luapula, and Lake Tanganyika basins. Zambia is estimated to have the capacity to produce about 150,000 metric tons of fish from these systems annually on a sustainable basis. An estimated 300,000 rural households (2.3 per cent of the population) earn part of their income from fishery, contributing to about 3 per cent of GDP.⁸⁰

⁸⁰ GRZ and Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO). 2017. *Country Programming Framework for Zambia 2017–2021*.

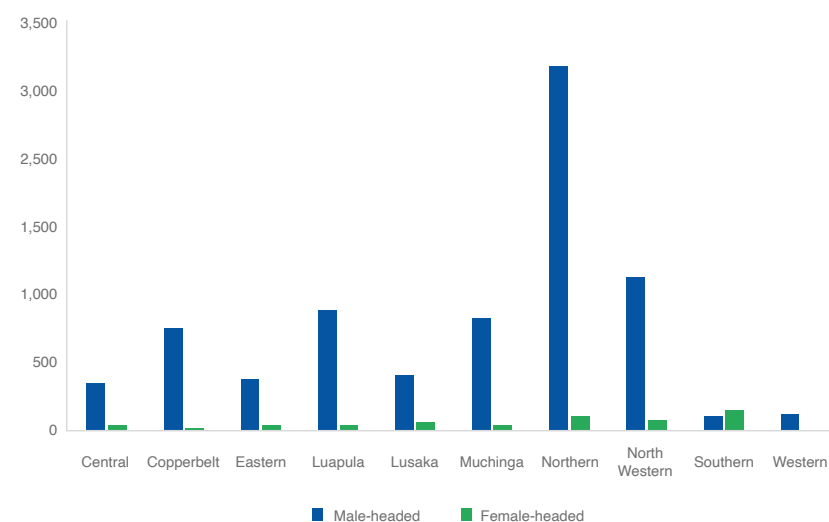
Gender-Based Violence

Table 8.14: Distribution of fish-farming households by sex of the household head per province, as of January 2018

Province	Male-headed households	Female-headed households
Central	408	55
Copperbelt	877	25
Eastern	434	65
Luapula	1,048	63
Lusaka	479	63
Muchinga	970	47
Northern	3,129	126
North Western	1,308	86
Southern	114	174
Western	140	5
Zambia	8,906	709

Source: 2017/2018 Livestock and Aquaculture Census.

Figure 8.29 Distribution of fish-farming households by sex of the household head and province, as at January 2018



Source: 2017/2018 Livestock and Aquaculture Census.

Figure 8.29 indicates that Northern province had the highest number of male-headed households engaged in fish farming at 3,129, followed by North Western province in second place with 1,308 male-headed households. Southern province had the lowest number of male-headed households engaged in fish farming at 114.

Additionally, Southern province had the highest number of female-headed households engaged in fish farming at 174, with Northern province in second place with 126 female-headed households. Western province had the lowest number of female-headed households engaged in the activity at five. To scale up efforts in fish farming, including in the country's rural areas, the Zambian government, through the Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock, has been providing technical training and extension services for fish farming.

e. Forestry

There is limited sex-disaggregated data on forestry in Zambia. Published national statistical databases and unpublished literature, as well as the online databases of international organisations (such as the Food and Agriculture Organisation, International Labour Organisation [ILO], United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], World Bank, and others) contain limited gender-disaggregated information on forestry.

The gender profile carried out by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), in 2013, revealed that women are more involved in the collection of firewood, fruits, nuts, seeds, roots, mushrooms, plant medicines, caterpillars, and grass for thatching houses; while most men produce charcoal (for sale), collect wood for poles and fibre for rope, and harvest honey. Due to their traditional reliance on forestry resources, women are often the main repositories of traditional knowledge about the use and management of trees and forest plants.

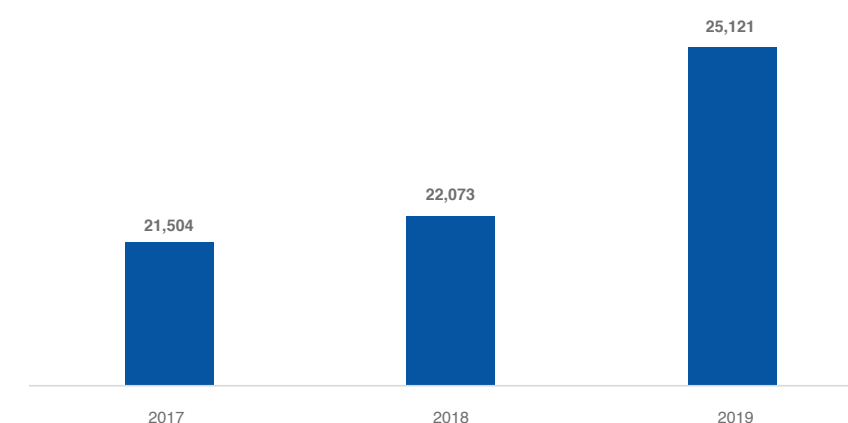
This section presents information on gender-based violence – a vice that has been recognised as a public health issue, a violation of human rights, and a key driver of extreme poverty. It affects both sexes; however, women and girls are disproportionately affected. GBV has a negative impact on the realisation of good health and well-being, education, decent work, and poverty alleviation, ultimately hindering the attainment of gender equality. Gender-based violence takes the form of physical, mental, social, or economic abuse against an individual because of that person's gender. It includes violence that may result in physical, sexual, or psychological harm and inflict suffering on the victim. GBV takes many forms, including violence against children, threats or coercion, and the arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether in public or private life and in the world of work.

GBV in Zambia has long been recognised as a problem that needs to be addressed, as it is a hindrance to the attainment of gender equality and the realisation of social and economic goals. The Zambian government has, thus, put in place various pieces of legislation and national policies to address the problem of gender-based violence.

9.1 Reported Cases of Gender-Based Violence

Figure 9.1 shows an increase in the number of reported cases of GBV in Zambia, from 21,504 in 2017 to 25,121 in 2019.

Figure 9.1 Reported gender-based violence cases, 2017–2019



Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit (ZP-VSU). 2019. National GBV Crime Statistics Returns.

Table 9.1 shows the percentage distribution of reported cases of GBV, disaggregated by sex for the 2017–2019 period. The table clearly shows a reduction in reported cases from 16.8 per cent to 16.6 per cent in the case of men and from 65.5 per cent to 59 per cent in the case of women for the period. Although the percentage distribution of reported cases of GBV involving women was generally higher than those involving men in 2017–2019, it declined from 65.5 per cent in 2017 to 60.7 per cent in 2018, before declining further to 59 per cent in 2019. However, there was an increase in reported cases involving boys (from 3.8 per cent to 4.9 per cent) and girls (from 13.9 per cent to 19.5 per cent) from 2017 to 2019.

Table 9.1 Percentage distribution of reported cases of gender-based violence by sex, 2017–2019

Year	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
2017	16.8	65.5	3.8	13.9
2018	19.2	60.7	4.8	15.4
2019	16.6	59.0	4.9	19.5

Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit (ZP-VSU). 2019. National GBV Crime Statistics Returns.



