First Post-2015 review!

# SADC GENDER PROTOCOL 2017 BAROMETER




New results framework

New ways of measuring change

SADC GENDER PROTOCOL ALLIANCE

Edited by Colleen Lowe Morna, Sifisosami Dube and Lucia Makamure

*Foreword by Emma Kaliya - Chair of the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance*

The Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance's vision is an inclusive, equal and just society in the public and private space in accordance with the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The Alliance campaigned for the adoption, implementation and review of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The Alliance is now advocating for action and results in the implementation of the Protocol which is aligned to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Beijing Plus Twenty and the African Union Agenda 2063. The Gender Protocol is the only SADC Protocol with a Monitoring, Evaluation and Results Framework.

Gender Links coordinates the work of the Alliance.

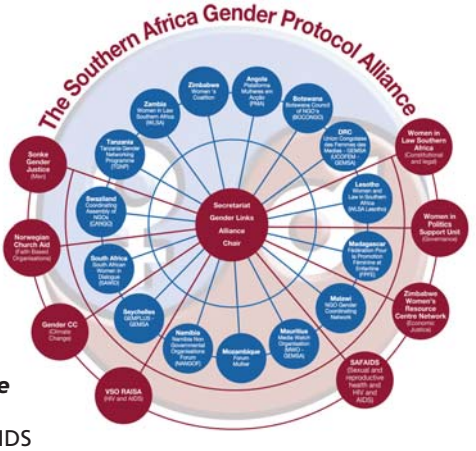
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*Gender Links*
*9 Derrick Avenue*
*Cyrildene, 2198*
*Johannesburg, South Africa*
*Phone: 27 (11) 029 0006*
*or 27 (11) 028 2410*
*Email: alliance@genderlinks.org.za*
*Websites: www.genderlinks.org.za*
*Twitter: @GenderProtocol*
*@GenderLinks*
*FaceBook: Gender Links*
*Instagram: GenderLinks*

Editors: Colleen Lowe Morna, Sifiso Dube, Lucia Makamure

Design/Layout:
Debi Lee & Haidy Lee

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**Alliance partners**
***Coordinator***
Gender Links
***Constitutional and legal rights***
Women and Law Southern Africa (WLSA)
***Governance***
Women in Politics Support Unit (WIPSU)
***Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights***
Southern Africa HIV and AIDS Information Dissemination Service (SAfAIDS)
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***Zambia***
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Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe
***Faith Based Organisations***
Norwegian Church AID Southern Africa Office
***Men's Groups***
Sonke Gender Justice

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Commonwealth Foundation
GENDER LINKS
FOR EQUALITY AND JUSTICE

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# ACRONYMS

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| A4AI | Alliance for Affordable Internet |
| AAI | African Adaptation Initiative |
| ABC | All Basotho Convention |
| ACSA | African Correctional Services Association |
| AD | Alliance of Democrats |
| AGN | African Group of Negotiators |
| AIDS | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| AJPF | Association of Women Journalists |
| ALET | Association of Lesotho Theologians |
| AMCEN | African Ministerial Conference on the Environment |
| AMI | Alternative Mining Indaba |
| ANC | African National Congress |
| ANC | Antenatal Care |
| APRODEF | Action Pour La Promotion Et La Defense Des Droits De La Femme |
| AREI | African Renewable Energy Initiative |
| ART | Anti-retroviral treatment |
| ARV | Anti-Retroviral drug |
| ASADHO | Association Africaine de Defense des Droits de l'Homme |
| AU | African Union |
| AVIMAS | Association of Widows and Single Mothers |
| AVU | African Virtual University |
| BCP | Botswana Congress Party |
| BDP | Botswana Democratic Party |
| BNCCC | National Bureau of Climate Change Coordination |
| BNF | Botswana National Front |
| BNP | Basotho National Party |
| BOCONGO | Botswana Council of Non-Governmental Organisations |
| BPFA | Beijing Platform for Action |
| CAHOSCC | Committee of Africa Heads of State and Government on Climate Change |
| CANGO | Co-ordinating Assembly of Non-Governmental Organisations |
| CASE | Community Agency for Social Enquiry |
| CCJP | Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace |
| CCM | Charna cha Mapinduzi |
| CDCP | Centres for Disease Control and Prevention |
| CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of |
| CERKM | Civic Education, Research and Knowledge Management |
| CESA | Continental Education Strategy for Africa |
| CGE | Commission on Gender Equality |
| CHRR | Centre for Human Rights and Rehabilitation |
| CISONECC | Civil Society Network on Climate Change |
| CITES | Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora |
| CMA | Centre for Mediation in Africa |
| CMD | Council for Non-Governmental Organizations |
| COE | Centre of Excellence |
| COMSIP | Community Savings and Investment Project |
| COP | Community of Practise |
| COP | Country Operational Plans |
| COP | Conference of Parties |
| CRR | Centre for Reproductive Rights |
| CSC | Citizen Score Card |
| CSE | Comprehensive Sexuality Education |
| CSEC | Civil Society Education Coalition |
| CSO | Civil Society Organisations |
| CSOC | Civil Society Organisation Committee |
| CSTL | Care and Support for Teaching and Learning |
| CSW | Commission on the Status of Women |
| CTRF | Changing The River's Flow |
| DA | Democratic Alliance |
| DAWN | Development Alternatives Women New Era |
| DCS | Domestic Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offenses |
| DDR | Disarmament, Demobilisation, and Reintegration |
| DHRMD | Department of Human Resource Management & Development |
| DIRCO | Department of International Relations and Cooperation |
| DJCD | Department of Justice and Constitutional Development |
| DOD | Department of Defence |
| DPE | Development for Peace Education |
| DPP | Democratic Progress Party |
| DRC | Democratic Republic of Congo |
| DSD | Department of Correctional Services |
| DSW | Department of Social Welfare |
| ECCE | Early Childhood Care and Education |
| ECD | Early Childhood Development |
| ECOWAS | Economic Cooperation of West African States |
| EFF | Economic Freedom Fighters |
| EFF | Economic freedom Front |
| EMB | Election Management Body |
| ESA | East and Southern Africa |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organisation |
| FAWEZA | Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia |
| FAWEZI | Forum for African Women Educationalists Zimbabwe |
| FDGs | Focus Group Discussions |
| FDLR | Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda |
| FF+ | Freedom Front |
| FMG | Female Genital Mutilation |
| FODEP | Foundation for Democratic Process |
| FOMMUR | Mozambican Forum of Rural Women |
| FPFE | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE |
| FPTP | First Post the Post |
| FRELIMO | Frente de Libeartacao de Mocambique Liberation Front |
| FWCW | Fourth World Conference on Women |
| GAMAG | Global Alliance on Media and Gender |
| GAPA | Grandmothers Against Poverty and AIDS |
| GBV | Gender Based Violence |
| GEM Plus | Gender and Media Plus Association of Seychelles |
| GenderCCSA | Gender Climate Change-Southern Africa |
| GIME | Gender and Media Education |
| GL | Gender Links |

| | |
|---|---|
| GMAS | Gender and Media Audience Research |
| GMBS | Gender and Media Baseline Study |
| GMDC | Gender and Media Diversity Centre |
| GMMP | Global Media Monitoring Project |
| GMPS | Gender and Media Progress Study |
| GPI | Global Peace Index |
| GPS | Gender Progress Score |
| GRA | Gender and Rights Assessment |
| GSC | Gender Scored Card |
| GWP | Global Water Partnership |
| HIV | Human Immuno deficiency Virus |
| HPV | Human Papilloma Virus |
| HSRC | Human Sciences Research Council |
| HVM | Hery Vaovao ho an'i Madagasikara |
| ICBT | Informal Cross Border Trade |
| ICLD | International Cooperation for Local Development (Swedish) |
| ICPD | International Conference on Population and Development |
| ICT | Information and Communication Technology |
| IDPF | Industrial Development Policy Framework |
| IDUs | Injecting Drug Users |
| IEC | Independent Electoral Commission |
| IFASIC | Institute of Information and Communication Sciences |
| IFFs | Illicit Financial Flows |
| IFP | Inkatha Freedom Party |
| IILACE | International Institute of Law Association Chief Executives |
| ILO | International Labour Organisation |
| IMERSE | International Mental Health Resource Services |
| IPU | Inter-Parliamentary Union |
| IPV | Intimate Partner Violence |
| IRI | Interactive Radio Instruction |
| ISPDC | Interstate Politics and Diplomacy Committee |
| IT | Information Technology |
| ITU | International Telecommunication Union |
| IWMF | International Women's Media Foundation |
| JMP | Joint Monitoring Programme |
| KAYEC | Katutura Youth Enterprise Centre |
| KDMN | Katete District Men's Network |
| LARCs | Long Acting Reversible Contraceptives |
| LDS | Linyon Demokratik Seselwa |
| LGBTI | Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex persons |
| M&E | Monitoring and evaluation |
| MBGE | Men and Boys for Gender Equality |
| MCO | Ministerial Committee of the Organ |
| MDF | Malawi Defence Force |
| MDGs | Millennium Development Goals |
| MEEMF | Ministry of the Environment, of Ecology, the Sea and Forest |
| MER | Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting |
| MERF | Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework |
| MET | Ministry of Environment and Tourism |
| MFP | Marematlou Freedom Party |
| MGECDFW | Ministry of Gender Equality Child Development and Family Welfare |
| MHD | Medium Human Development |
| MHRRC | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre |
| MISA | Media Institute of Southern Africa |
| MLP | Mauritius Labour Party |
| MMEIG | Maternal Mortality Estimation Inter Agency Group |
| MMP | Media Monitoring Project |
| MMR | Maternal Mortality Ratio |
| MNCH | Maternal Newborn and Child Health |
| MONUSCO | United Nations Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo |
| MOU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| MP | Members of Parliament |
| MPLA | Movimento Popular de Libertacao de Angola - Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola |
| MPPSPF | Ministère de la Population, de la Protection Sociale et de la Promotion de la Femme |
| MSM | Men who have Sex with Men |
| MST | Methadone Substitution Therapy |
| MtCO2e | Metric tons of Carbon Dioxide equivalent |
| NABW | National Association of Business Women |
| NamPol | Namibian Police Force |
| NANASO | Namibia Networks of AIDS Service Organisations |
| NANGOF | Namibia Association of Non-Govermental Organisations Trust |
| NAP | National Adaptation Plan |
| NAPs | National Action Plans |
| NATICC | Nhlangano AIDS Training Information and Counseling Center |
| NBSAP2 | Second National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan |
| NCCI | Namibia Chamber of Commerce and Industry |
| NCCRS | National Climate Change Response Strategy |
| NCS | Namibian Correctional Service |
| NDF | Namibian Defense Force |
| NEP | National Environmental on Policy |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| NGOCC | Non-Governmental Organizations Coordinating Council |
| NGOGCN | NGO Gender Coordinating Network |
| NSP | National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan |
| NWEC | National Women Entrepreneur Council |
| OSF | Outreach Scout Foundation |
| PDVA | Protection from Domestic Violence Act |
| PEP | Post Exposure Prophylaxis |
| PF | Patriotic Front |
| PGCDs | Police Gender and Children Desks |
| PHIA | Population HIV Impact Assessments |
| PLWD | People Living With Disabilities |
| PLWHA | People Living with HIV and AIDS |
| PMA | Platforma da Mulheres Accao |
| PMTCT | Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission |
| PPRD | Peoples Party for Reconstruction and Democracy |

| | |
|---|---|
| PR | Proportional Representation |
| PWID | People Who Inject Drugs |
| PWIDs | People Who Inject Drugs |
| QA | Quality Assurance |
| RCL | Reformed Congress of Lesotho |
| RDF | Grassroots Women`s Awakening and Dynamism |
| REEESAP | Regional Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Strategy and Action Plan |
| RISDP | Regional Indicative Strategic and Development Plan |
| RNPE | Revised National Policy on Education |
| RnRT | Rights not Rescue Trust |
| RQF | Regional Qualifications Framework |
| RSNDP | Revised Sixth National Development Plan |
| SA | South Africa |
| SABA | Southern African Broadcasting Association |
| SACBC | Southern African Catholic Bishops Conference |
| SADC | Southern Africa Development Community |
| SADCPF | Southern African Development Community Parliamentary Forum |
| SADCQF | Southern Africa Development Community Qualification Framework |
| SAfAIDS | Southern Africa HIV and AIDS Information Dissemination Service |
| SAHRC | South African Human Rights Commission |
| SALRC | South African Law Reform Commission |
| SANAC | South African National AIDS Council |
| SANDF | South Africa National Defence Force |
| SAPS | South African Police Services |
| SARPCCO | Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation |
| SARPCCO | Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation |
| SAWID | South African Women In Dialogue |
| SCCO | Swaziland Concerned Civic Organisations |
| SDGs | Sustainable Development Goals |
| SeNDP | Seventh National Development Plan |
| SEnPA | Small Enterprise Promotion Agency |
| SEOM | SADC Electoral Observation Mission |
| SGBV | Sexual Gender Based Violence |
| SGDI | SADC Gender and Development Index |
| SME | Small and Medium Enterprises |
| SNC | Second National Communication |
| SNL | Swazi Nation Land |
| SOCs | Sexual Offences Courts |
| SOFEPADI | Solidarité Féminine pour la Paix et le Développement Intégral |
| SOGI | Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity |
| SOMAMI | Parliamentary Women Network |
| SRHR | Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights |
| STEM | Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics |
| STI | Sexually Transmitted Infections |
| STISA | Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa |
| SWAGGA | Swaziland Action Group Against Abuse |
| SWAPO | South Western Africa's People Organisation |
| SWIFT | Swaziland Fair Trade |
| T/PCCs | Troop/Police Contributing Countries |
| TACRA | Tanzania Communications and Regulatory Authority |
| TAMWA | Tanzania Media Women's Association |
| TAWLA | Tanzania Women's Lawyers Association |
| TCCA | Technical Committee on Certification and Accreditation |
| TCF | Tanzania Constitution Forum |
| TGNP | Tanzania Gender Network Programme |
| TIP | Trafficking In Persons |
| TLS | Tanganyika Law Society |
| TMALI | Thabo Mbeki African Leadership Institute |
| TVET | Technical, Vocational Education and Training |
| TVPA | Trafficking Victims Protection Act |
| UCOFEM | Congolese Union of Women in Media |
| UDHR | Universal Declaration of Human Rights |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNDP | United National Development Programme |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural |
| UNFCCC | Organisation United Nations Framework Convention on Climate |
| UNFPA | United Nations Population Fund Change |
| UNGEI | United Nations Girls Education Initiative |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Change |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| UNIFEM | United Nations Development Fund for Women |
| UNODC | United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime |
| UNPD | United Nations Population Division |
| UNPF | United Nations Population Fund |
| UNSC | United Nations Security Council |
| UNSCR | United National Security Council Resolution |
| UPND | United Party for National Development |
| VAM | Violence Against Men |
| VAW | Violence Against Women |
| VEARP | Victim Empowerment and Abuser Rehabilitation Policy |
| VEC | Victim Empowerment Centres |
| VSU | Victim Support Unit |
| WACC | World Association of Christian Communicators |
| WCoZ | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe |
| WEA | Women Entrepreneur Association |
| WED | Women Entrepreneurship Development |
| WEDGE | Women Entrepreneurship and Gender Equality |
| WHO | World Health Organisation |
| WIMSA | Women in Mining South Africa |
| WLSA | Women and Law in Southern Africa |
| YWCA | Young Women Christian Association |
| ZAMEC | Zambia Media Council |
| ZANU PF | Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front |
| ZAWJ | Zambian Association of Women Judges |
| ZGC | Zimbabwe Gender Commission |
| ZGC | Zimbabwe Gender Commission |
| Zimpapers | Zimbabwe Newspapers Group |
| ZimStats | Zimbabwe National Statistics |
| ZLS | Zanzibar Law Society |
| ZNWLG | Zambia National Women's Lobby Group |

## EDITORIAL TEAM



**Colleen Lowe Morna** *(South Africa)* is CEO of Gender Links. A South African born in Zimbabwe, Colleen began her career as a journalist specialising in economic and development reporting including as Africa Editor of the New Delhi-based Women's Feature Service. She joined the Commonwealth Secretariat as a senior researcher on the Africa desk in 1991, and later served as Chief Programme Officer of the Commonwealth Observer Mission to South Africa. Colleen subsequently served as founding CEO of the South African Commission on Gender Equality. A trainer, researcher and writer, Colleen has written extensively on gender issues in Southern Africa. She holds a BA degree in International Relations from Princeton University; Masters in Journalism from Columbia University and certificate in executive management from the London Business School. She has received awards from the Woodrow Wilson School of International Relations; the Newswomen's Club of New York and the *Mail and Guardian* newspaper in South Africa. In 2007, South Africa's Media Magazine named Colleen runner up in the Media Woman of the Year Award. In 2013, CEO magazine named Colleen the "most influential woman" in South Africa and Africa as a whole in the civil society category. A year later the University of Johannesburg awarded Colleen honorary membership of the Golden Key Association that recognises excellence in academia and public service. Colleen has served as editor-in-chief of all nine Barometers.



**Sifisosami Dube** *(Zimbabwe)* is the Alliance and Partnerships Manager at Gender Links. Sifisosami has been with Gender Links since September 2012 when she joined as the Gender and Governance Manager. Sifisosami is now manager of the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance and the annual SADC Gender Protocol Barometer research. Sifisosami holds a BCOM in Entrepreneurship and a Master's in Public Administration and Development Management. She undertook Gender Studies at the University of Pretoria and African Thought Leadership at the Thabo Mbeki African Leadership Institute (TMALI). She is currently studying towards a BA in Law degree with the University of South Africa. Prior to joining Gender Links, Sifisosami worked at CIVICUS, a global civil society network where she led a gender mainstreaming programme. Sifisosami updated the Implementation chapter of the Barometer. She sub-edited several chapters of the Barometer.



**Lucia Makamure** *(Zimbabwe)* is a journalist with more than 10 years of experience working on human rights and public policy issues in Southern Africa. Lucia is a 2016 Commonwealth Scholar currently in her final year studying towards a Master's in Public Policy and Management degree with the University of York. Lucia is the Alliance Advocacy and Networking Coordinator at Gender Links. She is responsible for much of the desktop research and administrative follow up and support on this project. Lucia wrote the Economic Justice Chapter and co-authored the Preface and the Executive summary of this report. She also served as sub-editor and proof reader of several chapters of the Barometer.



**Danny Glenwright** *(Canada)* has a background in human rights journalism and media training and a Masters in International Cooperation and Development from Italy's University of Pavia. Glenwright previously served as GL Communication Manager and worked as a human rights trainer. He has also worked in Sierra Leone, Palestine, the United Kingdom and Rwanda. He is currently CEO at Action Against Hunger/Action contre la Faim (@ACF_Canada), and Managing Editor of The Philanthropist.



**Debbie Budlender** *(South Africa)* is an independent Consultant. Between 1988 and June 2012 she worked as a specialist researcher with the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE): a South African non-governmental organisation working on social policy research. Between April 1997 and March 2002 Debbie was on a long-term part-time secondment to Statistics South Africa, the country's national statistical bureau where she worked on gender, employment, poverty and children's issues. She was also in charge of planning and running the country's first national time use study. Debbie served as the overall coordinator of South Africa's Women's Budget Initiative when it started in 1995. In subsequent years, she has served as consultant on gender-responsive budgeting to non-governmental organisations, governments, parliamentarians and donors in more than thirty-five countries. In this project Debbie has served as advisor on the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI).

CONTRIBUTORS

## CHAPTER AUTHORS



**Kubi Rama** *(South Africa)* has 25 years experience working in non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and institutions of higher learning. In that time her main focus has been on media, communication, education, research, training and gender. In her time at Gender Links from 2003 to 2014, Kubi contributed to growing the organisation from four to 60 people with offices in ten countries. In the last three years Rama has spent time understanding and developing monitoring and evaluation systems that move beyond the numbers to measuring change. Rama has contributed to several Barometers as the author of the Gender Based Violence and Constitutional and Legal Rights chapters. Rama is the author of the Education and Training chapter of the 2017 Barometer.



**Mariatu Fonnah** *(Sierra Leone)* joined GL in 2014 as the Gender and Governance Manager. She has several years' experience in project management, monitoring and evaluation, training and research on gender at local, regional and international levels. As a trainer, she has designed and conducted training in gender equality, development and good governance. She has done research on the impact of domestic violence on women, and continually seeks to promote a gendered approach to any form of development and socio-economic change especially in Southern Africa. Mariatu wrote the Governance chapter of the Barometer.



**Makanatsa Makonese** *(Zimbabwe)* is a human rights lawyer with international experience in human rights, democracy, governance and rule of law with a focus on the SADC region. She holds a Bachelor of Laws (Honours) Degree, a Master's Degree in Women's Law and is currently undergoing the examination process for a PhD in Women's Law (focusing on land rights and international human rights law). She has worked in government, civil society and in the private sector as a practising lawyer. She has implemented programmes and held positions of responsibility and leadership on initiatives focusing on human rights, the rule of law, democracy and governance, law reform and the development of the legal profession including as a member of the International Institute of Law Association Chief Executives (IILACE) and the Executive Secretary of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Lawyers' Association. Her most recent publications (2015 and 2016) focus on Women's Rights under the New Zimbabwean Constitution, Customary Law and the Enjoyment of Women's Rights in Southern Africa (with a focus on Lesotho, South Africa and Botswana) and The Role of the Legal Profession in Promoting Free and Fair Elections. Makonese wrote the Constitutional and Legal Rights chapter.



**Linda Musariri Chipatiso** *(Zimbabwe)* joined GL in 2013 as the GBV Indicators Research Officer. As a Hewlett Fellow, Musariri-Chipatiso recently completed her studies towards a Master of Arts degree in Demography and Population Studies from the University of Witwatersrand. She holds a BA Honours degree in Theatre Arts from the University of Zimbabwe. Linda is currently studying for her PHD degree at the University of Amsterdam. She has contributed to five of the seven GBV Indicators Studies conducted by GL and partner organisations and governments. Linda wrote the Gender Based Violence chapter.



**Lynette Mudekunye** *(Zimbabwe/ South Africa)* is public health professional who is an Advisor with REPSSI, a regional organisation providing technical support to psychosocial support for children and youth in 13 countries of East and Southern Africa. She has worked in the Health, HIV and AIDS sectors in Zimbabwe, South Africa and in the region. She wrote the Health, HIV and AIDS chapters, under the guidance of SAfAIDS.



**Tarisai Nyamweda** *(Zimbabwe)* is the Media Coordinator at Gender Links. She is responsible for the gender and media projects undertaken by the organisation. She joined Gender Links as Media Policy and Research intern in January 2010. This is where she became involved in gender and media monitoring through the Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) in 2010. She coordinated research teams on the recently completed GMPS 2015 study and the South Africa Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) study. She wrote the Media, Information, and Communication chapter of the Barometer.



**Dorah Marema** *(South Africa)* has worked with a wide range of NGOs and in different sectors in both rural and urban settings since 1997. She has been involved in issues of sustainability since 2000 and worked with multi-stakeholder participatory initiatives involving communities, NGOs, government and other institutions in various

sectors including small-scale agriculture, environment, climate change, renewable energy, gender and land-rights at local, national and international levels. She helped establish an NGO called "Green House Project" - an Environmental Sustainability Demonstration Centre in inner-city Johannesburg, which she also managed for five years. Dorah founded Gender Climate Change-Southern Africa (GenderCC-SA) as a NPO organisation. GenderCC coordinates NGOs, community-based groups and individuals who are lobbying and advocating around gender and climate change in the region and internationally. Through this organisation, she implemented a gender and climate change capacity building project in South Africa which provided information about climate change. She is the Current President of GenderCC International. Marema updated the Climate Change chapter of the Barometer.



**Kevin Chiramba** *(Zimbabwe)* contributed as GBV Indicators Study researcher. He coordinated the household prevalence and attitudes surveys in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Seychelles and currently in Botswana. Prior to joining GL, Chiramba worked for the University of Zimbabwe as a graduate research assistant in the Psychology Department and at ZimStat as a researcher. He holds a Master of Science degree in Population Studies and a Bachelor of Science (Honours) degree in Psychology from the University of Zimbabwe.



**Melody Kandare** *(Zimbabwe)* joined Gender Links in May 2017 as the Alliance and Partnerships Intern. Her contributions in this project include capturing statistical data for the Barometer and administering the Alliance, Monitoring and Evaluation questionnaires which tracks the progress of the SADC Gender Protocol. She holds a Bachelor of Arts in Development Studies from the University of Venda where she is also completing her Honours in International Relations. Kandare is passionate about gender equality, social justice, gender equity, economic justice, women in politics and gender based violence. Whilst studying she worked with gender based organisations at her university such as 'She Reigns and Amplifying Community Voices of South Africa' which promote women empowerment and sustainable development.



**Sheila Maingi** *(Kenya)* is a student at the University of Florida pursuing a Masters in Sustainable International Development with a specific focus on Gender and Development. She is also a Governance Intern at Gender Links. Sheila is passionate about women's economic empowerment, women and governance, eliminating gender based violence, as well as gender, peace and security issues. She has previously worked with Mzalendo Trust, mapping the contributions of Women Parliamentarians in Kenya's 11th Parliament. She also holds a BA in Psychology with a minor in Political science from the University of Nairobi. Sheila wrote the Peace Building and Conflict Resolution Chapter.



**Fanuel Hadzizi** *(Zimbabwe)* holds an Honours Degree in Sociology from the University of Zimbabwe. He is a dynamic professional with extensive strategic analytical skills in Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning. His core expertise is in data analysis, research, report writing, knowledge management, donor financial budgeting, website management, training and events coordination. Fanuel has a passion for writing and vast experience in results based management. At Gender Links he has been key in linking people to systems that provide them with MEL resources, services and opportunities, learning and contributing to development and improvement of institutional knowledge. He oversaw the gathering and analysis of the SADC Protocol@Work case studies; knowledge quiz and Citizen Score Card.

SAfAIDS

Knowledge for action: The power to make a difference!

SAfAIDS (SADC) is a regional non-profit organisation whose vision is to ensure that all people in Africa realise their sexual and reproductive health rights (SRHR) and are free from the burden of HIV, TB and other related developmental health issues. In recognition of the role that stigma and discrimination, gender inequality and related social structures and norms play in driving the epidemic and creating barriers to access to services in southern Africa, the organisation works to address gender equality and the rights of women, girls and key population groups, to access sexual reproductive health services and rights by confronting complex issues like culture, human rights and stigma. SAfAIDS oversaw the Health, and HIV and AIDS chapters.

### Expert Peer Review Groups in each country

The following expert groups carried out the Gender Responsive Assessment (GRA) of the Constitutional and Legal Sector Score of the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI).

# EXPERT GROUPS

| COUNTRY CO-ORDINATING NETWORK | EXPERT | DESIGNATION | ORGANISATION |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Angola**<br>Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA) | Marinela Gamboa Laureano | National Director of Gender | Ministry of Gender |
| | Joana Cortez Cardoso | Technical assistant of women affairs | Ministry of Gender |
| | Carolina Miraranda | Project coodinator | Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA) |
| | Veronica Sapalo | Executive director | Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA) |
| **Botswana**<br>Botswana Council of NGOs ( BOCONGO) | Bonang Etsang | Programs manager | Peddys widows forum |
| | Christinah Wotho | Member | Botswana Congress Party Womens League |
| | Botho Seboko | Chief Executive Officer | Botswana Council of NGOs (BOCONGO) |
| | Dudu Etsang | Public Relations Officer | Botswana Council of NGOs (BOCONGO) |
| | Chigedze Chinyepi | Alliance member | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Valencia Mogegeh | Managing Director | Gender perspectives |
| | Tshimologo Dingake | Member | Botswana Congress Party (BCP) |
| | Alice Mogwe | Director | Ditshwanelo centre for human rights |
| | Orefitshletse Masire | Treasurer | Botswana Democratic Party Women Wing |
| | Felitus Motimedi | Lawyer | Botswana Network of Law and Ethics |
| | Gomolemo Rasesigo | Gender links manager | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Merllene Mutowa | Media intern gl | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Lorato Sakufiwa | Chief Executive Officer | Kagisano Society Womens Shelter |
| | Ntombi Setshwaelo | Board member | Gender Links (GL) |
| **Democratic Republic of Congo**<br>Union Congolaise des Femmes des Medias (UCOFEM) | Jeanne Kabvo | Member | Solidarité Féminine pour la Paix et le Développement Intégral (SOFEPADI) |
| | Elodie Nzovo | Member | L'Union Congolaise des Femmes des Médias (UCOFEM) |
| | Felly Diengo | Director | Association Africaine de Defense des Droits de l'Homme (ASADHO) |
| | Gerry Nanbanza | Member | DCCDHE |
| | Jacques Mwanangonho | Councilor | Action Pour La Promotion Et La Defense Des Droits De La Femme (APRODEF) |
| | Okeye Enyofu | Advocate | Action Pour La Promotion Et La Defense Des Droits De La Femme (APRODEF) |
| | Christine Nyambo | Member | Association of Women Journalists (AJPF) |
| | Florence Mbwiti | Coordinator | Grassroots Women`s Awakening and Dynamism (RDF) |
| | Fracini Umbalo | Director | L'Union Congolaise des Femmes des Médias (UCOFEM) |
| | Slyvester Saidi | Minister of Communications | Communications Office |
| | Paulette Mudishi | Member | DSFP |
| | Anselne Nanpuya | Member | BS |
| | Anna Nayimona | Director | L'Union Congolaise des Femmes des Médias (UCOFEM) |
| **Lesotho**<br>Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) | Lerato Mosile | Advocacy officer | Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace (CCJP) |
| | Melinda Bohloko | Regional Animator | Development for Peace Education (DPE) |
| | Mamotlatsi Mohlaoli | Advocacy officer | World Vision |
| | Mohau Maapesa | Senior program officer | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Manako Lenka | Officer | She hive |
| | Mamolibeli Ngakane | Minister of Gender | Gender officer |
| | Mamathe Mathe | Volunteer | Young Women Christian Association (YWCA) |
| | Mpho Marathane | Gender activist | Young Women Christian Association (YWCA) |
| | Peter Buyundo | M & E Manager | Skills Share |
| **Madagascar**<br>FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) | RAHETLAH Baovola | Substitut Général at Court of Appeal of Antananarivo | Ministry of Justice |
| | RAZAFINDRAMBOHO Samoela Hérédia | Cluster Governance and Peace | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | Robiarivony Josiane | President | REFMAP |
| | ANDRIANTARINJAKA Chirstophe | Cluster education | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | RAZAFINDRAKOTO Gaby | Secretary | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | VIA Celine Marie Yolande | Senator | Parliament |
| | Kidja Francine | Director General of Promotion of Women | Ministère de la Population, de la Protection Sociale et de la Promotion de la Femme (MPPSPF) |
| | Rahantasoa Lydia | President | Parliamentary Women Network (SOMAMI) |
| | Katucia Ibrahim Abdallah | Administrative Secretary | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | JEREMIA Angelié | | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | RAMAMBAZAFY Aline | Commercial Assistant | Representative of MAMELASOA Association |
| | RAJAOVELO Rivoharinjaka | Logistics Responsible | FEDERATION POUR LA PROMOTION FEMININE ET ENFINTINE (FPFE) |
| | RAZAFITOMBO ALibena Elisa | Senator (AMAMI) | Senate |
| | AKOURI Eden | Student | University |
| | Ialfine Papisy | Country Manager | Gender Links (GL) |
| | RAHOLIMALALA Josette | DPG | Ministère de la Population, de la Protection Sociale et de la Promotion de la Femme (MPPSPF) |
| **Malawi**<br>NGO Gender Coordinating Network | Barbra Banja | National assistant of women | National Association of Business Women (NABW) |
| | Florence Khonyongwa | M & E officer | Malawi Health Equity Network |
| | Andrew Mkandawire | Centre coordinator | Malawi Institute of Journalism |
| | Elizabeth Chambakata | Netwowk coordinator | Malawi Police |
| | Ruth Mthekwana | Program officer | Council for Non-Governmental Organizations (CMD) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Aubrey Chapuzika | M & E officer | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Victor Nyirenda | Assistant communications officer | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Chimwemwe Sakunda | Program officer | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Loveness Nkuniva | Student intern | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Ellen Howa | Project officer | Civil Society Network on Climate Change (CISONECC) |
| | Martha Mtenje | Deputy director | Department of Human Resource Management & Development (DHRMD) |
| | Alfred Chauwa | Journalist | Nyasa Times |
| | Amon Lukhehe | Director | Outreach Scout Foundation (OSF) |
| | Eddah Chavula | Assistant chief | Law Commission |
| | Thandizo Mphwiyo | Civic education coordinator | Centre for Human Rights and Rehabilitation (CHRR) |
| | Dan Mdechi | Driver | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | James Bavedi | Driver | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Gibson Banda | Driver | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Richard Mthunzi | Driver | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Michael Nhlema | Finance officer | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Chimwemwe Lufupfu | Finance intern | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Chikondi Kamphinda | Accountant assistance | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Loyce Mulaga | Administration assistant | Malawi Human Rights Resource Centre (MHRRC) |
| | Emma Khaliya | Chairperson | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Victor Maulidi | Driver | NGO Gender Coordinating Network (NGOGCN) |
| | Willex Chauluka | Driver | Civil Society Education Coalition (CSEC) |
| **Mauritius** Media Watch Organisation | Sivakoura Ramen | Member | Media Watch Organisation |
| | Florent Didier Marcel | Member | Rotary Club Tamarin |
| | Mary Coopan | Treasurer | Media Watch Organisation |
| | Sheistah Bundhoo | Program and finance officer | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Anushka Virahsawmy | Country manager | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Invulnerable Mireille | Auditor | Young Queer Alliance |
| | Yashvind Kumar Poteeram | Counselor | Ministry of Infrastructure |
| | Meethilesh Nashib | Director / Jurist | Forescue |
| | Sarah Belle | Chemistry student | University of France |
| | Zeim Gopee | Psychology | University of France |
| | Steffi Honiss | LLB student | University of France - Paris |
| | Azegen Mootoocurpen | Auditor | Media Watch Organisation |
| | Nesha Ramen | Alliance focal person | Media Watch Organisation |
| | Toshni Dabysing | LLB student | University of London |
| **Mozambique** Forum Mulher | Madalena Cidalia | President | AVVD |
| | Sheila Haudlhate | Coordinator | Forum Mulher member |
| | Rebeca Gomes | Coordinator | Mozambican Forum of Rural Women (FOMMUR) |
| | Aida Nhaveto | Getoa Decom | Forum Mulher member |
| | Mangia Mauacca | Activist | Forum Mulher member |
| | Osvalda Amelia Chichava | Activist | Forum Mulher member |
| | Dalila Moiceoine | Gender Coordinator | ASCHA |
| | Ivesa Diolene | Ommunications officer | ASCHA |
| | Fatima Nabime | Coordinator | Association of Widows and Single Mothers (AVIMAS) |
| | Maria Salome | Activist | Mwoti |
| | Abdulfatahe Ijo | Facilitator | AMORA |
| | Milagne Olaimbe | Activist | Forum Mulher member |
| | Aloimoladilo | Activist | Forum Mulher member |
| | Julie Nfuno | Coordinator | Forum Mulher member |
| | Ednizinda Nhaule | Official de campo | Kutenga |
| **Namibia** Namibia Association of Non-Governmental Organisations Trust | Eileen Louw | Finance Manager | Kings Daughters Organisation |
| | Sandie Tjaronda | Trust Chairperson | Namibia Association of Non-Governmental Organisations Trust (NANGOF) |
| | Princess Bock | Program Officer | Wings to Transcend |
| | Ceejay Rooi | M & E Officer | Rights not Rescue Trust (RnRT) |
| | Elzabe Gordon | M & E Officer | Kings Daughters Organisation |
| | Nazzira Klein | Intern | Wings to Transcend |
| | Chris Mugerwa | Network Manager | Namibia Networks of AIDS Service Organisations (NANASO) |
| | Rooi Karl | Admin Officer | Rights not Rescue Trust (RnRT) |
| | Reineck Rivelino | Law student | University of Namibia |
| | Frans Ugwanga | Programs Manager | Rights not Rescue Trust (RnRT) |
| | Gabes Hauwanga | IT Expert | Katutura Youth Enterprise Centre (KAYEC) |
| | Sarry Xoagus Eises | Country Manger | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Wilhencia Uiras | Programme Officer | Ministry of Gender |
| **Seychelles** Gender and Media Plus Association of Seychelles (GEM Plus) | Benjamin Vel | Freelance Consultant | Gender and Media Plus Association of Seychelles (GEM Plus) |
| | Ronny Arnephy | Commissioner for Social Education and Health | Citizens Engagement Platform Seychelles |
| | Monica Servina | Member of the Seychelles National Gender Management Team | Seychelles National Gender Management Team |
| | Mermedah Moustache | Member of the Seychelles National Gender Management Team | Seychelles National Gender Management Team |
| | Sharon Thelemaque | Coordinator | Gender and Media Plus Association of Seychelles (GEM Plus) |

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|---|---|---|---|
| **South Africa**<br>South African Women in Dialogue | Lubelihle Banda | Chairperson | African Diasporan Forum |
| | Susan Nkomo | Researcher and Gender Expert | South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID) |
| | Liegollo Phekho | Senior Research Fellow | South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID) |
| | Marthe Muller | Chief of Operations | South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID) |
| | Philip Molekoa | Advocacy & Researcher | South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) |
| **Swaziland**<br>Coordinating Assembly of Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO) | Hlobisile Dlamini | Programs manager | Swaziland Action Group Against Abuse (SWAGGA) |
| | Mzwakhe Khumalo | Legal communications | Nhlangano AIDS Training Information and Counseling Center (NATICC) |
| | Esther Dlamini | Member of Parliament | Parliament |
| | Phakama Shili | Human rights activist | Swaziland Concerned Civic Organisations (SCCO) |
| | Tenele Mthimkhulu | Programs officer | Save Our Souls Children Village |
| | Mphile Sivey | Programs officer | Co-ordinating Assembly of Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO) |
| | Ryan Britch | Development officer | Kwakha Indvodza |
| | Ncane Maziya | Gender officer | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Nsika Dlamini | Volunteer supervisor | International Mental Health Resource Services (IMERSE) |
| | Khosi Mkhonta | Development officer | Swaziland Fair Trade (SWIFT) |
| | Melusi Myeni | Gender officer | International Mental Health Resource Services (IMERSE) |
| | Dumisile Mavuso | Director | Diabetes Swaziland |
| | Nelisiwe Mamba | Legal aid officer | Human Rights Commission |
| | Tenele Mkabhela | Gender and advocacy officer | Co-ordinating Assembly of Non-Governmental Organisations (CANGO) |
| | Sihle Khumalo | Advocacy officer | Media Institute of Southern Africa (MISA) |
| **Tanzania**<br>Tanzania Gender Network Programme | Catherine Mhina | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Maulon Ruhaungosa | Legal Officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Upendo Ngaponda | Legal Officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Zainab Msuya | Gender activist | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Caroline Tiziba | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Praisegod Joseph | Gender legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Ramadhano Saibu | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Thompson Luchinga | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Clara Mhando | Researcher | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Kelvin Macha | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Speratus Kyanizi | Librarian | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Barack Tesha | Gender activist | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Lugano Mwakyina | Gender activist | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| | Edna Maponda | Legal officer | Tanzania Gender Network Programme (TGNP) |
| **Zambia**<br>Women and Law in Southern Africa - Zambia | Salome Nakazwe | Programe Cordinator | Women for Change |
| | Nathan Mungo | Programe Officer | Young Women Christian Association |
| | Mary Katimbe | WLSA - Board Member | Women and Law in Southern Africa |
| | Chileshe Nsama | Program Officer | Foundation for Democratic Process (FODEP) |
| | Priscilla Chileshe | Chairperson | Women and Law in Southern Africa |
| | Namatama Chinyama | Gender Analyst | Ministry of Gender |
| | Simon Kapilima | Asst . Director | Ministry of Gender |
| | Mwenya Nshitima | Programe Officer | Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA) |
| | Faggy Chibanga | Project Cordinator | Zambia National Women's Lobby Group (ZNWLG) |
| | Rudo Mooba | Programe Officer | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Matrine Hazyondo | Project Assistant | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Sangulukani Zulu | Research and Development Officer | Local Government Association of Zambia |
| | Monica Munachonga | Gender Consultant | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Khuta Hangoma | Women Participation Cordinator | Women and Law in Development in Africa |
| | Maube Siyanga | Head of communications | Non-Governmental Organizations Coordinating Council (NGOCC) |
| | Febby Maambo | Adminstration Officer | Zambia Association for Research and Development |
| | Cathrine Muwaya | Communication Officer | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Themba Mazyopa | Research and Documentation | Human Rights Commission |
| **Zimbabwe**<br>Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe | Edinah Masiyiwa | Executive director | Womens Action Group |
| | Caroline Mateha | Techinal advisor | Zimbabwe Gender Commission (ZGC) |
| | Faith Ururu | Student intern | Zimbabwe Gender Commission (ZGC) |
| | Lydia Madyirapanze | National coordinator | Forum for African Women Educationalists Zimbabwe (FAWEZI) |
| | Vimbai Ndonde | Legal Intern | Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) |
| | Rudo Tamangani | Finance and admin officer | Gender Links (GL) |
| | Rebecca Musimwa | Program manager | Law Society of Zimbabwe |
| | Karen Mukwasi | Program officer | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe (WCoZ) |
| | Kudzai Mushangahande | Intern | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe (WCoZ) |
| | Sally Ncube | National coordinator | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe (WCoZ) |
| | Violah Chidemo | Program assistant | Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe (WCoZ) |

# FOREWORD



It is my honour to write the foreword to the 2017 Southern African Development Community (SADC) Gender Barometer. Now in its eighth edition, the Barometer has been tracking progress towards gender equality in the region since the historic adoption of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development in 2008 in Johannesburg. As the SADC Heads of State and Government Summit comes back to South Africa in 2017, we have much to celebrate.

The Protocol that we as citizens of SADC fought for is the only SADC instrument so far to have been updated in line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs); African Union (AU) Agenda 2063 and Beijing Plus Twenty. It is also the only SADC Protocol that has a Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework (MERF), adopted by Gender Ministers at their meeting in Swaziland in June 2017. This resonates with the call by the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance for an "action and results" framework in the count down to 2030 - the deadline for the SDGs.

The 2008 Protocol had 28 targets to be achieved by 2015. As the "network of networks" that actively campaigned for the adoption and updating of the Protocol, the Alliance expressed disappointment that the Post-2015 SADC Protocol dropped all specific references to targets and timeframes. However, the MERF, with its 121 gender indicators at various levels (from input to impact) provides a solid basis for measuring progress. The more flexible nature of the Protocol also allows for variable progress, so that those who are further ahead can set timeframes earlier than 2030, which the Barometer takes as the *outside* deadline for the attainment of gender equality.

The revision of the Protocol also paved the way for Botswana to sign. We extend our sincere congratulations to the Government of Botswana for signing, and thank our colleagues in the Botswana Council of NGOS, BOCONGO (the Alliance focal network in Botswana) for their persistent lobbying. We also congratulate Mauritius for coming second in the 2017 Barometer ranking of countries according to the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI).This shows that despite the issues that Mauritius still has with the Protocol, efforts on the ground to attain gender equality are bearing fruit. We urge Mauritius to "find its way into the fold", as the last signatory to the Protocol.

This year is the first full assessment of progress in the region against the updated SADC Gender Protocol. This is why we have adopted the UN Women slogan - *"Planet 5050 by 2030, Step it Up for Gender Equality!"* We congratulate the decision by the Gender Ministers in Swaziland to step up efforts to gather data in the Post-2015 era, and to report more fully to the SADC Secretariat every two years. Nothing can be more effective than self- monitoring and assessment! At the same time, we believe it is important for civil society to continue its shadow monitoring, reflected in this Barometer.

Unique and new features include:

- The expanded *Citizen Score Card*, measuring 40 provisions of the Protocol, including new areas and new areas of emphasis, compared to 28 targets in the past. This assessment "by the people" is a unique and special feature of the Barometer: one that enhances ownership and participation. This M and E plays a crucial role in getting the word out on the SADC Gender Protocol, a process also measured through a revamped *knowledge quiz*.
- The *expanded SGDI*, now based on a basket of 36 indicators rather than 23, but also dropping nine of the original indicators that have been achieved or did not add much to our understanding of gender gaps in the region, offers a more accurate way of measuring progress. The SGDI encompasses unique Alliance tools, including the newly introduced *Gender and Rights Assessment (GRA)* for Constitutional and Legal Rights; questions from the Gender Progress Score (GPS) reported on last year; and findings from media monitoring.
- The *SADC Protocol@Work 2016 case studies*, (several from local government) on how this instrument is being used to effect change on the ground.
- The *multi-media formats* in which we plan to produce the Barometer, at country and regional level, including *a year-long social media campaign on the findings*.

The Alliance cherishes the space that has been accorded to us over the years by SADC Gender Ministers to work together. The inclusion of civil society in SADC gender processes has been a unique feature of the sector - one that has delivered results. As the representative of the gender sector in the SADC Council of NGOs (which is accredited to SADC) the Alliance will continue to make the case for inclusion. The *"SADC we want"* is one in which - to quote the SDG slogan - *no one is left behind!* This Barometer - timely, informative and engaging - reflects this vision.

***Malibongwe!***



**Emma Kaliya**
*Chairperson, Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance and Chairperson, FEMNET*

# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



The SADC Gender Protocol offers a better future for the next generation: Johannesburg students Mpumi Msibi, Pretty Skihonde, Nhanhla Mbulawa and Kayla Shetu. *Photo: Mona Hakimi*

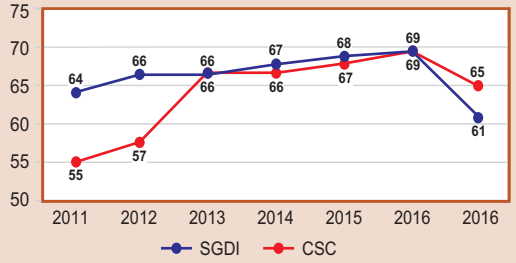
*The SADC region is less than two thirds where it needs to be to achieve gender equality by 2030.* This is the key message of the 2017 Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Gender Barometer: the inaugural audit of the status of women against the Post- 2015 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The new Protocol is aligned to the UN Agenda 2030 and the AU Agenda 2063 and Beijing Plus 20. All three frameworks aim to take forward the unfinished business of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by "leaving no one behind". The Barometer has been produced annually since 2009 by the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance, a "network of networks" that campaigned for the Protocol and now for its implementation. "Stepping it up for gender equality" - Planet 50/50 by 2030 - means adopting new measures and ways of measuring change in line with the SDGs and the SADC Gender Protocol Monitoring, Evaluation and Results Framework adopted by Gender Ministers in June 2017.

## Progress against the SGDI and CSC

Originally, the *SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI)* measured 23 empirical indicators in six sectors (governance, education and training, the economy, health, HIV and AIDS and the media). Post 2015 (see Table I). Nine indicators have been dropped as these have either been achieved or did not add much insight to progress. Twenty two new indicators have been added, giving a total of 36 indicators in nine sectors (constitutional and legal rights, governance, education and training, the economy, gender violence, health, HIV and AIDS, the media and climate change), all adjusted to a factor of 100. Twenty of these indicators are in the MERF and SDGs (the majority of gender indicators for which data is readily available).

The *Citizen Score Card (CSC)*, administered to a representative sample of women and men of different ages across the region, measures perceptions of the change that is taking place around them. Originally measuring the 28 targets of the SADC Gender Protocol to be achieved by 2015, the CSC has been expanded to include the 40 key provisions of the Gender Protocol (for which there are now no specific timeframes), but covering all ten sectors (as before). Unlike the SGDI, the CSC captures nuances that are not incorporated in the empirical data. For example, while the SGDI records enrolment levels for boys and girls, the CSC includes qualitative aspects like safety in schools and gender biases in curriculum. The CSC covers (in addition to the nine SGDI sectors) Peace and security for which there is no SGDI scores because on the unavailability of data. Like all indicators, both the SGDI and the CSC have limitations. However, read together, they provide a fair reflection of the progress and challenges.

**Figure I: Comparative analysis of overall SGDI and CSC scores**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure I tracks the SGDI and the CSC since 2011, the first year in which the Barometer had data for both. Typical of empirical measures, the SGDI moved slowly, from 64% to 69%, a five percentage point increase. In 2017, with the refined and expanded set of indicators, the SGDI dipped sharply, to 61%. The CSC on the other hand increased by 14 percentage points from 55% to 69%, but dipped to 65% in 2017. The graph shows that by 2017 the SGDI and the CSC had diverged again, but this time with the CSC higher than the SGDI by four percentage points. Both indices underscore the key message of the 2017 Barometer: *step it up for gender equality!*

| TABLE I: Analysis of the 2017 SGDI | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Indicators | Source | Type | Retained | New | Dropped | Rationale |
| **Constitutional and legal** | | | | | | |
| GRA of Constitutions and Laws | Peer review | Access | | 1 | | Most reliable measure of an area for which there are no quantitative measures |
| Sub total | | | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| **Governance** | | | | | | |
| % women in parliament | MER/ SDG | Access | 1 | | | Data readily available |
| % women in local government | MER/ SDG | Access | 1 | | | |
| % women in cabinet | MER/ SDG | Voice | 1 | | | |
| % women in top party posts | MER | Access | | 1 | | Help to deepen our understanding of gender and governance, especially political parties. |
| % women judges | MER | Access | | 1 | | |
| % women in Electoral Management Bodies | MER | Choice | | 1 | | |
| % women sources on political topics | Media | Voice | | 1 | | Strong proxy indicator for voice |
| Sub total | | | 3 | 4 | 0 | |
| **Education** | | | | | | |
| Secondary school enrolment rates for girls vs boys | MER/ SDG | Access | | 1 | | Enrolment rates are the proportion of boys and girls, women and men in school, compared to total. This is a more revealing indicator than simply enrolment rates. |
| Secondary school completion rates for girls vs boys | MER/ SDG | Access | | 1 | | |
| Tertiary enrolment rates for women vs men | MER /SDG | Access | | 1 | | |
| % women in tertiary education | MER/SDG | Access | | 1 | | As gender parity has largely been achieved at primary and secondary level, it is important to push the envelope. |
| % women teachers in secondary schools | MER | Access | | 1 | | While gender parity has been achieved or exceeded at primary level, the secondary level is one in which gender gaps still need to be addressed. This is also true at tertiary level but data is insufficient across all countries to use this indicator. |
| % women in STEM subjects in tertiary education | MER/SDG | Choice | | | | STEM has a key bearing on women's career choices. |
| Primary school enrolment girls vs boys | | | | | 1 | Primary and secondary school enrolment have been removed from the SGDI as these have now largely been achieved. |
| Secondary school enrolment rates for girls | | | | | 1 | |
| **Sub total** | | | 0 | 5 | 2 | |
| **Economic justice** | | | | | | |
| % women in economic decision-making | MER /SDG | Voice | 1 | | | This is a good proxy indicator for voice. |
| Length of maternity leave (weeks) | Old SGDI | Choice | 1 | | | This is a good indicator of appreciation for the multiple roles of women. |
| % who agree or strongly agree that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning | Attitude Survey | Choice | | 1 | | This is a good proxy indicator for choice. |
| % women sources on economic topics | Media | Voice | | 1 | | This is a good proxy indicator for voice. |
| Maternity leave benefits (% of wages paid) | | | | | 1 | Data is unreliable (especially from the private sector). |
| Labour force participation -women | | | | | 1 | Tells us very little about the extent of participation. |
| Unemployment - women | | | | | 1 | Data unreliable |
| Women in non-agricultural paid labour (% of labour force) | | | | | 1 | The majority of women in Africa are either in the agriculture sector or the informal sector. |
| **Sub total** | | | 2 | 2 | 4 | |

**NEW SGDI**

has

**36**

indicators

**UP**

from

**23**

indicators

**14** indicators **retained**

**22** **new** indicators

**9** indicators **dropped**

| Indicators | Source | Type | Retained | New | Dropped | Rationale |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **GBV** | | | | | | |
| % who say if a woman wears a short skirt she is asking to be raped. | Attitude Survey | Choice | | 1 | | As only seven countries in the region have undertaken comprehensive GBV prevalence surveys, questions from the attitude survey (that forms part of this, and has been administered widely across the region) have been used as proxy indicators for GBV. Attitudes are a major driver of GBV in the region. |
| % who say if a woman works she should give her money to her husband | Attitude Survey | Control | | 1 | | |
| % who say if a man beats a woman it shows that he loves her | Attitude Survey | Control | | 1 | | |
| % who say if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her | Media | Control | | 1 | | |
| **Sub total** | | | **0** | **4** | **0** | |
| **SRHR** | | | | | | |
| Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000) | MER/ SDG | Access | 1 | | | Readily available data |
| Skilled attendance at birth (per 100,000) | MER/ SDG | Access | 1 | | | Readily available data |
| Contraceptive coverage | MER SDG | Choice | 1 | | | Major bearing on women's choice |
| % coverage with improved sanitation | MER/ SDG | Access | | 1 | | Major bearing on women's practical needs and improving family health. |
| % who say a woman should be able to choose to terminate a pregnancy in the first three months of her pregnancy | Attitude Survey | Choice | | 1 | | Strong SRHR rights indicator; moving beyond practical to more strategic measures. |
| **Sub total** | | | **3** | **2** | **0** | |
| **HIV and AIDS** | | | | | | |
| Comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS | Old SDGI | Choice | 1 | | | Readily available data |
| Women who are HIV positive as a % of total | Old SDGI | Control | 1 | | | Readily available data |
| MTCT coverage | MER/ SDG | Access | 1 | | | Readily available data |
| % of those living with AIDS who are on ARV treatment | MER/ SDG | Access | | 1 | | Important bearing on care work. |
| % who say a woman has the right to insist on a man using a condom. | Attitude Survey | Control | | 1 | | Strong SRHR rights indicator; moving beyond practical to more strategic measures. |
| **Sub total** | | | **3** | **2** | **0** | |
| **Media** | | | | | | |
| % women media management positions | Media | Control | 1 | | | Important indicator of women's ability to influence change |
| % women images | Media | Choice | 1 | | | Important indicator of visibility, though needs to be accompanied by qualitative analysis of messaging. |
| % women sources | Media | Voice | 1 | | | Powerful indicator of voice |
| % women in the Board of directors | | | | | 1 | Data unreliable |
| % Female staff in institutions of higher learning | | | | | 1 | Achieved |
| %women students in media studies | | | | | 1 | Achieved |
| **Sub total** | | | **3** | **0** | **3** | |
| **Climate change** | | | | | | |
| % women sources on gender and climate change | Media | Voice | | 1 | | Proxy indicator for voice. |
| % women in climate change decision-making | Old SDGI | Control | | 1 | | Important indicator of women's ability to influence change. |
| **Sub total** | | | **0** | **2** | | |
| **Total** | | | **14** | **22** | **9** | |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

**How the SGDI and CSC work**

There have been several attempts globally and in Africa to develop indexes for measuring progress towards attaining gender equality. Each of these is fraught with challenges. Running through all these challenges is the difficulty of obtaining a wide enough variety of indicators to capture the many facets of gender equality or the lack of it.

The revamped SGDI is a paradigm shift on measuring gender equality in the region. The previous SGDI (like other gender- related indexes) drew heavily on political participation, education and labour related indicators because the data is easily available. However such indicators did not adequately capture the more rights-based issues, such as voice; agency; the right to make decisions about one's body; safety and security.

An expert group meeting held in March 2017 highlighted the need to adopt a new index that would result in 'better data for better decisions" to close all gender gaps by 2030. As reflected in Table I, the new SGDI is an innovative mix of empirical data and quantitative indicators that measure some of the more hard-to-measure areas. The sources of data include:

- Three indicators from the original SGDI that are unique to this monitoring.
- 20 indicators from the MERF/ SDGs for which there is readily available and reliable data.
- Six indicators from the Gender Progress Score (Attitude Survey) that are powerful indicators for voice and choice. The most important use of the survey is as proxy indicators for GBV, for which there is still no reliable data across the whole region. This is clearly not ideal, but it is an important start.
- Six indicators from media monitoring that are strong proxy indicators of voice. These supplement indicators in areas such as governance and the economy, providing a more nuanced way of measuring progress in these areas.
- The *Gender and Rights Assessment Score Card*, a peer review mechanism that Alliance networks across the region contributed to, in order to assess the all-important Constitutional and Legal sector, for which previously there was no score.

The index has 36 indicators across nine sectors of the Protocol. An Index for peace and security could not be obtained due to the unavailability of data.

These have been categorised into four key areas of measuring progress on achieving gender equality; access, voice, choice and control. 15 of the 36 indicators are on access, followed by choice (10), voice (7) and control with 4 indicators.

**Table II: CSC Sample 2017**

| Country | Female | Male | Total submissions |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 269 | 65 | 334 |
| Botswana | 174 | 92 | 266 |
| DRC | 114 | 213 | 327 |
| Lesotho | 198 | 200 | 398 |
| Madagascar | 331 | 212 | 543 |
| Malawi | 98 | 113 | 211 |
| Mauritius | 210 | 255 | 465 |
| Mozambique | 186 | 151 | 337 |
| Namibia | 104 | 63 | 167 |
| Seychelles | 38 | 20 | 58 |
| South Africa | 275 | 152 | 427 |
| Swaziland | 172 | 81 | 253 |
| Tanzania | 248 | 229 | 477 |
| Zambia | 160 | 63 | 223 |
| Zimbabwe | 278 | 274 | 552 |

The CSC has been running for eight years now and it is a key accountability tool. At village level workshops, when the Protocol is being explained, participants are asked to rate how their governments are doing. The CSC gives ordinary men and women the opportunity to hold their government accountable. It also ensures that women and men engage critically with the provisions of the Protocol.

The sample size for the 2017 is substantially lower compared to previous years due to financial constraints that have impacted on Alliance work at country level. Still (see Table II), Alliance members collected 5038 score cards (57% for women, 43% men.)



Many **RED** numbers **(less** than **30%)**

Few **GREEN** numbers **(50%** or more)

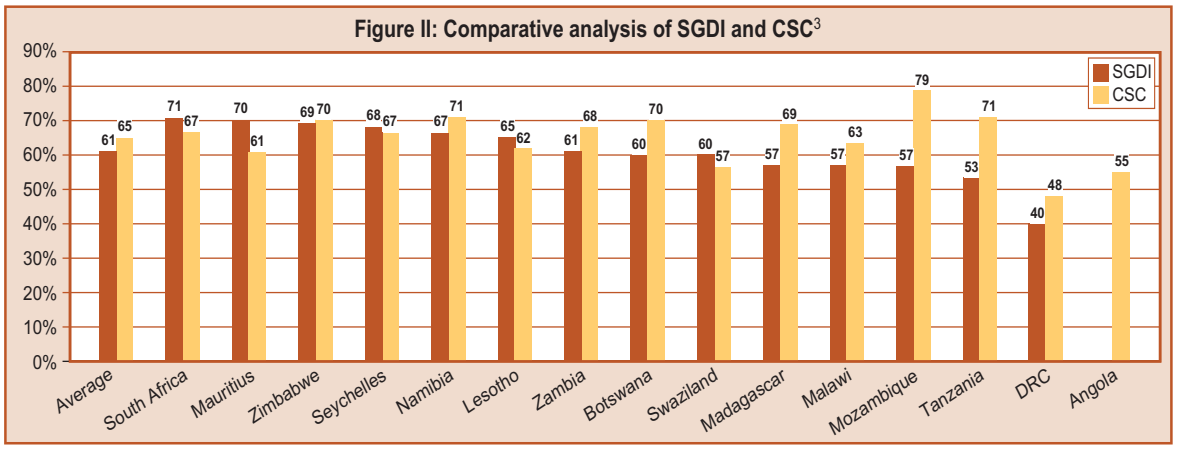
**Table III: Key Indicators of the status of women in SADC countries in 2017**

| % Women | ANGOLA | BOTSWANA | DRC | LESOTHO | MADAGASCAR | MALAWI | MAURITIUS | MOZAMBIQUE | NAMIBIA | SEYCHELLES | SOUTH AFRICA | SWAZILAND | TANZANIA | ZAMBIA | ZIMBABWE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Constitutional and legal** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| GRA of Constitutions and Laws | 56 | 68 | 54 | 57 | 56 | 73 | 74 | 68 | 76 | 61 | 64 | 40 | 53 | 62 | 72 |
| **Governance** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| % women in parliament | 37 | 10 | 9 | 25 | 21 | 17 | 12 | 40 | 41 | 21 | 42 | 6 | 37 | 18 | 31 |
| % women in local government | n/ap | 20 | 6 | 49 | 8 | 11 | 31 | 36 | 48 | n/ap | 38 | 12 | 34 | 6 | 16 |
| % women in top party posts | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 27 | 17 | 17 | 17 | 17 | 0 | 41 | n/ap | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| % women in electoral bodies | 24 | 14 | 31 | 40 | n/a | 30 | 53 | 13 | 40 | 20 | 20 | 25 | 43 | 22 | 38 |
| % women in cabinet | 22 | 13 | 11 | 22 | 20 | 11 | 12 | 29 | 22 | 23 | 42 | 26 | 32 | 26 | 12 |
| % women judges | 37 | 24 | 6 | 36 | 88 | 26 | 50 | 30 | 15 | 11 | 34 | 20 | 35 | 49 | 48 |
| % women sources on political topics | n/a | 17 | 5 | 7 | 13 | 26 | 8 | 20 | 19 | 13 | 17 | 18 | 23 | 11 | 14 |
| **Education** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secondary school enrolment rates for girls | 23 | 43 | 41 | 45 | 32 | 36 | 86 | 19 | 65 | 81 | 88 | 41 | 31 | 43 | 44 |
| Secondary school completion rates girls | 15 | 87 | 34 | 50 | 37 | n/a | 90 | 21 | 63 | 100 | n/a | 50 | 32 | 51 | 67 |
| % women in tertiary education | 8 | 28 | 4 | 12 | 5 | 1 | 42 | 5 | 10 | 20 | 23 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 8 |
| % women teachers in secondary schools | 48 | 53 | 12 | 56 | 44 | 20 | 59 | 21 | 50 | 62 | 56 | 49 | 28 | n/a | 48 |
| % women in STEM subjects in tertiary education | 34 | 46 | 17 | 36 | 32 | n/a | 41 | 22 | n/a | 23 | 46 | 31 | 22 | n/a | 28 |
| **Economic justice** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| % women in economic decision-making | 29 | 29 | 21 | 30 | 17 | 13 | 10 | 25 | 33 | 33 | 25 | 20 | 14 | 23 | 35 |
| Length of maternity leave (weeks) | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 14 | 8 | 12 | 12 | 14 | 16 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 14 |
| % women sources on economic topics | n/a | 5 | 8 | 28 | 16 | 18 | 9 | 18 | 18 | 22 | 17 | 20 | 20 | 15 | 19 |
| % who agree or strongly agree that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning | 43 | 59 | 66 | 70 | 75 | 64 | 85 | 68 | 63 | 42 | 57 | 54 | 59 | 63 | 52 |
| **GBV** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| % who say if a woman works she should give her money to her husband | 35 | 34 | 54 | 86 | 37 | 40 | 15 | 52 | 23 | 38 | 39 | 38 | 55 | 29 | 29 |
| % who say if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her | 38 | 34 | 64 | 55 | 55 | 42 | 31 | 48 | 33 | 46 | 39 | 37 | 45 | 34 | 30 |
| % who say if a man beats a woman it shows that he loves her | 29 | 26 | 24 | 46 | 23 | 34 | 11 | 48 | 25 | 58 | 34 | 29 | 35 | 20 | 22 |
| % who say if a woman wears a short skirt she is asking to be raped. | 43 | 36 | 39 | 63 | 40 | 39 | 15 | 56 | 40 | 57 | 40 | 36 | 75 | 33 | 27 |
| **SRHR** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000) | 477 | 129 | 693 | 487 | 353 | 634 | 53 | 489 | 265 | n/a | 138 | 389 | 398 | 224 | 443 |
| Skilled attendance at birth (per 100) | 47 | 100 | 16 | 76 | 50 | 74 | 41 | 28 | 75 | n/a | 94 | 81 | 50 | 64 | 86 |
| Contraceptive coverage | 18 | 53 | 20 | 60 | 40 | 59 | 76 | 12 | 56 | 41 | 60 | 66 | 34 | 49 | 67 |
| % who say a woman should be able to choose to terminate a pregnancy in the first three months of her pregnancy | 55 | 42 | 27 | 54 | 34 | 39 | 54 | 59 | 43 | 58 | 54 | 39 | 80 | 32 | 36 |
| % coverage with improved sanitation | 39 | 62 | 20 | 44 | 10 | 44 | 93 | 24 | 34 | 100 | 73 | 58 | 24 | 31 | 39 |
| **HIV and AIDS** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Women who are HIV positive as a % of total | 59 | 55 | 59 | 59 | 46 | 59 | 28 | 58 | 60 | 42 | 60 | 58 | 61 | 52 | 58 |
| PMTCT coverage | 44 | 95 | 70 | 66 | 3 | 84 | 97 | 80 | 95 | 100 | 95 | 95 | 84 | 84 | 84 |
| Comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS | 14 | 97 | 27 | 81 | 3 | 73 | 96 | 66 | 90 | 100 | 87 | 95 | 71 | 86 | 82 |
| % of those living with AIDS who are on ARV treatment | 29 | 78 | 33 | 42 | 3 | 61 | 100 | 53 | 69 | 100 | 48 | 67 | 53 | 63 | 62 |
| % who say a woman has the right to insist on a man using a condom. | 45 | 62 | 66 | 80 | 61 | 53 | 78 | 64 | 72 | 62 | 60 | 72 | 79 | 72 | 71 |
| **Media** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| % women media management positions | n/a | 32 | 17 | 53 | 34 | 39 | 43 | 31 | 40 | 24 | 35[1] | 44 | 24 | 37 | 10[2] |
| % women sources | n/a | 28 | 6 | 21 | 21 | 21 | 10 | 25 | 19 | 28 | 20 | 18 | 22 | 19 | 24 |
| % women images | n/a | 34 | 15 | 21 | 29 | 26 | 30 | 24 | 27 | 50 | 27 | 28 | 10 | 25 | 30 |
| **Climate change** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| % women in climate change decision-making | 33 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 33 | 8 | 31 | 17 | 24 | 40 | 47 | 21 | 8 | 21 | 44 |
| % women sources on gender and climate change | n/a | 7 | 21 | 38 | 23 | 14 | 20 | 30 | 10 | 55 | 41 | 22 | 23 | 30 | 39 |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*
Numbers in red have failed to reach 30%; Numbers in black have reached 30% but failed to reach 50%. Numbers in green have reached the 50% target.

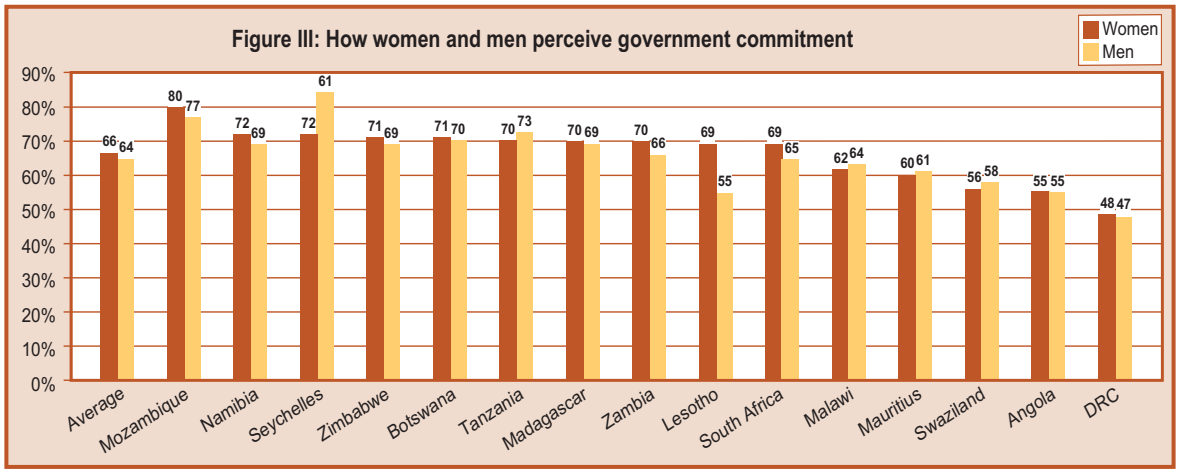
n/ap means not applicable.
n/a means not available.

[1] 2010 data used due to inadequacy 2015 was not sufficient enough.
[2] 2010 data as the sample for 2015 was not sufficient enough.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure II shows that with an SGDI of 71%, South Africa comes first, followed by Mauritius, Zimbabwe, Seychelles and Namibia. Mozambique, Tanzania and DRC come lowest. South Africa, Mauritius and Seychelles are the only countries with higher SGDI than CSC scores (i.e. citizens are more skeptical than what the numbers suggest). Mozambique has the highest CSC. Tanzania also has a larger gap between the CSC and SGDI, i.e citizens are much more optimistic than what the numbers suggest. At least six countries (South Africa, Zimbabwe, Mauritius, Namibia, Lesotho and Seychelles) have a baseline over 66% for the SDGI which is two thirds of the 2030 target .The rest range from 61% to 40%. At 40% DRC is the only country in the region with an SGDI score below 50%. As media monitoring did not take place in Angola in 2015 due to financial constraints, this excludes six indicators for the country, making it impossible to award an SGDI score in 2017. Angola scored 55% in the CSC.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure III provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC. It shows that overall there is no significant gap in the scores of women (66%) and men (64%). Women scored their governments higher than men in Mozambique, Namibia, Africa, Namibia, Seychelles, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Zambia, Lesotho, South Africa and DRC. The opposite is true in Tanzania, Malawi, Mauritius and Swaziland, Lesotho, and Mauritius. The more optimistic scores by women underlines the progress achieved in the MDG era with women's issues becoming more visible in the developmental agenda.

**SDGI ranking**

1. SA
2. Mauritius
3. Zimbabwe
4. Seychelles
5. Namibia
6. Lesotho
7. Zambia
8. Botswana
9. Swaziland
10. Madagascar
11. Malawi
12. Mozambique
13. Tanzania
14. DRC

(Angola, insufficient data to rank)

[3] Angola does not have an SGDI because the media monitoring, accounting for six of the 36 indicators, did not take place in this country. Where Angola data is complete for the country, this is included in the sector analyses.

**Highest sector score**

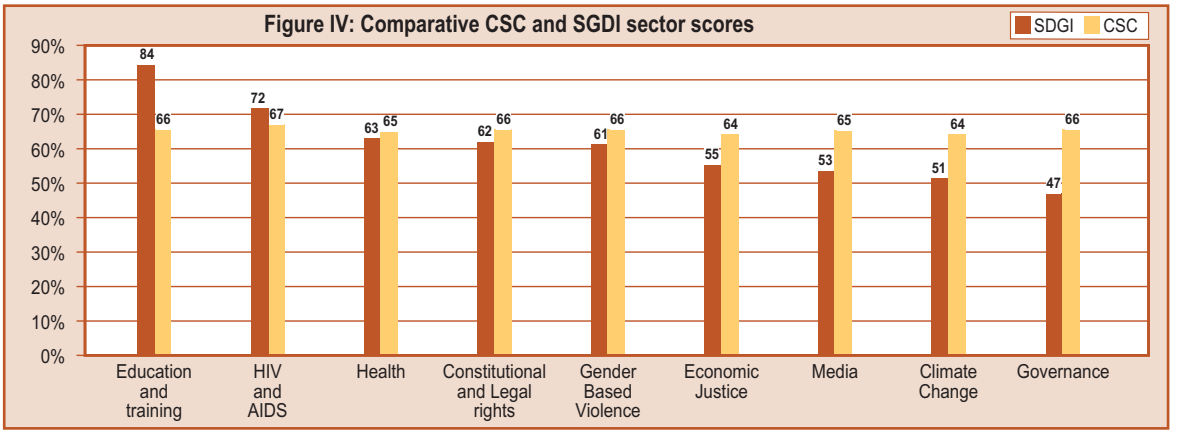
**SGDI**
Education
**84%**

**CSC**
HIV & AIDS
**72%**

**Lowest sector score**

**SGDI**
Governance
**47%**

**CSC**
Climate change, Economic Justice, Peace and Security
**64%**




*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Figure IV compares the SGDI (empirical scores) and CSC (perception) scores in the nine sectors that have both these scores. While the scores are constructed in different ways, the trends are interesting, as they reflect the extent to which perceptions and reality either converge or diverge. The graph is sorted in descending order according to SGDI scores.

SGDI sector scores range from Education and Training (84%) followed by HIV and AIDS (66%), Health (63%), Constitutional and Legal Rights (62%), GBV (61%), Economic Justice (55%), Media (53%), Climate Change (51%) and Governance (47%).

The CSC scores are more even. At 67%, the HIV and AIDS CSC has the highest score. This reflects the positive perceptions engendered by prevention, treatment and care campaigns over the period that have resulted in a decline in new rates of infection as well as constitutional reviews across the region. Constitutional and legal rights (66%) and Education (66%) closely follow. This may be attributed to the constitutional reviews and the achievement of gender parity in school enrolment in primary and secondary school by most SADC countries. Climate Change, Economic Justice and Peace and Security are all tied on the last position. This is consistent with the poor representation of women in these sectors.

The biggest gap between the two scores is for the Governance sector. The SGDI ranks Governance last (47%) while at 66% the CSC score for Governance is number two in the region. This is a stark reminder of the need to consider both quantitative and qualitative evidence in assessing progress. SADC countries have done well recently in increasing the number of women in key government positions but the efforts still fall short of the 5050 target.



Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance Members at the inaugural meeting of the Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights Cluster led by SAFAIDS and supported by AmplifyChange, Harare 2016. *Photo: Lucia Makamure*

## SADC GENDER PROTOCOL MILESTONES

- **2005:** Audit of achievements against the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development leads to a paper - "Rationale for the Elevation of the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development to a Protocol" - the most legally binding of SADC instruments. Civil society organisations for the Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance.
- **2005-2008:** Alliance members form part of a Task Team constituted by the SADC Gender Unit to prepare drafting notes for a legal team, comment on and canvass seven drafts of the Protocol before its final presentation to Heads of State.
- **August 2008:** 13 out of 15 HOS Sign the SADC Gender Protocol, a unique sub regional instrument that brings together and enhances existing commitments to gender equality through 28, time bound targets aligned to the 2015 deadline for MDG 3. Alliance members launch a campaign to get Mauritius and Botswana to sign.
- **August 2009:** The Alliance launches the SADC Gender Protocol Baseline Barometer - a key tracking tool assessing progress of 15 countries against the 28 targets of the Protocol - http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/sadc-research.
- **August 2009:** Alliance launches the "Roadmap to Equality" - strategies and lessons learned in the campaign; key provisions of the Protocol in 23 languages; radio spots; a DVD; knowledge and attitude quiz; village level meetings to popularise the Protocol that have since reached 15,000 citizens directly and thousands more indirectly.
- **2009/2010:** Alliance devises a Citizen Score Card that is used to gauge citizen perceptions of government progress and is administered at village meetings.
- **August 2010:** Progress Barometer and Alliance annual meeting. Alliance gets better organised into country and theme clusters, each leading on a key issue, e.g. GBV, economic justice.
- **August 2011:** SADC Gender Protocol goes into force with South Africa becoming the ninth country to ratify the Protocol giving the two thirds critical mass required. With data from 15 countries on 23 indicators, the 2011 Barometer introduces the SADC Gender and Development Index - see http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/sadc-sgdi. Alliance forms a Think Tank to guide the work of the Alliance in between annual meetings.
- **September 2011:** The Alliance collaborates with the SADC Gender Unit on a tool and process for aligning national gender action plans to the targets of the SADC Gender Protocol, and costing their implementation. Namibia pilots this process - see http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/implementation.
- **November 2011:** Intense lobbying for an Addendum to the Protocol on Gender and Climate Change linked to COP17.
- **February 2013:** Gender ministers meeting in Maputo ahead of the 57th meeting of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) commit to take forward the Addendum. Alliance releases a progressive statement on gender justice concerns in the region. Mounts a presence at the CSW and produces a daily newsletter; generates debate on the post 2015 agenda.
- **March-April 2013:** Twelve country summits and a regional summit lead to 672 case studies being gathered on the SADC Protocol@Work from NGOs, CSO, Faith-Based Organisations and
- **August 2013:** Alliance annual meeting ahead of the SADC Heads of State Summit in Malawi with a key focus on implementation, the 50/50 campaign, gender and climate change and Coalition Building. Round table meeting with the new Southern African head of UNWOMEN, Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka. Study visit to the Gauteng *Women Demand Action Now* Alliance networking meeting sparks ideas for strengthening country, provincial and district-level networking.
- **August 2013:** Coalition building and networking at the regional level through the SADC Heads of state summit held in Malawi in August 2013. The regional barometer was officially launched then.
- **August 2013:** Production of the fifth edition of the SADC Gender Protocol Regional Barometer, tracking progress against the 28 targets. The 2013 barometer had in-depth analysis of implementation of the SADC Gender protocol by the governments and civil society.
- **December 2013:** 12 country barometer reports; 9 launches. SADC Gender Protocol village level workshops in 10 countries through the country networks resulting in 72 meetings.
- **By October 2013:** Strengthening the country focal networks through mapping of country thematic clusters and championing resulting in 11 country level meetings and 82 signed up champions.
- **May 2014:** SADC Gender Protocol@Work summit preceded by 12 national summits with a special category on the Faith Based Organisations (FBOS).
- **March 2014:** Alliance participates in the 58th Commission on the Status of Women.
- **July 2014:** Gender ministers meeting in Malawi ahead of the 35thth HOS Summit in Harare in August, followed by the SADC CNGO civil society forum in Harare. Alliance makes the case for a strong post 2015 gender agenda.
- **August 2014:** 35th SADC Heads of State Summit in Victoria Falls; Alliance lobbies for review of the SADC Gender Protocol.
- **March 2015:** The Alliance participate at CSW 59 with a focus on the targets and indicators for the SDGs and the SADC Gender Protocol Post-2015
- **May 2015:** The SADC Executive Secretary requests the Alliance together with UN Women to work with the SADC Secretariat as technical partners in the review process.
- **May-June 2015:** The Alliance holds 13 national SADC Protocol @ work summits.
- **August 2015:** The Alliance launched the sixth edition of the SADC Gender Protocol Barometer in Botswana on the eve of the 35th SADC HOS Summit in Gaborone at the SADC Protocol@Work summit.
- **October 2015:** The Alliance participates actively at the first review process of the Protocol together with UN Women, governments and the SADC secretariat.
- **March 2016:** The Alliance holds two side events on localising SDGs through the SADC Gender Protocol at the 60th session of the Commission on the Status of Women.
- **June 2016:** The Alliance participates at the SADC Gender Ministers meeting which adopted the reviewed Protocol.
- **June/July 2016:** The Alliance holds country level consultations on the Post 2015 Protocol reaching 1224 people.
- **August 2016:** The Alliance launches the eighth edition of the SADC Gender Protocol Barometer in Swaziland ahead of the 36th SADC HOS Summit.
- **November 2016:** The Alliance holds eight national SADC Gender Protocol Summits producing 737 case studies.
- **November 2016:** The Alliance reviews M and E tools for the SADC Gender Protocol.
- **December 2016:** The Alliance joins the social media platform, Twitter @GenderProtocol.
- **January 2017:** The Alliance joins the Women's March Global.
- **March 2017:** The Alliance participates at the 61st session of the Commission on the Status of Women.
- **May 2017:** The Alliance works with EASSI to produce the pilot East Africa Community Barometer.
- **July 2017:** The Alliance finalises the reviewed SGDI which has 36 empirical indicators.
- **June/July 2017:** The Alliance holds gender and rights scoring meetings in 15 countries giving a baseline score for the indicator on Constitutional and Legal Rights.
- **August 2017:** The Alliance will launch the ninth edition of the SADC Gender Protocol Barometer in Johannesburg, South Africa ahead of the 37th SADC HOS Summit.

## Table IV. Summary of progress and challenges 2017

| Red lights | Green lights |
|---|---|
| **Implementation** | |
| The SADC Gender Unit has been subsumed under the directorate of Gender and Social and Human Development. | SADC has adopted a Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework to implement the SADC Gender Protocol with 82 indicators. |
| Knowledge of the revised Protocol is at 47% compared to 46% score of 2016. | Nine SADC countries (Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) have signed the revised Protocol. |
| | Botswana signed the Protocol for the first time in May 2017. |
| | Local government level implementation of the Protocol spans 442 councils in the SADC region with over 3 billion dollars committed to gender responsive budgeting. |
| The Gender gap in SADC is still very high with an SGDI average score of 61%. | The Alliance has reviewed the SADC Gender and Development Index in line with the Post 2015 Protocol giving a total of 36 empirical indicators. The index now covers all sectors of the Protocol. |
| | The Alliance reviewed monitoring tools for the Protocol knowledge and citizens perception in line with the Post 2015 Protocol. |
| | The Alliance is gearing up to establish the Young Women's Alliance ahead of the 2017 SADC Heads of States Summit. The SGDI places gender progress in the region at 61 while the citizens rated their governments at 65. |
| **Constitutional and legal rights** | |
| In July 2017, the Botswana Parliament rejected a motion for the country to craft a new Constitution to replace the 1966 independence one. The crafting of a new constitution would have helped in addressing some of the shortcomings in the country's current constitution in relation to women's rights and gender equality and would also have helped in aligning the country's constitution with the SADC Gender Protocol and other international women's rights instruments. | In Malawi, Parliament passed a constitutional amendment in February 2017 to make 18 years the marriageable age. This brings the 2015 Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations Act which put the marriageable age at 18 in line with the Constitution. |
| | In Mozambique, the Government in 2016 unveiled a National Strategy to end child marriages by 2019. |
| | In 2017, Madagascar passed an amendment to its Nationality Law, making it possible for women to pass their nationality to their children. Previously, only men could pass their nationality to their children. |
| | The Government of Zimbabwe proposed mandatory sentences for rape in July 2017. 60 years' imprisonment will be imposed on people convicted of raping children below the age of 12 and the disabled, and 40 years would be imposed in all other cases of rape. If adopted, these would be the highest prescribed mandatory sentences for rape in the SADC region. |
| **Governance** | |
| Seychelles significantly dropped in the global rankings of women parliamentarians from 4th in 2016 to 87th position after the September 2016 elections that saw a change in political party leadership and formation of a coalition government. | This 2017 chapter presents progress made in women's effective political participation and representation in elected leadership at local and national levels, and also in political parties and presidents of parliament. |
| The drop in women's representation experienced in Seychelles as a result of change in political party leadership and the formation of the coalition government, emphasises that political commitment to electoral systems reforms and the adoption of quotas especially within political parties is essential to achieve women's equal and effective participation in decision-making. | "Special measures" through quotas and policy reforms that adopt proportional representation and mixed electoral systems remain ideal for increasing women's representation in political leadership from local to national levels of governance. |
| The average women's representation in parliament remains at 27%, 23% in cabinet and 24% in Local government. | Analysis shows that countries with a PR or mixed system and quotas have double the percentage of women (36% to 42% at local and national levels) compared to 9% to 17% in the FPTP system (with no quota). |
| Equal representation and the effective participation of women in leadership and decision-making remains low for most countries even with renewed commitments by SADC Heads of States and Governments in 2016. | South Africa moves two places up from 8th to 10th in the top 10 global rankings of women parliamentarians. At 27% women in parliament, SADC maintains a four percentage lead over the global average of 23% and is 3% ahead of the Sub-Saharan Africa average of 24%. |
| **Education and training** | |
| Levels of literacy amongst women older than 25 is much lower than women and men below 25 years old. | The expanded definition of education to include all forms of education extends the notion of education beyond classrooms and focuses on life-long learning as opposed to a stipulated period in the formal schooling system. |
| STEM subject graduations for women and men are very low compared to enrolment for both. | International, continental and SADC instruments are in place to improve the quality of education and to provide all citizens with access to diverse educational opportunities. |
| Primary education is not adequately preparing learners for higher levels of education. | Almost all countries in SADC have achieved gender parity in primary school enrolment. |
| Very few teachers at secondary level are trained amongst both women and men and this is impacting on completion rates at secondary and tertiary levels. | Most SADC countries have reached gender parity in enrolment at secondary school level. |
| Teenage pregnancy often results in young girls stopping their education because of punitive measures in countries and at schools. | Part of SADC's vision is to develop a region where science and technology drive sustainable social and economic development. |
| There is inadequate water provision in most schools in SADC resulting in inadequate sanitation and hygiene. | |
| Gender based violence has significant financial, time and emotional cost on male and female learners. | |



| Red lights | Green lights |
|---|---|
| To measure curriculum and stereotypes there needs to be clear baseline data and indicators for measuring progress. | |
| The compulsory length of schooling is too low in most countries. | |
| Economic growth is severely compromised low completion rates at secondary and tertiary level. | |
| The demographic dividend will not occur if the region does not curb its burgeoning youth population. | |
| **Productive resources** | |
| Women in SADC remain underrepresented in economic decision making and paid less than men. They also have limited access to economic resources. | The Sustainable Development Goals, Africa Union Agenda 2063, SADC Gender Protocol and the SADC Industrialisation Strategy have robust provisions on gender justice and women's economic empowerment. |
| Key economic indicators in the region point towards growing inequality in the 15 SADC countries. | The new provisions of the Revised Protocol make a strong link to the global Post-2015 Agenda's pledge to "leave no one behind." |
| Women have experienced a large decline in labour force participation in the past two years and women's unemployment rate remains higher than men's in most countries. | The new SADC Gender Protocol Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting (MER) Framework has 17 indicators to track progress on economic justice and women's empowerment, however data is not readily available for all indicators. |
| Women predominate in the services sector of employment, especially in education, health and social work. | |
| The gender pay gap in SADC is higher than the global average of 23% with highest gap in Mauritius at 57%. | |
| **Gender Based Violence** | |
| Seven countries have undertaken the GBV Baseline Studies (Mauritius, Botswana, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Lesotho). | 11 out of the fifteen countries have put in place domestic violence and thirteen have sexual assault legislation. |
| The SADC MER framework adopted nine of the 42 indicators in the GBV Indicators Study, however, of the nine adopted indicators, none measures the prevalence of gender based violence. | 14 countries have legislation on sexual harassment and all countries have laws on human trafficking. |
| | All the countries offer some form of services to survivors of GBV, however, the main challenge remains that the service providers, are mainly under-resourced NGOs. |
| | 15 countries offer comprehensive treatment including PEP to survivors of violence. |
| | Botswana has set the pace by adopting the study as monitoring tool as they are currently doing a follow up study five years after the 2012 baseline. |
| | Botswana and Mauritius have expanded the survey to include men's experiences of violence. |
| | Article 20.1(b) of the revised SGP calls for member states to develop strategies to prevent and eliminate all harmful social and cultural practices such as child marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancies, slavery and female genital mutilation. |
| | The new protocol takes a huge step forward in localising the Sustainable Development Goal 5 by moving from "halving" to "eliminating" gender based violence. |
| **Sexual and reproductive health and rights** | |
| Mauritius, whose Maternal Mortality ratio (MMR) was 53 per 100 000, is the only country in SADC which has already achieved the SDG target of an MMR below 70. DRC and Malawi with MMRs of 693 and 634 are considered to have very high levels. | There is renewed emphasis on sexual and reproductive health and rights, recognizing that that individual human rights and dignity, including the equal rights of women and girls and universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights, are a necessary precondition for sustainable development. |
| The percentage of births attended by skilled personnel varies from a low of 44, 3% in Madagascar to a high of 99, 9% in Botswana. | Malawi has made significant progress in expanding access for deliveries in a health institution with an urban: rural differential of only 96:91 and differential between the highest income quintile and lowest of only 96:89. |
| Births before the age of 18 range from 13% of young women who had given birth before the age of 18 in Lesotho, to 40% in Mozambique. Angola has the highest adolescent fertility rate in SADC at 191 of girls 15 to 19 per 1000 giving birth (which is also the fourth highest rate in Africa), while Mauritius has the lowest at 31. | |
| The unmet need for contraception in SADC varies from a low of 4% in Mauritius (the lowest in Africa) to a high of 29% in Mozambique. Unmet need of greater than 25% is considered very high. | |
| **HIV and Aids** | |
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| Red lights | Green lights |
|---|---|
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| **Peace building and conflict resolution** | |
| Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is still the only SADC country to have adopted the UNSCR 1325 National Action Plan, Namibia is in the process of formalising one. While South Africa and Madagascar have consultative plans underway. | SADC Secretariat's efforts to develop a Regional Framework for the implementation of Resolution 1325 are underway following a regional consultative meeting in November 2016. |
| Seychelles and Lesotho held peaceful parliamentary elections in 2016 and 2017 respectively. Zambia's elections in 2016, though peaceful for the most part were met with credibility question by the opposition. | Eight countries deployed women to Peacekeeping missions (Zimbabwe, Namibia, Tanzania, South Africa, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia and DRC) had the biggest proportion of women to deployed in Peacekeeping at 35%, followed by Namibia at 26%. DRC had the lowest at 3%. |
| The region experienced a decline in peace as measured by the Global Peace Index ranking for 2017. Lesotho slipped 27 positions from position 63 in 2016 to position 90. Swaziland had the biggest improvement from position 90 in 2016 to 77 in 2017.Mauritius is still ranked as the most peaceful country on the continent and DRC as the least peaceful regionally. | |
| **Media and communication** | |
| Existing media laws and policies have weak (or no) specific gender provisions. These are key tools for holding the media accountable in the promotion of gender equality. | A new SADC Protocol provision on media ownership paves the way for a critical mass of women media owners and balanced participation of women in decision-making in media. |
| Existing media laws and policies have weak (or no) specific gender provisions. These are key tools for holding the media accountable in the promotion of gender equality. | The Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) remains the latest research on women's voices and their role in the media sector. It shows a paltry one-percentage point increase in women sources in the media from 17% in the 2003 Gender and Media Baseline Study (GMBS) to 19% in the GMPS 2010, and 20% in the GMPS 2015. |
| | Staff from institutions of higher learning in nine countries participated in a Gender in Media Education (GIME) symposium in 2016 to discuss gender in media research. |
| | There has been an encouraging increase in the proportion of women in management: a key indicator of progress of gender mainstreaming in decision-making. |
| | The 2016 Gender and Media Summit in Namibia highlighted efforts by media houses and journalists to increase women's voices, participation and women's issues in the media. |
| | Gender Links is developing media monitoring tools to help media houses and media development organisations assess progress towards achieving the SADC Protocol targets linked to media content and in decision-making in the media sector. |
| **Climate change** | |
| Climate change projections in Southern African Development Community (SADC) point towards a warm climate, particularly in the inland subtropics; frequent occurrence of extreme heat events; increasing aridity; and changes in rainfall with a particularly pronounced decline in Southern Africa. | The updated Protocol's gender and climate change provisions help close the gender equality gap around climate change. |
| Southern Africa's already high rates of poor nutrition and infectious disease are expected to increase and affect more women due to climate change. Southern African countries need specialists trained on climate change issues, adaptation and mitigation in each and every Ministry. | SADC leaders reached a milestone when they agreed to include a new article in the Gender Protocol to address the current challenges linked to climate change facing the region. Part 10 of the Protocol now contains Article 31, which focuses on Gender and Climate Change. |
| Declining agricultural livelihoods fuels the rural-urban migration, adding to the already significant urbanisation trend in the region. This has widened the gender gap on income streams. | Cross referencing with the Protocol on Environment and Sustainable Development will ensure synergy amongst SADC instruments. |
| Women still lack basic information on climate change and survival skills. Women are more prone to climate change vulnerability in SADC, and as a result should be involved in developing adaptation and mitigation policies as well climate finance. | In two decades, discussion about climate change has gained increased traction on the international scene. The 13th Sustainable Development Goal (SDG13) invites the world "to take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts." |
| Women in many countries in the SADC region continue to rely heavily on environment-related livelihoods placing them as important partners in promoting and implementing climate-friendly farming techniques. | |
| Southern African governments need to move from gender mainstreaming to integration to deeply address the inadequacies noted especially at implementation of climate change policies and strategies. Providing funding to improve women's access to climate-resilient technologies could lead to positive impacts on women's economic and social empowerment. | |
| Only 61% of the region's population has access to safe drinking water and 39% has access to adequate sanitation facilities. | |
| Access to electricity in some SADC member states is below 20% and approximately 190 million people in the SADC region live without access to electricity. | |

CHAPTER 1

# Constitutional and legal rights

## Articles 4-11




Women in Angola protest against a law to make abortion completely illegal in the country on 18 March 2017. *Photo courtesy of News Deeply*

### KEY POINTS

- The Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance conducted a baseline Gender and Rights Assessment (GRA) of national Constitutions and Laws for the 2017 SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) for the first time. The regional average is 62%, ranging from Namibia (76%) to Swaziland (40%).
- The Government of Zimbabwe proposed mandatory sentences for rape in July 2017. Sixty years' imprisonment will be imposed on people convicted of raping children below the age of 12 and the disabled, and 40 years would be imposed in all other cases of rape. If adopted, these would be the highest prescribed mandatory sentences for rape in the SADC region.
- In July 2017, the Botswana Parliament rejected a motion for the country to craft a new Constitution to replace the 1966 independence one. The crafting of a new Constitution would have created the opportunity to align the Constitution to the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol that Botswana signed for the first time in May 2017.
- In Malawi, Parliament passed a Constitutional amendment in February 2017 to make 18 years the age of marriage in line with the Constitution.
- In Mozambique, the Government in 2016 unveiled a National Strategy to end child marriages by 2019.
- In 2017, Madagascar passed an amendment to its Nationality Law, making it possible for women to pass their nationality to their children. Previously, only men could pass their nationality to their children.
- Homosexuality is still criminalised in 12 of the SADC countries. Only DRC, Mozambique and South Africa have decriminalised homosexuality. The South African Constitution is the only one in the world to recognise sexual orientation as a right.