The reduction in reported cases can be attributed to government initiatives such as the enactment of Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act No.1 of 2011; establishment of fast track courts in both rural and urban areas; establishment of village-led and health facility-based One Stop Centres; sensitisation programmes on gender-based violence; and engagement of religious/traditional leaders and their spouses. Other contributing factors have included the efforts of implementing partners, such as awareness raising on the impact of GBV, the available options (avenues for action) for victims, and punishment for perpetrators.

An improved capacity to record and report GBV cases in the period under review is one reason for the increased numbers captured in figure 9.1, though this is not to diminish the possibility that GBV may still be on the increase despite all efforts to curb it.

9.2 Types of Reported GBV Offences

As mentioned earlier, GBV takes different forms and may range from violence and harassment at work to early child marriage and so on. Table 9.2 shows the common reported types of GBV in Zambia during the period 2017–2019. The data table is arranged so as to show the number of reported GBV cases by sex and type of offence.

Of the 25,121 cases of gender-based violence reported in 2019,⁸¹ about 79 per cent involved women, while men accounted for only 21 per cent. Among the committed offences, the highest number of cases fell under the category of disputes, with 8,387 reported cases; 5,087 of them involving females and 2,580 involving males. Defilement comprised the third highest number of cases: 2,653 cases were reported, of which 2,637 cases involved girls and only 16 cases involved boys.

Table 9.2 Number of reported cases of gender-based violence disaggregated by sex and type of offence, 2019

Offences	Male	Female	Total
Defilement of a child	16	2,637	2,653
Defilement of an imbecile	1	33	34
Attempted defilement	0	5	5
Rape	0	527	527
Attempted rape	0	64	64
Incest	13	33	46
Bigamy	1	4	5
Unnatural offences	21	10	31
Sexual harassment	0	14	14
Indecent assault	5	159	164
Murder	36	43	79
Child destruction	1	4	5
Infanticide	6	7	13
Abortion	0	15	15
Attempted murder	6	4	10
Attempted infanticide	0	0	0
Supplying drugs/instrument to procure abortion	0	1	1
Concealment of birth	0	5	5
Unlawful wounding	61	101	162
Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH)	22	94	116
Assaults Occasioning Actual Bodily Harm	1,077	6,133	7,210
Assault on a child	307	293	600
Threatening violence	65	153	218
Child stealing	9	11	20
Child desertion	30	43	73
Neglect to provide	483	1,415	1,898
Failing to provide	286	1,274	1,560

⁸¹ Zambia Police, Victim Support Unit. 2019. *National Crime Statistics Returns 2019*.

Offences	Male	Female	Total
Arson	3	11	14
Abduction	3	38	41
Human trafficking	5	13	18
Use of insulting language	81	306	387
Malicious damage to property	54	102	156
Theft	118	103	221
Child pornography	0	0	0
Found in possession of obscene material	0	3	3
Depriving the beneficiaries	30	39	69
Naming a person to be a witch	8	3	11
Pretence of marriage	0	5	5
Conduct likely to cause breach of peace	65	179	244
Cruelty to juveniles	2	6	8
Criminal trespass	6	11	17
Harmful cultural practices	0	1	1
Prohibition of certain marriages	0	4	4
Procuring an abortion	0	6	6
Neglect likely to spread infection	0	1	1
Wrongful confinement	0	0	0
Disputes	2,580	5,807	8,387
Total	5,401	19,720	25,121

Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit. 2019. *National Crime Statistics Returns*.

9.2.1 Child Marriages

Child marriage is a violation of the rights of children below the age of 18 in that it exposes them to many health risks like teen pregnancies, fistula, childbearing, and motherhood before they are physically and psychologically ready. This vice deprives children of their rights to education and employment, making them more vulnerable to the risk of intimate partner violence, sexual violence, as well as sexually transmitted infections. The consequences of child marriage include but are not limited to childbearing at an early age, bearing more children at short intervals, and greater contribution to the fertility rate; as well as possible maternal health complications.

Child marriage affects the continuation of girls' education, as they tend to drop out of school to take up their new roles as mothers and, in most cases, as wives. Therefore, it poses a challenge for achieving gender parity in education, consequently affecting progress towards the attainment of SDG 4, which aims to “ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning opportunity for all”. Child marriage increases the likelihood that a higher proportion of boys will continue to be in school, and thus attain economic and employment skills; while girls are restricted to doing household chores, which reduces their economic independence and contributes towards them becoming women trapped in the poverty cycle and vulnerable to intimate partner violence. Indeed, child marriage has a negative impact on the attainment of eight of the 17 SDGs. This is because it is a vice that undermines the psychological, mental, as well as the general well-being of a child.

According to the 2018 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey, 14.4 per cent of girls compared to 1.1 per cent of boys were married. The share of married girls has decreased since the 2014 survey report,⁸² when married girls accounted for 17 per cent and boys only 1 per cent. The decline in child marriages among girls can be attributed to the sensitisation programmes conducted in chiefdoms, schools, churches, as well as society at large. People are also aware that marrying a child off is a criminal offence, and whomsoever violates the rights of a child can be reported to the police or other institutions with the jurisdiction to deal with such cases.

To reiterate, child marriage – i.e. the marriage of a person below the age of 18 – deprives adolescent girls of their reproductive health rights, while impinging on their abilities to realise their full potential and to enjoy their human rights, as established in various international treaties. Adolescent girls have the rights to education, health, dignity, non-discrimination, and quality of life. Protecting, promoting, and fulfilling these rights is necessary to ensure that adolescents grow into healthy, skilled, productive, independent, and responsible adults. Yet, the prevalence of child

⁸² Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). 2014. *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2014*.

marriage in Zambia stands in the way of ensuring these rights. To protect, promote, and fulfil the rights of adolescent girls, there is a need to eradicate child marriage.

9.2.2 Human Trafficking

Human trafficking for labour and sexual exploitation has increasingly been recognised as an issue that requires urgent attention. Zambia is both a source country, from which victims are recruited or obtained, as well as a transit country, through which traffickers transport their victims en route to their destination within the region or in other parts of the world. Furthermore, internal trafficking of women and children is thought to be common in the country. For instance, some children from poor households, as well as orphans and street children, are thought to be particularly vulnerable to being trafficked to perform exploitative work as domestic workers or in mining and agriculture, and to being sexually exploited. Children of more affluent rural families are also at risk of trafficking, as sending children to the city is perceived as a status symbol.

Table 9.3 shows the number distribution of reported human trafficking cases by sex and age group from 2017 to 2019. The table shows an increase in the total number of cases from 9 in 2017 to 31 in 2018 and then a decrease to 18 in 2019. Of the 31 reported cases in 2018, the highest number (11) involved girls aged 16 and above. There was a decline in the number of reported cases of trafficked boys and girls aged 16 and above to 1 and 4, respectively, in 2019.

The number of human trafficking cases of boys aged 16 and below also decreased from 8 in 2018 to 4 in 2019; however, the pattern was different for girls in the same age group, with an increase from 7 cases in 2018 to 9 cases in 2019.

Table 9.3 Number distribution of reported cases of human trafficking disaggregated by sex and age, 2017–2019

Year	Total	0-16 years		16 years and above	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
2017	9	0	0	0	9
2018	31	8	7	5	11
2019	18	4	9	1	4

Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit. 2019. National Crime Statistics Returns.

The reduction in the number of cases of trafficked girls aged 16 and above in 2019 can be attributed to government efforts, in particular the Anti-Human Trafficking Act and the National Policy to Combat Human Trafficking. Furthermore, an Inter-Ministerial National Steering Committee was set up and adopted a comprehensive multi-annual action plan, which provides for strengthening the government's response to cases of trafficking, as well as for the development of partnerships with non-state actors to improve public awareness and provide appropriate and accessible services to victims of trafficking.

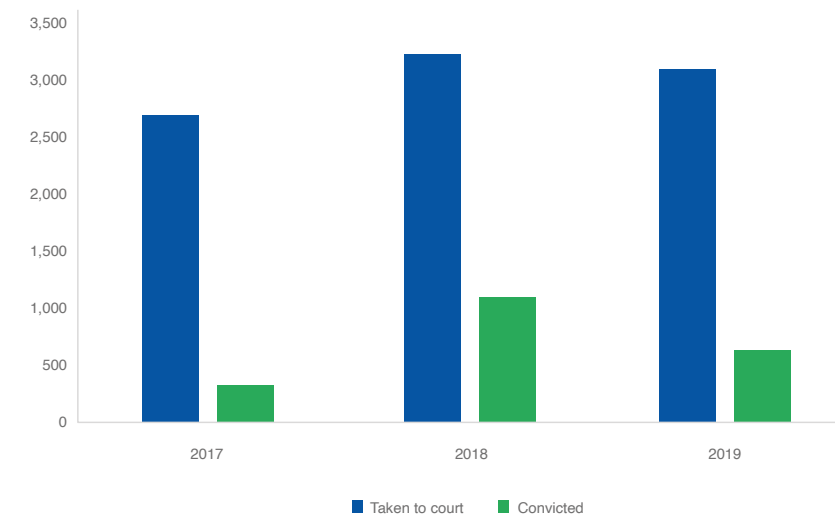
The government, working in collaboration with anti-human trafficking stakeholders, is involved in the implementation of various activities that seek to change perceptions towards human trafficking, particularly where discriminatory practices and trafficking are concerned. Some of the activities include:

- Reinforcement of capacities for the provision of appropriate services to meet the needs of victims of trafficking through a referral network of safe-houses, one-stop centres, and women's and children's shelters;
- Establishment of the 24-hour 990 Toll-Free Counter-Trafficking Talk Line covering all 10 provinces; and
- Provision of safe and secure shelter, medical and psycho-social care, and repatriation and reintegration assistance.

9.3 Actions Taken on Reported GBV Cases

Regulations and programmes to curb gender-based violence in Zambia suggest a need for stringent action to be taken against reported GBV perpetrators. However, few cases seem to have resulted in convictions over the period under review, as shown in figure 9.2. The figure further shows fluctuations in the number of convictions over the three year period, from 2017 to 2019, with the highest number documented in 2018. These fluctuations can be attributed to lack of evidence for securing convictions, as well as to withdrawals of cases by family members of the victims of GBV.

Figure 9.2 Convicted perpetrators of gender-based violence, 2017–2019



Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit. 2019. National Crime Statistics Returns.

Table 9.4 shows the numbers of reported GBV cases taken to court and those not taken to court from 2017 to 2019. The number of cases taken to court decreased from 3,241 in 2018 to 3,109 in 2019. Meanwhile, the number of reported GBV cases that were not taken to court increased from 18,832 in 2018 to 22,012 in 2019. The increase in the number of GBV cases that were not taken to court can be attributed to cases that were either withdrawn or settled out of court or not pursued by the complainants, or were false cases.

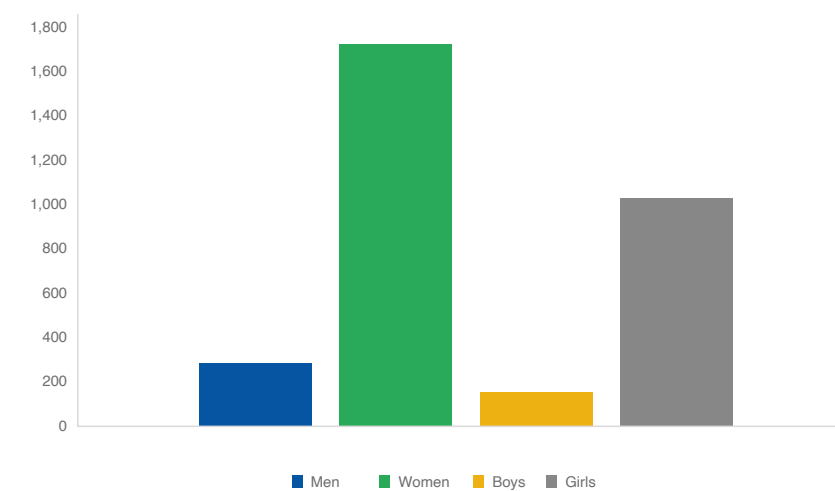
Table 9.4 Number distribution of cases of gender-based violence taken/not taken to court, 2017–2019

Year	Taken to Court	Not taken to Court
2017	2,696	18,808
2018	3,241	18,832
2019	3,109	22,012

Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit. 2019. National Crime Statistics Returns.

Figure 9.3 shows the number distribution of GBV cases taken to court disaggregated by sex, from 2017 to 2019. The analysis shows that of the 3,109 reported cases taken to court, 1,679 were of women followed by those of girls (1,005 cases). Men accounted for 275 and boys only 150 of the reported cases taken to court.

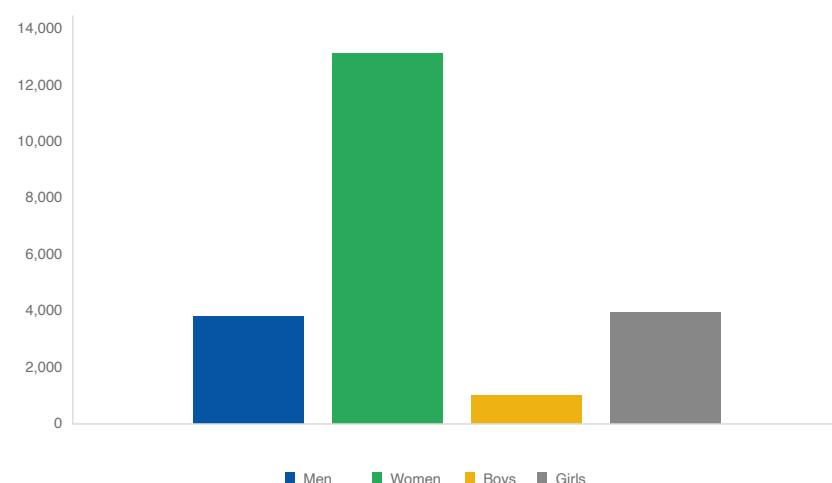
Figure 9.3 Number of reported GBV cases taken to court by sex, 2019



Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit. 2019. National Crime Statistics Returns.