**62%**
**laws & consti-tutions**

**76%**
**Namibia**

**40%**
**Swaziland**

SADC commits to end child marriages

## What the Protocol requires

Part Two of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development concerns Constitutional and Legal Rights. This has eight articles, covering Constitutional Rights; Special Measures; Domestic Legislation; Equality in access to justice; Marriage and Family Rights; Persons with Disability; Widows and Widowers Rights; The Girl and Boy Child.

**Table 1.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| N/A | ARTICLE 4: CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS<br>2. State Parties shall develop and strengthen specific laws, policies and programmes to achieve gender equality and equity. |
| ARTICLE 5: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION<br>States Parties shall put in place affirmative action measures with particular reference to women in order to eliminate all barriers which prevent them from participating meaningfully in all spheres of life and create a conducive environment for such participation. | ARTICLE 5: SPECIAL MEASURES<br>States Parties shall put in place special measures with particular reference to women in order to eliminate all barriers which prevent them from participating meaningfully in all spheres of life and create a conducive environment for such participation. |
| ARTICLE 8: MARRIAGE AND FAMILY RIGHTS<br>2. Legislation on marriage shall ensure that:<br>a) no person under the age of 18 shall marry, unless otherwise specified by law which takes into account the best interests and welfare of the child. | ARTICLE 8: MARRIAGE AND FAMILY RIGHTS<br>2. Legislation on marriage shall ensure that:<br>a) no person under the age of 18 shall marry. |
| ARTICLE 10: WIDOWS' AND WIDOWERS' RIGHTS<br>1. States Parties shall enact and enforce legislation to ensure that:<br>(a) widows are not subjected to inhuman, humiliating or degrading treatment;<br>(b) a widow automatically become the guardian and custodian of her children when her husband dies, unless otherwise determined by a competent court of law;<br>(c) a widow shall have the right to continue to live in the matrimonial house after her husband's death;<br>(d) a widow shall have access to employment and other opportunities to enable her to make a meaningful contribution to society;<br>(e) a widow shall have the right to an equitable share in the inheritance of the property of her husband;<br>(f) a widow shall have the right to remarry any person of her choice; and<br>(g) a widow shall have protection against all forms of violence and discrimination based on her status. | ARTICLE 10: WIDOWS' AND WIDOWERS' RIGHTS<br>1. States Parties shall enact and enforce legislation to ensure that widows and widowers:<br>(a) are not subjected to inhuman, humiliating or degrading treatment;<br>(b) automatically become the guardians and custodians of their children when their husband/wife dies, unless otherwise determined by a competent court of law;<br>(c) have the right to an equitable share in the inheritance of the property of their spouses;<br>(d) have the right to remarry any person of their choice; and<br>(e) have protection against all forms of violence and discrimination based on their status. |
| ARTICLE 11: THE GIRL AND BOY CHILD<br>1. States Parties shall adopt laws, policies and programmes to ensure the development and protection of the girl child by:<br>(a) eliminating all forms of discrimination against the girl child in the family, community, institutions and at state levels;<br>(b) ensuring girls have equal access to education and health care, and are not subjected to any treatment which causes them to develop a negative self-image;<br>(c) ensuring that girls enjoy the same rights as boys and are protected from harmful cultural attitudes and practices in accordance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child;<br>(d) protecting girls from economic exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence including sexual abuse; and<br>(e) ensuring that the girl children have equal access to information, education, services and facilities on sexual and reproductive health and rights.<br>2. State Parties shall put in place legislative and other measures to ensure that the boy child enjoys the same rights as the girl child under sub-Article 1. | ARTICLE 11: THE GIRL AND BOY CHILD<br>1. States Parties shall adopt laws, policies and programmes to ensure the development and protection of the girl and the boy child by:<br>(a) eliminating all forms of discrimination against them in the family, community, institutions and at state levels;<br>(b) ensuring that they have equal access to education and health care, and are not subjected to any treatment which causes them to develop a negative self-image;<br>(c) ensuring that they enjoy the same rights and are protected from harmful cultural attitudes and practices in accordance with international and regional instruments.<br>(d) protecting them from economic exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence including sexual abuse; and<br>(e) ensuring that they have equal access to information, education, services and facilities on sexual and reproductive health and rights.<br>2. State Parties shall develop concrete measures to prevent and eliminate violence, harmful practices, early and forced child marriages, early pregnancies, genital mutilation and child labour as well as mitigate their impacts on girls' and boys' health, wellbeing, education, future opportunities and earnings. |

As reflected in Table 1.1, the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol has been strengthened to:

- Include a provision to develop and strengthen specific laws, policies and programmes to achieve gender equality and equity.
- Change "affirmative action" to "special measures". Ministers made this change to accommodate reservations by Mauritius. However, the country still has not signed the Protocol, as it then raised an objection to the age of marriage being set at 18 years of age.
- Protect the rights of *both* widows and widowers against abuse, discrimination and promotes equitable share of inheritance.
- Protect the rights of *both* the girl and the boy child against exploitation, and promotes their equal access to health and education opportunities.
- Provide for the development of concrete measures against harmful practices that include child marriages to protect the girl and boy children's wellbeing, health, education and future opportunities.

## Key trends

**Table 1.2: Trends in Constitution and Legal Rights 2009, 2015 and 2017**

| Parameters | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **GENDER AND RIGHTS ASSESSMENT OF CONSTITUTIONS AND LAWS** | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | | | Namibia (76%) | -24% |
| Lowest | 100% | | | Swaziland (40%) | -60% |
| Number of Countries that undertake constitutional reforms and review processes to align with the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development | 15 countries | 0 | 11<br>*8 complete* (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Zimbabwe)<br>*3 in process* (Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia) | 11<br>*9 complete* (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Zambia, Zimbabwe)<br>*2 in process* (Malawi, Tanzania) | -4 |
| Number of countries that provide for non-discrimination on the basis of sex and others | 15 countries | 14 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 15 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 15 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 0 |
| Number of countries Constitutions that provide for the promotion of gender equality | 15 country Constitutions | 7 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland) | 12 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) | 13 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -2 (Botswana, Seychelles) |
| Number of countries that have no claw back clauses | 15 countries | 7 (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa) | 10 (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 10 (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -5 (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Swaziland) |
| Number of countries that address the contradictions between the Constitution, laws and practices | 15 countries | 4 (Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania) | 12 (Angola, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 12 (Angola, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -3 (Botswana, DRC, Mauritius) |
| Number of countries that provide for special measures in their Constitutions | 15 countries | 9 (DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) | 13 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 13 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -2 (Angola, Botswana) |
| Number of countries that have decriminalised LGBTI | 15 countries | 0 | 3 (DRC, Mozambique, South Africa) | 3 (DRC, Mozambique, South Africa) | -12 |

**SGDI first 62% in 2017**

**CSC has remained the same at 66% in 2015 and 2017**

**Only 3 countries in SADC have legalised or partially legalised abortion**

| Parameters | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marriage age for girls and boys is a minimum of 18 in 15 countries | 18 years | 8 (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa) | 9 (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa) | 14 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -1 (Mauritius) |
| Marital rape is a crime in 15 countries | 15 countries | 0 | 5 (Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe) | 5 (Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe) | -10 |
| 15 countries decriminalise sex work | 15 countries | 0 | 0 | 0 (Although Zimbabwe made a ruling to decriminalise loitering, which has effectively been interpreted to mean allowing sex work) | -15 (All) |
| 15 countries legalise abortion | | 2 (South Africa, Zambia) | 3 (Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia) | 3 (Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia) | -12 countries |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | N/A | N/A | 62% | -38% |
| Citizen Score Card (CSC) 100% | 100% | 60% | 66% | 66% | -34% |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Table 1.2 shows that:

- No country has achieved a gender responsive Constitution and Legal framework. The gender and rights assessment by gender and legal experts from each country highlights that Namibia (76%) has the highest score on gender and rights while Swaziland is the lowest at 40%.
- Eleven countries (Angola, DRC, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Malawi, and Tanzania) have aligned their Constitutions with the SADC Gender Protocol or are in the process of doing so.
- All 15 SADC countries provide for non-discrimination on the grounds of sex although most countries do not protect the rights of LGBTIQ persons - only three countries have decriminalised homosexuality (DRC, Mozambique, and South Africa).
- Five countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, and Swaziland) still have claw back clauses on gender in their Constitutions and laws.
- Thirteen countries provide for special measures to promote gender equality except Angola and Botswana.
- Most countries have set the legal age of marriage at 18 years except for Mauritius which has reservations on setting the marriage age at 18 years due to religious reasons.
- Marital rape is criminalised in five SADC countries (Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe).
- Only three SADC countries have legalised abortion (Mozambique, South Africa, and Zambia).

## Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of Constitutional and Legal Rights, this is based on the Gender and Rights assessment of Laws and Constitutions. This is the first time that the SGDI includes an indicator on Constitutional and Legal Rights. Progress against the baseline score of 62% will be tracked going forward. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post-2015 era. The CSC score is at 66% in 2017 is lower than the 2016 score (71%). Changes in this sector are often a case of one step forward; two steps backwards. Progress is slow.

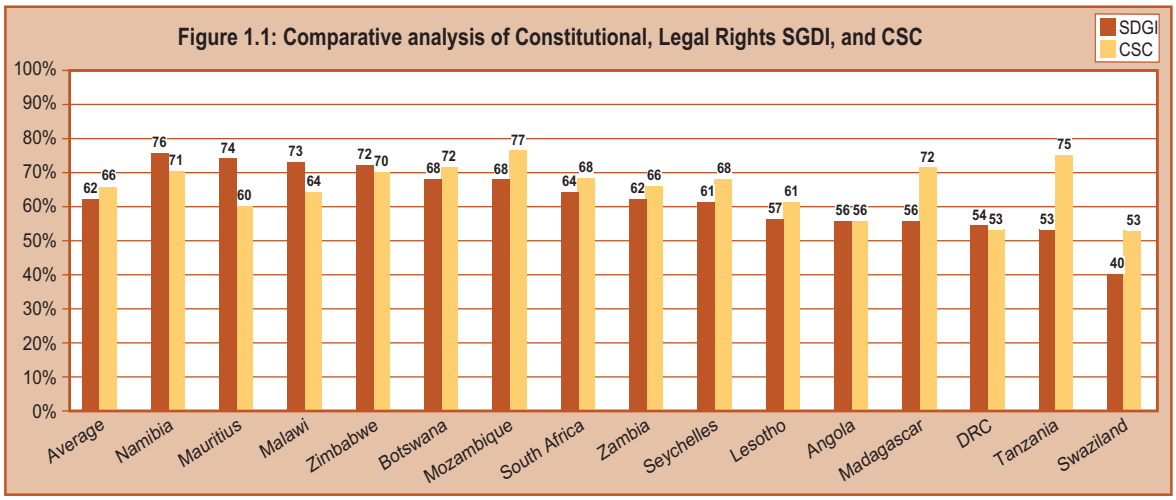



Figure 1.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores for 2017. It shows that overall at 62% for the SGDI and 66% for the CSC, these scores (based on empirical data and perceptions respectively) are quite close. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. Mauritius has the highest positive variance (i.e. people who are more sceptical than what the numbers tell us). Tanzania and Madagascar had the highest negative variances, i.e. where citizens are more optimistic than what the facts on the ground tell us.

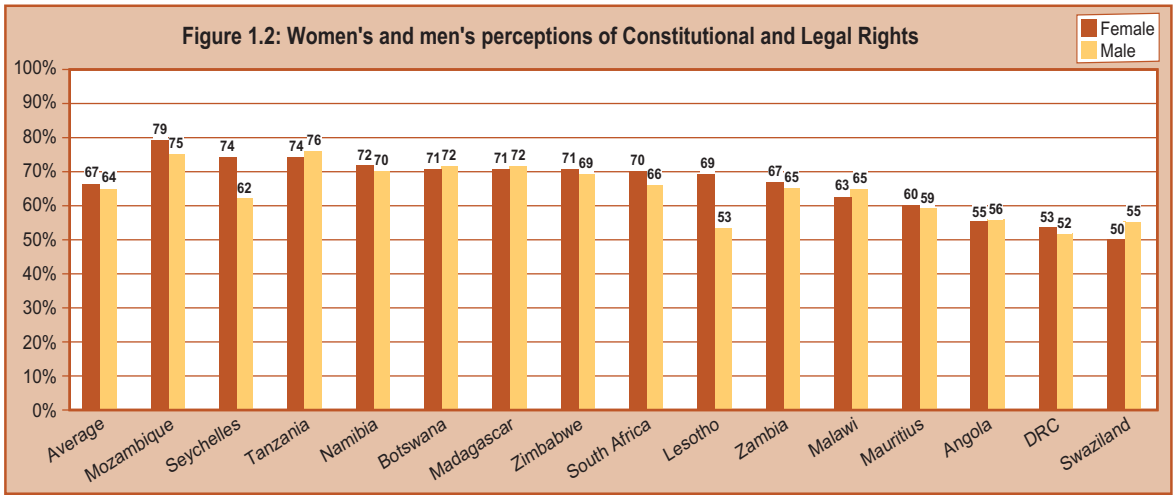



Figure 1.2 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the sector for 2017. On average (67%), women had slightly higher scores than men (64%). Since this is the sector that determines the policy and legal framework for gender equality, it is a positive sign that women are overall even more optimistic than men about the progress achieved. This is especially so in Lesotho and Seychelles, which have the highest variance between women and men. In Swaziland, women (50%) are slightly less optimistic than men (55%). The same is true in Tanzania, Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi and Angola, but only by slim margins.

**SDGI**
**62%**

**CSC**
**66%**

**67%**
scored
higher
than
**64%**

SADC has **set** the age of marriage at 18

## Background



Women Lawyers in Zimbabwe at a function to celebrate the tenure of Vimbayi Nyemba as the president of the Law Society of Zimbabwe. Vimbai Nyemba was the second female president of the Law Society of Zimbabwe in its history and her tenure ran from 2014-2016. The celebration was held at Meikles Hotel, Harare on the 1st of April 2017. *Photo courtesy of Women in Law Connect, Zimbabwe*

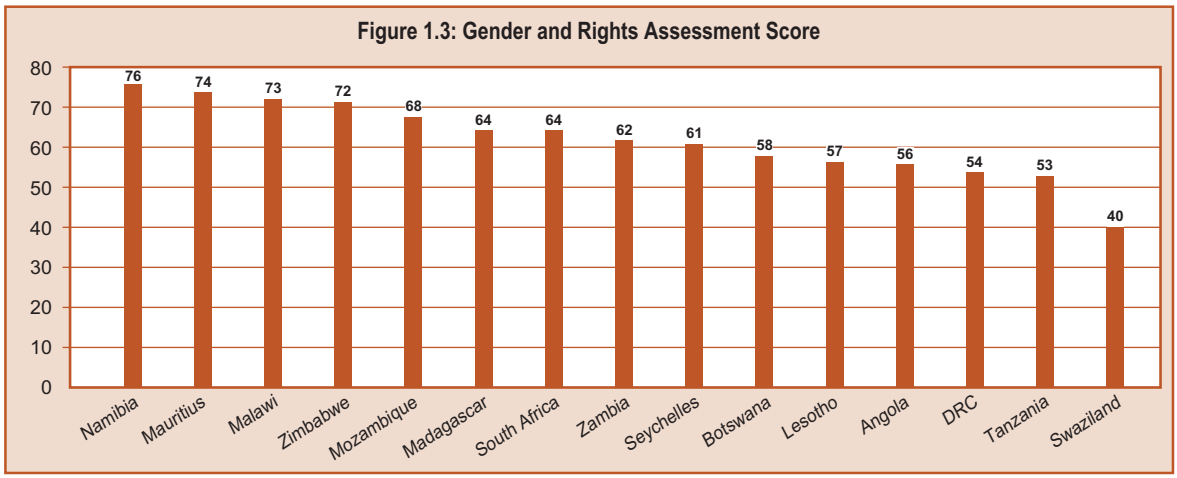
Constitutional and legal rights provide the foundation for a rights-based approach to achieving gender equality. The chapter highlights progress made in the last year based on the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol. The revised Protocol has strengthened rights language, especially in relation to child marriages, and other harmful practices, but avoided being too prescriptive on sensitive subjects like custom and culture. Zambia completed its constitutional review process in January 2016, and this included alignment with the SADC Gender Protocol.

One of the most significant developments since the adoption of the Post-2015 Protocol is the level of effort that has been put into policy, legislation and programme efforts to end child marriages by many of the governments in the region. It's one of the issues that has united many of the citizens of the region as they promote the development of the girl child, putting her educational and growth needs ahead of marriage and early sexual activity. Although resistance in some quarters is to be expected and will continue, the efforts by many governments is commendable. In 2017, Malawi made a Constitutional amendment to make 18 years the marriageable age, and remove the old provision which allowed for marriage between the ages of 15-18 with parental consent.

Unfortunately there is limited, if any movement on four issues namely marital rape, commercial sex work, LGBTI rights and abortion, with Angola making attempts to remove even the limited circumstances under which abortion can be allowed. Traditionally these have been some of the most difficult issues to address when it comes to women's rights and gender equality in that decisions on legally accommodating these issues are mediated by various issues including religion, "morality", tradition and customary laws and they also go to the core of patriarchal attitudes in Southern Africa.

The updated Protocol has retained the SADC Tribunal as a dispute settlement mechanism[1] despite the contestations around when it will be re-established and how effective it will be post re-establishment. The Tribunal therefore plays an important role in monitoring the implementation of the Protocol, especially where non-implementation is justified on the basis of differences in interpretation of the provisions of the Protocol, which interpretation can be effectively provided for by the Tribunal.

[1] Article 36 (2), SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, 2016.




*Source: Gender Links.*

Figure 1.3 shows the scores of the Gender and Rights Assessment (GRA) by legal and gender experts in each SADC country - one of the new tools in the SGDI (see Annex A). The GRA covers Articles 4 to 11 of the SADC Gender Protocol including special measures, domestic legislation, equality in accessing justice, marriage and family rights, persons with disabilities, widows and widowers' rights, the girl and the boy child. The average regional score is 62%. Namibia scored the highest (76%) while Swaziland scored lowest (40%). Fourteen SADC countries scored above 50%. This assessment indicates that there is progress in legal and policy frameworks to promote gender equality. However, what is on paper does not always translate into reality, as reflected in the unfortunate experiences of Zambia's first woman president of the Law Association.

**Rhetoric and reality in Zambia**

In April 2016, women lawyers and other women in Zambia celebrated when Linda Kasonde was elected as the first woman president of the Law Association of Zambia (LAZ). The celebrations were however short lived as Kasonde became a victim of harassment from both political circles and the general public for speaking her mind, and for representing the interests of her constituency, the legal profession and for being a human rights defender. In December 2016, whilst reflecting on the challenges that she faced as the leader of the legal profession in Zambia, Kasonde commented: "with a woman's ambition to lead comes the risk of being undermined, maligned, side-lined or even physically attacked simply because women are still viewed as the weaker sex"[2].

This shows that despite the 2016 Constitution of Zambia which creates the Gender Equity and Equality Commission and which calls for equal treatment between women and men, boys and girls, perceptions about women as leaders remain negative, especially in professions such as the legal profession which over the years have been seen as men's domains. Kasonde is the first female president of LAZ in its 53-year history.

The **regional** average **score** for gender and **rights** is **62%**

[2] The Zambian Observer, 8 December 2016 "LAZ President Linda Kasonde urges Zambian male politicians to stop criticising women anyhow".

14 countries provide for non-discrimination **based** on sex

**Table 1.3: Analysis of gender equality clauses in Constitutions**

| Country | Provides for non-discrimination generally | Provides for non-discrimination based on sex specifically | Provides for non-discrimination on the basis of sex and others e.g. marital status, pregnancy | Provides for the promotion of gender equality | Has other provisions that relate to gender equality | Has claw back clauses | Addresses issues of contradictions between the Constitution, law and practices | Provides for special measures |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Angola** | Yes, Article 23 | Yes, Article 21 | Yes, Article 21 | Yes, Article 21 and 35 | Yes, Article 36 and 77 | No | Yes, Article 239 | No |
| **Botswana** | Yes, Section 15 | Yes, Section 3 | Yes, Section 15 | No | No | Yes, Section 15 | No | No |
| **DRC** | Yes, Articles 11, 12 and 13 | Yes, Articles 14, 36 and 45 | Yes, Articles 40 | Yes, Article 14 | Yes, Article 16 | No | No | Yes, the national policy of gender mainstreaming, promotion of women, of the family and children |
| **Lesotho** | Yes, Chapter II, Section 1 and 18 | Yes, Section 18 | Yes, Section 18 | Yes, Chapter III, Section 26 and 30 | Yes, Section 26 | Yes, Section 18 | Yes, Section 18 | Yes Article 18 and 26 |
| **Madagascar** | Yes, Article 8 | Yes | Yes, Article 8 | Yes | Yes, Article 17 | No | Yes, Article 160 | Yes |
| **Malawi** | Yes, Section 20 | Yes, Article 20 | Yes, Section 13 and 20 | Yes, Article 13 | Yes, Section 19 and 18 | Yes, Section 26 | Yes, Article 5 | Yes, Article 30 |
| **Mauritius** | Yes, Article 3 | Yes, Section 16 | Yes, Section 16 | Yes, Article 16 | No | Yes, Section 16 | No | Yes, Article 16 - to provide for gender neutral quota: 30% of either sex on party lists as candidates |
| **Mozambique** | Yes, Article 35 | Yes, Article 36 | Yes, Article 39 | Yes, Article 120 | Yes, decriminalisation of homosexuality and termination of pregnancy | No | Yes, Article 143 | Yes |
| **Namibia** | Yes, Article 10 | Yes, Article 10 | Yes, Article 14 | Yes, Article 95 | Yes, Article 8 | No | Yes, Article 19 | Yes, Article 23 |
| **Seychelles** | Yes, Article 27 | No | Yes, Article 30 | No | No | No | Yes, Article 5 | Yes Article 27 |
| **South Africa** | Yes, Chapter 1 | Yes, Chapter 2, Section 9 | Yes, section 9 | Yes, Section 9 | Yes, Section 12 | No | Yes, Chapter 7, Section 15, 30 | Yes, Section 9, Article 187 |
| **Swaziland** | Yes, Section 20 | Yes, Section 20 | Yes, section 20 (2) | Yes, Section 28 | Yes, Section 28 | Yes, Section 20 | Yes, Section 2 and Article 20 | Yes, Section 20, Article 86 |
| **Tanzania** | Yes, Article 13 | Yes, Article 9 | Yes, Article 16 | Yes, Article 66 | Yes, Article 13 | No | Yes, Article 30 | Yes, Article 78 |
| **Zambia** | Yes, Article 23 | Yes, Article 23 | Yes, Article 23 | Yes, 231 Gender equality and equity commission | Yes, Articles 45,69, 231 | Amended | Yes, Article1(1) | Yes |
| **Zimbabwe** | Equality and Non-Discrimination Section in the Declaration of Rights | Section 23, Declaration of Rights | Section 23, Declaration of Rights | Gender equality is listed among the Founding Values and Principles; Gender Balance is one of the Sections articulated in the National Objectives. | The Declaration of Rights in the new Constitution has been expanded to include Equality and Non-Discrimination | The new constitution invalidates customary law and practices that infringe on women's rights | A law review and reform process has started to align the countries laws, policies and practices to the provisions of the new Constitution | Yes, Section 23 |

*Source: Gender Links (2016).*

## Constitutional Rights

**Article 4:1** State Parties shall enshrine gender equality and equity in their Constitutions and ensure that any provisions, laws or practices do not compromise these.

SADC countries have committed to continental and global instruments for promoting human and women's rights. These include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW 1979), the African Union Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) and the United Nations Millennium Declaration (2000) that spells out the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's).

In general, SADC Constitutions have strong gender provisions. The challenge is aligning contradictory and discriminatory laws that still operate and require repealing or amending. The added and perhaps bigger challenge is the discriminatory provisions in customary law particularly where Constitutions are not clear. Customary or religious laws that condone early marriage and unequal inheritance practices infringe on women's and girls' rights. Unequal inheritance practices continue.




Child marriages constitute harmful cultural practices. Raising awareness amongst children about their rights and the effects of child marriages is important in fighting the scourge.
*Photo courtesy of Hivos*

***Thirteen of SADC countries have explicit Constitutional provisions that promote gender equality:*** Over the period 2009 to 2016, six countries included specific clauses that relate to gender equality in their Constitutions. Botswana and Seychelles do not have specific clauses that relate to gender equality.

***Twelve SADC countries have specific clauses that address the contradictions between Constitutional provisions, laws and practices:*** In 2009, only four SADC countries included clauses in their Constitutions to address contradictions with other laws and practices. This number rose to 12 in 2016 and remained the same in 2017. Only Botswana, the DRC and Mauritius Constitutions fail to state that the Constitution overrides any other provisions. However, in reality many contradictions persist.



Article 10 of the Constitution of **Namibia** guarantees equality before the law and the right to non-discrimination on the basis of sex. The Constitution is considered one of the few to use gender-neutral language throughout.



The amended Constitution of **Zambia** (5 January, 2016) provides for gender equity in the National Assembly or council. It also allows for two Deputy Speakers of the National Assembly who are not members of the same political party and of the same gender. The Constitution provides for adequate and equal opportunities for appointments, training and advancement of members of both genders. It provides for the establishment of a Gender Equity and Equality Commission and for 50% of each gender to be nominated or appointed from the total available positions, unless it is not practicable to do so. The Gender Equity and Equality Commission as provided for in Article 231 is mandated to promote the attainment and mainstreaming of gender equality. The Commission is also expected to monitor, investigate, research, educate, advise and report on issues concerning gender equality; ensure institutions comply with legal requirements and other standards relating to gender equality; take steps to secure appropriate redress to complaints relating to gender inequality, as prescribed; and perform such other functions as prescribed.



In **Zimbabwe**, the Constitution adopted in 2013 recognises the need to protect women and children's rights and to promote gender equality. In June 2017, the Zimbabwe Gender Commission (ZGC) began preparations for the Gender Forum, the first that the Commission will hold since its establishment. The Gender Forum is statutorily provided for in Section 8 of the Zimbabwe Gender Commission Act and must be held annually "to discuss any issue or issues of concern related to [the Commission's] constitutional

12 SADC countries have **included** clauses in their Constitutions to address contradictions with **laws** and practices

**5**

SADC countries have **claw back** clauses in their Constitutions

and statutory functions." The holding of the Forum is a sign that the ZGC is slowly establishing itself and fulfilling its legal and constitutional mandate.

The Forum in turn is expected to be a platform for the country to seriously discuss the many issues impacting on gender equality and the rights of women and girls in the country. In addition, in July 2017, the Minister of Information, Christopher Mushowe advised that Government was in the process of amending the Criminal Law (Codification and Reform) Act: Chapter 9:33 to provide for mandatory sentences for cases of rape. People who rape minors and the disabled would be sentenced to 60 years imprisonment and in all other cases of rape, the minimum mandatory sentence would be 40 years. The move was hailed by many including legislator Hon Jessie Majome, who initially moved the motion for minimum mandatory sentences for rape in Parliament in 2014.[3]



The draft **Tanzania** Constitution[4] provides for non-discrimination on the grounds of gender. Under "rights of women," the draft Constitution includes a clause on protection against discrimination, abuse, injustice, bullying, gender violence and harmful traditions. Chapter 13 of the draft includes gender equality as part of the fundamental principles of public service and employment of leaders and civil servants. The Constitution also guards against gender stigmatisation during elections and registration of political parties. Women's organisations such the *Wanawake na Katiba*; an alliance of over 50 women's rights organisations across Tanzania advocating for a women friendly Constitution have taken an active lead in mobilising to secure women's interests in the new Constitution[5].

The stalling of the constitution-making process is, however, a cause for concern. The President of Tanzania, John Magufuli has stated that the finalisation of the Constitution is not a priority. A pressure group composed of Tanzania Constitution Forum (TCF), Tanganyika Law Society (TLS), Zanzibar Law Society (ZLS), women's groups, MPs, members of Zanzibar's House of Representatives, academics and religious leaders formed in 2017 is lobbying the president to speed up the process.



Article 34 of the **Madagascar** Constitution and Law no. 2007-002 guarantees women's access to non-land assets. They can manage their own property without their husband's agreement, whether it was acquired before or during the marriage. Under the law, both spouses have equal access to property acquired during the marriage, equal rights in jointly managing any property and equal rights to dispose of the property.




Madagascar has made strides in promoting women in the justice system. Female lawyers caucus with their male counterparts outside the Madagascar High Court, October 2012.
*Photo: Zotonantenaina Razanandrateta*

However, a recent amendment to the nationality law in Madagascar gives men and women equal rights to pass on nationality to children. The new law also helps spouses and children to retain their nationality, if a partner or a parent loses theirs . Access to land in Madagascar has historically been unfairly withheld from women. In certain regions women are completely denied the right to inherit land, with the idea that they will marry men from other regions or tribes. Avenir, a gender activist association, is combatting this problem by helping women to officially document their land inheritance with the assistance of lawyers[6].

Access to land in Madagascar has historically been unfairly withheld from women. In certain regions women are completely denied the right to inherit land, with the idea that they will marry men from other regions or tribes. Avenir, a gender activist association, is combatting this problem by helping women to officially document their land inheritance with the assistance of lawyers[7].

***Five SADC countries have claw back clauses in their Constitutions:*** In 2009 eight countries had claw back clauses in their constitutions. This number dropped to five in 2016 and remained at the same level in 2017. Progress in eliminating claw back clauses has been slow. Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius and Swaziland include claw back clauses in their constitutions.

[3] See https://www.dailynews.co.zw/articles/2017/07/24/60-year-jail-term-for-rapists-hailed
[4] United Republic of Tanzania, Special Parliament Final Draft Constitution, October 2014.
[5] Constitution Net (Accessed 30 June 2016) http://www.constitutionnet.org/news/tanzanias-draft-constitution-opening-spaces-gender-revolution.
[6] UNHCR (2016) Madagascar: UNHCR welcomes new law giving men and women equal rights to transfer nationality to children.
[7] World Policy (2016) The African Angle, Gaby Razafindrakoto.



Section 15 of the Constitution of **Botswana** provides the right to non-discrimination on the grounds of sex. However, this right does not apply to "adoption, marriage, divorce, and burial, devolution of property on death or other matters of personal law."

Botswana provides for a House of Chiefs (Ntlo ya Dikgosi), which submits resolutions to the National Assembly on Bills affecting customary issues. The House of Chiefs was amongst the first institutions to reject the motion for the country to craft a new Constitution, and was eventually followed in this step by Parliament in July 2017. The Botswana Council for NGOs (BOCONGO) 2010 CEDAW Shadow Report indicates that "customary laws remain a big obstacle for women to attain and enjoy equal rights as the different ethnic groups still have laws, values and practices that treat women as subordinate and promote discrimination against women and girls." The House of Chiefs and Traditional Leaders in general play an important role in changing these mind-sets and in embracing new and progressive legislative provisions, including constitutional reviews and amendments in order to promote and protect the rights of women. They should therefore be engaged to play a positive and progressive role in these processes.



The Constitution of **Lesotho** guarantees the right to equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex. However, customary laws are exempted from this constitutional guarantee. The constitutional principle of non-discrimination does not, however, apply to laws relating to adoption, marriage, divorce, burial, and devolution of property, death or other matters that fall under personal law or where Customary Law governs the parties concerned. In Lesotho, under customary law, daughters do not have the same inheritance rights as their brothers. Neither can daughters ascend to traditional leadership. First-born sons are typically considered to be the heirs to land and other property. In cases where there is no male heir, the senior wife is expected to consult the family of her deceased husband about the inheritance. Initially premised on the assumption that male children would look after the family home and parents in old age, there is a general realisation amongst the Basotho people that female children are taking an increasingly important role in looking after their parents, and are in fact more responsible than their brothers. Attitudes about favouring male children when it comes to inheritance are therefore slowly changing.[8] The recognition of cultural and customary rights mitigates against gender equality. Women are prejudiced in customary legal systems, e.g. child marriage and female genital mutilation. Moving forward these clauses must be challenged.



In **Mauritius**, the claw back clauses relate to laws with respect to adoption, marriage, divorce, burial, devolution of property after death and other personal laws.



In **Swaziland** the preamble of the Constitution states that it is necessary to blend customary institutions with those of democratic society, and then the Constitution sets out the traditional pillars of the monarchy and states that traditional government is administered according to Swazi law and custom. It also establishes a Council of Chiefs, responsible for advising the King on customary issues and considering Bills that could alter or affect customary authorities, cultural activity, customary courts, Swazi law or custom.

***Contradictions between formal and customary laws persist:*** Current contradictions between formal and customary laws that occur across the SADC region require the most significant legal reforms. Parallel legal systems of statutory, customary and in some cases religious law, govern marriages. Women suffer discrimination due to non-uniform marriage and divorce laws, the application of customary property laws that still favour men's ownership of land, discriminatory and harmful cultural practices, gender-based violence and lack of equal access to education. A number of discriminatory practices occur in SADC countries, frequently under harmful customary laws and practices. These include:

- Marital rape
- Domestic violence
- Forced marriage
- Child marriage
- Being "given away" in marriage
- Age of consent frequently lower for girls than boys
- Having no option for divorce
- No ability to travel without permission
- Accusations of witchcraft
- Not being deemed good enough to be guardian for children
- Economic disempowerment
- *Kusasa fumbi/fisi* - A Malawian practice whereby a male has sexual intercourse with a female as an initiation requirement

Contradictions between formal and **customary** laws **hamper** progress

[8] This came out of engagements which the author had with various stakeholders in Lesotho in April 2016 during research for a book on customary law and women's rights. The stakeholders engaged during this process included the judiciary, traditional leaders, the legal profession, relevant government departments and civil society leaders amongst others.

Over **25** harmful practices hinder gender **equality**

- *Kulowa Kufa* - A Malawian practice in which a male member of the community has sexual intercourse with a woman upon the death of her husband
- Female genital mutilation (not prevalent throughout much of the SADC region, occurs in Tanzania)
- *Ukungena* - Widow inheritance (where a woman is made to marry her husband's brother if she is widowed)
- Virginity testing
- Sexual cleansing of widows
- Prohibition of family planning
- Elevation of boy children above girl children
- Widow dispossession/property grabbing
- Polygamous marriages
- Initiation rites
- Abduction
- Lobola (bride price)
- Wearing of mourning weeds
- Beating wives as a sign of love
- *Kuhlanta* - A practice in Swaziland where a woman is married off to her sister or aunt's husband
- Kulamuta, ukulamuza, chiramu - A practice in Swaziland and Zimbabwe where a man has sex with a younger sister or paternal niece of his wife
- Virginity testing - to ascertain the purity of a woman before marriage

## Discriminatory legislation

**Article 4:2 State Parties shall develop and strengthen specific laws, policies and programmes to achieve gender equality and equity**. 4.3 State parties shall implement legislative and other measures to eliminate all practices which negatively affect the fundamental rights of women, men, girls and boys, such as their right to life, health, dignity, education and physical integrity.

**Article 6** State Parties shall review, amend or repeal all discriminatory laws and specifically abolished the minority status of women.

In 2008, **Mauritius** passed landmark anti-discrimination legislation that included provisions on sexual harassment in employment, provisions of goods and services, accommodation, etc. The Prevention Information Lutte contre le SIDA (PILS) used the Anti-Discrimination Act to stop the deportation of a Cameroonian student. The student tested HIV positive on her arrival in Mauritius and was subsequently denied a study permit. PILS asserts that deporting the student because of her HIV status is contrary to the Act. In 2016, Mauritius repealed the 1985 National Women's Council Act and replaced it with the 2016 National Women's Council Act, a piece of legislation which promotes a "gender in development approach."

In 2017, **Madagascar** passed an amendment to the Nationality Law, guaranteeing equal rights between men and women to pass on nationality to their children. Other than removing the discrimination that previously existed by not giving women the equal right to pass on their nationality to their children, the law will also help in reducing statelessness, a growing problem in the world today. Gender based discrimination is often cited as one of the major reasons for statelessness in the world.

In **Malawi**, the Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and social welfare with support from UNFPA Malawi have launched the 2013 Gender Equality Act Implementation and monitoring plan with a call to reach out to the vulnerable and promote gender equality in all sectors of the society.

***Only the DRC, South Africa and Mozambique protect the rights of LGBTI people, and homophobia runs high in most countries:*** As reflected in the attitude survey in 2016, 59% men and 57% women agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "people who are attracted to the same sex should be outlawed."

In **Madagascar**, it is legal for two persons of the same sex to have sexual intercourse as long as they are 21 years old. The Penal Code prohibits such activity for persons below 21 years old and punishes perpetrators with two to five years of jail and a fine. However, marriage between two persons of the same sex is forbidden.

**South Africa** disappointed LGBTI activists around the world in late June 2016 when it refused to

support a landmark resolution on LGBTI rights at the UN Human Rights Council (UNHRC) in Geneva. South Africa tabled the original resolution on the SOGI and the LGBTI issue in 2011. The council voted to adopt a resolution on the "Protection Against Violence and Discrimination Based on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity (SOGI)" that establishes the position of an Independent Expert on SOGI. Remarkably, South Africa - which previously led on SOGI resolutions since 2011 - chose to abstain in the vote.

South Africa abstained from voting on a UNHRC resolution on SOGI in 2016

Protocol@Work

**Lesotho: Ecumenical Services step in on tolerance. Ntholeng Molefi**



In Lesotho, a faith based organisation has been at the forefront of promoting tolerance. Ecumenical Services provides a forum for the discussion of a theological approach to issues such as HIV/AIDS, gender, human trafficking, Transformative Masculinities and other issues pertinent to the context of Lesotho. It seeks to encourage the exchange and sharing of theological ideas and information related to these issues in order to enhance the lives.

The project leader is a professional Corrections Officer practising as a Chaplain for Lesotho Correctional Service. He works with youth in his church. The inter-vention came about following a realisation that the church was strategically positioned to deal with difficult issues that society was struggling with such as HIV/AIDS, masculinity, gender and human trafficking.

The initiative aims to create healthy relationships between and amongst individuals in the country whilst promoting human dignity and respecting the sanctity of life. This is achieved through the provision of a forum for the discussion of theological issues pertinent to the context of Lesotho, promotion of a spirit of ecumenism among churches and encouraging the exchange and sharing of theological ideas and information.

The project set out to:

- Introduce, nurture and maintain principled positive masculinities among male people;
- Promote the wide and ongoing education training explicitly designed to change negative thinking, attitudes and behavioural conduct;
- Encourage and assist male persons to discuss issues on masculinities and challenges confronting masculinities; and to
- Promote gender equality and equity,



First ever gay march in Lesotho. *Photo courtesy of Osisa*

The project targeted male youths in particular those in tertiary institution with the broad understanding that "It is easier to grow up a boy child than to repair a man" and therefore essentially focused on giving young men the correct messages about gender and masculinity.

The main provisions of the SADC Protocol that were to be achieved through this intervention were on promoting the rights of the girl and boy child, promoting Gender equality in Education, addressing gender stereotypes and Gender based violence, addressing the challenges of HIV/AIDS and sexual harassment.

The initiative started with the establishment of a faith based organisation, the Association of Lesotho Theologians (ALET) which was founded with the realisation that theologians can discern and discuss theological issues pertinent in the context of patriarchy and masculinity and their role in promotion discrimination against women in an atmosphere of collegiality, support and respect. The campaign to reduce gender violence fostered partnerships and coalition building at local, national and regional levels.

The main challenge faced in the implementation of the intervention was that most of the issues that required discussion were regarded as taboo in the country. This was compounded by church and theological approaches that further viewed discussion of or accommodation of people dealing with these issues as unbiblical, yet the intervention was supposed to be spearheaded by the church.

*(Source: Excerpt from case study presented by Ecumenical Services, Lesotho SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016)*



**Mozambique** decriminalised homosexuality in its new Penal Code, making it one of a few African countries where same-sex relationships are legal. While not technically illegal, same-sex sexual activity can be prosecuted under existing criminal code if individuals are found to "habitually engage in vices against nature." Mozambique civil society is engaging the government to observe human rights and dignity for all.



The **Namibian** Constitution says that all persons must have equal rights under the law. It forbids discrimination on several grounds, including race and sex (Article 10). The Constitution also says that men and women must have equal rights in all aspects of marriage (Article 14). Although Namibia has a Constitution with an inalienable Bill of Rights, it also still has a sodomy law in place, enacted under South African rule in 1927. There appears to be no immediate political move to rescind it. Organisations such as the Legal Assistance Centre and Sister Namibia are advocating for the recognition of gay rights in the country[9].



**Botswana** has made progress through a landmark Court of Appeal ruling allowing a LGBTI organisation to be registered. The court ruled that there is no legislation in Botswana preventing anyone from being homosexual. The court upheld that the refusal to register the organisation was a violation of freedom of association. The September 2016 deportation of a homophobic American pastor, Steven Anderson from the country signalled that although homosexuality is not explicitly sanctioned, the country is sensitive to issues of hate speech directed at the LGBTI community. The pastor told live radio that homosexuals must be "stoned to death." In ordering the pastor's deportation, President Ian Khama said: "We don't want hate speech in this country. Let him do it in his own country."[10]

## Special measures

The Protocol has been **revised** to replace affirmative action with special measures




**Article 5** Special measures: State Parties are to put in place special measures with particular reference to women in order to eliminate all barriers which prevent them from participating meaningfully in all spheres of life and create a conducive environment for such participation.

At the start of the monitoring, nine countries had affirmative action (now special measures in the revised Protocol) provisions in their Constitutions. This has increased by four countries to 13 countries. Angola and Botswana do not have special measures provisions in their constitutions. Botswana, however, implements special measures strategies to improve the lives of its citizens. For example, the Botswana Revised Area Development Programme of 2009 provides broad strategies aimed at uplifting members of remote areas.



Initially, the **Mauritius** government did not sign the Protocol on the basis that the Mauritian Constitution does not allow for affirmative action. In 2012 Mauritius adopted a local government quota that quadrupled the representation of women in local government following a Constitutional amendment to allow for positive discrimination. During the updating of the SADC Gender Protocol in 2015, member states agreed to change the term "affirmative action" to special measures in order to accommodate Mauritius' concerns. However, Mauritius' reservations about child marriages still remain a stumbling block to Mauritius signing and to date Mauritius has not signed the revised Protocol.

**Why Mauritius should sign**

For years, Botswana, and Mauritius were the only three countries not to sign the Protocol. Botswana became the latest country to sign the Protocol in May 2017, leaving Mauritius as the only country yet to sign the Protocol. The reason given by Mauritius for not signing is that the provisions on ending child marriages would offend Constitutional provisions which allow for marriage between the ages of 16-18 with parental consent. Mauritius should be encouraged to embrace the progressive provisions in the SADC Gender Protocol on ending child marriages so that the country signs the protocol and the region achieves universal signage on this very important instrument.

[9] OSISA (2013) Tough times for LGBTI in Namibia.
[10] See http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-37418875

In **Zambia**, although the government passed the Land Act in 1996, which guaranteed women the possibility of being land-owners, the legislation simultaneously allows for customary laws to dictate land ownership which mainly confers land ownership to men[11]. Under customary law, men dominate the allocation, inheritance and use of land. Women generally lack control over land but may have access and user rights to the land.

**Article 7: Equality in accessing justice**

1. State Parties shall put in place legislative and other measures which promote and ensure the practical realization of equality for women. These measures shall ensure:

(a) equality in the treatment of women in judicial and quasi-judicial proceedings, or similar proceedings, including customary and traditional courts and national reconciliation processes;

(b) equal legal status and capacity in civil and customary law; including , amongst other things, full contractual rights, the right to acquire and hold rights in property, the right to equal inheritance and the right to secure credit;

(c) the encouragement of all public and private institutions to enable women to exercise their legal capacity;

(d) that positive and practical measures to ensure equality for women as complainants in the criminal justice system;

(e) the provision of educational programmes to address gender bias and stereotypes and promote equality for women in the legal systems;

(f) that women have equitable representation on, and participation in, all courts, including traditional courts, alternative dispute resolution mechanisms and local community courts; and

(g) accessible and affordable legal services for women.

High legal fees **hinder** equal access to justice

Access to justice is defined as the ability of people to seek and obtain a remedy through formal or informal institutions of justice, and in conformity with human rights standards. Across the region lack of resources, low levels of literacy and lack of information are emerging as the three main challenges women face when exercising their legal capacity. Men dominate traditional courts and it is highly unlikely that women will get a fair hearing in these courts. Numerous recent cases show that the justice on paper accorded to women by Constitutions and Protocols is not translating into reality. Religion also plays a role in limiting access to justice.

Access to justice improves where there is investment in judicial personnel, public rights education and investment on facilities. Police, traditional leaders and social workers need to be also trained on gender equality and how to handle cases of abuse, discrimination and harmful traditional practices. Women need to assume more leadership positions in the legal field.



In **Botswana**, access to the justice system for women and girls remains a challenge due to limited financial resources, poor legal education, a limited national legal aid service and poor knowledge about their rights. However, the government is making efforts to address the problems. For example, in 2011 to 2013 it piloted the legal aid service, at the Attorney General's Chambers in Gaborone and Francistown. This initiative will go a long way to assist poor and low-income women and men who do not have resources for legal litigation.



In theory, in the **Seychelles**, women have equal right of access to justice and protection before the law (Article 27 on Equal Protection under the Law). However, in reality vulnerable and disadvantaged women who wish to pursue court cases have reported in the UNDP Access to Justice Report in 2010[12] that because proceedings usually take place in English, they are often unaware of what has happened during their cases and how the outcomes were reached. They spoke of coming to court, hearing an incomprehensible babble and then leaving with the case postponed or ended, even when it is in their favour.

[11] CEDAW reports.
[12] UNDP (2010) Study on Disadvantaged and Vulnerable Women in Seychelles Access to Justice.

Mobile courts in **DRC** are improving equality in accessing **justice**



Mobile court proceedings in DRC.
*Photo courtesy of the Global Press Journal*

In the **DRC**, the 2006 Constitution also provided for equality legislation which sought to promote gender equality and women's rights. More than 10 years later in 2017, there have been concerns with regard to access to justice for women, caused in part by lack of knowledge of the positive and progressive legislative provisions, including the 2006 Constitution and law. In addition, women in remote areas face challenges in accessing the police to report cases and accessing lawyers to help them in taking up their cases.[13] With DRC facing many cases of gender based violence due to prolonged conflicts, creating laws, but not popularising and applying the same laws, does little to assist the many women.

In **South Africa**, laws such as the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act (2003) and Traditional Courts Bill (which has been proposed but not passed) marginalise women's voices, shifting the balance of power more towards male household heads and traditional leaders. The legislation around traditional leadership affects single women, particularly those without male family members, who have little status in the eyes of some traditional leaders and structures. Access to justice in criminal justice delivery, especially in cases involving violence against women continues to be a challenge in South Africa. Underreporting and withdrawal of cases of violence against women including cases of domestic violence and rape remain a cause for concern.[14] The case study on right shows how community activism can enhance access to justice.

## Marriage and Family Rights

**Article 8: Marriage and Family rights**

1. State Parties enact and adopt appropriate legislative, administrative and other measures to ensure that women and men enjoy equal rights in marriage and are regarded as equal partners in marriage.
2. Legislation on marriage shall therefore ensure that:
(a) **no person under the age of 18 shall marry**
(b) every marriage takes place with free and full consent of both parties;
(c) every marriage including civil, religious, traditional or customary, is registered in accordance with national laws; and
(d) during the subsistence of their marriage the parties shall have reciprocal rights and duties towards their children with the best interest of the children always being paramount.
3. State Parties shall enact and adopt appropriate legislative and other measures to ensure that where spouses separate , divorce or have their marriage annulled
(a) they shall have reciprocal rights and duties towards their children with the best interest of the children always being paramount; and
(b) they shall, subject to the choice of any marriage regime or marriage contract, have equitable share of property acquired during their relationship.
4. States Parties shall put in place legislative and other measures to ensure that parents honour their duty of care towards their children, and maintenance orders are enforced.
5. States Parties shall put in place legislative provisions which ensure that married women and men have the right to choose whether to retain their nationality or acquire their spouse's nationality.

[13] See http://standnow.org/2017/02/23/gender-based-violence-in-the-congo-and-its-repercussions/
[14] See http://allafrica.com/stories/201705261198.html

**South Africa: Community activism yields results**



Makgobja Melida Matsi, a community mobiliser, started her community activism aged 29 in 1998 as a volunteer at a local clinic where she was a health committee member. She subsequently co-founded a non-profit organisation, Tiangmaatla Home Based in 2004 and a multipurpose Drop-in and Youth Centre in 2009. She then managed to undertake other initiatives of significance in her community ranging from helping the elderly and widowed in processing pensions, helping orphaned children claim deceased's parents' pensions from relatives who had grabbed the money and assisting abandoned children with admission into school. She also helped many women in starting income generating projects, including sewing and market gardening to earn incomes for their families.

Mokgobja's work followed the realisation that women in her community were suffering due to discrimination and lack of education. This pushed her to engage in programmes for women, men and youth to help them better their lives in terms of education, training and recruitment. She worked in Wards 32 and 33 in the Limpopo Province and was responding to problems women and children were facing as a result of the devastating effects of HIV and AIDS.

In undertaking her work, Makgobja sought equality between men and women of all ages, including the elderly and youth. She ensured that women were independent through the provision of skills and education. She made efforts to link the community with policy and decision-makers, including key government departments such as Labour, Social Development and Health, whose policy interventions in relation to HIV and AIDS, children's rights, the elderly and the vulnerable were important.

The target beneficiaries were vulnerable men, women and children as well and government for service provision. This contributed towards achieving various provisions in the SADC Gender Protocol including the promotion and protection of widows and widowers' rights, promoting and protecting the rights of the girl and boy child, dealing with HIV and AIDS and promoting gender equality in education.

Implementation started with the establishment of an NPO to coordinate activities and ensure a dedicated and known facility. Young boys and girls have been placed in schools, women have established self-help projects and a drop in centre for youths and young people provides food. Makgobja has been recognised by many, resulting in her receiving several awards from organisations such as Black Management Forum and the President's Emergency Plan for Aids Relief amongst many others.

An 80% poverty prevalence rate in the community led to a high proportion of people in need of assistance. Makgobja had no adequate resources to meet the needs of the many people requiring her services. However, by bringing in other actors, including government departments, many more people were able to get assistance. Community based projects can be replicated in other parts of the country as they ensure that services are made available at the local level. The project can continue with the mentoring of young community champions and this should be the focus going forward.

*Source: Excerpt from case study presented at the South Africa SADC Protocol@Work Summit, 2017*



Tiang Maatla has become a pillar of strength in Limpopo, here women do bead work to empower themselves. *Photo: Google Images*

## Table 1.4: Marriage and family laws

| Provision | Angola | Botswana | DRC | Lesotho | Madagascar | Malawi | Mauritius | Mozambique | Namibia | Seychelles | South Africa | Swaziland | Tanzania | Zambia | Zimbabwe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No person under the age of 18 shall marry | No, legal age of marriage is 16 | Yes, the minimum age for marriage is 18 | Minimum age for marriage increased from 14 for girls and 18 for boys to 18 for both in 2009 | No, girls can legally marry at 16 and at 18 for boys. Under customary law, girls and boys can marry after puberty | Yes, the legal age for civil marriage is 18 but under customary law there is no fixed age require-ment | Yes, the legal age for marriage for girls and boys is 18. A Feb 2017 Constituti onal amendme nt bill has reinforce this position | No, the official age for marriage is 18 for boys and girls but girls can get married from 16 with parental consent | Yes, the minimum age for marriage is 18 | Yes, the age for civil marriage is 21 | Yes, the legal age for marriage is 18 but girls can get married from 15 with parental consent | Yes, the minimum age for marriage is 18 | No, girls can civilly marry from 16. Under customary law, marriages can take place from puberty | No, girls can marry from 15 and boys from 18 | No, the legal age to marry is 16 but under customary law marriage can take place from puberty | A land-mark court case has set the age of marriage at 18 |
| Every marriage shall take place with the full consent of both parties | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes |
| Every marriage, including civil, religious or customary is registered | No | No | No | No | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | No | No | No | No |
| Parties have reciprocal rights and duties towards their children, including when spouses separate, divorces or have the marriage annulled | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No | Yes | Yes |
| Law to enforce maintenance orders | No | Yes | No | No | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes |
| Married women and men have the right to decide whether to retain their nationality or acquire spouses nationality | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | No |

*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 1.4 shows that in ten SADC countries, women have the right to decide whether to retain their nationality or to acquire their spouse's nationality. In the case of Lesotho, only men have the right to decide their nationality. A woman acquires the nationality of her husband upon marriage. In Swaziland, a national exercise to change travel documents to a new format exposed gender inequality in the Citizenship Act, which makes it mandatory for children to assume the citizenship of the father. Women can only pass on citizenship to children born out of wedlock. The table shows that nine SADC countries have now formally established the age of marriage as 18.

***In principle, marriages take place with a woman's consent in most countries:*** Under civil law in all countries except Tanzania, marriage must take place with the woman's consent. In Tanzania, a woman's parents can consent on her behalf to marriage under the Law of Marriage Act. In other SADC countries, parents can 'give away' their daughters in marriage or in some cases even sell them under customary law. The justice system can allow, for example in the case of South Africa, a judge to allow the marriage of a minor.



Swazi women and men in a traditional dance formation.
*Photo: Human Rights Brief*



In 2013, the High Court of **Swaziland** declared unconstitutional one element of the common law principle of marital power: a ban on married women instituting legal actions on their own behalf and without the assistance of their husbands. The principle of marital power gives a husband married under civil rites and in community of property three broad powers:

- Veto power on general issues having to do with the family's lifestyle;
- Power over the person of the wife akin to guardianship, including in matters of legal representation;
- Power to administer the joint estate with unfettered discretion (the wife has recourse to have transactions involving joint property nullified if they were fraudulent).

[15] SAFLI (2013) Sihlongonyane v. Sihlongonyane.
[16] Berg et al. (2013); CEDAW (2008).

Until now, these powers could only be limited through a prenuptial contract or "some other act recognized or permissible in law," such as the law that allows a woman to approach a court for leave to sue on her own behalf.[15]

***Registration of marriages is required in some countries:*** Only four SADC countries require all forms of marriages to be registered, whether civil, legal, customary or religious (Mauritius, Mozambique, South Africa and Seychelles). Citizens typically register civil marriages more often than customary and religious marriages. This results in a lack of protection for women under the law when there are disputes or succession battles.



The government **of South Africa** has taken steps to equalise women's rights within all types of marriage, particularly customary marriage, which the state now recognizes under the 1998 Recognition of Customary Marriages Act. The legal minimum age for marriage for all forms of marriage in South Africa is 18 years for both sexes, and marriage requires the consent of both spouses, including for customary marriage. No one under the age of 18 can marry without the consent of the parents or a judge. The special consent of the Minister of Home Affairs is also required for the marriage of a girl under the age of 15. This poses a hurdle as it opens doors to child marriages.



In **Lesotho**, under common law, women have the right to initiate divorce and proceedings are carried out in a "competent court of law". In order for customary law marriages to have legal standing in civil court, they must also be registered under the common law system. Alternatively, such divorces can be obtained through customary judiciary procedures or through informal arrangements between the spouses and their families.



Marriage in **Malawi** can be entered into under common and customary laws; the later may be either patrilineal or matrilineal in nature. Matrilineal descent systems are the customary norm for a majority of the population, although the formal legal system is modelled on patrilineal English legislation[16]. Although polygamy is prohibited by the Malawian Penal Code for common law marriages and is similarly prohibited in the now promulgated Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations Act, customary laws allow for this type of marriage and efforts to outlaw polygamy have met with strong opposition from Islamic religious leaders. Child marriages are rife in Malawi although, the government has taken strict measures to end child marriages through campaigns and involving traditional leaders.

Only **4** SADC countries **require** all forms of marriages to be **registered**

Child marriages contribute to **36%** of maternal deaths

***Men and women have reciprocal duties towards children in cases of divorce or annulment of marriage:*** Guardianship rests primarily with the father of the child in Swaziland. Even where the marriage has ended in divorce, the mother may be granted custody only with the father maintaining guardianship.[17] In the case of Tanzania, customary law entitles women to child support in nebulous and undefined "special circumstances." In all SADC countries except Swaziland and Tanzania, both men and women have equal duties towards children in cases of divorce or marriage annulment. While laws enforce maintenance payments in ten SADC countries, enforcement remains an issue.



The **Angola** Family Code prescribes that both parents have equal responsibility to support their children, and if children remain with the mother following divorce, the father must pay for maintenance for the children.



In **Tanzania** men and women are not equally responsible for the financial management of household resources, under the Law of Marriage Act. The Act also allows for polygamous non-registered marriages; the first wife may however formally object if the second marriage causes hardship for her and her children.



The **DRC** Family Code stipulates that men are the head of the household and women must obey them. This highlights the inequality between man, the husband and father who is head of the family, and woman, the wife and mother who manages the household setting out an inequitable relationship when it comes to child rearing.

## Child marriages

**Table 1.5: Incidence of child marriages in SADC**

| Countries and areas[18] | Child marriage (%) 2005-2013* | | Child marriage (%) 2005-2014* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Married by 18 | Married by 15 | Married by 15 | Married by 18 |
| Malawi | 50 | 12 | 9 | 46 |
| Mozambique | 48 | 14 | 14 | 48 |
| Zambia | 42 | 9 | 6 | 31 |
| Madagascar | 41 | 12 | 12 | 41 |
| Democratic Republic of the Congo | 39 | 9 | 9 | 39 |
| United Republic of Tanzania | 37 | 7 | 7 | 37 |
| Zimbabwe | 31 | 4 | 4 | 31 |
| Lesotho | 19 | 2 | 2 | 19 |
| Namibia | 9 | 2 | 2 | 7 |
| Swaziland | 7 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| South Africa | 6 | 1 | 1 | 6 |

*Source: UNICEF No data available for Angola, Botswana, Mauritius and Seychelles.*
*The statistics in Table 1.6 record the percentage of girls married before the age of 15 or 18 in a sample of respondents between ages 20 - 24.

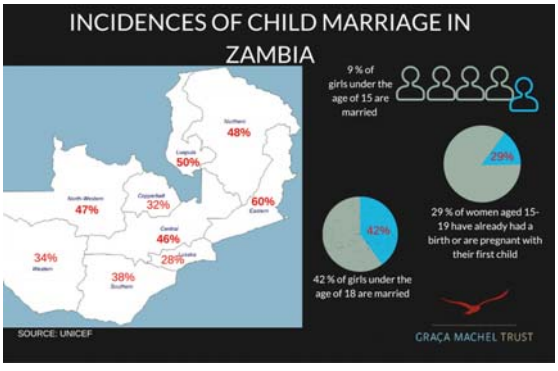
***The SADC region has been hampered by child marriages due to tradition, religion and poverty:*** The causes of child marriage are similar across the SADC region. Parents may marry off their daughter due to poverty or out of fear for their safety. Tradition and the stigma of straying from tradition perpetuate child marriage in many communities. Crucially, gender inequality and the low value placed on girls underlie the practice.

***Despite ratifying international instruments on the rights of the child, the practice is still rife in the region, preventing young girls from enjoying their Constitutional rights:*** It is estimated that child marriages contribute to 36% of maternal deaths with 13% of those caused by unsafe abortions[19]. Apart from denying the girl child the right to remain in school and attain higher education, such a practice compromises the girl

[18] http://www.unicef.org/search/search.php?q_en=child+marriage&go.x=0&go.y=0
[19] UNICEF (2016).

child's human dignity, health and development. In extreme cases, child marriages also expose girls to various forms of servitude, sexual abuse and exploitation. While it has been argued in certain quarters that child marriages are acceptable among certain cultural and religious groups, the fact still remains that the practice of child marriages exposes children to a multiplicity of harmful consequences.

***A high proportion of girls marry before the age of 18:*** The prevalence of child marriage in Malawi decreased from 50% to 46% for children under the age of 18 and from 12% to 9% for children who got married under the age of 15 years. Mozambique remained constant at 48% and 14% for children below 18 and 15 respectively, effectively overtaking Malawi as the country with the highest prevalence of child marriages in Southern Africa. The most significant drop in child marriages during the comparative years was in Zambia which dropped by 11% from 42% to 31% for children below the age of 18 years and by 3% from 9% to 6% for children below the age of 15 years. Namibia dropped by 2% from 9% to 7% for children below the age of 18 years but remained constant at 2% for children below the age of 15 years. The rest of the countries remained constant. However, it remains a positive development that there were significant decreases in cases of child marriages in some of the SADC countries between the years 2013 and 2014. South Africa remained the country with the lowest prevalence at 6% and 1% for children below the ages of 18 and 15 years respectively, sharing the 1% mark with Swaziland for children below the age of 15.






**Zambia** has one of the highest child marriage rates in the world with 42% of women aged 20-24 years married by the age of 18. Zambia is ranked 16th amongst countries with the highest rate of child marriage in the world. Although the Marriage Act establishes a legal age for marriage, and the Penal Code makes sex with a girl under 16 an offence in Zambia, these provisions rarely apply in customary law. Under statutory marriage, child marriages are illegal, and considered a form of child abuse. The legal age for marriage under statutory law is 18 for females and 21 for males._ On the other hand, under traditional law, marriage can take place at puberty, and it is common for girls to be married or have sexual relations under the age of 16[20]. Early child marriage has become a point of discussion in several development circles making it more visible.



In **Madagascar** the Moletry, a custom that requires a very young girl to be married to an elder man in return for a gift of oxen or money offered to her parents, is perhaps one of the most pervasive. If a woman does speak up, she is denigrated as "Akoho vavy maneno'," literally "a hen that cackles."

***SADC Gender Ministers took a bold step towards ending child marriages in the updated Gender Protocol, with Mauritius the lone one out:*** At their annual meeting in Gaborone, Botswana in June 2016 at which they adopted the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol, Gender Ministers took an important step forward when they removed the words unless otherwise specified by law, which takes into account the best interests of the child, from the provision that "No person under the age of 18 shall marry", which now stands alone. Ministers took this stand despite Mauritius vowing that it would not be able to sign the updated Protocol, which it says is now at odds with national laws.



In terms of the minimum legal age of marriage, the Civil Code provides that a person in **Mauritius** can get married at the age of 18 years. However, a person aged 16 years can get married with the consent of their parents, or with the consent of one of the parents exercising parental authority or in the absence of the consent of parents, by the Judge in Chambers if the latter considers that it would be in the interests of the minor to get married. During the negotiations on the Post-2015 Protocol, Mauritius further voiced concern on rigidly setting the legal age of marriage at 18, stating that certain religious groups in the country allow for marriage before the age of 18.

***Nine SADC countries have now established the age for marriage at 18 or above:*** Namibia is most progressive with the age of marriage at 21

**Mauritius** has refused to **sign** the Protocol due to the age of marriage set at **18 years**

[20] World Vision (2015) A situation report of child marriages in Zambia.

9 SADC countries have set the age of marriage at 18

for boys and girls. In **Botswana**, the Marriage Act (amended in 2001) sets the legal age of marriage at 18 for both sexes, conditional on parental consent. Without parental consent, the legal age is 21. This age limit does not apply to marriages contracted under customary or religious law according to which there is no limit. The marriage age for girls in **Lesotho**, **Tanzania**, and **Zambia** is between 15 and 16. In these countries the marriage age for boys is 18. President Edgar Lungu of **Zambia** has publicly indicated his commitment to eradicate child marriages by reviewing policies such as the Marriage Act and the Gender Equality Bill. Eleven Zambian Ministries were ordered to head the campaign to end child marriages ahead of the August 2016 elections.[21]



In **Zimbabwe**, the legal minimum age for civil marriage under the Marriage Act is 18 years for men and 16 years for women. There is no minimum age of marriage for registered customary marriages under the Customary Marriages Act. The Domestic Violence Act of 2007 prohibits forced marriages, the practice of wife inheritance, and early marriage. In a landmark ruling in early 2016, the Constitutional court outlawed child marriages but the relevant laws have not been aligned with this ruling and the Constitution. Zimbabwean civil society and government have been active in ending child marriages through raising awareness and advocacy. In October 2016, a Member of Parliament Honourable Jessie Majome presented draft amendments to laws impacting on child marriage to the Vice-President Emmerson Mnangagwa, in his capacity as the Minister of Justice. The laws in the amendments included the Births and Deaths Registration Act, the Children's Act, the Customary Marriages Act, the Marriages Act and the Criminal Law Codification Act. In March 2017, the Vice President told Parliament that a bill to outlaw child marriages in line with Constitutional Provisions and the Constitutional Court ruling was being crafted. He also told Parliament that progressive provisions in the SADC Model Law to End Child Marriages would be incorporated.[22]



In **Angola**, the Civil Code sets the legal age of marriage at 16 years for both sexes, however the law allows for girls to be married at a younger age in special circumstances. In Mauritius, (see below) and Seychelles the age of marriage can be between 16 and 18 with parental consent. The Family Code in Madagascar was amended in 2007, increasing the minimum legal age of marriage to 18 for both sexes. However, before this age and for serious (unspecified) reasons, the President of the court may authorise a marriage upon the request of the child's parents or guardian and the consent of the child.



The **Malawi** Parliament took a bold step by passing the long awaited Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations bill into law in 2015, putting the age of marriage age at 18 years. However, despite the passing of the bill, the Constitution still provided that children between the ages of 15-18 could marry with parental consent. This remained as a big obstacle given that the Constitution is the supreme law of the country. The Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations Act could have been challenged on the basis that it is unconstitutional. However, the Malawi Parliament voted for a Constitutional amendment to outlaw child marriages between the ages of 15-18 with parental consent in March 2017. 132 MPs voted in favour of the amendment and only 2 voted against.



The **Mozambique** Government in 2016 unveiled a national strategy to end child marriage by 2019. The strategy focuses on improving girls' access to education, providing sexual and reproductive health services and legal reforms.[23] The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has noted that the strategy "takes a holistic approach to children and girls and their rights, for articulated and coordinated action, with a view to creating a more favorable overall development of the child protection environment."[24] This is important as Mozambique has the highest incidences of child marriage in Southern Africa at 48% for children getting married before the age of 18, and 14% for children married before the age of 15. The target year of 2019 is also positively ambitious as in many instances, State Parties to the Protocol tend to push target dates as far away as possible, thereby delaying implementation and the achievement of set targets.



In **Lesotho**, Queen Masenate partnered with World Vision in October 2016 to campaign against child marriages in the country. Although the 1974 Marriage Law states that marriage can only be solemnized at or after the age of 21, girls can be married at age 16, and boys at age 18 with the consent of the minister responsible for the administration of the Marriage Law. In reality, 2% of the children marry before the age of 15 and 19% before the age of 18. In

[21] NGOCC meeting with President Edgar Lungu.
[22] See http://www.herald.co.zw/bill-to-outlaw-child-marriages-in-motion/
[23] Human Rights Watch, World Report, 2017, p441
[24] See http://esaro.unfpa.org/en/news/preventing-child-marriage-mozambique

her address to commemorate the International Day of the Girl Child, the Queen stated "Let us all protect children against all forms of abuse, including early marriage and ensure that legal action is taken against perpetrators of early marriage. We all have a responsibility to ensure that laws protecting children are implemented".[25]

***Governments across Southern Africa urgently need to harmonise policies and legislation to bring an end to child marriage:*** The African Union Agenda 2063 and the SDGs promote the end of child marriages while SADC has enacted provisions which will guard against child and forced marriages. Collective action between government, civil society, traditional leaders and religious leaders is key to end child marriages. Review of laws and development of policies against child marriages is key to achieve a zero level of child marriages.

***SADC model law on child marriages is a step closer to ending child marriage in Southern Africa:*** The Model Law on Eradicating Child Marriage and Protecting Children Already in Marriage, developed by the Southern African Development Community-Parliamentary Forum (SADC-PF) in Swaziland in June 2016, has the potential to shape how the region addresses child marriage[26]. Based on the latest evidence, the Model Law sets a consistent standard for how legislation should deal with child marriage and protect children already in marriage[27]. The model law on child marriages will guide legislators and other policy makers when they adopt national laws to eradicate child marriages. The law will be a powerful tool for countries that are developing, reviewing or harmonising their laws related to child marriage and its impact. Already in Zimbabwe, A Parliamentarian, Innocent Gonese moved a motion in Parliament on 29 November 2016 for Zimbabwe to adopt and domesticate the SADC Model Law on Child Marriages.

## Choice of Termination of Pregnancy

***Criminalisation of abortion exacerbates maternal mortality:*** Most SADC countries outlaw abortion. Only three countries have legislation in place legalising abortion (South Africa, Zambia and now Mozambique). Following the 1996 Choice on Termination of Pregnancy Act, South Africa is the only country in SADC in which abortion is available upon request. Abortion is only allowed in **Lesotho, DRC, Madagascar** and **Malawi** to save a woman's life.



In mid-2012 the **Mauritius** National Assembly passed the Criminal Code Amendment bill which allows for the termination of pregnancy in special circumstances, including where necessary to prevent injury to the pregnant person, where there is substantial risk that the pregnancy will result in severe abnormality of the foetus, or where the pregnancy has not exceeded fourteen weeks and is the result of rape or intercourse with a female under the age of 16.



**Namibia**'s Abortion and Sterilisation Act makes it a crime for a woman to seek an abortion, or to terminate her own pregnancy, except in very narrow circumstances. It is permitted to save a woman's life or health, in the event of rape or incest or due to foetal impairment. It is not permitted on request on social or economic grounds. In July 2017, a Namibian female Parliamentarian Elma Dienda, called for an examination of laws governing abortion, saying that the current state of affairs does not favour women. She stated this whilst attending the first ever African Women's Parliament held in Nahe, Seychelles.




200 demonstrators protested under heavy police surveillance in the Angolan capital Luanda on Saturday against a draft law criminalising all abortions March 2017.
*Photo courtesy of Dawn, https://www.dawn.com/news/1321372*



In **Angola**, in March 2017, lawmakers set in motion a law to make abortion an offence in all circumstances. The current law allows abortion in narrow circumstances including to safeguard the health of the mother, in cases of foetal deformity or where the pregnancy is as a result of rape. The proposed law sought to make abortion illegal even in such circumstances and increase the sentencing for abortion from two years to up to 10 years. Many women's rights activists were caught by surprise as they expected

Only **4** SADC countries **allow** abortion to **save** a woman's life

[25] See http://www.wvi.org/africa/article/queen-masenate-lesotho-campaigns-world-vision-against-early-child-marriage
[26] SADC Parliamentary Forum.
[27] Girls Not Brides.

Women with disabilities are more vulnerable to **abuse** than men

any amendments to the abortion laws in the country to expand abortion options and services for women in the country. Following protests by women in the country on 18 March 2017, the debate and adoption of the law by Parliament was postponed from the proposed date of 23 March 2017, and a new date has not been set. Human Rights Watch has noted that "Nearly all deaths and morbidity from unsafe abortion occur in countries where abortion is severely restricted. Lack of legal access to abortion often leads women to seek abortion services from unskilled providers or under unhygienic conditions, exposing them to a significant risk of death or injury."[28] The Government of Angola should therefore reconsider its position regarding the new law in order to protect the rights of the women in the country, and in particular their rights to health and rights to life.

***Public opinion on abortion is still deeply divided:*** In the Southern African attitude survey, less than half (45% women and 44% men) said they agreed or strongly agreed that a woman had a right to terminate her pregnancy within the first trimester.

## Persons with disabilities

**Article 9: Persons with disabilities** State Parties shall in accordance with the SADC Protocol on Health and other regional and international instruments relating to the protection and welfare of people with disabilities to which Member States are party adopt legislation and related measures to protect persons with disabilities that take into account their particular vulnerabilities.



Members of the Swaziland's Federation of the Disabled in Swaziland (FODSWA) at a 16 Days planning workshop in Mbabane, Swaziland, 2014. *Photo: Thandokuhle Dlamini*

Article 9 remained unchanged in the Post-2015 Gender Protocol. However, SADC adopted a code on social security which includes social allowances for persons with disabilities with reference to Article 5 of the SADC Treaty[29]. Women with disabilities often face the combined discrimination of gender and disability. As the SDGs call for "leaving no one behind" in development, organisations such as the Southern Africa Federation of the Disabled have called on Member States to mainstream disability in all development activities and develop a stand-alone Protocol on disability.

Seven SDG targets specifically mention persons with disabilities (education, accessible schools, employment, accessible public spaces and transport, empowerment and inclusion, data disaggregation). The UN Statistical Division explored development of SDG indicators that can be disaggregated by disability and sex particularly for the targets on poverty, social protection, child mortality, health coverage, violence against women, sexual and reproductive health, access to water and sanitation and birth registration[30]. The SADC MER Framework for the Protocol includes two indicators for persons with disabilities. These are evidence of legislation to protect persons living with disabilities and evidence of targeted programmes for women with disabilities. These programmes will contain among others, measures to ensure the full development, advancement and empowerment of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of the human rights and fundamental freedoms set out in the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.



**South Africa**'s pre-1994 negotiation process agreed that the right of disabled people to speak for themselves in all matters affecting their lives, and mainstreaming disability across government machinery were non-

[28] See https://www.hrw.org/news/2017/07/24/qa-human-rights-law-and-access-abortion
[29] Code on Social Security in SADC
[30] United Nations Secretariat Of The Convention On The Rights Of Persons With Disabilities

negotiable[31]. The Integrated National Disability Strategy in 1997, proved to be a historical milestone in the fight to promote the rights of people with disabilities by guiding the formulation of policies and programmes aimed at advancing their rights. Services ranging from free health care, social assistance and inclusive education, targeting both adults and children with disabilities, opened up access to opportunities. In 2009, President Jacob Zuma announced that a new department would be established. During that announcement, he emphasised the need for equity and access to development opportunities for the vulnerable groups in society. The announcement gave birth to the Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities although this is now the Ministry of Women only.



**Swaziland**'s total population with disabilities includes 58% women[32]. Swaziland signed the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) in in 2007 and ratified the Convention on 24 September 2012. The Kingdom's Constitution Section 14, a clause on the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual, provides for disability in 14(1)(e) and 14(3). The provisions prohibit discrimination on the basis of disability. Similarly, section 20 provides for equality before the law. Section 30 provides for the rights of persons with disabilities. Subsequent to ratification of the CRPD, a National Policy on Disability was developed, aimed at promoting the mainstreaming of disability issues across all development programs of Government. The Federation of the Disabled in Swaziland (FODSWA) strives to promote gender sensitivity amongst its affiliates. For example, the organisation drew up a five-year plan on the development of women with disabilities in Swaziland, a programme which was born from a research study on the discrimination of people with disabilities in Swaziland conducted by FODSWA in October 2001. The research findings highlighted that women with disabilities are the most discriminated against and the least privileged in the country. FODSWA has successfully lobbied for the establishment of a Special Education Unit within the ministry of education, braille to be taught in tertiary institutions and establishment of a disability unit within the Deputy Prime Minister's office which also oversees gender equality in the country[33].

## Widows and widowers rights




**Article 10: Widows' and widowers' rights**

1. Sates Parties shall enact and enforce legislation to ensure that **widows and widowers**:

(a) are not subjected to inhuman , humiliating or degrading treatment;

(b) automatically become the guardians and custodians of their children when **their husband/wife** dies unless otherwise determined by a competent court of law;

(c) have the right to an equitable share in the inheritance of the property **of their spouses**;

(d) have the right to remarry any person of **their** choice; and

(e) have protection against all forms of violence and discrimination based on **their** status.

***The Protocol guards against inhuman treatment of widows and widowers***. At the insistence of Botswana, the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol refers to both widows and widowers although the issues of inheritance, remarrying, custody of children, violence and discrimination primarily refer to widows. The Post-2015 Protocol also removes the reference to widows having "the right to employment and other opportunities to enable her to make a meaningful contribution to society" on grounds that governments cannot guarantee employment for widows.



The **Botswana** Abolition of Marital Power provides women equal rights with regard to decision making on family property management, including upon the death of a husband although, again, this does not apply to customary or religious marriages where the eldest male son assumes the role as head of the household. In Botswana if a spouse dies intestate (without a will) the estate is devolved using customary rules.

Customary law hinders equitable share of inheritance for women

[31] Vukuzenzele (2014) Women, people with disabilities empowered.
[32] African Disability Rights Year Book (2015) Volume 3.
[33] FODSWA (2016) Organisation Profile accessed in 28 August 2017 at http://safod.net/safod-content/cid/92/

There is a **rise** of trafficking in persons targeting the girl child



In **Angola**, the inheritance rights of widows and divorced women are particularly precarious. Although divorced women or widowers may inherit land, this is commonly only in trust for their children. A study conducted by the Rural Development Institute in 2008 found that only 23% of widows use the land left by their deceased husbands, and further, that many women lack knowledge of their land and inheritance rights.



Concerning inheritance rights in **DRC**, the Family Code gives preferential treatment to the children of the deceased and does not discriminate between women and men within the second category of heirs although in practice women are not often full recipients of the inheritance[34]. Article 758, paragraph 3, of the Family Code stipulates that women have the right to inherit their husband's property.



In 2011, the **Malawi** parliament passed the Deceased Estates (Wills, Inheritance and Protection Act) Bill, which provides widows and daughters equal inheritance rights and addresses the issue of widows being denied their inheritance upon the death of a spouse[35].



Following the **South Africa** Constitutional Court decision, in 2009, the government introduced the Reform of Customary Law of Succession and Regulation of Related Matters Act 11 of 2009, so that the rights of women to inherit property under customary law are now governed by the Intestate Succession Act, which also accounts for the recognition of polygamous marriages. There is evidence of other harmful traditional practices in South Africa, including virginity testing and abduction for forced marriage.



The **Zimbabwe** Administration of Estates Act was amended to make the surviving spouse and the children of a deceased person as his or her major beneficiaries, as opposed to the heir who was mainly the eldest son. Secondly, the Act provides that the matrimonial home, whatever the system of tenure under which it was held and wherever it may be situated, remains with the surviving spouse.

## The girl and the boy child




**Article 11: The Girl and Boy Child**

1. States Parties shall adopt laws, policies and programmes to ensure the development and protection of the girl **and the boy child** by:
(a) eliminating all forms of discrimination against **them** in the family, community, institutions and at state levels;
(b) ensuring **that they** have equal access to education and health care, and are not subjected to any treatment which causes them to develop a negative self-image;
(c) ensuring that **they** enjoy the same rights and are protected from harmful cultural attitudes and practices in accordance with.
(d) Protecting **them** from economic exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence including sexual abuse; and
(e) Ensuring that **they** have equal access to information, education, services and facilities on sexual and reproductive health and rights
2. **State Parties shall develop concrete measures to prevent and eliminate violence, harmful practises, child marriages, forced marriages, teenage pregnancies, genital mutilation and child labour as well as mitigate their impacts on girls' and boys' health, wellbeing, education, future opportunities and earnings.**

The updated SADC Gender Protocol refers to both the girl and boy child in each of the sub-articles as Member States highlighted that boys also need protection. The rise of child labour due to economic hardships has placed many boys and girls out of school as they seek additional income for their families.

[34] Chronic Poverty Research Centre (2011).
[35] Women's Inheritance Now (2012).

**Zimbabwe: Kadoma promotes and protects Children's Rights**



Artisinal, small scale and illegal mining often leads to the abuse of children's rights, including through child labour.
*Photo courtesy of http://globalnation.inquirer.net/files/2014/10/child-labor.jpg*

Kadoma City seeks to advocate and lobby for children's rights and reduction in the violation of these rights. The council focused on reducing cases of the infringement of children's rights as provided for in Section 28 of the Zimbabwean Constitution. The project was set to reduce child abuse by educating children about their rights and responsibilities and educating adults about the children's rights and reducing their violation in the community. This was an important intervention given the increase in cases of child rights violations in the country.

The project started in June 2016, following the realisation for a need to campaign for child rights in Kadoma .This was because Kadoma is a small town that is surrounded by gold mines and gold miners who often exploit children. There were increasing cases of child labor and child marriages. The Mayor in collaboration with the junior mayor of Kadoma City led the campaign. Awareness raising workshops were held in Kadoma and these are now being cascaded to children in the community.

The objective of the activity was to reduce child marriage by 60% by 2020 but also to educate children and members of the community about children's rights generally. The main SADC Gender Protocol provisions that could be achieved through this intervention related to the protection of the boy and girl child, ending child marriages and protecting children from economic exploitation, mainly in the illegal gold mining activities.

To kick start the initiative, an inception workshop was held in Gweru to allow the project implementers to understand the rights and responsibilities of children and dissect the causes, effects and solutions to child abuse. This was followed by various awareness raising workshops at community and ward levels as well as engagement with children in schools to discuss and raise awareness on children's rights and fighting child abuse. Commemoration of the Day of the African Child, public campaigns and peer education initiatives were launched resulting in increased awareness on children's rights.

Lack of resources and resistance from adults who thought that teaching children about their rights influenced them to be naughty were some of the challenges. One lesson learnt was the need for teamwork and collaboration in such initiatives. The initiative can be replicated in other regions in Zimbabwe and other countries as it is important to localize campaigns, working with local leaders and children in their communities and schools.

*(Source: Excerpt from SADC Protocol@Work case study by Melisah Tsitsi Mtingwende)*

Protocol@Work

Increase in child headed households due to economic migration and **AIDS**

The region is experiencing an increase in child headed households due to the AIDS pandemic and migration of parents or guardians for better economic opportunities. This has resulted in increased vulnerability of girls and boys to sexual abuse, limited access to education and health opportunities, increased multiple roles of girls, drug abuse, economic exploitation and trafficking.

SADC sponsored a UN Resolution on HIV and AIDS, Women and Girls in March 2016. Access of sexual reproductive health services for youths and adolescents is a key concern in the Resolution. Additionally, the region is experiencing an increase in HIV infections amongst youths and adolescents with more girls infected than boys[36]. Increase of violence cases at schools is a huge concern in the region. Bullying and gangs are affecting security of boys and girls in schools. In most countries, there are now equal numbers of girls and boys in schools - all the way up to tertiary level. However, these figures mask discrepancies between countries as well as key quality, inclusiveness and safety gaps. Gender biases in curriculum, the gendered dimension of subject and career choices, school dropout rates, or gender violence in schools are

[31] United Nations CSW 60 Resolution on HIV and AIDS; Women and girls.

**Arranged** marriages of underage females can **attract** a maximum sentence of 20 years in Swaziland

often ignored when it comes to the girl and boy child.

The region has taken concrete steps to end child marriages through strengthening this provision in the reviewed Protocol. However, aligning laws with the Protocol is critical to ensure that the girl child is protected equally as the boy child. In South Africa for example, the Department of Home Affairs may agree to legalise a marriage of a girl under the age of 15. In Zambia, under customary law, it is legal to marry a girl child who has attained puberty.



In **Swaziland** the recent Children's Protection and Welfare Act of 2012 bans sexual activity with underage females and penalises parents who arrange early marriages with prison sentences of up to 20 years. But stalling of the Sexual Offences Bill remains a cause for concern. Despite a 2014 CEDAW Committee recommendation for Swaziland to finalise the bill and enact it into law "without further delay" the bill has not been finalised.

***The fundamental right to education is sometimes denied to girls especially where poverty persists.*** Due to stigmatisation of teenage pregnancies, the girl child usually drops out of school as soon as they find out that they are pregnant. Many are ridiculed when seeking access to antenatal care which has contributed to resurging HIV infections in the region.



In **Tanzania**, the recent pronouncement by President John Magufuli that girls who fall pregnant cannot be reintegrated into the school system has the effect of forcing children into marriages. The President was quoted as saying "after falling pregnant, you are finished."[37] With no chance of going back to school after falling pregnant, the girls' future becomes bleak, and they may see marriage as the only alternative. Yet with the correct and right level of support, girls who fall pregnant can be reintegrated into the school system, and be assisted to piece together their shattered lives.

The pronouncement by the President is also discriminatory in that boys who impregnate girls, whether in or out of school, do not face sanctions. No law in the country specifically provides for the exclusion of girls from school for falling pregnant but a 2002 statutory instrument, the Expulsion and Exclusion of Pupils from School Regulations, which provides for the expulsion of pupils for various misdemeanours is used for this purpose. The expulsion of pregnant girls is based on a provision on "offences against morality" Needless to say the Regulations must be repealed or amended to ensure that girls can continue with their education after falling pregnant and are not forced into early marriages, which has a much bigger implication on their future. About 8000 girls drop out of school in Tanzania every year due to pregnancy.[38]

To Tanzania's credit, Vice-President Samia Suluhu, came out publicly in support of the re-admission of young mothers into schools, arguing that their right to education should be protected and promoted.[39] This helps in expanding the life opportunities for young girls, and ensuring that they do not view marriage as the only or better option.

***The girl child is often discriminated against in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects:*** This has led to a lower proportion of girls graduating at tertiary level in these subjects. However, SADC member states have embarked on a drive to increase the number of girls in STEM subjects. The SDGs and the revised Protocol call for the inclusion of men and boys in sharing the burden of multiple roles of girls to ensure that they effectively participate in the economic and political spheres. In Zambia, a local councillor has been at the forefront of protecting the girl child from many violations, including gender based violence as illustrated by the case study below:



At a press conference in Dar es Salaam, a coalition of women's advocates urged Tanzanian President John Magufuli to allow teenage mothers to return to school.
*Photo courtesy of The Citizen*

[37] The pronouncement was made at a public rally in Chalinze town, located about 100 KM from the capital Dar es Salaam.
[38] See Human Rights Watch (2017). "I had a Dream to Finish School: Barriers to Secondary Education in Tanzania".
[39] See http://nehandaradio.com/2017/06/24/john-magufulis-pregnant-schoolgirl-ban-angers-tanzanian-women/

**Zambia: Empowering the girl child in Katete**



The Katete Council Project aims to promote girls' rights through life skills education and HIV/AIDS prevention and sexual reproductive health rights education through community awareness campaigns and capacity building for both in and out of school girls. This provides girls with knowledge and skills to enhance their capacities through self-awareness, communication, assertiveness, promoting self-esteem and in fostering sexual behaviour change. The project is innovative because it provides stakeholder participation in ensuring that girls realize and utilize their potential in achieving their intended goals in life while enhancing behaviour change.



Zambia Police Spokesperson Esther Mwata Katongo in February 2017 indicated that gender-based violence was on the increase in Zambia. *Photo courtesy of Lusaka Times*

The project was initiated due to high levels of girl child abuse due to negative cultural and traditional practices that force girls into early sexual activities. Girls became victims of rape, sexual assault, incest and gender-based violence. The negative cultural beliefs led to limited opportunities for girls to access education because most families value the boy child more than the girl child. This also led more girls into forced marriages, teenage pregnancies, commercial sex work and increased vulnerability to HIV/AIDS.

The project is based in the Katete District of the Eastern Province of Zambia to address girl child vulnerabilities caused by negative cultural practices in the District. The intervention seeks to ensure the implementation of the provisions of the 2011 Gender Based Violence Act, which aims at reducing the incidences of GBV in the country and providing women and girls with the necessary capacities to fight and deal with the challenges of GBV.

The targeted population are in and out of school girls to ensure that they access information on GBV and HIV and AIDS. Government institutions at both local and national level were targeted to provide the necessary support at policy and practice levels. The intervention helped in the achievement of various provisions in the SADC Protocol including the fight against HIV/AIDS, promotion of the rights of the girl child and the elimination of gender based violence and the elimination of harmful cultural practices.

The different steps in the implementation of the project include a community awareness campaign, capacity building of various actors, establishment of gender clubs both in and out of schools and the carrying out of Focus Group Discussions (FDGs). Other activities include reproductive health and HIV/AIDS education, peer education, edutainment activities, information exchange visits and the establishment of youth friendly corners. The outcomes included capacity enhancement for the target group, an entrepreneurship (village banking) initiative, skills development and linkages with supportive organisations such as cooperatives. As a result of the positive empowerment results that the community witnessed, one man in the community reported that he had encouraged his wife to contest in elections as a councillor and the wife won and was now a councillor and deputy chairperson for the Katete District Council.

*(Source: Excerpt from case study presented by Martha Phiri at the Zambia summit 2016)*

Protocol@Work

**Harmful** traditional practices force girls into early sexual activities

Increasing the number of judicial officers and **police** is key to equality in accessing **justice**

## Next steps

The adoption of the reviewed Protocol in August 2016 marks a new era of developing and strengthening laws to ensure gender equality. The implementation of the Protocol is critical for the region to localise the SDGs. The region will be involved in the following next steps regarding Constitutional and legal rights:

- Development of legislation, programmes and projects to end child marriages in line with the model law on child marriages adopted in June 2016.
- Opening up platforms for dialogue on issues such as termination of pregnancy, LGBTI rights and marital rape.
- Improvement of equal access to justice to all through effective legal centres, increasing the number of judicial officers and police per 100,000 people and public education on equal rights.
- Abolishing harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation and forced marriages through working with traditional and religious leaders.
- Enacting special measures to ensure increased participation and representation of women in all spheres of life.
- Resource mobilisation to ensure a rights based approach in localising the SDGs and implementing the Revised Protocol.
- Effective measurement of progress in gender responsive Constitution and legal rights.
- Building partnerships with civil society, private sector and development partners in the Post-2015 Protocol implementation and SDGs localisation.




Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe members claim their rights, July 2017. *Photo: Women's Coalition of Zimbabwe*

CHAPTER 2

# Gender and governance

## Articles 12-13



Sibusisiwe Mtsetfwa speaking during the 30% to 50% campaign in Swaziland.
*Photo: Thandokuhle Dlamini*

### KEY POINTS

- Women's equal representation and effective participation in leadership and decision-making remains below parity in most countries, despite the lip service paid to this area of gender equality over the years.
- "Special measures" and conducive electoral systems give the greatest assurance for increasing women's representation from local to national levels of governance.
- Countries with a PR or mixed system and quotas have higher percentages of women (36% at local and 42% at national) compared to 9% at local and 17% at national in the FPTP system (with no quota).
- Women's representation in parliament in SADC remains at 27%; four percentage points higher than the global average of 23% and 3% ahead of the Sub-Saharan Africa average of 24%.
- Women's representation in cabinet in the region is low at 23%. This is also true in local government (24%).
- Four countries held elections in SADC from August 2016 to June 2017 including South Africa (Local), Zambia (Tripartite), Seychelles (Parliament) and Lesotho (Parliament). Seychelles dropped in the global rankings of women in parliament from 4th in 2016 to 87th after the September 2016 elections that saw a change in political party leadership and formation of a coalition government.
- Six more countries are due to hold elections in 2017/2018: Angola (National), DRC (Tripartite), Madagascar (Tripartite), Swaziland (Tripartite), Mozambique (Local), and Zimbabwe (Tripartite).
- In 2017 the Barometer adds a number of new areas of decision-making including the public service, foreign service and judiciary using data made available by the SADC member states as part of their reporting.

**Women in parliament**
**27%**
**Women in cabinet**
**23%**
**Women in local government**
**24%**

50/50 by 2030

## What the Protocol requires

Part Three of the SADC Gender Protocol concerns Governance. This has two articles: Representation and Participation. The protocol emphasises women's ***full*** and ***effective*** participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, social and public life. Member states are mandated to adopt **special measures**, strengthen sound policies and ensure enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women at all levels decision making. Civil society organisations, activists, media, citizens and governments have strengthened their strategies. Lobbying and Advocacy focuses on the adoption of quotas and electoral systems reforms aimed to field more women in political party leadership and lists.

**Table 2.1: The revised SADC Gender Protocol**

| Old provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| **Article 12.1**: State parties shall ensure that by 2015 at least 50% of decision-making positions in the private and public sectors are held by women including the use of affirmative action measures as provided for in Article 5. | **Article 12. 1**: State parties shall ensure equal and effective representation by women in decision-making in the political, public and private sectors, including the use of special measures as provided for in Article 5. |

*Source: SADC Gender and Development Protocol, 2008 and 2015.*

Table 2.1 shows that the two major changes in the Post-2015 provisions are:

- Adding *effective* participation to equal representation. This is in line with Goal Five of the Sustainable Development Goals that moves beyond numbers.
- Changing *affirmative action to special measures*, consistent with Article 5. Both Botswana and Mauritius cited affirmative action provisions in the past as an impediment to them signing the Protocol. The shift to "special measures" aimed to facilitate both signing the Protocol (Mauritius is yet to sign).

## Key trends

**Table 2.2: Trends in Governance 2009, 2015 and 2017**

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - 2030 target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **WOMEN IN PARLIAMENT** | | | | |
| The average proportion of women in parliament reaches 50%. | 25% | 27% | 27% | -23% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 30% women in Parliament | 5 (Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania) | 7 (Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) | 6 (South Africa, Namibia, Mozambique, Angola, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) | 9 (Seychelles, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Swaziland, Zambia, Mauritius, DRC) |
| *Highest (country/%)* | South Africa (42%) | Seychelles (44%) | South Africa (42%) | -8% |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | DRC (8%) | DRC (9%) | DRC (8%) | -42% |
| **WOMEN IN CABINET** | | | | |
| Average proportion of women in cabinet reaches 50% | 21% | 22% | 23% | -27% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 30% women in Cabinet | 1 (South Africa) | 2 (South Africa, Tanzania) | 3 (Seychelles, Zambia, South Africa) | 12 (Botswana, Lesotho, Angola, Madagascar, Tanzania, Namibia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Swaziland, Mauritius, Democratic Republic of Congo - DRC) |
| *Highest (country/%)* | South Africa (42%) | South Africa (41%) | Seychelles (43%) | -7% |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | Mauritius (10%) | Mauritius (8%) | DRC (8%) | -42% |

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - 2030 target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **WOMEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT** | | | | |
| Average proportion of women in local government reaches 50% | 23% | 24% | 24% | -26% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 30% women in Local Government | 5 (Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania) | 5 (Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania) | 5 (Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania) | 10 (Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Madagascar, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe) |
| *Highest (country/%)* | Lesotho (58%) | Namibia (49%) | Lesotho (49%) | -1% |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | Mauritius (6%) | Madagascar (6%) | DRC (6%) | -44% |
| **WOMEN IN TOP POLITICAL PARTY POSTS** | | | | |
| Average proportion women in top political party posts reached 50% | | | 13% | -37% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 50% women in top political party posts | | | None | 15 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Madagascar, Tanzania, South Africa, Mozambique, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe) |
| *Highest (country/%)* | | | Madagascar (27%) | -23% |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | | | Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Seychelles (0%) | -50% |
| **WOMEN IN ELECTORAL BODIES** | | | | |
| Average proportion women in Electoral Bodies reached 50% | | | 30% | - 20% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 50% women in Electoral Bodies | | | 1 (Mauritius) | 14 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Madagascar, Tanzania, South Africa, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe) |
| **Highest (country/%)** | | | Mauritius (53%) | Exceeded target (Needs to set new country target) |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | | | Mozambique (13%) | 37% |
| **WOMEN JUDGES** | | | | |
| Average proportion women Judges reached 50% | | 28% | 28% | -22% |
| No. of countries that have achieved over 50% women Judges in SADC | | 1 (Lesotho) | 2 (Madagascar, Mauritius) | 14 (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Malawi, Madagascar, Tanzania, South Africa, Mozambique, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe) |
| *Highest (country/%)* | | Lesotho (65%) | Madagascar (88%) | Exceeded target (Needs to set new country target) |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | | Seychelles (11%) | DRC (6%) | -44% |
| **WOMEN SOURCES IN POLITICAL TOPICS** | | | | |
| Average proportion women sources in political parties reached 50% | | | 15% | -35% |
| *Highest (country/%)* | | | Malawi (26%) | -24% |
| *Lowest (country/%)* | | | DRC (5%) | -45% |
| **SCORES** | | | | |
| SGDI | 48% | 49% | 47% | -53% |
| CSC | 50% | 67% | 66% | -34% |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

**None of the 15 SADC countries have achieved parity in parliament, local government and cabinet**

**SGDI** has gone **down** to **47%** in **2017** from **49%** in **2015**

**CSC** has **dropped** from **67%** in **2015** to **66%** in **2017**



Young and old prepare to vote in South Africa 2016 local government elections. *Photo: IT News Africa*

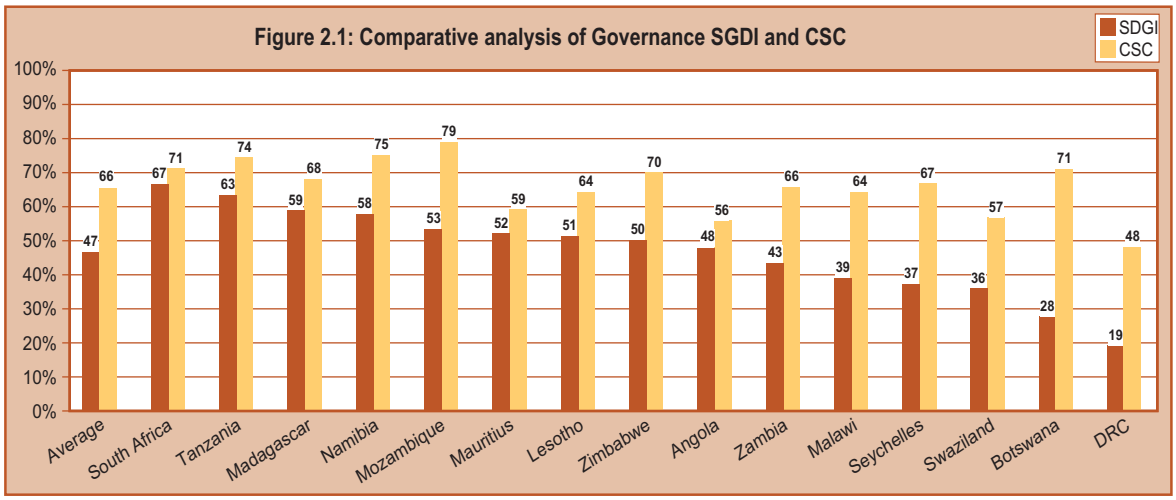
Table 2.2 shows that:

- There are wide variations in women's representation in all levels of governance. Countries need to adopt different timeframes and realistic targets for achieving gender parity, with 2030 the outside deadline.
- Women's representation in parliament has only increased by two percentage points from 25% in 2009 to 27% by 2015. This percentage remains the same in 2017. No country has reached the 50% target. At 42%, South Africa has the highest proportion of women in parliament. Since 2015, Seychelles has dropped out of group of countries close to achieving the 50% target having moved from 44% women in parliament in 2015 to 21% women in parliament after the September 2016 national elections. Swaziland has the lowest proportion of women in parliament at 6%.
- Women's representation in cabinet has only improved by two percentage points from 21% in 2009 to 23% in 2017. Cabinet appointments that are at the sole discretion of the head of state, should provide the ideal opportunity for leaders to "walk the talk". This has not been the case as women are least represented in most SADC countries. Seychelles (43%) has the highest proportion women in cabinet followed by South Africa (42%). DRC (8%) has the lowest proportion of women in cabinet.
- Women in local government only increased by one percentage point from 23% in 2009 to 24% in 2015 and 2017. Only five countries have achieved over 30% women in local government. Lesotho (49%) and Namibia (48%) and South Africa (41%) are the only three countries with over 40% women in local government.
- At a regional average of 13%, few political parties have "special" or "affirmative" measures to promote women's representation and participation in their own ranks. Madagascar has the highest proportion of women in political party leadership at 27%. Most countries having no women in political party leadership.
- Women comprise 30% of commissioners in independent electoral commissions in the region. This ranges from 13% in Mozambique to 53% in Mauritius.
- Madagascar (88%) and Mauritius (50%) have made outstanding gains by reaching the 50% target of women judges. But more needs to be done in the region, where overall women judges comprise 28% of the total.
- At 15% news sources in the political topic category, women still lack a voice in this critical area of participation. This ranges from 5% in DRC to 26% in Malawi.

## Scores - SGDI and CSC

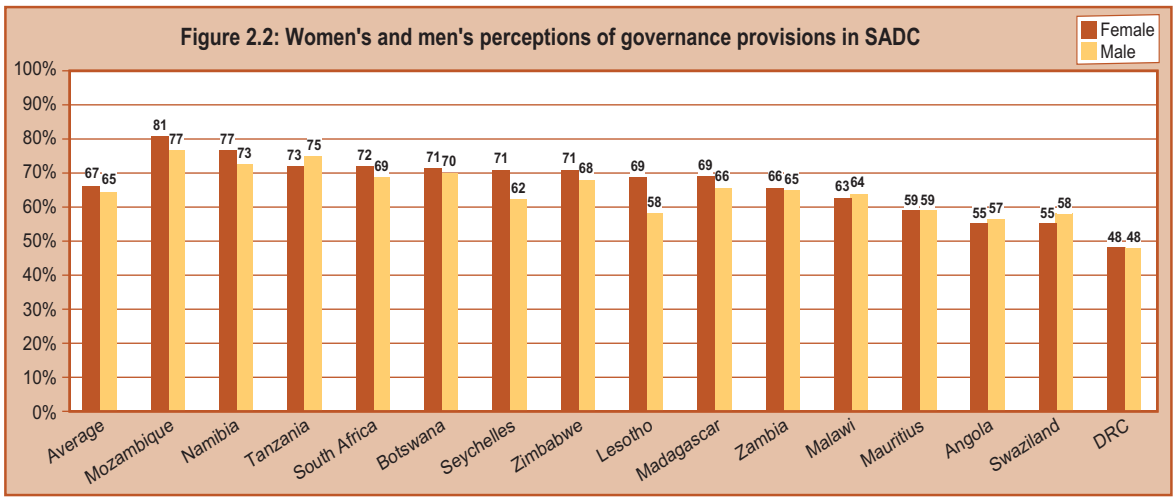
The Southern Africa Gender and Development Index (SGDI) initially measured women's representation in parliament, cabinet and local government with the target of 50% doubled to 100% in each case, as all SGDI scores are out of 100. In 2017, the Barometer has added women's representation in top party posts, electoral bodies, and judges to broaden the scope of decision-making. The SGDI has also added an indicator on women sources in the political topic category: an important measure of voice. Not surprisingly, the SGDI overall has gone down from 49% in 2015 to 47% in 2017. Overall the region is less than half way where it should be by 2030. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) measures citizen perceptions of governments' commitment to gender and governance. This score has also been expanded to take into account the new additions and emphasise in the Post - 2015 SADC Gender Protocol detailed in Table 2.1. The CSC dropped from 67% in 2015 to 66% in 2017.


Mavula community members in discussions during the 30% to 50/50 campaign in Swaziland. *Photo: Thandokuhle Dlamini*




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 2.1 shows that overall at 47% for the SGDI and 66% for the CSC, there is quite a wide divergence between these scores - wider than in any other sector. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. The CSC was higher than the SGDI in all countries. This is likely due to the high visibility of 50/50 campaigns, even though the reality is that of one step forwards, two steps backwards. The perception of change is good. However, this needs to be converted into real progress, otherwise cynicism will set in.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 2.2 compares the CSC for women and men. This shows that overall at 67%, women score their governments higher than men at 65%. In 2017, the biggest gender gap in perceptions are in countries that held elections particularly Lesotho (11%) and Seychelles (9%). In both countries, 50/50 campaigns were quite intense at the local level where the majority of women live. Elections in both countries ended in the formation of coalition governments that witnessed new comers in political leadership. In Tanzania, Malawi, Angola and Swaziland, men are more optimistic than women, a possible reflection of the patriarchal nature of these societies. In Mauritius and DRC, women and men scored their governments the same.

**SDGI**
**47%**

**CSC**
**66%**

**67%**
scored
higher
than
**65%**

**No** woman **leads** a political **party** in SADC

## Background

A strong and vibrant democracy is only possible when all levels of government and leadership are fully inclusive of the people they represent. No public or private office is inclusive unless it has the **full participation of women**. This is not just about women's right to equality and their contribution to the conduct of public affairs, but also about using women's resources and potential to determine political and development priorities that benefit societies and the global community. Women have proven abilities as leaders and agents of change, and their right to participate equally governance is essential for a healthy democracy and sustainable development.

Women face several obstacles to participating in political life. Structural barriers through discriminatory laws and institutions still limit women's options to run for office. Capacity gaps mean women are less likely than men to have the education, contacts and resources needed to become effective leaders. Individual women have overcome these obstacles with great acclaim, and often to the benefit of society at large. But for women as a whole, the playing field needs to be level, opening opportunities for all.[1]

Women's leadership, inclusivity at all levels of decision-making and representation is central to achieving human development and promoting human rights. When women are marginalised in politics, issues that concern them, children and youth tend to be compromised at the political decision-making levels. When women are equal partners in decision-making, their experience considered, and voices heard, national and development policies are more inclusive and have a broader influence and impact.

## Representation

Article 12.1 State parties shall ensure equal and effective representation of women in decision-making positions in the political, public and private sectors including through the use of special measures as provided for in Article 5.

Article 12.2 State parties shall ensure that all legislative and other measures are accompanied by public awareness campaigns which demonstrate the vital link between the equal representation and participation of women and men in decision-making positions, democracy, governance and citizen participation.

### Women in political party leadership

Political parties are often referred to as the gatekeepers of democracy and have multiple functions within the electoral process. They are first and foremost organizations that serve as the representatives of their membership, citizens of their countries. They also mirror the democratic soundness of their nations.

Internally, political parties facilitate political recruitment and play a crucial role in candidate selection in the nomination process. Through their party structures, they provide support, financial and professional, to potential candidates that inevitably form legislative bodies as elected members of parliament and in some cases, the executive branch of government[2]. Political parties and their support for women within their party structures and candidates are crucial to enhancing and sustaining women's representation in the electoral process and in decision-making process as a whole.

When parties fail to ensure that women assume leadership posts, this raises questions about their commitment to advancing gender equality more broadly. At a practical level, having women in decision-making within parties plays an important role in pushing for, and implementing special measures like quotas for women.

[1] UNWOMEN Thematic Brief on Women's Leadership and Political Participation. See http://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/library/publications/2013/12/un%20womenlgthembriefuswebrev2%20pdf.pdf. Retrieved 28 July 2017.
[2] OSCE report.

## Table 2.3: Women in political party leadership 2017

| Country | Party | Leader | M | F | Secretary General | M | F | DSG | M | F | Total M | Total F | Overall Total | Other positions held in parties |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Angola** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola | José Eduardo dos Santos | 1 | 0 | Paulo Kassoma | 1 | 0 | n/a | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| Main opposition | National Union for the Total Independence of Angola | Isaías Samakuva | 1 | 0 | Vitorino Nhany | 1 | 0 | Rafaeel Massanga Savimbi | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Botswana** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Botswana Democratic Party | Sir Ian Seretse Kama | 1 | 0 | Mokgweetsi Masisi | 1 | 0 | Beotsalo Ntuane | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Botswana National Front | Duma Gideon Boko | 1 | 0 | Messers Mohwasa | 1 | 0 | Prince Dibeela | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **DRC** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | People's Party for Reconstruction and Democracy | Henri Mova | 1 | 0 | Henri Mova | 1 | 0 | n/a | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| Main opposition | Union for Democracy and Social Progress | Etienne Tshise | 1 | 0 | Bruno Mavungu | 1 | 0 | Bruno Tshibala | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Lesotho** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | All Bosotho Convention | Tom Thabane | 1 | 0 | Samonyane Ntsekele | 1 | 0 | Lebohang Hlaele | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Democratic Congress | Pakalitha Mosisili | 1 | 0 | Ralechate Mokose | 1 | 0 | Semano Sekatle | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Malawi** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Democratic Progressive | Peter Mutharika | 1 | 0 | Jean Kalilani | 1 | 0 | Francis Mphepo | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | Administrative secretary |
| Main opposition | Malawi Congress Party | Lazarus Chakwera | 1 | 0 | Jessie Kabwila | 1 | 0 | Eisenhower Mkaka | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| **Mauritius** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Militant Socialist Movement | Pravind Jugnauth | 1 | 0 | Nando Bodha | 1 | 0 | Leela Devi Dookhun - vice president | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Muvman Liberater | Ivan Collendavelloo | 1 | 0 | Rajesh Bhagwan | 1 | 0 | Jaya Krishna | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Mozambique** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | FRELIMO | Filipe Nyusi | 1 | 0 | Eliseu Machava | 1 | 0 | Esperança Bias | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Mozambican National Resistance | Afonso Dhlakama | 1 | 0 | Manuel Zeca Bissopo | 1 | 0 | Jose Manteigas | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Namibia** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | South West Africa People's Organization | Hage Geingob - president | 1 | 0 | Nangolo Mbumba | 1 | 0 | Laura Mcleod | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Democratic Turnhalle | Henry Venaani | 1 | 0 | Martin G Dentlinger | 1 | 0 | Jan J. van Wyk. | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **South Africa** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | African National Congress | Jacob Zuma | 1 | 0 | Gwede Mantashe | 1 | 0 | Jessie Duarte | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Democratic Alliance | Mmusi Maimane | 1 | 0 | Athol Trollip - Chairperson | 1 | 0 | Ivan Meyer/Refiloe Nt'sekhe/ Desiree Vander Walt - Deputy Chairperson | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 5 | |
| **Seychelles** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Linyon Demokratik Seselwa | Roger Mancienne | 1 | 0 | Clifford André | 1 | 0 | Roy Fonseka* | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | Treasurer |
| Main opposition | Peoples Party | Vincent Meriton | 1 | 0 | n/a | 1 | 0 | n/a | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| **Swaziland** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | Banned |
| Main opposition | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 | Banned |
| **Tanzania** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Chama Cha Mapinduzi | John Magufuli | 1 | 0 | Abdulrahman Kinana | 1 | 0 | Humphrey Polepole | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Chadema | Edward Lowassa | 1 | 0 | Vincent Mashinji | 1 | 0 | Pamela Massay* | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | Chairperson |
| **Zambia** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Patriotic Front (PF) | Edgar Lungu | 1 | 0 | Davies Mwila | 1 | 0 | Mumbi Phiri | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | United Party For National | Hakainde Hichilema | 1 | 0 | Freeman Mbowe | 1 | 0 | Brian Mwiinga | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Zimbabwe** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ruling party | Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) | Robert Mugabe | 1 | 0 | Emmerson Munangagwa | 1 | 0 | Phekezela Mphoko, Emmerson Mnangagwa | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| Main opposition | Movement for Democratic Change | Morgan Tsvangirai | 1 | 0 | Thokozani Khupe | 1 | 0 | Nelson Chamisa | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| **Totals** | | | **26** | **0** | | **26** | **0** | | **26** | **0** | **10** | **10** | **76** | |

*Source: Gender Links and political party websites accessed July 2017.*

No women No voice

Table 2.3 shows that:

- Women constituted only 10 of the 76 top three functionaries in political parties and main opposition parties in SADC in 2017, (13% of the total).
- No woman leads a ruling or main opposition party in the region.
- Eight of 26 Deputy Secretary General positions (30%) in main and opposition parties are held by women.
- 12% of the Secretary General positions in ruling and main opposition parties are held by women.
- At 40%, the main opposition Democratic Alliance Party in South Africa has the highest proportion of women in top leadership.
- Despite their stated commitment to gender equality, political parties have not "walked the talk" of gender equality in their own ranks. Most are reluctant to adopt special measures through quotas and policy reforms in their manifestos.

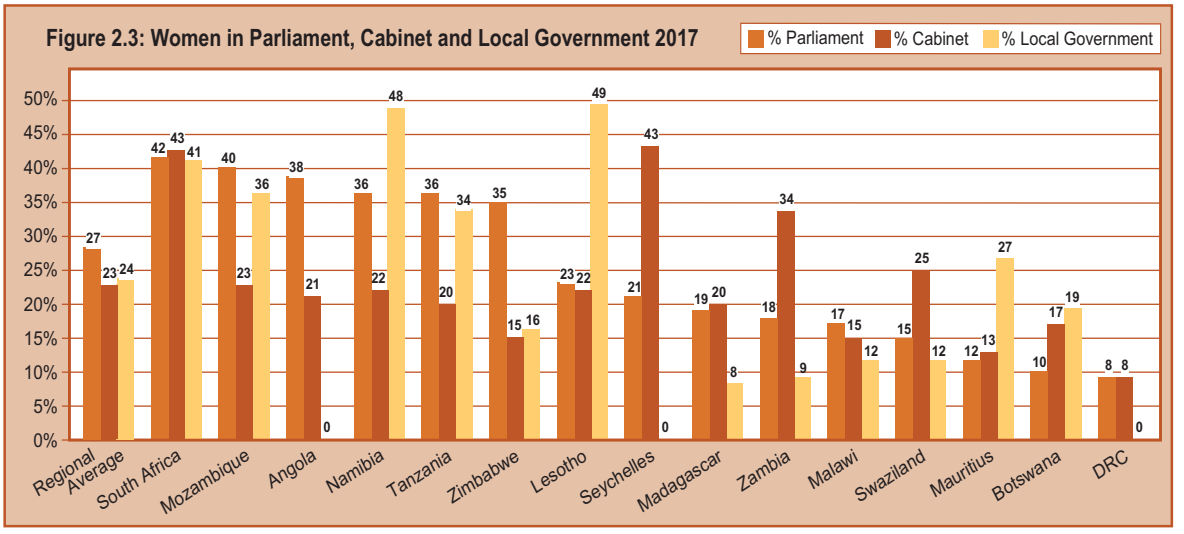
## Elections and political decision-making

**Table 2.4: Elections in SADC 2016 to 2018**

| Country | Elections held 2016 - 2017 | | Elections planned 2017-2018 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Local | National | Local | National |
| South Africa | August 2016 | | | |
| Zambia | August 2016 | August 2016 | | |
| Seychelles | | September 2016 | | |
| Lesotho | | June 2017 | September 2017 | |
| Angola | | | | August 2017 |
| DRC | | | 2017/Early 2018 | 2017/Early 2018 |
| Madagascar | | | 2017 (provincial/regional) | May 2018 |
| Swaziland | | | 2017 | September 2018 |
| Mozambique | | | October 2018 | |
| Zimbabwe | | | July 2018 | July 2018 |

*Source: Gender Links 2017; Electoral Institute for Sustainable Democracy in Africa (EISA) 2017.*

Table 2.4 shows elections held in SADC in 2016 and early 2017 and upcoming elections in 2018. Between August 2016 and mid 2017 South Africa (local), Zambia (tripartite), Seychelles (national) and Lesotho (national) held elections. Local or national elections are expected to take place in Lesotho (local), Angola (national), DRC (tripartite), Madagascar (local; national), Swaziland (tripartite), Mozambique (local) and Zimbabwe (tripartite) in 2017/2018. South Africa, Zambia and Lesotho realised slight gains in women's representation in their elections. Seychelles realised an improvement in women in cabinet but a significant loss in women's representation in parliament.

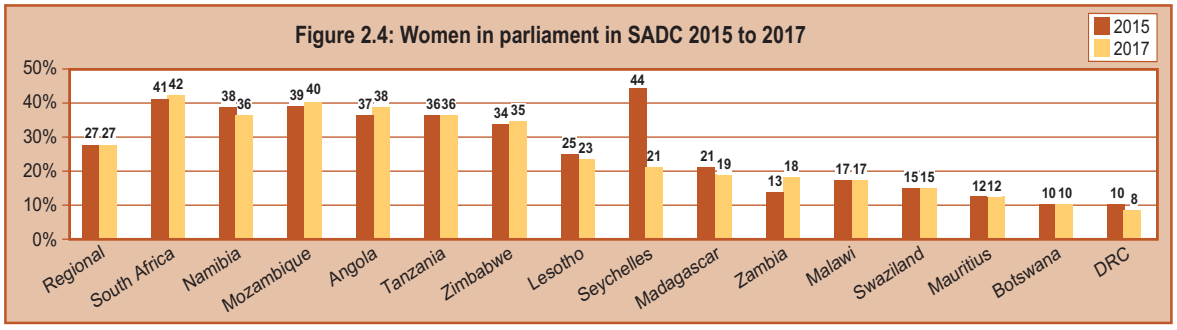



*Source: Gender Links 2017, SADC Gender Protocol Country reports and IPU last accessed 12 July 2017.*

Figure 2.3 shows that:

- Performance continues to be mixed in different areas of political decision-making.
- Only South Africa achieved over 40% in parliament, cabinet and local government.
- Only eight countries have exceeded the 30% mark in one or more areas including South Africa (parliament, cabinet and local government); Mozambique (parliament, cabinet and local government); Tanzania (parliament, cabinet and local government); Angola (parliament); Namibia (parliament, local government); Zimbabwe (parliament), Lesotho (local government) and Seychelles (cabinet).
- Namibia, Mozambique and Tanzania have over 30% women in parliament and local government.
- Madagascar, Swaziland, Mauritius, Malawi, Zambia, DRC and Botswana still have a long way to go to achieve gender parity across categories.
- All perform better on women in parliament than cabinet and local government except for South Africa where women comprise 43% of cabinet compared to parliament (42%) and local government (41%).
- Generally there are much lower proportions of women in cabinet than in parliament and local government. As heads of state appoint cabinets and can therefore make rapid changes in this area, the relatively low level of women in cabinet reflects weak political will at leadership level.

## Parliament




*Source: Gender Links 2017, SADC Gender and development Monitor 2016, IPU accessed 17 July 2017 http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm*

Fig 2.4 shows that:

- 2016 witnessed slight forward movement in women's representation in parliament in Zambia but a drop in Lesotho and big drop in Seychelles. Women in parliament in Zambia increased by five percentage points from 13% in 2015 to 18% after the August 2016 elections. Lesotho experienced a two percentage point drop from 25% to 23%.
- Seychelles experienced a drastic decline in women's political participation from 44% to 21%. As there are only 33 parliamentarians in Seychelles, even a small loss of numbers of women MPs has a profound effect on the overall proportion of women in parliament.
- No SADC country has attained the 50% target of women in parliament.
- Three SADC countries have 40% or more women in parliament.
- Six countries have passed the 30% mark, compared to seven in 2015 due to Seychelles dropping from the lead.
- Nine countries have less than 30% women's representation in parliament. Of the nine, seven have below 20% women's representations with the least being Botswana (10%) and DRC (8%).



**8** of **15** countries have **exceeded** **30%** in one or more areas of political decision-making

**SADC ranks 3rd globally**

| Table 2.5: Global comparison of women in parliament by region | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Region** | **2015 (%)** | **2017 (%)** |
| **Global averages** | **22** | **25** |
| Nordic countries | 41 | 42 |
| Americas | 27 | 28 |
| **SADC** | 27 | 27 |
| Europe excluding Nordic countries | 24 | 25 |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 22 | 24 |
| Asia | 17 | 20 |
| Arab States | 19 | 18 |
| Pacific | 16 | 15 |

*Source: www.ipu.org, 17 July 2017.*

Table 2.5 shows that:

- There has been a slight increase in women's representation in global parliaments, SADC parliaments, cabinets and local government: The average representation of women in global parliaments increased marginally from 22% in 2015 to 23.4% in 2017. Women's representation in SADC parliaments (upper and lower houses) remains the same in 2017 as in 2015 (27%).
- SADC has performed better than other regions in increasing women's representation in political decision-making.
- SADC is more than three percentage points ahead of the 23.4% global average and Sub-Saharan Africa. SADC is well ahead of Asia, the Arab States and the Pacific. Asia experienced a three percentage point improvement while the Arab States and Pacific both dropped in their averages in the past two years.
- SADC's ranking compared with the Americas dropped by one percentage point. As a region SADC now ranks third in the world (after the Nordic countries and the Americas).

**Table 2.6: Regional and Global ranking of Women in Parliament**

| Country | Women in Parliament % representation | | | Global rank | | | SADC rank | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 2015 | 2017 | Variance | 2015 | 2017 | Variance | 2015 | 2017 | Variance (2015-2017) |
| South Africa | 42% | 42% | 0% | 7 | 10 | -3 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Mozambique | 40% | 40% | 0% | 15 | 12 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Angola | 37% | 38% | 1% | 23 | 18 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| Namibia | 36% | 36% | 0% | 11 | 11 | 0 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| Tanzania | 36% | 36% | 0% | 21 | 24 | -3 | 6 | 5 | 1 |
| Zimbabwe | 32% | 33% | 1% | 38 | 35 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 1 |
| Lesotho | 25% | 23% | -2% | 67 | 70 | -3 | 8 | 7 | 1 |
| Seychelles | 44% | 21% | -23% | 4 | 87 | -83 | 1 | 8 | -7 |
| Madagascar | 21% | 19% | -2% | 84 | 102 | -18 | 9 | 9 | 0 |
| Zambia | 14% | 18% | 4% | 139 | 111 | 28 | 12 | 10 | 2 |
| Malawi | 17% | 17% | 0% | 110 | 119 | -9 | 10 | 11 | -1 |
| Swaziland | 15% | 6% | -9% | 171 | 176 | -5 | 11 | 12 | -1 |
| Mauritius | 11% | 11% | 0% | 105 | 150 | -45 | 13 | 13 | 0 |
| Botswana | 10% | 10% | 0% | 155 | 162 | -7 | 14 | 14 | 0 |
| DRC | 10% | 9% | -1% | 161 | 167 | -6 | 15 | 15 | 0 |

*Source: www.ipu.org, 17 July 2017 and Gender Links.*

Table 2.6 illustrates where SADC countries rank globally and relative to each other against 140 countries listed by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU). The table shows that:

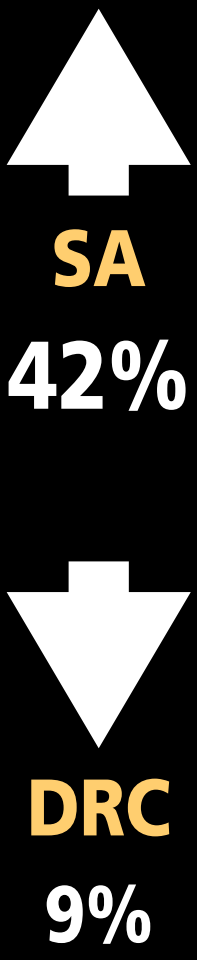
- SADC countries range from 10th to 176th in the global ranking. At 42%, South Africa is the only country in the region in the global top 10. No SADC country is in the global top five. What this shows is that countries elsewhere in the world are moving up the global scales as SADC countries move down.
- Four countries made positive moves in the global ranking from 2016 to 2017 including Mozambique, Angola, Zimbabwe and Zambia. Namibia maintained its 11th position.
- With the decline of women in parliament in Seychelles, the island dropped by 83 places from 4th to 87th. Other countries whose global raking declined include: Mauritius (-45), Madagascar (-18), Malawi (-9), Botswana (-7), DRC (-6), Swaziland (-5), Tanzania (-3) and Lesotho (-3).
- Within SADC rankings, Seychelles (-7), Malawi and Swaziland moved one place down from where they were in 2015.
- Zambia improved after the August 2016 elections, moving 28 places up from 139 to 111. Zambia's regional rankings improved by two places from 12th to 10th place.

Table 2.7 overleaf tracks the performance of all SADC countries with regard to women's representation in national elections and provides projections to 2020. The information is sorted in descending order according to 2020 projections. The explanations for these projections are in the last column. Those shaded green are countries that have or are likely to achieve 40% or more women in parliament. Those shaded amber have or are likely to achieve 30% or more women in parliament. Those shaded red are in the danger zone of not having achieved, or not likely to achieve 30% women in parliament. Projections, based on an assessment of electoral systems, quotas, and past trends (see comments in the predictions table) show that:

- The region may only achieve an average of 34% women in parliament by 2020.
- Tanzania is the only country projected to achieve 50% women's representation in parliament.
- With Seychelles dropping out of the lead, only five countries (Tanzania; Mozambique; Namibia; South Africa and Angola) will likely come close to achieving the 50% target, especially if they strengthen their existing voluntary and legislated/ constitutional quotas and review special measures in party manifestos before their next elections by 2020.
- Two countries - Zimbabwe and Madagascar - will achieve or exceed the 30% target if they stay the course and leverage off their quotas as well as fifty-fifty campaigns.
- Six countries - Malawi; Zambia; Mauritius; Botswana; DRC; Madagascar and Swaziland will remain below 30% unless they adopt quotas, amend their electoral systems and political parties especially the majority parties review their party manifestos with special measures.
- Given the wide variations between countries - from 8% women in parliament in DRC and 10% in Botswana, to South Africa currently the SADC leader at 42% - *countries need to adopt different timeframes for achieving gender parity in parliament, with 2030 the outside deadline for doing so.*



Studying women's political participation in Menoaneng Council, Lesotho. *Photo: Gender Links*



SADC on the Move

**Table 2.7: Women in parliament in SADC**

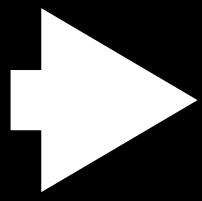
| Women in parliament in SADC 2017 | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Structure | Date of last election | Total members in lower/ single house | Women in lower/ single house | Lower house | Total members in upper/ senate house | Women in upper/ senate house | Upper house | Upper and lower | Total number of women | % Women in parliament |
| **Regional Average** | | | **2460** | **575** | **23%** | **368** | **93** | **25%** | **3659** | **973** | **27%** |
| Tanzania | Unicameral | Sep-15 | 393 | 143 | 36% | | | | 393 | 143 | 36% |
| Mozambique | Unicameral | Oct-14 | 250 | 99 | 40% | | | | 250 | 99 | 40% |
| Namibia | Bicameral | Nov-14 | 146 | 53 | 36% | 42 | 10 | 24% | 188 | 63 | 34% |
| South Africa | Unicameral | May-14 | 400 | 166 | 42% | 54 | 19 | 35% | 454 | 185 | 41% |
| Angola | Unicameral | Aug-12 | 220 | 84 | 38% | | | | 220 | 84 | 38% |
| Zimbabwe | Bicameral | Jul-13 | 350 | 123 | 35% | 80 | 38 | 48% | 430 | 161 | 37% |
| Madagascar | Bicameral | Jul-13 | 151 | 29 | 19% | 63 | 13 | 21% | 214 | 42 | 20% |
| Lesotho | Bicameral | Jun-17 | 120 | 27 | 23% | 33 | 8 | 24% | 153 | 35 | 23% |
| Seychelles | Unicameral | Sep-16 | 33 | 7 | 21% | | | | 33 | 7 | 21% |
| Malawi | Unicameral | May-14 | 192 | 32 | 17% | | | | 192 | 32 | 17% |
| Swaziland | Bicameral | Aug-13 | 95 | 14 | 15% | 30 | 10 | 33% | 125 | 24 | 19% |
| Zambia | Unicameral | Aug-16 | 167 | 30 | 18% | | | | 167 | 30 | 18% |
| Mauritius | Unicameral | Jul-14 | 69 | 8 | 12% | | | | 69 | 8 | 12% |
| Botswana | Unicameral | Oct-14 | 63 | 6 | 10% | | | | 63 | 6 | 10% |
| DRC | Bicameral | Nov-11 | 600 | 49 | 8% | 108 | 5 | 5% | 708 | 54 | 8% |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

## in 2017 and projections to 2020

**Women in parliament by 2020 - prediction table**

| Date of next election | Total members in lower/ single house | Women in lower/ single house | Lower house | Total members in upper/ senate house | Women in upper/ senate house | Upper house | Upper and lower | Total number of women | % Women in parliament | Assumptions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **2219** | **670** | **30%** | **305** | **97** | **32%** | **3255** | **1122** | **34%** | 34% by 2020 and still short of the 50% target. |
| Oct-20 | 350 | 175 | 50% | | | | 350 | 175 | 50% | Constitutional quota not adopted by 2015 due to postponement in referendum and elections delayed, but still has an opportunity in 2020. If special measures including 50% quota adopted, and main political parties adopt quotas and PR electoral systems Tanzania will achieve 50%. |
| Oct-19 | 250 | 120 | 48% | | | | 250 | 120 | 48% | Has had steady growth over last two elections and 50/50 campaign underway. |
| Nov-19 | 104 | 50 | 48% | 26 | 10 | 38% | 130 | 60 | 46% | SWAPO has voluntary 50% quota, move towards legislated quota. |
| May-19 | 400 | 180 | 45% | 54 | 20 | | 454 | 200 | 44% | Unless political parties review electoral systems to include quotes and proportional representation, women in parliament might decline as currently only ANC has quota for women yet voter popularity might decline as seen in 2016 local elections. |
| Aug-17 | 220 | 87 | 40% | | | | 220 | 87 | 40% | Has been making steady progress. |
| Apr-18 | 270 | 90 | 33% | 80 | 40 | 50% | 350 | 130 | 37% | Next election in 2018. |
| May-18 | 147 | 50 | 34% | | | | 147 | 50 | 34% | Made significant progress in last election; should build on this. |
| Oct-22 | 120 | 27 | 23% | 33 | 8 | 24% | 153 | 35 | 23% | Instability is a concern but progress in local government puts pressure for quota at national levels and within political parties due to formation of coalition government at 2017 national assembly elections. |
| Sep-22 | 33 | 7 | 21% | | | | 33 | 7 | 21% | Traditionally high proportion of women due to matriarchal system in culture. Yet drop in women's representation at 2016 national assesmbly elections a result of change in political parties and winner not having affirmative action policies in manifesto. |
| May-19 | 192 | 50 | 26% | | | | 192 | 50 | 26% | Opposed to quotas but pressure political pressure is mounting. |
| Oct-18 | 65 | 9 | 14% | 30 | 10 | 33% | 95 | 19 | 20% | Incremental progress can be expected. Civil society pressures through 50/50 campaigns and strategic advocacy increasing. |
| Sep-21 | 158 | 40 | 25% | | | | 158 | 40 | 25% | New constitution has no qoutas.PF has a 40 % qouta. |
| Dec-19 | 69 | 17 | 25% | | | | 69 | 17 | 25% | Enough time for local quota to be escalated to national. |
| Oct-19 | 63 | 13 | 21% | | | | 63 | 13 | 21% | Opposed to quotas but political pressure is mounting |
| Dec-17 | 482 | 100 | 21% | 108 | 19 | 18% | 590 | 119 | 20% | Opposed to quotas but political pressure is mounting |



**Towards Gender Equality**

Local govern-ment still 24%

## Local government

| Table 2.8: Women's representation in local government 2015 to 2017 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | 2015 (%) | 2017 (%) | Variance | Progress to target 50% |
| **Average** | **24** | **24** | 0 | **-26** |
| Lesotho | 49 | 49 | 0 | -1 |
| Namibia | 48 | 48 | 0 | -2 |
| South Africa | 38 | 41 | 3 | -9 |
| Mozambique | 36 | 36 | 0 | -24 |
| Tanzania | 34 | 34 | 0 | -26 |
| Mauritius | 31 | 27 | -4 | -23 |
| Botswana | 19 | 19 | 0 | -31 |
| Zimbabwe | 16 | 16 | 0 | -34 |
| Swaziland | 22 | 12 | -10 | -38 |
| Malawi | 12 | 12 | 0 | -38 |
| Madagascar | 8 | 8 | 0 | -42 |
| Zambia | 6 | 9 | 3 | -41 |
| DRC | 6 | 6 | 0 | -44 |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Table 2.8 shows that:

- At 24%, the regional average of women in local government in SADC remains the same in 2017 as in 2015.
- All 13 SADC countries with elected local government failed to reach the 50% target. Only two countries (Namibia, 48% and Lesotho, 49%) are a single digit away from the target with Lesotho missing the mark by just one percentage point.
- Two countries held local government elections in the year under review - South Africa and Zambia. Both countries improved by three percentage points.
- Representation of women in local government in South Africa improved slightly from 38% to 41% in the August 2016 elections held on the basis of a mixed system. Women garnered 48% of the Proportional Representation (PR) seats and 32% of the First Past the Post (FPTP) seats.
- Zambia improved from 6% to 9% in the August 2016 local elections due to strengthened lobbying and advocacy for increasing women's participation and representation in local government.

Table 2.9 tracks the performance of all SADC countries with regard to women's representation in local elections and provides projections to 2020. The information is sorted in descending order according to 2020 projections from the highest to lowest. The explanations for these projections are in the last column. Those shaded green are countries that are likely to achieve 40% or more women in local government. Those shaded amber have or are likely to achieve 30% or more women in local government. Those shaded red are in the danger zone of not having achieved, or not likely to achieve 30% women in local government. Projections,




50/50 Awareness campaign in Manyame Rural District Council in Zimbabwe in 2016. *Photo: Gender Links*

based on an assessment of electoral systems, quotas, and past trends (see comments in the predictions table) show that:

- At best the region will achieve an average of 31% women in local government by 2020.
- Four countries (Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania) are highly likely to reach or come close to the 50% target by 2020 especially if political parties adopt special measures for increasing women representation and participation with their manifestos, effectively implement the policies and strengthen their existing voluntary and legislated/constitutional quotas.
- Three countries (Mozambique, Mauritius and Zimbabwe) have or will achieve the 30% target if they stay the course and leverage off their quotas as well as fifty-fifty campaigns at community and party levels.
- Six countries (Madagascar, Malawi, Swaziland, Botswana, Zambia and DRC) will remain below 30% unless they adopt quotas and or amend their electoral systems especially with political parties and effectively implement these.
- GL could not obtain data of local government in Angola. Seychelles does not have elected local government.

**Table 2.9: Women in local government in SADC in 2017 and projections to 2020**

| | Women in Local gvt 2017 | | | | Women in local gvt projected 2020 | | | | Assumptions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Date of election | Total LG councillors | Women in LG | % Women in LG | Next election | Total LG councillors | Women in LG | % Women in LG | |
| **Regional Average** | | **36848** | **8711** | **24%** | | **32602** | **10188** | **31%** | |
| **Lesotho** | 2011 | 1276 | 627 | 49% | Mar-17 | 1276 | 635 | 50% | Elections postponed to September 2017 due to political upheavals ahead of elections; mixed system. |
| **Namibia** | Nov-15 | 230 | 110 | 48% | Nov-20 | 323 | 160 | 50% | SWAPO has a voluntary 50% quota; legislated 30% quota |
| **Tanzania** | 2015 | 3477 | 1190 | 34% | Oct-20 | 3477 | 1750 | 50% | Assuming constitutional quota is adopted by the 2020 election. |
| **South Africa** | Aug-16 | 10235 | 4219 | 41% | Jul-21 | 10235 | 4219 | 41% | Election in 2021; only ruling party has quota but subtle pressure on other parties. |
| **Mozambique** | 2014 | 1196 | 431 | 36% | 2018 | 1196 | 450 | 38% | Mozambique has made steady progress in increasing women's representation, national figure is 40%. |
| **Mauritius** | Dec-15 | 1290 | 346 | 27% | Dec-20 | 1614 | 500 | 31% | Have a legislated quota of 30%. |
| **Zimbabwe** | 2013 | 1962 | 318 | 16% | Apr-18 | 1962 | 580 | 30% | Considering adopting a qouta for local government after the success of the parliamentary constittutional qouta. Ongoing lobbying and advocacy. |
| **Botswana** | Oct-14 | 605 | 117 | 19% | Oct-19 | 605 | 150 | 25% | Opposed to quotas, but lots of work on the ground. Have signed SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. |
| **Madagascar** | Jul-15 | 12677 | 1019 | 8% | Jul-20 | 9608 | 1500 | 16% | Constitution encourages but does not prescribe women's increased representation; too late for quota. |
| **Malawi** | May-14 | 467 | 54 | 12% | May-19 | 462 | 70 | 15% | Next election is in 2019; likely to resist quota but some time for lobbying. |
| **Swaziland** | 2013 | 462 | 54 | 12% | Nov-18 | 462 | 54 | 12% | Efforts underway to gain ground after losses in urban elections. |
| **Zambia** | Sep-16 | 1589 | 141 | 9% | Sep-21 | 1382 | 120 | 9% | Elections in 2016; no quota in the constitution. |
| **DRC** | | 1382 | 85 | 6% | Dec-17 | | | | Data unavailable about the number of councillors. |
| **Angola** | | | | | | | | | Data unavailable about the number of councillors. |
| **Seychelles** | | | | | N/A | | | | No elected local government. |

*Source: Gender Links, Inter Parliamentary Union website, EISA website, 20 July 2017.*

## Electoral systems and quotas

Despite the provisions in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol for "special measures" the extent to which these have been taken on board in different SADC countries varies widely. Unfortunately, in the negotiations for the updating of the Protocol, ministers decided to drop the reference to reviewing and amending electoral systems that have a key bearing on women's political representation.

By way of background there are two main types of electoral systems:

- In the Proportional Representation (PR), or "list system," citizens vote for parties that are allocated seats in parliament according to the percentage of vote they receive. Individual candidates get in according to where they sit on the list. In an open list system, voters determine where candidates sit on the list. In a closed list system, the party determines where candidates sit on the list, although this is usually based on democratic nomination processes within the party.
- In the constituency, or "First Past the Post" (FPTP) system, citizens vote not just for the party, but also for the candidate who represents the party in a geographically defined constituency. Thus, a party can garner a significant percentage of the votes, but still have no representative in parliament, because in this system "the winner takes all."

There is overwhelming evidence internationally to suggest that women stand a better chance of being elected under the PR (and especially the closed list PR system) as opposed to the constituency electoral

**Quotas a MUST**

**7** of **15** countries have **no quotas**

system.[3] In a PR system voters choose based on the party and its policies, rather than on a particular individual. This works in favour of women - at least as far as getting their foot in the door - because of socialised prejudices against women in politics.[4] The chance of women being elected is even higher when the PR system works in concert with a quota.

**Table 2.10: Political parties and quotas 2017**

| Country | Ruling party | Quota and Nature/No. |
|---|---|---|
| Angola | Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA ) | 30% quota of women |
| Botswana | Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) | None |
| DRC | The People's Party for Reconstruction and Democracy (PPRD) (Parti du Peuple pour la Reconstruction et la Démocratie (PPRD) | 30% quota of women |
| Lesotho | Coalition government - All Basotho Convention (ABC), Alliance of Democrats (AD), Basotho National Party (BNP) and Reformed Congress of Lesotho (RCL). | ABC - None<br>AD - None<br>BNP - None<br>RCL - None |
| Madagascar | New Forces for Madagascar (Hery Vaovao ho an'i Madagasikara) (HVM) | None |
| Malawi | Democratic Progressive Party (DPP) | None |
| Mauritius | Militant Socialist Mauricien (MSM) | None |
| Mozambique | Frente de Libertação de Moçambique; Mozambique Liberation Front (FRELIMO) | 40% quota of women |
| Namibia | Southwest Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) | 50% quota for women |
| Seychelles | Coalition government - Linyon Demokratik Seselwa (LDS) | None |
| South Africa | African National Congress (ANC) | 50% quota for women |
| Swaziland | | Political parties do not contest seats in Parliament |
| Tanzania | Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) | None |
| Zambia | The Patriotic Front (PF) | 40 % |
| Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe African National Union - Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) | 30% |

*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 2.10 shows that ruling parties in seven countries have adopted quotas of one kind or another. In two instances (South Africa's African National Council (ANC) and SWAPO of Namibia) these quotas are in line with the Protocol parity targets. The ruling Frelimo party in Mozambique and Patriotic Front in Zambia have a 40% quota. However, while these quotas exist on paper they have failed to translate into women's representation in party structures and within government itself. Lesotho has a coalition government and none of the political parties have special measures for increasing women's representation in political leadership and this is also seen in the two percentage drop of women in the coalition government.

Table 2.11 plots electoral systems and quotas at local and national levels against women's political representation in each country. The countries are shaded according to the electoral system at national level: PR, mixed and FPTP (South Africa has a mixed system at local and PR system at national). Within each colour band, countries are sorted according to the levels of political representation at the national level. Overall, the chart demonstrates the strong correlation between electoral systems, quotas and women's political representation. Specific observations include:

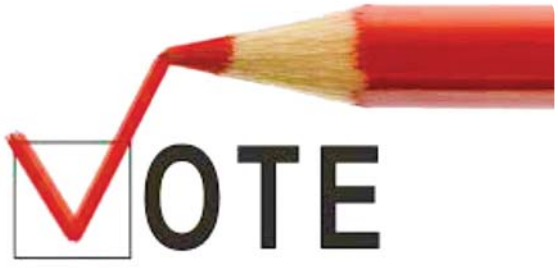
- ***Eight out of the 15 SADC countries have either a Constitutional or legislated quota, or voluntary party quota, in place.*** All of these except one (Mauritius local government) have a PR system.
- ***All countries except one that have over 36% women in local government and parliament have a PR (or in the case of local government in South Africa, mixed) electoral system.*** In all four countries (South Africa, Mozambique, Namibia and Angola) ruling parties have adopted voluntary party quotas. In Namibia, the electoral law also prescribes a 30% quota for women in local government.

[3] For more information on the comparative global data on quotas for women in politics see www.idea.int/quota.
[4] Lowe-Morna, 1996.

| Table 2.11: Electoral systems, quotas and women's political participation in SADC | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | Electoral system - national | Quota - National | Electoral system - local | Quota - local | % women national | % women local |
| South Africa | PR | Voluntary party | Mixed | Voluntary party | 42% | 41% |
| Mozambique | PR | Voluntary party | PR | Voluntary party | 40% | 36% |
| Namibia | PR | Voluntary party | PR | Law -30% | 36% | 48% |
| Angola | PR | Voluntary party | PR | Voluntary party | 37% | NA |
| Tanzania | Mixed | Constitutional 30% | Mixed | Constitutional 30% | 36% | 34% |
| Zimbabwe | Mixed | Constitutional- 30% | FPTP | No | 32% | 16% |
| Lesotho | Mixed | Law-30% PR seats | Mixed | Law -30% | 23% | 49% |
| Seychelles | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 21% | N/A |
| Madagascar | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 20% | 8% |
| Malawi | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 17% | 11% |
| Swaziland | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 15% | 12% |
| Zambia | FPTP | Voluntary party | FPTP | Voluntary party | 18% | 9% |
| Mauritius | FPTP | No | FPTP | Law -30% | 11% | 31% |
| Botswana | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 10% | 20% |
| DRC | FPTP | No | FPTP | No | 8% | NA |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

- ***Countries with a mixed system coupled with Constitutional or legislated quotas come after those with a PR system in terms of performance.*** Lesotho has always had a mixed system at the national level. The country adopted a mixed system at the local level so that 30% of seats can be reserved for women and distributed on a PR basis (in addition to the seats contested on FPTP basis). Lesotho now has a quota for PR seats at the national level, but these are not reserved solely for women. The Lesotho formula at local level drew on the experience of Tanzania that has now also been emulated at the national level in Zimbabwe. In all these examples, countries have adopted a mixed system to get around the rigidities of the FPTP system when it comes to increasing women's political representation. The difference between women's representation at the local level in Zimbabwe (16%) where there is a FPTP system and no quota, and national (32%) where there is a mixed system and quota is a stark reminder of the key role played by electoral systems and quotas in determining women's political representation.
- ***The lowest representation of women is in the eight countries with a FPTP system.*** Within this category, Madagascar comes after Seychelles, following the increase in women's political representation from 6% to 21% in the recent elections. These elections showed that it is possible to increase women's representation in FPTP countries through strategic Fifty/Fifty campaigns, but still a challenge to succeed beyond around 20% without a quota.




- ***The Mauritius local government quota is the only example of such a quota in the FPTP system in any Southern African country.*** Generally, quotas do not work well in FPTP systems as there is no guarantee that even a fixed number of women candidates will win, unless seats are reserved for them, which may be construed as unconstitutional. Mauritius managed to get the quota to work at the local level through combining the requirement that a minimum of 30% of candidates be either sex by combining this with a spirited campaign to train and position prospective women councilors for election. Senior representatives from the Zimbabwe government went on a study visit to Mauritius in April 2015 to learn from the local government quota that GL lobbied for there. This has resulted in a submission for electoral systems reform for quotas at local government ahead of the 2018 general elections.



**FPTP** not conducive to women's representation

| Table 2.12: Electoral systems and quota results table 2017 | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Overall - % women | | With quota - % women | | Without quota - % women | |
| Electoral system | Parliament | Local government | Parliament | Local government | Parliament | Local government |
| FPTP | 17% | 9% | | 32% | 17% | 9% |
| PR | 40% | 38% | 40% | 38% | 36% | |
| MIXED | 36% | 40% | 36% | 42% | 23% | |
| OVERALL | 27% | 24% | 39% | 37% | 19% | 9% |

*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 2.12 summarises the overall importance of electoral systems and quotas for women's political participation in the SADC region. The table shows that:

- In both local government (37%) and parliament (39%) countries with quotas have a far higher representation of women than those without quotas (19% for parliament and 9% for local government).
- Consistent with global trends, countries with the PR system (40% for parliament and 38% for local government) have a much higher representation of women than the FPTP (17% for parliament and 9% for local government).
- Women's representation in the mixed system (36% for parliament and 42% for local government) is also much higher than the FPTP system.
- Quotas used in combination with the PR system (40% for parliament and 38% for local government) and mixed system (36% for parliament and 42% for local government) have the highest representation of women.
- Women comprise 36% of parliamentarians in countries with a mixed system and quota, compared to 23% in countries with a mixed system and no quota.

The examples that follow show the relationship between quotas and electoral systems in determining women's political participation.

## FPTP and no quota - Seychelles takes a step back

As noted earlier, the FPTP system is generally unfavourable to new entrants in the political space especially women. When this is coupled with a competitive and or contentious political environment, with no safe guards or quotas for the new entrants, the result is generally regression.



**Seychelles** has in the past stood out in SADC for its high representation of women despite having a FPTP system and no quota for women. This has been explained by the comparatively visible role played by women in the island, which has achieved a high level of gender equality in many areas.



A Seychelles voter casting her ballot during the elections.
*Photo: Seychelles News Agency*

Parliamentary elections held in September 2016 were somewhat different from the past, and this had a bearing on women's representation.

The four main opposition parties (the Seychelles National Party, the Seychelles Alliance, the Seychelles Party for Social Justice and Democracy and the Seychelles United Party formed a coalition, Linyon Demokratik Seselwa (LDS) in order to contest the elections, having boycotted the 2011 elections, which saw the People's Party win all 31 seats.

The result was a victory for the opposition Linyon Demokratik Seselwa Alliance, which won 19 of the 33 seats. The 2016 elections marked the first time since the return of multiparty democracy in Seychelles in 1993 that the ruling ***Parti Lepep*** lost its majority in parliament. None of the new comers had special measures within their party manifestos to facilitate the equal participation and representation of women and men. Women's representation in parliament dropped from 44% to 21%.The drop in women parliamentarians in 2016 underscores the weakness of increasing women's participation without any special mechanism to sustain the gains.

## FPTP and no quota - baby steps in Zambia



In **Zambia**, the increase of women's representation from 6% to 8% at the local level and 13% to 18% at the national level after the 2016 local elections showed that rapid increases in

women's political representation are not likely in the FPTP system, particularly when they are not accompanied by any kind of special measures.

In addition to not having a quota, the new electoral legislation introduced in January 2016, six months before elections, on the need for candidates to possess a grade 12 certificate to qualify to contest elections, resulted in many women candidates dropping out, according to Beauty Katebe, Board Chairperson of the Zambia National Women's Lobby Group (ZNWL). "This new law disqualified 95% of the 630 women that the ZNWL had built capacities for local government leadership for the previous 3 years. They could not qualify to contest elections because they did not have the grade 12 certificate. The ZNWL managed to lobby political parties to adopt other women to replace those that were disqualified and dropped out of the election race. However, there was no time to train the women in leadership skills."[5]

## Malawi moves to introduce legislated quota in FPTP system



**Malawi**'s 2014 Country Report on the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action highlights the low level of women's political representation across all four major political parties. It attributes this performance, especially in the area of representation in Parliament and Local Councils, to the impact of the FPTP system, underscoring that women are less likely to be selected "as candidates by male-dominated party structures."

Taking a cue from Mauritius, in 2011, the Malawi Law Commission proposed the following amendments to the Parliamentary and Presidential Elections Act as well as the Proposed Local Government Elections Act: setting quotas for political party executive positions, as well as their candidate lists (a minimum of 40 percent and a maximum of 60 percent for either sex). However, this has not yet come to fruition. Malawi enacted a Gender Equality Act in 2013, which provides for quotas for women in public but not political positions.

## Mixed systems and mixed blessings in Lesotho and South Africa



**Lesotho** missed the opportunity in the June 2017 snap national elections to escalate the 30% quota on a PR basis at local level to the national level. Women are also free to compete in the FPTP elections. Lesotho experienced a 2% drop in women's representation in parliament from 25% in 2015 to 23%. Out of the 120 seats, only 27 are held by women as compared to 2015 when women held 30 seats.

The Lesotho parliament comprises 120 seats. Eighty are filled on a First Past the Post (FPTP) basis while the remaining seats are distributed among parties on Proportional Representation (PR) system. Women won 19 of the 40 seats (48%) allocated under the PR system. Women only won 8 of the 69 seats under the FPTP system (12%).

The third national assembly elections in five years resulted in a deadlock and the formation of its third coalition government as none of the parties could garner the required two thirds majority vote. The present coalition government is shared between four parties namely - All Basotho Convention (ABC), Alliance of Democrats (AD), Basotho National Party (BNP) and Reformed Congress of Lesotho (RCL). Three constituencies had their elections suspended because of the death of some candidates.

RCL is the only woman-led party in the country and in the coalition government yet the number of women candidates representing the party in the elections was only 33 out of the 80 constituencies (about 41%). One would expect to see at least 50% candidates running for elective posts in a party led by a woman. More disappointing however, was the fact that the party did not win any constituency seats and managed to obtain only one PR seat.

ABC, the party with the majority of parliamentary seats only had a total of 7 female candidates (about 8.7%). Out of these candidates, 3 won the elections in their constituencies. BNP which is led by a former Minister of Gender had 16 female candidates contesting for elections but none of them won. Similarly, the newly formed AD had a total of 15 female candidates but none of them won.

The Lesotho Congress for Democracy (LCD) and Democratic Congress (DC) with voluntary gender quotas in their party manifestos, only had 6 and 4 women candidates respectively. Only 4 out of the 10 women won constituency seats. This calls for more commitment from the leaderships of these parties to implement their commitments as they both have a 30% quota in their constitutions.

Smaller parties had the highest proportion of female candidates. The Marematlou Freedom Party (MFP), was represented by 30 women candidates

**Mauritius local government quota sets a trend**

[5] Lowe-Morna, C, 50/50 by 2030: A Handbook for Gender Inclusive Elections in Commonwealth Africa; Commonwealth Secretariat (2017).

PR

+

Quota

=

Results

and 30 men candidates. Unfortunately, the party did not win any constituency seats and obtained one PR seat, now occupied by a man.

The overall 2% drop in women's participation underscores the need for all political parties in Lesotho to review their party constitutions and include quotas. As women fare much better in PR elections than constituency ones, the options are to either increase the total number of PR seats or to reserve the PR seats for women exclusively as done at the local government level.

The losses make the achievement of 50/50 women's representation a vision that may never be realised with just two more elections expected by 2030. A lot still needs to be done at political party level to promote women's representation in decision making. Current elected women members of the National Assembly are expected to work effortlessly to ensure that the challenges women face are addressed accordingly. The lack of legislated special measures such as quotas and policies result in an overall regression in women's representation in parliament as seen in the 2017 national elections.



**South Africa** has a mixed electoral system at the local level, but with no legislated quota. The mixed PR and FPTP system is designed to harness the best of both electoral systems, with the PR system more friendly to women and minorities and the FPTP enhancing individual accountability. The only party that has voluntarily adopted a quota at all levels of governance in its party manifesto is the ruling African National Congress (ANC). The 2016 local elections witnessed a slight increase in women's representation at the local level from 38% to 41% as a result of the mixed electoral system. In 2016, women came through strongly on party proportional representation lists (48%) but remained static at 33% on ward lists, bringing South Africa back to the 2006 position (41%) but still nine percentage points less than the 50% target to achieve gender parity al the local level.

## PR and quotas deliver results in Namibia



Countries with a Proportional Representation (PR) system such as **Namibia** are exemplary at national and local levels. As a result of the ruling South West Africa Peoples (SWAPO) 50% zebra quota, the representation of women in the national assembly in Namibia shot up from 26% to 46%, but the overall figure is diluted to 36% because of a weaker showing in the upper house. Local elections in November 2015 saw an increase in women's participation from 42% to 48%, testament to the impact of the legislated 30% quota for women in local government, combined with SWAPO's voluntary 50% quota.




Woman voting duirng the June 2017 Lesotho elections. *Photo: Africa Research Institute*

## Table 2.13: Summary of 50/50 Campaign Strategy

| COUNTRY | CABINET | PARLIAMENT | | | LOCAL GOVERNMENT | | | STRATEGY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | % Women | % Women | Next election | Electoral System & Quota | % Women | Next election | Electoral System & Quota | |
| **Angola** | 23% | 37% | **2017** | PR/ Voluntary 30% | | **2017** | | Work with Ministry of Gender and Alliance Focal Point/Women's umbrella organisation during the period 2014-2016. |
| **Botswana** | 17% | 10% | **October 2019** | FPTP/ Voluntary party quota | 19% | **October 2019** | FPTP No Quota | Advocate for legislated quota at local and national level through amendments to the Constitution and Electoral Act. |
| **DRC** | 11% | 9% | **October 2016** | FPTP/ 30% | 6% | **October 2017** | FPTP | Advocate for legislated quotas at national and local level. |
| **Lesotho** | 29% | 23% | **2020** | Mixed No Quota | **49%** | **March 2017** | Mixed 30% Quota | Escalate the quota at local level to national level. Monitor progress on 50/50 campaign. Review parties' manifestos and encourage quotas. Sensitise communities about 50/50 campaign. |
| **Madagascar** | 20% | 21% | **July 2018** | FPTP/ No Quota | 8% | **July 2020** | FPTP No Quota | Use the Mauritius example to advocate for quotas at local level in the forthcoming elections. |
| **Malawi** | 15% | 17% | **2019** | FPTP/ No Quota | 12% | **2019** | FPTP No Quota | Advocate for legislated quotas at national, local level using the Gender Equality Bill; Zimbabwe and Mauritius models in the 2019 elections.<br>Train women on how to effectively engage with the media. |
| **Mauritius** | 13% | 12% | **2019** | Mixed/ No quota | 27% | **2020** | FPTP Legislated quota | Use the White Paper on Electoral reform to advocate for the quota at local level to be extended to national level; build on momentum at local level. |
| **Mozambique** | 23% | 40% | **October 2019** | PR/ Voluntary party quota | 36% | **October 2019** | PR Voluntary party quota | Advocate for all parties to adopt quotas and/or legislated quota. Increase efforts to mobilise women's participation in local government. |
| **Namibia** | 23% | 46% | **November 2020** | PR/ Voluntary party | 48% | **November 2019** | PR Legislated quota | Work with the Ministry of Gender to table motion in Parliament for adoption; to put motion on the agendas of the local authorities.<br>GL and Civil society organisations to popularise and domesticate at local level and increase efforts and women in politics trainings. |
| **Seychelles** | 43% | 21% | **2016 (National Assembly); 2020 (Presidential)** | Mixed No Quota | **N/A** | **N/A** | **N/A** | Document Seychelles' loss as a result of not having quotas or special measures for women's representation and participation |
| **South Africa** | 43% | 42% | **May 2019** | PR/ Voluntary party | 41% | **August 2016** | Mixed With Quota | Advocate for legislated quotas at local and national levels using the Equality Act and for all parties to follow the ANC's 50/50 lead. Name and shame political parties with no voluntary quotas. |
| **Swaziland** | 25% | 15% | **2018 (National Assembly)** | FPTP/ Legislated 30% | 22% | **2017** | FPTP No Quota | Lobby for legislated quotas at local and national level, and for four seats to be reserved for women in parliament in the 2018 elections. |
| **Tanzania** | 34% | 36% | **October 2020** | FPTP Constitutional 30% | 34% | **October 2015** | FPTP With Constitutional 30% | Advocate for the adoption of the 50% Constitutional quota. |
| **Zambia** | 34% | 18% | **September 2016** | FPTP No Quota | 9% | **September 2016** | FPTP No Quota | Have space in the media to name and shame Boards and committees who do not have 50/50 representation on their Boards.Lobby for legislated quota and policy reforms in political parties and government. |
| **Zimbabwe** | 15% | 31% | **2018** | FPTP Legislated 30% at National level | 16% | **2018** | FPTP No Quota | Take stock of losses and gains in 2013, lobby for quota to be extended to local government. Start mobilising now for the 2018 Elections through capacity building and ongoing training potential women candidates. Lobby for quota at local levels. |

*Source: Gender Links, Inter Parliamentary Union Website and EISA - http://www.content.eisa.org.za/node/279 , accessed and collated 12 July 2017.*

**29%**

**women**

ambassadors

**Table 2.14: Women in ambassadorial positions**

| | Total No. | No.of women | % women |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 17 | 13 | 76% |
| Botswana | 21 | 5 | 24% |
| DRC | 31 | 7 | 23% |
| Lesotho | 16 | 8 | 50% |
| Madagascar | 15 | 7 | 47% |
| Malawi | 20 | 5 | 25% |
| Mauritius | 16 | 1 | 6% |
| Mozambique | 29 | 7 | 24% |
| Seychelles | 12 | 4 | 33% |
| South Africa | 125 | 35 | 28% |
| Swaziland | 13 | 3 | 23% |
| Zimbabwe | 41 | 10 | 24% |
| **Total** | **356** | **105** | **29%** |

*Source: SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016.*

Table 2.14 shows that:

- The regional average for women in the foreign service in the twelve countries that provided data is 29%. Although this is still far short of the 50% target, this represents a substantial change and achievement over time, as this is one of the most male dominated and hostile areas for women in decision-making.
- There are considerable variations between countries: from 6% in Mauritius to 76% in Angola. Four countries have above 30% women in the foreign service - Madagascar, Lesotho, Seychelles and Angola.

**Table 2.15: Women in top management in the Public Service**

| Member States | Permanent/Principal Secretaries/DG's | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Women | % of women |
| Angola | 30 | 10 | 33% |
| Botswana | 16 | 5 | 31% |
| DRC | 238 | 23 | 10% |
| Lesotho | 50 | 12 | 24% |
| Madagascar | 30 | 4 | 13% |
| Malawi | 66 | 18 | 27% |
| Mozambique | 21 | 7 | 33% |
| Namibia | 35 | 10 | 27% |
| Seychelles | 26 | 11 | 42% |
| South Africa | 68 | 16 | 24% |
| Zambia | 53 | 15 | 28% |
| Zimbabwe | 30 | 9 | 30% |
| **Total** | **579** | **113** | **20%** |

*Source: SADC Gender and development Monitor 2017.*

Table 2.15 shows that for the ten countries in SADC that submitted information on women administrative heads of government ministries (permanent secretaries, DGs etc), the overall proportion of women in top management in the civil service is 20%. Seychelles leads at 42%, followed by Mozambique and Angola both at 33%. Other countries at 30% and above are Botswana (31%) and Zimbabwe (30%).

**Table 2.16: Women in Judiciary in SADC 2017**

| Member states | Registrars | | | President of Courts | | | Judges | | | Magistrates | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | No. of women | % of women | Total | No. of women | % of women | Total | No. of women | % of women | Total | No. of women | % of women |
| Angola | | | | | | | | | 31% | | | 17% |
| Botswana | 17 | 12 | 71% | 2 | 0 | 0% | 34 | 8 | 24% | 89 | 55 | 62% |
| DRC | | | | 157 | 16 | 10% | 678 | 163 | 24% | 502 | 34 | 7% |
| Lesotho | | | | 1 | 0 | 0% | | | 65% | | | 42% |
| Madagascar | | | | 52 | 16 | 31% | 50 | 6 | 12% | 901 | 446 | 50% |
| Malawi | 1 | 0 | 0% | 1 | 0 | 0% | 31 | 8 | 26% | 198 | 63 | 32% |
| Mauritius | | | | 1 | 0 | 0% | | | 48% | | | 50% |
| Mozambique | 152 | 56 | 37% | 1 | 0 | 0% | 464 | 140 | 30% | 7 | 2 | 29% |
| Namibia | 1 | 1 | 100% | 1 | 0 | 0% | 19 | 5 | 26% | 99 | 50 | 51% |
| Seychelles | 1 | 1 | 100% | 1 | 0 | 0% | 18 | 2 | 11% | 6 | 3 | 50% |
| South Africa | | | | 15 | 2 | 13% | 238 | 81 | 34% | 1568 | 645 | 41% |
| Swaziland | 2 | 1 | 50% | 1 | 0 | 0% | 10 | 2 | 20% | 24 | 8 | 33% |
| Tanzania | | | | 5 | 3 | 60% | | | 43% | | | 29% |
| Zambia | 10 | 2 | 20% | | | | 55 | 27 | 49% | 207 | 62 | 30% |
| Zimbabwe | 4 | 2 | 50% | | | | 54 | 26 | 48% | | | |
| **Total** | **188** | **75** | **40%** | **238** | **37** | **16%** | **1651** | **468** | **28%** | **3601** | **1368** | **38%** |

*Source: SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016.*

Table 2.16 illustrates that in the judiciary, the SADC region has failed to meet the 50% target on several fronts, but there is considerable variation.

- Overall, where data is available, women's representation is highest as registrars (40%) but this varies from 0% to 100% in Namibia and Seychelles.
- Women are least represented as court Presidents (16%). Madagascar (31%) has the highest representation of women as court presidents. Eight of the 12 countries with data have no women as court Presidents.
- With 65% women judges, Lesotho is the only SADC country to have more women than men judges. Four countries; Zimbabwe (48%), Zambia (49%), and Mauritius (49%), Tanzania (43%) are just a single digit shy of reaching the 50% mark in the women judges' audit. Eight countries have over 30% women judges. Unfortunately many countries only provided percentages rather than the actual number of judges needed to calculate the regional average, which stands at 28% based on available data. It is important to obtain more actual figures in 2017 to calculate this more accurately.
- Women comprise 38% of magistrates based on available data (that again is patchy). Botswana has the highest representation at 62% followed by four countries: Namibia at 51%, Seychelles, Madagascar and Mauritius all at 50%. Five countries have more than 30% to 40% women's representation: Lesotho (42%), Malawi (32%), and South Africa (41%) Swaziland (41%) and Zambia (30%).

## Election management

**Article 13.1** State Parties shall adopt specific legislative measures and other strategies to enable women to have equal opportunities with men to participate in all electoral processes including the administration of elections and voting.

### Election Management Bodies

Election Management Bodies (EMBs) ensure that the environment in which elections take place is conducive to the conduct credible elections.[6] EMBs are responsible for the management and conduct of elections and play a crucial role in ensuring that fair elections are held and in the end accepted.[7] EMBs need to begin, "in their own institutions, by ensuring that women are given positions of responsibility and that the policies and practices of the institution work to improve the status of women in society. This might involve creating incentives for women to become election administrators; training all members of staff to be sensitive to gender issues; and collecting gender-disaggregated statistics in order to evaluate women's participation; and, identifying aspects of the democratic process that can be improved."[8]

**Table 2.17: Women in Election Management Bodies in SADC 2017**

| | Total 2017 | Women | % women |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Regional Average** | **233** | **69** | **30** |
| Mauritius | 17 | 9 | 53 |
| Tanzania | 7 | 3 | 43 |
| Lesotho | 5 | 2 | 40 |
| Namibia | 5 | 2 | 40 |
| Zimbabwe | 8 | 3 | 38 |
| DRC | 105 | 33 | 31 |
| Malawi | 10 | 3 | 30 |
| Swaziland | 4 | 1 | 25 |
| Angola | 17 | 4 | 24 |
| Zambia | 9 | 2 | 22 |
| Seychelles | 5 | 1 | 20 |
| South Africa | 5 | 1 | 20 |
| Botswana | 7 | 1 | 14 |
| Madagascar | 21 | 3 | 14 |
| Mozambique | 8 | 1 | 13 |

*Source: Gender Links 2017; SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016.*

Table 2.17 shows that election bodies have a long way to "practice what they preach" in ensuring women's equal representation in EMB's leadership and senior management. The table shows that:

- Overall women constitute 30% of EMBs in SADC according to data provided by the SADC Gender

**30%**
Election Management **Boards**

[6] SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016.
[7] Commonwealth Secretariat (2016) Election Management: A Compendium, of Commonwealth Good Practice.
[8] Commonwealth Compendium of Good Election Management Practice.

and Development Monitor in all 15 SADC countries.

- At 53%, Mauritius exceeded the target of women's equal representation in its Independent Electoral Commission (IEC).
- Three member states (Tanzania, Lesotho and Namibia) have above 40% women's representation in EMBs yet still fall short in achieving the 50% target.
- Zimbabwe (38%), DRC (31%) and Malawi (30%) have exceeded the 30% women's representation in their EMBs, yet have a long way to go in achieving the Post-2015 50% target.
- Eight countries (Swaziland, Angola, Zambia, Seychelles, South Africa, Botswana, Madagascar and Mozambique) have less than 30% women in EMBs.
- Swaziland, Seychelles, South Africa, Botswana and Mozambique only have one woman represented in their respective EMBs.

A recent study commissioned by the Independent Elections Commission (IEC) in South Africa offers interesting insights into why women's representation in EMBs is low. Many of the in-principle issues raised are likely to apply in other SADC countries.



**South Africa probes lack of women managers in elections**

ELECTORAL COMMISSION OF SOUTH AFRICA
ENSURING FREE AND FAIR ELECTIONS

In 2017, the Civic Education, Research and Knowledge Mana gement (CERKM) of the Independent Electoral Commission of South Africa commissioned a study on the lack of women representation at senior levels within the Electoral Commission of South Africa.

The research was done using a qualitative and quantitative mixed-method approach consisting of focus groups, online surveys and interviews. The tools were administered as follows: 924 online surveys with electoral staff, 23 key informant interviews and focus groups with 59 female and 41 male staff in the electoral commission. The study found a number of organizational practices that hindered women's involvement at higher levels of management.

From the study, higher rank staff members indicated that they are more likely to feel drained by their work and often find themselves sacrificing their personal time for work. Many senior female managers felt that their jobs affected their family time more so during elections period, ultimately affecting people's overall personal relationships. Many lamented about the Electoral Commission not placing family at the core of employees' lives. In line with this, female respondents noted that female employees tend to ignore certain promotional positions as these would place additional pressure on them. Senior management positions were often sought by women who were past child-bearing age.

In terms of organizational culture, the study found that the lean structure of the electoral commission does not provide promotional opportunities for women and these tend to diminish the higher up one goes. Lack of deputy managerial positions (a prerequisite for appointment to manager positions) means that most internal candidates cannot apply for manager positions and so many women cannot move up. Women also noted that men were more likely to be promoted over them.

A gendered division of labour at work exists, where some positions are viewed as either as strictly male or female. Female focus group participants noted that the organisation is stereotypical and women are restricted or concentrated to human resources and corporate services units which are viewed as feminine posts.

The patriarchal nature of the Electoral Commission came up as a key issue. Fewer women than men noted that they felt free to raise their opinion at work without being ridiculed. Furthermore, less women than men indicated that their 'voice was heard' at work. The Electoral Commission's work environment was not viewed as an equal playing field for women and it was noted that women including those in senior chair positions have to put in extra effort to be recognized in their work which is not always the case with men.

When it comes to workplace discrimination, results show that the discrimination observed the most was race/colour (41%),gender (27%), culture (18%), age (15%) and language (14%). On the issue of salary, the survey found that Electoral Commission largely does not discriminate between men and women through paying salaries based on gender. Noteworthy, is that more women than men did indicate salary differences between men and women.

In terms of employment equity, key informant participants noted that that the Electoral Commission takes into account both race and gender in advertisements and recruitment selection processes. As for sexual harassment in the workplace, majority of the online survey participants agreed (71% agreed or strongly agreed compared to 7% that disagreed or strongly disagreed) that sexual harassment is not tolerated at the Electoral Commission. Nevertheless, the survey found that fewer women (63%) than men (82%) agreed that sexual harassment is not tolerated at the Electoral Commission. More women than men also thought senior staff could get away with sexual harassment.

Overall, female participants were less positive than their male counterparts about the Electoral Commission's efforts to address the advancement of women. For example, a smaller proportion of women (41%) than men (66%) agree that the Electoral Commission is serious about eliminating barriers that prevent women from reaching their potential.

*Source: 'Transforming the Electoral Commission: Staff perceptions of gender equality and mobility' by the Human Sciences Research Council*

***Developing gender policies:*** Having a stand-alone policy gender policy helps to ensure that gender mainstreaming outlives particular individuals who may champion gender causes within the organisation. Ideally these gender policies should be reflected in the vision and mission of the EMBs (is these should move from being gender blind or gender neutral, to being gender aware).



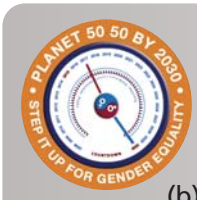
**Namibia** has been proactive: "As an Electoral Management Body the importance of gender mainstreaming has been uppermost on our own strategic agenda and therefor efforts have been put in place with the assistance of International IDEA to develop a Gender Policy to ensure that we inculcate the principles of gender mainstreaming in our own institution. As an EMB we have been facilitators in conjunction with various organizations to provide platforms for political parties to consider the importance of introducing strategies towards increasing women representation in the political arena. The EMB also needs to include measures which may be encompassed in a Gender Policy which ECN has done as an institution."

*Interview with Advocate Notemba Tjipueja on the Progress of Women's Political Participation in Namibia*[9]



equal participation is KEY

## Participation




**Article 13.2**: State parties shall ensure the equal participation of women and men in decision-making by putting in place policies, strategies and programmes for:
(a) Building the capacity of women to participate effectively through leadership and gender sensitivity training and mentoring;
(b) Providing support structures for women in decision-making positions;
(c) The establishment and strengthening of structures to enhance gender mainstreaming and
(d) Changing discriminatory attitudes and norms of decision-making structures and procedures.

One of the first awakenings for women in decision-making is that simply getting into the institution and being able to function is not good enough. For them to be agents of change, they need to be able to

[9] Lowe-Morna, C, 50/50 by 2030: A Handbook for Gender Inclusive Elections in Commonwealth Africa; Commonwealth Secretariat (2017).

function is not good enough. For them to be agents of change, they need to be able to function in all areas and at all levels of the institution. Where women sit within decision-making bodies thus becomes both a prerequisite for, and a target of, transformation.

## Gender structures in legislatures

All politicians face dilemmas at one time or the other over divergences between political party positions and their own convictions. Women in politics often feel these tensions more acutely because of the expectation that they "represent women".

The dilemmas for women politicians over allegiance to party versus their commitment as women arise in all political systems, and cut across countries with high and low proportions of women in politics. Interviewees stressed that if a member takes a different line to that of her party, she stands a risk of being regarded as challenging the leader and might face disciplinary proceedings.

Women MPs, aware of divisions across party lines, are addressing them in the newly formed parliamentary caucuses where they share strategies to support each other on issues that are common to them as women. They further mentioned that the women's parliamentary caucus is a good opportunity to bring all women together and to extend solidarity on all issues affecting them.

**Table 2.18: Gender structures in parliament**

| Country | Women's caucus | Gender specific portfolio committee |
|---|---|---|
| Lesotho | Yes | No |
| Mozambique | No | Social affairs, Gender and environment |
| Namibia | Parliamentary Women's Group | Human Resources and Gender Equality |
| Seychelles | Seychelles Women Parliamentarians | No |
| South Africa | Parliamentary Women's Group | Joint Monitoring Committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life and Status of Women (JCIQSW) |
| Zambia | Yes | No |
| Tanzania | Tanzania Women's Parliamentary Group | Committee on Community Development, Youth, Gender and Labour |

*Source: Gender Links.*

As illustrated in Table 2.18, there are two kinds of structures generally associated with women in parliament: informal caucusing networks for women MPs and formal parliamentary structures for advancing gender equality.

The SADC PF Regional Women's Parliamentary Caucus (RWPC) is a product of women's recognition of the need for supportive structures. This regional body has helped to form several women's caucuses at country level, for example in Zambia, Lesotho and Zimbabwe. Mozambique still does not have such an organisation and feels that it needs one.

Capacity building programmes focusing specifically on women decision-makers may be at national or regional level. At regional level, the SADC Gender Unit has developed a Gender Tool Kit for SADC Decision Makers that comprises basic concepts, tools and exercises on mainstreaming gender into legislation. This has been used for training trainers as well as women MPs from around the region.

## Where women are placed within mainstream structures

Women tend to be more predominant in the "soft" committees of parliament and councils, and to be offered these kinds of portfolio in cabinet, than in the hard areas like finance, economics, security and defence. There is a debate on the implications of this gender division of labour across the different sectors of governance.

One view is that it is important to have women in the "hard" areas. Others argue that the distinction itself cannot be justified. Norwegian analysts have made the point that describing the areas in which women predominate as "soft" devalues these important areas, like education, health and social expenditure that in fact account for the bulk of expenditure.[10]

A key factor with regard to women's effective participation is the extent to which they occupy

[10] Lovenduski,J. and Karam,A. (1998) "Women in parliament: Making a Difference" in "Beyond Numbers:Women in Parliament." International IDEAS: p 136.

senior positions within decision-making bodies. Two examples are as presidents or speakers of parliament; and cabinet.

## Women presidents of parliament

The President of the National Assembly is elected as guided by Constitutions of member states. The President's mandate is twofold. It is constitutional and institutional. This mandate is furthermore dual at the National Assembly and Parliamentary level. In both situations, it involves interacting with the global community at international, continental, regional and national levels. The President is the leader of the National Assembly.

The National Assembly has authority to legislate on behalf of the state including amending the Constitution, entering into bilateral agreements, treaties and signing international Human Rights Instruments. As a leader of the House, the President has to ensure that these processes are in accordance with Constitution. The President has to ensure that the members of the public participate in Legislation making and ensure that the house oversees and monitors the performance of the executive arm for effective implementation of legislation already passed by the House. The President also has the responsibility to provide political leadership & strategic direction to the House and exercise impartiality at all times in pursuance of these duties. In some SADC member states, the President is referred to as the Speaker of Parliament.

**Table 2.19: Women presidents of parliaments in SADC 2017**

| Country | Structure of parliament | Structure of parliament | F | F | President |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ANGOLA | National Assembly | Unicameral | M | | Fernando da Piedade Dias dos Santos |
| BOTSWANA | National Assembly | Unicameral | | F | Gladys Kokorwe |
| DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO | Senate | Bicameral | M | | Léon Kengo wa Dondo |
| DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO | National Assembly | Bicameral | M | | Aubin Minaku |
| LESOTHO | National Assembly | Bicameral | M | | Sephiri Enoch Motanyane |
| LESOTHO | Senate | Bicameral | M | | Morena Seeiso Bereng Seeiso |
| MADAGASCAR | National Assembly | Bicameral | M | | Jean Max Rakotomamonjy |
| MADAGASCAR | Senate | Bicameral | M | | Honoré Rakotomanana |
| MALAWI | National Assembly | Unicameral | M | | Richard Msowoya |
| MAURITIUS | National Assembly | Unicameral | | F | Santi Bai Hanoomanjee |
| MOZAMBIQUE | Assembly of the Republic | Unicameral | | F | Verónica Nataniel Macamo Dlovo |
| NAMIBIA | National Council | Bicameral | | F | Margaret Mensah-Williams |
| NAMIBIA | National Assembly | Bicameral | M | | Peter Katjavivi |
| SEYCHELLES | National Assembly | Unicameral | M | | Patrick Pillay |
| SOUTH AFRICA | National Assembly | Bicameral | | F | Baleka Mbete |
| SOUTH AFRICA | National Council of Provinces | Bicameral | | F | Thandi Modise |
| SWAZILAND | Senate | Bicameral | | F | Chief Gelane Zwane |
| SWAZILAND | House of Assembly | Bicameral | M | | Themba Msibi |
| ZAMBIA | National Assembly | Unicameral | | F | Patrick Matibini |
| ZIMBABWE | National Assembly | Bicameral | | F | Jacob F. Mudenda |
| ZIMBABWE | Senate | Bicameral | | F | Edna Madzongwe |
| **Totals** | | | **11** | **10** | |
| **Total presidents** | | | | | **21** |
| **% Women** | | | | | **48%** |

*Source: www.ipu.org, 17 July 2017 and Gender Links.*

**48%**
**Women**
Presidents/
Speakers of
Parliament

Table 2.19 shows that:

- All 15 SADC countries have presidents of parliament. In some countries like in South Africa the leader is referred to as speaker of parliament.
- 10 of the 21 (48%) of the presidents of parliament are women.
- Of the 15 SADC countries, 8 have women presidents of chambers.

**Only**

**1**

woman President in SADC

| Table 2.20: Top women leaders in SADC governments | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Country** | **Head of Government / Vice President** | **Title** |
| **PRESENT** | | |
| Mauritius | Ameerah Gurib-Fakim (2015-) | President |
| United Republic of Tanzania | Samia Hassan Suluhu (2015-) | Vice President |
| Zambia | Inonge Mutukwa Wina (2015-) | Vice President |
| Namibia | Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila (2015-) | Prime Minister |
| **PAST** | | |
| Malawi | Joyce Banda (2012-2014) | President |
| Malawi | Joyce Banda (2009-2012) | Vice President |
| Mauritius | Agnès Monique Ohsan Bellepeau (2010-2016) | Vice President |
| Mozambique | Luisa Diogo (2004-2010) | Prime Minister |
| South Africa | Baleka Mbete (2008-2009) | Deputy President |
| South Africa | Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka (2005-2008) | Deputy President |
| Zimbabwe | Joyce Mujuru (2014) | Vice president |

*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 2.20 shows that:

- Presently SADC has two women vice presidents (Tanzania and Zambia); a woman prime minister (Namibia) and a woman president (Mauritius).
- SADC has had five women deputy/vice presidents; one prime minister and one president in the past.
- In 2009, Joyce Banda was elected as first female vice-president to President Mutharika of the Democratic Progressive Party (DPP). She assumed the presidency after he died of heart attack in 2012 becoming the first female president in Malawi's history. This was relatively short lived (two years from 2012 to 2014).
- Mauritius is the only country in SADC to have had two women serving as Presidents.