Figure 9.4 shows the number distribution of reported GBV cases not taken to court, disaggregated by sex, from 2017 to 2019. It is evident that a higher number of women and girls' reported cases were not taken to court (13,132 and 3,904 respectively compared to 3,889 and 1,087 cases of men and boys). Overall, the number of cases not taken to court continued to increase in the years under review. The increase could be attributed to cases that were either withdrawn at the police station or had incomplete files in terms of missing supporting documents or to cases not being pursued by the complainants due to social and cultural norms.

Figure 9.4 Number of reported GBV cases not taken to court by sex, 2019



Source: Zambia Police-Victim Support Unit, 2019. National Crime Statistics Returns.

The Media, and Information and Communication

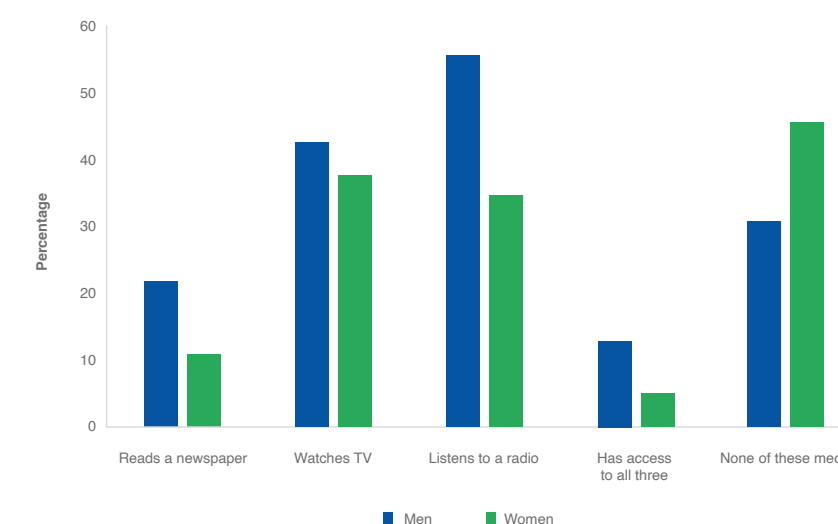
The media, and information and communication technologies play a critical role in industrialisation and socio-economic development. Access to the media and ICT critically influences the daily operations and livelihoods of people. It is essential for increasing people's knowledge and awareness of important issues. Exposure to mass media, for instance, can have lasting influence on people's health behaviour. Also, key information on access to health and emergency information, education, job opportunities, communications, politics, consumer satisfaction, community involvement, trade, and governance is usually conveyed through the media and other ICT platforms. The Zambian government has realised the important role that the media and ICT play, and thus, has put in place measures to ensure the scale-up of media and ICT services across the country.

10.1 Representation, and Access to the Media and Information

The critical role that the media and ICT play in society, thus, warrants the need for equal representation in management as well as in coverage. The media has the potential to perpetuate gender equality or inequality, both within the working environment and in the representation of women and men at large (in terms of fair gender portrayal, and the use of neutral and non-gender-specific language). Negative media coverage of women in general, as well as the profiles and capabilities of specific individuals, can ultimately undermine their credibility, reduce opportunities for equal participation of women in leadership and other productive roles, and entrench retrogressive stereotypes that have long hindered women's participation in social and economic development activities.

Despite the media, especially mass media, being a critical tool for communicating important national and sub-national information, as well as the media's potential to challenge detrimental gender attitudes and behaviours, 46 per cent of women do not access print or mass media on a weekly basis compared to 31 per cent of men. (See figure 10.1 for more details.)

Figure 10.1 Access to weekly (regular) TV, radio, and newspaper by sex, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

In Zambia, radio is the most frequently used form of media, followed by television and print media. In the case of all three media, men (13 per cent) consume more than women (5.1 per cent).⁸³ According to the Zambia Demographic and Health Survey, 46 per cent of women compared to 31 per cent of men lack access to any form of media.⁸⁴ It is also interesting to note that despite efforts to improve access to the media in the country, the percentage of women lacking access increased from 34 per cent in 2014 to 46 per cent in 2018, whereas men's access increased from 22 per cent

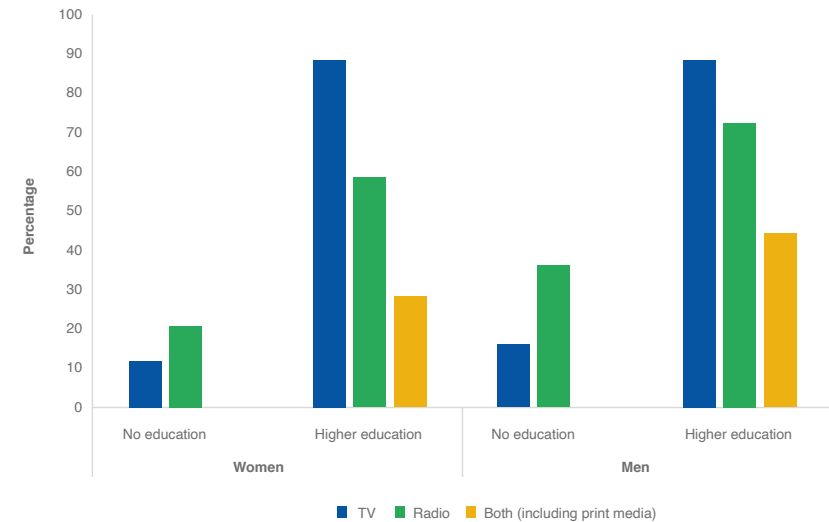
⁸³ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁸⁴ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.



to 31 per cent over the same period.⁸⁵ Both the ZDHS⁸⁶ and the Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA) survey⁸⁷ show that there are income inequalities between men and women, with men earning more than women. On this basis, it can be argued that men have more income, which allows them to purchase a television, radio, or newspaper. Moreover, the media also tend to concentrate their services on the elite and urban dwellers,⁸⁸ with the voices of poor women, youth, rural dwellers, and the disabled rarely heard. (See figure 10.2 for media coverage and access to mainstream media by level of education among men and women.)