## Cabinet

Cabinet is one area in which governments should make rapid progress as members are appointed rather than elected. The regional average of only 23% women in cabinet positions raises serious concerns regarding the political will of SADC heads of state to increase women's representation in decision-making.

| Table 2.21: Women's representation in cabinet 2015 to 2017 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Country** | **2017** | **2015** | **Variance** | **50%** |
| **Regional average** | **23%** | **22%** | **1%** | **27%** |
| Seychelles | 43% | 27% | 16% | 7% |
| South Africa | 41% | 41% | 0% | 9% |
| Zambia | 26% | 15% | 11% | 24% |
| Swaziland | 25% | 26% | -1% | 25% |
| Mozambique | 23% | 32% | -9% | 27% |
| Namibia | 22% | 22% | 0% | 28% |
| Lesotho | 22% | 22% | 0% | 28% |
| Angola | 21% | 19% | 2% | 29% |
| Tanzania | 20% | 34% | -14% | 30% |
| Madagascar | 20% | 19% | 1% | 30% |
| Botswana | 17% | 19% | -2% | 33% |
| Zimbabwe | 15% | 12% | 3% | 35% |
| Malawi | 15% | 24% | -9% | 35% |
| Mauritius | 13% | 8% | 5% | 37% |
| DRC | 8% | 14% | -6% | 42% |

*Source: SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2017.*

Table 2.21 shows that:

- The regional average of women's representation in cabinet remains at 23%. The region missed the Protocol target of 50% women in cabinet by 27 percentage points.
- The highest proportion of women in cabinet is in Seychelles with 6 women out of 14 ministers (43%).
- Zambia also improved in women's representation in cabinet from 26% before the elections in 2016 to 34% women cabinet ministers.
- At 22% (eight of 36 ministers), Lesotho maintained the same proportion of women in cabinet.
- There are only two countries with more than 40% women as ministers: Seychelles (43%) and South Africa (41%) during the year under review.
- The proportion of women in cabinet in Zambia continues to increase from 15% in 2015 to 34% in 2017. This shows a commitment by party leaders to field women in decision-making positions but, this also needs to be seen in policy reforms within party manifestos and legislated special measures such as quotas and electoral systems reforms.
- As reported in 2016, Tanzania became the eighth SADC country to have a woman in a top political post with the appointment of a woman deputy president. Other countries reported on last year who have had women in positions of president, deputy president, prime minister and deputy prime minister include Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe.



Fourteen ministers in the government of Seychelles 2017.
*Photo: Jude Morel (Seychelles News Agency)*

**Table 2.22: Women as deputy ministers**

| | Total No. | Total women | % women |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 52 | 11 | 21% |
| Botswana | 8 | 1 | 13% |
| DRC | 8 | 3 | 38% |
| Lesotho | 6 | 2 | 33% |
| Malawi | 2 | 0 | 0% |
| Mozambique | 20 | 8 | 40% |
| Namibia | 32 | 15 | 47% |
| South Africa | 37 | 17 | 46% |
| Tanzania | 25 | 5 | 20% |
| Zambia | 38 | 6 | 16% |
| Zimbabwe | 28 | 5 | 18% |
| **Total** | **256** | **73** | **29%** |

*Source: SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2017.*

Table 2.22 provides comparative details of women's representation as deputy ministers in 11 countries for which governments provided data to the SADC Gender Unit. The table shows that:

- Overall, women constitute 29% of deputy ministers. This is higher than the level for ministers, but still falls far short of the 50% mark.
- Two member states are close to the 50% mark: Namibia (47%), South Africa (46%)
- Four countries (Malawi, Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe) are performing at less than 20%. Malawi has no women deputy ministers.

## Next steps

This chapter continues to expand the scope for measuring women's representation and participation in public state institutions by tracking women in political parties and election management bodies; parliament; the public service, and

**23%**
**Women**
in cabinet

Seychelles
**43%**

DRC
**8%**

judiciary; in addition to the usual yardsticks: women in parliament, cabinet and local government. The private sector remains a gap yet to be tackled through better data capture and analysis. Some key priorities going forward include:

- ***Fire-up the 50/50 campaign post 2015:*** Involve other stakeholders such as the private sector in the 50/50 campaign to encourage management to ensure that the target is integrated in all spheres and not just political decision-making bodies. Lobby the relevant structures for more women in government.
- ***Holding governments accountable:*** Governments made a commitment to achieving 50% representation of women in all areas of decision-making aligned to the SDGs. Inconsistent efforts have been made with some governments adopting PR systems and systems in Zimbabwe, Lesotho, South Africa and Mauritius; and others fully opposed to doing so. Further inconsistencies at national and local levels have resulted in further variations in women's representation in political decision making and public service. Adopting special measures is a prerogative now more than ever before for an achievable Post-2015 gender agenda.
- ***Political parties transform policies in party manifestos to include quotas, the "Zebra System" and proportional representation system:*** This chapter shows, through the examples of Seychelles and Lesotho, how easy it is to backslide because political parties do not have these special measures in their party manifestos and even when they do, these are not always effectively implemented. It is critical to ensure special measures are adopted and implemented for 50/50 to be achieved by 2030.
- ***Remove major cultural and structural barriers rooted in culture, customs, religion, tradition, perceptions of women in society; and invest in efforts that build strong political will and leadership by all to effect change.*** Civic education, voter education, targeting influential community and national leaders are pathways to influence change. There is a crucial need for more civic education about women and men's equal participation in politics and decision making in public service especially now, ahead of 2030.
- ***Strengthen and adopt new approaches:*** In many cases needs assessments have not preceded training for women in politics. Such training needs to be holistic in its approach. In addition to gender analysis skills, it should include an understanding of the nature and exercise of power, confidence and assertiveness skills, leadership training and communication skills, including debating, use of the internet and social media, accessing the mainstream media and integrating gender issues into political campaigns. While there is a place for empowerment strategies that specifically target women decision-makers, it is also important to design strategies that include the "new" men in politics. Gender equality activists need to actively engage political parties to strengthen and sustain any transformation towards gender-responsive democracy and governance. There should be a continuous sensitisation and awareness raising training and support for women to attain political positions. Promote and build capacity of men and boys in civil society to become more active and participate in the gender movement and developing gender programmes and campaigns.
- ***Revamp and upscale capacity building for women in politics and leadership:*** Initiatives to strengthen the knowledge, information and gender analysis capacities of women members of Parliament and councillors should be scaled up in order to give women the confidence to retain their seats and inspire other women to participate in elections. Research on women's experience and participation in governance and political processes is required as well as a detailed analysis of the amount of funding that has been dedicated by government, civil society and donors to programmes to increase women's participation, and for civic education across SADC.
- ***Research, monitoring and evaluation are key:*** Research, advocacy and lobbying have been critical to achievements made to date. Structures and mechanisms should be found for strengthening collaboration between civil society and women in decision-making. Research, monitoring and evaluation remain key for qualitative and qualitative gains in the 50/50 campaign. Stakeholders should use this to strengthen collaboration between civil society, government, the private sector and women in decision-making.
- ***The media as a platform and tool to effect change:*** Gender, elections and media training shows that the media has a key role to play in changing mind-sets and promoting women candidates. These partnerships should be built and extended in all countries having elections between now and 2020 as an opportunity to start anew. Increase involvement with the media, including an increased use of social media, to lobby for increasing the number of women in decision-making positions. The media must work to increase coverage of women and their various roles in order to change mind-sets and thus encourage more women to contest for political positions.

# CHAPTER 3

# Education and training

## Article 14

### KEY POINTS



Providing early childhood education is critically successful for future education. *Photo: Eileen Burk, Save the Children*

- In all SADC countries except for Seychelles and Lesotho, the level of literacy for women older than 65 is lower than that of men.
- Almost all countries in SADC have achieved gender parity in primary school enrolment. There is a higher percentage of boys out of school than girls.
- None of the countries in SADC have achieved the 12-year target of compulsory years in school. Mauritius comes closest with 11 years compulsory schooling.
- Rates of teenage pregnancy (between the ages of 15 and 19) range from 28 per 1000 young women in Mauritius to 162 per 1000 young women in Angola.
- The expanded definition of education to include all forms of education extends the notion of education beyond classrooms and focuses on life-long learning as opposed to a stipulated period in the formal schooling system.
- There is a higher proportion of men enrolled in STEM in tertiary institutions in 12 SADC countries. Botswana, South Africa and Mauritius are closest to reaching gender parity in STEM enrolment.
- At secondary level only six countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles and South Africa) have 50% or more women teachers. Eight countries have lower than 50% women teachers at secondary level.
- On 2 August, Botswana's parliament became the first in the world to vote for schoolgirls to be provided with free sanitary pads.
- Nine SADC countries (Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) need to endorse the Safe Schools Declaration and the region must implement strategies to reduce and prevent violence in schools.
- There needs to be clear baseline data and indicators for measuring progress in eliminating stereotypes in the curriculum.
- While a high proportion of teachers are adequately trained at primary level, this is not the case at secondary level.
- The demographic dividend will not occur if the region does not curb its burgeoning youth population.
- Harnessing the demographic divided through investment in the youth is a top priority for the region.

**Botswana**
**parliament**
**1st**
**ever**
**to vote**
for free pads
**for girls in**
schools

## What the Protocol requires

Under Part Four, the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development has three sub-articles that cover Education and Training. These include enrolment and retention at all levels of education and conducive learning environments. It also recognises that formal education is not the only type of training that can benefit girls and women as vocational and non-formal approaches have an important place in the changing the world or work.

**Table 3.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| States Parties shall, by 2015, enact laws that promote equal access to and retention in primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the Millennium Development Goals. | State Parties shall enact laws that promote equal access to retention and **completion** in **early childhood education**, primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education **including adult literacy** in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the **Sustainable Development Goals**. |
| New | State Parties shall take special measures to increase the number of girls taking up Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects and ICT at the secondary, tertiary and higher levels. |
| States Parties shall by 2015 adopt and implement gender sensitive educational policies and programmes addressing gender stereotypes in education and gender based violence, amongst others. | States Parties shall adopt and implement gender sensitive educational, curriculum, policies and programmes addressing gender stereotypes in education and gender based violence, amongst others. |

**The revised Protocol** focuses **on life long** learning

Table 3.1 summarises the new additions on Education and Training in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol.

- The focus on completion rates, early childhood education, adult literacy and increasing girls' participation in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) are priorities for the SADC region.
- The expanded definition of education to include all forms of education extends the notion of education beyond classrooms and focuses on life-long learning as opposed to a stipulated period in the formal schooling system.
- International, continental and SADC instruments are in place to improve the quality of education and to provide all citizens with access to diverse educational opportunities. SADC member states need the political will, conceptual clarity and resources to implement programmes recommended by the AU.



Early childhood education is a priority in the SADC region. *Photo: Mukayi Makaya*

## Key trends

| Table 3.2: Trends in Education 2009, 2015 and 2017 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Parameter | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
| **PROPORTION OF GIRLS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION** | | | | | |
| Highest proportion of girls | 100 % | | Lesotho (57%) | South Africa (88%) | -12% |
| Lowest proportion of girls | | | DRC (36%) | Mozambique (18%) | -82% |
| **SECONDARY SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES GIRLS** | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | | | Seychelles (100%) | 0 |
| Lowest | | | | Angola (15%) | -85% |
| **PERCENTAGE WOMEN IN TERTIARY EDUCATION** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50% | | | Mauritius (42%) | -8% |
| Lowest | | | | Malawi (1%) | -49% |
| **% WOMEN TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50 % | | | Seychelles (62%) | +12% |
| Lowest | | | | DRC (12%) | -38% |
| **% WOMEN IN STEM SUBJECTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50% | | | Botswana (46%) | -4% |
| Lowest | | | | DRC (17%) | -33% |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100 % | N/A | 94% | 84% | 16% |
| CSC | 100 % | 65% | 68% | 66% | 34% |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Table 3 .2 shows that:

- South Africa (88%) has the highest proportion of girls enrolled at Secondary school and Mozambique (18%) has the lowest.
- Girls in Seychelles attained full (100%) completion of secondary school while in Angola only 15% girls completed secondary school.
- The results for tertiary education show that less than half of the eligible young women are actually in tertiary education. Mauritius (42%) has the highest representation of young women in tertiary education. In Malawi only 1% of eligible young women are in tertiary education.
- Mauritius (46%) is very close to reaching gender parity in enrolment in STEM subjects, while DRC (17%) has the furthest to go.



Limkokwing Botswana unleashes more graduates to the world.
*Photo: Gender Links*

### Scores - SGDI and CSC

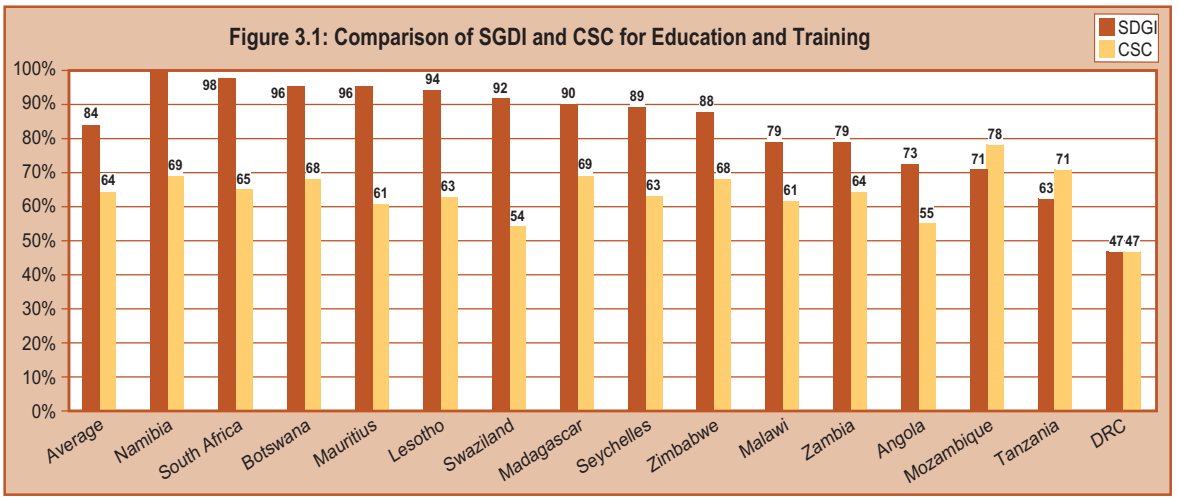
The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of education, the previous SGDI focused on enrolment rates for boys and girls at primary, secondary and tertiary level. In the Post-2015 SGDI, enrolment at primary level has been dropped, as the indicator does not always tell the whole story. Instead, the SGDI measures the gender gap between the proportion of eligible boys and girls in secondary and tertiary education. The index has added secondary school completion rates for girls; percentage of women teachers in secondary schools and women in STEM subjects in tertiary education. Not surprisingly with these more stringent tests, the average SDGI has dropped from 94% in 2015 to 84% in 2017. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post-2015 era. This score has traditionally been lower than the SGDI scores as citizens focus more on the qualitative than quantitative aspects of education. With the new parameters in the SADC Gender Protocol, the CSC has also dropped from 68% in 2015 to 66% in 2017.

**SGDI** has gone **down** to **84%** in **2017** from **94%** in **2015**

**CSC** has **dropped** from **68%** in **2015** to **66%** in **2017**

**SDGI**
**84%**

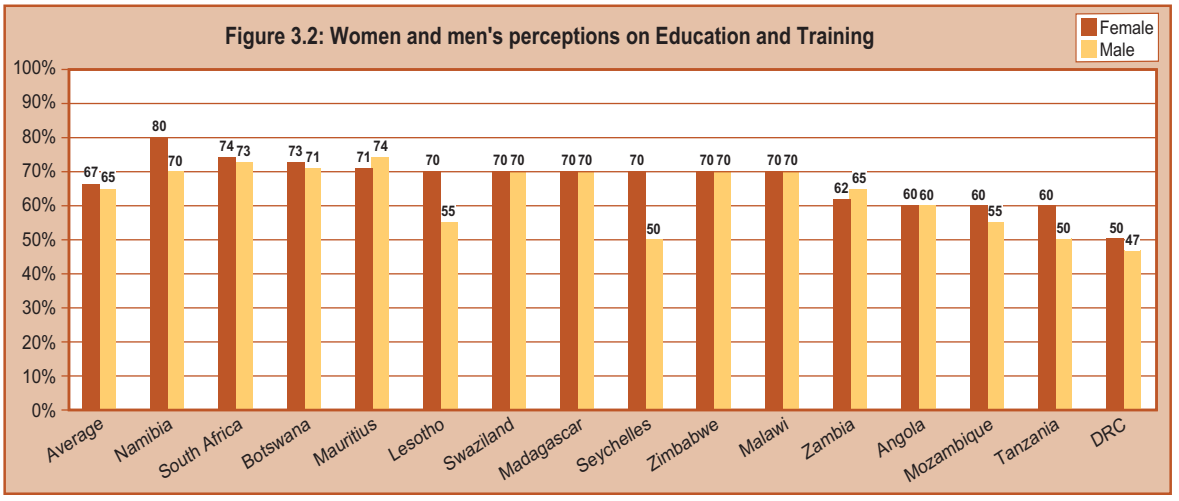
**CSC**
**66%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 3.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores. As the target is women's and girls' equal participation, where this is achieved a country scores 100% and less depending on the extent of the gender gap. The SGDI scores for all countries are much higher that the CSC scores. At 66%, the CSC "perception" score is much lower than the SGDI score (84%). The difference between the SGDI average score and CSC in education is 20 percentage points. Citizens in all the 15 SADC countries gave lower scores compared to the SGDI. Swaziland recorded the highest gap between the SGDI (92%) and the CSC (54%) closely followed by Mauritius with SGDI and CSC scores of 96% and 61% respectively. Mozambique had the highest citizen score (78%). This is a strong reminder that there are many aspects of education for which quantitative measures are still required: for example safety in schools, and gender aware education curriculum.

**67%**
scored higher than
**65%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 3.2 compares the perceptions of women and men on education across the region through sex disaggregated data on the CSC. On average, women (67%) scored their governments higher than men (65%). Women in eight countries (Mozambique, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Seychelles, Mauritius, Angola and DRC) scored higher than men while in five countries (Madagascar, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Swaziland) men and women gave the same score. In Tanzania and Malawi women scored government performance in education lower than men.

**Table 3.3: Access and enrolment in education**

| | Angola | | Botswana | | DRC | | Lesotho | | Madagascar | | Malawi | | Mauritius | | Mozambique | | Namibia | | Seychelles | | South Africa | | Swaziland | | Tanzania | | Zambia | | Zimbabwe | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| % | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M |
| Literacy | 60 | 85 | 89 | 86 | 61 | 88 | 88 | 68 | 62 | 67 | 54 | 72 | 91 | 93 | 35 | 69 | 91 | 91 | 98 | 96 | 95 | 96 | 86 | 86 | 74 | 85 | 74 | 85 | 84 | 89 |
| **Enrolment** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pre-primary | 71 | 48 | 17 | 17 | 4 | 4 | 35 | 33 | 19 | 17 | 82 | 81 | 96 | 94 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 20 | 82 | 76 | 78 | 77 | 19 | 18 | 32 | 31 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 25 |
| Primary | 73 | 95 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 88 | 82 | 79 | 71 | 68 | 94 | 93 | 97 | 95 | 87 | 91 | 91 | 88 | 96 | 94 | 97 | 97 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 79 | 88 | 86 | 86 | 85 |
| Secondary | 23 | 35 | 43 | 49 | 41 | 54 | 45 | 29 | 32 | 31 | 36 | 37 | 86 | 81 | 19 | 18 | 65 | 55 | 81 | 76 | 88 | 88 | 41 | 34 | 31 | 34 | 43 | 47 | 44 | 44 |
| Tertiary | 8 | 10 | 28 | 19 | 4 | 9 | 12 | 8 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 42 | 32 | 5 | 7 | 10 | 8 | 20 | 9 | 23 | 16 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 9 |
| Vocational | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 47 | 53 | 32 | 68 | 35 | 65 | 30 | 70 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 41 | 57 | 43 | 25 | 75 | 47 | 53 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

*Source: World Bank Database Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017*
*2016 Gap report and https://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/drcongo_statistics.html , https://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/zambia_statistics.html*

## Background

The right to education is an inalienable right for all. The definition of education to include primary, secondary and tertiary is now extended to include literacy. This is a welcome change because it includes adult learners.

The expanded conceptual framework for education provides opportunities to link with other key development priorities such as climate change, peace, justice and building a critical citizenry.

The challenge is integrating these concepts into the formal school curriculum as well as developing non-formal learning programmes that may be accessed by people out of the formal school system.

The shift to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Post-2015 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development prompted the need for new standards to measure progress. The adoption of a common monitoring, evaluation and results framework is an opportunity to gather comprehensive data on progress from each country to identify gaps and action required to address the challenges.

A common theme running through the chapter is to move beyond the numbers and start engaging with the quality of the education on offer. This also raises the need for a well-regulated and structured pre-primary education.

The challenges of teenage pregnancies, gender based violence and safe-spaces for teaching and learning remain high on the agenda. The low enrolment rates of young women and men at tertiary institutions is a major issue. There are clear links between growing economies and higher level learning.

There are also possibilities in the region's more youthful population. The 28th African Union Summit declared *"Harnessing the Demographic Dividend Through Investments in the Youth"* as its theme, which connects to the "Agenda 2063" that offers a comprehensive development vision for the African continent. Africa's youth population is expected to increase by 42 percent from 226 million in 2015 and is projected to keep on increasing.[9]



Education is power! *Photo: Adapt*

The **right** to education is an inalienable right for all

[9] African Union Roadmap on Harnessing the Demographic Dividend through Investments in Youth in response to AU assembly decision (assembly/au/dec.601 (xxvi) on the 2017 theme of the year 2017.

**Education and the demographic dividend**

The demographic dividend is the economic growth potential that can result from shifts in a population's age structure, mainly when the share of the working-age population (15 to 64) is larger than the non-working-age share of the population (14 and younger, and 65 and older). Sustainable development cannot be achieved without assuring that all women and men, and girls and boys, enjoy the dignity and human rights to expand their capabilities, secure their reproductive health and rights, find decent work, and contribute to economic growth. Developing policies and investments to secure that future requires that governments know the size, sex, location and age structure of their present and future populations.

Countries with the greatest demographic opportunity for development are those entering a period in which the working-age population has good health, quality education, decent employment and a lower proportion of young dependents. Smaller numbers of children per household generally lead to larger investments per child, more freedom for women to enter the formal workforce and more household savings for old age. When this happens, the national economic payoff can be substantial. This is a "demographic dividend."

The chance to realise one's potential is often derailed, particularly for millions of girls, who are pushed from school, subjected to child marriage, early and unplanned pregnancies, poor access to health care and limited education. When large numbers of people find themselves trapped in this trajectory of restricted opportunities, poor health and limited capabilities, there can be no demographic dividend: An age structure with fewer dependents is unlikely to occur, and each person's ability to develop their capabilities, save and invest, be resilient in the face of crises and take the risk to innovate will be permanently undermined. The fulfilment of human rights - including sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights - is therefore essential for any society to achieve a demographic dividend.

*Source: http://www.unfpa.org/demographic-dividend, accessed July 2017.*

## Access to education

Article 14.1 State Parties shall enact laws that promote equal access to retention and **completion** in **early childhood education**, primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education **including adult literacy** in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the **Sustainable Development Goals.**

Early childhood education forms the **basis** of all other **levels** of schooling

UNICEF advocates quality basic education for all, with an emphasis on gender equality and eliminating all disparities. In particular, getting girls into school and ensuring that they stay and learn has what UNICEF calls a "multiplier effect." Educated girls are likely to marry later and have fewer children, who in turn will be more likely to survive and be better nourished and educated. Educated girls are more productive at home and better paid in the workplace, and more able to participate in social, economic and political decision-making.[10]

Early childhood education forms the basis of all other levels of schooling. The sector is largely unregulated in most countries. SADC member states are required to make primary education free and pre-primary and secondary school more affordable, through comprehensive schooling polices that address all education costs.[11]



The "Take a Girl Child to Work" campaign run by Cell C in South Africa promotes gender equality through education.

*Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

[10] https://www.unicef.org/mdg/education.html
[11] https://www.cstlsadc.com/sadc-policy-framework-care-support-teaching-learning-launched-swaziland/

In December 2016 SADC launched the SADC Policy *Framework on Care and Support for Teaching and Learning (CSTL)*. The goal for CSTL (2013-18) is for children and youth in SADC realise their rights to education, safety and protection, care and support, through an expanded and strengthened education sector response.

Specific objectives include:

- *Systems strengthening:* to strengthen, expand and sustain the education sector responses of Member States to the prevention, care and support needs of children and youth, especially vulnerable girls.
- *Improved coordination and integration of services:* to support Member States to partner with local services and safety nets that address HIV&AIDS, SRHR and other health needs of children and youth, especially vulnerable girls.
- *Policy harmonisation and implementation:* to support Member States to advocate for and implement policies and programmes promoting and protecting the rights of vulnerable and marginalized children and youth, as expressed in the Regional Policy Framework on CSTL.

CSTL is guided by the following principles:

- Gender equality
- Rights-based approaches
- Child and youth participation
- Evidence-based programming
- Leadership and good governance[12]

In forthcoming Barometers it will be important to follow up on progress made in each country towards meeting the specific requirements outlined in CSTL.

## Education funding

**Table 3.4: Government expenditure on education[13]**

| | % GDP to education | % government spending | % primary education | % secondary education | % higher education |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 3.5[14] | 8.5 | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Botswana | 9.6 | 20.5 | 17.8 | 32.7 | 41.5 |
| DRC | 2.2 | 16.8 | 61.6 | 14.4 | 22.0 |
| Lesotho[15] | 13 | 24.7 | 36 | 20.5 | 36.4 |
| Madagascar | 2.1 | 14.4 | 47.4 | 19.3 | 15.2 |
| Malawi | 6.9 | 16.3 | 49.5 | 24.7 | 21.5 |
| Mauritius | 6.9 | 16.3 | 49.5 | 24.7 | 21.5 |
| Mozambique | 6.5 | 19.0 | 49.2 | 30.6 | 13.7 |
| Namibia | 8.3 | 26.2 | 40.0 | 23.5 | 23.1 |
| Seychelles | 3.6 | 10.4 | 24.0 | 16.2 | 32.5 |
| South Africa | 6.1 | 19.1 | 38.8 | 30.7 | 12.2 |
| Swaziland | 8.6 | 22.4 | 48.7 | 36.7 | 12.8 |
| Tanzania | 3.5 | 17.3 | 49.2 | 18.3 | 21.4 |
| Zambia[16] | 5.0 | 20.2 | 56.0 | 13.0 | 11.0 |
| Zimbabwe | 2.0 | 8.7 | 51.6 | 25.6 | 22.8 |

*Source: World Bank Education statistics accessed on 2 June 2016.*

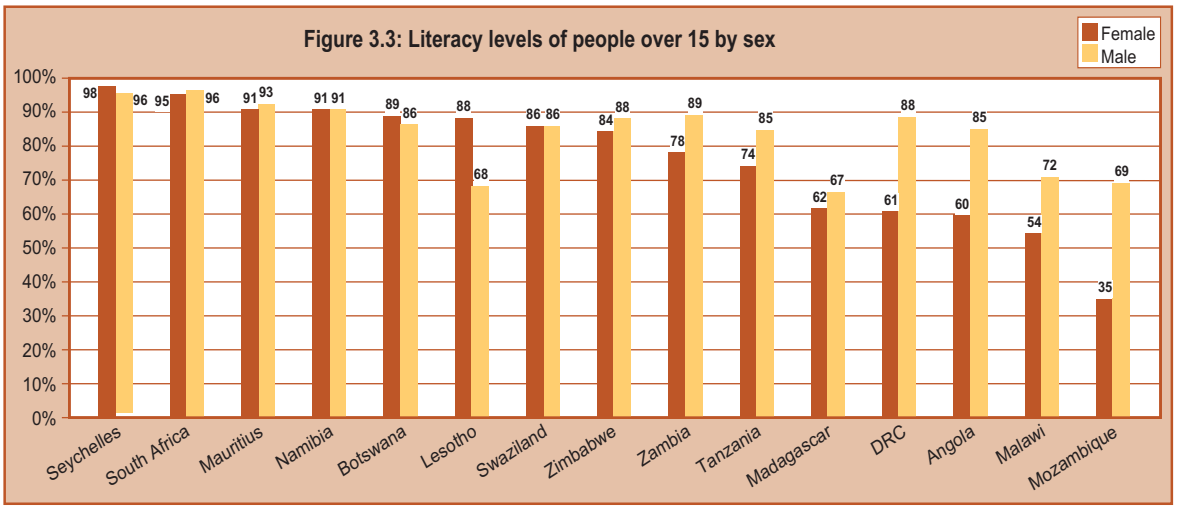
The Education for All (EFA) movement recommends that at least 20% of government spending go on education[17]. Table 3.4 shows that government spending on education in SADC ranges from 8.5% in Angola to 26.2% in Namibia. There are also variances on how countries allocate budgets to the different levels of education. The largest proportion of the budget goes to primary education in 11 countries with the DRC spending 61.65 % of its total education budget on primary education. Botswana (41.5%), Lesotho (36.4%) and Seychelles (32.5%) allocate the largest portion of their budget to higher education.

Government spending on education in SADC ranges from **8.5%** in Angola to **26.2%** in Namibia

[12] http://www.cstlsadc.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/SADC_CSTL_leaflet_Eng_v5.pdf
[13] http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=Education%20Statistics#
[14] https://tradingeconomics.com/angola/public-spending-on-education-total-percent-of-gdp-wb-data.html
[15] http://www.indexmundi.com/facts/lesotho/public-spending-on-education
[16] http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/431421468000590726/pdf/103870-PUB-PUBLIC-Education-Public-Expenditure-Review-in-Zambia.pdf
[17] EFA is a global commitment to provide quality basic education for all children, youth and adults adopted at the World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000).

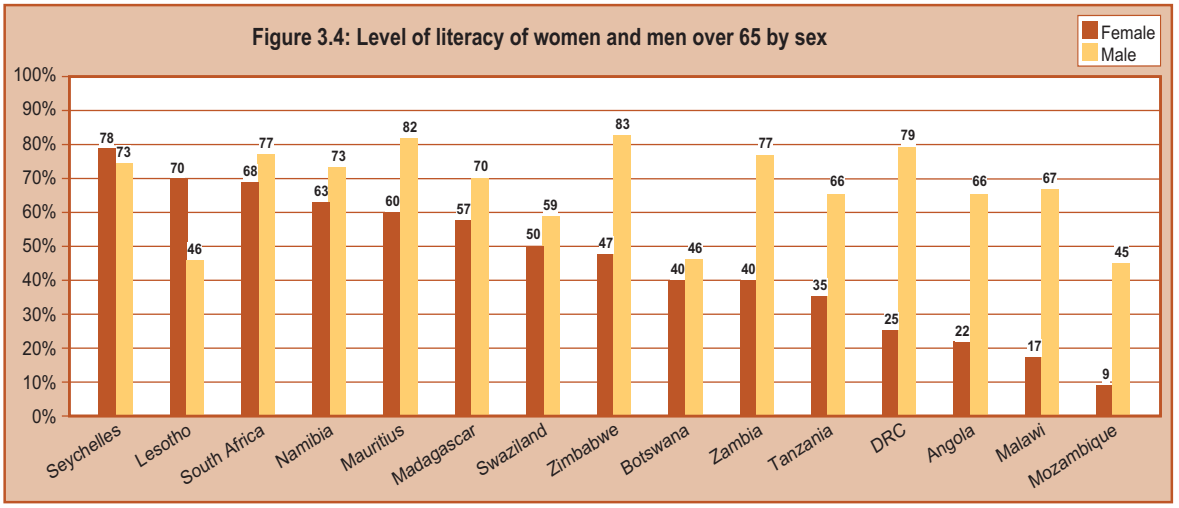
## Literacy

Levels of literacy for women over the age of **15** range from **35%** in Mozambique to **98%** in Seychelles




*Source: World Bank Database Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

Figure 3.3 shows the levels of literacy for women over the age of fifteen range from 35% in Mozambique to 98% in Seychelles, and for men over the age of fifteen from 96% in Seychelles to 67% in Madagascar. In the Seychelles, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland the levels of literacy amongst women are higher than, or equal to, men. The gender gaps in literacy levels are relatively low in South Africa and Mauritius. Men have slightly higher literacy levels than women in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania and Madagascar. In the DRC, Angola, Malawi and Mozambique men have significantly higher levels of literacy than women with differences of between 25 and 34 percentage points.




*Source: World Bank Database Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

Figure 3.4 illustrating levels of literacy amongst women and men over 65 paints a radically different picture of the gender gaps in literacy. The levels of literacy amongst older women in the Seychelles and Lesotho are higher than those of men. In 13 other SADC countries, women's level of literacy is lower than that of men. Less than 50% of women over the age of 65 in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, the DRC, Angola and Malawi are literate. In the same countries' the levels of literacy for men are almost double and sometimes triple than that of women. Botswana and Mozambique are of particular concern where the levels of literacy for men over 65 is less than 50% while the levels for women are below 20%.

Adult literacy is key for older women to be able to fully understand and claim their rights. Providing opportunities for older people to improve their levels of literacy is in line with the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4: "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all."

The African Union (AU) has developed a road map centred around four pillars that are designed to ensure that as part of Agenda 2063, Africa has "a more prosperous future in which all its citizens, young, old, male, female, rural, urban, of all creeds and backgrounds are empowered to realise their full potential, live with satisfaction and pride about their continent".[18] The four pillars are: Employment and Entrepreneurship; Education and Skills Development; Health and Wellbeing; and Rights, Governance and Youth Empowerment. The Education and Skills section provides key actions, deliverables and demands that will "ensure inclusive and equitable education and promote lifelong opportunities for all".

**Madagascar: Learning for life**



Marie Louise, 46, from the village of Namakia-Ankilibe, about one hour's drive south of Toliara, in arid southwestern Madagascar, never saw the inside of a classroom as a child. "My mother died when I was two years old and my uncle took care of us, but he never sent my two sisters and I to school. There wasn't one in the village anyway," she recalls.

Although being illiterate was considered normal in her village, Marie Louise found it a hindrance. "When the mailman brought letters, we had to walk to the town and pay someone to read the letters to us. Also, the president of the *fokotany* (municipality) sometimes asked us to sign forms, and we didn't know what it was we were signing."



Marie Louise, is one of the more than one hundred villagers in her area enrolled in an adult literacy programme.
*Photo: Solange Nyamulisa, UNDP*

Now she is among about 100 villagers in her area enrolled in an adult literacy programme. Every afternoon they come together in a community garden where they have lessons by teachers provided by a local NGO. Marie Louise plans to take the primary school exam and then go on to a secondary school. "I want to learn a trade, become a vendor or a tailor later on," she says.

## Years of compulsory education in SADC

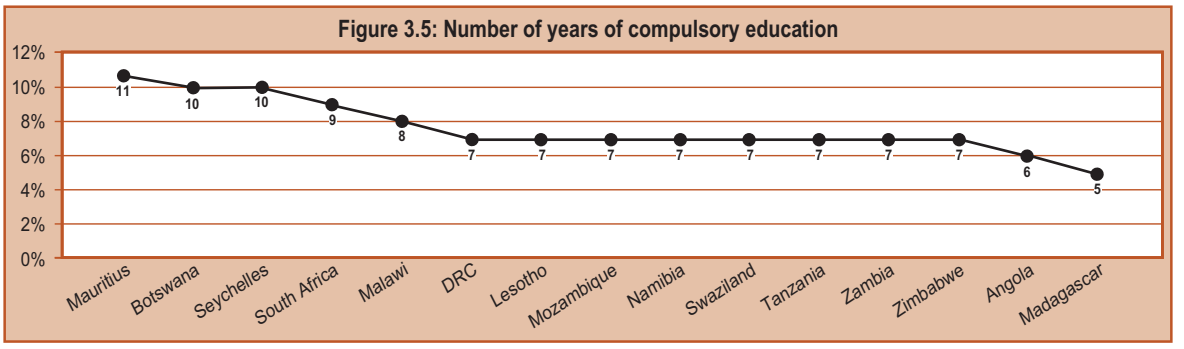
UNESCO together with UNICEF, the World Bank, UNFPA, UNDP, UN Women and UNHCR organised the World Education Forum 2015 in Incheon, Republic of Korea, from 19 - 22 May 2015, hosted by the Republic of Korea. Over 1,600 participants from 160 countries, including over 120 Ministers, heads and members of delegations, heads of agencies and officials of multilateral and bilateral organizations, and representatives of civil society, the teaching profession, youth and the private sector, adopted the Incheon Declaration for Education 2030, which sets out a new vision for education for the next fifteen years.

The Incheon Declaration[20] commits UN Member States to ensuring the *provision of 12 years of free, publicly funded, equitable quality primary and secondary education*, of which at least nine years are compulsory, leading to relevant learning outcomes. The Declaration also encourages the provision of at least one year of free and compulsory quality pre-primary education and access to quality early childhood development, care and education.

Adult literacy is **key** for older women to be able to fully understand and claim their **rights**

[18] http://femnet.co/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/Young-Women-Advocacy-Brief-2017.pdf
[19] https://www.irinnews.org/fr/node/253909
[20] http://www.unesco.org/new/en/brasilia/about-this-office/single-view/news/education_2030_incheon_declaration_and_and_framework_for_ac/

**None** of the countries in SADC have **achieved** the **12-year** target of compulsory education




*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

Figure 3.5 summarises the number of years of compulsory education in SADC countries in descending order. None of the countries in SADC have achieved the 12-year target. Mauritius comes closest with 11 years compulsory schooling. Botswana, Seychelles, South Africa and Malawi have between 8 and 10 years of compulsory schooling. The remaining ten countries have between five and seven years of compulsory schooling. Madagascar has the lowest number of years of compulsory schooling at five years.

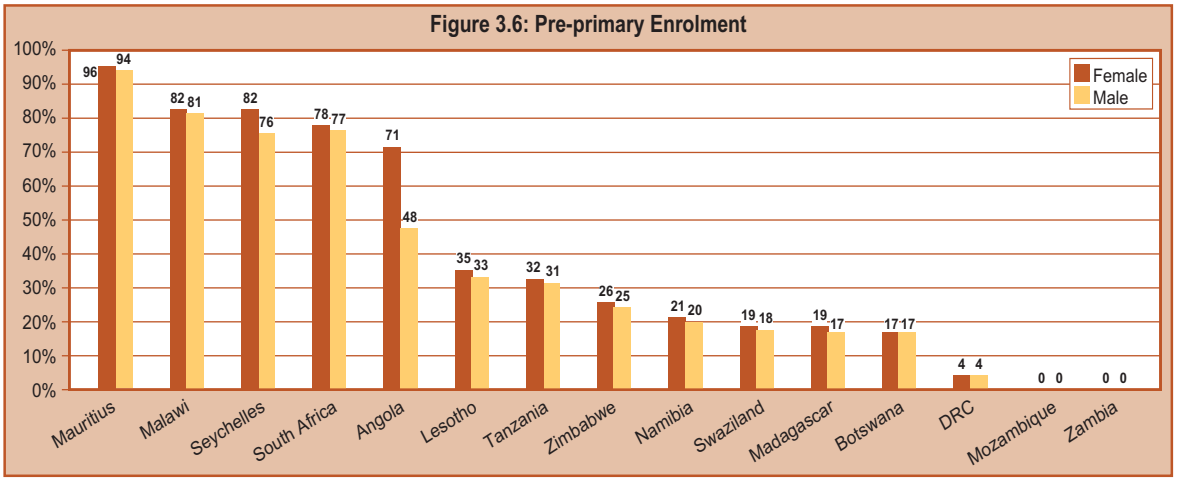
In most countries children enter the schooling system at seven years old, that means young girls and boys could potentially be out of the schooling system at age 12 in Madagascar. This raises serious concerns about the future of these young people and how well equipped they will be to fully participate as citizens in their adulthood.

## Pre-primary

Two children start Grade One at the same primary school on the same day, each eager for the year ahead. One has had three years of attending a quality early childhood development (ECD) programme at a good ECD centre. The second child did not attend a quality ECD centre.

Now these two young children start Grade One together but from vastly different early experiences yet they are both expected to meet the same learning outcomes.

For those children, like the first one in this example, who have had quality early learning opportunities prior to entering Grade 1, the likely trajectory is as follows: she will perform better academically throughout her school career, she will be less likely to need expensive remedial education, she is less likely to get caught up in crime and substance abuse, she is more likely to get a job when she leaves school and she is less likely to become pregnant whilst a teenager. These are significant social, education and economic benefits.[21]

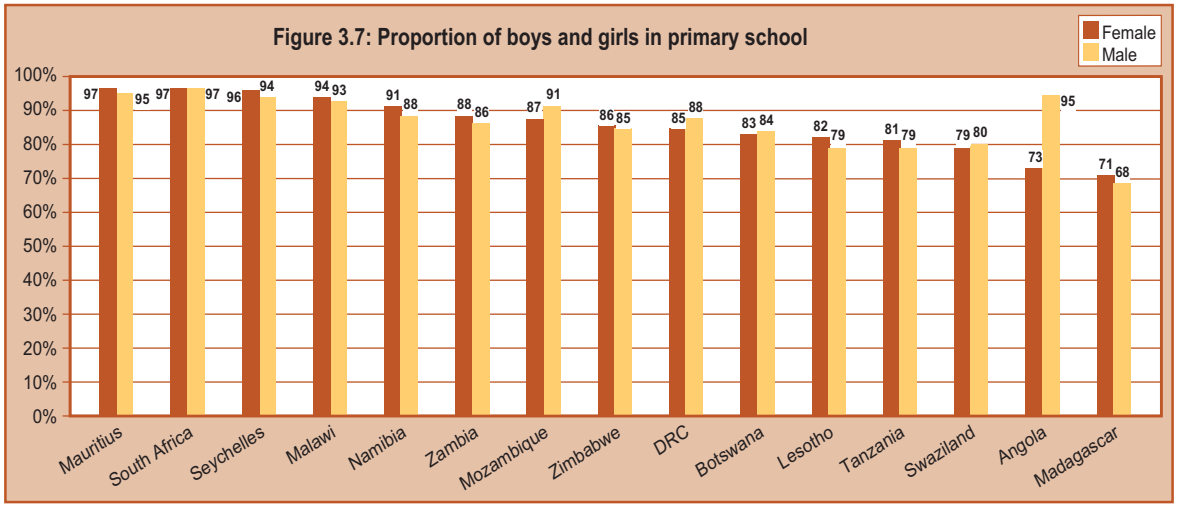



*Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.*

[21] http://www.educationweek.co.za/ecd-importance/

Figure 3.6 provides an overview of enrolment in pre-primary for 13 SADC countries (with no data available for Mozambique and Zambia). The graph shows that there are high and almost equal numbers of girls and boys in pre-primary in Mauritius, Malawi, Seychelles and South Africa. In Angola, there are many more girls than boys in pre-primary.

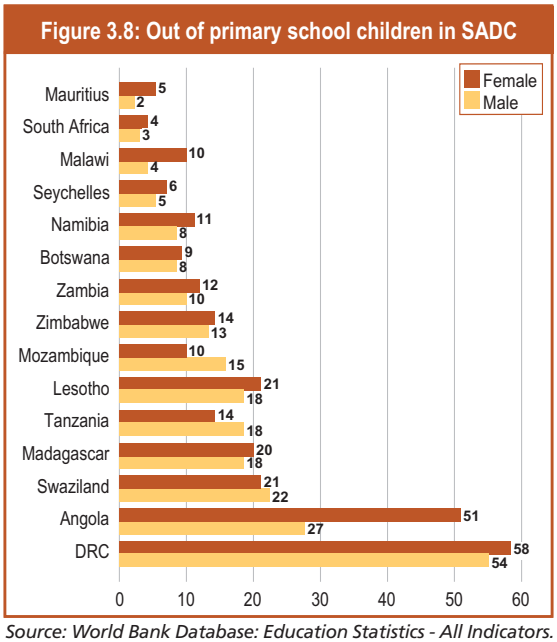
In Lesotho, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Swaziland, Madagascar, Botswana and the DRC there are low proportions of girls and boys in pre-primary school. In the DRC only four percent of girls and boys eligible to be in pre-primary attend. This could be a consequence of the protracted conflict and consequent displacement of people in the DRC. These figures are extremely problematic and there has to be a concerted effort to place girls and boys in well regulated, affordable pre-primary schools. It cannot be over-emphasised how important this foundation phase is for their future.




*Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.*

***Gender parity has been achieved in primary schools in most SADC countries:*** Almost all countries in SADC have achieved gender parity in primary school enrolment. The largest disparity between girls' and boys' enrolment in primary school is in Angola. The enrolment of boys is 22 percentage points higher than that of girls. From a statistical perspective SADC has made great strides in primary school enrolment. The question however is, "are those who have completed primary school well equipped for secondary school and beyond?" The measurement of success in primary school should shift to the quality of the curriculum as well proficiency in key areas such as reading, mathematics, science and technology.

***But not all children are in school:*** Out of primary school children refers to those learners who ought to be in school but for various reasons are not attending.




*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

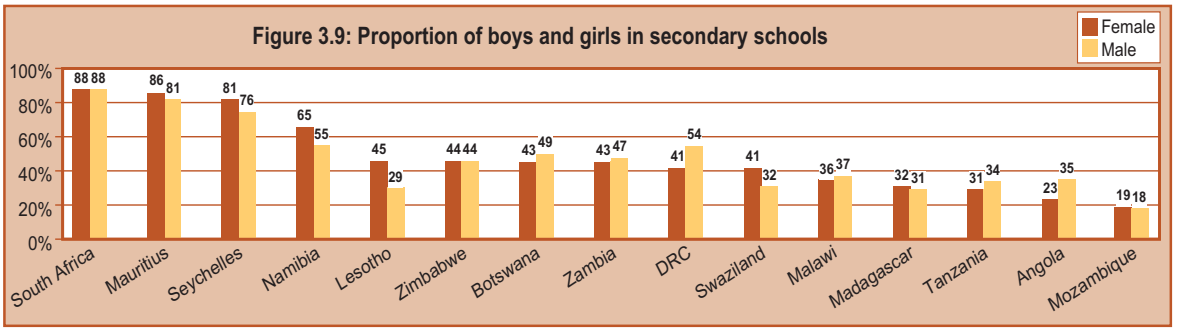
Only **4%** of girls and boys eligible to be in pre-primary in DRC attend

[13] Women's Development Businesses 25th Anniversary.

**Most** SADC countries have **reached** gender parity in enrolment at secondary school level

Figure 3.8 shows that there is a higher percentage of boys out of school than girls. In Mozambique, Tanzania and Swaziland there are marginally more girls out school. In Angola, more than 51% of boys who should be in primary are not attending. In the DRC, more than 50% of girls and boys who should be in primary school are not. This will severely hinder their progress and future development. This could be a result of the young boys being displaced through the conflict. Mauritius and South Africa have low proportions of girls and boys out of primary school.

## Secondary school




*Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.*

Most SADC countries have reached gender parity in enrolment at secondary school level: Mauritius, Lesotho, Swaziland, Madagascar and Mozambique have a higher proportion of girls than boys enrolled in secondary school. South Africa and Zimbabwe have reached gender parity in enrolment in Secondary school. Botswana, Zambia, the DRC, Malawi, Tanzania and Angola have a higher proportion of boys than girls in secondary school.

A serious concern is that there are less than 50% young girls and boys enrolled in secondary school in 11 SADC countries. Reasons include high cost, conflict, violence and assisting in the home with domestic and subsistence activities. The Zvimba Rural Development Council in Zimbabwe has found a way to help children in their area go to secondary school.

Protocol@Work



### Zimbabwe: Zvimba Rural Development Council (RDC) Bursary Fund



Zvimba council has created a bursary scheme for orphans and vulnerable children.
*Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

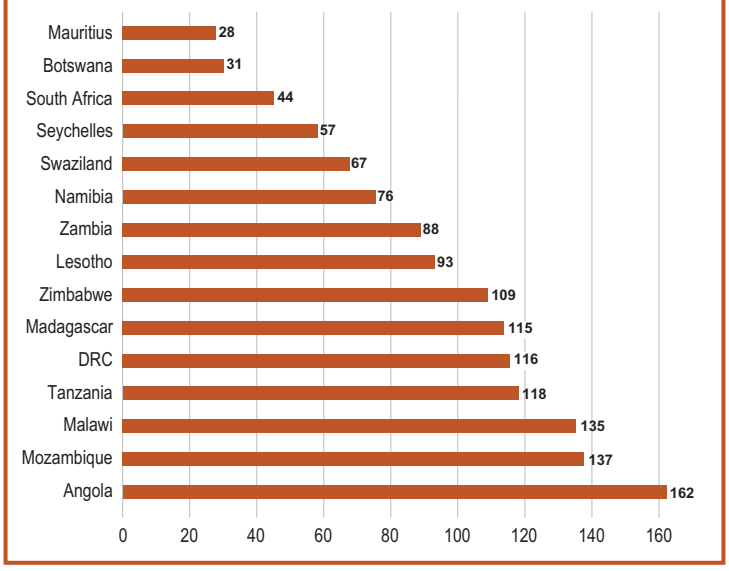
Zvimba is a Centre of Excellence for Gender in Local Government. Most orphaned children in the community did not proceed to secondary school after completing primary education. The surviving parent or guardian found it difficult to send them to school. The guardians, mostly grandparents, sought help from the council to assist the children with food. During the Fifty-fifty campaign in 2015 the Council launched the Bursary Fund.

The activity came about due to the poverty of guardians of orphaned children. Most orphans are looked after by their grandparents who cannot work. As a council, Zvimba RDC, has a corporate social responsibility to its residents. The key function of council is to offer services to its community.

The project set out to pay school fees, buy school uniforms and books for children who lost one or both parent or both. During droughts, the council assists children with food such as beans, cooking oil and maize meal as well soap, and body lotion. The children must have at least passed grade seven with a maximum of 24 units.

In doing so, the council sites Article 14.1 of the Protocol: "State Parties shall enact laws that promote equal access to retention and completion in early childhood education, primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education including adult literacy in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the Sustainable Development Goals."

Figure 3.10: Births per 1000 women ages 15-19




*Source: World Bank, 2015.*

***High rates of teenage pregnancy persist in the SADC region:*** Rates of teenage pregnancy (between the ages of 15 and 19) range from 28 per 1000 young women in Mauritius to 162 per 1000 young women in Angola. There are over 100 births per 1000 women between the ages 15 and 19 in Zimbabwe, Madagascar, the DRC, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique and Angola. These levels are alarmingly high. It is clear that urgent intervention is required to ensure that young women complete their schooling.

**Tanzania's ban on pregnant girls in school violates basic rights**



Rights activists in Tanzania are protesting against the ban on pregnant girls and teenage mothers in state schools, saying the measure fuels stigma against girls and victims of sexual violence.

Addressing a rally in Tanzania's coast region, President John Magufuli said female students who become mothers would "never" be allowed back in school - reaffirming a ban dating back to the 1960s. "As long as I am president ... no pregnant student will be allowed to return to school," he said. "We cannot allow this immoral behaviour to permeate our primary and secondary schools."

Irene Masawe, 21, who was kicked out of school in Dar es Salaam after falling pregnant three years ago, said the ban stigmatised pregnant girls and could push them into unsafe abortions. "Some girls with might be forced to have risky abortions to avoid shame - or even think about committing suicide," she told the Thomson Reuters Foundation.

Emily Nyoni was expelled from school in Dar es Salaam after getting pregnant in 2012, ending her dreams of becoming a doctor. She said the president's statement would victimise girls. "Some people will hate you because you are pregnant or have given birth, they will despise you as if you have committed an unforgivable sin," she said.

Denying pregnant girls and new mothers access to education is a violation of their rights, said Equality Now, an international NGO defending girls' rights. "Pregnant girls, especially those who have been subject to sexual violence or exploitation must not be discriminated against," Christa Stewart of Equality Now said in an email.

The East African nation has one of the highest adolescent pregnancy and birth rates in the world and 21 percent of girls aged 15 to 19 have given birth, according to a 2015/16 survey conducted by the Tanzania Bureau of Statistics.

More than 55,000 Tanzanian schoolgirls have been expelled from school over the last decade for being pregnant, the centre for Reproductive Rights (CRR) said in a report in 2013. Some wealthier families are able to send their daughters to private schools but the majority end up looking for casual work.

High rates of teenage pregnancy **persist** in the SADC region

Teenage pregnancy ≠ end of education

According to President Magufuli, teen mothers would set a bad example to other students if allowed back in school.

But critics said the focus on punishing girls was counterproductive. "It's unfair to punish the girl alone, as that is tantamount to punishing the victim," Tanzanian columnist Jenerali Ulimwengu wrote in The East African newspaper.

While sex with underage girls is criminalised in Tanzania, parents may marry off their daughters using a special privilege granted by a 1971 marriage law, which allows a girl as young as 15 to marry with parental or the court's consent.

*Source: http://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-girls-idUSKBN19H1FE accessed on 21 July, 2017*

UNFPA conducted a desktop survey of legislation and policy relating to adolescent sexual and reproductive health and rights in 23 countries in East and Southern Africa. They presented a set of legislative and policy recommendations to address teenage pregnancy.

**Teenage pregnancy must not be end to education**

The study reviews the laws, policies and related frameworks in 23 countries in East and Southern Africa (ESA) that create either impediments to, or an enabling environment for, adolescent sexual and reproductive health and rights. The assessment resulted in the development of a harmonized regional legal framework, which translates international and regional legal provisions into useful strategies. It gives recommendations based on applicable core legal values and principles gleaned from a range of conventions, charters, political commitments, guidelines and declarations. This section relates to teenage pregnancies.



Need to ensure that teenagers can re-enter the schooling system after pregnancy.
*Photo: Club of Mozambique*

For many girls and young women, becoming pregnant means an end to an education. In fact, a five-country study in the region shows that less than five per cent of girls who drop out of school as a result of pregnancy return. Keeping girls in school, despite pregnancy, is crucial to ensure opportunities for a better life and future.

Only about half of the countries in the regional study have legislation and policies on the management of learner pregnancy and re-entry after delivery. However, the majority of those countries tend to approach learner pregnancy from a punitive perspective. This is clear from the policies that ban learners from returning to their former school, exclude them for a specific pre-determined time frame, or expel them on the grounds of pregnancy.

These approaches are not in line with international obligations. An accommodating approach, which has general principles guided by a rights based framework and takes into account an individual learner's needs and circumstances, is more appropriate.

***Proposed reform***

*Recommendations in law:*

- Make it clear that pregnancy is not a disciplinary issue and a non-punitive approach to pregnancy needs to be adopted.
- Provide for supportive re-entry of the pregnant learner to school after delivery, when the adolescent is ready.
- Make provisions that respect the privacy of the pregnant learner.
- Include measures for the retention of pregnant learners to continue their education until they are close to delivery.
- Obligate the school or institution to report to educator bodies and ministry of education where pregnancy is caused by a teacher or other staff member.

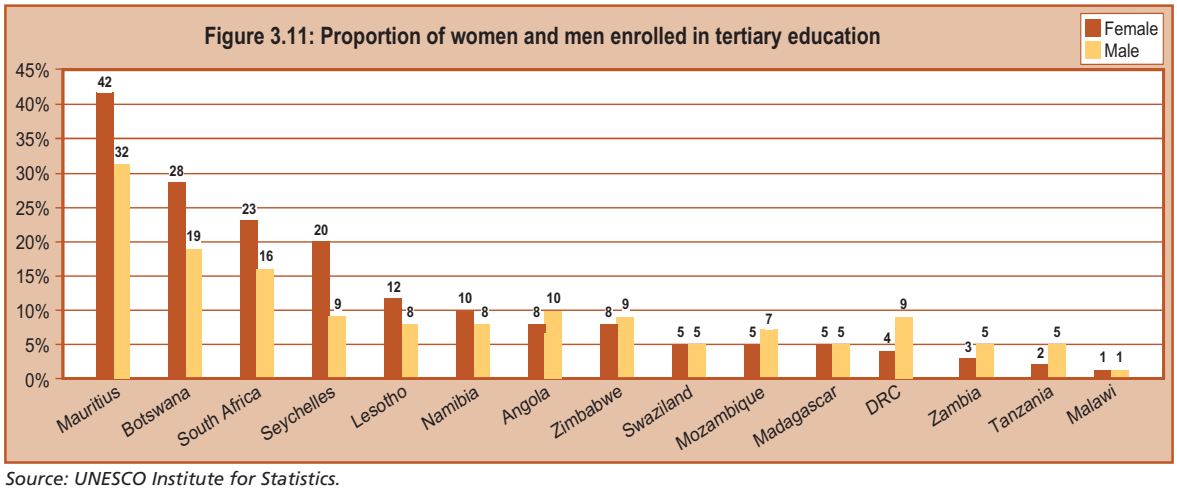
*Recommendations in policy:*

- Emphasise the importance of adolescents receiving adequate knowledge and life skills related to their sexuality.
- Include measures aimed at de-stigmatizing pregnancy among adolescents and use the opportunity to inform and educate other learners on the importance of obtaining services to prevent unplanned pregnancy.
- Pregnant learners need to be supported to continue their studies until as close as possible to delivery. They must also be referred to health and other related services. Ministries of health and education need to collaborate to provide pregnant learners with support during pregnancy and after delivery.[22]

Teenage pregnancies, custom, culture and repaying debt, amongst others, lead to child marriages. While all SADC countries subscribe to a minimum age for marriage for girls and boys there are often exceptions to the law. SADC Parliamentarians adopted a model law to eradicate child marriages in June 2016. The law aims to address any inconsistencies and gaps in national laws. The law stipulates that girls and boys can only marry after they are 18 years old. SADC member states need to explicitly outlaw child marriages and align their national laws and policies to the SADC Model Law to Eradicate Child Marriages (see Chapter One).

## Tertiary level

Significant inequalities in tertiary education exist in the region in general, as well as in relation to areas of study, with women being overrepresented in the humanities and social sciences and significantly underrepresented in engineering, science and technology.[23]




*Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.*

***Six countries have a higher proportion of women than men enrolled in tertiary education:*** As reflected in figure 3.11 these include Mauritius, Botswana, South Africa, Seychelles, Lesotho and Namibia. With 42% women at the tertiary level, Mauritius has the highest proportion of women.

***There are gender gaps in other countries when it comes to women's enrolment in tertiary education:*** Gender gaps exist in Angola, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, the DRC, Zambia and Tanzania. These are relatively small ranging from one to five percentage point differences.

***Three countries have reached gender parity in tertiary enrolment:*** Madagascar, Malawi and Swaziland have equal proportions of women and men at tertiary level.

***The bigger concern is the low levels of enrolment in tertiary education in SADC:*** Only Botswana exceeds the global average of 30%. Enrolment at tertiary institutions must improve in

Significant inequalities in tertiary education **exist** in the **region**

[22] http://www.up.ac.za/media/shared/1/ZP_Files/unfpa-esaro-laws-and-policy-review-on-asrhr-2017.zp119762.pdf
[23] Making education a priority in the Post -2015 Development Agenda.

South Africa has 23 of the public universities and 70% of overall university enrolments in the region

SADC. South Africa has 23 of the public universities and 70% of overall enrolments in the region. Five of the 15 countries - Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland - have a single public university. In other countries, numbers range from two in Malawi and Mauritius to nine in Zimbabwe. Zambia has three public universities, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Mozambique have four, Madagascar has six and Tanzania has eight. The 15th SADC country is Seychelles.

**Investing in higher education**



Women students graduating from the National University of Lesotho in 2015. *Photo: Sunday Express*

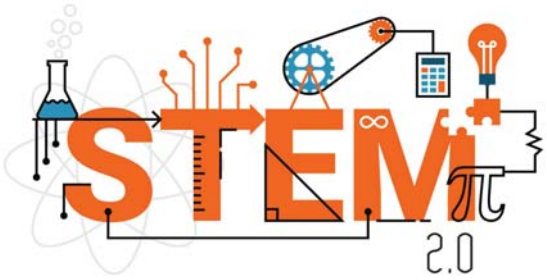
The article entitled *SADC must grow student numbers* published in the Mail and Guardian by Piyushi Kotecha, chief executive of the South African Regional Universities Association and Mohammod Irfan, member of the Frederick S. Pardee Center for International Futures at the Josef Korbel School of International Studies at the University of Denver outlines the importance of increased tertiary level enrolments.

They state that without long-term planning and aggressive policy interventions, the tertiary education participation rate in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region is unlikely to keep up with the demand from the region's 276-million strong-and still growing-population, let alone match the progress of regions such as East Asia and the Pacific, or average participation rates in the rest of the world.

Under prevailing conditions, the region will achieve a participation rate of 16.5% by 2050, far short of the global rate of 30%. Although this rate represents a marked increase in real terms from the 2010 level of 6.3%, it still falls way below the 2010 average of 22% tertiary enrolment for North Africa, 22% for East Asia and the Pacific (which shared comparable enrolment figures with SADC in 1970) and more than 70% for Western Europe. Most SADC countries face the daunting task of not only investing in tertiary education, but also of balancing a limited budget across all areas of social spending and meeting the demand for education at all levels. The research states that if the benefits outweigh the costs.

*Source: https://mg.co.za/article/2012-04-05-sadc-must-grow-student-numbers/, accessed July 2017*

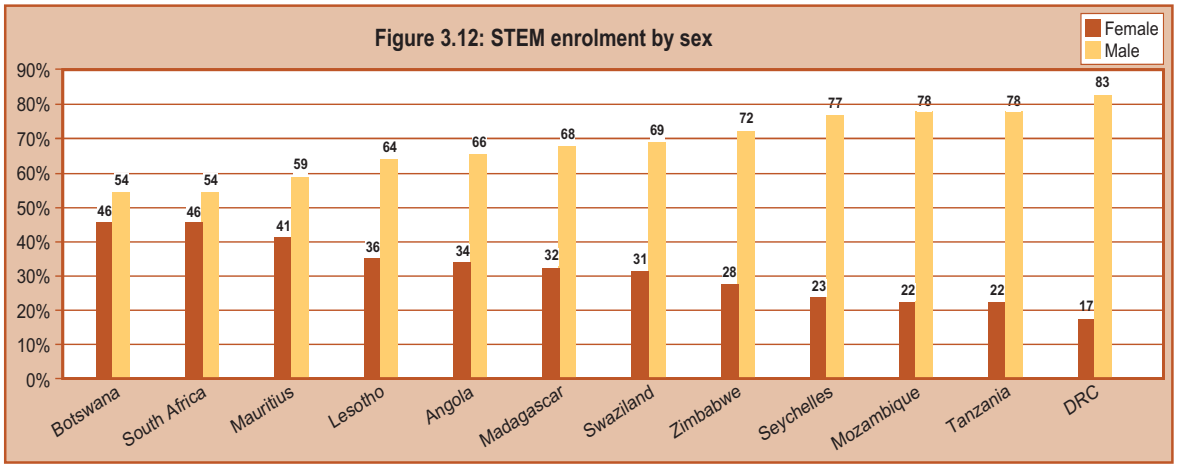
**Article 14. 2** State Parties shall take special measures to increase the number of girls taking up Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects and ICT at the secondary, tertiary and higher levels.




Learners must choose STEM for their and our future!
*Photo: LinkedIn*

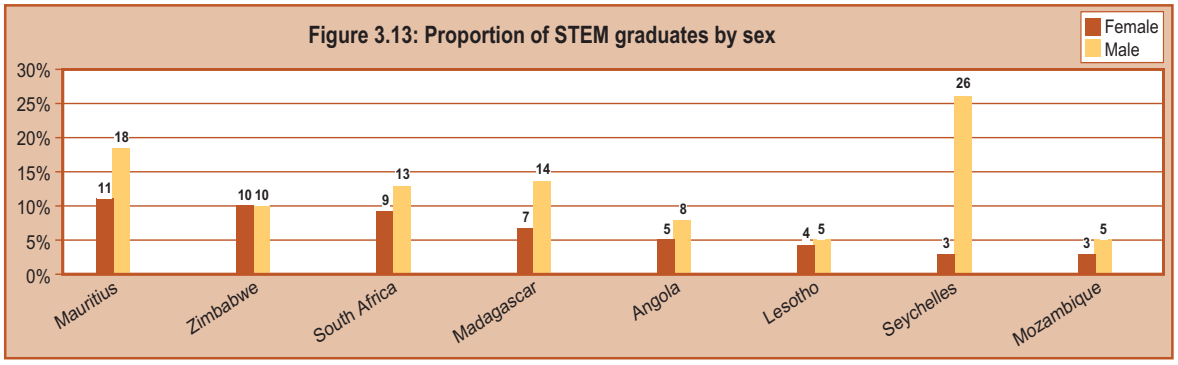
Part of SADC's vision is to develop a region where science and technology drive sustainable social and economic development, alleviate poverty and disease, and underpin the creation of employment opportunities and wealth.[24] The 61st Commission on the Status of Women (CSW61) highlighted the need to recognise the rapid developments in technology and opportunities created in the digital world. The Commission's Agreed Conclusions called for managing these changes for the benefit of women and girls by:

- Supporting women's access, throughout their life cycle, to skills development and decent work in new and emerging fields.
- Expanding the scope of education and training opportunities in STEM and ICT and digital fluency, and enhancing women's and, as appropriate, girls' participation as users, content creators, employees, entrepreneurs, innovators and leaders.
- Making investments to enable women to leverage science and technology for entrepreneurship and economic empowerment in the changing world of work is also called for.




*Source: World Bank Database Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

Figure 3.12 shows that there is a higher proportion of men enrolled in STEM in tertiary institutions in 12 SADC countries. Botswana, South Africa and Mauritius are closest to reaching gender parity in enrolment. The DRC, Tanzania, Mozambique, the Seychelles, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Madagascar, Angola and Lesotho have a substantially higher proportion of men in STEM programmes at tertiary level.




*Source: World Bank Database Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

[24] http://www.sadc.int/issues/science-technology/

There is a higher proportion of **men** enrolled in STEM in tertiary institutions in 12 SADC countries

The proportion of STEM graduates (both men and women), in 7 SADC countries is less than 20%

Figure 3.13 shows that the proportion of STEM graduates (both men and women), in seven SADC countries is less than 20%. In Seychelles, men STEM graduates account for 26% of the total compared to only 3% women. A local programme in Pongola, South Africa shows what can be done to improve the quality of science and mathematics education.

**South Africa: Enhancing Science and Mathematics**[25]



Between 2011 and 2014, MIET Africa, with funding from the South African Sugar Industry Trust Fund for Education, implemented the Science and Mathematics Enhancement Programme in the Pongola Education District in the KwaZulu-Natal province. Each year about 80 learners from half of the secondary schools in the circuit were selected to participate in a programme of extra tuition on Saturdays and school holidays. In 2015, 84% of the participants achieved passes entitling them to university entrance, with 90% of these achieving 50% and above in both Science and Mathematics. All these learners became eligible for tertiary courses in Science-and Maths-related fields.

In 2015, the teacher development component of the programme included a workshop on Probability, a new addition to the curriculum, which helped teachers prepare learners for the Grade 12 exams. In addition, the Pongola Professional Learning Community for Mathematics participated in collaborative workshops with Statistics South Africa. The participation of teachers in ongoing professional development meetings contributes to sustained support for learners beyond the life of the programme.

**Table 3.5: Using ICTs to improve education access and delivery**

| Project name | Target group | Purpose of intervention | Technology | Location of project(s) | Implementing organisations |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Access to Education | Out-of-school adolescent girls in rural areas | Pilot project to provide girls with access to secondary education through Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI). The project targets 500 out-of-school girls aged 12-16 in rural areas, who do not have access to schools in their communities. | Radios | DRC | War Child Canada, Ministry of Education, Radio Netherlands Training Center (RNTC), Uvira (local radio station), NGOs and community groups |
| African Virtual University | Adults pursuing tertiary education | The African Virtual University (AVU) is a pan-African Intergovernmental Organization established by charter with the mandate of significantly increasing access to quality higher education and training through the innovative use of information communication technologies. | Online Learning Technologies ICT Technologies | DRC | World Bank |
| Badiliko | School-aged children and their teachers | Badiliko builds digital hubs at schools and provides a cascade model of professional development for teachers and school leaders. | Online Learning Technologies SatelliteBroadcast Technologies or Internet Connectivity | Tanzania | British Council, Microsoft, and other stakeholders |
| Consortium on Connected Learning | Adults pursuing tertiary education | UNHCR support for existing formal higher education programs using Information Communications Technologies to provide refugees with accredited university education in remote locations. Project PDF | ICT Technologies (including computers, tablets, and mobile phones) | Malawi | IMS Global |
| Discovery Learning Alliance (DLA) | Children in primary school | Discovery Learning Alliance uses the power of media to transform education and improve lives in under-resourced schools and communities around the world. | Media Technologies | Angola, Namibia, South Africa | Discovery Communications |

[25] http://www.mietafrica.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/6584_Annual_Report_Web_FA.pdf

| Project name | Target group | Purpose of intervention | Technology | Location of project(s) | Implementing organisations |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FilmAid | Communities living in conflict or crisis areas | FilmAid uses film and other media to bring lifesaving information to communities affected by disaster, displacement, and economic disparity. Activities fall into three broad categories: Media Content, Community Outreach, and Skills Development. | Filmmaking Technologies | Tanzania | FilmAid, in partnership with UNHCR, U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (PRM), and World Food Program |
| iSchool | Children in primary school | iSchool is a comprehensive online multi-media eLearning package designed to cover the whole of the Zambian school curriculum (teacher plans and interactive learning for students). iSchool is produced in Zambia with entirely localized content delivered on the ZEduPad educational tablet, on mobile devices (including as an app), and on the web. | Tablet Technologies (solar powered) Online Learning Technologies | Africa, Zambia | iSchool Zambia Ltd |
| KA Lite | Adults and children | A free, lightweight solution providing high-quality education and the power of online learning to the offline world. | Computers Laptop and Tablet Technologies | DRC | Foundation for Learning Equality |
| One Mobile Projector Per Trainer (OMPT) | Trainers, Extension Workers, Teachers | The capacity-building programs give organizations the skills and equipment necessary to create simple videos shown on cordless projectors. | Video Projection Technologies | Mozambique | OMPT |
| TV White Spaces | Anyone in remote areas | TV white spaces are frequencies made available for unlicensed use at locations where the VHF and UHF spectrum is not being used by licensed services, such as television broadcasting. Several corporations have initiatives using this technology in combination with other ICT technologies to offer broadband data services in areas with limited access. | Media Technologies ICT Technologies | Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania | Various, including Carlson Wireless Technologies, Google, Microsoft, Spectrum Bridge |
| Way-C | Anyone | Low-cost tablet. VMK Tech also has a low-cost smartphone called Elikia as well as a feature phone, and is working on an even lower cost tablet designed especially for the educational, health, and agricultural sectors. | Tablet Technologies | DRC | VMK Tech |
| Worldreader | Children and their families | The mission of Worldreader is to unlock the potential of millions of people through the use of digital books in places where access to reading materials is very limited. Worldreader provides e-books and digital reading apps to transform the lives of people in the developing world. | eReader and Tablet Technologies | Malawi, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe | Worldreader, with partners including Stavros Niarchos Foundation, Opera Software, Pearson Foundation (defunct) |
| ZEduPad | School-age children, teachers, and adult learners | Child-friendly tablet computer pre-loaded with multimedia lessons based on the Zambian curriculum (in English and eight local languages) as well as other computing tools. WiFi enabled with filtered, child-safe browsing and 6+ hours of battery life. Comes in Home, Pupil, and Teacher editions. Pupil edition converts to Community edition after school hours to accommodate adult education. | Tablet Technologies | Zambia | iSchool Zambia Ltd |

*Source: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002457/245752e.pdf, accessed in July 2017.*

Table 3.5 illustrates how ICT may be used to enhance access to, and the delivery of, education in various Southern African countries. Initiatives cover the provision of appropriate technologies, different target group as well different content. The table is not exhaustive but provides a valuable start to mapping how ICTs are being used to improve education across the region.

**ICTs** can **enhance** access to, and the **delivery** of, education in SADC

Progressive gender attitudes need to be **fostered** from pre-primary level onwards

## Challenging stereotypes

**Article 14.3** States Parties shall adopt and implement gender sensitive educational, curriculum, policies and programmes addressing gender stereotypes in education and gender based violence, amongst others.

Gender equality is key to development in areas such as health, hygiene, population planning, nutrition, education and other areas of social development. Better educated mothers are known to have lower child mortality, lower number of births, better nourished and better educated children. There has been less emphasis on the issue of gender in areas related to production, such as agriculture, industrialisation, engineering, science, technology, banking and management. These are important areas for development, and involve not only technical areas, but also areas of governance, law, values and attitudes.[26]

The SADC Industrialisation Strategy and Roadmap 2015-2063, approved in 2015 identifies women and youth participation in industrialisation and structural transformation as a key component of the plan. It stipulates that:

- The long-term strategy should contain empowerment dimensions to widen the scope and quality of women and youth's participation in the industrialization process, notably by improved access to finance, skills development and Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) support programmes, and livelihood skills of women and youth, particularly in high value-adding industries in such areas as services, manufacturing, horticulture, transport, energy, agricultural and trade industries.
- Youth unemployment and underemployment is a major challenge for SADC Member States which could be addressed through the development of youth economic empowerment and mentoring programmes.
- The public and private sectors must increase their efforts to support youth innovation and entrepreneurship and create quality job opportunities for school-leavers and unemployed youth with a specific focus on ensuring that the education system is better tailored to meet the requirements of modern industry.[27]

[26] However, there is no data on how many women benefit or know about this provision.
[27] Source: Labour Code 1992, Public Service Regulations 1969, Labour Code Wages (Amendment) Order 2007and Interviews 2009.
[26] http://www.ungei.org/resources/files/Toolkit_complete.pdf

## Gender and education curriculum

The curriculum deals with the actual content of education: the methodologies and processes by which learning takes place. It deals not only with the facts and figures, but also with the culture and values of the society. Teaching and learning take place within a context of a conceptualisation of the society, its values, its direction and its role in the world as a whole. The curriculum can re-enforce the status quo or it can question the status quo. It involves the "hidden curriculum", which incorporates the often unspoken but nevertheless important messages which are transmitted within the higher education establishment.[28]

Children form attitudes which they carry into adulthood. Progressive gender attitudes need to be fostered from pre-primary level onwards. Moving forward there need to be specific, standardised indicators that may be used to assess the extent of gender awareness and challenging negative gender stereotypes in the curriculum, teaching and learning. Teaching and learning must include gender aware learning materials and assessments.

## Gender gaps in the teaching profession

**Table 3.6: Representation of women in the teaching profession**

| | Primary | Secondary | Tertiary |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 37% | 48% | 38% |
| Botswana | 74% | 53% | 0 |
| DRC | 28% | 12% | 8% |
| Lesotho | 76% | 56% | 50% |
| Madagascar | 56% | 44% | 32% |
| Malawi | 41% | 20% | 26% |
| Mauritius | 75% | 59% | N/A |
| Mozambique | 42% | 21% | 20% |
| Namibia | 68% | 50% | 39% |
| Seychelles | 88% | 62% | 39% |
| South Africa | 79% | 56% | N/A |
| Swaziland | 70% | 49% | 38% |
| Tanzania | 52% | 28% | 30% |
| Zambia | 53% | N/A | N/A |
| Zimbabwe | 56% | 46% | 32% |

*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

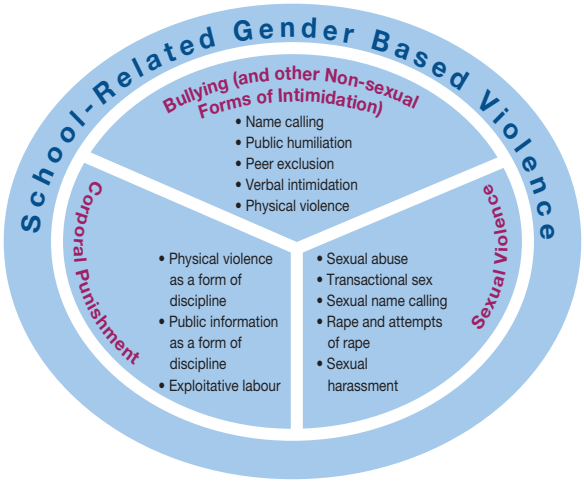
Table 3.6 provides information on the proportion of women teachers at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. In 11 countries, there is a higher proportion of women teachers at primary level. In Angola, the DRC, Malawi and Mozambique there are less than 50% women teachers. The overwhelming tendency for women teachers to predominate at the primary level is a gender stereotype that needs to be challenged.

At secondary level only six countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles and South Africa) have 50% or more women teachers. Eight countries have lower than 50% women teachers at secondary level. There is no data for women teachers in Zambia in secondary education.

Out of twelve countries for which data is available, only Lesotho has achieved gender parity for women teachers in tertiary education. All the other countries are well below the 50% mark. The DRC has only 8% women teachers at tertiary level.

## Gender violence in schools

The diagram shows the different kinds of School-Related GBV (SRGBV) associated with the loss of one primary grade of schooling, which translates to a yearly cost of around $17 billion to low and middle-income countries - a figure that is higher than the total yearly amount spent on overseas assistance grants for education interventions.[29]




[29] USAID, 2016, USAID Report: Effects of School Related Gender Based Violence in Botswana, Ghana and South Africa, http://www.prb.org/pdf16/IGWG_10.19.16_%20USAIDReport_Effects-School-Related-GBV-Botswana-Ghana-South-Africa.pdf, accessed July 2017.
[30] http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002321/232107E.pdf
[31] http://www.iol.co.za/news/crime-courts/watch-raped-boy-fears-returning-to-same-school-as-alleged-rapist-9425153
[32] http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/schoolbook-justifies-rape-20160728
[33] https://www.regjeringen.no/globalassets/departementene/ud/vedlegg/utvikling/safe_schools_declaration.pdf

According to the United Nations Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI) schools are the place where SRGBV occurs, but they are also the place where it can stop. Schools should be learning environments where social norms and gender inequalities are challenged and transformed, including attitudes and practices condoning violence. SRGBV cannot be addressed unless it is better understood. The inability to recognize and respond to SRGBV prevents the transformation of schools into empowering spaces for girls, boys and teachers.[30]



**South Africa** has particularly high levels of gender violence. In the Western Cape Province of South Africa, a mother says she has been let down by the Western Cape Department of Education following the rape of her eight-year-old son allegedly by another pupil from the same school. The pupil, whose name is withheld, has been at home for nearly six months because the alleged perpetrator attends the same school. He had also encountered secondary abuse by his peers as they were aware of the incident. The boy now fears returning to the school. His mother told the Cape Times on Monday that she had made contact with the department about a new placement for her child in January this year, but no action was taken and she has not been updated about the police investigation.[31]

A Grade 10 South African school Life Orientation textbook, called Focus, contains an exercise in which pupils must read a hypothetical "letter" written by a distressed teen who had been raped and respond. Angie then writes that she and her friends had a few drinks before she was locked in a room with a youngster she did not know. Angie's letter said she banged on the door for her friends to let her out but no one heeded her call for help and she was raped. The first exercise in the book pertaining to the letter reads: "List two ways in which Angie's behaviour led to sexual intercourse." This activity teaches young people to justify rape.[32]

Political will amongst SADC member states is key to addressing gender violence. Six SADC countries (Angola, Botswana, the DRC, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia) have signed up to 2015 Safe Schools Declaration. The Declaration *recognises the right to education and the role of education in promoting understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations; determined progressively to strengthen in practice the protection of civilians in armed conflict, and of children and youth in particular; committed to working together towards safe schools for all and we endorse the Guidelines for protecting schools and universities from military use during armed conflict.*[33]

**SRGBV** prevents the transformation of schools into empowering spaces for girls, boys and teachers

Only **6** countries endorsed **Safe** Schools

Protocol@Work

Nine SADC countries (Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) need to endorse the Safe Schools Declaration and the region must implement strategies to reduce and prevent violence in schools. The Ujamaa network, which started in some of Nairobi's toughest slums with UNICEF support, now extends to more than 250 schools across seven districts. Ujamaa's six-week programme - split into weekly, two-hourly sessions - covers self-awareness, self-respect and defence skills. Being told that the unwanted fondles and forced sex acts constitute abuse comes as a revelation to many children. At the end of the course, Ujamaa gives pupils details of referral services, which include an anonymous rape survivors' group.[34] The initiative has spread to Southern Africa.



**Malawi empowers children to fight sexual abuse**



Umjaa initiative teaching young people to defend themselves. *Photo: Hannah MacNeish, Al Jazeera*

Rape is Malawi's most reported crime. The Ujamaa initiative is helping schoolkids defend themselves against perpetrators.

In Chimoya, small fists fly towards throats, knees jerk from under pinafores to groin level and two-pronged fingers shoot for the eyes as high-pitched shrieks of "No!" echo through the playground at Makankhula Primary School.

"We use the knee to hit the groin of the assailant, to disable him, and then we run," explained Alinafe Kambalane, who teaches self-defence to girls in 46 schools across Malawi's Dedza district. "They have to shout 'No!' and they have to run away," Kambalane added.

In little over a year, and with only 50 instructors, the Kenyan charity Ujamaa has trained almost 25,000 Malawian children to fight the sexual abuse that is commonly committed by those they most trust. "Most girls are raped or sexually assaulted by people they know," according to Martin Ndirangu, who runs Ujamaa's Malawi project. "Boyfriends or partners, family members and teachers being among [the] highest perpetrators."

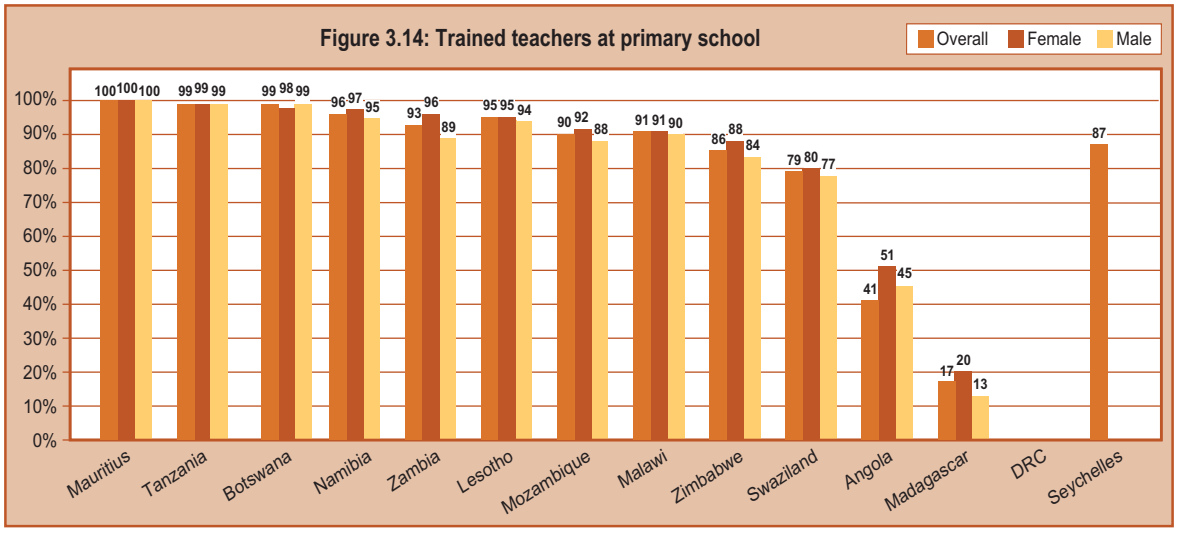
*Source: http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2016/04/fight-club-teaches-rape-prevention-malawi-schools-160412130334182.html accessed July 2017*

[34] http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2016/04/fight-club-teaches-rape-prevention-malawi-schools-160412130334182.html

## Quality of education

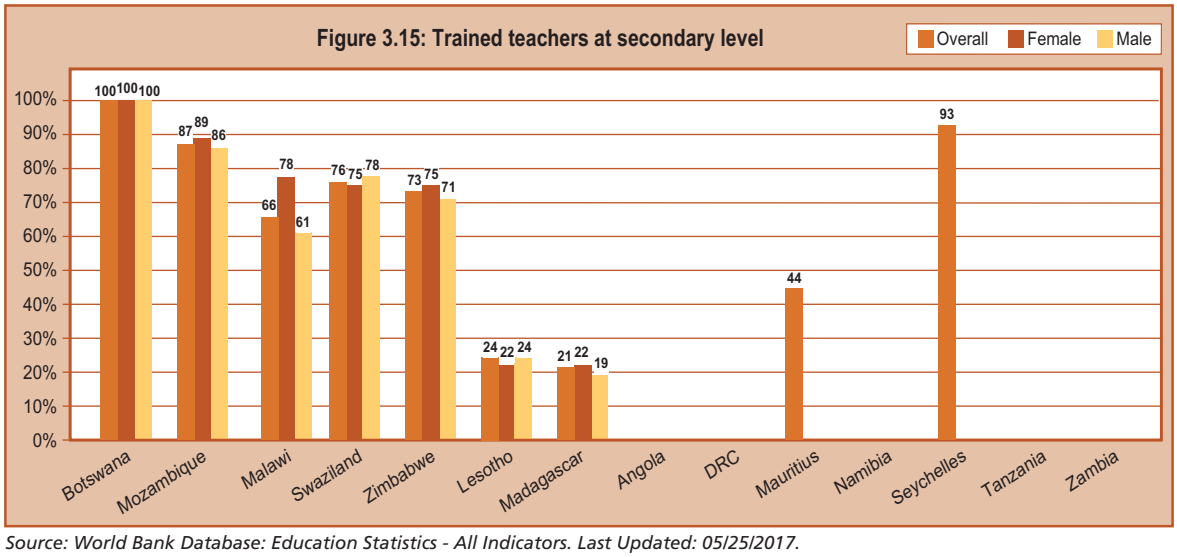
Quality of education is a major new thrust of the SDGs on education. The Incheon Declaration calls for quality education and improving learning outcomes, which requires strengthening inputs, processes and evaluation of outcomes and mechanisms to measure progress[35]. The signatories to the Declaration made a commitment to ensure that teachers and educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well-trained, professionally qualified, motivated and supported within well-resourced, efficient and effectively governed systems.[36]

## Teacher qualification




*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

The extent to which teachers are trained is an important indicator of the quality of education. Figure 3.14 shows that generally, there are high proportions of trained female and male teachers at primary level. This is not the case in Angola and Madagascar where only 17% of all teachers at primary level are qualified. There was no data for the DRC, the and data for Seychelles is not disaggregated by sex.




*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

[35] Incheon Declaration.
[36] Ibid.

Quality of education is a major new thrust of the SDGs on education

South Africa is the only country in SADC that has provided water for between **91-100%** of all schools

At secondary level, the picture is more bleak. Botswana, Mozambique, Malawi, Swaziland and Zimbabwe fare relatively well. The proportion of trained teachers is much lower at the secondary than at the primary level in Lesotho, Madagascar and Mauritius. Data for the proportion of trained teachers at secondary level is not available for Angola, the DRC, Namibia, Tanzania and Zambia.

**Table 3.7: Completion rates in primary and secondary schools in SADC**

| | Primary | | Secondary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Angola | 36 | 63 | 15 | 27 |
| Botswana | 100 | 98 | 87 | 86 |
| DRC | 60 | 73 | 34 | 62 |
| Lesotho | 85 | 67 | 50 | 36 |
| Madagascar | 71 | 67 | 37 | 37 |
| Malawi | 80 | 79 | N/A | N/A |
| Mauritius | 99 | 96 | 90 | 80 |
| Mozambique | 45 | 51 | 21 | 22 |
| Namibia | 89 | 84 | 63 | 56 |
| Seychelles | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Swaziland | 80 | 78 | 50 | 49 |
| Tanzania | 77 | 70 | 32 | 38 |
| Zambia | 80 | 82 | 51 | 59 |
| Zimbabwe | 91 | 90 | 67 | 64 |

*Source: World Bank Database: Education Statistics - All Indicators. Last Updated: 05/25/2017.*

Completion rates is another indicator of quality of education. Table 3.7 shows the completion rates for primary and secondary schools in SADC. Nine SADC countries have between 80-100% girls completing primary school education. In Angola and Mozambique less than 50% of girls' complete primary school. The figures for boys are lower in nine countries. While the figures for boys completing primary school are higher in for Angola and Mozambique they are still low.

The completion rates for boys and girls in Angola, the DRC, Lesotho, and Madagascar, Mozambique and Tanzania is 50% or lower at secondary level. Only Botswana, Mauritius and Seychelles have between 80-100% completion rates for boys and girls at secondary level.

There is some correlation between the level of the teachers' proficiency at secondary level and the completion rates. There is an urgent need to upscale teachers within secondary schools.

South Africa is the only country in SADC that has provided water for between 91-100% of all schools. Namibia, Zambia, Malawi and Mauritius have covered between 76-90% of all schools. Botswana, Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Mozambique, Tanzania and Seychelles provide water to between 50-75% of all schools. Angola, the DRC, Madagascar and Lesotho provide water to less than 50% of all schools. The lack of water in schools fundamentally affects the teaching and learning environment. The provision of water to all schools should be non-negotiable.[37]

## Disability and education

One of the targets of the SDGs on education is equal access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education. According to the Incheon Declaration, early childhood care and education (ECCE) enables early identification of disabilities and children at risk of disability.[38] The Chobe District Council set a special education unit at a school to cater for the needs of leaners with disabilities.



Children and teachers of Tshilidzini Special School in Thohoyandou, Limpopo province. *Photo courtesy of Arrive Alive website*

[37] Source: UNICEF, 2015 https://www.unicef.org/wash/schools/files/Advancing_WASH_in_Schools_Monitoring (1).pdf
[38] Incheon Declaration

**Botswana: Chobe District Council makes sure disabled children get a fair deal**



The Kachikau Special Education Unit and hostel is located within the Kachikau Primary School in Chobe. The project started in January 2009. The Unit has 21 children (12 boys and 9 girls). Learners come from ten primary schools in the district. The objective is to provide special education and accommodation for learners with disabilities from the district and across the country.

The Chobe district is far away from other neighbouring towns or villages that offer special education services. A large number of children with disabilities were in primary schools that did not cater for their needs while others stayed at home denying them their right to education.



Children at the Kachikau Special Education Unit being entertained by the Botswana Defence Force and US Airforce personnel.
*Photo: Botswana Defence Force*

The Unit is lobbying for changes to the Education Act that will compel parents to enrol children with disabilities in school. Further, the initiative seeks to change the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) to create opportunities for vocational training and jobs for leaners with disabilities after they complete their schooling.

The Unit is actively working to ensure that the provision to "Enact laws that promote equal access to retention and completion in early childhood education, and primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and non-formal education including adult literacy in accordance with the Protocol on Education and Training and the Sustainable Development Goals" becomes a reality.

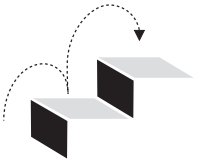
The Council constructed a block of classrooms with a hostel. A teacher with eight caregivers looks after the day to day needs of the learners. The Chobe District Council and business community provide all essentials including food, furniture and wheel chairs. The Unit provides much needed psychosocial and medical support that includes visits from physiotherapists. Physiotherapists teach the caregivers how to assist learners with ongoing exercises to improve their mobility. Initially, the committee set up to manage the Unit comprised council officials rather than People Living with the Disability (PLWD). This changed to ensure that PLWD make decisions for themselves.

To overcome some initial scepticism by parents, the Unit conducted awareness workshops with the parents that resulted in an increase in enrolments and visits from parents. Kenalemang Gala enrolled her child in the Unit in 2009. She began work as a cook at the Plateau Primary School in the vicinity and is now able to provide for her family. Timothy Kanwi, a caretaker at Kachikau Special Unit had difficulties working with learners with disabilities. He regarded the job as women's work. He struggled with taking the children for medical check-ups and changing diapers. Through gender training and awareness workshops he now has a positive attitude and strong commitment to his work.

The school has developed a special curriculum with the assistance of Swedish International Cooperation for Local Development (ICLD). The Special Education Unit has bench marked the project against similar schools in Sweden through ICLD. The ICLD trained staff and council officials to offer a quality service at the Unit. Using these skills, the Unit can assist others to set up schools for learners with disabilities. The Unit is working with the Botswana Cricket Association to ensure that the learners participate in mainstream sport.

*Source: SADC Protocol@Work summit 2016*

SADC countries have **moved** to harmonise the work of their qualifications authorities under the SADC Qualification Framework **(SADCQF)**



## Next steps

Member states and civil society partners need to:

- Strengthen adult literacy campaigns targeting women and men, and especially women, over 25.
- Significantly strengthen levels of enrolment at pre-primary level to give learners a solid education foundation to build on.
- Improve the quality of primary school education and review curriculum to make sure these are gender aware.
- Increase enrolment at secondary and tertiary levels for women and men to ensure the requisite skills for growing economies.
- Increase enrolment of women and girls in STEM subjects.
- Upscale teacher training and skills levels to enhance quality and performance.
- Ensure that schools have adequate water, sanitation and hygienic conditions.
- Declare zero tolerance for GBV in schools.
- Develop a clear set of indicators for assessing curriculum from a gender perscpective.
- Enact longer and standard lengths of compulsory schooling in SADC countries.

**SADC: Haromінising education qualifications**

SADC countries have moved to harmonise the work of their qualifications authorities under the SADC Qualification Framework (SADCQF) established in 2011 by the Ministers of Education in the SADC region. The sector revived SADCQF and positioned for implementation in September 2016.

The purpose of the SADCQF is to enable easier movement of learners and workers across the SADC region and internationally. Regional alignment will enable individuals to make comparisons of their learning and competence levels and reduce unnecessary duplication of learning and effort when moving through SADC for study or work purposes.

The Minister's Technical Committee on Certification and Accreditation (TCCA) has the task of implementing the SADCQF. The TCCA is a group of experts from the 15 SADC Member States supported by the SADC Secretariat. A reference framework consisting of 10 Regional Qualifications Framework (RQF) Levels based on learning outcomes will provide a regional benchmark for qualifications and quality assurance (QA) mechanisms in SADC. Member States are encouraged to align their qualifications and QA mechanisms with the SADCQF. Alignment will be enabled by mutual trust and recognition of achievement at a regional level.

Six countries offered to pilot the alignment. The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) offered to assist the SADC Secretariat with implementation for a period of six months. SADCQF has added a communication and advocacy dimension to its work.[39]

[39] http://www.saqa.org.za/docs/webcontent/2017/Article%20about%20the%20SADCQF.pdf

# CHAPTER 4

# Productive resources and employment, economic empowerment

## Articles 15-19



Emely Pedzisai; Masvingo resident and beneficiary of the micro-credit finance scheme in Masvingo, Zimbabwe. *Photo: Tapiwa Zvaraya*

### KEY POINTS

- The Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol makes a strong link with the global commitment to "leave no one behind."
- The new SADC Gender Protocol Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting (MER) Framework has 17 indicators to track progress on economic justice and women's empowerment, however data is not readily available for all indicators.
- Women in SADC remain under-represented in economic decision-making and are paid less than men. They also have limited access and control to economic resources.
- SADC has 20% women representation in economic decision-making.
- Only three countries have more than 30% women in decision-making: Angola, South Africa and Lesotho. Malawi has no women in economic decision-making and the DRC's has only 5% women in economic decision-making.
- In the few SADC countries with sex disaggregated data for land ownership, Botswana ranked highest, with women owning 25% of its land. DRC had the lowest (9%).
- Botswana has the closest to equitable earnings between women and men, with women earning 87% what men earn, followed by Tanzania (85%) and Mozambique (80%). Mauritius has the lowest proportion of female to male earnings (43%)
- Women have experienced a large decline in labour force participation in the past two years and women's unemployment rate remains higher than men's in most countries.
- Women dominate in the services sector of employment, especially in education, health and social work.
- Young women remain absent in discussions on youth development, with their voices considered peripheral and their bodies constructed as sites to be acted on through policy prescriptions developed by others for them.

**SADC has ONLY 20% women representation in economic decision making**

**Recognise**
**Reduce**
**Redistribute**
unpaid care work and domestic work

## What the Protocol requires

With five articles and twelve provisions, the "Productive Sources and Employment" section of the Protocol is among the most comprehensive of the SADC Gender Protocol. As before the Protocol provisions cover economic policies and decision-making; multiple roles of women; economic empowerment; access to property and resources; equal access to employment and benefits. In line with Agenda 2030, there are however important new areas of emphasis.

**Table 4.1: New provisions**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| **Article 16. 1**: States Parties shall:<br>(a) conduct time use studies and adopt policy measures to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women. | **Article 16. 1**: States Parties shall:<br>(a) conduct time use studies and adopt policy measures to promote shared responsibility between men and women within the household and family to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women.<br>(b) recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies. |
| | **Article 17. 1**: State parties shall undertake reforms to give women equal rights and opportunity to economic resources, and control and ownership over productive resources, land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance, and natural resources. |
| **Article 17.3**: States Parties shall ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement processes. | **Article 17.3**: States Parties shall, in accordance with the provisions of special measures in Article 5 (which calls for member states to implement special measures to enable women to participate equally with men in all spheres of life), develop strategies to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement processes. |
| **Article 19.1**: State Parties shall review, amend and enact laws and policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment all sectors in line with the SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour. | **Article 19.1**: State Parties shall review, amend and enact laws and develop policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment, to achieve full and productive employment, decent work, including social protection and equal pay for work of equal value for all women and men in all sectors in line with the SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour. |

The new provisions of the revised Protocol in Table 4.1 make strong links to the global Agenda 2030 pledge "to leave no one behind." They show a strong commitment by SADC leaders to transform the lives of the poorest and most vulne-rable women in the region.[1] Key new areas include:

- Shared responsibility between men and women within the household and family.
- Recognising and valuing unpaid care and domestic work.
- Equal rights and opportunity to economic resources, and control and ownership over productive resources, land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance, and natural resources.
- Cross referencing of economic decision-making with Article 5 (which calls for member states to implement special measures to enable women to participate equally with men in all spheres of life).
- Strengthening of employment provisions to include the achievement of full and productive employment, decent work, including social protection and equal pay for work of equal value for all women and men.



Chipo Shereni, a GBV survivor from Chitungwiza, Zimbabwe, is a beneficiary of the Sunrise Campaign whose entrepreneurship skills training enabled her to lift herself and her family out of poverty. *Photo: Loverage Nhamoyebonde*

[1] Leave no-one behind https://eudevdays.eu/topics/leave-no-one-behind

## Key trends

| Table 4.2: Trends in Economic Justice 2009, 2015 and 2017 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Parameter** | **Target 2030** | **Baseline 2009** | **Progress 2015** | **Progress 2017** | **Variance (Progress - target)** |
| **WOMEN IN ECONOMIC DECISION-MAKING** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50 | Botswana (44 %) | 44% (Tanzania) | 43% (Angola) | -7 |
| Lowest | | DRC, Mauritius (0 %) | 11% (Madagascar) | 0% (Malawi) | -50 |
| **LENGTH OF MATERNITY LEAVE (WEEKS)** | | | | | |
| Highest | 16 | 16 (Seychelles) | 16 (Seychelles) | 16 (Seychelles) | 0 |
| Lowest | 16 | 8 (Malawi) | 8 (Malawi) | 8 (Malawi) | 8 weeks |
| **EARNINGS** | | | | | |
| Highest | Women earn on average the same as men in all 15 SADC countries | 26% less than men (Malawi) | 7% less than men (Tanzania) | 13% less than men (Botswana) | 13% |
| Lowest | | 58% less than men (Mauritius) | 57% less than men (Mauritius) | 57% less than men (Mauritius) | 57% |
| **% WOMEN SOURCES ON ECONOMIC TOPICS** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50 | | | Lesotho (28 % ) | 22% |
| Lowest | | | | Botswana (5% ) | 45% |
| **% WHO AGREE OR STRONGLY AGREE THAT MEN SHOULD SHARE THE WORK AROUND THE HOUSE WITH WOMEN SUCH AS DOING DISHES, CLEANING** | | | | | |
| Highest | | | | Mauritius (85 %) | 15% |
| Lowest | | | | Seychelles (42 % ) | 58% |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | N/A | 75% | 55% | 35% |
| CSC | 100% | 56 | 65% | 64% | 36% |

*Source: Gender Links 2016, *Zimbabwe not classified in 2009.*

Table 4.2 shows that:

- Angola has the highest proportion of women in economic decision-making (43%) and Malawi the lowest, with no women in economic decision-making.
- Seychelles still has the highest maternity provisions (sixteen weeks) and Malawi the lowest (eight weeks).
- Botswana has the lowest pay differential between women and men (13 percentage points) while Mauritius has the highest (57 percentage points).
- Women sources in the economic topic category have been introduced for the first time as a measure of voice. Lesotho has the highest proportion of women sources on economic topics (28%) while Botswana has the lowest (5%).
- Attitudes towards sharing of responsibilities in the home have been introduced for the first time. Mauritius (85%) had the highest proportion of those who agree or strongly agree that men should share the work around the house with women such as doing dishes, cleaning, while Seychelles (42%) had the lowest.

### Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. The SGDI for this sector has been revised to drop labour force participation as this indicator says very little about women's actual situation within the labour force. Due to a lack of data across all 15 countries, the SGDI does not yet measure women's access to land, to finance or to productive resources, which are all critical indicators in this sector. The SGDI retains economic decision-making and length of maternity leave from before. In line within the region's 2030 agenda with its emphasis on voice, choice and control, the SDGI and women's voices on economic issues in the media; and gender attitudes on the share of household chores. As the measures have become tougher, the scores have gone down, from an average of 75% in 2015 to 55% in 2017). The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post-2015 era. The average score has also gone down, from 65% in 2015 to 64% in 2017.

**SGDI** has gone **down** to **55%** in **2017** from **75%** in **2015**

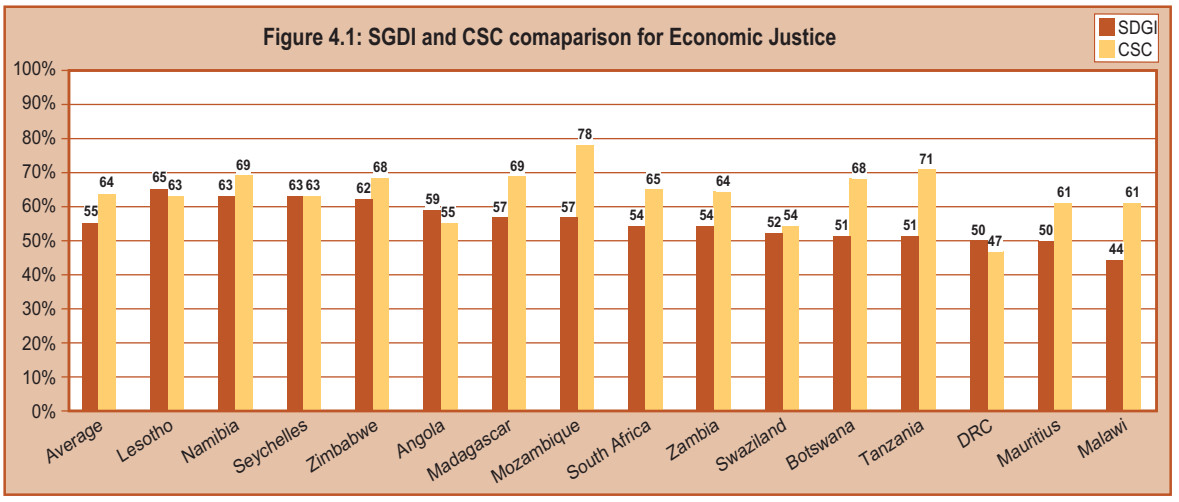
**CSC** has **dropped** from **65%** in **2015** to **64%** in **2017**

**SDGI**

**55%**

**CSC**

**64%**



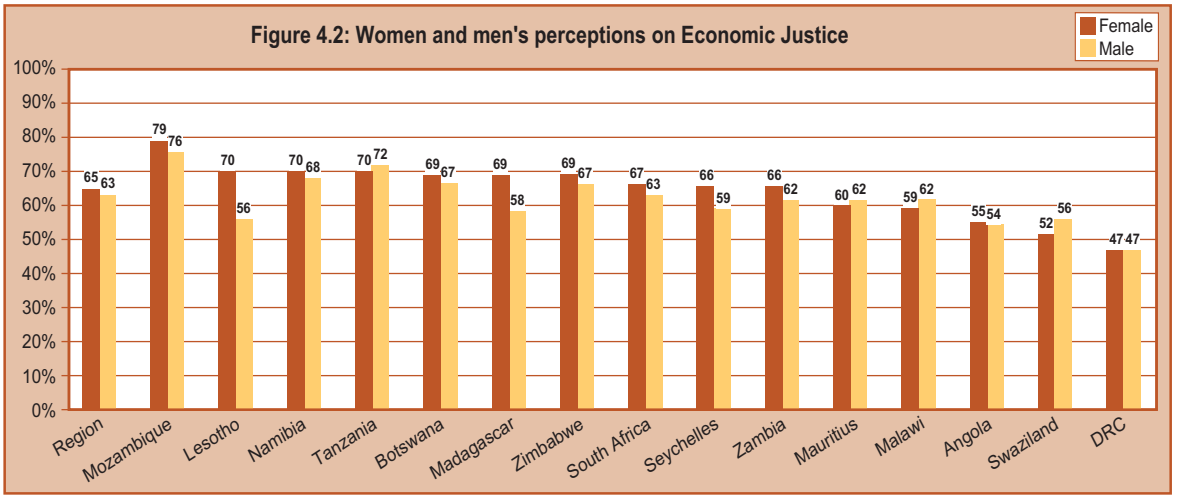

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 4.1 shows that the gap between the regional average SGDI (55%) and the CSC (64%) is nine percentage points. The SGDI scores are lower than the CSC in 12 countries. Mozambique (21 percentage points) and Tanzania (20 percentage points) have the greatest differences between the actual performance and the citizen perceptions. Only four countries (Lesotho, Seychelles, Angola and DRC) have SGDI scores higher than the CSC scores. This shows that citizens are generally more optimistic about the economic outlook than the actual figures suggest. This is consistent with economic growth in many countries and the adoption of policies that promise a better future for women and girls.

**65%**

scored higher than

**63%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 4.2 disaggregates women and men's perceptions of economic justice by sex. Women gave their governments a score of 65%; two percentage points higher than men at 63%. Mozambique had the highest score (79% for women and 76% for men). Women and men in DRC scored their governments below 50%. Lesotho registered the biggest difference between women and men's perceptions, with women scoring the government at 70% and men at 56% - a fourteen percentage point difference.

## Background

Despite some progress recorded over the past nine years in improving the economic status of women in the region, recent studies show that the gender gap is widening and contributing to the slow progress on human development being in the region.[3] The Gender Inequality Index assesses disparities between the sexes in health, education, political participation and economic empowerment. It shows that, in countries with less inequality, such as Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia and South Africa, women obtain 96% of men's human development.[4] The same is not true in more unequal countries, where gender gaps persist in access to economic assets, workplace participation, entrepreneurship opportunities, and benefits from natural resources and the environment. According to estimates by UNDP, a 1% increase in gender inequality reduces overall human development by 0.75% (UNDP, 2016).

### Leaving no one behind

The SDGs, along with the AU Agenda 2063, the SADC Industrialisation Strategy and the revised Gender Protocol all share a common agenda to leave no one behind[5] through tackling the current gender economic inequalities prevalent in all 15 countries in the region.

All four frameworks contain strong provisions on women's economic empowerment.

The SDGs address women's economic empowerment with a special focus on the youth and indigenous women.




**SDGs related to women's economic empowerment**

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms.
Goal 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture.
and equitable quality education and promote lifelong opportunities for all.
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
Goal 8: Promote sustainable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth full and productive employment and decent work for all.
Goal 9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation.
Goal 10: Reduce inequality within and among countries.

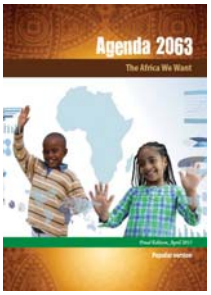
***Agenda 2063: The Africa we want***

A key lesson for Africa from the MDG era proved to be the need to invest in women's economic empowerment to address most of the continent's main challenges.[6] Gender inequality has been identified as the driving force behind rising poverty levels, food insecurity, and gender-based violence (GBV). Thus, economic justice becomes a prerequisite to achieving the new Sustainable Development Agenda.

**"Leaving no one behind" is at the heart of Agenda 2030**

[3] Africa Economic Outlook 2016, African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations Development Programme (2016).
[4] African Economic Outlook 2017 Entrepreneurship and Industrialisation: Entrepreneurship and Industrialisation, African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations Development Programme (2017).
[5] United Nations Sustainable Development Goals.
[6] Africa regional report on the sustainable development goals, Summary by the Economic Commission for Africa,2015.

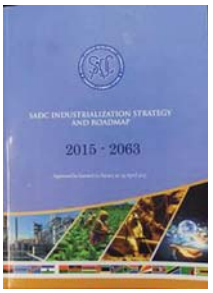
**Women and youth** are **critical to the** achievement of sustainable development in the **SADC**




Agenda 2063 is a strategic roadmap for the socio-economic transformation of Africa over 50 years. Its builds on, and seeks to hasten the enactment of, earlier and existing development frameworks for growth and development. Africa 2063 goals include the achievement of: a high standard of living, quality of life and well-being for all citizens; modern agriculture for increased productivity and production; well educated citizens and skills revolution underpinned by science, technology and innovation; transformed economies; engaged and empowered youth and children; and full gender equality in all spheres of life.

### *The SADC Industrialisation Strategy*

This strategy, launched in 2015, notes that women and youth empowerment is critical to the future of the region and the achievement of sustainable development in it. A long-term strategy, it runs parallel to the AU Agenda 2063 and includes empowerment dimensions to widen the scope and quality of women and youth participation in the industrialisation process, notably by improved access to finance; skills development and Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) support programmes; and livelihood skills of women and youth, particularly in high value-added industries.




This includes services, manufacturing, horticulture, transport, energy, agriculture and trade. SADC has developed the Women's Economic Empowerment Framework, which is consistent with the SADC Gender Programme as stipulated by the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP).[8]

**Table 4.3: Gender-related key areas of the Industrialisation Strategy**

| Policy area | Key results |
|---|---|
| Key drivers of industrialisation | Increased participation of skilled women in industry |
| Industrial Development Policy Framework (IDPF) | Gender mainstreaming of National Industrial Policies aligned with SADC's Gender Protocol |
| Agricultural processing | Increased business ownership by women in the agro-processing industry |
| Agricultural value chains | Wider participation by women in agricultural value chains |
| Minerals beneficiation and value addition | Increased employment levels, and engagement of both men and women in the mining sector |
| Pharmaceuticals production | Increasing the number of female-owned pharmaceutical companies in regional value chains |
| Transformation of manufacturing SMEs | Addressing gender disparities in terms of access to resources |
| Regional private sector partnership and collaboration strategy | Enhanced institutional responsiveness and sensitivity to women and youth |
| Regional strategy on inclusive business | Increased inclusivity in business participation |
| Protocol on industry developed and operationalised | Gender sensitive protocol on industry developed and implemented |
| Improvement of micro economic environment for firms and enterprises | Significantly improve an all-inclusive competitiveness drive in national, regional and firm/enterprise levels |
| Enhancing capacity of the private sector in strategy development, innovation, management and technology use | Greater capacity of women and youth to effectively engage in the private sector development |
| Skills and factor mobility | Capacity building programmes for SMEs developed and implemented to address constraints to women's engagement in the sector |
| Mainstreaming gender and youth into structural transformation | Enhanced participation of women in the economy |

[7] SADC Industrialisation strategy and roadmap 2015-2063,http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---africa/---ro-addis_ababa/---ilo-pretoria/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_391013.pdf
[8] www.sadc.int

The Post-2015 SADC Protocol has strong provisions on economic justice and women's empowerment. It provides that state parties shall:

- Ensure equal participation by women and men in policy formulation and implementation of economic policies;
- Ensure gender-responsive budgeting at the micro and macro levels, including tracking, monitoring and evaluation;
- Conduct time use studies and adopt policy measure to promote shared responsibility between men and women within the household and family to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women;
- Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies;
- Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources as well as the opportunity to control ownership over productive resources, land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance, and natural resources;
- Adopt policies and enact laws which ensure equal access, benefits and opportunities for women and men in trade and entrepreneurship, taking into account the contribution of women in the formal and informal sectors;
- Review national trade and entrepreneurship policies to make them gender-responsive;

in accordance with Article 5 to develop special measures to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement processes;

- Review all policies and laws that determine access to, control of, and benefit from, productive resources by women; and
- Review, amend and enact laws and policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment, to achieve full and productive employment, decent work, including social protection and equal pay for work equal value for all women and men in all sectors.

The Protocol also provides for equal pay for equal work; eradication of occupational segregation; and maternity and paternity benefits.

**Table 4.4: Economic growth and gender indicators**

| Country | GDP (US$ billion) | Average earning women (US$ annual) | 2016 GDP growth (estimated %) | Growth 2017 (predicted %) | Female population (%) | Women in economic decision-making (%) | Female labour force participation (%) | Female unemployment (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 89.63 | 5 188 | 1.1 | 2.3 | 50.45 | 29 | 61 | 8 |
| Botswana | 15.27 | 15 130 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 49.46 | 29 | 76 | 17 |
| DRC | 34.99 | - | 2.5 | 4.0 | 51.5 | 21 | 72 | 44 |
| Lesotho | 2.19 | 2 005 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 50.66 | 29 | 60 | 34 |
| Madagascar | 9.99 | 1 194 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 50.14 | 11 | 86 | 1 |
| Malawi | 5.44 | 712 | 2.7 | 4.0 | 49.91 | 20 | 81 | 6 |
| Mauritius | 12.16 | 11 250 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 50.65 | 33 | 51 | 9 |
| Mozambique | 11.01 | 1 042 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 51.23 | 25 | 84 | 18 |
| Namibia | 10.98 | 8 638 | 1.3 | 2.5 | 50.37 | 25 | 57 | 26 |
| Seychelles | 1.42 | - | 4.8 | 3.5 | 48.88 | 33 | 68 | 5 |
| South Africa | 294.84 | 9 972 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 50.42 | 23 | 50 | 22 |
| Swaziland | 3.72 | 5 369 | -0.6 | 1.4 | 50.74 | 20 | 42 | 31 |
| Tanzania | 47.43 | 2 337 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 50.02 | 44 | 75 | 2 |
| Zambia | 19.55 | - | 3.0 | 4.2 | 49.86 | 23 | 73 | 7 |
| Zimbabwe | 16.28 | 1 460 | 0.5 | 1.3 | 50.61 | 23 | 78 | 4 |

*Source: The Global Gender Gap Report, 2016; African Economic Outlook 2016, World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files.*

Table 4.4 shows the disparities in economic growth in Southern African countries in 2016/2017, ranging from - 0.6% in Swaziland, to 7.2% in Tanzania. Further, is illustrates that female unemployment rates remain high in many countries in the SADC region, with DRC recording the highest level at 44%. Madagascar has the lowest female unemployment rate at 1%. Madagascar also has the highest female labour force participation at 86%, while Swaziland has the lowest at 42%. Meanwhile, the region's economic powerhouse, South Africa, has the lowest estimated GDP growth for 2017, at just 1.1.[9]

[9] Africa economic outlook 2016/2017, African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations Development Programme (2017).

While the economic outlook of **SADC** looks positive, **the economic gender gap is widening**

**13** SADC countries have **not** attained the **minimum** human development indicator

Despite an overall positive economic growth outlook for 2017 in the region, the average income data for women points to growing inequality. Women's average income ranges from a high of $15 130 in Botswana to just $712 per annum in Malawi

**Table 4.5: Human development in Southern Africa**

| | 2009 | 2015 | 2017 |
|---|---|---|---|
| **High human development (above 0.7)** | **2** (Mauritius and Seychelles) | **2** (Mauritius and Seychelles) | **2** (Mauritius and Seychelles) |
| **Medium human development (between 0.55 and 0.7)** | **8** (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Tanzania) | **4** (Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia) | **4** (Botswana, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia) |
| **Low human development (below 0.55)** | **4** (DRC, Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia) | **9** (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) | **9** (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) |

*Source: UNDP (2016), Gender Gap Report (2016).*

Table 4.5 shows that only two countries, Mauritius and Seychelles, have achieved a high level of human development. Of concern is the stagnation in the middle and low categories. The 2016 Africa regional[10] report on the SDGs identified six key drivers of human development:

- Gender parity: women and youth empowerment;
- Access to social protection for vulnerable groups;
- Health for all, with special focus on women and child health;
- Empowerment of the elderly and disabled;
- Disaster risk reduction and management capacity and climate-adaptation initiatives; and
- Adequate shelter and access to water, sanitation and hygiene.

The data in Table 4.5 indicates that 13 SADC countries have not attained some or all of these important human development indicators.

## Women and men in economic decision-making

**Article 15.1.** States Parties shall, ensure equal participation, of women and men, in policy formulation and implementation of economic policies.

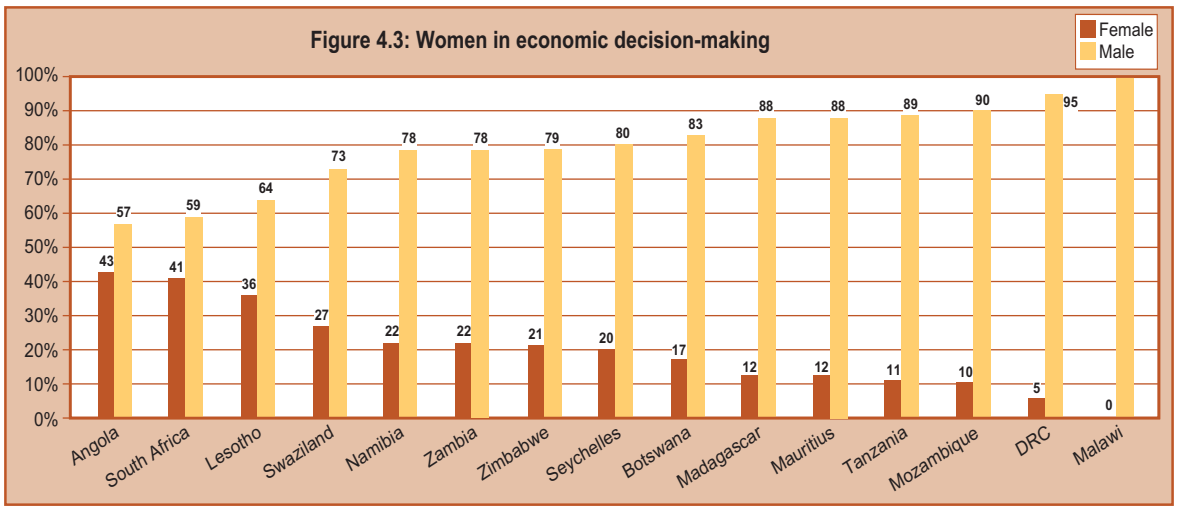
**15.2.** States Parties shall ensure gender sensitive and responsive budgeting at the micro and macro levels, including tracking, monitoring and evaluation.



Charity Dhliwayo, Deputy Reserve Bank Governor for Zimbabwe.
*Photo: Creative commons*

Since 2016, the Barometer has tracked the proportion of women in economic decision-making, defined as minister, deputy minister and permanent secretaries of the ministries of finance, economic planning, trade and industry, and governors and deputy governors of the reserve banks. Results for this indicator across all 15 SADC countries have consistently shown that men continue to dominate decision-making positions in the economic sector. As highlighted earlier, the inclusion of Article 5 in the revised Protocol, which calls for the adoption of special measures to enable equal participation in all spheres, paves the way for a paradigm shift on appointments to key cabinet positions. This year's Barometer data on economic decision-making includes women and men in ministries such as energy, fisheries, mining and international relations and cooperation.

[10] The 2016 Africa regional report on the sustainable development goals, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2015 Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.




*Source: Gender Links, 2016.*

The country comparison in Figure 4.3 shows that:

- Angola (43%) and South Africa (41%) surpassed their 2015 position to come in at first and second place, respectively. In addition to having women ministers in both economic planning and trade, women are at the helm in Angola in the important sectors of fisheries and state secretary of industry and urban housing. Meanwhile, South Africa recorded an 18 percentage point increase, up from 23% in 2015. South Africa has women leading in the ministries of small business development, energy, transport, environmental affairs, international relations and cooperation, labour and public enterprises.
- Madagascar has consistently had one of the lowest proportions of women in economic decision-making since the baseline year (13%). Over the last year, it saw a one percentage point decrease to 12%.
- As with the 2014/15 reporting, only three countries have more than 30% of women in decision-making: Angola, South Africa and Lesotho. Malawi and the DRC's showings are dismally low at 0% and 5%, respectively.

## Multiple roles of women

**Article 16.1** State Parties shall:
a) Conduct time use studies and adopt policy measures to promote shared responsibility between men and women within the household and family to ease the burden of the multiple roles played by women.
b) Recognise and value unpaid cate and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies.

The UN Commission of the Status of Women (CSW) held its annual gathering in 2017 (CSW 61) under the theme, "Women's economic empowerment in the changing world of work." The theme brought attention to the existing gaps in the share of household work and unpaid work between women and men. The Commission paid careful attention to balancing and sharing work and family responsibilities, and the need to eliminate structural barriers for women to be able to participate fully in society and equally in the world of work.[11]




[11] CSW 61 Agreed conclusions analysis, UN Women, 2017.

**Only 3 countries have more than 30% women in decision making**

**CSW 61** recognised the **uneven** distribution of **care** responsibilities as a significant **constraint** on gender equality

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Key recommendations from the annual conference included:

- Strengthen laws and regulatory frameworks that promote the reconciliation and sharing of work and family responsibilities for women and men.
- Encourage the design, implementation and promotion of family responsive legislation, policies and services.

These measures should result in the reduction and redistribution of women and girls' disproportionate share of domestic and unpaid work.

Another major win for gender activists at CSW 61 was the adoption of an agreement by member states on the need to transform unpaid care work. The Agreed Conclusions provide guidance on how to concretely achieve SDG 5.4 (recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate). Going beyond that, they recognise, value, reduce and redistribute women's and girls' disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work, and provisioning of related infrastructure and care services.[12] The Commission highlighted unpaid care work in terms of caring for children, the elderly, persons with disabilities, and persons living with HIV and AIDS.

CSW 61 also recognised the uneven distribution of care responsibilities as a significant constraint on women's and girls' completion or progress in education; on women's entry and re-entry and advancement in the paid labour market; and on their economic opportunities and entrepreneurial activities (UN Women, 2017).



In Swaziland, care workers like Fikile Moura provide support to people living with HIV. *Photo: Columbia University*

In SADC, only a handful of countries have conducted time use studies, sometimes called "time budget surveys," which aim to provide information on the activities people perform over a given time period. While the scope and purpose of such surveys differ enormously, the most common aim of these surveys in developing countries is to provide better information on work performed by different categories of people (male and female, in particular). The results of time-use studies provide entry points for quantifying and assigning a monetary value to work conducted by women. Countries that have conducted time use studies include Malawi, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa and Tanzania.

**Swaziland - Putting care work at the centre of community development**



"The nature of my* work involves conducting home visits to promote social and health well-being of the community. I volunteer in home-based care, Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) of HIV, child protection and early childhood care and development programmes.

I was appointed by the municipality to be a field officer who has the responsibility of supervising care workers and doing supervisory visits in the communities. I have also volunteered and saved a social centre for orphaned and vulnerable children, where I was able to mobilise individuals and companies to donate and support the children.

I am a mentor of eight groups of women in a project that encourages women to save money and equip women with livelihood skills to enable them to generate income. My favourite part of my job is conducting meetings with the women and guide the committees."

** Fikile Moura as told to Gender Links*

[12] Ibid.

## Support for women in business

**Article 17.1** State parties shall undertake reforms to give women equal rights and opportunity to economic resources , and control and ownership over productive resources , land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance , and natural resources.

**2.** State Parties shall, review their national trade and entrepreneurship policies to make them gender sensitive.

3. State Parties shall, in accordance with the provisions of special measures in Article 5, develop strategies to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement processes.

Support for women in business in SADC occurs through financing vehicles and affirmative action legislation. The region has seen the establishment of several women's banks that aim to support emerging women entrepreneurs.



In the **DRC**, phone companies are seeking women for sales jobs. These agents are changing the market. Becoming a mobile money subscription salesperson is an opportunity for women in one of the world's poorest countries to earn money that they can control, often for the first time. For many women, it is an opportunity to own a small business with the backing of a large mobile phone company firm. Multinational presence is low in DRC, presenting an opportunity to catalyse private sector change at the highest levels for the benefit of poor women. The government has also made changes in how citizens register a formal business. According to the 2015 Doing Business report, government has been eliminating unnecessary bureaucratic procedures.



The **Mauritius** National Women Entrepreneur Council (NWEC) is a parastatal body that operates under the aegis of the Ministry of Gender Equality, Child Development and Family Welfare. Legislators created it in 1999. It is the main organisation that provides support and assistance to both potential and existing women entrepreneurs in Mauritius. NWEC has registered more than 5310 women entrepreneurs. NWEC offers many services, including information dissemination and sensitisation programmes, counselling, international linkages, personal development (trade fairs, workshops), training and marketing.



**Namibian** women receive support for business ventures from various quarters, which has a positive impact on economic growth. The Namibia Chamber of Commerce and Industry (NCCI) Women's Desk has prioritised empowerment of women entrepreneurs to foster equality and women's independence. Namibian stakeholders recognise that they also enhance national economic development through strengthening the deve-lopment of women. Other priorities of the Women's Desk include women's access to finance, business support and entrepreneurial education. The NCCI's Women's Desk project is a collaboration between the chamber and the Tampere Women's Association in Finland, funded by the Finnish foreign ministry.



**South Africa**'s Women Development Businesses (WDB) celebrated its 25th anniversary in July 2016 with a dialogue titled "Making Poverty History." WDB Investment Holdings, which stakeholders launched in 1997 with seed capital of R2 million (US$155 000), and with the sole purpose of funding the WDB Trust's programmes, today has a net asset value of R3.8 billion (US$2.9 million) and has invested more than R200 million (US$15.4 million) in the Trust. Since 1991, WDB has been working to eradicate poverty in rural communities. The brainchild of former first lady Zanele Mbeki, it provides micro finance to impoverished rural women and runs social support programmes through the WDB Trust. The Trust's Siyakhula Microfinance Institution, based on the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh's approach to micro-credit, enables impoverished female entrepreneurs to start and grow their businesses through access to start-up loans. With this help, women can uplift their families and communities.[13]



The **Zambia** government launched the first ever Women's Bank of Zambia in December 2015. Finance Minister Alexander Chikwanda says the establishment of the bank will provide an

Women development banks are **most effective** for supporting women in business

[13] Women's Development Businesses 25th Anniversary.

Inequalities in access to finance **prevent women from "big business"** start-ups

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institutional mechanism for women's development and economic emancipation. The government will inject more than 55 million kwacha (US$6.2 million) into the Bank of Zambia. The financial institution will offer tailormade loan facilities, especially for rural women.



The **Zimbabwe** government has set aside US$5 million to establish a women's bank. The bank complements the existing Women's Development Fund. It will focus on financing women's business to make up for the disadvantages they have historically faced in accessing credit. The bank is now collecting data on women's business associations and collective enterprises in partnership with the International Trade Centre. The Minister of Women's Affairs, Gender Affairs and Community Development, Nyasha Chikwinya, announced in July 2016 that the bank will open following the establishment of a database of women's small and medium enterprises. Women-managed businesses make a key contribution to the country's economy in Zimbabwe.

Despite these advancements, many barriers for women in business in SADC continue to hinder them from economic success. These include:

- A low level of education and business literacy among women; often relegating them to the informal economy.
- Inequalities in access to finance compared to their male counterparts that prevent women from "big business" start-ups. Most women use their own sources of income, often meagre, to raise capital for their business. This results in women owning the informal sector businesses compared to the formal sector business.
- Turn-around time to register formal businesses.
- Lack of affirmative action by firms to deliberately employ women.
- Women's needs for social protection such as maternity benefits, child care and the prevention of abuse.
- Lack of gender capacity-building in the private sector.
- Non-enforcement of legislation and policies to include women in the private sector.

**Lesotho - Support for women small businesses**



"There is an argument that leaders are born or made. Fortunately for me*, I realised that I was born to lead. In 2006, I formed an Association of Women in Small Business and currently have 40 members, of which 30 are women and 10 are men. Since 2006, when I became gender aware, I realised that women are highly oppressed by society in terms of their roles and responsibilities, and they are regarded as minors.



Sepatso Masienyane addresses community members in Lesotho.
*Photo: Gender Links*

This motivated me to form a platform for women to raise their voices and be heard. It was through this association that many issues affecting women came out. In this process, it was a wise decision to include men in this transformational change. Together we fought for gender equality in our community

The main objective of the association was to empower women in our community. Women in the association are single parenting, widowed, HIV-positive, illiterate and married. I embraced all of them as one, as we all have common goals. In 2010, I looked for affiliates and we joined the Lesotho Council of NGOs.

We were further invited by the International Labour Organisation on its project of Women Entrepreneurship and Gender Equality (WEDGE). This is where I was certified as the accredited trainer as Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) and capacity building. I was also accredited as a trainer in advocacy skills for small business and Women Entrepreneur Association (WEA). This is where I mostly got involved in promoting gender work. Since that time, I started sharing gender information at every gathering, for example at graduation ceremonies, at church and everywhere. As we believe investing in women's economic empowerment set a direct path towards gender equality, we decided to make monthly contributions which enabled us to start small enterprises.

We are operating small businesses so as to empower men and women, highly involved in developmental activities, protecting human rights, good governance and engaged in national policies and activities that promote gender equality."

**Sebatso Masienyane as told to Gender Links*

## Property and resources

**Article 18.1** States Parties shall, review all policies and laws that determine access to, control of, and benefit from, productive resources by women in order to:
**(a)** end all discrimination against women and girls with regard to water rights and property such as land and tenure thereof;
**(b)** ensure that women have equal access and rights to credit, capital, mortgages, security and training as men; and
**(c)** ensure that women and men have access to modern, appropriate and affordable technology and support services.

***Stringent credit facilities and customary practices hinder women's ownership of property:*** Women in SADC often lack ownership of property and resources. Immovable property such as housing usually requires a heavy investment, something most women do not have. Customary laws and practices, especially laws around inheritance, hinder widows and divorced women from owning property. In some countries, husband's must consent to women's property ownership. The Protocol provides for protection of widows and equal access to resources.

***Traditional systems largely govern communal land.*** Rural women often end up at the mercy of their deceased spouses' families when it comes to communal land ownership. Customary practices may strip a widow of the family land upon the death of her husband, under the auspices of preserving a family name. Customary laws skew ownership of assets such as cattle towards men due to inheritance practices. Where there are no sons to inherit the cattle, the male members of a husband's family may inherit the cattle. The harmful practice of widow inheritance disempowers women's economic decision making at the household level. National laws need to take into consideration the elimination of harmful customary practices to foster women's economic empowerment.



The 1992 Land Act in **Angola** provides women and men equal land rights. However, Angola does not have a stand-alone, comprehensive land policy, and its 2004 Land Law (updating the 1992 law) does not include any statements on women's equal access to land.[14] Although women do have equal rights to property under the Civil Code and Family Code, it is unclear whether these rights extend to non-land assets, and how legislators implement such rights in practice. Regarding access to financial services, no laws exist to prevent women from opening bank accounts, from signing business contracts or from accessing property other than land.



The law in **Madagascar** upholds women's rights to ownership and Madagascar has no legal restrictions on women's access to land. Ordinance No. 60-146 of 1960 relating to land ownership gives men and women equal rights to become landowners. However, in practice, land acquisition is strongly dependent on customs which can, in some cases, infringe upon women's rights, particularly in the south of the country. Such rights denial occurs in the cases of inheritance and sharing among spouses, and is frequent given that most couples marry under the customary practices rather than common law. Article 34 of the Constitution and Law no. 2007-002 guarantee women's access to non-land assets.



Women in **South Africa** have entitlement to the same legal ownership rights as men, and the law guarantees them equality in the purchase, sale and management of the property. According to the Recognition of Customary Marriages Act of 1998, men and women have equal legal status regarding ownership of property (including land), with joint common ownership assumed in monogamous customary marriages unless a contract has been drawn up specifying an alternative arrangement. Laws like the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act (2003) and Traditional Courts Bill (which lawmakers have proposed but not passed) marginalise women's voices, shifting the balance of power towards male household heads and traditional leaders.

[14] OECD Gender Index, 2014.

**in SADC often lack ownership of property and resources**

The **majority** of women do **not** have access and control over natural resources



Access to Title Deed Land is also a challenge for women in **Swaziland**. While there is no specifically articulated discrimination against women, and the sole requirement is money to purchase the land, most Swazi women do not have sufficient funds - and securing bank credit is difficult. In 2012, the government issued a legal instrument amending the Deeds Registry Act, allowing women married in community of property to register and administer property (including land) in their own names.



Legislation allows women in **Zimbabwe** to have access to bank loans. The Immovable Property Prevention and Discrimination Act prohibits financial institutions from perpetuating discrimination on the grounds of sex, among other grounds, by refusing to grant loans or other financial assistance for the acquisition, hire, construction, maintenance or repair of any immovable property, to people of a particular sex.

### *Land ownership*

In SADC, as in the rest of Africa, control of natural resources and access to them is a driver of inequality (Murombedzi, 2016). Most SADC economies remain predominantly agrarian.[15] A significant portion of the populations who reside in rural areas survive on subsistence agriculture. These economies are based on the super-exploitation of peasant labour to subsidise labour reproduction for the formal sector. In turn, the exploitation of peasant labour becomes increasingly feminised as the formal sector absorbs male labour to the exclusion of female labour. The extreme inequality between men and women, urban and rural, and black and white in the colonial and post-colonial African economies reflects this exploitation.[16]



In SADC, women still have limited access to land ownership and control. *Photo: Informative newspaper*

Subsistence farmers make up more than 61% of farmers in communal areas and at least 70% of agricultural produce in SADC. They are the main providers of labour for farming and the primary managers of homes in communal areas since many men are migrant workers in the cities or in other areas away from their homes.[17]

While sex disaggregated data for land ownership in the region is scanty, the available data shows that men own most of the region's land.

**Table 4.6: Women land ownership in some SADC countries**

| Country | % female land ownership |
|---|---|
| Botswana | 35 |
| Malawi | 32 |
| Lesotho | 31 |
| Mozambique | 23 |
| Tanzania | 20 |
| Zambia | 19 |
| Madagascar | 15 |
| DRC | 9 |

*Source: Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2015.*

Table 4.6 shows that, in the few SADC countries with sex disaggregated data for land ownership, Botswana ranked highest, with women owning 25% of its land. DRC (9%) had the lowest proportion of women land ownership.



In the **DRC**, women (especially married women) have limited access to land. By law, the right to land concessions can be given to men and women, but attitudes and customs that discriminate against women remain strong. Despite the nationalisation of all land and the introduction of formal legislation governing land use rights, a significant percentage of the land in the DRC (some estimate as much as 97%) remains subject to customary law.[18] This presents a major challenge to women's ability to enjoy their land rights.



**Tanzania**'s 1995 National Land Policy gives women the right to acquire and own land. However, this right is contradicted in the Policy itself, which states that family land will continue to be governed by "custom and tradition" with regard to inheritance. Customary laws that restrict a woman's property rights remain widespread. Lawmakers have passed other legislation to address women's land rights, including the 1999 Land Act,

[15] ISSC, IDS and UNESCO (2016), World Social Science Report 2016, Challenging Inequalities: Pathways to a Just World, UNESCO Publishing, Paris.
[16] Ibid.
[17] FAO.
[18] OECD Gender Index, 2014.

which gives Tanzanian women the right to own, use and sell land, and mandates joint titling of land. Again, however, as with the laws above, this law is contradicted by preferences given to customary law, in this case, Rule 20 of the Customary Law Declaration Order No. 4, which states that "women in patrilineal communities do not inherit absolute rights over immovable property but only use rights and therefore . . . cannot sell properties."



Section 211 of the **Swaziland** Constitution provides for equal access to land for men and women. However, no law enshrines this. There are two types of land, Swazi Nation Land (SNL) and Title Deed Land. Although male citizens can access SNL free of charge through the traditional kukhonta system from the chief of an area, women must do so through a male relative.



In **Zimbabwe**, the government reports that in communal areas, where most women reside, women have secondary use rights through their husbands. In small-scale commercial areas, very few women own land. Sons tend to take over farms when the male head of the household dies. This is even though government had set aside a 20% quota for women under the Fast Track Land Reform Programme. The new 2013 Constitution provides (under Section 4.28) that all customs, traditions, and cultural practices that infringe on the rights of women are" void to the extent of infringement." These provisions are beginning to bear results.

### *Mining*

Despite rich mineral resource endowments in SADC, countries with them still have a high prevalence of poverty and inequality, even in Botswana, Namibia and South Africa, which the United Nations classifies as being in the Medium Human Development (MHD) category.[19]

Most women in the region remain excluded or marginalised from participating in, or benefiting from, the vast mineral wealth of the region. They have limited access to mineral wealth in terms of ownership or equity participation and they are marginalised in terms of governance and management of the industry, as reflected in the tiny minority of women who are on the boards of directors of mining companies and in senior management and supervisory positions. Women constitute a very small proportion of employees in the sector. Women's benefits from the corporate social responsibility expenditures of mining companies also remains limited.[20]

Women work under the most severe of the working conditions in the artisanal mining sub-sector. Increasing awareness will help to tackle the legal and institutional obstacles that reinforce discrimination against women. Strict regulations and high capital costs prevent women from owning mines and working in leadership positions in the mining sector. Women working in the sector face structural discrimination, violence and poor remuneration.



In Botswana, government has urged women to consider venturing into the mining business to improve their economic standing and contribute to the country's economy. In 2015, Botswana hosted a Women in Mining conference held under the theme, "Celebrating Women's Contribution to Botswana's Mining Industry." However, despite increasing economic growth in Botswana, the government and mining industry have yet to truly consider the impact on indigenous women. Activists have blamed the forced removal of the San from the Central Kalahari Game Reserve in Botswana on a De Beers in partnership with the government.[21]



In DRC, girls as young as 12 spend time pounding quartz to extract gold. They may earn up to 2,000 Congolese Francs (US$2) per day for this work.[22] Through a World Bank sponsorship, some Congolese women in mining developed a National Action Plan for the establishment of a "Women in Mining" network. The Action Plan focuses on grassroots organisation and mobilisation to establish a vibrant and broad-based network of women and organisations in the mining sector. Small-scale savings and revolving loans schemes, and education on women's rights and responsibilities in the sector, will become pillars of the network's activities going forward. The network aims to help more women reap sustainable benefits from mining.



In South Africa, Women in Mining SA (WIMSA) provides a forum for support and guidance for personal growth, leadership and career development for women by building relationships within the mining industry. WIMSA creates an empowering network to inspire, support and develop the progression of women working in the mining industry through access to education, skills development, mentorship and representation.

Most countries have **high** prevalences of poverty and inequality despite rich mineral resources

[19] OSISA: Women and the Extractive Industry in Southern Africa.
[20] Ibid.
[21] Southern Africa Resource Watch.
[22] World Bank.

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Strategies needed to **stop** threats to women's **rights** in mining communities

**Zimbabwe - Protecting women in Zimbabwe's extractives sector**



Women miners working in Marange in 2016.
*Photo: Zimbabweland*

Section 56 of the Zimbabwean Constitution guarantees gender equality and non-discrimination in all sectors, including for those working in mining companies and in mining areas.However, past events have shown that the state, including its security agencies, has taken part in violating women in the mining sector. *The Standard* newspaper published a story on 22 March 2015 about several incidents involving state security officials and mine security officials raping women in the Marange area. However, two years later, the violated women have yet to receive justice in the courts of law.

During 2016, the Centre for Natural Resource Governance played a key role in preparing local women leaders from Mutoko, Hwange and Penhalonga areas to make submissions before the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Mines and Energy on the proposed Mines and Minerals Amendment Bill. The local women leaders argued that the current Mines and Minerals Act had not benefited local women in addressing unfair and discriminatory recruitment practices in the mining areas. They also said mining companies contribute to environmental degradation.

This example demonstrates the importance of empowering communities to speak out about threats to their communities and individual safety. It underscores the need for strong political will from the state machinery, including the Gender Commission, Human Rights Commission and the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission to create a conducive environment for women from mining communities to ask critical questions to line ministries and mining company executives. Civil society, including social movements and faith leaders, also need to continue to open spaces for women's rights activists to speak out on violence against women in the mining areas, especially during the Alternative Mining Indaba (AMI), held annually in Cape Town every February. The debates that take place in spaces like the AMI should be gender sensitive and encourage a spirit of unity, tolerance and collaboration on key concerns that affect marginalised groups such as women and children.

*Source: Tafadzwa Muropa*

## Employment

**Article 19.1** State Parties shall review, amend and enact laws and develop policies that ensure women and men have equal access to wage employment, to achieve full and productive employment, decent work including social protection and equal pay for work of equal value for all women and men in all sectors in line with the SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour. States Parties shall review, adopt and implement legislative, administrative and other appropriate measures to ensure:
**(a)** equal pay for equal work and equal remuneration for jobs of equal value for women and men;
**(b)** the eradication of occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination;
**(c)** the recognition of the economic value of, and protection of, persons engaged in agricultural and domestic work; and
**(d)** the appropriate minimum remuneration of persons engaged in agricultural and domestic work.
**3.** States Parties shall enact and enforce legislative measures prohibiting the dismissal or denial of recruitment on the grounds of pregnancy or maternity leave.
**4.** States Parties shall provide protection and benefits for women and men during maternity and paternity leave.
**5.** States Parties shall ensure that women and men receive equal employment benefits, irrespective of their marital status including on retirement.



Fungai Magodi, a Zimbabwean vegetable vendor.
*Photo: Gender Links*

The SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour is amongst the gender aware protocols in the region.[23] It reinforces the provisions in the SADC Gender Protocol and provides for laws and policies to ensure that every person is equal and given equal treatment and equal protection before the law. Governments must also undertake to promote equality of opportunity in employment and labour market policies and legislation as well as social security, and to end all forms of direct or indirect discrimination on grounds such as sex, gender pregnancy, marital status, disability, age and HIV and AIDS status.

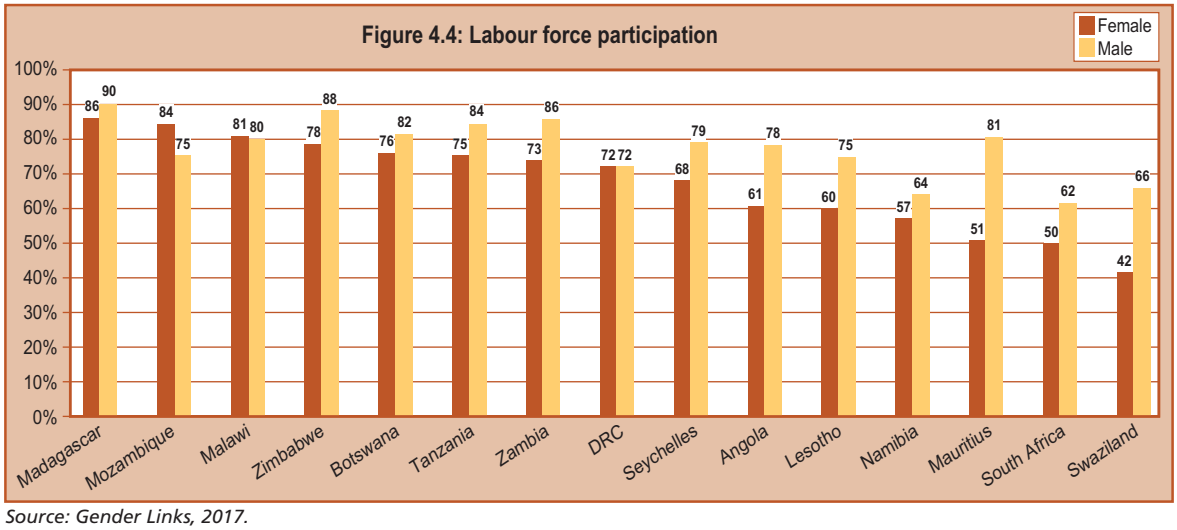
Legislative, administrative and other appropriate measures must be adopted to ensure equal pay for work of equal value, and equal remuneration for jobs of equal value for women and men; the eradication of occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination; adoption of reasonable measures to enable men and women to reconcile their occupational and family obligations; and specific mechanisms for reporting and resolving cases of discrimination and intimidation of workers, particularly on the basis of gender.

The Employment Protocol includes provisions on preferential employment opportunities for the youth, women and persons with disability; support structures to assist entrepreneurs in the establishment and development of small- and medium-sized enterprises; maternity and paternity rights; and gender sensitive training and skills development programmes. Taken together, these provisions offer a strong framework for promoting gender equality in employment in the SADC region.

### *Labour force participation*

Labour force participation measures the proportion of a specific population (such as women and older workers) considered to be either working or actively searching for a job. Researchers consider people of working-age to be between the ages of 16 and 64. Students, homemakers and retired people younger than 64 do not count as part of the labour force. Labour force participation in this report also includes those working in the employment sector.

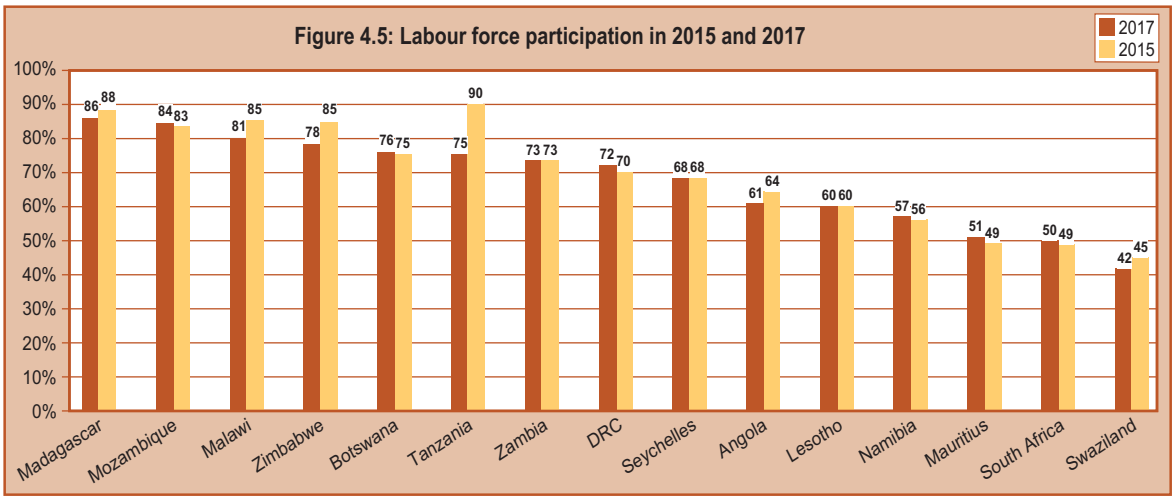
The SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour is one of the region's **most** gender aware Protocols




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 4.4 shows that Madagascar has the highest proportion of women's participation in the labour force (86%) while Swaziland recorded the lowest at 42%. Tanzania (75%) has slipped from pole position in 2016 to sixth place. At least eight countries (Angola, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) have recorded a decrease from 2016 figures. Only Swaziland recorded a score less than 50%.

[23] SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour.




*Source: Gender Gap Report, 2016.*

Figure 4.5 shows that, over the period 2015 to 2017, women's participation in the labour force has decreased in six countries (Angola, Madagascar, Malawi, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe). Six countries (Botswana, DRC, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa) recorded an increase of between one and two percentage points.

### *Gender division of labour and wage gap*

On 15 March 2017, UN Women launched a campaign called #StoptheRobbery[24] aimed at bringing attention to the gender pay gap. According to the organisation, women across the world only make $0.77 for every dollar a man earns for work of equal value. Since March, government officials, activists and celebrities have used the hashtag to show their support for equal pay. To really drive home the fact that employers "rob" most women of an estimated 23% of their earnings, according to UN Women policy director Purna Sen, those characters have been blacked out in the message.

In Southern Africa, a gender division of labour exists in all 15 countries, with women predominating in lower paid areas traditionally associated with women, such as domestic work, teaching (at primary level), nursing, secretarial and clerical posts. Men predominate in higher paid professions such as engineering, construction, security professions, and in decision-making roles. The different value that society attaches to these kinds of work reflects in the average earnings of women and men.

Women across the **world** only make **$0.77** for every $ a man **earns** for work of equal value

**Table 4.7: Women and men's average annual earnings in the SADC region**

| | Women earnings (US$) | Men earnings (US$) | Women's earnings as a proportion of men's earnings (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tanzania | 2337 | 2741 | 85 |
| Botswana | 15 130 | 17 070 | 87 |
| Mozambique | 1042 | 1221 | 85 |
| Malawi | 712 | 932 | 76 |
| Namibia | 8638 | 11 345 | 76 |
| Madagascar | 1194 | 1687 | 70 |
| Zimbabwe | 1460 | 2133 | 68 |
| Angola | 5188 | 8736 | 59 |
| Lesotho | 2005 | 3285 | 61 |
| South Africa | 9972 | 16 230 | 61 |
| Swaziland | 5369 | 11 280 | 48 |
| Mauritius | 11 250 | 26 102 | 43 |

*Source: The Global Gender Gap report 2016.*

[24] UN Women, 2017.

Table 4.7 shows the average earnings of women as a proportion of men, highlighting that:

- None of the 15 SADC countries has achieved gender pay equity.
- Botswana has the closest to equitable earnings between women and men, with women earning 87% what men earn, followed by Tanzania (85%) and Mozambique (80%).
- Mauritius has the lowest proportion of female to male earnings (43%), a one percentage point increase from the 2016 reporting period, followed by Swaziland, which has gone down five percentage points from 53% to 43%.
- Tanzania has regressed by nine percentage points from 2016.
- Malawi women earn the least in the region with an average wage of $712 while Botswana women earn the most with an average wage of $15 130.

**SADC Gender Protocol Alliance Chair appointed to top UN position on pay equity**



Activists, celebrities and governments came together in March 2017 to call for an end to the global gender pay gap.
*Photo: UN Women*

The UN appointed Emma Kaliya, the SADC Gender Protocol Alliance Chair, as a global champion for equal pay on 13 March 2017 alongside high profile government officials, celebrities and activists.

The official announcement came at a colourful event held at the UN General Assembly to coincide with the first day of the 61st edition of the CSW.

The Equal Pay Platform of Champions is a diverse group of advocates brought together to galvanise mobilisation - as part of the broader International Labour Organisation (ILO)/UN Women Global Equal Pay Coalition - for equal pay for work of equal value. UN Women hosted the event, in partnership with ILO and co-sponsored by the missions of Iceland, South Africa and Switzerland.

The Alliance Secretariat, represented at CSW 61 by Advocacy Coordinator Lucia Makamure, congratulated Kaliya for flying the Southern Africa region's flag high and proud. "As the SADC Alliance, we are very proud of our Chair and wish her the best in her new role," noted Makamure. The formation of this group comes at a time of strong calls to accelerate the closing of the global gender pay gap, which now sits at 23%. In some countries, the gap is even higher.

*Source: Roadmap to equality e-newsletter*

Table 4.9 on right shows several conditions of employment across the SADC countries, including retirement age, maternity benefits and provisions for policies against sexual harassment. It highlights that:

- All SADC countries provide for some maternity leave. The most common is a period of 12 weeks: four weeks before and six weeks after birth.
- A few countries in the region have provisions to encourage breastfeeding.
- The DRC, Madagascar and Tanzania have accommodated all the provisions in the table, with varying forms of maternity and paternity leave, equal retirement age, and sexual harassment clauses.
- Only six of the 15 countries provide for paternity leave. Those countries that do not should review their policies considering the 2014 SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour's provision mandating such leave.
- Ten of the 15 countries have equal retirement age benefits, with the others differing by an average of five years between women and men, mostly with women at 60 and men at 65.
- Nine of the 15 countries have measures in place to address sexual harassment in the workplace.

**None** of the 15 SADC countries has achieved gender pay **equity**

Maternity provisions **exist** in all SADC countries

**Table 4.8: Conditions of employment across the SADC region**

| Country | Maternity leave | Paternity leave | Retirement age and benefits for women and men | Sexual harassment provisions |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Angola** | **Yes**<br>Three months paid.[25] | **No** | **No**<br>Women at 55, men at 60. In public service, women can retire after 30 years, and men after 35 years, of service. | **No**<br>While not illegal, some cases can be prosecuted under assault or defamation statutes. |
| **Botswana** | **Yes**<br>12 weeks, six before, six after. Entitled to additional two weeks due to illness. Allowance of not less than 25% of the basic pay or 50 Thebe (US 5 cents) per day, whichever is greater. | **No** | **Yes**<br>Same for women and men. | **Some**<br>It is recognised in the Public Service Act covering the public sector, but very few ministries mention this in their policies. Some institutions have incorporated sexual harassment policies. |
| **DRC** | **Yes**<br>Part of the Labour code. During maternity leave, a maternity allowance of 67% of the employee's basic pay. | **Yes**<br>Part of the Labour code. | **Yes**<br>Part of the Social Security Law. | **Yes**<br>Part of the Labour code and the Sexual Violence Law. |
| **Lesotho**[26] | **Yes**<br>Two weeks after one-year employment in the clothing, textile and leather industries. Six weeks in the private sector. Ninety days paid maternity leave to permanently employed female public servants. It remains at the discretion of the employer whether to pay full salary or part. | **No**<br>There is a proposal for a Paternity Leave Bill to grant fathers a month's leave. | **Yes**<br>Most employment sectors, including the public sector, are gender neutral on the issue. | **Yes**<br>The 1992 Labour Code Order Sec. 200 prohibits sexual harassment in the workplace. "Any person who offers employment or who threatens dismissal [on the basis of] sexual favours or harasses workers sexually shall commit an unfair labour practice" (page 1350). |
| **Madagascar** | **Yes**<br>Six weeks before, six weeks after for the private sector. Two months in the public sector. | **Yes**<br>The Labour Act grants three days of paternity leave for the private sector, 15 days for the public sector. | **Yes, public service.**<br>**No, private sector.**<br>60 years for both sexes in public service. 55 for women and 60 for men in private sector. | **Yes**<br>In general, the Labour Act guarantees respect for human dignity in all labour relations. Article 23 forbids sexual harassment. |
| **Malawi** | **Yes**<br>Found in the Employment Act Sec 47. | **No**<br>There is a public debate on the issue. | **Yes** | **Yes**<br>Penal code criminalises sexual harassment. The Gender Equity Act (2013) addresses the same with clear provisions. |

[25] However, there is no data on how many women benefit or know about this provision.
[26] Source: Labour Code 1992, Public Service Regulations 1969, Labour Code Wages (Amendment) Order 2007and Interviews 2009

| Country | Maternity leave | Paternity leave | Retirement age and benefits for women and men | Sexual harassment provisions |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mauritius**[27] | **Yes**[28]<br>After one year of employment, 12 weeks, The Employment Rights Act (ERA) 2008. | **Yes**<br>A male worker shall be entitled to five continuous working days. | **Yes**<br>First Schedule of the Employment Rights Act up to the age of 65 years. A female officer recognising five years' service may retire on grounds of marriage irrespective of age. | **Yes**<br>Sexual Harassment is provided in Part IV of the Discrimination Act 2002. |
| **Mozambique**[29] | **Yes**<br>Sixty days, after which she can take up to an hour a day for breastfeeding, for a year unless otherwise prescribed by a clinician. | **Yes**<br>This consists of two days consecutive or alternate leave during the 30 days from the date of birth of the child, every two years. | **No**<br>65 for men and 60 for women. | **N/A** |
| **Namibia**[30] | **Yes**<br>100% pay for the maternity leave period. | **No** | **Yes** | **Yes**<br>A clause in the Labour Act, while difficult to define, condones sexual harassment. |
| **Seychelles**[31] | **Yes**<br>Fourteen weeks paid leave, at least ten weeks to be taken after birth. Additionally provides for four weeks unpaid leave. A female worker cannot return to work before her paid leave is over. | **No**<br>The Constitution and Employment acts make no reference to paternity leave or the roles of a working father. Order 102 of the Public Service Order (2011) makes provisions for sick leave for employees with a sick child, without being gender-specific. | **Yes**<br>Compulsory at age 63. Retirement pay is equal for both, pension income depends on individual contributions, and social security benefits are equal. | **Yes**<br>Employment Act protects all employees from any form of harassment in general and Public Officers' "Ethics Act" (2008), which is applicable to government, makes explicit reference to sexual harassment. Neither provides a clear definition. The Act is under review and efforts are being made to strengthen the law and bring it into compliance with International Labour Organisation (ILO) standards. |
| **South Africa** | **Yes**<br>Four months; four weeks before, six after. The law also entitles a woman undergoing miscarriage in the third trimester of pregnancy or bearing a stillborn child to maternity leave. | **Yes**<br>Three days. | **No**<br>65 for men and 60 for women. | **Yes**<br>The South African law prohibits sexual and other forms of harassment under the Employment Equity Act 1998 and the Equity Act. The country has issued a code of Good Practice on Sexual Harassment. |

**40%**
of the SADC countries have **paternity provisions**

[27] 2008
[28] For a miscarriage, two weeks leave on full pay. After a still-born child, a woman shall be entitled to a maximum of 12 weeks leave. A worker who is nursing is entitled every day at a time convenient to her at least two breaks of half an hour or one break of one hour for a period of six months.

**3** countries do not have **sexual** harass-ment provi-sions

| Country | Maternity leave | Paternity leave | Retirement age and benefits for women and men | Sexual harassment provisions |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Swaziland** | **Yes**<br>At least 12 weeks with two weeks fully paid after delivery. One-hour nursing breaks with pay per day for three months after maternity leave. Applicable if an employee has been in continuous employment with the same employer for 12 months, and only once after the lapse of 24 months from the previous maternity leave. | **No**<br>There is no debate yet about providing it. Certain customs dictate that men should not be in close contact with new-born babies. | **Yes**<br>60 for women and 55 for men. | **No**<br>The Employment Act is silent on the issue. The Sexual Offence and Domestic Violence Bill has a provision on sexual harassment. |
| **Tanzania** | **Yes**<br>Eighty-four days paid maternity leave. | **Yes**<br>Three days. | **Yes**<br>The Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004 states: Every employer shall ensure that he promotes an equal opportunity in employment and strives to eliminate discrimination. | **Yes**<br>The Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004 states: Harassment of an employee shall be a form of discrimination and shall be prohibited. |
| **Zambia** | **Yes**<br>Employment and Industrial Relation Act: After two years of employment, a woman is entitled to 90 days. However, there is a campaign to increase the number of days to about 180 to encourage exclusive breastfeeding. | **No legal provision.**<br>However, some organisations allow a man to be on leave for a few days after the birth of a child. This is usually provided for in a collective agreement. | **Yes**<br>Both men and women retire at the age of 55. | **No**<br>Some organisations have in-house policies on sexual harassment. However, if reported, such cases would be dealt with under the Penal code. |
| **Zimbabwe** | **Yes**<br>An amendment to the Labour Relations Act has increased maternity leave from 90 to 98 days in line with the ILO Convention No. 183 on Maternity Protection. | **No**<br>Draft bill in place and yet to be presented in parliament | **No**<br>The age of retirement in the private sector is provided for in the collective bargaining agreements for each sector in the private sector. In the public sector, the retirement age is 65 in terms of S17 of the Public Service Regulations. | **Yes**<br>S8 of the Labour Act provides for the prohibition of sexual harassment as an unfair labour practice. |

[29] 2009
[30] Labour Act/Reviewed 2007/8 (2007)
[31] Source: Employment Act, 1991 revised 1995
[32] A case was brought by one gentleman who argued that the differentiation in terms of retirement age was discriminatory towards men

## Formalising the informal sector

The informal economy, usually composed of either cross-border trade or vending, has been the livelihood of countless poor women in developing nations, especially in Africa, including Southern Africa. The informal economy acts as a safety net for unemployed people in the region, as outlined in a SADC Advocacy Strategy.[33]

The growth of Informal Cross Border Trade (ICBT) in Africa tends to align, in most cases, with increasing poverty and weak employment conditions.[34] ICBT is not only a common feature of growing intra-Africa's trade, it has also been incentivised over the years through dysfunctional policies that have resulted in shrinkage of the region's formal economic sector (Ogalo, 2014). Further, the sole reason for women's engagement in ICBT is economic: that is, women have few other formal opportunities to earn income (Jawando et al., 2012).

Therefore, ICBT is not only a means of survival as formal sector job opportunities shrink, but a source of income and employment that plays a crucial role in household poverty reduction, thus complementing the development objectives in African states. Most women seek employment in ICBT as the main source of income and they tend to use the income earned from ICBT to meet the basic needs of their households: to buy food and pay for rent, school fees and healthcare services.

While women tend to be overrepresented in ICBT, gender dimensions also exist in the types of goods traded through the sector. There are clear differences between regions and countries. For instance, female informal cross border traders in Tanzania tend to dominate trade in industrial products while men in that country tend to do better in trade of agricultural products.[35]

## Social protection

The area of social protection consists of policies and programmes designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to manage economic and social risks, such as unemployment, exclusion, sickness, disability and old age. The SDGs and the June 2016 updated Protocol place a growing emphasis on social protection as a means of alleviating poverty and achieving gender equality. Existing social protection systems in SADC countries rarely address issues of care and decent work, except in the field of HIV and AIDS.

Women require social protection due to weakly defined property rights to major productive assets such as land and cattle, while girls provide labour for various tasks, thus foregoing education.[36] Challenges faced by SADC governments in effectively implementing social protection include making it more gender sensitive, administrative inefficiencies, inadequate funding, weak coordination of social protection initiatives and inadequate coverage of vulnerable groups.

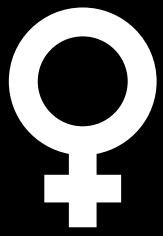


In **Lesotho**, several social protection policies and programmes address specific aspects of poverty. Three strands that provide social protection include the Food Security Policy, social welfare programmes, and disaster management inter-



Women make up the majority of the vendors at Miantso Market in Madagascar.
*Photo: Zotonantenaina Razanadratefa*

The **informal** economy **is a source of income** for the majority of **SADC**



[33] OSISA: Women working in the informal economy: Challenges and Policy Considerations, 2015.
[34] Formalisation of informal trade in Africa: Trends, experiences and socioeconomic impacts, FAO, 2017.
[35] Ibid.
[36] UNDP: Social Protection in Africa, A Review of Potential Contribution and Impact on Poverty Reduction, March 2014.

ventions. The Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security adopted the Food Security Policy, which includes many social protection principles and programmes such as public transfers and social safety nets, promotion of food production, mainstreaming HIV and AIDS, managing food aid and food stocks, and employment promotion. The Department of Social Welfare (DSW) provides social assistance to targeted vulnerable groups.



In **Malawi**, some girls between the ages of 13 and 22 receive social protection cash transfers. Researchers found these girls spend more time in school and have a 60% lower HIV and AIDS prevalence rate than those in control groups. Social protection in Malawi focuses on education and health.

**Mozambique** adopted the Social Protection Law (4/2007) in 2007. In 2009, legislators also adopted the Regulation for Basic Social Security,



while in 2010 they approved the National Strategy for Basic Social Security. Thus, Mozambique has made noteworthy progress in establishing a legal and policy framework for the implementation of social protection programmes. This framework is a step in the right direction towards setting up a social protection floor. The Social Protection Law organises the social protection system at three levels, namely, basic social security, obligatory social security and complementary social security. The systems assure universal access to primary health care and education by the most vulnerable. The law has no specific gender provisions.



**Namibia**'s social protection scheme is divided into a system of social grants funded through taxes, a state-run contributory component and a privately-managed pension system for the formally employed in the private sector. Social transfers in Namibia play a role in reducing inequality, although this impact is less significant than the role they play in reducing poverty.

**Leakages** in the financial **architecture** leads to revenue **losses** with corruption being key

**Illicit financial flows rob SADC women of social services and social protection**




A policy paper prepared by the Development Alternatives Women New Era (DAWN) exploring the link between tax and gender justice provides insights into how illicit financial flows (IFFs) perpetuate gender inequality.
The paper echoes the position that it is the state's obligation to collect taxes to fund public services thereby contributing to the realisation of women's and girl's human rights.[37]

In SADC just like most countries in the world, governments rely heavily on taxes for the provision of public goods and services, as well as to address economic inequality, including gender inequality. However, evidence on the ground shows that tax policy currently fails to generate enough revenue to fund government expenditures and to close the gaps in gender equality and women's rights financing.

This significantly reduce tax earnings and thus result in a reduction in the provision of social services, care services and social protection. This means that governments' capacity to provide public education, especially gender-equitable education, has become increasingly challenging. The same applies for other basic services such as health, potable water and social security.

Women are then left to bear brunt of poor basic services. For example, failure to attend school means women cannot compete with men for formal and good jobs. Additionally, poor health facilities force women out of employment to pursue unpaid care work for their families. IFFs further undermine the possibility of funding social care work and, by extension, lock women into providing unpaid care work and thus subsidising these services for the entire economy.

Whilst research/debate on IFFs has centred on the main component of IFFs (commercial activities) it is important for lawmakers to pay particular attention to the critical gender dimensions or outcomes associated with the less debated components of IFFs, namely criminal activities and corruption.

*Source: Lucia Makamure and Femnet*

[37] Illicit financial flows undermining gender equality, Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era (DAWN) 2016.

## The digital divide

While data about the digital divide in Southern Africa is scanty, studies done across the globe points toward gender gaps in the use of Information Technology (IT). A paper on the digital divide by (Robinson. L et al, 2010) highlights how usage of digital tools varies across countries, even within the developed world.[38]

The scholars point out that while earlier research on gender and digital inequalities focused on identifying gaps and differences, recent studies are exploring the mechanisms which underlie these gaps and explore the consequences for outcomes such as building social capital, employment opportunities, and educational attainment. An important question to come out of this research is whether women are using computers, the internet, and mobile devices to the same extent as men.

These studies have exposed gender disparities linked to the form of digital engagement among internet users. Recent evidence suggests that digital inequalities intersect with gender in two main ways: through the gendering of skills and content production patterns, and through gendered labour market processes associated with jobs involving technology. Both processes call for further investigation. Our behaviour online is an extension of broader social roles, interests, and expectations existent in society. We know that women are more likely to use the internet for communication and social support (Cotten & Jelenewicz, 2006).

Deficiencies in online skills, even if they are self-identified, are alarming because they can have real consequences for online behaviour. Third, even though in many cases women adopt and use IT at the same rates as men (Fountain, 2000), men still far outnumber women among IT developers and designers, a gap which will only be narrowed through policy interventions. Data regarding the gender composition of corporate IT positions bears out this trend. In 2012, women occupied about 24% of chief information officer positions at Fortune 100 companies (NCWIT, 2014).

**Women in SADC and across the world lag behind men** in the use of ICTs

**Namibia - Grootfontein Youth Forum inspires Namibia's next generation**



Grootfontein Youth Forum believes in the imagination and ingenuity of young people. For many years, it has been promoting leadership skills to the youth of central Namibia.

Part of this links to the belief of its founders in the ideas coming from young innovative minds in the region. They combine these ideas and the youth behind them with mature community leaders for inter-generational learning that benefits the entire community.

Thus, the community has elected a group of youth members to work together to identify and solve problems. They noticed that in order to have positive youth development, the community must also have:

- Good health habits;
- Good health risk management skills;
- Knowledge of essential life skills;
- Knowledge of essential vocational skills;
- School success;
- Good mental health, including gender awareness; and
- Good emotional self-regulation skills.



Some of the parents whose children are beneficiaries of the Grootfontein Youth Forum. *Photo: Luis Talaya*

Concern about the well-being of youth warrants attention. Massive changes in the structures of families, communities, and places and types of work, and economic disruptions have created a new landscape for this generation of youths. Adolescence is a pivotal period between childhood and adulthood: a time when youth need to acquire the attitudes, competencies, values, and social skills that will carry them forward to successful adulthood. For some youth, it is the best of times, and for others, it is the worst of times.

The Forum recognises this and notes that one of the steps toward a clearer vision of an organisation and its outreach is the establishment of a common language for youth and adults.

*Source: Luis Talaya*

Protocol@Work

[38] Laura Robinson, Shelia R. Cotten, Hiroshi Ono, Anabel Quan-Haase, Gustavo Mesch, Wenhong Chen, Jeremy Schulz, Timothy M. Hale & Michael J. Stern (2015) Digital inequalities and why they matter, Information, Communication & Society, 18:5, 569-582,DOI:10.1080/1369118X.2015.1012532.

The **youth** are the future of SADC provided the region **invests** in them

### *Harnessing the youth demographic dividend*

The 29th African Union Summit in 2017 declared "Harnessing the Demographic Dividend Through Investments in the Youth" as its theme. This connects to the Agenda 2063 and offers a comprehensive development vision for the African continent. The youth of SADC will be the future of the region and they play a central in the implementation of the region's Sustainable Development Agenda. Africa's youth population will increase by 42% from 226 million in 2015 and studies predict it will keep rising.[39] Thus, the Summit identified a vital entry point to empower and educate the leaders of tomorrow as they inherit an increasingly over-populated continent.

Achieving gender equality is another critical goal for SADC as it attempts to harness the demographic dividend. Young women remain absent in discussions on youth development, with their voices considered peripheral and their bodies constructed as sites to be acted on through policy prescriptions developed by others for them.[40]




Thus, young women from across Africa, convened by African Women's Development and Communication Network (Femnet), met in Addis Ababa on the sidelines of the AU Summit. They launched a policy brief addressing the urgent challenges of young women on the continent. The brief, which provides a roadmap for Africa to harness the demographic dividend, also outlines the group's key demands of its leaders.



Young women in Zambia go fishing using umono baskets near Umumobeshi stream in Matanda village. *Photo: Steven Malulu*

[39] African Union Roadmap on Harnessing the Demographic Dividend through Investments in Youth in response to AU Assembly decision (assembly/au/dec.601 (xxvi) on the 2017 theme of the year 2017.
[40] Young women and the demographic dividend, African Women's Development and Communication Network (FEMNET), June 2017.

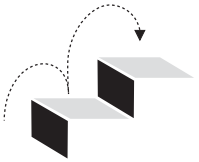
**Young women and the demographic dividend in Africa: key demands**

- Address systematic social cultural factors that discourage young women from taking on and getting retained in Science Technology and Mathematics (STEM) education programmes and careers.
- Put in place policies, infrastructure and systems that address the gendered digital divide that prevents adolescent girls and young women accessing, using and participating in digital media and technology and hinders them from leveraging technology as a productive resource.
- Ensure comprehensive and holistic career guidance for technical vocational education and training that encourages young women to take up non-traditional trades that provide sustainable professional and financial growth and do not reinforce gender stereotypes.
- Institute incubator programmes, ICT hubs, start-up kits and mentorship programmes that will enhance skills development that allows practical application and entrepreneurship.
- Recognise the contribution of unpaid care work in the economy.
- Provide child-care centres that target low-income neighbourhoods, increasing women's employment in a number of countries.
- Improve community care services to reduce the number of girls dropping out of school or performing poorly because of child and home care responsibilities.
- Put in place policies that improve employment opportunities for young women.
- Remove legal restrictions and regulations that establish discriminatory gender bias against female labour participation.
- Institute 30% procurement quotas for young women to ensure equitable access to government procurement, including a tracking mechanism to ensure accountability.
- Institute a 50/50 mechanism and measures to ensure young women's access to national and regional youth development funds.
- Accelerate the development and support platforms and structures that will promote economic justice for young women and enable best practice sharing through technology and the internet.
- Bridge the digital divide.
- Implement gender-responsive budgeting within youth programmes and ensure adequate resources are allocated.
- Invest in and implement gender specific programmes that target young women to minimise entry barriers in male-dominated enterprises and employment.
- Address sexual harassment in the workplace through implementation of gender policies.
- All employers should put in place a gender policy to institutionalise a gender sensitive work environment that is safe for young women workers and offers equal opportunities for young women and men including in leadership and management, promotion and training opportunities among others.
- Put in place labour policies that allow young women workers to organise and speak with one voice to demand their workers' rights without being threatened.

*Source: Femnet*

Young ♀ make demands

"It's time to turn policy into practice"



## Next steps

### Bridging the implementation gap

The analysis in this chapter has shown the great strides SADC has made in putting women's economic empowerment high on the region's policy agenda. However, it is also important to note that achieving the SADC Post-2015 Agenda requires a renewed effort and commitment. This new era comes with a new set of challenges: from global economic tensions and threats to climate change, demographic challenges, and an expanding digital divide.

Lessons from the past illustrate the importance of addressing the governance challenges that remain central to the implementation of the Post-2015 Agenda. SADC member states should thus prioritise the following areas:

- Cultivate collective action by creating inclusive decision spaces for stakeholder interaction across multiple sectors and scales. Partnerships are at the heart of achieving economic justice and women's economic empowerment. Member states will need to work closely with civil society and the corporate sector as cooperation between these actors, in diverse contexts, and over time, remains crucial.
- Implementation of the SADC Gender Protocol MER framework needs mechanisms for accountability to ensure that stakeholders fulfil actions and meet targets. Additionally, many progressive policies exist in SADC yet governments have not fully implemented them in a meaningful way. It is time to turn policy into practice.
- Improve the collection and availability of data, building capacity for national statistical offices as data is very crucial for tracking progress.
- Prioritise funding for gender equality initiatives, especially in those areas, highlighted in this chapter, where countries have been lagging. This will also ensure accountability for commitments made by member states.

The 2017 Report of the UN Secretary-General's High-level Panel on Women's Economic Empowerment identifies the following as the primary drivers of gender justice;

- Norms and women's economic empowerment.
- Ensuring legal protections and reforming discriminatory laws and regulations.
- Investing in care: recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid work and care.
- Building assets: digital, financial and property.
- Changing business culture and practice
- Improving public sector practices in employment and procurement
- Strengthening visibility, collective voice and representation

# CHAPTER 5

# Gender Based Violence

## Articles 20-25




16 Days of Activism Protest demanding National Strategy to End GBV in South Africa.
*Photo: Gender Links*

**From halving to ending GBV!**

### KEY POINTS

- The new Protocol takes a huge step forward in localising the Sustainable Development Goal 5 by moving from "halving" to "eliminating" gender based violence.
- Eleven out of the fifteen countries have put in place domestic violence legislation and thirteen have sexual assault legislation.
- Fourteen countries have legislation on sexual harassment.
- All countries have laws on human trafficking.
- All the countries offer some form of services to survivors of GBV, however, the main challenge remains that the service providers, are mainly under-resourced NGOs.
- Fifteen countries offer comprehensive treatment including PEP to survivors of violence.
- Seven countries have undertaken Violence Against Women (VAW) Baseline Studies (Mauritius, Botswana, Lesotho, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Seychelles).
- The Seychelles study includes violence against men for the first time.
- Botswana has set the pace by adding violence against men and conducting a five year follow up study after the 2012 baseline.
- The SADC MER framework adopted nine of the 42 indicators in the VAW Baseline Study. However, of the nine indicators adopted, none measures the prevalence of gender based violence. There is need for all SADC countries to conduct GBV prevalence studies that can be used to track progress towards *eliminating GBV*.

**11 countries have laws on domestic violence**

## What the Protocol requires

Part six of the SADC Gender Protocol concerns GBV. It has five articles (20-25) that cover legal aspects; social, economic, cultural and political practices; sexual harassment; support services; training of service providers and institutional arrangements.

**Table 5.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| | **Article 20: Legal** |
| 1.States Parties shall by 2015:<br>(a) enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender based violence;<br>(b) ensure that perpetrators of gender based violence, including domestic violence, rape, femicide, sexual harassment, female genital mutilation and all other forms of gender based violence are tried by a court of competent jurisdiction. | 1. States Parties shall:<br>(a) enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender based violence;<br>(b) develop strategies to prevent and eliminate all harmful social and cultural practices, such as child marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancies, slavery and female genital mutilation.<br>(c) ensure that perpetrators of gender based violence, including domestic violence, rape, femicide, sexual harassment, female genital mutilation and all other forms of gender based violence are tried by a court of competent jurisdiction. |
| 3. States Parties shall, by 2015, review, reform and their criminal laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence to:<br>(a) Eliminate gender bias; and<br>(b) Ensure justice and fairness are accorded to survivors of gender based violence in a manner that ensures dignity, protection and respect. | 3. States Parties shall, review, reform and strengthen their laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence to:<br>(a) Eliminate gender bias; and<br>(b) Ensure justice and fairness are accorded to survivors of gender based violence in a manner that ensures dignity, protection and respect. |
| 5. States Parties shall, by 2015:<br>(a) Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society;<br>(b) Put in place mechanisms by which all relevant law enforcement authorities and institutions eradicate national, regional and international.<br>(c) Put in place harmonised data collection mechanisms to improve reporting on the types and modes of trafficking to ensure effective programming and monitoring.<br>(d) Establish bilateral and multilateral agreements to run joint actions against human trafficking among origin, transit and destination countries; and<br>(e) Ensure capacity building, awareness raising and sensitisation campaigns on human trafficking are put in place for law enforcement officials. | 5. States Parties shall:<br>(a) Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent trafficking in persons and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society;<br>(b) Put in place mechanisms by which all relevant law enforcement authorities and institutions should eradicate national, regional and international trafficking in persons' syndicates;<br>(c) Put in place harmonised data collection mechanisms to improve research and reporting on the types and modes of trafficking to ensure effective programming and monitoring.<br>(d) Establish bilateral and multilateral agreements to run joint actions against trafficking in persons among origin, transit and destination countries; and<br>(e) Ensure capacity building, awareness raising and sensitisation campaigns on trafficking in persons are put in place for law enforcement officials. |
| | **Article 25: Integrated Approaches** |
| State Parties shall adopt integrated approaches including institutional cross sector structures, with the aim of reducing current levels of gender based violence by half by 2015. | State Parties shall adopt integrated approaches including institutional cross sector structures, with the aim of eliminating gender based violence. |

The table reflects the few but significant shifts in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol. These include:

- Article 20.1 of the Post-2015 Protocol adds a new clause, (20.1b), which calls for member states to develop strategies to prevent and eliminate all harmful social and cultural practices such as child marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancies, slavery and female genital mutilation. This provision is significant in that it seeks to address the social norms, the bedrock upon which harmful practices such GBV are rooted. Article 20.1 (b) of old provision focused on ensuring that perpetrators are brought to book through competent jurisdiction. While this approach is effective, it is limited in that it is more of reactive than proactive.
- Article 20.3 of the new provision adds "strengthening" to reviewing and reforming criminal

laws on gender violence. Despite the existence of GBV laws, there are gaps and loose ends. For instance, most countries have legislation criminalising rape but not many of these address marital rape.

- Article 20.5 of the updated Protocol moves away from "human trafficking" to "trafficking in persons". It also calls for state parties to improve research and reporting on the types and modes of trafficking. While all SADC countries now have legislation addressing human trafficking, the challenge remains the lack of empirical research to provide a comprehensive insight into the prevalence or patterns of trafficking within the region .
- The huge step forward is localising Sustainable Development Goal 5 by moving from "halving" to "eliminating" gender based violence.

## Key trends

**Table 5.2: Trends in GBV 2009, 2015 and 2017**

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **ATTITUDES** | | | | |
| % who say if a woman works she should give her money to her husband | | | | |
| Highest (0%) | | | 23% (Namibia) | -23% |
| Lowest | | | 86% (Lesotho) | -86% |
| % who say if a wife does something wrong her husband has the right to punish her | | | | |
| Highest (0%) | | | 30% (Zimbabwe) | -30% |
| Lowest | | | 64% (DRC) | -64% |
| % who say if a man beats a woman it shows that he loves her | | | | |
| Highest (0%) | | | 11% (Mauritius) | -11% |
| Lowest | | | 48% (Mozambique) | -48% |
| % who say if a woman wears a short skirt she is asking to be raped | | | | |
| Highest (0%) | | | 15% (Mauritius) | -15% |
| Lowest (0) | | | 75% (Tanzania) | -75% |
| **LEGISLATION** | | | | |
| Laws on domestic violence in 15 countries | 9 (Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Zimbabwe) | 11 (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 11 (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | -4 (DRC, Lesotho, Tanzania, Swaziland) |
| Laws on sexual assault in 15 countries | 7 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland) | 13 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Mauritius, Zambia, Tanzania, Zimbabwe Botswana, Malawi) | 13 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Mauritius, Zambia, Tanzania, Zimbabwe Botswana, Malawi) | -2 (Angola, Seychelles) |
| Human trafficking laws in 15 countries | 3 (Madagascar, Mozambique, Zambia) | 12 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Seychelles) | 15 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Seychelles) | 0 |
| Sexual harassment laws in 15 countries | 2 (DRC, Madagascar) | 14 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Seychelles, Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania) | 14 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Seychelles, Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania) | -1 (Angola) |
| **GBV SERVICES** | | | | |
| Accessible, affordable and specialised services, including legal aid, to survivors of GBV in 15 countries | 9 (Angola, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 12 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 12 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) | 3 |

All **15 SADC countries** have **laws** on **trafficking** in **persons**

[1] Lowe-Morna, C., Makamure, L., Dube, S. (2016) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).