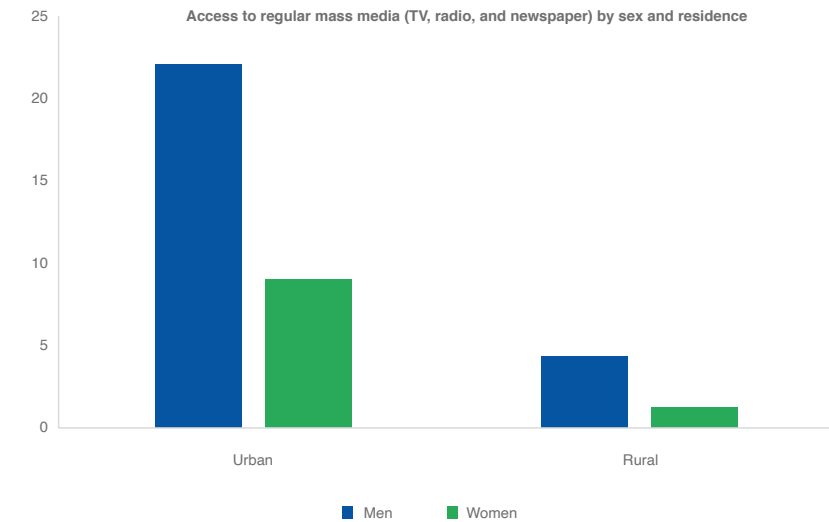
Figure 10.2 Access to mainstream media – TV and radio – by education and sex, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

It must also be noted that access to mass and print media is higher among urban dwellers than those in rural areas: 9 per cent for urban women as opposed to 1.5 per cent for rural women, and 22.3 per cent among urban men compared to 4.5 per cent among rural men.⁸⁹ (See figure 10.3.) It goes without saying that this skewed representation indicates significant gender inequality, especially given that exclusion from information touches on issues of personal and national development.

Figure 10.3 Percentage distribution of people with access to regular mass media by sex and residence, 2018



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

10.1.1 Participation in Mass Media

Women in Zambia, like in the rest of the world, face several gender-related challenges in the media, especially around participation. Men largely dominate senior leadership positions in the media. Only 37 per cent of senior management positions are currently held by women, with 19 per cent of women in sources and 25 per cent of women in images.⁹⁰ Similarly, women are absent in news content, and in instances when they receive coverage, it is mostly in a negative light portraying them as vulnerable and as victims. In addition, in print and electronic shows, the media's portrayal of women is as subordinate to men – contrary to expectations of a democratic, fair, and balanced media.

10.2 Access to and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies

A global call to improve access to information and communication technologies is embedded in SDG 9 of building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable industrialisation, and fostering innovation. At the national level, the Government of Zambia has committed to improving the delivery of ICT infrastructure and services because of their perceived role in both development and governance.⁹¹

It suffices to note that affordable and efficient ICT infrastructure and services allow any given community to participate in the digital economy, thus increasing its overall economic well-being and competitiveness. Particularly for women and girls, ICT are an invaluable tool that can enable them to improve their livelihoods and well-being and to increase their voice and influence in society. It must also be noted that integration of ICT affects the success of businesses, and thus influences the circulation of resources among citizens. However, ICT connectivity and ICT knowledge and skills for women and girls are of concern in Zambia. Furthermore, inequalities in distribution and access to ICT extend to geographical locations – with rural areas in Zambia disproportionately impacted.⁹²

There are many factors influencing ICT access and usage in Zambia. However, income, education (literacy), lack of awareness, and social position have been cited as some of the key factors in this regard. The main barriers to accessing Internet services include: lack of appreciation of a need for the Internet, lack of skills to use Internet services, and the high cost of required equipment. Other reasons include: lack of knowledge of how to use the Internet, lack of appropriate devices, lack of interest in Internet services, and lack of access to these services.⁹³

This section highlights major trends in access to and usage of ICT in Zambia, providing insights into existing inequalities and the factors facilitating these inequalities, while drawing out the implications for development. Discussion will be limited to access to the Internet and digital platforms, such as mobile banking, online banking, and online buying and selling.

10.2.1 Access to Internet and E-Commerce Services

Access to the Internet has significant life-changing benefits in areas ranging from financial services to health, education, commerce, and trade, among others. Internet penetration enables people to seamlessly engage in economically productive activities such as e-commerce. They can easily access online markets for their businesses, and they are also able to shop online, compare prices, and participate in online auctions; thus getting the best bargains and maximising their returns. All these ICT-based activities translate into economic empowerment. Individuals, groups of people, and areas that lack adequate and effective access to Internet technology are at higher risk of poverty because of the increasing bias towards a digital economy.

Access to and use of the Internet is high among men compared to women, and also in urban areas compared to rural areas, as shown in figures 10.4 and 10.5. It is not only Internet access and usage that is low among women and people in rural areas, but also engagement in e-commerce: 44.3 per cent of women compared with 55.7 per cent of men are engaged in e-commerce, while 10.4 per cent of people living in urban areas compared with 3.4 per cent in rural areas are engaged in the same.

Unequal access to and usage of both Internet and e-commerce services suggests that a significant majority of women and those in rural communities is cut off from certain information that is only accessible via the Internet. It also means that this group is cut off from engaging in online trade (buying and selling), learning, as well as email communication. The same can be said of women with no access to the Internet.

⁸⁵ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁸⁶ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁸⁷ Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia.

⁸⁸ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

⁸⁹ Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats), Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2019. Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018. Lusaka and Rockville, MD.

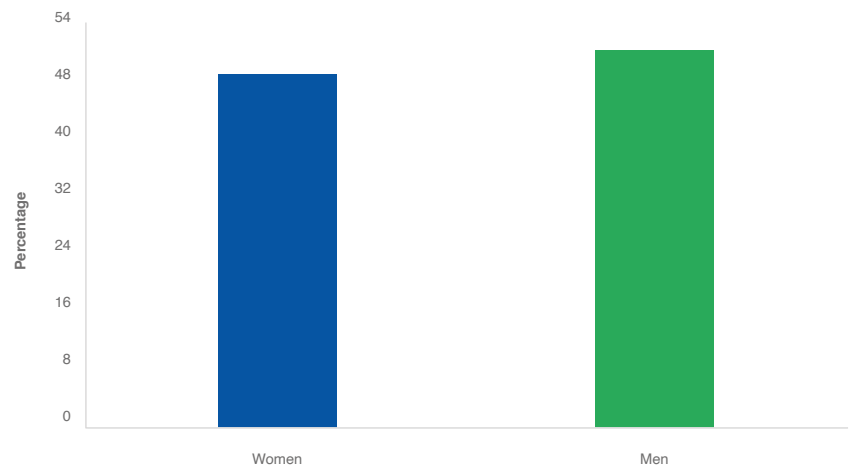
⁹⁰ Southern African Development Community (SADC). 2017. SADC Barometer 2017.

⁹¹ Ministry of National Development Planning (Zambia). 2017. Seventh National Development Plan 2017-2021; Lusaka.

⁹² Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia.