**SGDI first 61% in 2017**

**CSC has dropped from 68% in 2015 to 66% in 2017**

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Specialised facilities including places of shelter and safety in 15 countries | 2 (Mauritius, South Africa and Botswana) | 12 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Zambia, Botswana, Swaziland, Mozambique) | 14 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Zambia, Botswana, Swaziland, Mozambique) | -1(Seychelles) |
| Comprehensive treatment, including post exposure prophylaxis (PEP) in 15 countries | 2 [(South Africa - Sexual Offences Act, Mozambique-HIV AIDS Act) Botswana since 2008 (HIV Policy 2008)] | 15 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Seychelles, Botswana Namibia, Mauritius, Swaziland, Zambia, Angola, Mozambique) | 15 (DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Seychelles, Botswana Namibia, Mauritius, Swaziland, Zambia, Angola, Mozambique) | 0 |
| **COORDINATION, MONITORING AND EVALUATION** | | | | |
| Integrated Approaches: National Action Plans in 15 countries | 7 (DRC, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania) | 14 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana) | 15 (Angola, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana) | 0 |
| By 2030 construct a composite index for measuring GBV in 15 countries | None | 7 (Botswana, DRC, Mauritius, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola) | 9 (Botswana, DRC, Lesotho Mauritius, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola, Seychelles) | 6 (Malawi, Namibia, Mozambique, Madagascar, Swaziland) |
| By 2030 provide baseline data on GBV in 15 countries | None | 6 (Botswana, Mauritius, four provinces of South Africa, four/ provinces of Zambia, Lesotho Zimbabwe, Tanzania). | 7 (Botswana, Mauritius, four provinces of South Africa, four/ provinces of Zambia, Lesotho Zimbabwe, Tanzania). | 8 (Angola, DRC, Malawi, Namibia, Mozambique, Madagascar, Tanzania, Swaziland) |
| **SCORES** | | | | |
| SGDI 100% | | | 61% | -39% |
| CSC 100% | 47% | 68% | 66% | -34% |

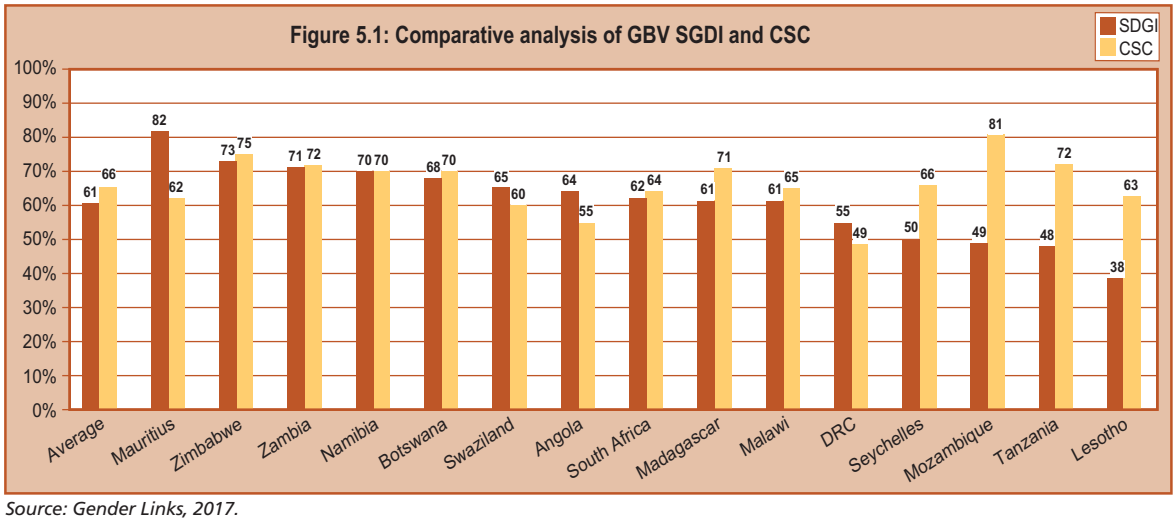
Table 1.5 shows that:

- ***Attitudes*** that fuel gender violence (used in 2017 as proxy indicators for gender violence) vary greatly in the region. For example, 86% of women and men in Lesotho said that "if a woman works, she should give her money to her husband", compared to 23% in Namibia. While only 15% of those interviewed in Mauritius said that "if a woman wears a short skirt she is asking to be raped", 75% of respondents in Tanzania agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.
- ***Legislation:*** To date eleven out of the fifteen countries (from 9 countries in 2009) have put in place domestic violence and thirteen have sexual assault legislation; four countries (Tanzania, Swaziland, DRC and Lesotho) are still to enact specific laws. In 2009, two countries had laws on sexual harassment and three on human trafficking. To date, 14 countries have legislation on sexual harassment and all countries have laws on human trafficking. While these efforts are commendable, evidence has shown that review, amendment and enactment of laws and policies do not translate to enforcement and implementation. Resistance in recognising various forms of GBV as crime is still strong within the region.
- ***GBV Services:*** In 2009, nine countries offered accessible, affordable and specialised services, including legal aid, to survivors of GBV. Now all the countries offer some form of services to survivors of GBV. The main challenge remains that the service providers (who are mainly NGOs) are under-resourced with limited capacity to deliver on their mandates. In most countries, the services are concentrated in urban areas while rural areas remain under serviced or not serviced at all. The number of countries that offer places of safety has risen from only two countries in 2009 to 14 in 2017. However, the number and quality of services and resources available to survivors of GBV remains sub-standard. Small NGOs run most of the services, particularly shelters.

[2] Lowe-Morna, C and Walter, D. (2009). SADC Gender Protocol Barometer, Gender Links website, available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-baseline-barometer-2009/ (accessed 12 June 2016).

- There has been an increase in the number of countries providing ***Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP)***. In 2009, only two countries provided this service to survivors of sexual violence under statutory obligation[2]. Today all 15 countries offer comprehensive treatment including PEP to survivors of violence.
- ***Co-ordination of GBV programmes:*** To date seven countries have undertaken the GBV Baseline Studies (Mauritius, Botswana, Seychelles, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Lesotho) from a baseline of zero in 2009.

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of GBV, this is complex because police data is unreliable and less than half the countries in the region have undertaken prevalence studies. However, included in these studies is a 25- question attitude survey administered widely around the SADC region as part of the Alliance work, with a sample of over 40,000 in 2016. Four of these indicators (see the "attitude" section in the trends table) have been selected as "proxy" indicators for GBV. This gives an SGDI score for GBV for the first time (an average of 61% for the region). The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post-2015 era. Not surprisingly, the overall score dropped from 68% to 66% with these tougher tests in place.



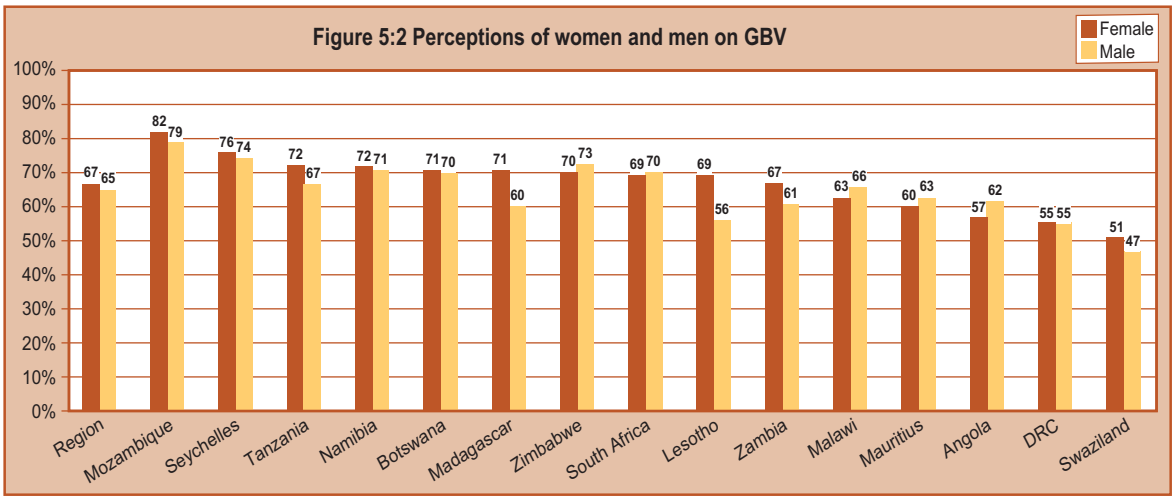

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 5.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores for 2017. It shows that overall at 61% for the SGDI and 66% for the CSC, these scores (based on empirical data and perceptions respectively) are quite close. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. Mauritius had the highest positive variances (i.e. people who are more sceptical than what the numbers tell us). Mozambique, Lesotho and Tanzania had the highest negative variances, i.e. where citizens are more optimistic than what the facts on the ground tell us.



Women in South Africa reclaim the night.
*Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

The **2017** Barometer gives an **SGDI** score for **GBV** for the **1st time (average of 61%** for the **region)**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

**67%** scored higher than **65%**

Figure 5.2 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the sector for 2017. On average women (67%) had slightly higher scores than men (65%). As this sector largely concerns GBV, it is a positive sign that women are overall more optimistic than men about the progress achieved. This is especially so in Lesotho and Seychelles, which have the highest variance between women and men. In Tanzania, Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, and Swaziland, women are slightly less optimistic than men.

## Background

> *"Respond only and you'll be responding forever. Prevent only, and you ignore the survivor in front of you."*[3]

In the SADC region as elsewhere, there is beginning to be a paradigm shift on Gender Based Violence (GBV) from response to prevention. In July 2017, UN Women convened a meeting in Johannesburg, South Africa that brought together several practitioners and experts on GBV across the globe. The take home message from the three-day conference was the need to rethink and asses existing GBV prevention and response strategies and focus more on evidence-based interventions through collection of reliable data.

GBV remains the most telling indicator of the inequalities between women and men. Centuries of acceptance have entrenched and normalised GBV, necessitating radical counter-measures by governments, civil society and communities at large.

SADC countries have made progress in addressing GBV including legislative and criminal justice responses, measuring incidence and costing of GBV, awareness raising, women's empowerment programmes, community-based social norm programmes, and health-based interventions. There has been an increase in initiatives to work with men and boys to change their perceptions around gender equality (Aguayo et al., 2016)[4]. More and more evidence proves that GBV is perpetuated by the culture of silence exacerbated by the underlying gender norms, discriminatory laws and policies and socioeconomic structures (Catholic Relief Services, 2010)[5]. When victims decide to speak out, they run the risk of being shamed more than the perpetrators.

The past year has witnessed a groundswell of societal outrage in the form of social media campaigns as people across the globe come together to speak out against GBV. Governments and civil society are escalating efforts to respond to GBV. GBV has been mainstreamed into human rights, public health and economic development discourse. However, new forms of GBV keep mutating and emerging. Examples include cyber GBV and violence against the LGBTI communities.

## Measuring GBV

GBV is often referred to as the "silent epidemic." One of the biggest challenges in addressing GBV is the lack of reliable and adequate data. Some of the reasons why victims rarely report GBV include social stigma, societal and cultural attitudes and pressures. In many settings, the police system and even the health sector are deeply entrenched in patriarchal norms. Women do not feel that they will be heard, or that their reports will be taken seriously.[6]

[3] https://www.usaid.gov/gbv
[4] Aguayo, F., Kimelman, P., Saavedra, J., Kato-Wallace. (2016). Engaging Men in Public Policies for the Prevention of Violence Against Women and Girls. Santiago: EME/CulturaSalud. Washington, D.C.: Promundo-US. Panama City: UN Women and UNFPA.

Some countries have taken a positive step forward by including the Domestic Violence Module in their Demographic Health Survey (DHS). While this is commendable, the questions appended to the survey do not provide the data necessary for a full prevalence survey.

**Table 5.3: Status of DHS Surveys in SADC countries**

| Domestic violence module (most recent survey) | | No Domestic violence Module | | No DHS |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Country*** | ***Year*** | ***Country*** | ***Year*** | |
| Angola | 2015 | Botswana | 1988 | Mauritius |
| DRC | 2013-14 | Lesotho | 2014 | Seychelles |
| Malawi | 2015-16 | Madagascar | 2008-09 | |
| Mozambique | 2011 | Swaziland | 2006-07 FGM and child labour | |
| Namibia | 2013 | | | |
| South Africa | 2016 | | | |
| Tanzania | 2015-16 | | | |
| Zambia | 2013-14 | | | |
| Zimbabwe | 2015 | | | |

*Source: DHS Programme Website[7] in Regional Barometer 2016.*

Furthermore, as illustrated in Table 5.3, only nine SADC countries have adopted the Domestic Violence Module; four countries are still to adopt the module. Mauritius and Seychelles have never conducted a DHS survey.[8] The fact that only 60% of SADC countries have a DHS is a key reason why this could not be used as a measure in the SGDI.

**Table 5.4: Difference between the DHS and VAW Baseline Studies**

| DHS | GBV Indicators |
|---|---|
| **Scope** | |
| 30 questions | More than 150 indicators that seek to measure the prevalence, effects, drivers of the following forms of violence. |
| **Source** | |
| | Several standard, globally accepted and tested measurement tools including such as the WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence, Gender Equitable Men Scale, Harvard Trauma Scale |
| **Measures** | |
| Physical, emotional and sexual abuse in intimate relationships | Physical, sexual, psychological and economic intimate partner violence |
| Physical abuse by stranger | |
| Physical abuse in pregnancy | Physical, sexual, psychological and economic intimate partner violence in pregnancy |
| Physical violence perpetration and alcohol | GBV violence perpetration and alcohol, child abuse, attitudes, demographic factors |
| **Rape by non-partner** | |
| | Rape and sexual assault by a partner, stranger, acquaintance or family member, experienced by adults and in childhood |
| Help seeking behaviour | Help seeking behavior (medical, legal, police, shelter, family) and reporting, conviction patterns |
| Witnessing domestic violence of parents | Witnessing domestic violence in the home and community<br>Sexual harassment in schools, work place and public places |
| | The study also has output indicators focusing on the response mechanisms and some of prevention strategies such as campaigns |
| | Effects, reproductive health (HIV, STIs) mental (PTSD, CESD scales), physical, economic |

*Source: DHS Programme Website[7] in Regional Barometer 2016.*

[5] Catholic Relief Services. (2010). CRS Southern Africa Guidelines for Gender-Responsive Programming: How to Address Gender-Based Violence and Integrate Gender Considerations into Projects on Agriculture & Livelihoods and Health & HIV.
[6] Kim, J and M, Motsei. (2002). "Women enjoy punishment": Attitudes and experiences of gender-based violence among PHC nurses in rural South Africa, Social Science Medicine Vol 54 No 8, 1243-54.
[7] http://dhsprogram.com/Where-We-Work/Country-Main.cfm?ctry_id=39&c=Tanzania&r=1
[8] http://dhsprogram.com/topics/gender-Corner/index.cfm

GBV remains the **most** telling indicator of the inequalities between women and men

"I" stories give a **human** face to **GBV** research

Table 5.4 compares the DHS studies with the VAW Baseline Studies, showing how the latter are far more comprehensive. These gaps prompted the Gender Links VAW Baseline Studies (2010-2016). The research uses a prevalence and attitude household survey; analysis of administrative data gathered from the criminal justice system (police, courts), health services, and shelters; qualitative research of first-hand accounts of women's and men's experiences of intimate partner violence, or 'I" Stories; media monitoring and political content analysis. The flagship tool is the household prevalence and attitude survey, justified on the basis that statistics obtained from administrative data fall short as survivors do not report most incidents to police or service providers. Statistics from service providers also often cover physical and sexual assault but do not disaggregate GBV into other forms such as marital rape, emotional and economic violence. The "I" stories give a human face to all aspects of the research.

At their meeting in Maputo in February 2013, SADC Gender Ministers urged all SADC Member states to undertake VAW Baseline studies to inform their action planning[9]. Despite being costly, dedicated surveys provide the most reliable and comprehensive statistics on violence against women.[10] This underpins the VAW Baseline studies undertaken in four provinces of South Africa; Botswana, Mauritius, Lesotho, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These pilot studies focused on women's experiences, and men's perpetration of violence.

### *Adding Violence Against Men (VAM)*

Following a please by the government of Seychelles to include violence against men (VAM), GL convened a meeting in 2014 that brought together experts from various fields to strengthen the methodology. In 2016 the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs and Sports, the National Bureau of Statistics and Gender Links piloted the new methodology in the Seychelles.

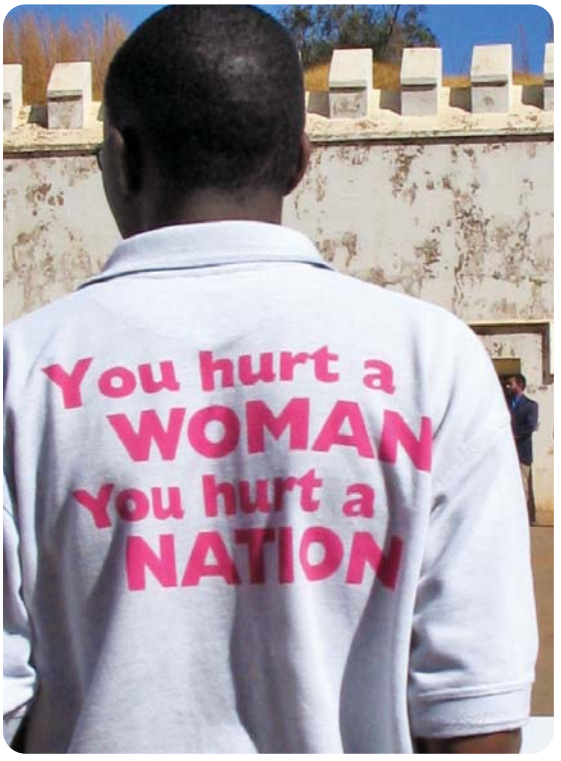
The revised questionnaire piloted in Seychelles in 2016 with 1109 participants includes a module on violence against men by women. The same questionnaire is being administered in Botswana, now undertaking the study for the second time, targeting more than 10000 participants. Corroboration of the two questionnaires provides strong evidence of the extent, causes, effects, response, support and prevention mechanisms in place in the countries where the research has been undertaken. Violence against men is not well recognised in many countries.

**Table 5.5: Participants in the GBV Indicators study**

| Country | Females | Males | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Botswana | 639 | 590 | 1229 |
| Lesotho | 1777 | 1590 | 3367 |
| Mauritius | 679 | 678 | 1357 |
| Zambia pilot study | 578 | 719 | 1297 |
| Zambia follow up study | 3963 | 3639 | 7602 |
| Four provinces of South Africa | 2800 | 2821 | 5621 |
| Zimbabwe | 4507 | 3847 | 8354 |
| Seychelles | 578 | 531 | 1109 |
| Total | 15521 | 14415 | 29936 |
| Botswana current target | | | 10 253 |

*Source: VAW/GBV Baseline Studies 2010-2017, Gender Links.*

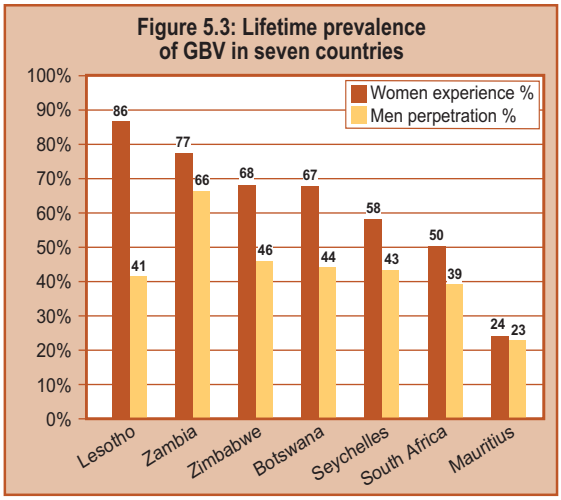
Overall, 29936 participants have been interviewed in the six countries: 1229 in Botswana; 3567 in Lesotho, 1357 in Mauritius; 1297 in the Zambia pilot study; 7602 in the Dimensions of Violence against Women in selected parts of Zambia study, 5621 in the South African provinces of Gauteng, Western Cape, Kwa Zulu-Natal and Limpopo and 8354 in Zimbabwe. The sample breaks down into 52% women and 48% men.




Men are joining the march against GBV. *Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

[9] Lowe-Morna, C., Dube, S. Makamure, L., Robinson, K, (2014) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).
[10] United Nations. (2007). Indicators to measure violence against women: Expert Group Meeting Report, United Nations , available at http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf (accessed June 2016).

### *Prevalence of GBV*




*Source: VAW/GBV Baseline Studies Seven Countries, Gender Links.*

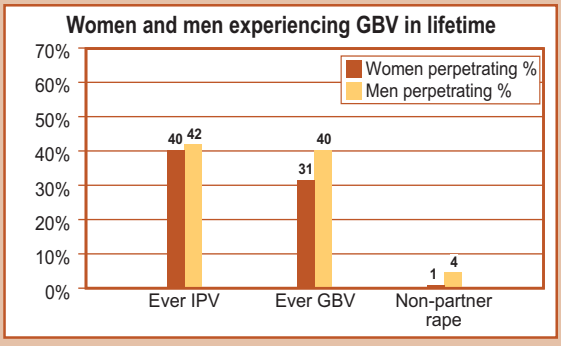
Figure 5.3 shows that 86% of women in Lesotho, 77% of women in selected parts of Zambia, 68% of women in Zimbabwe, 67% of women in Botswana, 58% of women in Seychelles, 50% of women in South Africa's Gauteng, Western Cape, Kwa Zulu-Natal and Limpopo provinces and 24% of women in Mauritius have experienced GBV over their lifetime. A higher proportion of women reported experiencing violence than the proportion of men that admitted to perpetrating violence in all seven countries. However, the extent to which men admit to such behaviour is high in all the countries, and is almost equal in Mauritius. The Seychelles study introduced a new dimension - violence against men.

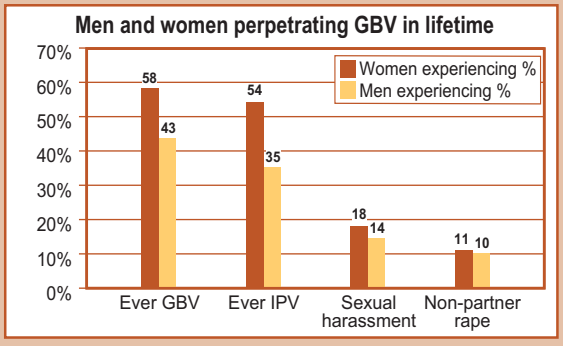
Seychelles **1st** to conduct GBV **study** on both women and men

**Protocol@Work**

**Seychelles: GBV affects women and men**

In 2016, Seychelles pioneered a comprehensive study on GBV as experienced and perpetrated by both women and men, including those in same sex relationships.



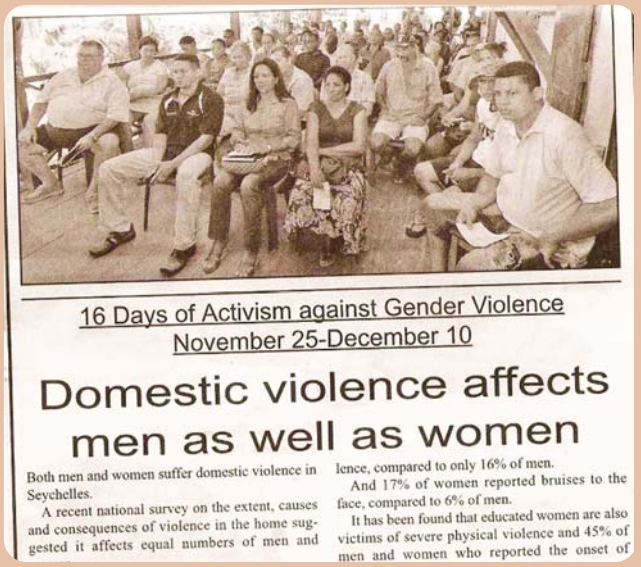




58% of women and 43% of experienced some form of GBV at least once in their lifetime. 54% of ever-partnered women and 35% of ever-partnered men experienced some form of violence (physical, sexual, emotional or economical) by their partner. Eighteen percent of women and 14% of men experienced sexual harassment either in school at work or in public places. Meanwhile a tenth of women (11%) and men (10%) revealed they experienced rape at the hands of a non-partner.

With regard to perpetration almost equal proportions of men (42%) and women (40%) perpetrated some form violence against their intimate partner at least once in their lifetime. A third of women and 40% confirm that perpetrated some of violence in their lifetime. Only one percent of women and 4% of men disclosed that they raped someone who was not their partner at some point in their lives. Striking from the findings was the unmatched rate of underreporting of violence more especially by men. Not many of the participants were willing to disclose their experiences or perpetration particularly in the 12 months' prior the interview. More notably men were not willing to be interviewed by fellow men but rather preferred women. This could point to a culture of silence embedded within the male population in Seychelles and thus giving impetus for the engagement of men in gender issues.

Seychelles still has not enacted a specific law to address GBV. Currently the Family Violence Act is the only law being used to regulate GBV by offering protection to victims of family violence through protection orders. The 1996 Amendment to the Penal Code 130-153 outlaws' sexual abuses and allows for prosecution for rape within marriage or relationships. In 2007, the Ministry of Health and Social Development launched the National Strategy for Domestic Violence 2008-2012. A key strategic challenge faced by Seychelles and all SADC countries is that there is no accurate measure of the true extent of GBV. Having established the magnitude, effects and some of the drivers of GBV, this study, therefore, provides a platform for Seychelles to devise well informed, evidenced based strategies to dress GBV

*(Source: Seychelles GBV Baseline Study)*



16 Days of Activism against Gender Violence
November 25-December 10

**Domestic violence affects men as well as women**

Both men and women suffer domestic violence in Seychelles.

A recent national survey on the extent, causes and consequences of violence in the home suggested it affects equal numbers of men and lence, compared to only 16% of men.

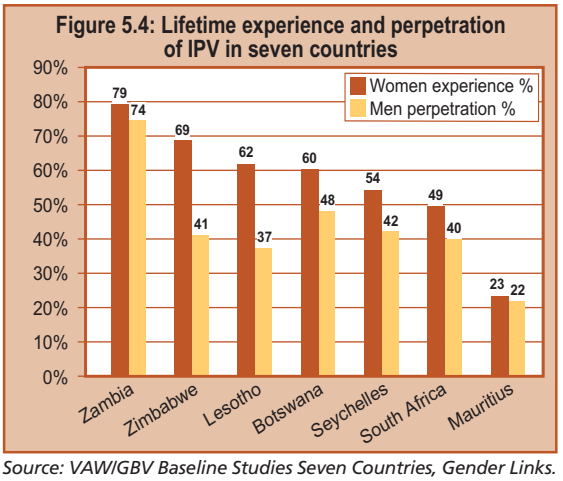
And 17% of women reported bruises to the face, compared to 6% of men.

It has been found that educated women are also victims of severe physical violence and 45% of men and women who reported the onset of

Article by Gender Links during 16 Days of Activism.

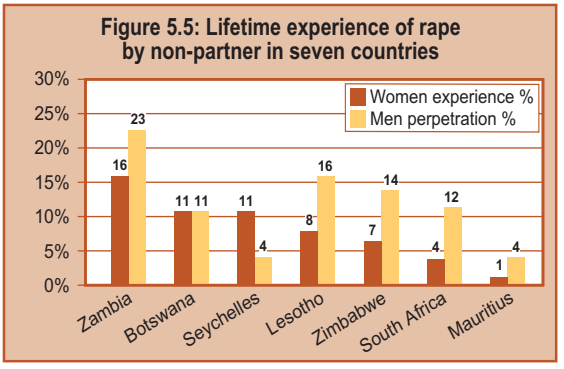
Emotional violence is the most common form of IPV in SADC

***The most predominant form of GBV experienced by women and perpetrated by men in the seven countries occurs within intimate partnerships.*** This ranges from 69% in Zambia and Zimbabwe to 23% in Mauritius. In all seven countries, the most common form of IPV is emotional violence - a form of violence usually not addressed in police statistics.




*Source: VAW/GBV Baseline Studies Seven Countries, Gender Links.*

Figure 5.4 shows that 79% of women in selected areas of Zambia, 69% in Zimbabwe, 62% in Lesotho, 60% in Botswana, 54% in Seychelles, 49% in the four provinces of South Africa and 23% of women in Mauritius have experienced IPV in their lifetime. In all seven countries, a lower proportion of men admitted to perpetrating IPV.




*Source: VAW/GBV Baseline Studies Seven Countries, Gender Links.*

Figure 5.5 shows that Zambia recorded the highest proportion of both experience and perpetration rates of non-partner rape when compared with the other SADC countries in which GL conducted the VAW study. In terms of experience, Botswana (11%) and Seychelles (11%) had the second highest proportion of rape, followed by Lesotho (8%), Zimbabwe (7%) four provinces of South Africa (4%) and Mauritius (1%). Lesotho (16%) had the second highest recorded perpetration after Zambia (22%). Lesotho came third (16%) followed by Zimbabwe (14%), South Africa (12%) and lastly Seychelles and Mauritius at 4%. Common to all the settings except in Botswana and Seychelles, researchers found perpetration rates higher than experience rates. This is powerful evidence of the high level of sexual assault in the region.

## Femicide

Femicide and/or gender-related killings are reported to be on the rise across the globe.[11] Reasons include IPV, honor killings and witchcraft to mention a

[11] Laurent, C. The Killing of Women and Girls Around the World. Academic Council on the United Nations System (ACUNS) Vienna Liaison Office. Available at http://acuns.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/Claire-Laurent.pdf (accessed 3 August 2017).

few. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) estimates that each year 5,000 women are murdered by family members across the globe in honour killings.[12] According to Africa Check, between April and December 2016, the South African police recorded 14,333 murders - 1,713 women (Makou, 2017)[13]. As the police do not record the relationship between the victim and perpetrator it is not possible to deduce the proportion of femicide cases. However, a study on female homicide in South Africa showed intimate femicide to be the leading cause of female homicide in the country.[14] In June 2017, during a National Men's Dialogue against Femicide, the Minister of Justice and Constitutional Development TM Masutha announced that rape and infanticide would be treated as priority crimes.[15]

### *New forms of violence-lack of data*

Dealing with new forms of violence such as hate crimes and cyber bullying is even more challenging due to lack of data to understand their scope and prevalence.

### *Hate crimes*

Hate crimes include violence related to race, ethnicity, religion, gender or sexual orientation. There are continuing reports in the media of violence targeted against Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex persons (LGBTI). Gender non-conforming identities have been perceived to threaten traditional norms of masculinity and femininity, undermining what it means being 'real/proper' women and men. Women and girls who are either lesbian, perceived to be lesbian, or both, are often subjected to so-called "corrective rape", including gang rapes and forced marriages. According to the Seychelles GBV study (2016) women and men in same sex relationships experience intimate partner violence like their counterparts in heterogeneous relationships. Emotional violence was the highest form of IPV experienced by both women and men in same sex relationships in this study. Most cases of violence against LGBTI people go unreported due to fear of secondary victimisation, which results in most survivors avoiding or delaying accessing healthcare, criminal justice services and psychosocial support (SIDA, 2015)[16]. In 2014, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights passed a resolution in which it condemned violence and other human rights violations based on real or imputed sexual orientation and gender identity (Human Rights Council, 2015)[17]. South Africa was the first country in the SADC to draft a Bill that seeks to provide protection for groups that are vulnerable to targeted crimes because of their race, sexual orientation or gender, national origin, occupation and disability.

The South African "Prevention and Combating of Hate Crimes and Hate Speech Bill" currently with the Department of Justice and Constitu-tional Development has received mixed reactions. Some conservative religious groups demand the right to speak out against homosexuality. Human rights groups defend the constitutionally-entrenched right of freedom to expression. Politicians' point to the political agenda of the Bill being to silence critics of government.[18]

### *Conflict related violence*

GBV in conflict and post-conflict areas can take many forms including rape, slavery, forced impregnation/miscarriages, kidnapping/trafficking, forced nudity, and disease transmission, with rape and sexual abuse being among the most common.[19] In places such as DRC, mass rapes and sexual violence are used extensively as a weapon of war particularly in the Kivu provinces Sexual violence is instigated by both government forces and rebel militia groups[20]. While in most cases the violence is targeted against both women and men, the former are always at greater risk. However, not much is known because of the fear and at times secrecy associated with this kind of violence.

Intimate femicide is a **leading** cause of female homicide in South Africa

[12] Ibid.
[13] Makou, G. (2017). Femicide in South Africa: 3 numbers about the murdering of women investigated, Available at https://africacheck.org/reports/femicide-sa-3-numbers-murdering-women-investigated/ (accessed 15 July 2017).
[14] Vetten, L. (2013). Racial scare-mongering in South Africa makes light of women's murders available at https://africacheck.org/2013/07/17/racial-scare-mongering-makes-light-of-womens-murders-2/ (accessed 14 July 2017).
[15] Keynote Address by the Deputy Minister of Justice and Constitutional Development, the Hon JH Jeffery, MP at the National Men's Dialogue against Femicide, Burgers Park Hotel, Pretoria, 20 June 2017. Available at http://www.gov.za/speeches/deputy-minister-john-jeffery-national-mens-dialogue-against-femicide-20-jun-2017-0000 (accessed 3 August 2017).
[16] Sida .(2015). Preventing and Responding to Gender-Based Violence: Expressions and Strategies available at http://www.sida.se/contentassets/3a820dbd152f4fca98bacde8a8101e15/preventing-and-responding-to-gender-based-violence.pdf (accessed 3 July 2017).
[17] Human Rights Council. (2015). Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Discrimination and violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity. United Nations.
[18] Wasserman, Z. (2017). Hate Crimes and Hate Speech Bill: the good, the bad - and the unspeakable. Sonke Gender Justice Network' available at http://www.genderjustice.org.za/article/hate-crimes-hate-speech-bill-good-bad-unspeakable/ (accessed 12 July).
[19] Manjoo, R and C, McRaith. (2011). Gender-Based Violence and Justice in Conflict and Post-Conflict Areas. Cornell International Law Journal Vol. 44.
[20] Home Office, (2017) Country Policy and Information Note Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC): Women fearing gender-based harm or violence (online) available at https://www.justice.gov/eoir/page/file/976636/download (accessed 9 July 2017).

| Table 5.6: Key baseline indicators on GBV against | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Targets** | **Angola** | **Botswana** | **DRC** | **Lesotho** | **Madagascar** | **Malawi** | **Mauritius** |
| **LEGISLATION** | | | | | | | |
| **Laws on domestic violence** | Domestic violence Act- July 2011 | Domestic Violence Act 2008 | No, VAW is covered in the Constitution | No, Domestic Violence Bill in progress. Covered by Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 9 of 2006 | No, covered by Penal Code | Prevention of Domestic Violence Act 2006 | Protection from Domestic Violence Act 2004 |
| **Laws on sexual assault** | No | Sexual Offences Bill 2010, currently covered in the Penal code addresses defilement, incest, rape | Law Sexual Violence 2006 | Sexual Offences Act 2003 | Sexual Offences Act, 2000 | Penal code, Gender Equality Act 2013 covers sexual harassment, no specific stand-alone act/law | Sex Discri-mination Act, Sexual Offences Bill |
| **Comprehensive treatment, including PEP** | Yes | Only policy | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Only in policy |
| **Specific legislative provisions to prevent human trafficking** | 1886 Penal Code was amended February 2014 to prohibit all forms of trafficking | Anti-Human Trafficking Act, 2014 (Act No. 32 of 2014) | Law on Human Trafficking especially women and girls 2008 | Human Trafficking Act of 2011 | Law on the fight Against Human Trafficking and Sex Tourism, 2007 | Trafficking in Persons Act 2015 | Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act of 2009 |
| **Sexual harassment** | No | Legislation recommended as part of Employment Act, Public Service Act 2000 | Sexual Offences Act | Sexual Offences Act | Penal Code amended by Acts | The Malawi Constitution (sect. 24 (2) (a). Gender Equality Act | Labour act; Sex Discrimination Act |

| the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mozambique** | **Namibia** | **Seychelles** | **South Africa** | **Swaziland** | **Tanzania** | **Zambia** | **Zimbabwe** |
| Law on Domestic Violence Against Women 2009 | Combating of Domestic Violence Act (No. 4, 2003) | Yes (Family Violence Act) | Domestic Violence Act 2006 | Domestic Violence Bill in progress | No, partly covered by Law Marriage Act 1976 | | Domestic Violence Act 2006, Criminal codification and Reform Act, chapter nine |
| Penal code | Combating Rape Act 1999 | No | Sexual Offences Act of 2009 | The Crimes Act/1889, the Girls and Women's Protection Act/1920, the Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act No 67/1938 and common law crimes covering rape, incest, indecent assault | Included Penal code. Miscellaneous Act 2002 section 130 of penal code | | Included in Criminal codification and Reform Act. moved from Sexual Offences Act |
| Yes | Only in policy | The Ministry of Health has developed procedures on standardised response to GBV including sexual assault | Yes | There is provision within the national guidelines for antiretroviral treatment and Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) | Gender Based Violence Policy and Management Guidelines, Ministry of Health | | In Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan 2011 -2015 |
| Law Against Human Trafficking particularly Women and Children, 2008 | Trafficking in persons in Namibia is criminalized under the Prevention of Organized Crime Act (POCA). The act was made operative in 2009 | Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons Act 2014 | Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 2013 | People Trafficking and People Smuggling (Prohibition) Act, 2009 Human Trafficking Task Force and Human Trafficking Unit | Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2008 | | Trafficking in Persons act 2014 previously Criminal Codification and Reform Act, Section 83 |
| Brief mention in labour law; Article 66 (2) | Labour Act 11 of 2007, partly addressed in the Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003 and Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000 | Public Officers' Ethics Act of 2008 Section 16 Ministry of Education policy; Ombudsperson | Protection from Harassment Act, 2011 | Crimes Act of 1889- "inappropriate sexual behaviour"; outdated! New progressive proposed provision in the sexual offences and domestic violence bill | Penal Code; The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act 1998; Employ-ment and Labour Relations Act, 2004 | | Labour Relations Amendment Act, under "unfair labour practice" |

| Targets | Angola | Botswana | DRC | Lesotho | Madagascar | Malawi | Mauritius |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **SERVICES** | | | | | | | |
| **Accessible, affordable and specialised legal services, including legal aid, to survivors of GBV** | Yes | None; NGOs provide this. Legal Aid Pilot Project under the Attorney General's Chambers | Yes, done with support of UN agencies | Ministry of Justice legal aid service stretched; NGOs step in | Yes | Through Legal Aid Dept. with limited funds and human resource. Few NGOs also try to provide this | Yes, 6 Family support bureaux's are in operation at the Ministry of Gender. Psychological counselling and legal advice are provided to survivors of GBV |
| **Specialised facilities including places of shelter and safety** | Yes | Minimal state support; mostly NGOs | Yes, but very limited because of funds | Yes, there are police specialised units, but only one state shelter in Maseru | Yes | Minimal state support; Victim Support Units under Malawi Police Service provide this few NGOs | The National Children's Council operating under the aegis of the Ministry runs one shelter. Two shelters run by an NGO and a Trust aid partly funded by the Ministry |
| **COORDINATION, MONITORING AND EVALUATION** | | | | | | | |
| **Integrated approaches: National Action Plans** | National Action Plan Against Domestic Violence | Draft National Action Plan to End GBV | Yes, NAP is available | Yes | Draft National Action Plan to end GBV | Yes | National Action Plan to combat Domestic Violence adopted by cabinet in 2007 |
| **Construct a composite index for measuring gender based violence** | Yes, Integrated Gender Indicators system | Yes, GBV Indicators | Yes, involved at African level to provide indicator | Yes GBV Indicators | No | No | Yes, GBV Indicators |
| **Provide baseline data on gender based violence** | No | Yes, GBV indicators study concluded | Yes, studies conducted with the support of UN agencies are available | Yes, GBV study conducted and being finalised | No | No | Yes, GBV Indicators study concluded |

Table 5.6 shows that:

- 11 out of the fifteen countries have laws on domestic violence.
- 13 have sexual assault legislation.
- 15 countries offer comprehensive treatment including PEP to survivors of violence although there is no legislation.
- 14 countries have legislation on sexual harassment.
- 15 countries have laws on human trafficking.
- 15 countries offer some form of accessible, affordable and specialised legal services, including legal aid, to survivors of GBV.

| Mozambique | Namibia | Seychelles | South Africa | Swaziland | Tanzania | Zambia | Zimbabwe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | |
| Limited government support but services from Association of Women Lawyers | Yes and Legal Resources Centre | Yes | Yes, through the Legal Aid Board, plus NGO support, and Thuthuzelas- but not affordable to run | There is no specialised or affordable legal aid service to survivors of GBV. The limited services offered by NGOs are compromised by a lack of funds | Ministry of Home Affairs is in the process of establishing Gender and Children's desks - guidelines are being developed | | Ministry of Justice Legal Aid, Musasa Project and WLSA |
| NGOs main provider of services but face resource constraint | Mainly NGOs | None | Yes, but mainly NGOs that depend on foreign funding | The amendment of the Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act (section 223) facilitated the formation of a children's court Swaziland launched a first of its kind, a one-stop centre in Mbabane | No places of safety - only police stations | | Minimal state support; NGOs main provider of services but face resource constraints |
| | | | | | | | |
| Yes | Yes, National Action Plan to End Gender Violence | Yes, but strategy only focuses on Domestic Violence | 365 Day National Action Plan to End Gender Violence | 365 Day National Action Plan to End Gender Violence in place launched, draft | National Plan of Action to End Gender Violence in Place since 2001 | | National Gender Based Violence Strategy and Action Plan in place |
| No | No | Yes, GBV Indicators | Yes, but only 4 provinces GBV Indicators | No | No | | National GBV Information System now in place |
| No | No | Yes, GBV Indicators | Baselines established in four provinces and one in process | No | No | | Yes, GBV Indicators study concluded |

- 14 countries offer specialised facilities including places of shelter and safety.
- While all countries have had NAP to end GBV, most of the NAPs have expired. Three countries have valid NAPs.
- Seven countries have undertaken the GBV Baseline Studies (Mauritius, Botswana, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Lesotho).

**11** countries in SADC have **laws** on domestic violence

## Response




**Article 20.1** States Parties shall:
(a) enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender based violence;
(b) **develop strategies to prevent and eliminate all harmful social and cultural practices, such as child marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancies, slavery and female genital mutilation.**
perpetrators of gender based violence, including domestic violence, rape, femicide, sexual harassment, female genital mutilation and all other forms of gender based violence are tried by a court of competent jurisdiction.
**Article 20.3** States Parties shall, review, reform and **strengthen** their laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence to:
(a) eliminate gender bias; and
(b) ensure justice and fairness are accorded to survivors of gender based violence in a manner that ensures dignity, protection and respect.

The effectiveness of domestic violence legislation depends on the political commitment, capacity of civil society to hold government accountable, appropriate training for all service providers, cross-agency coordination, public support, and adequate budgets at all levels of government.[21] In line with article 20.1(a) which calls for state parties to enact legislation prohibiting all forms of violence, **to date 11 countries have laws on domestic violence**. DRC, Lesotho, Tanzania and Swaziland are still to enact laws on Domestic violence. **Thirteen countries have laws on sexual assault including rape**. Despite the existence of these laws, some of them still have grey areas and loopholes that need some strengthening. For instance, most countries have legislation criminalising rape, but countries like Zambia, DRC and Botswana do not address marital rape in their legislation. Malawi recently passed the Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations Act of 2015. This criminalises marital rape. Thus, it is imperative to strengthen laws to cover these gaps.

Similarly, there is need to strengthen procedures to ensure are survivors are protected. An example is the South African Domestic Violence Act (1998) which gives a legal mandate to the police (SAPS) to assist victims of violence. However, the law does not give an equal legal mandate to relevant key players such as the Departments of Social Development or Housing, or Health, all of which play significant roles in the lives of victims of domestic violence[22].

The revised provision adds a new clause (Article 20.1b) which calls for sates to develop strategies to prevent and eliminate all harmful social and cultural practices, such as **child marriage, forced marriage, teenage pregnancies, slavery and female genital mutilation**. In recent years, political leaders, civil society and the donor community have begun to recognise the importance of addressing **child marriage** in Africa (Girls not Brides, 2015).[23] Following a Regional Dialogue on Child Marriages that was convened in February 2015 in Johannesburg, South Africa, the SADC leaders committed to develop a SADC Model Law on Child Marriage. Subsequently, in June 2016, the 39th Plenary Assembly Session of the SADC Parliamentary Forum adopted the Model Law on eradicating child marriage and protecting those already in marriage[24]. The Model Law serves as a standard guide for member states pertaining to the domestication, ratification, reservations of standards in international and regional instruments to deal with the problem of child marriage. The law also prohibits forced marriage. While the Model Law provides clear definitions of terms - such as 'child' and 'child marriage', there is still widespread contention about what these terms mean or should mean in different contexts (African Law Service website)[25].

[21] Sardenberg, C .(2011). 'What Makes Domestic Violence Legislation More Effective?' Pathways Policy Paper, Pathways of Women's Empowerment RPC, Brighton
[22] Machisa, M, T and Musariri, L. (2013). Peace Begins at Home, the Gender Based Violence Indicators Study, Limpopo Province of South Africa. Gender Links
[23] http://www.girlsnotbrides.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Child-marriage-in-Africa-A-brief-by-Girls-Not-Brides.pdf
[24] http://www.riatt-esa.org/blog/2016/6/16/child-marriage-and-early-pregnancy
[25] African Law Society Website available at http://gavel.africanlii.org/node/24 (accessed 30 July 2017)

Some of the efforts to address child marriages in the region include the four-year African Union Campaign to End Child Marriage, which started in 2014. The Campaign saw member states adopting the African Common Position on Child marriage, resulting in countries developing national strategies and action plans to address the issue. **Fifteen countries have launched the Campaign to date**.

The African Law Service provides an update on law Reform in the SADC region

- In January 2016, the Zimbabwe Constitutional Court struck down section 22(1) of the Marriage Act, which allowed children under the age of 18 to marry.
- In South Africa, the South African Law Reform Commission (SALRC) released publication of its *Revised Discussion Paper on Project 138: The Practice of Ukuthwala*. The Revised Discussion Paper contains a draft Bill, tentatively titled the *Prohibition of Forced Marriages and Child Marriages Bill*.
- The government of Zambia on 8 April 2016 adopted a national strategy to end child marriage.
- Mozambique, adopted a National Strategy to Prevent and Combat Child Marriage.
- In 2015, Malawi's parliament removed from its Constitution a provision allowing children between the ages of 15 and 18 to marry with parental consent and also increasing the legal age at marriage to 18 years from 15 years (Marriage, Divorce and Family Relations Bill, 2015).
- One of traditional rulers in Malawi, Chief Inkosi Kachindamoto annulled over 330 customary marriages in June 2015 - of which 175 were girl wives and 155 were boy fathers in the Central Region of Malawi.[26]
- ***Female genital mutilation*** is not so prevalent in the SADC region but occurs in some parts of the DRC and Tanzania. In Tanzania, the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act, a 1998 amendment to the Penal Code, prohibits FGM (Gender Links, 2011)[27]. Similarly, DRC passed a law in 2006, introducing amendments to provisions on sexual violence in the Penal Code, including one against genital mutilation.

## Tracking abuse - Technology and the law

Monitoring and tracking of abuse continues to be the major hindrance to effective response to GBV. In order to deal with under reporting of violence, especially among children, Tears Foundation has come up with an application that aims to identify and record signs of abuse in children under 12.




Young women lead the march against gender violence in South Africa. *Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

Ending Child Marriages is a **key** priority for the SADC region

[26] Ibid.
[27] Gender Links, (2011). Zero tolerance to female genital mutilation (FGM). Available at http://genderlinks.org.za/barometer-newsletter/zero-tolerance-to-female-genital-mutilation-fgm-2011-02-01/ (accessed 30 July 2017).

Protocol@Work

Almost all countries have specific laws on HIV

**South Africa: TEARS Foundation innovative Medi-App for recording abuse**

Tears Foundation is a South African NGO specialising in providing access to crisis intervention, advocacy, counselling, and prevention education services for those impacted by domestic violence, sexual assault and child sexual abuse. The organisation has invented a medical tool called Medi-app. The Medi-App is an African first innovative tool that allows medical professionals to electronically record and track suspected abuse of children under 12 years.



16 days of Activims - TEARS Team. *Photo: Tears Foundation*

Using Medi-App, medical professionals are able to track if multiple entries have been made for a single individual, pull up other electronic reports, and utilize this information in order to facilitate reporting suspected abuse and violence. Estimated statistics shows that 88% of child abuse goes unreported. The innovation promotes regular use of real-time data, making it easy to capture and understand whilst creating a greater awareness of the rate of child maltreatment and GBV. Accurate data and statistics of child abuse and GBV have been impossible to obtain and Medi-App aims to bridge that gap.

The main objective is to provide a "tool" or technological solution that will be used by medical professionals, to fight the scourge of GBV, through making information available to those who are allowed to see it and readily providing reporting capabilities to enhance the capacity of the medical professionals.

Tears Foundation took various steps to implement the project. A needs analysis assessment was conducted in 2013/14 with different NGO's and medical professionals. Medi-App has successfully completed its Proof of Concept in 2015 which was conducted over an 8-week period at four medical facilities. Six clinicians participated - working with a trial base of under 12's._156 children's names were entered into the Medi-App (concern around abuse, confirmed abuse or a level of suspicion by the medical professional) (26 boys/130 girls). Within these numbers, cases were made at police stations that have been taken further. There is consensus that Medi-App, with a few further adjustments, will become a tool that can be used (with a level of ease) by medical facilities nationwide in the fight against abuse. It is envisaged that the 2nd stage in 2017 will be larger, with more facilities, over a longer period of time.

Medi-App is a multi-sectorial service that actively engages and collaborates with various partners. Engaging multiple sectors will ensure that the technology is implemented nationally and will guarantee sustainability. Medical professionals have experienced first-hand the opportunity they have to save the lives of children, stopping the abuse before it becomes a problem that they have to deal with receiving counselling as an adult. With the implementation of the software, different challenges were encountered, such as lack of funding, difficulty in getting other medical professionals and facilities to purchase the software. The project is struggling in obtaining prioritisation from the government.

*(Source: Charlene Roberson- Protocol @ work summit 2016)*

A study by Eba (2015) entitled *HIV-specific legislation in sub-Saharan Africa: A comprehensive human rights analysis*[28] established that 27 sub-Saharan African countries (including six SADC) had adopted HIV-specific legislation to address the legal issues raised by the HIV and AIDS epidemics. However, most these laws "(over) focus on the alleged sexual offender at the expense of the survivor" to the extent that most of them do not cover provision of PEP or other necessary medical and psychological services to survivors of sexual offences. Almost all countries in the SADC have specific laws on HIV. However, most of these countries only cover provision of PEP in their national guidelines and strategies and not in the laws.

[28] Eba, PM. (2015) 'HIV-specific legislation in sub-Saharan Africa: A comprehensive human rights analysis'15 African Human Rights Law Journal 224-262 available at http://www.ahrlj.up.ac.za/eba-p-m#pgfId-1129379 (accessed 30 July 2017).

Despite lack of laws the provision of Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) has seen a great improvement over the years. 15 countries now offer comprehensive treatment including PEP to survivors of violence. However, since PEP is not a statutory obligation in many countries and is often aid-dependent its provision across the region varies depending on funding and level of prioritisation by governments.

Since 2012, the United States President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR)/Emergency Plan has been tracking expenditures on HIV/AIDS initiatives across the globe using information from the Country/Regional Operational Plans (COPs/ROPs). The database highlights planned funding and actual expenditures by programme area, country, and organisation for each year that has been publicly released. The table below shows the expenditure on PEP in 12 of the SADC countries.

**Table 5.7: PEP Expenditure in the SADC 2012 - 2015**

| Country | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | GRAND TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | | | | $47,772 | **$47,772** |
| Botswana | | $74,421 | $24,276 | $35,064 | **$133,761** |
| DRC | | | $792,588 | $293,775 | **$1,086,363** |
| Lesotho | | $153,245 | $47,533 | | **$200,778** |
| Malawi | | $292,944 | $173,469 | $53,329 | **$519,742** |
| Mozambique | $2,193,234 | $2,755,484 | $4,396,519 | $4,267,034 | **$13,612,271** |
| Namibia | $28,021 | $210,677 | $31,626 | $96,872 | **$367,196** |
| South Africa | $1,675,328.00 | $3,643,542.0 | $1,814,647 | $1,274,336 | **$8,407,853** |
| Namibia | | $21,512 | $123,598 | $4,511 | **$149,621** |
| Tanzania | $852,268 | $956,327 | $1,889,873 | $1,193,469 | **$4,891,937** |
| Zambia | $156,148 | $491,317 | $371,567 | $533,598 | **$1,552,630** |
| Zimbabwe | | | $4,551 | $3,541 | **$8,092** |
| TOTAL | **$4,904,999** | **$8,599,469** | **$9,670,247** | **$7,803,301** | $30,978,016 |

*Source: PEPFAR Country/Regional Operational Plans Database[29].*

Table 5.7 shows that to date more than $30 million has gone towards providing PEP in 13 SADC countries. Mauritius and Seychelles are not included in the database. The expenditure over the 4 year period ranged from $8,092 in Zimbabwe to more than $13 million in Mozambique. While these figures show some activities in all the countries, they do not show if the actual need is being fully met. There is need to look at these figures in relation to the unmet need in order to ascertain the impact of the funds. Over all, governments need to legalise the provision of PEP as is stipulated by the Protocol.

All **15** countries now offer PEP to survivors of violence

## Trafficking in Persons (TIP)

**Article 20.5** States Parties shall:
(a) Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent **trafficking in persons** and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society;
(b) Put in place mechanisms by which all relevant law enforcement authorities and institutions should eradicate national, regional and international **trafficking in persons' syndicates**;
(c) Put in place harmonised data collection mechanisms to improve **research** and reporting on the types and modes of trafficking to ensure effective programming and monitoring.

[29] http://copsdata.amfar.org

(d) Establish bilateral and multilateral agreements to run joint actions against **trafficking in persons** among origin, transit and destination countries; and
(e) Ensure capacity building, awareness raising and sensitisation campaigns on **trafficking in persons** are put in place for law enforcement officials.

Combating trafficking in persons is a **priority** for SADC

Trafficking in persons has become a political priority. **All SADC member states have enacted laws against human trafficking**. At their meeting in Gaborone in June 2016, the SADC Gender Minsters have adopted a 10 Year SADC Strategic Plan of Action on Combating Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children (2009-2019). The aim of the plan is to guide efforts to combat TIP in the region (SADC Secretariat, 2016). According to the SADC TIP Baseline report of 2016 only 50 victims across the region were identified as victims of TIP, pointing to the limited capacity by member states to detect, investigate and prosecute TIP cases (Ibid:55).

The major challenge remains the tracking and monitoring of victims of trafficking, thus the importance of new provision calls for an improvement in research to enhance understanding of the crime. The United States Department of State annually prepares a Global Report using information from various sources tracking human trafficking in all countries across the globe. In the report, the Department places each country onto one of four tiers, as mandated by the United States Congress Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (TVPA) which stipulates that governments should make serious efforts to prohibit and eliminate various forms of trafficking in persons and punish acts of such trafficking. Therefore, the analyses are based on the extent of governments' efforts to reach compliance with the TVPA's minimum standards for the elimination of human trafficking consistent with the Palermo Protocol (Department of State, 2016) . The report classified SADC countries as follows:

**Table 5.8: Compliance of SADC States with Minimum Standards for Trafficking**[31]

| Tier | Characteristics | SADC countries 2015 | SADC countries 2016 | Comment |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Countries whose governments fully comply with the TVPA minimum standards. | None | None | |
| 2 | Countries whose governments do not fully comply with the TVPA's minimum standards, but are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance with those standards. | Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Seychelles, South Africa and Zambia | Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar Malawi, Mauritius Namibia South Africa and Zambia | Mozambique and Seychelles moved down from tier 2 to tier 2 watch list, Botswana Lesotho, Mauritius and Namibia upgraded to tier 2 |
| 2 - Watch list | Countries whose governments do not fully comply with the TVPA's minimum standards, but are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance with those standards and: The absolute number of victims of severe forms of trafficking is very significant or is significantly increasing; There is a failure to provide evidence of increasing efforts to combat severe forms of trafficking in persons from the previous year; or the determination that a country is making significant effort to bring itself into compliance with minimum standards was based on commitments by the country to take additional future steps over the next year. | Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Mauritius and Namibia | DRC, Mozambique, Seychelles, Swaziland, Tanzania | DRC remained in tier 2 watch list |
| 3 | Countries whose governments do not fully comply with the minimum standards and are not making significant efforts to do so. | Zimbabwe[32] | Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe remained the only country in tier 3 |

*Source: Department of State, USA. Trafficking in persons 2016 Report.*

[31] Ibid.
[32] Department of State, USA. Trafficking in persons 2015 report.

Table 5.8 shows that:

- In both 2015 and 2016 reports, no SADC country was in tier 1.
- In 2015, six countries were in tier 2. In 2016 the number rose to 9 countries, however two countries (Mozambique and Seychelles) moved down from tier 2 to tier 2 watch list, while Botswana Lesotho, Mauritius and Namibia upgraded to tier 2.
- DRC remained in tier 2 watch list while Zimbabwe remained the only country in tier 3.

**Article 20.6** States Parties shall ensure that cases of gender based violence are conducted in a gender sensitive environment.



A few countries in the region have established specialised courts to respond to GBV cases. **South Africa**'s Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJCD) has established dedicated specialised courts known as Sexual Offences Courts (SOCs) which offer special services to victims of sexual violence. As of 2013, there were 15 SOCs and six family courts that offer exclusive specialised services in the whole country. The courts offer intermediary services particularly to witnesses by conveying questions in a sensitive way, ensuring that the witness understands. The courts also have in-camera support services which entail that the victim testifies in a different room from the perpetrator to minimize secondary victimisation. The courts have child witness testifying rooms with anatomic dolls to assist child witnesses to demonstrate as they testify.

In 2012 the **Zambia**n Association of Women Judges (ZAWJ) called for the establishment of Fast Track Courts, so as to ease the suffering of victims and also to signal zero tolerance on GBV (UNDP Zambia)[33]. To date Zambia has established two fast-track courts that are equipped to be user and child friendly with improved technology to make processing of documents quicker. They are designed to allow protection for victims from intimidation and from facing their alleged perpetrators. The courts are also designed to ensure an accused person receives a fair trial. In 2016 more than 30 magistrates, prosecutors and investigators under-went training prior to the launch of the two fast track courts (UNDP Zambia)[34].





The **DRC** judicial system developed mobile gender courts which solely focus on GBV and sexual offence cases in hot spot remote communities that have no formal courtrooms and are located far from the urban centres. The courts focus more on conflict related sexual violence and have seen an increase in conviction rates of sexual crimes since inception (Southern Africa Litigation Centre).[35]

**Article 20.7** State Parties shall establish special counselling services, legal and police units to provide dedicated and sensitive services to survivors of gender violence.
**Article 23.2** State parties shall ensure accessible, effective and responsive police, prosecutorial, health, social welfare and other services to redress cases of gender based violence.

Police departments in most of the countries have created specialised units that aim to address domestic violence cases in sensitive ways.



For example, the **South African Police Service (SAPS)** has more than 800 Victim Friendly Rooms

A **few** countries in the region have established specialised courts to respond to GBV cases

[33] UNDP. Strengthening the role of adjudicators in Zambia available at http://www.zm.undp.org/content/zambia/en/home/ourwork/womenempowerment/successstories/strengthening-the-role-of-adjudicators-in-handling--gbv-cases.html (accessed 1 August 2017).
[34] UNDP. Zambia launches second fast track court, available at http://www.zm.undp.org/content/zambia/en/home/presscenter/articles/2016/03/11/zambia-launches-second-fast-track-court-to-expedite-gender-based-violence-cases-.html (accessed 1 August 2017).
[35] Southern Africa Litigation Centre website available at http://www.southernafricalitigationcentre.org/1/wp-content/uploads/2013/05/Case-Study-DRC-Mobile-Gender-Courts.pdf. (accessed 1 August 2017).

(VFR) at police stations across the country. 87 VFRs were placed at other locations such as airports, railway police stations.[36]



In **Tanzania** the government established 417 Police Gender and Children Desks (PGCDs) which deal with cases of GBV.[37]

The **Swaziland** government established the Domestic Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offenses (DCS) Unit in 2002, to provide services to survivors of violence particularly women and children. There are now child friendly units in 24 police stations.[38]





As of 2013, **Malawi** had established Victim Support Units in 34 police stations and 200 support units in 300 Traditional Authority institutions.[39]

In **Botswana** each police station has a police officer trained on GBV and other gender related matters.



**14** countries in the region have sexual harassment legislation

## Sexual harassment

**Article 22.1** State Parties shall enact legislative provisions, and adopt and implement policies, strategies and programmes which define and prohibit sexual harassment in all spheres, and provide deterrent sanctions for perpetrators of sexual harassment.

**Article 22.2** State parties shall ensure equal representation of women and men in adjudicating bodies hearing sexual harassment cases.

***Fourteen countries have sexual harassment legislation:*** Of these, only a few countries have stand-alone sexual harassment laws; in most countries this is covered in the labour laws and penal codes. Only Angola still does not have sexual harassment legislation or provisions in other laws, such cases may be prosecuted under assault and battery and defamation statutes. Sexual harassment undermines women's agency and productivity (Lowe-Morna et al., 2014)[40]. There is no reliable data to determine the representation of women and men in adjudicating bodies hearing harassment cases, however, anecdotal evidence shows that there is over representation of men in these platforms.

## Prevention

So far GBV has largely been addressed and understood through reactive strategies. In her article *Can We Reduce Violence Against Women by 50% over the Next 30 Years?*[41] Jewkes highlights the importance of focusing on prevention through prioritising evidence-based approaches, reducing fragmentation of research efforts and mobilising for funding towards violence prevention efforts.

There are three categories of prevention intervention that can be adopted[42], namely:

- ***Primary prevention***, which are interventions that are aimed at addressing gender-based violence before it occurs, in order to prevent initial perpetration or victimisation, targeted action aimed at behavioral issues and risk producing environments
- ***Secondary prevention***, that happens immediately after the violence has occurred to deal with the short term consequences, e.g. treatment, counselling.

[36] Musariri L., Nyambo, V., Machisa, M, T., Chiramba, K. (2014). The Gender Based Violence Indicators Study, Western Cape. Gender Links. Available at http://genderlinks.org.za/wpcontent/uploads/imported/articles/attachments/19466_chp6_gbv_wc_pg89-pg108lr.pdf#page/10 (accessed 1 August 2017).
[37] USAID. 2017. Police Action Planning Report available at https://aidsfree.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/2017.1.4_police-action-planning-report_v2.pdf (accessed 1 August 2017).
[38] Observer website. Available at http://www.observer.org.sz/news/74803-cops-trained-on-gbv.html (accessed 1 August 2017).
[39] United Nations. 2013. Statement by Malawi Minister available at http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw57/generaldiscussion/memberstates/malawi.pdf (accessed 1 August 2017).
[40] Lowe-Morna, C., Dube, S. Makamure, L., Robinson, K, (2014) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017)
[41] Jewkes, R. (2014). (How) Can We Reduce Violence Against Women by 50% over the Next 30 Years? PLoS Med Vol 11 No 11
[42] Centres for Disease Control and Prevention. Sexual Violence Prevention: Beginning the Dialogue. Atlanta, GA (2004) p. 3

- ***Tertiary prevention*** focuses on long term interventions after the violence has occurred, in order to address lasting consequences, including perpetrator counseling interventions.

To date, GBV has mostly been addressed through reactive strategies. Prevention efforts, to the extent they have existed, have largely been driven by the women's movement. These have focused on changing social norms, building individual empowerment and addressing underlying structures that perpetuate VAW. The primary focus, however, has been at the level of response.

Response efforts focus on developing crisis services, law enforcement interventions, and judicial sanctions. In contrast, primary prevention focuses on education and includes efforts to change individual attitudes and social norms- what a community regards as acceptable behaviour from its citizens.[43]

There is often, however, a fine line between prevention and response. Each can enhance the effectiveness of the other. For example, strong laws and sanctions against GBV can have a preventive effect. Strong rehabilitation programmes for perpetrators of GBV can help to ensure that they do not become repeat offenders. Programmes of support for women that include economic empowerment can help to ensure that women do not become repeat victims.

If strengthening primary prevention is to be achieved, it implies adopting approaches that take account of:

- Multiple spheres of influence, including norms, practices, beliefs about gender equality and women and men's role and status in society.
- Events, conditions, situations, or exposure to influences (risk factors) that result in the initiation of gender based violence.
- Individual, relationships in the domestic and other settings, community and societal links (ecological model) and how, programmatically, a response can be designed so that it overlaps these areas.
- The community, thereby removing the burden from individual action or leaving the work to gender based violence advocacy groups.

From 16 Days of Activism to 365 Days of Peace

**NATIONAL CAMPAIGN: 365 DAYS OF ACTION TO END GBV**

PREVENTION

SUPPORT

| Arenas for action | Communication for social change strategies | | | Measuring change |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Short term | Medium term | Long term | |
| **Society at large** | | | | Behaviour change |
| Political leadership | Targeted messages | GBV mainstreamed into programmes | GBV a key political issue | |
| Criminal Justice System | Tough laws | Training for personnel | Concerned as much with prevention as response | Attitudes |
| Media | Increased media coverage | More sensitive coverage | Prevention agenda | |
| Sport | Individual sportspersons take up cause | Teams take up cause at big events | GBV mainstreamed in sports training | |
| **Community** | | | | Awareness |
| Community | Mobilise community to create safe spaces | Public education & awareness campaigns | Zero tolerance for GBV in communities | |
| Traditional leadership | Training | Harmful practices | GBV a key local issue | |
| Schools | Increase security in schools | Challenging gender stereotypes | Behaviour change | |
| Religion | Spread the word | Review own practices | Lead the campaign | Information |
| **Home** | | | | |
| Abusive men | Stop violence | Join the campaign | Lead the campaign | |
| Abused woman or child | Shelter and temporary life skills | Secondary housing | Economic Empowerment | |

RESPONSE

[43] Oregon Violence Against Women Prevention Plan; Oregon Department of Human Services; Office of Disease Prevention Epidemiology.

## Social, economic, cultural and political practices

**Article 21.1** State Parties shall take measures including legislation, where appropriate to discourage traditional norms, including social, economic, cultural and political practices which legitimate and exacerbate the persistence and tolerance of gender based violence with a view to eliminate them.

Research has revealed that GBV is an effect of multiple factors. These include culture, inequitable gender norms, women's dependency on men, poverty, unemployment, alcohol abuse and general substance abuse.[44] Other factors include the breakdown of family values, drug and substance abuse, and transactional sexual relationships.[45] Findings from the seven countries show that education, age and employment status had varying influences on women's vulnerability to violence. Victims, predominantly women, came from poor to affluent communities across geographic, race, ethnic and economic divides. An analysis by the University of Cape Town to assess the determinants of perpetration of violence in the four provinces of South Africa established that **child abuse** was the predominant determinant of perpetration of violence followed by male control in relationships.[46]

- In all the countries where the GBV Indicators was conducted, child abuse was highly significant in determining perpetration of GBV for example; in Lesotho 35% of men who experienced sexual abuse in childhood perpetrated rape against non-partner in their adulthood.
- In all the countries, significantly greater proportions of men **who drank alcohol or used drugs** in the 12 months to the survey were more likely to perpetrate IPV than men who did not drink alcohol.
- Another key driver of GBV according to the GBV studies is the **negative gender attitudes**;
- In Zambia, 47% of women and more than half of the men (53%) believed that if a man has paid *lobola* (bride price) for his wife he owns her.[47]
- In Lesotho, eight out of ten women (81%) and 83% men agreed that a woman needs her husband's permission to do paid work.[48]
- In Seychelles, 79% of men compared and 54% women believe that a woman should obey her husband. There was a significant association between attitudes towards gender equity and IPV perpetration in women only and not in men.

Article 21.1 calls for member states to put in place measures to tackle socio-cultural and economic triggers of GBV. The VAW/GBV Baseline Study in seven countries has shown some links between GBV and certain cultural practices such as polygamy. The attitude survey has further shown high levels of gender inequitable attitudes and norms across the region. The case study below details the Changing the Rivers Flow (CTRF) model by Southern Africa AIDS Dissemination Service (SAfAIDS) which addresses the cultural factors associated with GBV and HIV in the region. The model is grounded in the understanding that harmful cultural practices uphold gender inequalities, leading to GBV, which fuels the continued spread of HIV. Addressing these harmful practices is a crucial first step to preventing new HIV infections and GBV in communities in southern Africa.

**Regressive** gender attitudes drive **GBV** in SADC

**Southern Africa: Changing the Rivers Flow on GBV and HIV & AIDS**

The 'Changing the River's Flow' is a programme that was launched and piloted by SAfAIDS in Seke, a peri-urban Zimbabwean community in 2006. Since then, SAfAIDS has scaled-up the model to nine countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe) supporting 36 organisations to implement SRHR programmes between 2006 and 2011.

The model is based on the understanding that the answer to effective and sustainable HIV and gender based violence (GBV) prevention in Africa lies in building the capacity of community members

[44] Lowe-Morna, C., Makamure, L., Dube, S. (2016) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).
[45] Ibid.
[46] Ibid.
[47] Musariri, L.and. Chiramba K, Dimensions of VAW in selected areas of Zambia, unpublished.
[48] Musariri L., Nyambo, V., Machisa, M, T., Chiramba, K. (2015). The Gender Based Violence Indicators Study, Lesotho. Gender Links.

to address cultural practices that fuel the two epidemics. The name 'Changing the River's Flow' mirrors the idea that culture is not fixed, like a rock or stone but that, it is a 'river', constantly moving and changing, even if we do not notice changes as they happen. The initiative seeks to address the nexus between HIV and GBV and the cultural factors that make women more vulnerable.

The model is relevant as it encourages communities to talk about sensitive issues and taboos in their community, to understand the interlinkages between HIV, GBV and specific cultural practices, and to begin to think and talk openly about how things can be done differently. The CTRF Model's innovative approach guides a process of change driven from within communities themselves. 'Change from within' is more likely to lead to sustainable changes in the behaviour of individuals that will have a positive impact on women's rights and reduce new HIV infections. The approach also recognises the powerful role that traditional, religious and other leaders have as opinion leaders who can influence communities to change, and to sustain the change in the long ter. CTRF model is solidly based on the knowledge that culture CAN change, and it IS changing, and there are organisations that are already spearheading this process.

**Key activities of the model**

*Engaging leadership:* Working with political, administrative and traditional leaders and training them on the inter-linkages between women's rights, culture, GBV and HIV.

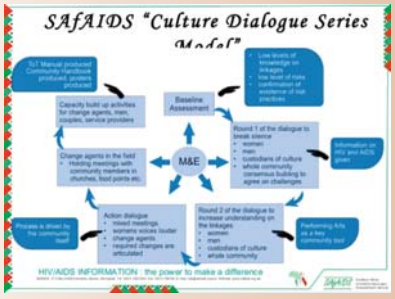
*Training of trainers:* Organisations work with a cascade model of training in which several trainers are trained and supported to support communities to start processes of change.

*Community based volunteers:* These trainers in turn train community- based volunteers (CBVs) using the standard training manual. Once CBVs have been trained they start community mobilization process for example through door-to-door visits or facilitating community dialogues.

*Cultural dialogues:* Cultural dialogues are a space for leaders and ordinary community members to talk about issues that face their community - breaking the culture of silence.

*Media:* Phone-in shows on community radio and in local languages give people a chance to discuss difficult issues like GBV anonymously and bring those who cannot read into the discussion.

*Community galas:* Organisations implementing the CTRF model have used community galas to encourage interest and community participation in the activities that follow.



*SAfAIDS culture Dialogue Model.*

The various organisations who are implementing the CTFR model have shared some of the achievements in their countries for example:

In Mozambique, in order to address the harmful practice of widow cleansing, traditional leaders and community members have suggested non-sexual forms of widow cleansing. Although these changes were not accepted immediately by everyone, more and more people are using traditional herbs or spending the night with a pestle and mortar as a cleansing ritual.

A traditional leader Omukondo Village, Namibia who has gone through the training had this to say *"The issue of violence between men and women was a big problem for us as leaders. In the past if people reported violence we would just talk to them and ask them to forgive each other but now we know that it should not end there."*

In South Africa, Grandmothers Against Poverty and AIDS (GAPA) is engaging women in male circumcision issues giving them space to question some of the harmful practices through community dialogues with men.

Paramount Chief Murambwa, Mhondoro Ngezi who went through training commits to lead the campaign of challenging harmful practices. *"Zimbabwe to be part of the campaign against cultural practices and gender inequalities in order to prevent HIV in our communities. I am therefore willing to lead the national campaign through educating other chiefs on how they can replicate the project in their communities." (adapted from "Turning the Tide on Gender Based Violence: Best Practices of Organisations Applying the 'Changing the River's Flow' Model in Southern Africa", SAFAIDS)*

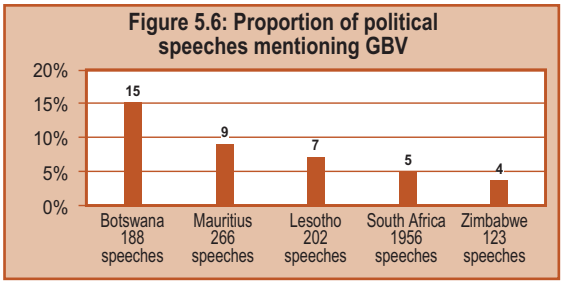
Cultural factors make women more vulnerable to **GBV** and HIV

Sensitising women and men on the existing GBV **laws** is important

### *Political commitment*

Political commitment is two-fold: establishment of an enabling legal structure to uphold the rights of women and children and seeing to it that this is implemented optimally. To date many settings have been characterised by excellent paper work that does not translate into action on the ground[49]. The fact that GBV still remains at the level of paper promises is reflected in the results of the GBV/VAW Baseline Studies that included monitoring of political speeches showing that GBV barely features in public pronouncements.

Figure 5.6 shows the extent to which GBV featured in high level speeches ranged from 15% in Botswana, to 4% in Zimbabwe. In Botswana, only 6% of the speeches had GBV as the main topic. In South Africa, only 1% specifically focused on GBV, with 91% of these during the Sixteen Days of Activism and on Women's Day.




*Source: GL VAW Baseline studies.*

**Article 21.2** State Parties shall in all sectors of society introduce and support gender sensitisation and public awareness programmes aimed at changing behaviour and eradicating gender based violence.

Sensitising women and men on the existing laws is important. The VAW Baseline studies by GL in seven countries shows that majority of the people - particularly women - the intended beneficiaries are not aware of existing laws on GBV[50]. This ignorance impedes justice and consequently elimination of GBV. Thus, governments need work together with civil society to invest in awareness raising campaigns.

### *Community mobilisation and campaigns*

To date, all SADC countries have implemented prevention strategies to raise awareness and advocate for GBV prevention. The strategies include raising public awareness and coordinated campaigns by various stakeholders.

### *Sixteen Days of Activism against Gender Violence*

2016 marked the 25th year of Sixteen Days of Activism on VAW, one of the most publicised awareness raising campaigns. The campaign runs from November 25 through to December 10 each year and involves tens of thousands of civil society organisations, women's organisations, governments and activists in actions to raise awareness of violence against women. One of the questions asked of men and women in the seven-country VAW/GBV Baseline Studies is the extent to which this campaign is known and having an impact in the region. According to the studies, on average the majority of women and men in all the seven countries remain relatively unaware of the annual Sixteen Days campaign[51].

In 2016, the Center for Women's Global Leadership (one of the founders of the campaign) conducted an assessment study on the impact of the 16 Days, globally. The South African case study in the report established that 16 Days has been effective in[52]:

- Raising awareness about GBV as a human rights issue at the local, national, regional and international levels.
- Establishing a clear link between local and international work to end GBV.
- Demonstrating the solidarity of civil society entities.
- However, there were some comments that over the years the campaign has lost its human rights approach as it has been hijacked by some governments to "showcase their laws and achievements without following up on its commitments" (Thompson 2017:26). The important question that needs to be asked now pertains to the impact of these campaigns. The Seychelles GBV study (2017) assessed if the knowledge/

[49] Musariri L., Nyambo, V., Machisa, M, T., Chiramba, K. (2015). The Gender Based Violence Indicators Study, Lesotho. Gender Links.
[50] Ibid.
[51] Lowe-Morna, C., Dube, S. Makamure, L., Robinson, K, (2014) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).
[52] Thompson, C. (2017). A Life of Its Own: An Assessment of the 16 Days of Activism Against Gender-Based Violence Campaign, Center for Women's Global Leadership, New Jersey available at http://16dayscwgl.rutgers.edu/downloads/16-days-documents-general/1500-16-days-campaign-assessment-report/file (accessed 9 July 2017).

awareness of campaigns translated to action. The study showed that being knowledgeable of campaigns was significantly associated with intervening in domestic violence case (Musariri and Chiramba, 2017)[53]. The Executive Director of CWGL puts it succinctly that there is need to transition 'from Awareness to Eradication' of gender-based violence for the next phase of 16 Days (Thompson 2017)[54].

### *Role of the media*

The media plays a critical role in not only raising awareness of GBV but also in counteracting myths and negative attitudes that may perpetuate violence. Drawing attention to positive stories of empowerment and resilience, for example, can assist in illustrating how survivors often act as advocates and agents of change. Media monitoring as part of the VAW Baseline studies shows that while GBV is one of the better-covered gender topics in the media, the coverage is often gender biased. Men constitute the majority of sources. Most stories emanate from court reporting, in which the cards are heavily stacked against women. The first-hand accounts of women seldom feature. Their experiences are trivialised and sensationalised. Such coverage has often resulted in secondary victimisation, rather than supporting survivors and pointing them in the direction of help. In the Seychelles GBV study, both women and men were asked about their views on the role being played by the media in regards to GBV. The findings show that a third of the women and men believe that the media coverage of GBV is fair and balanced; the media gives the facts as they are. Almost a quarter (22%) of women and 12% of men felt that it is biased against women and that the voices of those most affected is seldom heard. Six percent of women and 20% thought that the media coverage is biased against men as they are always treated as though they are to blame. On the other hand, 13% of women and 8% expressed that the media fuels gender violence even more by naming victims and showing little sensitivity towards them. The findings are significant in that they gauge the public perception and thus can measure the effectiveness of the media as medium of communication.

**Findings from the Gender Media Progress Study (GMPS) 2016**

Several studies have been monitoring GBV coverage in media globally and regionally. The World Association of Christian Communicators (WACC) conducted the Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) in 2015 and established that "Overall, women remain more than twice as likely as men to be portrayed as victims than they were a decade ago, at 16 and 8 per cent, respectively. The Gender and Media Progress Study, conducted by Gender Links in partnership with media training institutions across the region, showed that gender violence was not a topical issue in the media constituting just 1% of all stories covered during the monitoring period. This was a drop from the 4% coverage established in the 2010 GMPS. The study further showed that there was no significant difference in quantity of GBV coverage in COEs and non-COES. The figures were very low and mostly under 1%. The regional average was 0.4% for both. A country comparison on the COE and Non COEs showed that Namibia had the highest coverage of GBV country in the region at 2% thus exceeding the regional coverage of 0.4%). The categorisation of the stories covered revealed that GBV stories on support (38%) received the most coverage in the regional media followed by integrated approaches (18%), prevention campaigns (14%) and legislation/political responses (11%). Stories focusing on the association between GBV and HIV and AIDS received the least coverage of 5%. The study concluded that a general analysis of gender based violence stories shows lack of depth and analysis with media focusing on event reports and court based coverage. Coverage of GBV should go beyond events and court reporting and probe causes in order to curb this social problem. *(GMPS, 2016)*

### *Social media*

The last 15 years have seen an ever-growing use of the social media as a platform for discussing and debating GBV, creating opportunities for community mobilisation. The Women's Global Leadership Centre reports that in 2016 the Sixteen Days of Activism Campaign generated 183,000 tweets, reaching 344 million users globally. One benefit of the social media is the tools to measure engagement is reach, retweet, likes, follow, share and comments. Although there is no evidence that social communications alone can prevent violence, some assessments have shown significant changes in knowledge and use of services, attitudes towards gender, and acceptance of VAW[55].

[53] Musariri, L.and. Chiramba K, Dimensions of VAW in selected areas of Zambia, unpublished.
[54] Ibid.
[55] Thompson, C. (2017). A Life of Its Own: An Assessment of the 16 Days of Activism Against Gender-Based Violence Campaign, Center for Women's Global Leadership, New Jersey available at http://16dayscwgl.rutgers.edu/downloads/16-days-documents-general/1500-16-days-campaign-assessment-report/file (accessed 9 July 2017).

The media plays a critical role in **ending** GBV

#Notinmyname

Progressive South African men

**Social media used to mobilise on femicide in South Africa**



Friends and relatives of South African woman Karabo Mokoena (22) attend her burial in Johannesburg on 19 May. She was murdered, allegedly by her former lover.
*Photo: AFP/DAYLIN PAUL*

Cases of femicide particularly intimate femicide continue to make the headlines in South African news. The spate of killings has triggered public and media interest with Karabo Mokoena's being the most widely publicised. She was a 22-year-old woman, who like many other women not captured in the media, fell victim and died at the hands of her intimate partner. It is reported that she went missing on the 28th of April 2017. Her body was subsequently discovered burned beyond recognition the next day, but it took the police two weeks to link her to her family who had reported her missing. Mokoena was allegedly killed by her 27 year old boyfriend. The case galvanised women all over the globe. It also brought together political parties in South Africa to speak out against domestic violence. Mokoena's murder sparked the social media campaign #MenAreTrash, which further spawned the #Notinmyname campaign - a response by progressive men.

## Engaging men and boys in the fight against GBV



Young men make a statement during 16 Days march in Botswana.
*Photo: Gender Links*

Several studies have found strong evidence of the relationship between use of violence by men and certain characteristics associated with traditional masculinity. The role of men, not only as aggressors, but also as potential allies, facilitators, and activists in the fight against GBV, has begun to be viewed as an indispensable element that requires specific policies and strategies (MenEngage, 2014 in Aguayo et al., 2016). There is also an emerging recognition of the need to involve male traditional and religious leaders. For many women around the world, community-based, customary justice mechanisms are the only available method of redress. While traditional practices often are used to justify violence, culture is dynamic and can change through training, public education, and access to new information. The case study that follows shows how an NGO decided to tackle alcohol induced violence by working with men who abuse alcohol and drugs in Botswana.

## Support

Women who are victims of gender based violence often experience life-long emotional distress, mental health problems and poor reproductive health, as well as being at higher risk of acquiring HIV and intensive long-term users of health services[56].

- In the seven countries that conducted VAW Baseline Studies, 18% of women in Botswana, 19% of women in Zimbabwe, 18% of women in Lesotho, 17% Limpopo, 28% Western Cape, 27% of women in Seychelles sustained injuries.
- In Botswana over half of the injured women had to stay in bed for an average of nine days.In Zimbabwe, injured women stayed in bed an average of 11 days.

[56] Lowe-Morna, C., Makamure, L., Dube, S. (2016) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).

- In Seychelles, approximately 18 women (39%) took days off from employment as a result of injuries sustained after physical abuse.
- In all the studies the most common mental health problem among survivors was depression. For example in Western Cape 41% of survivors of rape compared to 24% who had never been raped had depressive symptoms.
- 31% of women in Botswana and 21% in Zimbabwe who were raped in the 12 months' prior the survey attempted suicide.
- In all the studies, except Seychelles, there was a significant association between experience of GBV and STIs including HIV. In Lesotho the proportion of women who suffered sexual IPV and were diagnosed with an STI was higher than the proportion of non-survivors. In Limpopo higher proportions of IPV and rape survivors reported an HIV positive status compared to non-survivors.[57]




**Article 23.1** State Parties shall provide accessible information on services available to survivors of gender based violence.

According to the GL VAW Baseline Studies in seven countries, governments and civil society have made efforts to provide accessible information on the services available to survivors of GBV including help lines and protection orders. In almost all the countries men were more knowledgeable about services (including existing laws) compared to women.

- Botswana - 33.9% of women and 31.4% of men, Zimbabwe - 44% of women and 52% of men, Lesotho - 13% of women and 44% of men were aware of protection orders. Seychelles - 56% of women and 59% of men were aware of protection orders
- Similarly, in most of the countries higher proportions of men compared to women were aware of the existence of laws. Women from the rural areas were the least knowledgeable for example women in the largely rural provinces of Limpopo (30% women) and KwaZulu Natal (35%) lagged behind Gauteng (74%) and Western Cape (63%) women in regards to the legal literacy of the Domestic Violence Act and its provisions.
- In 2014, the Zambian government commissioned the translation of Anti GBV Act into local languages. Various stakeholders distributed the translated copies of the Act to churches, district commissioners, provincial offices, police, schools and cooperating partners.
- Collaboration between government and civil society has proved to be more effective in raising awareness on the available systems to assist survivors of violence. An example is the collaboration between DRC government and NGOs in South Kivu DRC, to raise awareness on the existence of Mobile Gender Justice courts, the 2006 sexual violence law; as well as to sensitize local communities to the importance of reporting crimes of sexual violence.[58]




**Article 23.3** State parties shall provide accessible, affordable and specialised legal services, including legal aid to survivors of gender based violence.

All SADC countries now have accessible, affordable and specialised services for survivors of GBV. However, legal aid is still a challenge in most of the countries. The 2016 Global Study on Legal AID by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNDOC) shows that a third of the 153 countries have not yet enacted specific legislation on legal aid and half of the countries offered legal aid to survivors of GBV. The study covered five countries from the SADC region: Angola, DRC, Mauritius, South Africa and Seychelles.[59]

The VAW Baseline studies in the seven countries also showed that legal aid is limited to survivors of violence. In most countries, NGOs provide these services, with inadequate funding. Organisations such as Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) which has a presence in seven SADC countries is

**All** SADC countries now have accessible, affordable and specialised services for **survivors** of GBV

[57] GBV Indicators studies available at http://genderlinks.org.za/what-we-do/justice/research/
[58] http://www.osisa.org/sites/default/files/open_learning-drc-web.pdf
[59] https://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/LegalAid/Global_Study_on_Legal_Aid_-_FINAL.pdf

There is an increase of **one-stop** centers for survivors of GBV in the region

one of the few organisations providing legal service including legal aid to survivors of GBV[60].



Reporting to CEDAW on its implementation of the Convention in 2010, the **Botswana** government indicated there was no legal aid system in place to survivors of GBV. However the report stated that the government has just completed a pilot GBV referral system in three councils and this will be rolled to the rest of the districts.[61]

With the introduction of mobile Gender Courts in **DRC** in 2006, the government has been providing legal aid to survivors of violence.



**Article 23.4** State parties shall provide specialised facilities including support mechanisms for survivors of gender based violence.

There has been a notable increase across the region of one- stop centers for survivors of GBV especially rape survivors. These centers bring together the police, legal counseling and medical practitioners as well as social welfare to offer comprehensive support to survivors of sexual violence.

This model began in South Africa where the centers are known as Thuthuzela Care Centers. To date South Africa has more than 45 Thuthuzela care centers across the county- although most of them are not fully functional[62]. From 2005-2011, CARE led the development of a one stop model of Coordinated Response Centers (CRCs) in Zambia. Although the state is responsible for the safety of survivors, it is important that not only the state but also women's organisations are provided with resources to give support. Women's organisations often have a deep knowledge and long experience of support and service to survivors of GBV[63].

As reflected in the VAW Baseline Study in Limpopo province in South Africa, the number of survivors seeking help outstrips the structures available to provide help[64]. In all the countries there is a shortage of shelters for abused women, leaving them with nowhere to go, except to endure the abusive relationships. While several countries now offer these services, most of them do not have any legislative mandate to do so thus the provision has been ad hoc.

The case study below highlights how Harare City Council is responding to survivors of GBV by providing a 24-hour clinic.




[60] WLSA website. http://www.wluml.org/contact/wrrc/content/women-and-law-southern-africa-wlsa
[61] http://www.refworld.org/docid/ 4dbe8bc52.html
[62] Ibid.
[63] Sida .(2015). Preventing and Responding to Gender-Based Violence: Expressions and Strategies available at http://www.sida.se/contentassets/3a820dbd152f4fca98bacde8a8101e15/preventing-and-responding-to-gender-based-violence.pdf (accessed 3 July 2017).
[64] Machisa, M, T and Musariri, L. (2013). Peace Begins at Home, the Gender Based Violence Indicators Study, Limpopo Province of South Africa. Gender Links.

**Zimbabwe: Harare City Council opens a clinic for survivors of GBV**

The Harare City Council embarked on a project to provide a 24-hour Sexual Gender Based Violence (SGBV) clinic that will ensure free emergency care for survivors. The project is innovative in that most clinics operate from 8 a.m. to 5.pm and this leaves a gap especially when a violation occurs. The clinic provides medical care to survivors of GBV around the clock and during weekends.

Most violations occur at night. Those affected have to wait for the critical services or even go to already congested hospitals with other emergencies like accidents. The idea was to provide specialist and comprehensive medical care. The clinic therefore removes barriers to accessing health care by survivors of SGBV as well as providing HIV services such as testing and counselling.




Launch of the 24 hour clinic. *Photo: VOA Zimbabwe*

The first step involved formative research showing that VAWG is a major public health and human rights challenge in the city. The second step was identification of a suitable site for the clinic.

The research led to the realisation that the existing facilities can be used to house the GBV clinic. Wilkins hospital became the ideal site due to the availability of other facilities especially the sexual reproductive health centers, counselling, testing facilities and wards for the admission of survivors.

The council renovated the buildings with assistance and expertise from the Department of Works who outlined the scope of work and costs of the project. This was followed by training of staff. The official opening ceremony took place in October 2016. The clinic has opened its doors to the public since then. Since this is based on an already existing hospital structure, this initiative can be replicated any-where.

*(By Dorothy Mavalwane - SADC Protocol@Work summit case study 2016)*

Protocol@Work

Need to **invest** in programmes that seek to increase women's **independence** and autonomy

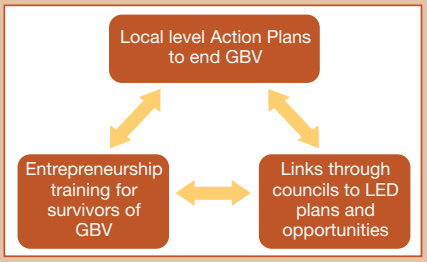
## Economic empowerment and sustainable solutions to GBV

The Commission on Gender Equality (CGE) in South Africa found that women are more vulnerable to GBV because they rely on men for household provisions[65]. The study further highlighted that women's dependence on men impacts on their potential to exercise their rights when in an abusive relationship. Women are unable to exercise their freedom of expression and choice when in abusive relationships if exercising this freedom negatively influences their means of livelihood. The CGE concluded that there is need to invest in programmes that seek to increase women's independence and autonomy. GL's pioneering *Empower women, End Violence* programme focuses on an integrated approach of life skills and entrepreneurship training including confidence building; decision-making, business management, use of IT, networking and addressing the underlying structural inequalities between men and men.

[65] Commission for Gender Equality, (2009). Research Report on the Victims' Charter. (online) available at http://www.cge.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/CGE-Victims-Charter-1.pdf (accessed 8 May 2016).

**Sunrise Campaign: Empower Women, End Violence**

In 2016, GL embarked on a follow up phase of its *Empower Women, End Violence Entrepreneurship Project*. Deepening this project has led to further learning on the relationship between economic agency and sustainable solutions to GBV. The project was rebranded the Sunrise Campaign emphasising the energy and fresh start. Part of the learning concerns focusing on young women, to "stop violence before it starts". In November 2016, the initiative won the Mail and Guardian 2016 Investing in the Future Award for Job Creation and Enterprise Development.




Key partners in the project included 1350 survivors of GBV in 101 councils in each of ten Southern African countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe) that form part of the Centres of Excellence for Gender in Local Government. The councils helped to identify participants, improve access to markets, infrastructure, finance, mentorship and support. Councils provided almost R6 million in in-kind support to the project. At the follow up phase, 89% of the participants had grown their businesses (compared to 79% post training) while 57% started a new business (compared to 55% post training). 64% found new markets at follow-up (as compared to 55% post training). In the follow-up mentorship phase, all the countries with the exception of South Africa participated. 149 survivors of GBV in nine Southern African countries mentored in the follow-up phase. Under the banner 50/50 by 2030! *Empower women, End Violence*, GL held seven national level summits. The summits included the emerging Entrepreneurs in the Sunrise Campaign, giving a platform to share progress they have made in life skills and businesses since being involved in the mentorship programme. One of the key aims of the project was to **increase the income for the women**. Increase in average monthly income Post Training for the region was R526. Increase in average monthly income at follow up for the region was R4930. Botswana had the highest increase in income from a negative number at baseline to R11729.

The project also saw a reduction in the experiences of GBV. Regionally 97% of women reported experiencing less GBV in the follow-up phase compared to 85% during the post-training period. "When I got the training I made a good progress, emotionally and relationally, me and my husband understand each other better now than before. I have become an independent business woman, which means I depend on myself, I don't depend on my husband. Nowadays, GBV is caused by dependence of women on men, when he is giving you everything you need, sometime this can cause stress for him. I am well equipped to stand on my own thanks to Gender Links training."



**Anne Iyambo, Namibia**

Many of the women have expressed having **more self-confidence** because they have learned more about GBV and running a business. This has increased their status in their homes and the community. "These trainings helped me to reach a better understanding of who am I, how to move on from abusive relationship and be able to carry on with life as a mother of my children. Prior to that, I had no self confidence in my business and in life in general because I felt like I did not have purpose in life…"

**Ts'episo Mpofu, Bothe Bothe Urban, Lesotho**

Another of the main aims of the project was to increase **survivor's personal agency** and many have indicated positive changes in their relationships. "I now know the law, no one can step on my rights, I am very aware about GBV and the rights of women. I am a more confident person now knowing what I am entitled to as a woman and citizen of this country. Thanks to Gender Links and our Entrepreneurship facilitator Rosemary Kakompe. The programme brought about a sea change in **IT skills**. 74% women used a computer post training compared to 14% at the start of the project. However, this dropped to 65% at follow up. 48% have access to E Mail (compared to 5% at the start). 55% surf the internet (compared to 8% at the start). 37% now have a website or space on a website (compared to 3% at the start).

## Perpetrators of GBV

**Article 20.4** States Parties shall put in place mechanisms for the social and psychological rehabilitation of perpetrators of gender based violence.

**Article 23.5** State parties shall provide effective rehabilitation and re-integration programmes for perpetrators of gender based violence.

To curb GBV within families and communities, programmes must also target the perpetrators of such violence as part of the solution. Although not well documented, most countries provide some psychological rehabilitation to perpetrators of GBV. The Departments of Correctional Services in most countries in the region also offer rehabilitation and re-integration services for perpetrators of GBV. For example, in 2004 the Mauritian Government amended the Protection from Domestic Violence Act (PDVA)(1997) to establish that perpetrators of domestic violence now had the right to counselling at the Ministry of Gender Equality Child Development and Family Welfare (MGECDFW).

Subsequently in 2009 the Ministry of Gender drafted the Victim Empowerment and Abuser Rehabilitation Policy (VEARP) launched in 2013. The policy aims to assist stakeholders so that they may effectively address both abusers and victims of violence to end the vicious cycle of GBV in the workplace[66]. A critical analysis of the effectiveness of this policy by Boolakey (2015)[67] showed that the rehabilitation of perpetrators do not always work but rather depend with the will of the perpetrator to change and the method of rehabilitation used. Organisations that work with men to end GBV have played a significant role in engaging perpetrators of GBV. The MenEngage Network, which has presence in most of the SADC countries, has been involved in this work.[68] An example is Sonke Gender Justice Network, a member of the MenEngage Network.

MenEngage Alliance

working with men and boys for gender equality

Since 2007, Sonke has implemented its One Man Can (OMC) Prisons Transformation Project in Department of Correctional Services (DCS) centers across the Western Cape Province of South Africa, and has done so with the support of the Western Cape Department of Health (WCDoH). The project aims at building the capacity of inmates and prison officials as peer educators for HIV and GBV issues as well as to facilitate successful post-release integration of prisoners into the community to avoid re-offending. To this end, they have set up One Man Can (OMC) Beyond the Bars Community Action Team (CAT) which helps former inmates to return to life outside of prison.[69] The case study that follows highlights the work by Men and Boys for Gender Equality in Botswana.

**Working** with men and boys is to **ending** GBV

[66] http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en/countries/africa/mauritius/2014/the-victim-empowerment-and-abuser-rehabilitation-policy.
[67] Boolakey, F. (2015). A Critical Analysis Of Rehabilitation Programs For Domestic Violence Perpetrators In Mauritius Dissertation. University of Mauritius.
[68] Minerson, Todd, H. Carolo, T. Dinner, C. Jones. (2011). Issue Brief: Engaging Men and Boys to Reduce and Prevent Gender-Based Violence. Status of Women Canada. Available at http://whiteribbon.ca/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/wrc_swc_issuebrief.pdf (accessed 29 July 2017).
[69] Sonke Website available at http://www.genderjustice.org.za/community-education-mobilisation/prisons-transformation/ (accessed 3 August 2017).

**Botswana: Love to live Alcohol Rehabilitation Project in Botswana**



Love to live alcohol group session. *Photo: Omphemetse Oneile*

Men and Boys for Gender Equality (MBGE) is running a project known as the Love to Live alcohol rehabilitation. The intervention seeks to provide non-stigmatised and confidential rehabilitation services to alcohol addicts. The main goal is to challenge the use of alcohol as a marker of manhood by men in the communities. The project seeks to restore dignity and reintegrate them into families and their communities and challenge the lifestyle or behaviour that leads to alcohol dependence by encouraging self-introspection on their use of alcohol and how it affects those they care about.

This intervention is important as it addresses one of the key triggers of GBV in Botswana-alcohol and drug consumption. Research has shown that alcohol is the most heavily used substance in Botswana followed by dagga. Heavy alcohol consumption is often associated with masculinity and male camaraderie, where men are encouraged or even expected to drink excessively in order to satisfy male gendered expectations. The 2012 Botswana GBV Study by Gender Links showed that alcohol abuse is linked to GBV perpetration. The intervention contributes to the reduction of GBV resulting from alcohol abuse.

Funded by the Ministry of Health in Botswana, the project is being run for a period of three years (2015-2018). To date the project has reached 242 beneficiaries. MBGE has partnered with two youth organisation from the target areas as well as with the Ministry of Youth Sport and Culture which supported with tents, camp chairs and personnel during some of the camping activities.

Some of the activities include setting up of support groups for individuals that have come up requesting for help. They also work with individuals referred by the police and clinics. MBGE then makes follow up calls to these individuals and invite them for meetings. At the meetings they discuss matters as groups. They also engage in individual counselling sessions. Initially when someone is being enrolled they are requested to provide their background information and establish the level of support required.

In addition to individual counselling they also go through group counselling where they share challenges or achievements they have had in withdrawing from alcohol/substance abuse. MBGE also conduct family visits and offer family counselling where they usually address issues and differences within the family as a way of providing comprehensive support to the individual. Once the participants have been enrolled into support groups, they will participate in a boot camp for at least 3 days at Mokolodi Nature Reserve. Each participant will at-least participate in one boot camp during the life of the project. Furthermore, MBGE work with various personalities to conduct blue couch sessions (where popular personalities share stories and call on those with alcohol problems to join in for help).

During the sessions the participants get an opportunity to ask questions and engage on the issues of alcohol consumption. The participants are also coached in business skills. To date some participants have opened up their own business. To date MBGE has faced some financial challenges when the Ministry delayed in releasing their funds. Another challenge was the inconsistent attendance of meetings by beneficiaries. In order to sustain the intervention after one year, the participants graduate and become peer educators so that they remain active and contribute in educating others.

*(By Omphemetse Oneile, SADC Protocol@Work 2016)*

## Training of service providers

**Article 24** State Parties shall introduce, promote and provide:
(a) Gender education and training to service providers involved in gender based violence including the police, the judiciary, health and social workers
(b) Community sensitisation programmes regarding available services and resources for survivors of gender based violence; and
(c) Training of all service providers to enable them to offer services to people with special needs.

The VAW Baseline studies show that the attitude of police officers toward GBV survivors discourages women from reporting such violence. The establishment of victim support units within police stations has resulted in increased training of police officers throughout the region.



For instance, when the government of **Mozambique** established the Cabinets of Assistance to Women and Child Victims of Violence, (victim service centers) several female police officers received training on dealing with cases of GBV. The victim service centers have private spaces for GBV survivors to report cases, and are either stand-alone buildings or situated within police stations. There are 22 stand-alone centers and 238 victim service centers in the country.[70]

To date all countries in SADC have conducted some form of training with GBV service providers especially police officers. Most countries refer to the number of people trained rather than the impact of the training. There is need to establish the quality of training to ensure effective training, and to develop indicators for measuring the outcome of the training.



The case study below shows how **South Africa** has engaged the police department in addressing GBV though establishment of Victim Empowerment Centres (VEPs) in which they train police officers to handle GBV survivors with sensitivity.

**All** SADC countries have conducted some form of training with GBV service providers



Professor Sheila Mmusi facilitating a GBV and HIV and AIDS and Health training workshop in Polokwane, Limpopo in South Africa.
*Photo: Gender Links*

[70] Floriza,G, Harris-Sapp, T., Simmons, K and Messner, L. (2016). Lessons from the Gender-Based Violence Initiative in Mozambique. Arlington, VA: Strengthening High Impact Interventions for an AIDS-free Generation (AIDSFree) Project. Available at https://aidsfree.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/2016.03.29_gbvi_moz_report_nidaapproved_rktagged.pdf (accessed 3 August 2017).

Protocol@Work

**South Africa: Mankweng VEP**




The Departments of Justice, Education, South African Police Services (SAPS) and Social Development established the Mankweng Victim Support Centre (VEP) to assist victims of domestic violence. The Centre is located at the Mankweng Police Services Station close to the University of Limpopo the Zion Christian Church.

This followed increased reports of abuse particularly during the Zion Christian Church Pilgrimage and other holidays such as Easter and Christmas. There have been reports of students from the University being raped and physically abused by local young men.

Key objectives for establishing the Centre were to:
- Reduce abuse and violence in the communities.
- Provide training to various service providers on how to handle GBV cases.
- Re-unite abused members with their families.
- Provide a safe environment for those accommodated in the Centre.
- Protect the community members against any forms of violence and abuse.
- Create a healthy living environment within the community.

The Centre runs campaigns to raise awareness on violence. Through these campaigns, including door-to-door visits, women have been empowered to identify the various forms of abuse and report them to the Department of Safety and Security. To date, the Centre has reached around 4500 beneficiaries both directly and indirectly.

There are instances when the victims of violence are chased away from their homes by perpetrators. The Centre then offers temporary shelter for a maximum of three days before referring the victims to more long term and bigger places of safety. In addition to accommodation, the centre provides counselling services to victims of violence. In other instances, the Centre intervenes between couples offering counselling sessions with the aim of reconciling them. By involving men or the perpetrators of violence several men have come to party taking lead in ensuring the safety of women, children and the disabled.

The intervention has led to increased stability within families and communities at large. Since the establishment of the Centre, there have been less cases of physical abuse reported at the police station. As a result of the awareness raising campaigns, communities are aware of the various forms of abuse and able to identify them instantly when a neighbor or family member is abused.

Some of the challenges the Centre faces include lack of accommodation for the abused. In most cases the victims needing accommodation outnumber the available resources. The centre also has challenges with transport to move within the communities or to transport victims of violence.

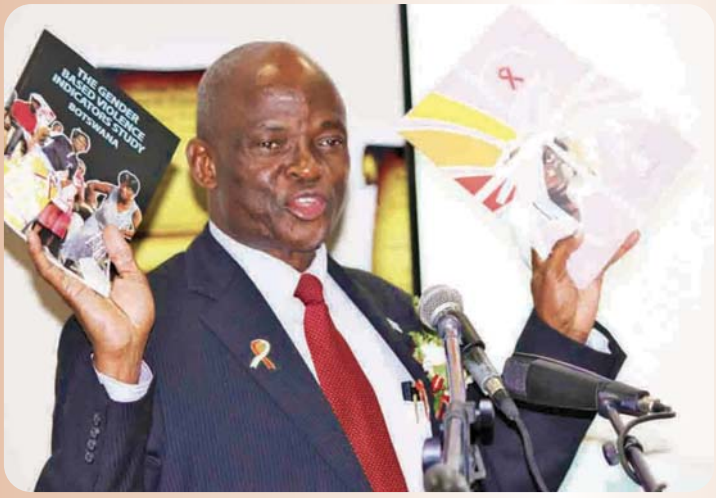
*(By George Makgolane, Limpopo, South Africa. SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016)*

To meet the target of eliminating all forms of GBV by 2030, there is need for holistic national frameworks that address the issue of VAW within the context of gender equality and empowerment. Implementation of current laws addressing GBV has been inadequate. This can be attributed to lack of resources; lack of long term government commitment; gains that are often short lived and fragile; and weak organisational capacity, both in governments and civil society. Given that addressing GBV is about addressing structural gender inequalities and harmful social norms, it will require significant resources and long-term commitment by all stakeholders (Governance and Social Development Resource Centre).

As reflected in the tracking table at the beginning of this chapter, all SADC countries have adopted integrated 365-day National Action Plans (NAPS) to end GBV. In some instances, draft NAPS are still in draft form, although some of the actions have been implemented. Implementing agencies cite resource constraints as a key limitation. This has led to the drive for NAPS to be costed. Mauritius, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Swaziland and Seychelles have developed fully costed NAPS. Another challenge in the implementation of NAPS has been in the co-ordination of implementation and data management. Some countries have developed multi sector structures with a mandate to track and evaluate implementation. Examples are the Mauritian Platform against GBV, Zambia Anti-GBV National Committee, the Zimbabwean Anti-Domestic Violence Council and the now defunct SA GBV Council. While this is a stride in that secretariats are in place these structures have also made limited impact because of lack of funding for operations.[71]

Donors and governments need to provide sustainable funding so that Centres of Excellence in prevention, response and research can be established and sustained. To ensure evidence based interventions there is need for standalone surveys that are repeated periodically.

**From baseline study to monitoring: The case of Botswana**



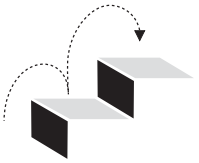

*The findings of this research are shocking (and indeed shocking!). Rather than be defensive and find ways of distancing our society from the depicted reality, it is wiser to pick the lessons and get to work. In many ways the results of this study are a wakeup call to everyone* - Minister Edwin Batshu

Botswana provides a good case study of how the study has progressed from a civil society baseline to a government owned and driven monitoring tool. In 2012 GL partnered with the Government of Botswana in conducting a VAW study with just over 1000 women and men. In 2017 Botswana commissioned a GBV study targeting over 10,000 women and men. This sample is large enough to allow for district level analysis. The findings from the study will be used to strengthen the local action plans starting at district level feeding into the Nation Action Plan. By conducting this follow-up study, Botswana is the first country to have adopted the GBV Indicators to monitor its progress.

**Donors** and governments need to provide sustainable **funding**

[71] Lowe-Morna, C., Makamure, L., Dube, S. (2016) SADC Gender Protocol Barometer (online) available at http://genderlinks.org.za/shop/sadc-gender-protocol-barometer-2016/ (accessed 12 July 2017).

**VAW** is NOW an **SDG target**



## Next steps

- **Baseline studies and follow up:** With VAW now an SDG target and indicator, governments and civil society need to upscale their efforts to address GBV in order to achieve the new SADC Protocol goal of eliminating GBV by 2030 rather than reducing GBV by half by 2015. To date only seven countries have undertaken the VAW Baseline study. Botswana is the first country to undertake a follow up GBV study which is bigger and more comprehensive, and covers violence against women and men. GL will continue lobbying other countries in the region to undertake GBV Baseline Studies and follow up studies in the six pilot countries.

- **Prevention:** Needs to be placed at the centre rather than at the end of the continuum for ending GBV.

- **Legal:** There is need for a comprehensive mapping exercise on the content of various laws. Such an analysis will ensure that the current gaps and concerns in the GBV-specific laws are outlined and addressed. To prevent violence, there is a need to send a clear message that there is never impunity for GBV. This can be achieved through the strengthening, adoption and reforms of laws; increased efforts to implement and enforce laws and improve women's access to justice and continued efforts to adopt and improve national action plans.

- **Support:** Overall, many countries are providing services to survivors and perpetrators of GBV. However, some of the services are of low quality. Indicators should cover quantity and quality.

- **Integrated approaches:** Addressing the different forms GBV requires a multi-sectoral approach that includes the justice and legal, security, health (including sexual and reproductive health), education, economic, social services, humanitarian, and development sectors, and that works at the individual, family, community, local, national, and global levels.

# CHAPTER 6

# Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights

## Articles 26

### KEY POINTS

- There is renewed emphasis on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights, recognising that individual human rights and dignity, including the equal rights of women and girls and universal access to SRHR, are a necessary precondition for sustainable development.




Youth friendly facilities are key to SRHR. *Photo: SAFAIDS*

- The unmet need for contraception in SADC varies from a low of 4% in Mauritius (the lowest in Africa) to a high of 29% in Mozambique. An unmet need of greater than 25% is considered very high.
- Mauritius, whose Maternal Mortality ratio (MMR) at 53 per 100 000, is the only country in SADC which has already achieved the SDG target of an MMR below 70. DRC and Malawi with MMRs of 693 and 634 respectively are considered to have very high levels of maternal mortality.
- The percentage of births attended by skilled personnel varies from a low of 44.3% in Madagascar to a high of 99.9% in Botswana.
- Malawi has made significant progress in expanding access for deliveries in a health institution with an urban: rural differential of only 96:91 and differential between the highest income quintile and lowest of only 96:89.
- Births before the age of 18 range from 13% of young women who had given birth before the age of 18 in Lesotho, to 40% in Mozambique. Angola has the highest adolescent fertility rate in SADC at 191 of girls age 15 to 19 per 1000 giving birth (which is also the fourth highest rate in Africa), while Mauritius has the lowest at 31.
- Seychelles and Mauritius are far ahead of the rest of SADC in provision of water and sanitation. Ten SADC countries do not even have 50% coverage of basic services nationally and although urban coverage is much better, seven countries do not have even 50% coverage of basic sanitation in urban areas.

Mauritius, only **SADC** country to **achieve** MMR target BELOW **70**

The **Protocol** recognises **Sexual** and Reproductive **Health** as a women's right

## What the Protocol requires

As before, the Protocol calls on Member States to develop, adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies, programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality healthcare. It also calls on Member States to address the mental, sexual and reproductive health needs of women and men; and ensure the provision of hygienic and sanitary facilities and nutritional needs of all women, including women in prison.

**Table 6.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Old provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| State parties shall, in line with the SADC Protocol on Health and other regional and international commitments by Member states on issues relating to health, adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies , programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care, in particular, to:<br>a) reduce the maternal mortality ratio by 75% by 2015, in line with Millennium Development Goal Five (MDG 5) | State parties shall, in line with the SADC Protocol on Health and other regional and international commitments by Member states on issues relating to health, adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies , programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care, in particular, to:<br>a) Eliminate maternal mortality |
| | b) Develop and implement policies and programmes to address the mental, sexual and reproductive health needs of women and men in accordance with the Programme of Action of the ICPD and the Beijing Platform for Action |

As reflected in Table 6.1, the Post 2015 SADC Gender Protocol has been strengthened to:

- Aim for *elimination* of maternal mortality. Though this is not impossible, many countries in SADC experienced AIDS related increases in maternal mortality ratio until widespread availability of ARVs. The region is therefore beginning from a very high MMR.
- Recognise *Sexual and Reproductive Health as a right* for women, men and youth. This approach focuses on promotion of sexual wellbeing for all people, not simply enabling them to reproduce safely. While the indicators are on reduction in Maternal Mortality and increased access to contraception, the focus is a fulfilling sexual life for all, with the right to choose when to reproduce. This in line with the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action consensus that individual human rights and dignity, including the equal rights of women and girls and universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights, are a necessary precondition for sustainable development. SRHR includes eliminating unsafe abortion, unwanted pregnancy, sexual violence and GBV as well as coerced sterilisation and ensuring adequate access to family planning. These rights are basic rights of all individuals and couples.

## Key trends

**Table 6.2: Trends in Health 2009, 2015 and 2017**

| Parameter | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **CONTRACEPTIVE USE AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE WOMEN** | | | | | |
| Highest proportion of women | 100% | Mauritius (76%) | Mauritius (76%) | Mauritius (76%) | 24 |
| Lowest proportion of women | 100% | Angola (6%) | Mozambique (12%) | Mozambique (12%) | 88 |
| **CURRENT MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE (MATERNAL DEATHS PER 100 000 BIRTHS)** | | | | | |
| Highest | 0 | Angola (1400) | DRC (730) | DRC (693) | 693 |
| Lowest | 0 | Mauritius (13) | Mauritius (73) | Mauritius (53) | 53 |
| **BIRTHS ATTENDED BY SKILLED PERSONNEL** | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | Mauritius (100 %) | Mauritius (100%) | Botswana (99.9%) | 0.1 |
| Lowest | 100% | Angola/Tanzania (46%) | Mozambique (19%) | Madagascar (42%) | 48 |
| **% WHO SAY A WOMAN SHOULD BE ABLE TO CHOOSE TO TERMINATE A PREGNANCY IN THE FIRST THREE MONTHS OF HER PREGNANCY** | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | | | Tanzania (80%) | N/A |
| Lowest | 100% | | | DRC (27%) | N/A |
| **TOTAL COVERAGE OF SANITATION** | | | | | |
| Highest coverage | 100% | Mauritius/ Seychelles (100%) | Seychelles (97%) | Seychelles (98%) | 2 |
| Lowest coverage | 100% | Madagascar (14%) | Malawi (10%) | Madagascar (12%) | 88 |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | N/A | 68% | 63% | 37 |
| CSC | 100% | 58% | 67% | 65% | 35 |

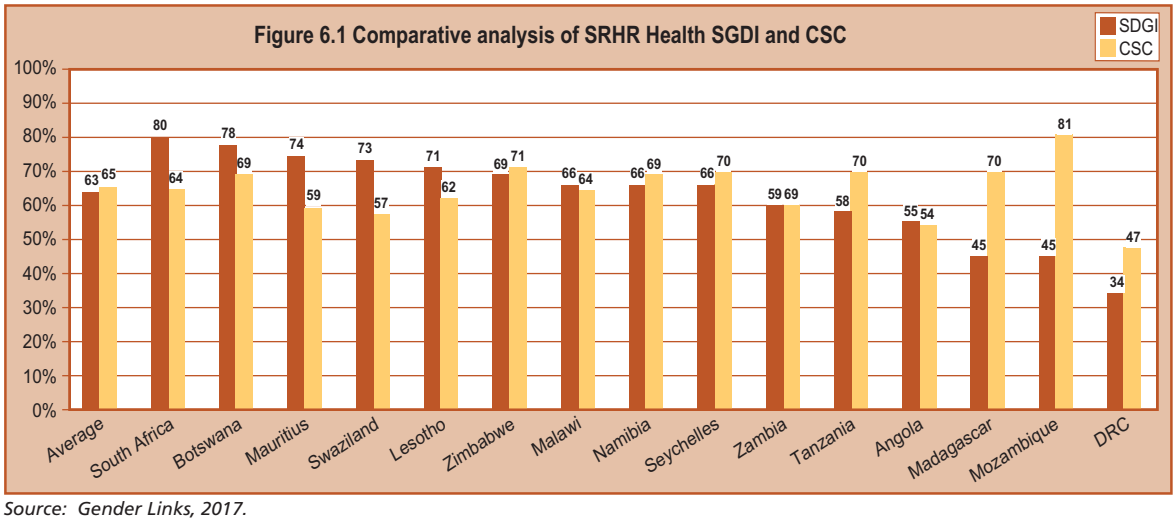
*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 6.2 shows that:

- The highest use of contraception among sexually active women in in Mauritius (76%) and lowest in Mozambique (12%). This is the same as in 2015. Mauritius has all through the tracking period had the highest level of contraceptive usage. Mozambique has taken over from Angola as lowest, and Angola has gone up from 6% at baseline to 18% in this report.
- Mauritius also has the lowest maternal mortality rate in the region (53 per 100,000) and has consistently been in top position during the tracking period. DRC (693 per 100,000) has the highest level of maternal mortality. DRC has taken over from Angola, whose maternal mortality rate over this period has dropped from 1400 per 100,000 to 477 per 100,000.
- At close to full coverage, Botswana now has the highest level of births attended by skilled personnel while Madagascar (12%) has the lowest. Generally this has been an area of marked improvement in the SADC region.
- Attitudes towards abortion have been introduced in the tracking for the first time. The trends table shows that Tanzania (80%) had a surprisingly high proportion of women and men agreeing or strongly agreeing that "a woman should be able to choose to terminate a pregnancy in the first three months of her pregnancy". DRC (27%) had the lowest proportion of women and men agreeing with this statement.

## Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of SRHR, this is based on the indicators captured in the trends table. The new indicator introduced relates to attitudes on abortion. Since the introduction of the SGDI in 2011, the overall average score increased from 62% to 68% but has dropped to 63%, in part due to the new "choice" indicator that has been introduced in line with the Agenda 2030. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post 2015 era. Not surprisingly, the overall score dropped from 67% to 65% with these tougher tests in place.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 6.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores for 2017. It shows that overall at 63% for the SGDI and 65% for the CSC, these scores (based on empirical data and perceptions respectively) are quite close. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. South Africa, Swaziland and Mauritius had the highest positive variances (ie people who are more sceptical than what the numbers tell us). Mozambique and Madagascar had the highest negative variances, ie where citizens are more optimistic than what the facts on the ground tell us.

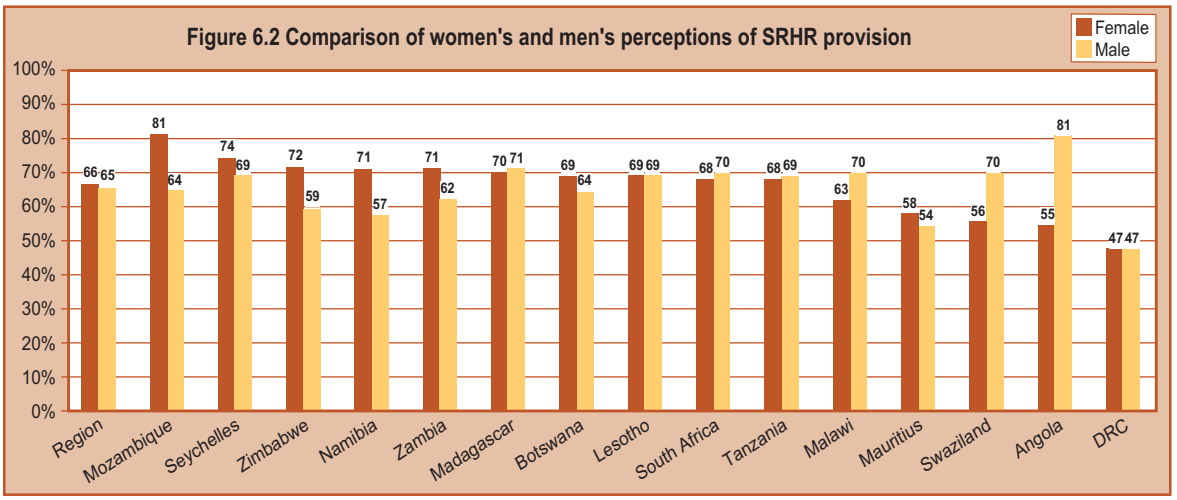



Health provisions in the region are gradually improving.
*Photo: Gender Links*

**SGDI** has gone **down** to **63%** in **2017** from **68%** in **2015**

**CSC** has **dropped** from **67%** in **2015** to **65%** in **2017**

66%
scored
higher
than
63%




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 6.2 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the sector for 2017. On average (66%) women had slightly higher scores than men (63%). As this sector largely concerns women's health, it is a positive sign that women are overall even more optimistic than men about the progress achieved. This is especially so in Lesotho, which has the highest variance between women and men. In Tanzania, Malawi, Mauritius, and Swaziland, women are slightly less optimistic than men.



Women are slightly more optimistic about the changes than men. *Photo: Gender Links*

| Table 6.3: Health Indicators | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Indicator | Angola | Botswana | DRC | Lesotho | Madagascar | Malawi | Mauritius | Mozambique | Namibia | Seychelles | South Africa | Swaziland | Tanzania | Zambia | Zimbabwe |
| % Contraceptive use among sexually active women | 18 | 53 | 18 | 60 | 40 | 59 | 76 | 12 | 56 | 41 | 60 | 65 | 34 | 49 | 67 |
| Country policy on termination of pregnancy | Illegal | Permitted in first 16 wks in case of rape, defilement, incest | Illegal | Illegal | Illegal | Illegal except when necessary to preserve a woman's life | Illegal | Illegal | Illegal | Illegal | Legal and women can choose to terminate pregnancy | Illegal | Illegal except when necessary to preserve a woman's life | Legal in limited circumstances, but lack of awareness and stigma inhibit access | Legal, but lengthy procedures and requirements before a woman can access an abortion |
| Maternal mortality ratio (out of 100, 000 live births) | 477 | 129 | 693 | 487 | 353 | 634 | 53 | 489 | 265 | (no input) | 138 | 389 | 398 | 224 | 443 |
| % Births attended by skilled personnel | 47 | 100 | 80 | 78 | 44 | 90 | 100 | 54 | 88 | 99 | 94 | 88 | 49 | 63 | 78 |
| % Total coverage of sanitation facilities | 52 | 63 | 29 | 30 | 12 | 41 | 93 | 21 | 34 | 98 | 66 | 57 | 16 | 44 | 37 |
| % Urban coverage | 89 | 79 | 37 | 37 | 18 | 47 | 94 | 42 | 54 | 97 | 70 | 63 | 31 | 56 | 49 |
| % Rural coverage | 22 | 43 | 29 | 28 | 9 | 40 | 93 | 10 | 17 | 97 | 61 | 56 | 8 | 36 | 31 |

*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

## Background




The global commitment to ensuring universal access to affordable, good quality healthcare remains strong with new targets being set through the Sustainable Development Goals (SGDs). The SDGs cover a wider range of health issues than the preceding the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Of relevance to the issues considered in this chapter are:

**Goal 3:** Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

3.1 By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births

3.7 By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

**Goal 6:** Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

6.1 By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all

6.2 By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations

In 2016 the international community launched the revised *Global Strategy for Women's, Children's and Adolescents' health (2016 - 30)*. The three overarching objectives of the updated Global Strategy are *Survive, Thrive and Transform*. The vision of this strategy is "by 2030, a world in which every woman, child and adolescent in every setting realises their rights to physical and mental health and well-being, has social and economic oppor-

The **SDGs** cover a **wider** range of health issues than the Millennium Development Goals **(MDGs)**

[1] Every Woman Every Child. 2016. Global Strategy for Women's, Children's and Adolescents' health (2016 - 30). www.everywomaneverychild.org. Last accessed 10 July, 2017.

tunities, and is able to participate fully in shaping prosperous and sustainable societies"[1]. In line with the SDG focus, the strategy seeks to ensure that all women, children and adolescents access good health care. It focuses on adolescents for the first time in acknowledgment of both the unique challenges that face adolescents and also of their enormous potential to transform the world.

## Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)

State parties shall, in line with the SADC Protocol on Health and other regional and international commitments by Member states on issues relating to health, adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies , programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care, in particular, to:
a) Eliminate maternal mortality.

Maternal mortality **risk** is highest for adolescent girls under **15 years** old



"Safe delivery" A new born baby, Tsararalana, Madagascar.
*Photo: Zotonantenaina Razanandrateta*

Families, communities and entire nations feel the consequences of maternal mortality and morbidity (proportion of disease and illness). Maternal deaths are closely linked to infant deaths and poor health outcomes. The death of women during their most productive years also has a negative impact on a nation as it spells a loss of resources for the entire society as well as reduced labour force and economic productivity.

Most maternal deaths are a result of complications which develop during pregnancy or are worsened by pregnancy and which may continue after childbirth. Complications which account for 75% of all maternal deaths are[2]:

- Severe bleeding (usually after delivery)
- Infections following delivery
- High blood pressure during pregnancy
- Complications during delivery
- Unsafe abortions

The Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) is the number of women of child bearing age who die during pregnancy or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy; from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management (but not from accidental or incidental causes) per 100 000 live births.[3] The MMR represents the risk associated with each pregnancy and birth and reflects the ability of a country's healthcare system to provide safe care during pregnancy and childbirth. A live birth refers to any baby that is born that shows signs of life outside of the womb.

Globally the commitment to addressing MMR continues in the SDGs. Target 3.1 is: "by 2030 reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births".

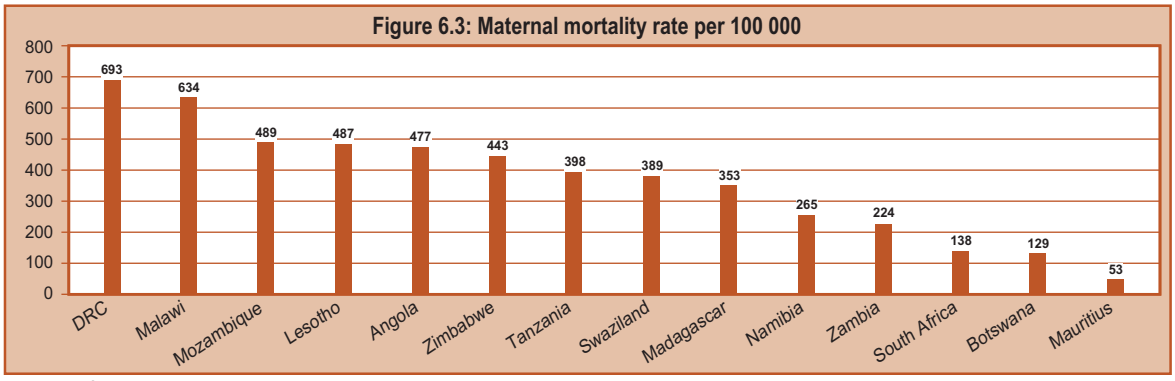
AIDS related maternal mortality has increased the MMR across SADC. Consequently, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe achieved a reduction in MMR of less than 25% between 1990 and 2015. With greatly expanded access to ARVs for women in the region it is hoped that maternal mortality will begin to decline. The risk of maternal mortality is highest for adolescent girls under 15 years old and complications in pregnancy and childbirth is a leading cause of death among adolescent girls.

It is difficult to ascertain the true status of MMR as accurate data is difficult to collect in most countries. The Maternal Mortality Estimation Inter-Agency Group (MMEIG), which is comprised of the World Health Organisations (WHO), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), World Bank and UNPD

[2] WHO. 2016. Maternal Mortality Fact Sheet. http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs348/en/ last accessed 20 July, 2017.
[3] MMR definition.

(United Nations Population Division), with expert advice from several universities, has generated internationally comparable MMR estimates that take national data into account.

At the end of 2015, the group compiled a report on the extent to which MDG 5 had been achieved. This report found that the estimated MMR had declined across all MDG regions with marked differences between regions in the extent of the decline. The two regions with the highest Maternal Mortality ratios were Sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania. Nigeria and India had the highest number of maternal deaths. Eighteen other African countries were found to have very high MMRs of over 500 per 100 000 live births. These include the DRC (693 UI 509 to 1010) and Malawi (634; UI 422 to 1080) which are in SADC.[4] Mauritius, whose MMR was 53 per 100,000, is the only country in SADC which has already achieved the SDG target of an MMR below 70[5].




*Source: Africa Union Gender Statistics accessed 30 June 2017.*

***Maternal mortality varies greatly:*** Figure 6.3 shows that MMR varies greatly in the SADC region, from 53 per 100,000 births in Mauritius to 693 per 100,000 births in the DRC. Figures for Seychelles could not be obtained in 2016, but in past years, Seychelles has performed best with an MMR of zero in one recent year, and baseline of 64 in 2009.



Although Angola has registered significant progress, only 24% of the rural population has access to health within at least a two kilometre distance from where they stay compared to 63% in urban areas. Thirty three percent of people in rural areas say there is no medicine in public hospitals and 69% of pregnant women will have only one prenatal visit out of the recommended four. Only 47% of women are able to go to all four-visits and 73% of births in urban areas take place in hospitals compared to 24% in rural areas. Women have limited access to health facilities especially related to reproductive health. According to The Directorate of Public Health, the maternal mortality rate stands at 460/100 000. The percentage of women attended by doctors during birth is 49% and only 18% of women of childbearing age use contraceptives. This is due to lack of knowledge on the different types of contraceptives and heavy patriarchal systems.



**Tanzania:** Despite a significant 47% reduction of MMR from 1990-2014, efforts to address maternal mortality require continued investment. Reports from UNICEF indicate that 24 women and 144 newborns die every day, which translates to over 8,500 maternal and 50,000 newborn deaths annually. 19% of maternal deaths are a result of unavailability of blood transfusion which is life-saving in cases of severe bleeding. Comprehensive Emergency Obstetric Care (CEmONC) which includes qualified staff involving midwives, doctors, anaesthetists, laboratory technicians and assistants, with functioning infrastructure, including safe water, electricity and labour wards should be available to all health centres. Access to blood transfusion and functioning surgical theatres within 2 hours travel time of any health facility are also important components of CEmONC. Another critical factor is skilled health attendants. It is projected that Tanzania has a shortage of 82000 health workers with inequitable distribution of skilled health workers between rural and urban areas.[6]

**DRC** has the **highest** mortality rate in the region with **693** deaths per every **100,000** births

[4] WHO. 2015. Trends in maternal mortality: 1990 to 2015: estimates by WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA, World Bank Group and the United Nations Population Division. Geneva.
[5] African Union. 2017. 2017 Status Report on Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health: Focusing on Unfinished Business in Africa. https://au.int/web/sites/default/files/newsevents/workingdocuments/32187-wd-mnch_status_report_2017_-_sa19092-e.pdf last accessed 20 July, 2017.
[6] http://allafrica.com/stories/201609191042.html ; http://www.carmma.org/update/tanzania-maternal-deaths-crisis-set-focus last accessed 21 July, 2017.

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Rebekka Smith represents the Ministry of Health and Social Services in the small village of Berseba, **Namibia**, where she supports a project which is run by Health Assistants to bring health and social services closer to the people, especially for pregnant women who are educated on antenatal care.

The project provides health education and home based care on the importance of HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis treatment adherence and completion as well as health education on maternal and neonatal health. Such programmes have been developed to serve remote communities that were out of reach of under resourced ministries.

One clear result of the project is that through education of pregnant women, infant and neonatal mortality in the village have decreased as women attend antenatal care consistently.

*Source: SADC Protocol@Work summit 2016*

***There is clearly need for increased focus on reduction of maternal mortality:*** Modelling conducted by the MMEIG[7] suggests that, at current rates of reduction, countries in Sub-Saharan Africa will only achieve an MMR of 357 per 100,000 by 2030. With much increased effort it is estimated that Sub Saharan Africa could achieve an MMR of 128 per 100,000. Rwanda, through a combination of much greater focus on community health worker training, support and incentives with community based health insurance and enhanced data collection and analysis has achieved the rate of reduction in maternal deaths that is necessary for the second scenario. The acceleration in reducing maternal mortality is only possible with political and policy action accompanied by clinical and non-clinical interventions. This action must seek to impact on three delays - delay in seeking health care; delay in reaching health care; and delay in receiving care.

**Steps needed to save women's lives:**

1. Ensure that all women access at least four antenatal care visits during pregnancy, with the first visit in the first trimester
2. All births are attended by skilled health professionals
3. Ensure that women have access to emergency obstetric and neo natal care in health facilities that have the necessary equipment and medicines
4. Support women to prevent unwanted and too early pregnancies. All women need access to contraception and safe abortion services to the full extent of the law with quality post abortion care.
5. Pay particular attention to adolescents - from supporting them to prevent pregnancy through early ante natal care and supported deliveries.
6. Ensure that pregnant women receive treatment and prophylaxis for malaria and ARVs for HIV.




*Photo: Boaki Fofana, All Africa.com*

**Reducing** maternal mortality is a priority for SADC

## Access to quality health services

Some of the factors that impact on access to quality health services are:

- Traditional beliefs and customs;
- Distance to a health facility; poor infrastructure and transport, opening hours;
- Number of skilled staff available and attitudes of health staff;
- Availability and cost of the services at health facilities. Perceived quality of services; and
- Subordinate position of women and lack of participation in decisions about their own health care, this is particularly true for young women.

[7] Alkema, L, et al. "Global, regional, and national levels and trends in maternal mortality between 1990 and 2015, with scenario-based projections to 2030: a systematic analysis by the UN Maternal Mortality Estimation Inter-Agency Group", The Lancet, Volume 387, No. 10017, p462-474, 30 January 2016, http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(15)00838-7/fulltext accessed 21 July, 2017.

| Table 6.4: Antenatal care | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | Antenatal care (%) | | Place of residence | | Household wealth quintile | | | | |
| | At least one visit | At least 4 visits | Urban | Rural | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th |
| | 2010-2015* | | | | | | | | |
| Angola | 80 | - | | | | | | | |
| Botswana | 94 | 73 | 76 | 70 | | | | | |
| DRC | 88 | 48 | 61 | 42 | 38 | 41 | 45 | 49 | 64 |
| Lesotho | 95 | 74 | 80 | 72 | 67 | 69 | 71 | 77 | 89 |
| Madagascar | 82 | 51 | 75 | 47 | | | | | |
| Malawi | 96 | 45 | 51 | 44 | 40 | 43 | 44 | 47 | 53 |
| Mauritius | - | - | | | | | | | |
| Mozambique | 91 | 51 | 60 | 47 | 37 | 42 | 50 | 54 | 64 |
| Namibia | 97 | 63 | 64 | 61 | 60 | 54 | 59 | 65 | 78 |
| Seychelles | - | - | | | | | | | |
| South Africa | 97 | 87 | | | | | | | |
| Swaziland | 99 | 76 | 80 | 76 | 72 | 72 | 77 | 79 | 85 |
| Tanzania | 91 | 51 | 64 | 45 | | | | | |
| Zambia | 96 | 56 | 56 | 55 | 48 | 53 | 53 | 51 | 65 |
| Zimbabwe | 93 | 70 | 72 | 69 | 65 | 69 | 74 | 68 | 78 |

*Derived from Antenatal care coverage: at least one visit - Percentage and Antenatal care coverage: at least four visits - Percentage. https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/antenatal-care/ Last accessed 20 July, 2017.*

***Women who have access to health services are much more likely to have at least one of the recommended four antenatal visits; to deliver with a skilled health assistant and to have follow up or postnatal care for themselves and their infants.*** Access to at least four ante-natal care visits has been shown to have a very strong correlation with reduction in maternal mortality ratios. Ante-natal care should include screening for and management of infections, hypertension, iron deficiency, tetanus toxoid vaccination, HIV testing and other risk factors. Table 6.5 shows that in 2016 the proportion of women that have accessed at least one antenatal care visit is over 80% for all countries and over 90% for the majority. Only Angola, DRC and Madagascar are between 80 and 90%. However, the percentage of pregnant women that accesses four visits is much lower with a low of 45% in Malawi and highest rate of 87% in South Africa.

***A woman's educational status has a significant impact on whether delivery is assisted by a health professional and whether the birth is delivered at a health facility***. For example, in Malawi 63% of births to mothers with no education were attended to by a health professional, compared to 98% of births to mothers with more than a secondary education. The proportion of women who obtain ante-natal care from health professionals also increases with the level of education from 93% of women with no education to 100% of women with tertiary education. In Swaziland, 15% of women without education fail to access ante-natal care compared with only 4% of women with education.

***Women that are empowered are more likely to access healthcare:*** The Zimbabwe Demographic Health Survey (DHS) found that women who participate in major household decisions with their husbands or partners are more likely to receive ante-natal care (91%), delivery care (68%) or a post-natal check-up within the first two days after birth (30%) than women who participate in fewer or no household decisions.[8]

***Other disparities are in place of residence and household wealth quintile*** as shown in Table 6.4. There are marked disparities in some countries between rural women's access to four antenatal visits and urban women's access. For instance, in Madagascar 75% of urban women have 4 antenatal visits while only 47% of rural women have this access. It is pleasing to note that many countries have succeeded in narrowing this gap. For example, in Swaziland it is 80 - 76 and Zambia 56 - 55. There are also disparities as a result of wealth quintile. For instance, in Mozambique the difference between the lowest and the highest wealth quintile is 37 to 64.

## Access to skilled health professionals

A key to reducing maternal mortality is to increase the number of births attended by skilled health professionals, equivalent to a doctor, nurse or midwife, with midwifery skills and access to transport in case emergency referral is required.

A  to reducing maternal mortality is to **increase** the number of births attended by **skilled** health professionals

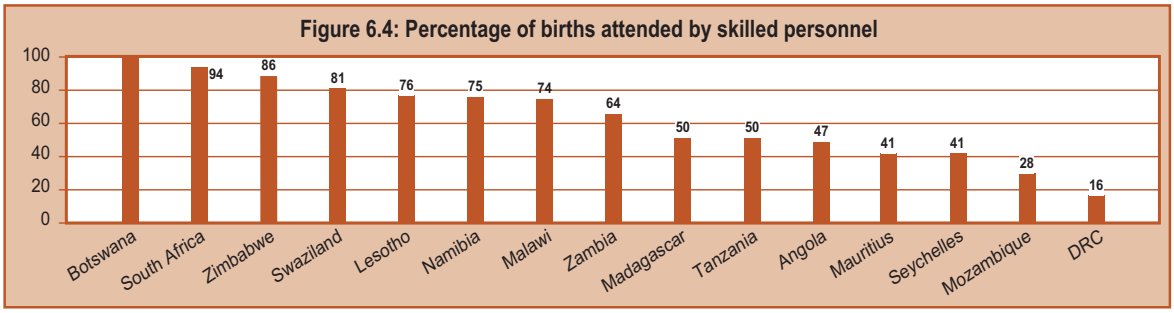
[8] Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey 2010-2011.

Births attended by **health** professionals in SADC vary from a low of **44.3%** in Madagascar to a high of **99,9%** in Botswana

Many of the conditions that cause maternal mortality are preventable with medical assistance. Skilled personnel must be able to handle normal deliveries safely and to recognise warning signs for complications and refer mothers to emergency care. Skilled birth attendance is indicator 3.1.2 of the SDGs. Target coverage by 2015 was 90% and requires investment, particularly in rural areas where distance, traditions and lower educational attainment by women limit their access to skilled attendance at birth. It also requires continuous investment in training for health personnel. It is estimated that globally an additional 675,000 nurses, doctors and midwives, with at least 544,000 community health workers and other cadres of health professionals are needed by 2035.



Birth attendance rates are high in Mauritius. *Photo: Gender Links*




*Source: UNICEF/WHO joint database on skilled attendance at birth (Feb 2017) https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/delivery-care/ accessed 20 July, 2017.*

***Presence of skilled health professionals varies significantly:*** Figure 6.4 shows the percentage of births attended by skilled personnel in the region. This varies from a low of 44.3% in Madagascar to a high of 99,9% in Botswana. Four countries have more than 90% of births attended by a skilled health professional (Botswana, Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa) while three still have fewer than 50%. Progress is being made and it is clear that, with political will and partnerships, this situation can be improved.

**Table 6.5: Institutional deliveries percentage**

| Country | Year(s) of data collection | Total | Place of residence | | Household wealth quintile | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Urban | Rural | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th |
| Botswana | 2013 | 100 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| South Africa | 2008 | 95 | | | | | | | |
| Malawi | 2015-2016 | 91 | 96 | 91 | 89 | 91 | 90 | 93 | 96 |
| Swaziland | 2014 | 88 | 93 | 86 | 76 | 87 | 89 | 94 | 95 |
| Namibia | 2013 | 87 | 95 | 80 | 71 | 87 | 89 | 96 | 98 |
| DRC | 2013-2014 | 80 | 93 | 74 | 66 | 73 | 78 | 91 | 98 |
| Lesotho | 2014 | 77 | 89 | 71 | 57 | 66 | 80 | 89 | 93 |
| Zimbabwe | 2015 | 77 | 92 | 70 | 61 | 68 | 76 | 88 | 95 |
| Zambia | 2013-2014 | 67 | 89 | 56 | 49 | 58 | 65 | 84 | 95 |
| Tanzania | 2015-2016 | 63 | 86 | 54 | 41 | 50 | 61 | 78 | 94 |
| Mozambique | 2011 | 55 | 82 | 45 | 31 | 38 | 53 | 74 | 92 |
| Angola | 2006-2007 | 46 | 72 | 22 | | | | | |
| Madagascar | 2012-2013 | 38 | 66 | 34 | 23 | 32 | 37 | 48 | 63 |

*Derived from Antenatal care coverage: at least one visit - Percentage and Antenatal care coverage: at least four visits - Percentage. https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/antenatal-care/ Last accessed 20 July, 2017.*

***Access to a skilled birth attendant is closely linked to delivery in a health institution:*** Table 6.5 shows the most recent data available on percentage of births in a health institution. It reflects that investment in health infrastructure, for both rural and urban communities, and providing access for all wealth quintiles is a critical factor in ensuring access to skilled birth attendance. Poorer countries such as Malawi have made significant progress in this regard with an urban: rural differential of only 96:91 and differential between the highest income quintile and lowest of only 96:89. Countries with greater differentials in access to delivery at a health institution generally have lower levels of access to skilled attendance at birth. Thus, Mozambique, for instance, has an urban: rural differential of delivery at a health institution of 82:45 and differential between highest income quintile and lowest of 92:31.

## Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR)

State parties shall develop and implement policies and programmes to address the mental, sexual and reproductive health needs of women and men in accordance with the Programme of Action of the IPCD and the Beijing Platform for Action.

According to the ICPD, the reproductive health approach recognises women as subjects rather than objects; upholds their dignity; respects their free and informed choices; and responds in a comprehensive manner to the totality of their health needs. In contrast to the Family Planning approach, a focus on reproductive health promotes men's understanding of their roles and responsibilities regarding reproductive health and aims to address the reproductive health issues of adolescents which were largely neglected. Furthermore, it addresses the issues of HIV and AIDS and sexually transmitted infections as part of its discourse.[10]



Promoting safe sex at the Zimbabwe Summit Awards Night in Zimbabwe. *Photo: Gender Links*




In 1995, at the Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) in Beijing, the international community agreed that human rights include the right of women to control and choose their sexuality. There is increased use of the terms sexual and reproductive rights in policies and programmes throughout the world. Until the late twentieth century, policy focus was very much on fertility control aimed at controlling population numbers. Over the last fifteen years, there has been a move in policy discourse towards broader reproductive health policies based upon human rights and choices,[11] that consider both men and women's reproductive needs.

Sexual health is defined by the WHO as a state of physical, mental and social well-being in relation to sexuality. Furthermore, it requires not only a positive and respectful approach to sexuality and sexual relationships but also the possibility of having pleasurable and safe sexual experiences, free of coercion as well as discrimination and violence.

In this context, reproductive health addresses the reproductive processes, functions and system at all stages of life. It implies not only the absence of disease or infirmity, it entitles people to have a responsible and safe sex life with the freedom to decide if, when and how often they have sex, or reproduce.

Sexual health is defined by the WHO as a **state** of **physical**, **mental** and **social** well-being in relation to sexuality

[10] ICPD 1999.
[11] Anderson, 2005.

**Defining SRHR**
"A state of physical, emotional, mental, and social well-being related to sexuality. It is not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity. Sexual health requires a positive and respectful approach to sexuality and sexual relationships, as well as the possibility of having pleasurable and safe sexual experiences, free of coercion, discrimination and violence. For sexual health to be attained and maintained the sexual rights of all persons must be respected, protected and fulfilled."[12]

In line with the above definition, reproductive healthcare is 'the constellation of methods, techniques and services that contribute to reproductive health and well-being by preventing and solving reproductive health problems'. It also includes sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counselling and care related to reproductive and sexually transmitted disease."

*Source: International Conference Population and Development report, para 7.2*

**9**
SADC countries have Sexual and Reproductive Health **policies**

The extent to which sexual and reproductive rights for women are discussed, understood and provided for in regional and national policies is limited. Updating the existing family planning policies in the SADC region to the rights-based reproductive health approach could assist countries in meeting the health provisions of the Protocol, being more gender aware and taking into account the wider reproductive issues the SADC region is facing.

African Ministers of Health adopted the **Continental Policy Framework on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights** in October 2005 that was endorsed by the Summit of the African Heads of State and Government in January 2006. SADC developed a Sexual and Reproductive Health Strategy for the SADC Region 2006 - 2015 to provide a framework for developing reproductive health policies for countries who did not yet have such policies.

At country level, **nine SADC countries have Sexual and Reproductive Health policies**. These are:

- *Lesotho* - National Reproductive Health policy, 2008.
- *Malawi* - National Reproductive Health and Rights Policy, 2009.
- *Mauritius* - the National Sexual and Reproductive Health Policy, 2007.
- *Mozambique* - National Sexual and Reproductive Health Policy, 2011.
- *Namibia* - National Policy for Reproductive Health, 2001.
- *Seychelles* - Reproductive Health Policy for Seychelles, 2012.
- *South Africa* - Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights: Fulfilling our Commitments 2011-2021 and "National Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Framework Strategy."
- *Swaziland* - National Policy on Sexual and Reproductive Health, 2013.
- *Zambia* - National Reproductive Health Policy, 2008.



Others have guidelines such as:

- *Botswana* - Policy guidelines and service standards for sexual and reproductive health, 2015.
- *Tanzania* - SRHR guidelines.



**Zimbabwe** has recently finalised the Zimbabwe National Family Planning Strategy (ZNFPS) 2016 - 2020 which aims to create an enabling environment conducive for the provision of quality, comprehensive and integrated FP and related SRHR services in Zimbabwe[13].



In January 2014, the government of the **DRC** adopted a "Family Planning National Multisectoral Strategic Plan (2014-2020)" which aligns with its "National Health Development Plan (2011-2015).

***The SADC Parliamentary Forum SRHR Project, 2014 - 2018*** is contributing to capacity development of parliamentarians, especially women Members of Parliament, throughout the SADC region. The objective is that these members are able to promote and advocate for policy to be supportive of human rights and sexual and reproductive rights. It is expected that the project will contribute positively to the provision of equitable universal access to SRHR and HIV/AIDS services. These include improved health and respect for human rights of all, especially women and girls, in the SADC region.[14]

[12] World Health Organisation (2002). The world health report 2002 Reducing risks, promoting healthy life, World Health Organisation.
[13] Government of Zimbabwe. 2016. Zimbabwe National Family Planning Strategy 2016 - 2020.
[14] http://www.govmu.org/English/News/Pages/Workshop-focuses-on-Sexual-Reproductive-Health-and-Rights-Governance.aspx accessed July 25, 2017.

***There are major challenges:*** Key challenges to attaining sexual and reproductive health are HIV and STIs; unintended pregnancy and unsafe abortion; infertility and cancer resulting from STIs and sexual dysfunction. Gender inequality, gender-based violence (GBV) and lack of choice impact significantly on the attainment of sexual and reproductive rights for women and girls.

***Older people have sexual health challenges which are not being addressed:*** The attitudes of health providers often discourage older people from accessing sexual and reproductive health services. In both cases, there is the perception that at their ages, they should not require such service. Older women and men have very specific, inadequately addressed reproductive and sexual health issues, such as cancers of reproductive organs.

***Women globally and in Southern Africa suffer from lack of control over their own sexuality***[15]. Many women exchange sex for survival not as prostitution but rather as a basic social and economic arrangement between the sexes. While the majority of men can choose when, with whom and with what protection, if any, to have sex, women often are not able to exercise these same choices.

## Adolescent SRHR

Africa has a high rate of pregnancy among adolescents. There is a direct correlation between rates of adolescent pregnancy and maternal mortality. All countries need to promote a continuum of SRHR for adolescents that includes:

- Knowledge, experience, income generating capacity and empowerment of adolescents. This should include retention in school for more years.
- Knowledge in families and communities of the risks of adolescent pregnancy; to mitigate these and to encourage adolescents to avoid becoming pregnant.
- The provision of adolescent friendly health services which manage the major risks for adolescents such as STIs, malaria, anaemia and which makes access to sexual education, contraception and safe abortion more accessible.
- An enabling legal and policy environment which criminalises child marriage, encourages adolescents to continue their education, and encourages adolescents to access health services. If nothing is done to reduce the rates of marriage of girls below the age of 18, an estimated 14 million African girls will be married every year.

♀ globally and in Southern Africa **suffer** from lack of control over their **own** sexuality



**Swaziland: Reaching the youth in Ngwenya**

After it became apparent that many young people do not know their Sexual and Reproductive Health Rights, the Ngwenya Council in Swaziland created an SRHR programme. This aims to address gender based violence including sexual violence; ensure full access to comprehensive sexual education for young children; ensure full access to age appropriate information on HIV and sexual and reproductive health and rights, including sexuality and gender identity; and provide training to caregivers on parent to child communication. The programme aims to reach individuals who do not know their rights, and influential members of the community such as church leaders.

The programme trains health motivators who then provide services to the community. These motivators focus on people affected by HIV and AIDS while promoting gender equality and promoting community dialogue within the community at large. The programme also aims to support CBOs and health motivators to work together to bring integrated HIV and sexual reproductive and health rights services to young key populations - connecting HIV with sexual and reproductive health rights training and information, education and communication materials to enable peer educators and service providers to engage young people and to refer them for services.

The council found that the majority of young people have never had an HIV test and do not know their HIV status, some stating fear of the reaction from nurses on the basis of engaging in sex, drug use or a combination of factors at young ages. One teenage girl reported that she is afraid to go to hospital when sick because most of the community consider her a prostitute. Instead she goes to a traditional healer. One pregnant teen refused to visit the hospital for check-ups until she went into labour. Some youths complained about being asked offensive questions regarding their sex life. This led to youth dialogue as some youths find it easier to open up to other youths about their lives.

Community leaders urged youth to come to dialogues. The youth dialogues now happen monthly. The youth grow more confident when they speak about sexual and reproductive health. In the future, the council hopes to secure funding to continue the youth dialogues and empower more young women.

*Source: Thobile Patience Dlamini, Ngwenya Town Board, Swaziland; SADC Protocol@Work summit 2016*

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[15] This section borrows from an article, "Women's health at risk in Africa." Afrol News http://www.afrol.com/Categories/Women/backgr_health_at_risk.htm

**Angola** has the **highest** adolescent fertility rate in SADC at **191** per **1000** of girls

| Table 6.6: Births before the age of 18 and Adolescent fertility rate | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | Births by age 18 | Adolescent fertility rate per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years | Percentage of girls married by 15 years old 2006-12 | Percentage of girls married by 18 years old 2006-12 |
| Angola | | 191 | | |
| Mozambique | 40 | 166 | 14 | 48 |
| Madagascar | 36 | 147 | 12 | 41 |
| Zambia | 31 | 145 | 9 | 42 |
| Malawi | 31 | 143 | 12 | 50 |
| Tanzania | 28 | 128 | | |
| DRC | 27 | 135 | 9 | 39 |
| Zimbabwe | 22 | 120 | 4 | 31 |
| Lesotho | 13 | 94 | 2 | 19 |
| Swaziland | 17 | 89 | 1 | 7 |
| Namibia | 15 | 78 | 2 | 9 |
| Seychelles | | 62 | | |
| South Africa | 15 | 54 | 1 | 6 |
| Botswana | | 39 | | |
| Mauritius | | 31 | | |

*Source: UNICEF Global databases. Births by 18. https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/adolescent-health/ Last accessed July 21, 2017. And African Union. 2017. 2017 Status Report on Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health: Focusing on Unfinished Business in Africa. https://au.int/web/sites/default/files/newsevents/workingdocuments/32187-wd-mnch_status_report_2017_-_sa19092-e.pdf last accessed 20 July, 2017.*

Table 6.6 shows the available data on births before the age of 18 in SADC. It indicates levels ranging from 13% of young women who had given birth before the age of 18 in Lesotho, to 40% in Mozambique. Angola has the highest adolescent fertility rate in SADC at 191 per 1000 of girls 15 to 19 giving birth (which is also the fourth highest rate in Africa), while Mauritius has the lowest at 31. An adolescent fertility rate over 80 per 1000 is considered high. Only Mauritius, Botswana, South Africa, Seychelles and Namibia in SADC are under the 80 mark. Thus, adolescent fertility is an issue of serious concern. The risk of complications for both the mother and her baby is much higher for pregnant adolescents than it is for older women. Adolescent fertility rates are generally higher in rural areas, in girls with low levels of education, and in the poorer households.

| Table 6.7: Antenatal care for pregnant adolescents in comparison to other women | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | | At least 1 ANC visit | | At least 4 ANC visits | | 1st ANC visit in 1st trimester | |
| | | Overall | Age15 - 17 | Overall | Age15 - 17 | Overall | Age15 - 17 |
| DRC | 2013 | 89 | 89 | 47 | 44 | 17 | 19 |
| Lesotho | 2009 | 92 | 88 | 66 | 62 | 29 | 27 |
| Madagascar | 2008 | 85 | 83 | 46 | 46 | 25 | 27 |
| Malawi | 2013 | 96 | 97 | 45 | 40 | 21 | 20 |
| Mozambique | 2011 | 90 | 91 | 48 | 47 | 12 | 13 |
| Namibia | 2013 | 97 | 97 | 62 | 55 | 41 | 24 |
| Swaziland | 2006 | 97 | 100 | 77 | | 21 | 25 |
| Tanzania | 2010 | 86 | 87 | 38 | 31 | 13 | 10 |
| Zambia | 2013 | 95 | 97 | 53 | 51 | 24 | 24 |
| Zimbabwe | 2014 | 94 | 93 | 70 | 67 | 31 | 26 |

*Source: UNICEF Global databases. At least 1 ANC from skilled provider. At least 4 visits. First ANC visit within first trimester. https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/adolescent-health/ Last accessed July 21, 2017.*

Table 6.7 shows some of the available data on the care that pregnant adolescents receive. In general, pregnant adolescents receive very similar levels of care to all other pregnant women. Across the region the majority access at least one ANC visit with a skilled provider. Given the much higher risk of pregnancy in adolescents, it is disturbing that only in Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Namibia and Zambia are more than 50% of pregnant adolescents receiving the recommended 4 ANC visits. Further, the first ANC visit is generally not during the first trimester as is recommended.

***The consequences of child marriage and adolescents having children include:*** increased maternal and child mortality; obstetric fistula, premature births, and sexually transmitted diseases (including human papilloma virus which is believed to cause cervical cancer and HIV). Very often girls who are married are not in school (they either drop out before they get married or to get married) and have lower levels of education. Countries in SADC that have particularly high rates of child marriage are: DRC; Madagascar; Malawi; Mozambique; Zambia and Zimbabwe. Table 6.7 shows a close correlation between high rates of child marriage and high adolescent fertility rates. A 10% reduction in child marriage could contribute to a 70% reduction in a country's maternal mortality rates. High rates of child marriage are linked to lower use of family planning, higher fertility, unwanted pregnancies, higher risk for complications during childbirth, limited educational advancement, and reduced economic earnings potential.[16]

Close correlation between high rates of child marriage and high adolescent fertility rates

Protocol@Work

**Zambia: Addressing child marriage in Katete**



In many societies, young women have sexual relationships with men who are considerably older than them. Adolescent girls' vulnerability to HIV has been associated with age-disparate sex related to early marriage or relationships with older partners for money or other material gain. It is evident that young adolescent boys and girls are having sex early and, in most instances, especially for the boys, it is high-risk sex. In a generalized HIV epidemic like the one in Zambia, having sex with older men and to some extent women may introduce HIV into younger, uninfected generations or cohorts.

The Katete Council project was established to reduce the incidence of early marriages, and to promote girl child education. The project was established due to cultural and traditional practices and high poverty levels which lead to teenage pregnancy and increase the risk of HIV infection.

The project has employed various strategies:

- Awareness through peer educators in collaboration with community level structures;
- Establishing youth friendly corners in rural areas and monitoring re-entry of girl children to schools;
- Reaching out to influential community figures such as religious leaders, traditional leaders, village leaders, health care providers, and others to persuade parents and community members not to marry off their daughters as children;
- Providing economic incentives to families to keep their daughters unmarried until they are at least 18 and keep them in school;
- Encouraging supportive laws and policies;
- Empowering girls with information, skills and support networks;
- Sensitisation about early marriages on radio programmes;
- The local community groups have collaborated with local leaders and tribal chiefs to inform them about the physical dangers to young girls and their children, as well as the benefits to the entire community if early marriages are prevented. The project works with Social Welfare, Victim Support Unit, One Stop Center and the Ministry of Education, the project is also working with international NGOs World Vision, CARE International and PLAN International.

*Source: Fridah Musukuma, Katete District Council; SADC Protocol@Work summit 2016*



Young girls married off at a tender age.
*Photo: Fridah Musukuma*

[16] Every Woman Every Child. 2016. Global Strategy for Women's, Children's and Adolescents' health (2016 - 30). www.everywomaneverychild.org. Last accessed 10 July, 2017

SADC Parliamentary Forum has adopted a model law to **Eradicate** Child **Marriage**

SADC Parliamentary Forum adopts model law to Eradicate Child Marriage - contributing to the AU continental campaign: The 39th Plenary Assembly of the Southern African Development Community Parliamentary Forum (SADC-PF) adopted the Model Law on Eradicating Child Marriage and Protecting Children Already in Marriage on June 3rd, 2016[17]. The Model Law will provide guidance to parliamentarians, ministries of justice, policymakers, and other stakeholders in SADC countries as they develop national laws. The Model Law eliminates several loop holes that make current laws ineffective and unenforceable including parental and judicial consent, and conflicts between customary and statuary laws. Member states should now harmonise their national laws to prevent child marriages in support of the AU Campaign to End Child Marriage in a Generation.

**The ESA Commitment**[18]

Ministers of Education and Health from 20 countries in Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA) - including all SADC member states - signed the historic ESA Commitment in December, 2013. They agreed to work collaboratively towards a vision of young Africans who are global citizens of the future, are educated, healthy, resilient, socially responsible, informed decision-makers, with the capacity to contribute to their communities, countries, and region. They affirmed their commitment to the right to the highest possible level of health, education, non-discrimination, and well-being of current and future generations.

The ESA Commitment had two sets of targets to be achieved in 2015 and 2020 respectively:

*2015 Targets:*
TARGET 1: A good quality comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) curriculum framework is in place and being implemented in each of the 20 countries by 2015

Progress in 2015: *15 out of 21 countries reported providing CSE/Life Skills in at least 40% of primary and secondary schools.*

TARGET 2: Pre- and in-service SRH and CSE training for teachers, health and social workers is in place and being implemented in all 202 countries.

Progress in 2015: *All 21 countries reported having CSE training programmes for teachers 17 out of 21 countries reported having youth-friendly SRH service training programmes for health and social workers.*

TARGET 3: By the end of 2015, decrease by 50% the number of adolescents and young people who do not have access to youth-friendly SRH services, including HIV, that are equitable, accessible, acceptable, appropriate and effective.

Progress in 2015: *15 out of 21 countries reported offering the standard minimum package of adolescent and youth friendly SRH services.*

*2020 Targets:*
TARGET 4: Consolidate recent and hard-won gains in the reduction of HIV prevalence in ESA and push towards eliminating all new HIV infections among adolescents and young people aged 10-24.
TARGET 5: Increase to 95% the number of adolescents and young people, aged 10-24, who demonstrate comprehensive HIV prevention knowledge levels.
TARGET 6: Reduce early and unintended pregnancies among young people by 75%.
TARGET 7: Eliminate gender-based violence.
TARGET 8: Eliminate child marriage.

With support from UNESCO, UNFPA and UNAIDS, as well as other development and civil society partners, the ESA Commitment provides a roadmap and direction for action to improve the situation of adolescents.

[17] http://www.southernafricalitigationcentre.org/2016/06/09/news-release-sadc-parliamentarians-adopt-model-law-on-eradicating-child-marriage-and-protecting-children-already-in-marriage/ last accessed 8 July, 2016
[18] UNESCO, UNFPA and UNAIDS 2016. Fulfilling our Promise to Young People Today. 2013 - 2015 Progress Report. http://youngpeopletoday.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/ESA-Commitment-Report-Digital.pdf last accessed 20 July, 2017.

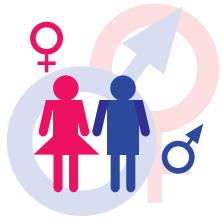
***The African Union (AU) theme for 2017 is "Harnessing the Demographic Dividend Through Investments in Youth."*** Some of the key investments in youth are: supporting adolescents and youth to stay in school, empowering youth with skills development and training, providing comprehensive sexuality education, and ensuring access to youth friendly SRH services. Investment must focus on young people that are difficult to reach such as those who are out of school, living in rural areas or urban slums, poor, disabled, or affected by conflict. Many of these interventions interact with one another for maximum benefit. Thus, for instance, adolescents and youth that have completed secondary school are more likely to develop the skills they need to be economically productive; to delay marriage, delay childbearing, and have lower risk for HIV. Thus, it is recommended that investment in youth should involve multiple interventions together, over time, rather than single-focus interventions[19].

***Age of consent (for medical procedures) laws inhibit young people's access to SRH services where youth friendly services are not available.*** Many countries require that young people be a specific age before they can consent to a medical procedure such as an HIV test or access to contraceptives without parental notification and/or consent. While these laws are meant to protect young people, they sometimes have the opposite effect by barring young people from accessing vital SRH services. Given this scenario, it is important to rationalise the laws and to increase youth-friendly SRH services. For example, in Botswana the age of consent for a medical procedure is 21 while its median age for sexual debut for young women is 17.5 years.



Africa's youthful population is its "demographic dividend." School children in Kabwe, Zambia. *Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

## Access to contraception



Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest total fertility rate in the world, but some countries in the region are undergoing dynamic and unprecedented fertility transitions. Among these transitions is an improved acceptance of family planning, increased uptake of modern contraceptive methods and improved health services to meet sexual and reproductive health needs. Family planning services have been established in many Southern African countries. Access to a range of contraceptives is available with information and counselling. However, sexual and reproductive health is still often seen as a 'woman's issue' and men are rarely involved.

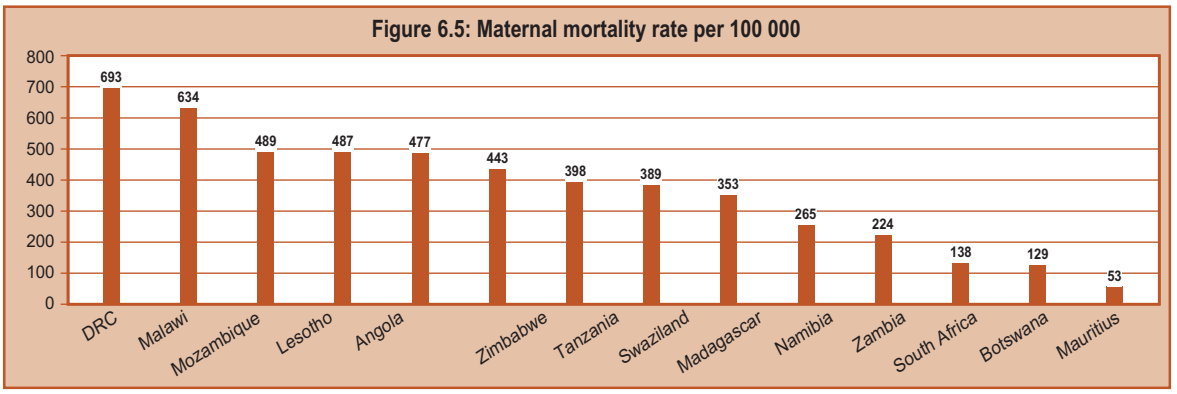
If all women who want to avoid a pregnancy used modern contraceptives the benefits would be dramatic. Compared with 2014, there would be a reduction in: unintended pregnancies by 70 per cent; abortions by 67 per cent; and transmission of HIV from mothers to newborns would be nearly eliminated. Population stability would enhance economic sustainability and reduce the risks of climate change.[20]

Contraceptive prevalence is the percentage of women who are currently using, or whose sexual partner is currently using, at least one method of contraception, regardless of the method used. It is usually reported for married or in-union women aged 15 to 49.

**Contra-ceptive** prevalence in SADC is still **very low**

[19] African Union Commission and Population Reference Bureau. 2017. The Demographic Dividend in Africa Relies on Investments in the Reproductive Health and Rights of Adolescents and Youth. http://www.prb.org/Publications/Reports/2017/African-Demographic-Dividend.aspx last accessed 26 July, 2017.
[20] Every Woman Every Child. 2016. Global Strategy for Women's, Children's and Adolescents' health (2016 - 30). www.everywomaneverychild.org. Last accessed 10 July, 2017.

Mauritius has the highest contraceptive usage at **76%** while Mozambique has the lowest at **12%**




*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

***Contraceptive usage is still low but improving:*** Figure 6.5 reflects slow improvement in access to contraception. Mauritius remains the highest at 76% while Mozambique still has very low coverage at 12%. This area is still in dire need of political will and investment.

**Table 6.8: Unmet need for contraception (UNC): by age, residence, education & income**

| Country | UNC | By Age Group | | By Residence | | By Education | | By income quintile | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 15 - 19 | 20 - 24 | Rural | Urban | Prim. | Sec. | lowest | highest |
| DRC | 28 | 31 | 29 | 28 | 27 | 29 | 27 | 28 | 26 |
| Lesotho | 23 | 30 | 28 | 15 | 27 | 27 | 18 | 37 | 13 |
| Madagascar | 19 | 27 | 18 | 17 | 19 | 20 | 16 | 23 | 16 |
| Malawi | 26 | 25 | 27 | 23 | 27 | 27 | 21 | 30 | 22 |
| Mozambique | 29 | 23 | 23 | 30 | 28 | 29 | 29 | 28 | 32 |
| Namibia | 21 | 34 | 20 | 16 | 26 | 26 | 16 | 33 | 11 |
| South Africa | 14 | 18 | 17 | 13 | 17 | | | | |
| Swaziland | 13 | 29 | 15 | 9 | 15 | 18 | 10 | 21 | 8 |
| Tanzania | 25 | 16 | 25 | 20 | 27 | 25 | 17 | 31 | 16 |
| Zambia | 27 | 23 | 25 | 23 | 29 | 29 | 21 | 27 | 19 |
| Zimbabwe | 15 | 19 | 14 | 13 | 15 | 16 | 14 | 17 | 11 |

*Source: UNFPA. 2016. Universal access to Reproductive Health: Progress and Challenges. http://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA_Reproductive_Paper_20160120_online.pdf last accessed 19 July, 2017.*

Table 6.8 shows that the unmet need for contraception in SADC varies from a low of 4% in Mauritius (the lowest in Africa) to a high of 29% in Mozambique. Unmet need of greater than 25% is considered very high. In general, the unmet need is higher in rural areas than urban, for adolescents than for the overall and in the poorest economic quintile than in the highest.

Though demand for and use of contraception among adolescent girls are increasing, current levels are still much lower than for other age groups. Expanding access to family planning services to adolescents will require political and financial commitments from governments and civil society.[21]

Unmet need for contraception is defined as "Women who are fecund and sexually active but are not using any method of contraception, and report not wanting any more children". It is usually measured for women between 15 and 49 years old, so misses younger girls, and usually only for those that are married or in union. It is measured as a percentage.

[21] UNFPA. 2016. Universal access to Reproductive Health: Progress and Challenges. http://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/UNFPA_Reproductive_Paper_20160120_online.pdf last accessed 19 July, 2017.



**Zimbabwe** has been able to increase contraceptive prevalence rate from 14% just after independence in 1980 to 67%. Strong political commitment to the family planning programme was provided at the establishment of the Zimbabwe National Family Planning Council just after independence. Fees for the low income group were abolished, removing a barrier to contraceptive use. Contraceptives were made available to the rural population through the Primary Health Care system and community-based distribution mechanism for condoms and oral contraceptives. The gradual improvement in the status of women has, with access to education and legislative changes, has positively impacted on reproductive health[22].



More than 85% of **Malawi**'s population lives in rural areas, where unmet need for contraception is high. In 2016, 19% of rural married women and 40% of rural sexually active unmarried women expressed a desire to delay, space, or limit births but reported they were not using contraception.[23] To increase access to a wider range of family planning methods for rural communities, including long-acting reversible contraceptives (LARCs), implants or IUDs, the Ministry of Health in Malawi, with the support from PSI, is providing monthly mobile outreach visits to rural areas. Community health workers generate demand from women in the community and liaise with the teams regarding the nature and scale of demand. The MOH and PSI outreach teams use tents, churches and schools to bring services closer to women. On average, mobile outreach teams cover 20 remote and hard-to-reach sites per week.

This model empowers women to make choices that address their needs and desires and also builds capacity for public health service providers, who receive on-the-job training to deliver LARCs. In 2016, nearly 60,000 clients accessed a broad range of family planning options through these integrated outreach approaches. All of these services are provided within the context of informed choice, providing a wide range of methods, as well as ensuring follow up services are available for any woman who wishes to change her method or remove a LARC[24].

## The right to choose

Any discussion about abortion and a woman's right to choose remains contentious. People who do not support abortion cite many moral, religious and cultural factors as to why it should remain illegal. Many women continue to access unsafe abortions and as a result of this, thousands die each year, while others suffer permanent damage, infertility and chronic illness. Illegal abortion is one of the main reasons behind high MMR. For instance, 19% of the MMR in Namibia is attributable to unsafe abortions. There is an urgent need for a policy environment that promotes access to safe abortions, emergency services for post-abortion care, post-abortion counselling and information around the availability of services.

The *African Policy Framework on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights 2006* recommended that: "The issue of abortion is certainly a sensitive one for a number of people. However, the solution is not to bury one's head in the sand and to hope the phenomenon will disappear. While programmes should aim at eliminating the reasons leading to abortion, it is important also to deal with the issue of unsafe abortion squarely. Policy makers and opinion leaders must encourage a healthy and unemotional debate about the issue and about the ravages caused by unsafe abortion. Positive legislative change must be envisaged despite the ideological clouds surrounding this issue. In the final analysis, one has to recognize that unsafe abortion is the third cause of maternal death and ill-health. One cannot achieve the goal of reducing maternal mortality and morbidity without dealing with unsafe abortion."[25]

Unsafe abortion is a public health and human rights challenge in most of Africa, resulting in high levels of morbidity and mortality in women, and particularly young women. It is estimated that unsafe abortion contributes to 9% of maternal deaths usually from haemorrhage, infection and poisoning, in Africa.[26]



**Malawi:** The Ministry of Health study found that a significant number of maternal deaths are a result of unsafe abortions. Highly restrictive abortion legislation contributes to women's decisions to use unsafe abortions. It also found that 1 in 5 women developed life threatening complications such as shock, sepsis, organ failure or death after unsafe abortions. The state spends

It is estimated that **unsafe** abortion contributes to **9%** of maternal deaths

[22] African Union. 2017. 2017 Status Report on Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health: Focusing on Unfinished Business in Africa. https://au.int/web/sites/default/files/newsevents/workingdocuments/32187-wd-mnch_status_report_2017_-_sa19092-e.pdf last accessed 20 July, 2017.
[23] National Statistical Office (NSO) [Malawi] and ICF International. 2016. Malawi Demographic and Health Survey 2015-16: Key Indicators Report. Zomba, Malawi, and Rockville, Maryland, USA. NSO and ICF International.
[24] http://www.carmma.org/update/bringing-contraception-closer-rural-women-malawihow-private-and-public-sectors-work-together accessed 20 July, 2017.
[25] African Union Commission. 2006. Continental Policy Framework on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights. Addis Ababa.
[26] African Union. 2017. 2017 Status Report on Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health: Focusing on Unfinished Business in Africa. https://au.int/web/sites/default/files/newsevents/workingdocuments/32187-wd-mnch_status_report_2017_-_sa19092-e.pdf last accessed 20 July, 2017.

SADC Gender Protocol Alliance has taken a **lead** on **SRHR** campaigns in the region

approximately $313,000 per annum in post abortion care. Malawi is currently reviewing their abortion laws.



**Namibia:** Studies suggest that unsafe abortions contribute to between 12 and 16 percent of maternal deaths in Namibia. HEARD has identified a huge gap in reporting on abortion as there is very little research that has been done on the topic. Women who can afford abortions travel to nearby South Africa to have abortions as the legal process in Namibia is cumbersome.[27]



It is estimated that around 16% of maternal deaths in **Tanzania** area result of unsafe abortions. It is estimated that the national rate of abortions is 36 per 1,000 in women aged 15- 49.

**SRHR Advocacy Campaigns in SADC**

The Alliance, led by the SRHR lead cluster SAFAIDS held its first cluster meeting from 15-16 November 2016 in Harare, Zimbabwe. The main objective of the meeting was for the cluster to strategise on regional campaigns as part of tracking and holding governments accountable in the implementation of the Revised SADC Gender Protocol.

SADC GENDER PROTOCOL ALLIANCE

Representatives from all the 15 SADC countries attended the meeting. It highlighted the crucial link between economic independence and ending gender based violence (GBV); greater access to SRHR; disability and gender; Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity rights. The SRHR meeting adopted a campaigns action plan which guides the social media campaigns of the cluster both the regional and the country level in the 15 countries.

For 2017 the cluster prioritised the following specific campaigns:
- Early Marriages.
- Youth Friendly service provision.
- Sexual harassment in schools.
- Unsafe abortions.
- GBV.
- Access to sanitary ware for school girls.

SRHR campaigns ran across the region since the beginning of the year have demonstrated that the cluster mas made great strides in utilising new media to advocate for (SRHR). The table below show some of the SRHR campaigns:

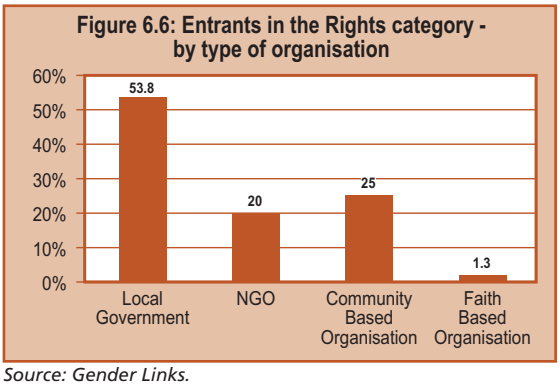
| Theme | Issue | Title of Campaign | Platform |
|---|---|---|---|
| GBV and Economic Justice | Economic empowerment of survivors of GBV | Be Bold for change | March, blogs and social media |
| GBV | High rates of femicide in South Africa | Femicide in South Africa | Blogs/ Twitter |
| GBV | Men's role in eliminating GBV | Not in my name | March and social media |
| SRHR | Access to sanitation | Access to sanitary pads | Blogs/ Twitter |
| SRHR | Funding for SRHR projects in relation to the Gag Rule | Women's March Global | March and social media |
| Governance and SRHR | Women's voices in Africa's development | African Women Rising | Rally and blog |
| Governance and SRHR | Promotion and protection of SRHR in South Africa | Feminist for South Africa President | Mainstream media |

[27] http://www.heard.org.za/news-post/sexual-reproductive-health-rights-our-approach/ accessed 30 July, 2017.

# How the Protocol is being used and what is changing

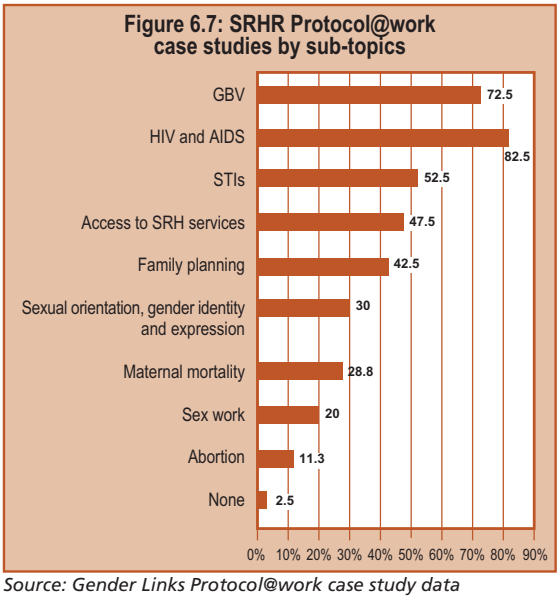
## Analysis of the SRHR Protocol@Work case studies

The SADC Gender Protocol Alliance gathered 80 Protocol@work case studies on SRHR including health, Gender Based Violence, HIV and AIDS.



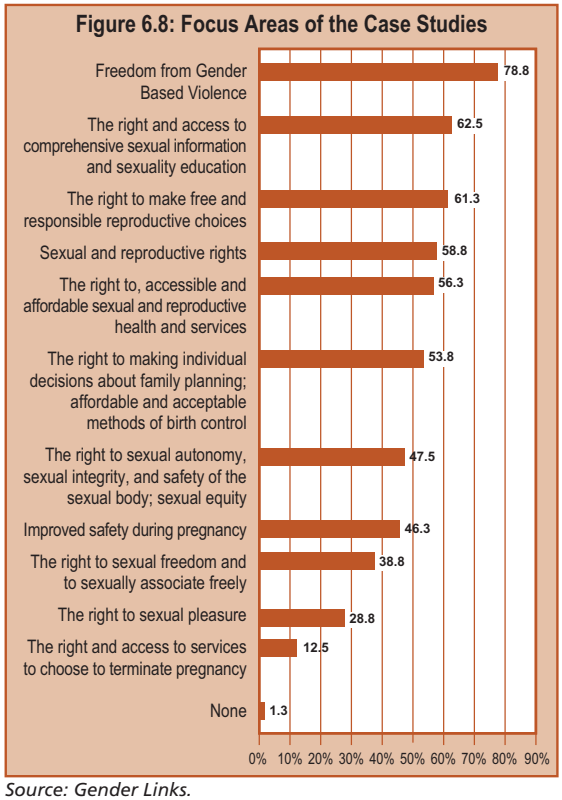

*Source: Gender Links.*

Figure 6.6 illustrates that the majority (53.8%) of entrants were local government organizations, with the rest being NGOs, CBOs and one Faith Based organizations. 79 out of the 80 entrants indicated that they received budgetary support from their local council, while 70 also received in kind support from the council.




*Source: Gender Links Protocol@work case study data*

Figure 6.7 shows the SRHR sub-topics featured in the case studies collected. Gender based violence is featured in most case studies at 73% while abortion was featured least at 11%. Sexual orientation and identity sub-topic is reflected in 30% of the SRHR case studies. Homosexuality is criminalised in most of SADC countries except DRC, Mozambique and South Africa. Maternal mortality is featured as a sub-topic in 29% of case studies. The region still experiences high rates of maternal mortality largely due to unsafe abortion practices, teenage pregnancies and limited health facilities. Protection of sex workers rights is a critical area to reduce gender equality. Twenty percent of the SRHR case studies featured sex work as a sub-topic.




*Source: Gender Links.*

Figure 6.8 illustrates the wide range of focus areas of the different case studies - the majority are Freedom from Gender Based Violence. Others are: The right and access to comprehensive sexual information and sexuality education; The right to make free and responsible reproductive choices; Sexual and reproductive rights; The right to, accessible and affordable sexual and reproductive health and services; The right to making individual decisions about family planning; affordable and acceptable methods of birth control; The right to sexual autonomy, sexual integrity, and safety of the sexual body; sexual equity; Improved safety during pregnancy; The right to sexual freedom and to sexually associate freely; The right to sexual pleasure; The right and access to services to choose to terminate pregnancy.

**80** Protocol @Work case studies on SRHR

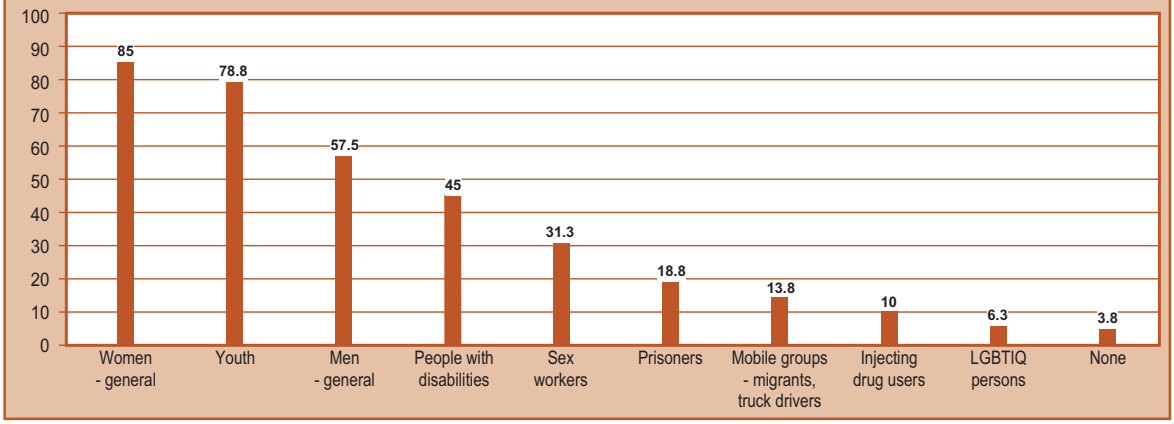
The **most** referred to clauses of the Protocol are **laws** on **GBV**

| Table 6.9: Protocol usage featured in case studies | |
|---|---|
| **Protocol provision** | **Percent Protocol@work** |
| Ensure that laws on gender based violence provide for the comprehensive testing, treatment and care of survivors of sexual assault. | 69% |
| Enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of gender-based violence | 66% |
| Adopt and implement legislative frameworks, policies, programmes and services to enhance gender sensitive, appropriate and affordable quality health care. | 59% |
| Review and reform their criminal laws and procedures applicable to cases of sexual offences and gender based violence. | 58% |
| Enact and adopt specific legislative provisions to prevent human trafficking and provide holistic services to the victims, with the aim of re-integrating them into society. | 45% |
| Enact legislative provisions, and adopt and implement policies, strategies and programmes which define and prohibit sexual harassment in all spheres, and provide deterrent sanctions for perpetrators of sexual harassment. | 44% |
| Adopt integrated approaches, including institutional cross sector structures, with the aim of reducing current levels of gender based violence. | 44% |

*Source: Gender Links.*

As reflected in Table 6.9, the most referred to clauses of the Protocol are laws on GBV for the comprehensive testing, treatment and care of survivors of sexual assault, followed by enacting legislation prohibiting all forms of GBV (66%). Sexual harassment and trafficking were the least referred to, as these are relatively new in GBV discourse.