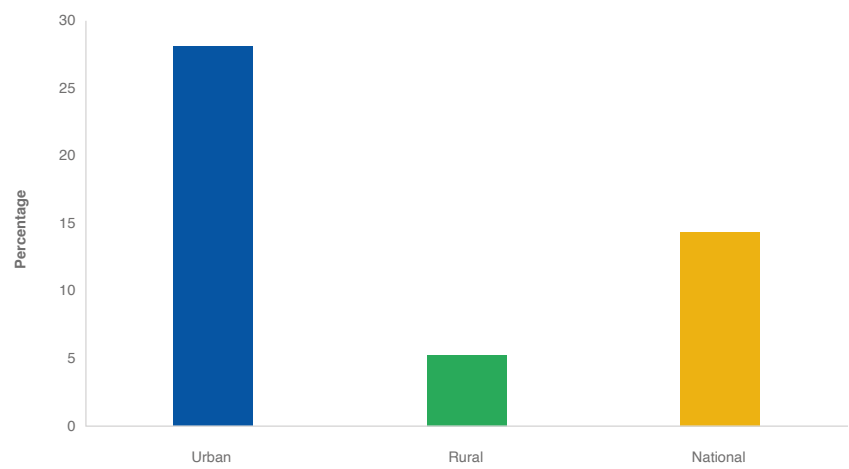
⁹³ Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia.

Figure 10.4 Percentage distribution of people with access to Internet services by sex, 2018



Adapted from Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

Figure 10.5 Percentage distribution of active Internet users in urban and rural areas, 2018



Adapted from Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

According to ZICTA, key issues influencing low usage of Internet and e-commerce services, especially among women and people living in rural areas, include: poor access to infrastructure and appropriate gadgets (2.4 per cent of the rural population have access to infrastructure or own a smart phone); lack of ICT skills (5.8 per cent of women know how to use a computer); and lack of awareness of the opportunities and benefits of using the Internet. Also, high levels of illiteracy affect the level or extent to which one uses ICT facilities, such as the Internet. For instance, it was established by ZICTA that 55.6 per cent of Internet users and 36.5 per cent of e-commerce service users attained and developed their ICT skills through secondary and tertiary education. Only less than 1 per cent of Internet users had never attended school.

10.2.2 ICT Access and Use Among the Youth

Internet usage in Zambia is highest among young people aged 10–34, who account for 72 per cent of all Internet users. This high uptake of Internet services among the youth is a good indication because young people have the potential to direct, and benefit from, development using ICT. Access to the Internet allows them to learn, to sharpen their skills, as well as to engage in transformative debates with like-minded youths across the country. According to ZICTA, the Internet is mostly used for research, downloads, and social networking among the surveyed population.

10.2.3 Mobile Phone Access, Usage, and Ownership

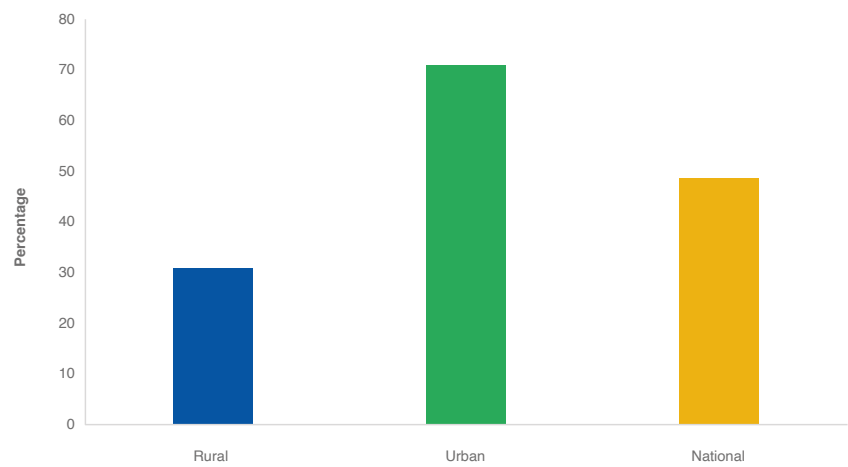
As of 2018, 53.5 per cent of Zambia's population aged 10 and above used a mobile phone, with the highest percentage of users being found in urban areas (71 per cent compared to 42.1 per cent in rural areas). Statistics on mobile ownership suggest a minimal variance between mobile phone users and owners, as well as between sex categories, with 86.5 per cent of men and 80.8 per cent of women owning a mobile phone.⁹⁴ However, 76.7 per cent of male-headed households indicated that they own a mobile cellular telephone, while only 64.9 per cent of female-headed households indicated that they own one.⁹⁵

Smart phones have gained prominence in the era of digitalisation and are an essential gadget, as they enhance the connectivity of users to numerous Internet platforms in the absence of a computer. Lack of access to a smart phone can have far-reaching developmental consequences for a country, as well as for individuals and groups of people. In Zambia, rural areas have significantly low access to smart phones, with only 14.2 per cent of the overall population owning a smart phone.

10.2.4 Access to and Usage of Digital Financial Services

Access to digital financial services is critical for the empowerment of both men and women, with national usage standing at 48.9 per cent. In rural Zambia, 30.7 per cent of the population is accessing such services in comparison to 71.7 per cent of the urban population, as indicated in figure 10.6. Furthermore, there is relatively higher access to and usage of digital financial services among men (30.5 per cent) than among women (28.5 per cent).⁹⁶

Figure 10.6 Percentage distribution of access to and usage of digital financial services by residential area, 2018



Source: Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

10.2.5 Efforts to Increase Media, Information, and ICT Accessibility in Zambia

Despite the low levels of access to and usage of ICT, especially among women and in rural areas, Zambia is making steady progress in increasing and improving both the quality of and access to ICT; with a focus on inclusive access whereby all categories of the population can access and use ICT infrastructure and services. This has been observed through the development and establishment of deliberate programmes and policies aimed at developing ICT skills in school-going children; at increasing women and girls' participation in science, technology, environment, and mathematics (STEM); and at expanding ICT infrastructure development to rural areas. In addition, the government has developed the National Gender Policy that provides guidelines for media coverage with regard to positive portrayal of women and girls, while mandating the government to ensure gender mainstreaming in media institutions.

The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting Services is also mandated to ensure that there is no gender stereotyping in the media. In addition, the Ministry of Gender continues to mobilise public and private media institutions to facilitate countrywide public education and awareness on gender equality; dissemination of gender responsive information; and

⁹⁴ Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

⁹⁵ Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

⁹⁶ Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA). 2018. *National Survey on Access and Usage of Information and Communication Technologies by Households and Individuals: A Demand Side Assessment of Access and Usage of ICTs in Zambia*.

advocacy on various gender and development issues related to the media and ICT, among other things. However, these efforts can be strengthened through the deliberate capacity-building of media personnel to effectively identify and report on gender issues across the country.

An Information Media Gender Network has also been established to support efforts to champion women and marginalised groups' participation in and access to information through the media. The government is also implementing the Women in News (WIN) programme aimed at increasing women's leadership and the voices of women in news through working with various media companies.

As indicated earlier in this section, ICT like the media play a critical role in shaping development by influencing social norms and behaviours, exposing people to remote vocational skills training, and facilitating networking, among other things. ICT has the potential to eliminate or alleviate some of the barriers faced by women, girls, and young people, such as time scarcity and mobility issues – e.g., women need not travel to the market as they can buy and sell online, and thus can have more time for other tasks – in overcoming the challenges of illiteracy and poverty.

Bearing in mind the opportunities that come with having access to and using ICT and media services, the observed low levels of access to and usage of media information and various ICT services in Zambia significantly undermine industrialisation, as well as women and girls' emancipation and empowerment. Therefore, it is particularly essential for the country to continue seeking sustainable ways of bridging the media and digital divide.

11

Conflict Management and Peacekeeping Operations



Men and women must undertake conflict management and peacekeeping in partnership, because they bring different perspectives to these processes. United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace, and security calls on member states to realise the rights of women to participate in decision-making and as protectors of peace. Zambia has been participating actively in conflict management and peacekeeping operations across Africa, contributing around 1,000 troops to UN missions deployed on the continent in 2019. Of these, 154 were servicewomen, serving as military observers, medical personnel, community development social workers, and peacekeepers.⁹⁷

⁹⁷ United Nations (UN) Peacekeeping. April 2019. "Women in Peacekeeping: A Key to Peace". Available online: <https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/women-peacekeeping>.

Conclusion

This Gender Status Report has highlighted critical gender issues that remain pervasive in Zambia, as well as the persistent challenges in addressing equality and equity issues. These inequalities are fuelled by gender norms and belief systems that relegate women, girls, and people living with disabilities to an inferior status, while perpetuating constructions of gender that are destructive for all. Gender inequality underpins a range of negative sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) outcomes, including high levels of maternal, infant, and child mortality; a disproportionate number of young women being infected with HIV; high levels of early marriages; high levels of adolescent pregnancies; low levels of modern family planning methods use; and high levels of gender-based violence.

Persistent gaps in opportunities to access education, productive resources, health cover, and sexual and reproductive health services, as well as the declining levels of employment, especially among women, the youth, and those in rural areas – as highlighted in this report – perpetuate vicious inter-generational cycles of deprivation and disadvantage. They also deepen rifts in society that are detrimental to human development and consequently national development. The Government of Zambia, therefore, renews its commitment to continue working towards the elimination of all forms of gender inequalities, as the country moves forward towards achieving its aim of becoming a prosperous middle-income country in nearly 10 years from now.

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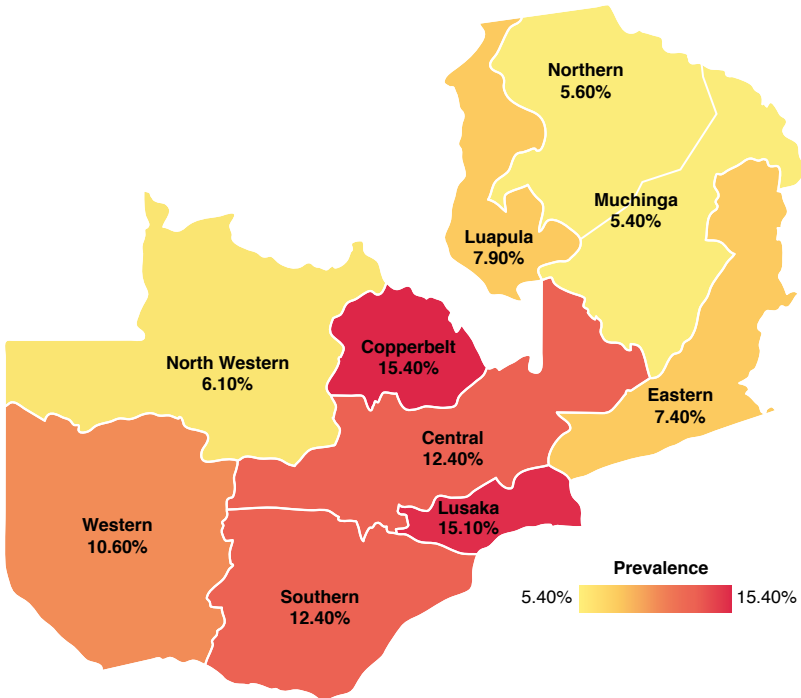
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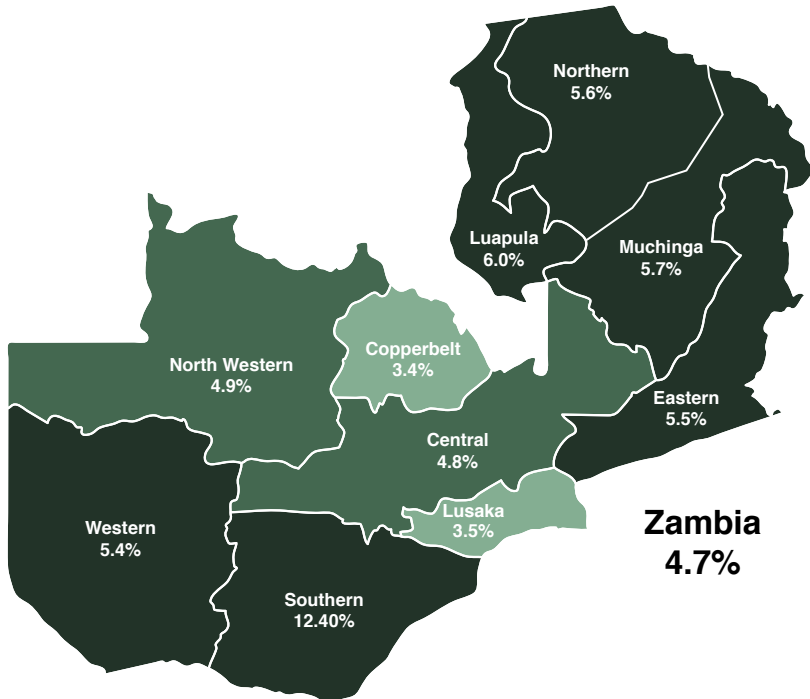
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Appendices

Appendix 1. Map Showing HIV Prevalence by Province, 2018/2019



Appendix 2. Map Showing Total Fertility Rate by Province



Source: Zambia Statistics Agency (ZamStats). Zambia Demographic and Health Survey 2018.

Appendix 3. Traditional Leadership by Sex and Province, 2017–2019

Province	2017				2018				2019			
	Women	Men	Vacant	Total expected	Women	Men	Vacant	Total expected	Women	Men	Vacant	Total expected
Central	4	31	1	36	4	31	1	36	4	30	0	34
Copperbelt	3	9	3	15	3	9	3	15	2	13	0	15
Eastern	6	42	2	50	6	42	2	50	0	57	0	57
Luapula	4	28	7	39	4	28	7	39	1	39	0	40
Lusaka	4	4	1	9	4	4	1	9	2	4	0	6
Muchinga	1	28	1	30	1	28	1	30	1	22	0	23
Northern	1	28	3	32	1	28	3	32	1	28	0	29
North Western	2	27	4	33	2	27	4	33	3	30	0	33
Southern	2	28	3	33	2	28	3	33	0	41	0	41
Western	2	6	3	11	2	6	3	11	1	9	0	10
Total	29	230	29	288	29	230	29	29	15	273	0	288

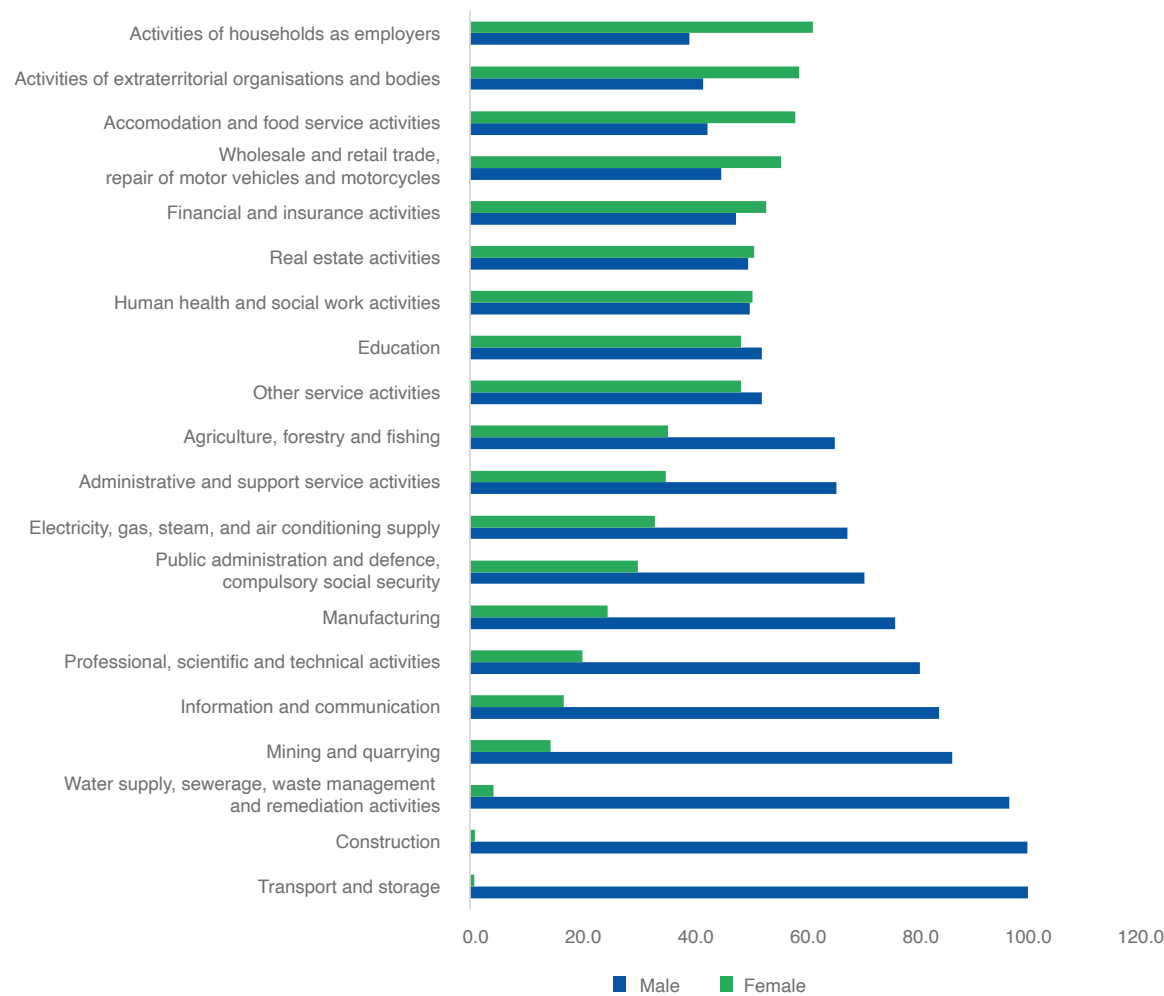
Appendix 4. Number of Reported Gender-Based Violence Cases by Offence Type and Sex, 2019

Offences	Male	Female	Total No.
Defilement of a child	16	2,637	2,653
Defilement of an imbecile	1	33	34
Attempted defilement	0	5	5
Rape	0	527	527
Attempted rape	0	64	64
Incest	13	33	46
Bigamy	1	4	5
Unnatural offences	21	10	31
Sexual harassment	0	14	14
Indecent assault	5	159	164
Murder	36	43	79
Child destruction	1	4	5
Infanticide	6	7	13
Abortion	0	15	15
Attempted murder	6	4	10
Attempted infanticide	0	0	0
Supplying drugs/instrument to procure abortion	0	1	1
Concealment of birth	0	5	5
Unlawful wounding	61	101	162
Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH)	22	94	116
Assaults Occasioning Actual Bodily Harm	1,077	6,133	7,210
Assault on a child	307	293	600
Threatening violence	65	153	218
Child stealing	9	11	20
Child desertion	30	43	73
Neglect to provide	483	1,415	1,898
Failing to provide	286	1,274	1,560
Arson	3	11	14
Abduction	3	38	41
Human trafficking	5	13	18



Offences	Male	Female	Total No.
Use of insulting language	81	306	387
Malicious damage to property	54	102	156
Theft	118	103	221
Child pornography	0	0	0
Found in possession of obscene material	0	3	3
Depriving the beneficiaries	30	39	69
Naming a person to be a witch	8	3	11
Pretence of marriage	0	5	5
Conduct likely to cause breach of peace	65	179	244
Cruelty to juveniles	2	6	8
Criminal trespass	6	11	17
Harmful cultural practices	0	1	1
Prohibition of certain marriages	0	4	4
Procuring an abortion	0	6	6
Neglect likely to spread infection	0	1	1
Wrongful confinement	0	0	0
Disputes	2,580	5,807	8,387
Total	5,401	19,720	25,121

Appendix 5. Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Industry and Sex, 2019



Appendix 6. List of Team Members Who Authored Thematic Sections

Name	Department/Ministry
William Kabwe	Planning/Ministry of Gender
Andrea Habweza	Planning/Ministry of Gender
Phillip Chilambwe	Planning/Ministry of Gender
Simon Kapilima	Gender Rights Protection/Ministry of Gender
Namatama Sakabilo Chinyama	Gender Rights Protection/Ministry of Gender
Susan Musonda	Gender Rights Protection/Ministry of Gender
Charity Lubumbe	Gender in Development/Ministry of Gender
Sheila.S. Mudenda	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Batista Chilopa Mwale	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Emma Phiri	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Faith Chileshe Phiri	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Petronella Kaputu Sabi	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Joseph Mweetwa	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Bruce Sianyeuka	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Lubinda Mukata	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning
Raphael Masangu	Zambia Statistics Agency/Ministry of National Development Planning

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