**Figure 6.9: Target groups featured in SRHR case studies**




*Source: Gender Links Protocol@work case study data.*

Figure 6.9 shows the target groups featured in the 80 SRHR case studies. Women made up 85% of the target groups. Youth made almost 79% of the target groups. The SADC Gender Protocol Alliance is mobilising young women to form the Young Women's Alliance. This will deepen engagement on SRHR. Youth are a critical aspect of improving SRHR. This was highlighted in the SADC sponsored UN Resolution on Women, girls; HIV and AIDS. This resolution is cross referenced in the Protocol provisions[28]. Sex workers made 31% of the target groups while LGBTIQ made 6% of the target groups. At 58%, men constituted the third highest target group. Working with and mobilising men is a critical to work on SRHR.

[28] SADC (2016) Revised SADC Protocol on Gender and Development.

**Zambia: The Conflict Management project**



Bringing HIV and AIDS awareness through dance in Zambia.
*Photo: Nobetty Banda*

The Conflict Management project aims to mobilise men as agents of change in promoting gender equity. HIV prevention and sexual behaviour change. It provides opportunities for men to come together to share ideas, experiences, information and knowledge which enhances positive attitudes to gender equality, HIV and AIDS prevention and women's participation in social and economic development. It contributes to the reduction of gender based violence among men and women and high levels of HIV infection which is a threat to good health and development.

Katete District Men's Network(KDMN) is a community based initiative founded in 2009 in Katete District of Eastern Province of Zambia. The project was established due to high levels of wife battering, child sexual abuse, assault, child marriages and rape cases.

KDMN has engaged in community awareness discussions and education, capacity building, community forums, drama performances, recreational games, dialogues, information exchange visits and radio programmes amongst others.

KDMN has partnered with one-stop centre which supports GBV victims, the network for Zambian people living with HIV/AIDS(NZP+) and media houses such as Radio Mphangwe in conducting awareness campaigns. The project is also a member of the District AIDS Task Force (DATF), Civil Society Organisation Committee (CSOs) and the Victim Support Unit (VSU).
*Nobetty Banda, Katete Men's Network, Zambia*

*Source: SADC Protocol@Work summit 2016*

Protocol@Work

## Sanitation

**Article 26 (c)** Ensure the provision of hygiene and sanitary facilities and nutritional needs of women, including women in prison

The provision of sanitation and hygiene facilities is integral to improving women's health throughout the region. Poor sanitation results in increased spread of communicable diseases which women are particularly vulnerable to. Furthermore, menstruation, pregnancy, and post-natal care are difficult for women without proper hygiene and sanitary facilities, as are caring for ill family and community members. According to the WHO, providing clean drinking water, better sanitation and improving water resources management to reduce the incidence of water-borne diseases can avoid almost one tenth of all global deaths.

Household sanitation is everyone's responsibility, but the reality is that women, especially rural women, bear a disproportionate burden of household responsibilities. Sanitation impacts on women and girls' personal safety. Women's risk of experiencing rape and sexual assault are reduced when toilets and water supplies are located close to their homes. Women thus have a vested interest in ensuring that there are developments and improvement of sanitation in their communities. Although providing hygiene and sanitation facilities are provisions of the Protocol, the developments have been slow.

The WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (JMP) has developed service 'ladders' in relation to the provision of sanitation and water. The JMP 2017 report introduces these ladders which build on established indicators and set new rungs with additional criteria relating to service levels.[29] For Sanitation the rungs are:

**Sanitation** impacts on women and girls' personal safety

[29] World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 2017. Progress on Drinking Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: 2017 Update and SDG Baselines. Geneva.

The extent of **open** defecation in the region, especially in **rural** areas, is disturbing

- **Safely managed** sanitation facilities are those designed to hygienically separate excreta from human contact. The main ways to meet the criteria for having a safely managed sanitation service are: use improved sanitation facilities that are not shared with other households, excreta produced should either be treated and disposed of in situ; stored temporarily and then emptied, transported and treated off-site; or transported through a sewer with wastewater and treated off-site.
- **Basic** sanitation service if the excreta from improved sanitation facilities are not safely managed.
- **Limited** service if people using improved facilities share these with other households.
- **Unimproved** is use of pit latrines without a slab or platform, hanging latrines or bucket latrines.
- **Open defecation**.

**Table 6.10: SADC SDG Baseline Sanitation Status in 2015**

| Country | National | | | | Rural | | | | Urban | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | At least basic | Limited Shared | Unimproved | Open defaecation | At least basic | Limited Shared | Unimproved | Open defaecation | At least basic | Limited Shared | Unimproved | Open defaecation |
| Angola | 39,4 | 15,0 | 12,7 | 32,8 | 21,4 | 5,5 | 16,9 | 56,3 | 62,3 | 27,1 | 7,5 | 3,1 |
| Botswana | 60,0 | 7,9 | 15,3 | 16,9 | 39,5 | 10,2 | 13,8 | 36,5 | 75,1 | 6,2 | 16,4 | 2,3 |
| DRC | 19,7 | 21,0 | 47,2 | 12,1 | 17,5 | 12,7 | 51,4 | 18,4 | 22,6 | 32,3 | 41,5 | 3,6 |
| Lesotho | 43,8 | 17,2 | 8,9 | 30,0 | 43,1 | 7,4 | 9,7 | 39,9 | 45,7 | 43,5 | 7,0 | 3,8 |
| Madagascar | 9,7 | 14,5 | 31,9 | 43,9 | 6,2 | 9,2 | 29,2 | 55,4 | 16,2 | 24,2 | 36,9 | 22,7 |
| Malawi | 43,5 | 23,2 | 26,8 | 6,5 | 42,6 | 20,4 | 29,6 | 7,4 | 48,5 | 37,8 | 12,1 | 1,6 |
| Mauritius | 93,1 | 6,3 | 0,4 | 0,1 | 92,6 | 6,5 | 0,6 | 0,2 | 93,9 | 6,0 | 0,1 | 0,0 |
| Mozambique | 23,6 | 4,6 | 35,9 | 36,0 | 12,3 | 2,5 | 38,0 | 47,2 | 47,2 | 8,9 | 31,5 | 12,5 |
| Namibia | 33,8 | 11,4 | 4,9 | 49,9 | 15,4 | 3,3 | 5,3 | 75,9 | 54,9 | 20,7 | 4,3 | 20,1 |
| Seychelles | 100 | 0,0 | 0,0 | 0,0 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| South Africa | 73,1 | 16,5 | 8,1 | 2,3 | 68,7 | 9,8 | 16,6 | 4,9 | 75,5 | 20,1 | 3,6 | 0,8 |
| Swaziland | 58,0 | 23,7 | 7,3 | 10,9 | 58,0 | 20,7 | 7,6 | 13,7 | 58,2 | 35,0 | 6,2 | 0,7 |
| Tanzania | 23,5 | 13,3 | 51,9 | 11,3 | 17,2 | 3,9 | 63,2 | 15,7 | 37,2 | 33,7 | 27,4 | 1,7 |
| Zambia | 31,1 | 12,2 | 41,5 | 15,2 | 18,7 | 6,6 | 49,7 | 25,0 | 49,0 | 20,3 | 29,7 | 1,0 |
| Zimbabwe | 38,6 | 23,7 | 11,2 | 26,5 | 31,2 | 15,2 | 14,5 | 39,1 | 53,9 | 41,6 | 4,3 | 0,1 |

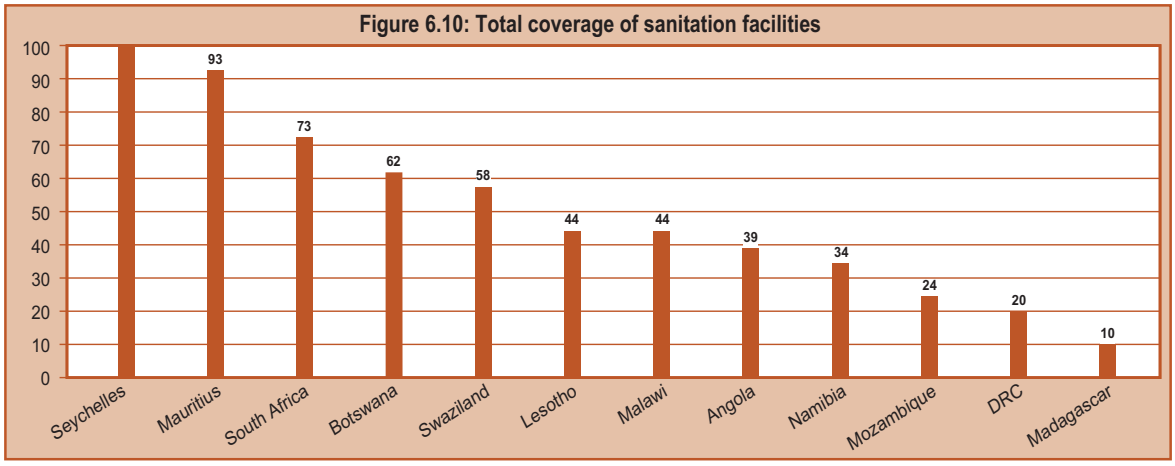
*Derived from UNICEF Global Databases: Sanitation. https://data.unicef.org/topic/water-and-sanitation/drinking-water/ Accessed July 25, 2017.*

Table 6.10 shows the baseline status of SADC countries in respect of sanitation. Seychelles and Mauritius are clearly far ahead of the rest of SADC in this regard. Ten SADC countries do not have even 50% coverage of basic services nationally and though urban coverage is much better, seven countries do not have even 50% coverage of basic sanitation in urban areas. The extent of open defecation, especially in rural areas, is disturbing. Namibia, Angola and Madagascar have higher than 50% open defecation in rural areas. However, other countries, such as Malawi and South Africa, have been able to make significant progress in this regard and also have lower than 10% open defecation, even in rural areas.

Sub-Saharan Africa in general only had 28% coverage of at least basic sanitation in 2015. This is the lowest of all the SDG regions. With limited resources, the option of shared improved sanitation (classified as limited above) is realistic. More than 20% of the population in DRC, Malawi, Swaziland and Zimbabwe has access to such facilities.

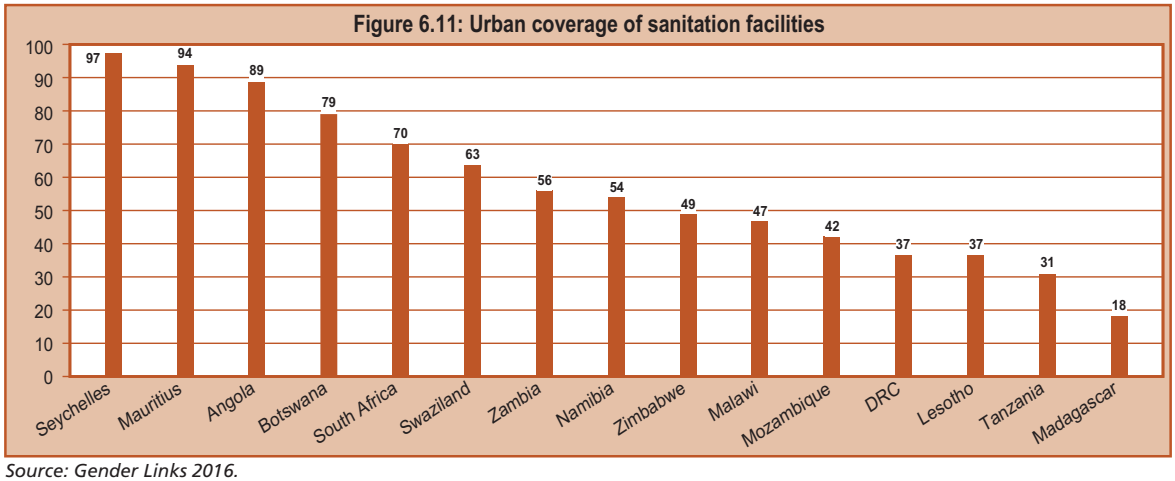


Malawi has made significant progress in sanitation.
*Photo: Google Images*



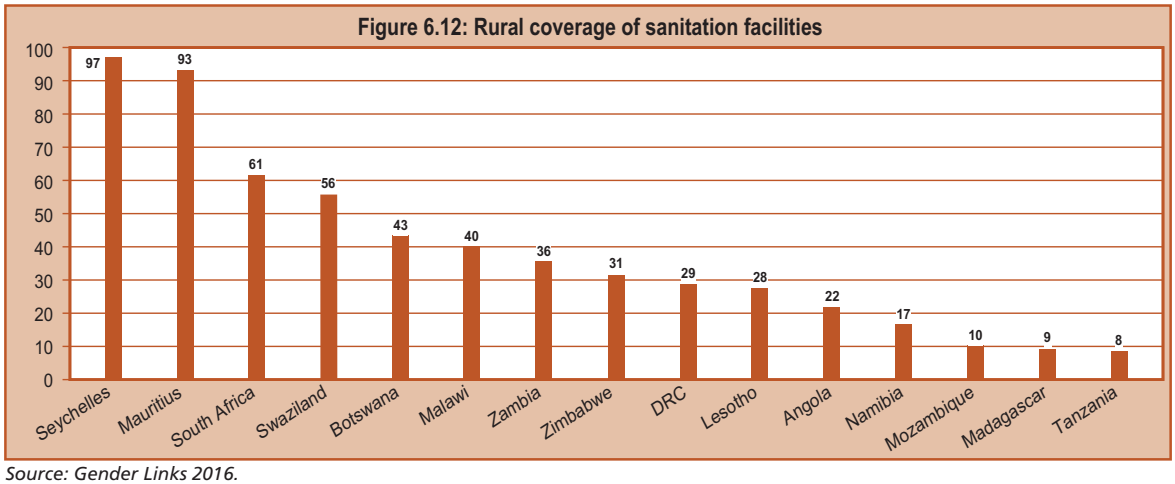

*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

***The region still has a long way to go in achieving universal sanitation coverage:*** Figures 6.10 shows that sanitation in most SADC countries, with the exception of Seychelles (98%) and Mauritius (93%), remains low. Clearly, sanitation has not received the attention that it requires if SADC is to make strides in improving health. Rising populations means that investment in sanitation must expand to maintain the same coverage rates.




*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

While ***urban coverage of sanitation*** is higher than the average, Figure 6.11 shows that it is still not good enough. The lowest coverage is in Madagascar with only 18%.




*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

Sanitation coverage in SADC is very **low**

**Water** provision is a critical issue for **women** in SADC

***Rural coverage is especially low:*** Figure 6.12 shows that only Mauritius and Seychelles have good rural sanitation coverage. There are only two other countries (South Africa and Swaziland) with coverage that is over 50% and four countries (Namibia, Mozambique, Madagascar and Tanzania) which do not even have 20% coverage.

***Water provision*** is also a critical issue for women. Tasks which are often "women's work" such as cooking, cleaning, care giving and caring for children are easier where there is safe, running water. Globally, women and girls are responsible for water collection in 8 out of 10 households where water is not available on the premises. Inadequate quantity or quality of water is a major contributing factor to ill health.

***Improved drinking water sources*** are those which by nature of their design and construction have the potential to deliver safe water. The JMP classification of water sources for purposes of monitoring progress in meeting the SDG targets is:

- **Safely managed drinking water service** an improved source meeting three criteria:
  - accessible on premises;
  - water available when needed; and
  - water should be free from contamination.
- **Basic drinking water service** if the improved source does not meet any one of these criteria, but a round trip to collect water takes 30 minutes or less, including queuing.
- A **limited service** if a round trip to collect water from an improved source exceeds 30 minutes, including queuing.

***Unimproved sources of water*** are classified as:

- **Unimproved:** Drinking water from an unprotected dug well or unprotected spring.
- **Surface water:** Drinking water directly from a river, dam, lake, pond, stream, canal or irrigation canal.

Previous JMP analysis has shown that collecting water that is either from unimproved sources or surface water is more likely to take over 30 minutes. This therefore represents a double burden.

**Table 6.11: SADC SDG Baseline Drinking Water Status in 2015**

| Country | National | | | | Rural | | | | Urban | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | At least basic | Limited | Unimproved | Surface water | At least basic | Limited | Unimproved | Surface water | At least basic | Limited | Unimproved | Surface water |
| Angola | 41 | 16 | 19 | 24 | 23 | 13 | 22 | 42 | 63 | 19 | 15 | 3 |
| Botswana | 79 | 18 | 1 | 2 | 58 | 35 | 2 | 5 | 95 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| DRC | 42 | 12 | 36 | 10 | 21 | 11 | 53 | 16 | 70 | 14 | 14 | 2 |
| Lesotho | 72 | 12 | 16 | 1 | 66 | 13 | 21 | 1 | 87 | 8 | 4 | 0 |
| Madagascar | 51 | 3 | 31 | 16 | 34 | 2 | 41 | 23 | 82 | 4 | 12 | 2 |
| Malawi | 67 | 20 | 10 | 3 | 63 | 22 | 12 | 3 | 87 | 9 | 4 | 0 |
| Mauritius | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mozambique | 47 | 14 | 24 | 14 | 32 | 17 | 32 | 19 | 79 | 9 | 8 | 3 |
| Namibia | 79 | 6 | 5 | 10 | 63 | 11 | 7 | 19 | 97 | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| Seychelles | 96 | - | 0 | 4 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| South Africa | 85 | 10 | 2 | 3 | 63 | 24 | 5 | 9 | 97 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Swaziland | 68 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 60 | 9 | 12 | 19 | 95 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Tanzania | 50 | 13 | 24 | 13 | 37 | 15 | 31 | 18 | 79 | 9 | 9 | 3 |
| Zambia | 61 | 6 | 21 | 12 | 44 | 7 | 29 | 19 | 86 | 4 | 9 | 1 |
| Zimbabwe | 67 | 10 | 17 | 7 | 54 | 12 | 23 | 11 | 94 | 4 | 3 | 0 |

*Derived from UNICEF Global Databases: Drinking Water. https://data.unicef.org/topic/water-and-sanitation/drinking-water/ Accessed July 25, 2017.*

Table 6.11 shows that Mauritius and Seychelles have already achieved almost universal coverage of at least basic safe water provision. Ten other countries have at least an average of 50% coverage. The lowest coverage is Angola at 41% and DRC at 42%. There is wide variation between rural and urban populations such as in Mozambique where 32% rural population and 79% of urban have access to at least basic water supply. The highest dependence on surface water is in Angola at 24% overall and 42% in rural areas. Achieving SDG6 will require huge investment over the next 15 years.

**Zimbabwe: Improving access to potable water**



Seke District has experienced a prolonged drought and a shortage of potable water with an ever-growing population. The council decided it was time to act and drill boreholes.

The council engaged with the Ministry of Health, Zimbabwe Water Authority, EMA, the District Administrators Office and the community at large. In view of the 2008 Cholera outbreak that claimed many lives, it was decided that multiple boreholes should be drilled to improve water supply to homesteads and also to public places like the market where water supply is essential.

Drilling of boreholes is happening in each of the 21 wards in Seke District. The project is promoting male and female involvement and participation. Drilling of boreholes empowers women through providing water closer to their homesteads. Drilling of boreholes gives opportunities to both men and women to carry out activities such as farming and household chores.



Access to potable water in rural areas, Manyame Zimbabwe. *Photo: William Mubaiwa*

Availability of water improves the standard of living of the people. Availability of water enables growing of perishable goods such as tomatoes and vegetables which both males and females can sell at the markets and also to increase livestock production. The project set out to provide potable water, promote gender equity through providing equal opportunities to both males and females in the community and to harness collective power of communities to drive economic development. Availability of potable water in abundance enables economic growth.

270 boreholes have been drilled since initiation of the programme which has been funded in full by the Manyame Rural District Council.

*Source: William Mubaiwa, Manyame Rural District Council, Zimbabwe. SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016*

Protocol@Work

***Nutrition and food security as a health issue***

Poverty, food insecurity and malnutrition are critical development issues in SADC. Malnutrition is an underlying factor in many situations of ill and poor health. These problems have a disproportionately negative impact on poor rural women due to their socioeconomic, legal and political status as well as their crucial roles as producers and household managers.

## Women in refugee camps and prisons

The Southern African region experiences all types of movements, including mixed and irregular migration, labour migration and displacement due to conflict and natural disasters. Southern Africa is also a springboard often used as the staging ground for regular and irregular migration to Europe and the Americas. In 2015 and 2016 major flows of refugees were into DRC and from both DRC and Burundi into Tanzania. Continuing conflicts in Burundi and South Sudan resulted in growing numbers of refugees in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. By the end of 2016, the DRC hosted 452,000 refugees, compared with 383,100 at the end of 2015. The number of refugees from South Sudan increased from 5,600 to 66,700, from Burundi rose from 23,200 to 36,300. The largest refugee populations in the Democratic Republic of the Congo continued to be from Rwanda (245,100) and the Central African Republic (102,500)[30].

***According to the World Health Organisation, refugee camp clinics should provide access to contraceptives, condoms, HIV tests and there should be at least one nurse/midwife per 500 patients***. A strategy for improving the sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services available to women and girls in refugee camps is to train refugee women and girls to offer counselling, peer education and home-based care. A particular consideration is to prioritise availability of youth-friendly SRH services for young women and girls who are growing up in refugee camps with little parental supervision and immense responsibilities and pressures.

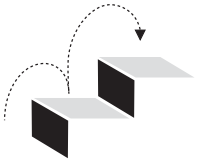
***The provision of SRH services for women in prisons or refugee camps is limited:*** While very

Poverty, food insecurity and malnutrition are **critical** development issues in SADC

[30] UNHCR. 2016. Global Trends Forced Displacement in 2016. Geneva. http://www.unhcr.org/afr/statistics/unhcrstats/5943e8a34/global-trends-forced-displacement-2016.html
[31] Ibid.

**SRH** needs of women in prison are inadequately addressed

little information is available on existing policies or programmes, qualitative research conducted by the Zimbabwean Women Writers with women in prisons indicates that the SRH needs of women in prison are inadequately addressed. Access to basic reproductive health needs such as sanitary pads is limited. Equally, women who are pregnant or deliver in prison are reported to face stigma and discrimination from the prison guards, and afforded no additional care or services for their child - some of which are raised within the prisons. The reported incidence of sexual violence and rape in prison is also very high.



## Next steps

Key recommendations and next steps to ensure governments continue to improve the health of their populations are:

- ***Promotion of sexual and reproductive rights for all adolescents, men and women.*** To do this effectively involves action at different levels including:
  - Age appropriate integration of sexual and reproductive rights into school curricula from primary school level.
  - Provision of adolescent friendly services, including contraception and access to safe abortions.
  - Engagement of traditional leaders as well as local government.
  - Promotion of sexual and reproductive rights and services to all people, irrespective of sexual orientation, gender identity, mental status and abilities.
  - Provision of sexual and reproductive health services for women and men in prisons and in refugee camps.
  - Addressing stigma and discrimination regarding minorities such as LGBTI people, people with disabilities and sex workers.
- ***Harmonise laws and ensure that they are rights-based:*** Harmonisation of contradictory laws regarding the ages of sexual consent, and the minimum age where adolescents can access contraceptives and sexual and reproductive health services is vital. These contradictions negatively impact on the ability of health personnel to offer services, and on young people's comfort with accessing information and services.
- ***Prioritise SRHR at the local level:*** Local government councils need to invest more political will and tangible resources into the provision of health services and promotion of healthy communities. Strategies must also incorporate mental health care and ensure that populations are served by an adequate health infrastructure, with mobile services where static services are too far apart. Civil society in partnership with the media, can play an important role in holding governments accountable to their healthcare commitments.
- ***Scale up research at the national level:*** More and better research is needed at the national level to inform the development and revision of policies and programmes that address the sexual and reproductive health rights of women in vulnerable situations such as prisons, internal displacement camps, refugee camps, as well as sex workers, elderly women, women with disabilities and women of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities. There is scant information about the number of women in prisons and refugee camps, or the number of women in prisons accessing antiretroviral treatment, water, sanitation and proper nutrition. What information exists mainly mentions the almost universal shortage of sanitary protection for women in prisons.
- ***Accurate, up to date data:*** Governments need accurate data to be able to plan and to monitor progress. Definitions must be standardised to compare the situation at different time periods. This needs to be a priority from local level to regional level. Poor data makes planning and evaluation very difficult. Too many countries are dependent on Demographic and Health surveys, which are only conducted once in 5 or more years, for the major health statistics. To assure the right to health it is imperative that countries improve their data collection systems.
- ***More and better information on the health situation of women:*** High quality and relevant information targeting the reproductive and sexual rights and services for different women and girls. This includes providing information in all vernacular languages, braille and sign language. Research on the health needs of women, particularly related to sexual and reproductive health, should be prioritised.
- ***Promote healthy lifestyles to reduce cancers, hypertension and diabetes, and encourage prompt management of all these conditions:*** Non-communicable diseases such as various cancers, hypertension and diabetes are becoming a major cause of morbidity and mortality. Much of the burden of these diseases can be managed through lifestyle changes such as diet and exercise. In all cases, early detection improves the prognosis. Much needs to be done at the local level to raise awareness of the kind of lifestyle choices that can lead to improved health.
- ***Focus more attention on health services and sanitation for rural and lower-income populations:*** the disparities in provision of health services, water and sanitation between urban and rural as well as higher income and lower income populations must be addressed. This includes prioritising provision of water and sanitation for informal settlements, refugee camps and prisons.

CHAPTER 7

# HIV and AIDS

## Article 27



Zimbabwe has made so much progress reaching the World Health target of 80% coverage for PMCT ahead of the deadline. *Photo: SAFAIDS*

### KEY POINTS

- New population surveys in Swaziland, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe confirm progress in reversing the HIV pandemic that still rages in the region. The rates of new infections are decreasing as testing, access to treatment and viral suppression are rising.
- SADC is still home to the largest HIV epidemic in the world despite the region comprising only 3.2% of the world's population.
- 15.3 million people in SADC are living with HIV and this is more than 40% of the 36.7 million people living with HIV globally. 333,600 people died from AIDS related causes in 2016.
- Botswana and Namibia have made commendable progress with 80% of people living with HIV knowing their status followed by Zambia with 72%. Late diagnosis of HIV is the main barrier to scaling up treatment and contributes to continued transmission of the virus.
- Rapid scale-up of treatment has resulted in 8.6 million people receiving antiretroviral therapy in 2016 or 49.7% of the global total of 17.3 million.
- There is greater focus on adolescents especially girls as the rate of infection is generally three times higher than that of adolescent boys. A number of studies have shown that small cash transfers combined with adult care and regular attendance to secondary school is associated with lower incidence of HIV as well as improved treatment adherence for adolescent girls and boys.
- Eleven SADC countries have reached the World Health target of 80% coverage of ART for pregnant women with six of them with over 95% coverage. SADC accounted for 134,500 averted infections in children; almost half of the global total of averted infections in 2016.
- The rising number of people on treatment requires a much greater focus on differentiated care within the community, from community caregivers who need training, support, supplies, remuneration and recognition.

**15.3 million people are living with HIV in SADC**

**11** countries **have reached** **World Health** target of **80%** **coverage** of **ART**

## What the Protocol requires

The SADC Gender Protocol requires that in addressing the HIV pandemic, State parties ensure that policies and programmes take account of the unequal status of women, the particular vulnerability of the girl child as well as harmful practices and biological factors that result in women constituting the majority of those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. Governments are required to:

- Develop gender responsive strategies to prevent new infections;
- Ensure universal access to HIV and AIDS treatment for infected women, men, girls and boys; and
- Develop and implement policies and programmes to ensure appropriate recognition of the work carried out by care givers, the majority of whom are women, the allocation of resources and the psychological support for care givers as well as support for care givers as well as support of people living with HIV and AIDS.

**Table 7.1: New provisions**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| State Parties shall take every step necessary to adopt and implement gender sensitive policies and programmes, and enact legislation that will address prevention, treatment , care and support in accordance with, but not limited to , the Maseru Declaration on HIV and AIDS. | State Parties shall take every step necessary to adopt and implement gender sensitive policies and programmes, and enact legislation that will address prevention, treatment, care and support in accordance with, but not limited to, the Maseru Declaration on HIV and AIDS and the SADC Sponsored United Nations Commission on the Status of Women Resolution on Women, the Girl Child and HIV and AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV. |

The only addition to the Protocol is the cross referencing with the SADC Sponsored Commission of the Status of Women (CSW) resolution on Women, Girls and HIV and the UN Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS. This however is highly significant, since it brings women to the centre of the region's response to HIV and AIDS.



HIV and AIDS testing in Chegutu, Zimbabwe. *Photo: Gender Links*

The **SADC sponsored CSW resolution on Women, Girls and HIV** calls for:

- Attention to HIV in adolescent girls and young women.
- Efforts to attain gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls.
- Enactment of laws, policies and strategies to eliminate gender based violence.
- Involvement of men and boys in achieving gender equality.
- Measures to ensure that girls complete their education and have access to social protection.
- Measures to address HIV-related stigma and discrimination.
- Financial and technical support to national efforts to end AIDS, achieve gender equity and mainstream gender and human rights into policies, planning, programmes, monitoring and evaluation.
- Age and sex disaggregated data collection and action-oriented research.

## Key trends

**Table 7.2: HIV - Progress against targets trends table**

| Parameter | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress minus 2030 target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **SHARE OF HIV INFECTION** | | | | | |
| Highest percentage of women | 0% | Namibia (68%) | Tanzania (61%) | Tanzania (61%) | -61% |
| Lowest percentage of women | 0% | Mauritius (15%) | Mauritius (28%) | Mauritius (28%) | -28% |
| **HIV POSITIVE PREGNANT WOMEN RECEIVING PMTCT** | | | | | |
| Country with highest coverage | 100% | Mauritius (100%) | Seychelles (100%) | Mauritius, Seychelles, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland & Botswana (higher than 95%) | -5% |
| Country with lowest coverage | 100% | DRC (4%) | Madagascar (3%) | Madagascar (3%) | -97% |
| **PERCENTAGE OF THOSE ELIGIBLE RECEIVING ARVS** | | | | | |
| Country with the highest proportion | 100% | Namibia (67%) | Seychelles (96%) | Seychelles (95%) | -5% |
| Country with lowest proportion | 100% | Madagascar (3%) | Madagascar (3%) | Madagascar (5%) | -95% |
| **EXTENT OF COMPREHENSIVE KNOWLEDGE OF HIV AND AIDS** | | | | | |
| Highest percentage of women | 100% | Mauritius (68%) | Mauritius (80%) | Seychelles (100%) | 0 |
| Lowest percentage of women | 100% | Angola (7%) | DRC (15%) | Madagascar (3%) | -97% |
| **ATTITUDE TOWARDS WOMEN BEING IN CONTROL** | | | | | |
| **% Who say a woman has the right to insist on a man using a condom** | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | | | Tanzania (80%) | -20% |
| Lowest | | | | Angola (45%) | -55% |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | 47% | 54% | 72% | -31% |
| CSC | 100% | 63% | 70% | 67% | -33% |

*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

Table 7.2 shows that:

- Overall, women constitute 59% of those living with HIV and AIDS. This ranges from 61% in Tanzania, to 28% in Mauritius, where women are in the minority, as the pandemic is mainly driven by intravenous drug usage.
- The most significant change has occurred in prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV (PMTCT) where there are now at least six countries (Mauritius, Seychelles, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Botswana) that have achieved at least 95% coverage. As all four are countries with generalised epidemics, this is a major achievement. Madagascar (3%) has the lowest coverage.
- At 95%, Seychelles has the highest proportion of those receiving ARVs and Madagascar (5%) the lowest.
- Seychelles has also achieved full marks for women's comprehensive knowledge of HIV and AIDS; while Madagascar (3%) is lowest.
- Tanzania had the highest proportion (80%) who agreed or strongly agreed that a woman had a right to insist on a man using a condom. Angola (45%) had the lowest.

### Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of HIV and AIDS, this is based on the indicators captured in the trends table. The new indicator introduced relates to attitudes on using a condom. Since the introduction of the SGDI in 2011, the overall average score increased from 47% to 72% consistent with the improving trends on HIV in the region. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post-2015 era. In 2017, this score dropped from 70% to 67%.

**SGDI** has gone **up** from **54%** in **2015** to **72%** in **2017**

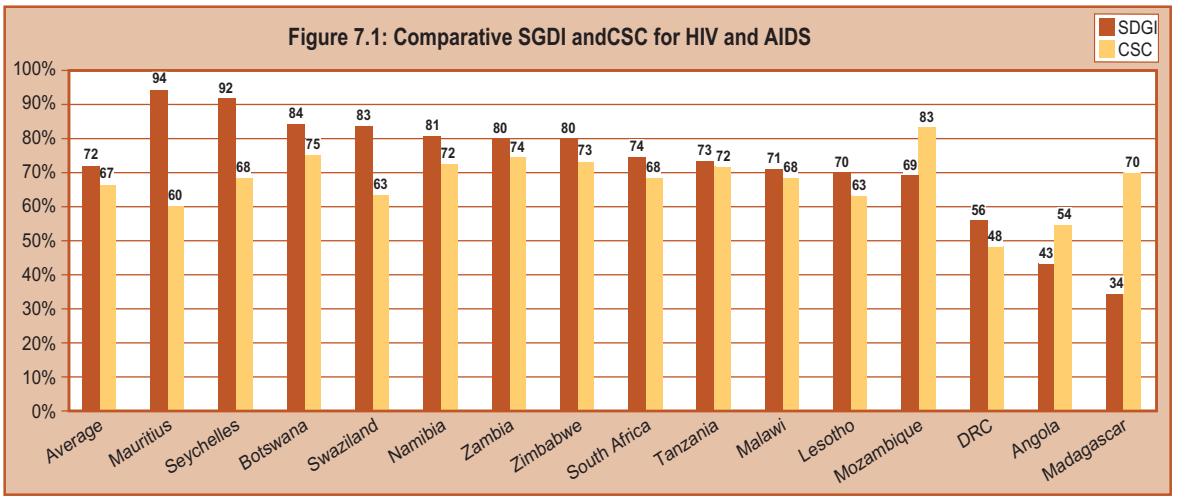
**CSC** has **dropped** from **70%** in **2015** to **67%** in **2017**

**SDGI**

**72%**

**CSC**

**67%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 7.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores for 2017. It shows that overall at 72% for the SGDI and 67% for the CSC, these scores (based on empirical data and perceptions respectively) are quite close. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. Mauritius, Seychelles and Swaziland have the highest positive variances (i.e. people who are more sceptical than what the numbers tell us). Mozambique, Madagascar and Angola had the highest negative variances, i.e. where citizens are more optimistic than what the empirical data suggests.

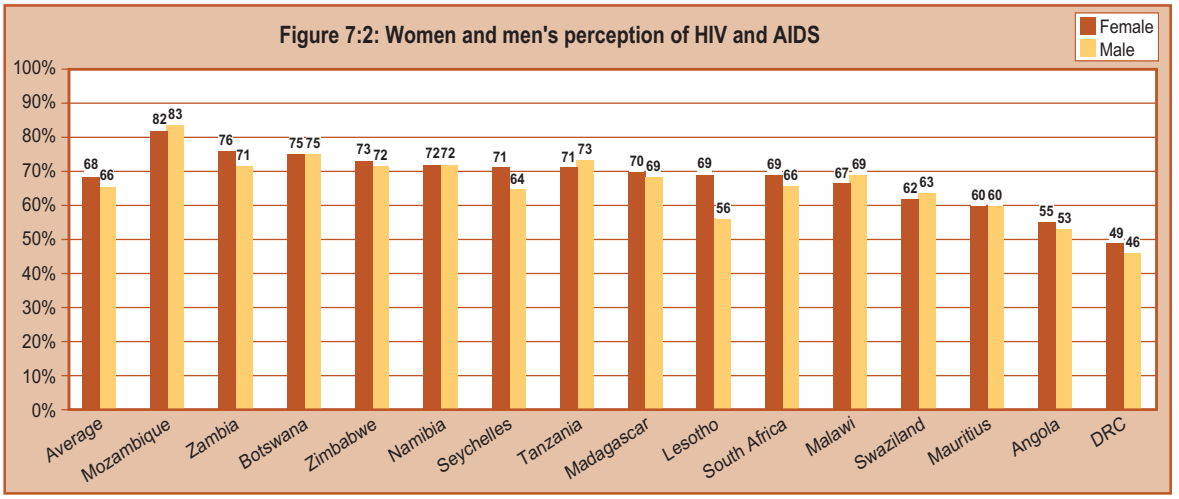
**68%**

scored

higher

than

**66%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 7.2 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the sector for 2017. On average women (68%) had slightly higher scores than men (66%). As women are disproportionately affected by HIV and AIDS, it is a positive sign that women are overall even more optimistic than men about the progress achieved. This is especially so in Lesotho, which has the highest variance between women and men. In other countries the perceptions of women and men are very similar. In Mozambique, Tanzania, Malawi and Swaziland women are slightly less optimistic than men.

**SADC HIV and AIDS fact file**

SADC remains the epicentre of the global HIV and AIDS pandemic:

- Although SADC comprises only 3, 2% of the world's population, 15.3 million people in SADC are living with HIV[1] which is more than 40% of the 36.7 million people living with HIV and AIDS globally.
- Women constitute 59% of people living with HIV and AIDS in the region.
- 765 800 people were infected with HIV[2] in 2015: 36% of the estimated 2.1 million people acquiring HIV and AIDS globally.
- Nearly half (45%) of the people living with HIV AND AIDS reside in urban areas[3].

Important successes include:

- 333,600 people died from AIDS related causes in 2015; down from 906,400 in 2005[4].
- In 2015, 638,300 deaths were averted in SADC as a result of expanded access to treatment: 53.2% of the total number of deaths averted globally[5].
- Rapid scale-up of treatment has resulted in 9,223,700 people receiving antiretroviral therapy in 2016 (47% of the global total of 19.5 million). This has increased from 3.1 million which was then 42% of the global total in 2010[6].

Some of the challenges that still confront the region are:

- *High rates of new infections among adolescent girls and young women:* 37,000 women aged 15-24 years become infected with HIV each week in 14 SADC countries.
- *Significant new HIV infections among key populations:* Men who have sex with men, sex workers, people who inject drugs and transgender people contributed to 25% of all new HIV infections in South Africa, 20% in Mozambique and 12% in Swaziland - yet these populations are underserved and underrepresented in the response.
- *Rising high-risk behaviour* including increased number of sexual partners among men between 2008 and 2014 combined with low condom use, especially among young people, and significant gaps in condom availability.
- *Rapid but inadequate progress on Voluntary Medical Male Circumcision:* 10 million men and boys were circumcised by 2015, and it is unlikely that the target of 21 million by 2016 will be reached.
- *HIV testing remains low*, particularly amongst young people, despite rapid scale-up. Only 16% of young men and 23% of young women 15-24 years old were aware of their HIV status in 2015[7].
- *Gender inequalities, compounded by human rights violations* including gender-based violence, impede access and adherence to services, and increase vulnerability of women to HIV infection.

## Background

The Post-2015 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development is set to take forward the progress achieved in the last 15 years in the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the 2008 SADC Gender Protocol. The new agenda paves the way to closing the gender gaps in the region's response to HIV and AIDS. The Post-2015 theme of "leaving no one behind" places greater emphasis on interventions rooted in inclusivity and equality.

SADC is home to three countries (Swaziland, Botswana and Lesotho) with the highest prevalence of HIV and AIDS in the world. All three have adult prevalence rates higher than 20%. South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Zambia and Mozambique have prevalence rates ranging from 10 to 19%.[8]




Children in Arandis, Namibia, join the march against GBV, HIV and AIDS. *Photo: Gender Links*

**37000** women aged 15-24 are infected with HIV each week

[1] Derived from Number of People living with HIV, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 9, 2017.
[2] Derived from Number of New Infections, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 9, 2017.
[3] UNAIDS Fact Sheet 2016, http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/fact-sheet, last accessed 10 May, 2016.
[4] Derived from AIDS related deaths, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 23, 2017.
[5] Derived from Treatment: Deaths averted, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/ last accessed 9 July, 2017.
[6] Derived from Number of people receiving ARVs http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 23, 2017.
[7] UNICEF | Seventh Stocktaking Report | 2016. https://data.unicef.org/topic/hivaids/global-regional-trends/ last accessed 2 July, 2017.
[8] Prevalence of HIV, in Table 1 https://data.unicef.org/topic/hivaids/global-regional-trends/ accessed 2 July, 2017.

UNAIDS Political Declaration calls for fewer than **500,000** new infections by **2020**

HIV and AIDS in SADC is still a greater challenge for women than it is for men. The pandemic varies across SADC with widespread, generalised heterosexual epidemics across broad areas of the region, where prevalence rates are slowly declining, and more concentrated epidemics in Mauritius, Seychelles and Madagascar in key populations which include female sex workers, Men who have Sex with Men (MSM), people who inject drugs, prisoners and seafarers.

The June 2016 high level meeting on HIV AND AIDS adopted the **Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS** which endorses the UNAIDS strategy for 2016 to 2021: On the Fast Track to End AIDS[9]. The Declaration appreciates the tremendous gains made in achieving the MDGs related to HIV and AIDS and also recognises that there is need for increased investment and effort if the world is to end AIDS as a public health emergency by 2030. This requires both meeting the "90/90/90 agenda" and also putting much greater emphasis on primary prevention.

There are five main pillars for achieving fewer than 500,000 new infections by 2020 which must be delivered through a people-centred, combination approach[10]. The pillars and their related pillars are set out in the table that follows:

| | Pillar | Target |
|---|---|---|
| | **Overall** | 90% of people at risk of HIV infection access comprehensive prevention services including harm reduction. |
| 1. | Combination prevention, including comprehensive sexuality education, economic empowerment and access to sexual and reproductive health services for young women and adolescent girls and their male partners in high-prevalence locations. | Reduce below 100,000 per year the number of adolescent girls and young women aged 15-24 years newly infected with HIV globally. |
| 2. | Evidence-informed and human rights-based prevention programmes for key populations, including dedicated services and community mobilisation and empowerment. | 90% of people at risk of HIV infection access comprehensive prevention services, including harm reduction. |
| 3. | Strengthened national condom programmes, including procurement, distribution, social marketing, private-sector sales and demand creation. | Make 20 billion condoms available annually in low and middle-income countries. |
| 4. | Voluntary medical male circumcision in priority countries that have high levels of HIV prevalence and low levels of male circumcision, as part of wider sexual and reproductive health service provision for boys and men. | Reach 25 million additional young men in high HIV incidence areas with voluntarily medical male circumcision. |
| 5. | Pre-exposure prophylaxis for population groups at higher risk of HIV infection. | Provide three million people at higher risk of HIV infection with PrEP. |

Though the SDGs do not have specific targets for HIV and AIDS as the MDGs did, this strategy has specific targets that are linked to achievement of a number of SDGs. The **2016-2021 Strategic Agenda** is organised around five SDGs most relevant to the AIDS response: good health (SDG 3), reduce inequalities (SDG 10), achieve gender equality (SDG 5), promote just and inclusive societies (SDG 16) and revitalize global partnerships (SDG 17), while recognizing that other SDGs such as end poverty (1) and ensure quality education (4) are also important. It emphasises that all regions must analyse their own situations to ensure that no one is being left behind. In East and Southern Africa this requires much greater emphasis on adolescent girls and young women with focus also on sex workers, older people, men who have sex with men, prisoners, migrants, injecting drug users and intimate partners.

The vision of the strategy is Zero new HIV infections, Zero discrimination and Zero AIDS-related deaths. The strategy has three overall strategic directions:

- HIV prevention.
- Treatment, care and support.
- Human rights and gender equality for the HIV AND AIDS response.

[9] UNAIDS Strategy, 2016 - 2021. On the Fast Track to end AIDS http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/documents/2016/GlobalPlan2016 accessed 10 May, 2016

[10] UNAIDS. Prevention Gap Report. 2016. http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/2016-prevention-gap-report_en.pdf Last accessed 3 July, 2017

**The ten targets of the five-year plan include:**




1. 90% of people (children, adolescents and adults) living with HIV know their status, 90% of people living with HIV who know their status are receiving treatment and 90% of people on treatment have suppressed viral loads;
2. Zero new HIV infections among children, and mothers are alive and well;
3. 90% of young people are empowered with the skills, knowledge and capability to protect themselves from HIV;
4. 90% of women and men, especially young people and those in high-prevalence settings, have access to HIV combination prevention and sexual and reproductive health services;
5. 27 million additional men in high-prevalence settings are voluntarily medically circumcised, as part of integrated sexual and reproductive health services for men;
6. 90% of key populations, including sex workers, men who have sex with men, people who inject drugs, transgender people and prisoners, as well as migrants, have access to HIV combination prevention services;
7. 90% of women and girls live free from gender inequality and gender-based violence to mitigate the risk and impact of HIV;
8. 90% of people living with, at risk of and affected by HIV report no discrimination, especially in health, education and workplace settings;
9. Overall financial investments for the AIDS response in low- and middle-income countries reach at least US$ 30 billion, with continued increase from the current levels of domestic public sources;
10. 75% of people living with, at risk of and affected by HIV, who are in need, benefit from HIV-sensitive social protection.

UNAIDS estimates that the plan would avert 28 million new HIV infections; 21 million AIDS-related deaths and save US$ 24 billion annually. There are 35 priority countries targeted to receive support, of which twelve are in SADC (Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

Each country will need to set its own targets to ensure that it is reaching those that have previously been left behind. It is anticipated that additional effort will be needed at the community, district, national, regional and global levels to achieve: significant increase of time and financial resources; focus on the locations, populations and interventions that deliver the greatest impact; catalysing innovation for people who need it most; leveraging regional leadership and political institutions for more targeted, sustainable and accountable responses; inter-sector partnerships to leverage contributions of people living with HIV, the private sector, faith-based communities, academia and science alongside government and civil society organizations; and commitment to the principle and people-centred accountability in an era of Sustainable Development.

In 2015, Cuba became the first country in the world to achieve elimination of HIV infection. In 2016 Thailand, Belarus and Moldova were certified to have achieved elimination[11]. Thailand is the first country that had a major HIV epidemic to achieve elimination. It is believed that other countries will be following soon.

UNAIDS plan will avert **28 million** new HIV infections by 2030




HIV and AIDS activists march for universal treatment at the Durban AIDS conference, July 2016. *Photo courtesy of Associated Press*

[11] Thailand, Belarus and Armenia eliminate mother-to-child transmission of HIV. http://www.who.int/hiv/mediacentre/news/emtct-validation-2016/en/ accessed 9 July, 2017.

Protocol@Work

Swaziland's rate of new infections declined from **2.48%** in 2011 to **1.39%** in 2016

**Progress towards control of the HIV Epidemic**



Regular testing is key in the prevention, treatment and support for HIV. *Photo: SAfAIDS*

The International Center for AIDS Care and Treatment Programmes, ICAP, a global health leader situated at Columbia University, in partnership with the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and Ministries of Health are conducting national Population HIV Impact assessments (PHIA) in a number of countries which receive support from PEPFAR.

Each national survey offers household based HIV counselling and testing with results; it asks questions about access to prevention, treatment, care and support for adults and children. The results are measuring progress across countries towards the 90-90-90 goals so that resources can be better targeted to areas of greatest need.

At the time of writing preliminary results were available for Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Data collection is underway in Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland and Tanzania. The preliminary results from Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Swaziland indicate that much progress is being made in reducing new infections and making sure that those that are infected know their status, access treatment and achieve viral suppression. In Swaziland the rate of new infections declined from 2.48 % in 2011 to 1.39% in 2016. In the same period the rate of viral suppression increased from 34,8% to 71,3%.[12]

Summary data from the study shows that:

- The incidence, or new infection rate, is higher in females than males in all countries, with the highest rates and widest differentials between females and males in Zambia and lowest in Malawi.
- Prevalence rates are highest in Zimbabwe and lowest in Malawi. Female prevalence is higher than male in all countries, with the greatest differential in Zambia.
- Prevalence in children 0 - 14 is very similar across all three countries.
- In all three countries the highest prevalence rates for women are in the 40 to 45 years old bracket, with the highest rate in Zambia; prevalence rates for men are highest in the 45 - 49 years old age group with the highest rate in Zimbabwe.
- The greatest differential in prevalence rates between female and male is in the 25 - 29 year old age bracket in Malawi (14.1%: 4.8%) and in the 20 -24 year old age bracket for both Zambia (8.6% : 2.1%) and Zimbabwe (8.5%: 2.7%). In all countries prevalence is at least 3 times greater for women than men.

In relation to the 90-90-90 agenda the surveys examine:

- The proportion of people living with HIV that know their status - which is below the 90% goal but encouragingly between 67 and 74 %. In all countries the proportion of women that know their status is higher than that of men.
- The proportion of those who know their status who are on ARV is above 85% in all three countries, so approaching the 90% goal.
- The proportion of those who are on ART who are virally suppressed is between 85 and 90% in all three countries.

## Gender, HIV and AIDS in Southern Africa

***Women are more vulnerable to HIV infection than men:*** Women account for 59% of those living with HIV in the sub-Saharan region and women bear the greatest burden of care. Women, young women in particular, remain disproportionately more vulnerable to HIV infection than their male counterparts. If young women and adolescent girls had the power and means to protect themselves, the picture of the pandemic in the region would look different. This is beginning to happen. The rate of new HIV infections among young women in 26 countries is declining. However, these gains are fragile and must be sustained.[13]

[12] http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/unaidspublication/2014/UNAIDS_Gap_report_en.pdf accessed 18 July, 2014.
[13] http://phia.icap.columbia.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/DGHT-PHIA2017_Infographic_07-21-2017_FINAL_version2.pdf last accessed July 23, 2017.

***Violence, including gender-based, sexual and intimate partner violence, increases a woman's risk of acquiring HIV.*** Adolescent girls and young women have high rates of intimate partner violence. Ten of the SADC countries which have reported on levels of intimate partner violence, have reported levels of HIV prevalence over 20%, with the highest being 36.7% in DRC.[14] Some studies have found that up to 45% of adolescent girls report that their first sexual experience was forced. Young women who experience intimate partner violence are 50% are more likely to acquire HIV than other women[15].

***Gender norms also increase men's vulnerability to HIV infection:*** Men are often encouraged to engage in high risk behaviour and are slow to seek health services. Men's health seeking behaviour is a part of the cause for this. It is exacerbated by health services which are not accessible or hospitable to men. As a result, fewer men than women get tested for HIV; men have lower levels of access to treatment than women, which means they have lower CD4 cell count levels by the time they seek treatment and often have poorer adherence to treatment.



World Aids Day march in Mazenod council in Lesotho.
*Photo: Ntolo Lekau*

***Female sex workers are some of the most vulnerable to HIV infection:*** HIV prevalence among sex workers is much higher than in the general population, even in countries with a high prevalence.

## HIV prevalence high among sex workers

In 2015 the prevalence rate among sex workers in Swaziland was 60. 5% compared to 27% in the general adult population; in Lesotho 72% compared to 23% in the general adult population. Other countries in SADC for which data is available are Angola (7% sex workers; 2.4% in general adult population); DRC (5.7% sex workers and 1.1% general population); Mauritius (15% sex workers and 1.1% general population); Malawi (24.9% sex workers and 9.1% general population); South Africa, (57.7% sex workers and 19, 2% general population); Tanzania (28% sex workers and 4.7% general population); Zambia (56.4% sex workers and 12.9% general population) and Zimbabwe (57.1% sex workers and 14.7% general population).[16]

Despite such high prevalence rates, rates of testing for HIV are far from the desired 90% of those living with HIV knowing their status. Estimates of the proportion of female sex workers who know that they are living with HIV are: Angola 60%, Botswana 54,8 %, DRC 45,7%, Lesotho 68,7%, Madagascar 59,6%, Malawi 94,4%, Mauritius 49,5%, Seychelles 98,1%, South Africa 53,3%, Swaziland 61,7%, Tanzania 43,1%, Zambia 56,4%, and Zimbabwe 72%.[17]

While condom use by sex workers is high it is also lower than desirable, ranging from 69% in Lesotho to 90% in Botswana.[18] The South African National AIDS Council launched a national Sex Worker HIV Plan, 2016 - 2019 which aims to ensure access to health and legal services for sex workers. Transgender women are up to 49 times more likely to be living with HIV than other adults.

Fewer ♂ than ♀ get **tested** for HIV

[14] Prevalence of Intimate Partner Violence, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2016.
[15] UNAIDS Strategy, 2016 - 2021. On the Fast Track to end AIDS http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/documents/2016/GlobalPlan2016 accessed 10 May, 2016.
[16] Derived from UNICEF. Seventh Stocktaking Report | 2016. Table 1. https://data.unicef.org/topic/hivaids/global-regional-trends/ last accessed 2 July, 2017 and Sex Workers prevalence http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 9, 2017
[17] Sex Workers Testing in http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/ last accessed 9 July, 2017
[18] Sex Workers Condom use in http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/ last accessed 9 July, 2017

HIV prevalence is at **14%** for men having sex with men

***Mobility and proximity to transport routes increases risk of contracting HIV:*** Southern Africa has long exhibited a trend of higher HIV prevalence along transport routes and in border towns, partly due to high levels of transactional sex. Sexual abuse of women and girls is also common in border towns. Mauritius and Mozambique have two of the most localised epidemics, with HIV prevalence more concentrated in some areas than others. In Mauritius, HIV is more prevalent in the port cities of Port Louis and Black River, which are characterised by constant movement of people from the inland region and tourism. In Mozambique, while prevalence is stabilising in some areas, the southern region has been characterised by increasing prevalence. Prevalence in Mozambique is also higher in border areas and along the three main transport corridors of Beira, Maputo and Nacala.

***HIV prevalence is especially high among MSM:*** Although homosexuality is criminalised in a number of SADC countries, available data suggests that prevalence is much higher among Men who have Sex with Men (MSM). Globally, HIV prevalence among men who have sex with men is highest in western and central Africa (15%) and eastern and southern Africa (14%).

**Table 7.3: HIV Prevalence in MSM compared to general adult prevalence**[19]

| Country | Prevalence in MSM | Prevalence in general adult population |
|---|---|---|
| Botswana | 13.1 | 22.2 |
| DRC | 8.2 | 0.8 |
| Lesotho | 32.9 | 22.7 |
| Madagascar | 14.9 | 0.4 |
| Malawi | 17.3 | 9.1 |
| Mauritius | 17.2 | 0.9 |
| Seychelles | 13.2 | |
| South Africa | 32.4 | 19.2 |
| Swaziland | 12.6 | 28.8 |
| Tanzania | 17.6 | 4.7 |

*Source: UNAIDS 2017.*

Table 7.3 summarises the available data on prevalence in MSM within SADC, in comparison to prevalence in the general population. The data shows that in all countries, except Botswana and Swaziland, which have very generalised heterosexual epidemics, the prevalence of HIV in MSM is much higher than that in the general adult population. The differential is particularly high in Mauritius (17.2% in MSM as compared to 0.9% in general population and Madagascar 14.9% and 0.4%).



***MSM suffer stigma and discrimination:*** Although not as prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa as elsewhere in the world, same-sex relations are highly stigmatised in the region. This stigma and homophobia, along with frequent violence perpetrated against homosexuals means MSM and transgender people have a higher risk of contracting HIV, because they are less likely to get tested and less able to access treatment. More than 42% of MSM surveyed in Botswana, Malawi and Namibia reported experiencing at least one form of human rights abuse, such as blackmail and denial of housing or health care. Stigma and discrimination result in making it very difficult for MSM to access prevention, treatment or care services. Thus, the rates of testing among MSM are generally very low in countries which collect this data. The lowest rates are 14.1% in Zimbabwe; the highest is Mauritius at 86.6%.[20]

***There is a shortage of targeted prevention and mitigation interventions for women who have sex with women:*** Women who have sex with women are also vulnerable to contracting HIV infection, yet this group is rarely targeted with HIV interventions for a variety of reasons. This is mostly due to a lack of understanding of the specific sexual practices of women who have sex with women, as well as lack of knowledge of their sexual and reproductive health needs. Women who have sex with women are also subject to homophobia, violent crime and rape, and discrimination at the hands of health providers. This limits their access to healthcare, preventative measures and treatment.

***South African National AIDS Council (SANAC) launched the first LGBTI HIV plan in the world*** in June 2017. The Plan is a much-needed strategic guide to provide effective interventions among lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) people. The five-year plan supports and runs concurrently with the newly launched National Strategic Plan for HIV, TB and STIs for the period 2017-2022. The Plan aims to reach 200 000 men who have sex with men (MSM) and 5000 transgender people by the year 2022 with much-needed services. As these populations are highly stigmatised and discriminated against, the Plan provides focused guidance to address stigma and discrimination among LGBTI people. The plan enables members of the LGBTI populations realise their health and human rights in an environment that is affirming of their sexual orientations and identities.[21]

[19] Derived from HIV prevalence in MSM and HIV prevalence 15 to 49 year old, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.
[20] MSM Knowledge of HIV status, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.
[21] http://sanac.org.za/2017/06/26/south-africas-groundbreaking-lgbti-hiv-plan-a-first-for-the-country-and-the-world/ last accessed 9 July, 2017.

***People who inject drugs remain vulnerable to HIV infection:*** Although the overall proportion of the SADC population that injects drugs is low, some countries with large numbers of drug users have high HIV prevalence in this group. For example, 44.3% of injecting drug users in Mauritius; 11.3% in DRC, 3.8% in Seychelles, 8% in Madagascar and 15.5% in Tanzania are HIV positive[22]. There is also evidence to suggest that women who inject drugs face violence from intimate partners, police and sex trade clients, which increases their vulnerability to HIV infection. Women who inject drugs remain less likely to access services, so if those living with HIV and AIDS become pregnant they are much less likely to access Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) services.

**Other groups who are at high risk:** People living with Disabilities are very vulnerable to HIV infection as they are vulnerable to sexual abuse, have poor access to services and information and are often subjected to stigma and discrimination. **Prisoners** also have poor access to services, condoms or information and have high rates of sexual abuse leading to the prevalence rate of HIV being up to 50 times higher in prison populations than in the general population in some countries. **Refugees and asylum seekers** have often passed through situations of significant risk to reach their destinations. They also have no services en-route and are often subjected to mandatory HIV testing without pre or post-test counselling or confidentiality. Making services available for all is a critical component of the sustainable development agenda. **People affected by Humanitarian Emergencies:** Some 1,3 million of the 1,6 million people living with HIV who were affected by humanitarian emergencies in 2013 were in Sub Saharan Africa. Planning for humanitarian emergencies needs to include provision of HIV prevention, testing and treatment services.

## Policies

**Article 27.1**: State Parties shall take every step necessary to adopt and implement gender sensitive policies and programmes, and enact legislation that will address prevention, treatment, care and support in accordance with, but not limited to, the Maseru Declaration on HIV and AIDS and the SADC Sponsored United Nations Commission on the Status of Women Resolution on Women, the Girl Child and HIV and AIDS and the Political Declaration on HIV.

**Article 27.2**: State parties shall ensure that the policies and programmes referred to in sub-Article take account of the unequal status of women, the particular vulnerability of the girl child as well as harmful practices and biological factors that result in women constituting the majority of those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS.



**Botswana** The first National Policy on HIV and AIDS was developed in 1993 and revised in 1998 and 2013. The national HIV policy emphasises a multi-sectoral approach to HIV and AIDS response and established structures for all sectors (public, civil society and private) to participate in the National Response. In addition, Botswana had a national strategic framework 2010 - 2016 to guide the response.



**Lesotho**, with a 24% prevalence rate (down from approximately 30% in 2004) has committedto bring this down to 15%. The government has also adopted the following national policies (mostly regarding prevention) to curb HIV and AIDS: National Action Plan on Women, Girls and HIV and AIDS (2012-2017); The Prevention of Mother-to-Child Transmission Strategy; the National HIV Prevention Strategy for a Multi-Sectoral Response; and the Operational Guidelines for Comprehensive HIV prevention interventions within the Health

**43%** of injecting **drug** abusers in Mauritius are HIV+

[22] Derived from People who inject drugs - HIV prevalence http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2016.

Malawi has **aligned** its HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan with the UNAIDS **90-90-90** targets

Sector; 2015-2020 National Sexual and Reproductive Health Strategic Plan and 2015-2020 National Health Strategy for Adolescents and Young People.



The **Malawi** National HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan (NSP) for 2011 - 2016 has been extended to 2020[23], with greater focus on the 90-90-90 targets. The revised plan also focuses more on vulnerable populations than the previous NSP (2011- 2016) and has sections on coordination and management of programmes. The plan recognises that the spread of HIV is fuelled by gender inequalities and aims at 'comprehensive sexuality and gender transformative interventions to prevent new HIV infections through safer sex, service utilization, retention in care and adherence.' The NSP will build on positive efforts made to promote couples' communication, modification of harmful cultural practices, and stigma reduction through effective community mobilisation efforts in collaboration with traditional and faith leaders.



**Mauritius** has an HIV and AIDS Act as well as an HIV and AIDS Policy. Two of the guiding principles of the National HIV and AIDS policy developed and validated in 2011 are:

- People with HIV and AIDS shall have the same rights as all other citizens, and shall not be discriminated against on the basis of their HIV status, gender, socio-economic status, and sexual orientation or HIV-risk factors.
- Gender norms and relations are a key factor in determining who acquires HIV in Mauritius, and in determining treatment, care and support outcomes. The national programme acknowledges this and all programmes and services shall devise and implement strategies that address gender norms and relations. Addressing the prevention and care needs of women and girls shall be a particular focus, combined with attention to male behaviour and cultural norms that increase the likelihood of women contracting HIV.

Other gender considerations are:

- Wherever possible, HIV and AIDS information, and prevention and care initiatives shall be integrated into existing programmes and services. In health, this shall mean integration into sexual and reproductive health services, maternal and child health, services for sexually transmitted infections, family health and other mainstream services.
- Treatment, care and support efforts shall focus on connecting all individuals and families (mostly women and children) affected by HIV and AIDS with health care and social support, and on focusing resources on geographical areas most affected by HIV and AIDS.



**Mozambique** adopted a law in 2014 that seeks to protect the rights and dignity of people living with HIV and created a budget line for HIV treatment in the domestic health budget.



**South Africa** launched the National Strategic Plan (NSP) for HIV, TB and STIs 2017 - 2022[24] which calls for a new approach, focused on geographic areas and populations that are most affected by the epidemics. The NSP has eight goals: to accelerate prevention to reduce new HIV, TB and STI infections; reduce morbidity and mortality by providing HIV, TB and STIs treatment, care and adherence support for all; reach all key and vulnerable populations with customised and targeted interventions; address the social and structural drivers of HIV, TB and STI infections; ground the response to HIV, TB and STIs in human rights principles and approaches; promote leadership and shared accountability for a sustainable response to HIV, TB and STIs; mobilise resources to support the achievement of NSP goals and ensure a sustainable response; and strengthen strategic information to drive progress towards achievement of NSP goals.



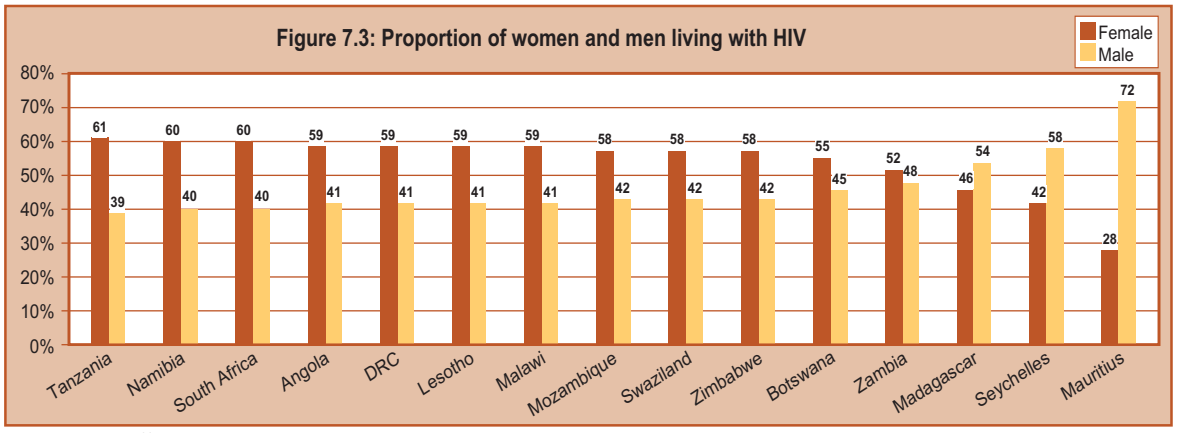

HIV and AIDS awareness campaign in Limpopo , South Africa.
*Photo: Gender Links*

[23] http://hivstar.lshtm.ac.uk/files/2016/05/Malawi-National-HIV-AIDS-Strategic-Plan-2015-2020.pdf last accessed 15 July, 2017.
[24] http://sanac.org.za/2017/05/11/download-the-full-version-of-the-national-strategic-plan-for-hiv-tb-and-stis-2017-2022/ last accessed 12 July, 2017.

The focus areas of the **Zambia** National HIV and AIDS Strategic Framework 2017 - 2021[25] are: Social and Behaviour Change Communication (SBCC); Comprehensive Condom programming; Voluntary Medical Male Circumcision; Sexually Transmitted Infections; HIV Testing Services; Elimination of Mother to Child Transmission; PrEP; enhancing condom programming; TB/ HIV co-infection; voluntary Medical Male Circumcision Treatment (ART) optimisation; Critical enablers; and Synergies with other development sectors. The policy highlights that there is a need to address gender inequalities as this is a primary reason for the on- going spread of the disease.

## Prevention

**Article 27. 3**: State Parties shall:
a) Develop gender sensitive strategies to prevent new infections.




*Source: http://kff.org/global-indicator/women-living-with-hivaids/ - accessed 18 June 2017.*

Figure 7.3 shows that women remain more affected by HIV than men. In 12 of the 15 countries in SADC there is a higher proportion of women living with HIV than men. Madagascar, Seychelles and Mauritius, which have a higher proportion of men living with HIV than women, have concentrated HIV epidemics in key populations such as people who inject drugs and MSM.

According to UNAIDS women constitute approximately 58% of the estimated 36, 7 million people living with HIV globally. In all countries, as epidemics are maturing, the gap in the percentage of men and women living with HIV is narrowing.

***Comprehensive, accurate knowledge of HIV and AIDS*** is fundamental to ensuring citizens use HIV services and engage in safe sexual behaviours. Yet, knowledge remains low among young women and men (aged 15-24) in SADC, with significant gaps in even basic knowledge about HIV and its transmission. Thus age-appropriate sexuality education must be mainstreamed into education.

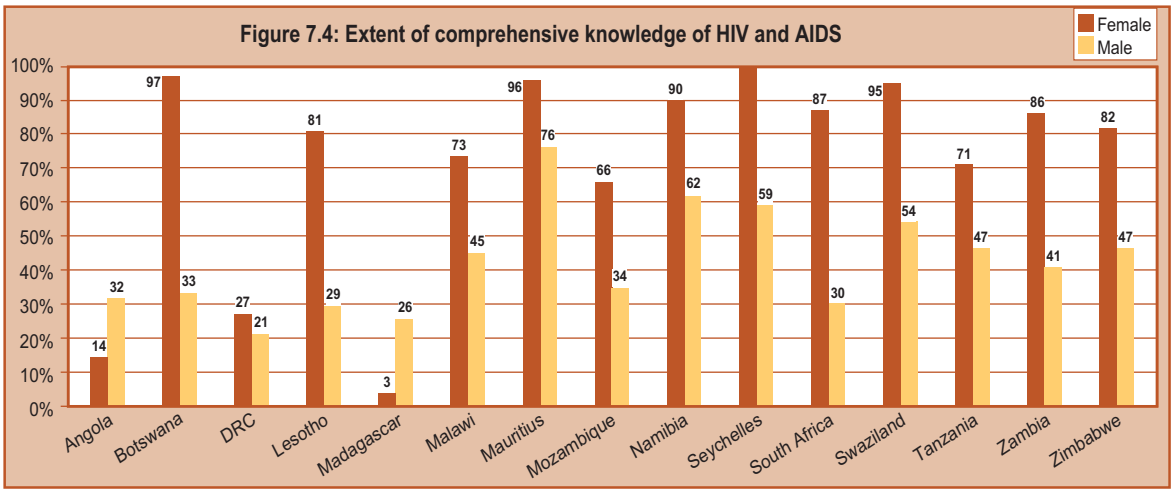



Activists protest for improvement in access to condoms.
*Photo: SAFAIDS*

constitute
**58%**
of people
living with
HIV
globally

[25] http://www.nac.org.zm/content/national-aids-strategic-framework-nasf-2017-2021, last accessed 12 July, 2017.

Only **4%** of people living with **HIV** know their status in Madagascar




*Source: Table 4 HIV / AIDS http://www.data.unicef.org/resources/the-state-of-the-world-s-children-2016-statistical-tables.html accessed 1 July, 2016.*

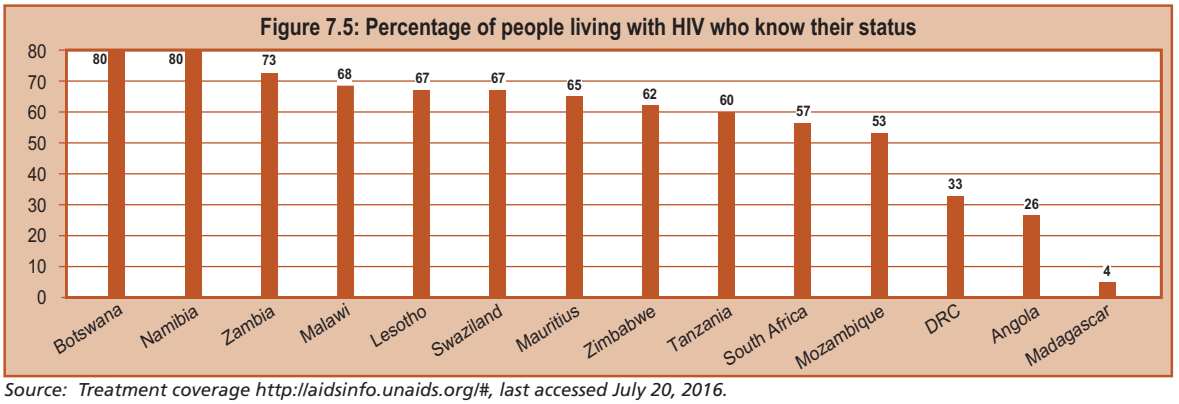



Aids awareness needs to increase in Mauritius.
*Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

Figure 7.4 shows disturbingly low levels of knowledge throughout much of the region. There are only four countries - Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, and Swaziland - where more than 50% of both men and women have comprehensive HIV and AIDS knowledge. In three countries - Angola, DRC, Madagascar - both men and women have less than 40% comprehensive knowledge. In the other countries there are wide variations between women and men - with women having much higher levels of knowledge than men.

New information about HIV is becoming available. There is need for continued awareness raising on HIV, modes of transmission and ways of preventing transmission, STI prevention and treatment, family planning and co morbidities. Prevention must reach those that have been left behind in other campaigns such as adolescents, older people, people living with disabilities, sex workers, men who have sex with men, prisoners and people who inject drugs. Much awareness raising can be provided at community level through peer supporters, health awareness talks by expert clients and others as well as community health days where information about HIV is provided with other information on promoting health.

Prevention will only be successful in environments of reduced stigma and discrimination especially with regard to people with disability, sex workers, people who inject drugs, prisoners and LGBTI and community mobilization is a key issue in this regard. Such mobilisation needs to include community, traditional, political and religious leaders if it is to succeed. Community channels are critical for encouraging uptake of services such as voluntary male circumcision and use of condoms, including condom distribution.




*Source: Treatment coverage http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2016.*

***Testing for HIV must increase substantially:*** Figure 7.5 shows that across the region most countries are still very far from the UNAIDS target of 90% of those living with HIV being tested and knowing their status. Only Botswana and Namibia have achieved 80% and Zambia has achieved 73%. Six other countries have achieved at least 60% and two at least 50%. Three DRC, Angola and Madagascar) are between 4% and 33%. Late diagnosis of HIV is the main barrier to scaling up treatment and contributes to continued transmission of the virus. Many people delay testing because they are not aware that seemingly well people can be living with HIV and because they are afraid of stigma and discrimination from those around them. *In east and southern Africa, only 10% of young men and 15% of young women are aware of their HIV status.*



**Malawi** is making significant strides in scaling up its response, including being the first country in the region to officially endorse the 90-90-90 treatment target in its national strategic AIDS plan[26]. It is estimated that 43% of all women and 40% of all men in Malawi have been tested and that 54% of Malawians living with HIV know their status. Of these, 552 808 are on ART.[27]



With international support, **Mozambique** has managed to sharply increase its coverage of HIV testing and counselling since 2012. New HIV infections among adults have been reduced by 40% between 2004 and 2014[28].



**South Africa** has made significant progress in increasing access to testing. It is believed that the country could reach the target of 90% of those living with HIV aware of their status by 2018. This is an increase from 20% of those living with HIV aware of their status in the early 2000s. To achieve it will require that testing programmes continue to reach 10 million people per year. Current HIV testing programmes are not reaching enough men, adolescents and the elderly[29].

***Women are more likely to be aware of their HIV status:*** HIV testing, counselling and prevention services in ante-natal settings offer an excellent opportunity not only to prevent new-borns from becoming infected, but also to enhance the health of HIV-infected women. In numerous countries in which testing data has been reported, women are significantly more likely than men to know their HIV serostatus, mainly due to the availability of testing. Opportunities for programmes which encourage joint testing of an HIV positive woman and her husband as part of a PMTCT programme also exist, so that treatment and care services can be afforded to both. Men's participation in PMTCT services is still limited in many countries and men often perceive pregnancy and childbearing as the sole responsibility of women.

## Spotlight on youth




In 2016 UNAIDS and PEPFAR launched the Start Free, Stay Free, AIDS Free[30] initiative which has the following three components:

- **Start Free** aims to complete the work that was begun in the Global Plan to reach and sustain 95% of pregnant women living with HIV on life-long HIV treatment by 2018, and to reduce the number of newly infected children to fewer than 40 000 by 2018 and 20 000 by 2020.
- **Stay Free** aims to ensure that children with an HIV-free start stay HIV-free throughout their childhood. It will intensify the focus on reaching and empowering adolescent girls and young women and engaging men and boys. Stay Free includes the targets of the 2016 Political Declaration on HIV and AIDS to reduce the number of new HIV infections among adolescents and young women to fewer than 100 000 by 2020. It also seeks to provide voluntary medical male circumcision for HIV prevention to 25 million additional men globally by 2020, including 11 million men in the geographic areas of highest HIV burden (with a focus on young men aged 15 to 29 years).
- **AIDS Free** targets the children and adolescents living with HIV who are often left behind by HIV responses. It aims to provide 1.6 million children (aged 0 to 14 years) and 1.2 million adolescents (aged 15 to 19 years) living with HIV with ARVs by 2018.

New HIV infections have been reduced by **40%** in Mozambique

[26] http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/featurestories/2016/january/20160127_Malawi last accessed 7 June, 2016.
[27] UNAIDS, NAC & MSF Belgium. 2016. Engaging the Community to reach 90-90-90. Lilongwe, Malawi.
[28] http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/featurestories/2015/december/20151208_Mozambique last accessed 7 June, 2016.
[29] http://www.bdlive.co.za/national/health/2015/07/03/sa-has-uns-hiv-testing-goal-in-sight
[30] UNAIDS, 2016. Prevention Gap Report. Geneva.

**794,900** adolescents are living with HIV in SADC

***Adolescent girls and young women in east and southern Africa are at much higher risk***, and acquire HIV five to seven years earlier than men. Adolescence is the period when young people transition from childhood to adulthood with rapid physical growth and change as well as psychosocial development. Adolescents have a different concept of risk than adults. Mortality rates declined sharply in all other age groups, but continued to increase in adolescents and are only now beginning to stabilise. AIDS is the leading cause of death in adolescents in Africa and the second highest cause globally.[31]

Globally, 62% of adolescents acquiring HIV infection are girls; in sub-Saharan Africa, the figure is 71%. There are a total of 794, 900 adolescents aged 10 to 19 living with HIV in SADC, which is 57% of the total number in Sub Saharan Africa and 44% of the global number of adolescents living with HIV.[32]

***A number of studies have shown that small cash transfers combined with adult care and regular attendance to secondary school is associated with lower incidence of HIV as well as improved treatment adherence for adolescent girls and boys***[33]. Increased access to education and empowerment for women and girls is linked to better sexual and reproductive health outcomes, including lower rates of HIV infection, reduced rates of multiple concurrent partnerships, delayed sexual debut, delayed childbearing, safer births and safer abortions, and reduction in gender-based violence. Reduced gender based violence is also linked to reduction in HIV incidence[34].

***Some cultural practices in the region fuel the spread of HIV:*** practices such as initiating young girls and boys into adulthood which includes practical sexual initiation are still common in some parts of the region. The campaign against child marriage is discussed in chapter 6, Sexual and Reproductive Health and in the Constitutional and Legal Rights Chapter.

**Table 7.4: Demographics, Epidemiology and Behaviour of Adolescents aged 15 to 19, 2015**

| | Population (thousands) 2015 | | % of total population 2015 | Number living with HIV, 2015 aged 10-19 | Number of new HIV infections, 2015 aged 15 - 19 | Number of AIDS deaths 2015 in ages 10-19 | % who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV, 2010-2015* | | % who had sex before age 15, 2010-2015* | | % who had sex with more than one partner in last 12 months 2010-2015* | | % tested and received results in last 12 months 2010-2015* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Country** | **Total** | **Age 10-19** | | **Estimate** | **Estimate** | **Estimate** | **Female** | **Male** | **Female** | **Male** | **Female** | **Male** | **Female** | **Male** |
| Angola | 25 022 | 5 954 | 24 | 15 000 | 2 500 | <500 | 24 | 26 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Botswana | 2 262 | 441 | 19 | 13 000 | 1 600 | <200 | | | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | |
| DRC | 77 267 | 18 121 | 23 | 27 000 | 1 200 | 1 100 | 17 | 20 | 19 | 20 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 1 |
| Lesotho | 2 135 | 493 | 23 | 12 000 | 2 000 | <500 | 35 | 30 | 6 | 26 | 6 | 31 | 41 | 25 |
| Madagascar | 24 235 | 5 714 | 24 | 5 400 | 1 400 | <200 | 21 | 24 | 16 | 10 | 16 | 5 | 2 | 1 |
| Malawi | 17 215 | 4 111 | 24 | 62 000 | 3 000 | 1 800 | 43 | 50 | 13 | 22 | 13 | 7 | 32 | 25 |
| Mauritius | 1 273 | 193 | 15 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Mozambique | 27 978 | 6 731 | 24 | 68 000 | 9 400 | 1 500 | 27 | 49 | 22 | 17 | 22 | 18 | 18 | 8 |
| Namibia | 2 459 | 538 | 22 | 8 500 | <1,000 | <100 | 56 | 51 | 7 | 13 | 7 | 5 | 29 | 14 |
| Seychelles | 96 | 13 | 14 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 4 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| South Africa | 54 490 | 10 328 | 19 | 350 000 | 59 000 | 6 300 | | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Swaziland | 1 287 | 295 | 23 | 11 000 | 1 900 | <200 | 56 | 52 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 23 | 18 |
| Tanzania | 53 470 | 12 291 | 23 | 81 000 | 5 500 | 2 300 | 37 | 42 | 9 | 12 | 9 | 7 | 21 | 13 |
| Zambia | 16 212 | 3 863 | 24 | 68000 | 6 800 | 1 500 | 39 | 42 | 12 | 18 | 12 | 8 | 33 | 19 |
| Zimbabwe | 15 603 | 3 504 | 22 | 74 000 | 6 400 | 1 700 | 51 | 49 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 35 | 24 |

*Derived from UNICEF. 2016. Seventh Stocktaking Report. https://data.unicef.org/topic/hivaids/global-regional-trends/ Accessed 2 July, 2017.*

[31] All in: #End Adolescent AIDS. 2015. Brochure. http://allintoendadolescentaids.org
[32] Derived from UNICEF. 2016. Seventh Stocktaking Report TABLE 3: Demography and epidemiology of HIV among adolescents in low- and middle-income countries. https://data.unicef.org/topic/hivaids/global-regional-trends/ Accessed 2 July, 2017.
[33] See Cluver, L and L. Sherr, Cash transfers-magic bullet or fundamental ingredient? The Lancet, 1 Nov 2016. http://www.thelancet.com/journals/langlo/article/PIIS2214-109X(16)30295-9/fulltext last accessed 9 July, 2017.
[34] UNAIDS. Prevention Gap Report. 2016. http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/2016-prevention-gap-report_en.pdf Last accessed 3 July, 2017.

Table 7.4 reflects the gendered dimensions of HIV knowledge, multiple partners and testing among young people. The table shows that:

- *Adolescents, aged 10 to 19, generally comprise between 22 and 24% of a country's population.* Only in Seychelles, Mauritius, South Africa and Botswana are adolescents a lower proportion of their country's total population (between 14% and 19%)
- *South Africa has the highest burden of adolescents (350,000) living with HIV, an estimated 59,000 new infections and 6,300 deaths annually as a result of HIV in adolescents.* Other countries with high rates of new infection in comparison with their total populations of adolescents are Mozambique (6,900 in a total population of 6,731 million adolescents), Zambia (6,800 new infections from a total population of 3,853 million) and Zimbabwe (6,400 new infections from a total population of 3.5 million).
- *The only two countries in which comprehensive knowledge of HIV is higher than 50% in both young women and young men are Namibia (51% young men and 56% young women) and Swaziland (52% and 56%).* The lowest rates of comprehensive knowledge are in DRC (17% in females and 20% in males) and Madagascar (21% and 24%). The greatest disparity in knowledge is in Mozambique (27% for females and 49% for males).
- *DRC, Mozambique and Malawi still have high levels of early sexual debut (before the age of 15) for both girls and boys - 19% female and 20% male; 22% and 17%; and 13% and 22% respectively for the three countries.* This is likely to be both a cause of as well as a result of child marriage. The lowest levels of sex before the age of 15 are in Botswana (2% in young girls and 3% in boys) and Swaziland (3% in boys and 2% in girls). Early sexual debut is associated with much higher levels of HIV incidence.
- *It is encouraging to note reported low levels of multiple partnerships, which is also associated with high levels of HIV incidence.* The highest level is in Lesotho with 6% for young women and 31% for young men. The lowest level is in Botswana with 2% for young women and 1% for young men.
- *In all countries for which data could be obtained, young women were much more likely than young men to be aware of their HIV status.* Lesotho has the overall highest rate of awareness of HIV status among young people (41% female and 25% male), and Madagascar the lowest (2% and 1%). Higher rates of testing in young women may be associated with teenage pregnancy and testing during ante natal visits. Overall, the rates of testing are still much below the target of 90%.
- None of the indicators (knowledge, condom use or testing) have improved significantly in the last year.



Youth who form part of Lets Grow, Orange Farm, South Africa, seek to create an AIDS free generation. *Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

## Preventing new HIV infections in children and keeping their mothers alive

Following a 2011 political declaration, UNAIDS developed a Global Plan for the elimination of new HIV infections among children by 2015 and keeping their mothers alive. The plan focused on 22 high prevalence countries; 21 of which are in Africa and 12 in SADC (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

The plan outlined a four pronged approach:

- Preventing new HIV infections among women of childbearing age.
- Preventing unintended pregnancies among women living with HIV.
- Preventing HIV transmission from a woman living with HIV to her baby
- Providing appropriate treatment, care and support to mothers living with HIV and their children and families.

Following Malawi's bold introduction of Option B+ where all pregnant mothers living with HIV were immediately introduced to lifelong ART irrespective of CD4 count, the WHO issued new guidelines on PMTCT, recommending that countries should introduce Option B+. All SADC countries in the Global Plan have now adopted option B+ and are rapidly increasing the number of pregnant women on ART.

SADC has adopted Option B+ for **PMTCT**

Up to

**60%**

of new

HIV

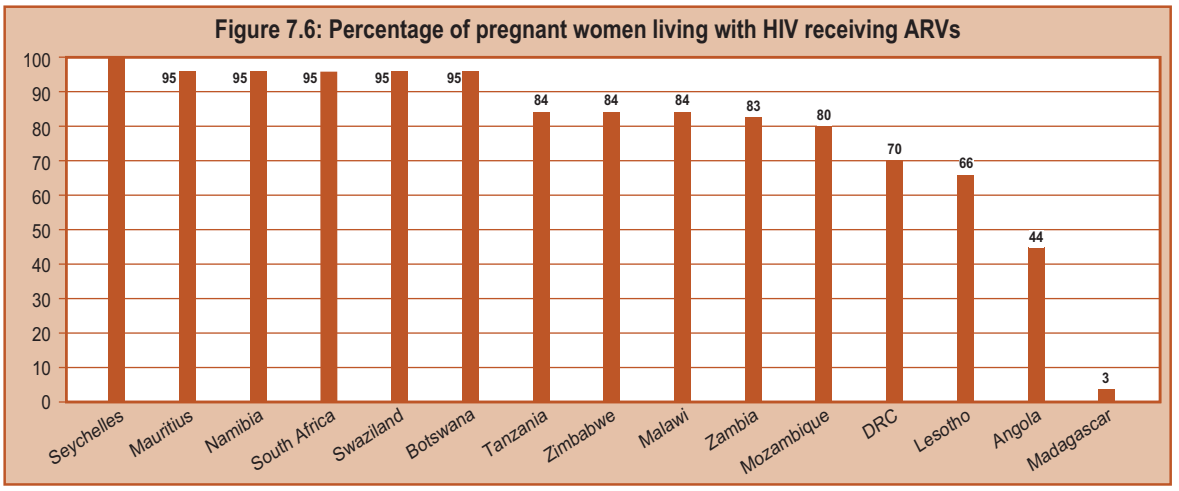
infections

occur

during

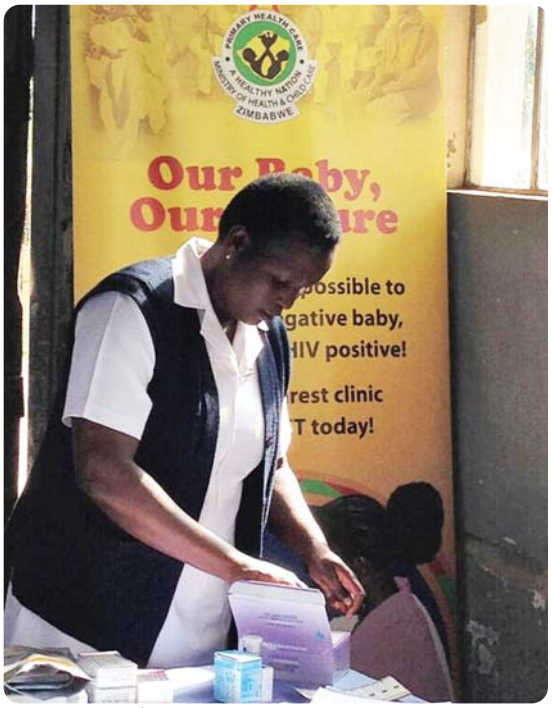
breast

feeding




*Source: PMTCT Coverage, http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

***There has been rapid scale-up in the availability of ARVs for pregnant mothers living with HIV:*** As reflected in Figure 7.6, eleven SADC countries have reached the World Health target of 80% coverage (Seychelles, Mauritius, South Africa, Swaziland, Botswana, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia and Mozambique). At 95%, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland have exceeded the target for coverage. DRC (70%), Lesotho (66%), Angola (44%), Seychelles (42%), Mauritius (28%) and Madagascar (3%) are below WHO targets.




The provision of health workers is key in eliminating paediatric AIDS. *Photo: SAFAIDS*

***Elimination of HIV in children will require more focus on the other pillars of PMTCT.*** This includes reduction in new infections in mothers; greater access to contraception to allow mothers living with HIV to plan the births of their children more effectively and improved follow up of mothers and infants through breast feeding. It is estimated that up to 60% of new infections may now be occurring during breastfeeding. As much as possible both partners should be tested to encourage safe sex and reduced new infections in mothers during pregnancy and breast feeding. Mothers should have repeat testing during their pregnancy and while breast feeding, as the risk of transmission is 2 to 3 times higher in newly infected mothers. Elimination of paediatric AIDS also includes ensuring that infants are tested and that those that are living with HIV access treatment. Currently rates of early infant diagnosis are unacceptably low and it is estimated that 50% of babies that are born with HIV die within the first two years of life[35].

Social and structural factors impede scaling up of all pillars of PMTCT. Programmes for mentoring of mothers, disclosure support, greater involvement of males and families and reduction of stigma are needed. Further, there is a need for greater efforts to reach marginalised groups such as women prisoners, sex workers, drug users, migrants and people with disabilities. The rate of mother to child transmission in such groups is much higher than in the general population.

***Mentor mothers, or a woman living with HIV who has used PMTCT, are used widely in facilities and the community to support mothers that are being introduced to PMTCT:***

[35] Penazzato, M, F. Lule, S. Essajee, Paediatric HIV: the unfinished business, in The Lancet, 12 July, 2017, http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanhiv/article/PIIS2352-3018(17)30126-1/fulltext last accessed 20 July, 2017.

Their roles vary but typically include: pre- and post-test counselling and support; support to disclose within the family (this is often very difficult and may result in gender based violence); psycho-social and adherence support. A randomised control trial of projects with mentor mothers and those without in South Africa found improved adherence to ART at 12 months (91% vs 64%), higher rates of disclosure (82% vs 69%) and higher rates of return of the infant for HIV testing (60% vs 31%).[36]

Though it has been shown that male involvement in antenatal care (ANC) leads to improved PMTCT outcomes, barriers such as:

- societal perception of ANC and PMTCT as belonging to women and not being a place for men;
- long waiting times at ANC clinics which make it difficult for working men to participate; and
- unwillingness of mothers to involve their partners as they feared violence, divorce and stigmatisation result in very low involvement of men in ANC.

A range of strategies to engage men has been employed in Malawi. These include letters to invite male partners to attend ANC, home visits by mentor mothers or others, encouraging men to attend by male volunteers, by local chiefs or through the media.[37]



**Botswana** In 2014, the PMTCT programme was available in all the 634 health facilities that provide Maternal Child Health services. The percentage of pregnant women who tested for HIV and received their results (during pregnancy, during labour and delivery, and during the post-partum period, including those with previously known HIV status) was 94.3% in 2014, lower than the percentage for 2009 (99%). Male involvement was 18% in 2014 a slight increase from 11% in 2011. The number of new infections in pregnant mothers has declined gradually from 14,058 in 2011 to 11, 845 in 2014. In 2014 90.8% (11845) of HIV-positive pregnant women received anti-retroviral treatment to reduce the risk of mother-to-child transmission compared to 95.9% in 2013. About half of the HIV positive pregnant women who received antiretrovirals in 2014 were on ART before their pregnancy.[38]

Some 89% of maternity hospitals in the **DRC** do not offer services to prevent mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV. The government, with support, is working to improve this. The First Lady of DRC, Marie Olive Lembé Kabila, launched the initiative "Rolling back malaria and eliminating mother-to-child transmission of HIV" in October 2011.





**Malawi**'s decision in 2011 to implement option B+ resulted in a sevenfold increase in the number of women initiated on ART and a decrease of mother-to-child transmission of HIV by 66%, according to latest government data.[39]



**Mauritius** has been implementing option B+ since 2012, enabling coverage of 97%. The government of Mauritius is now aiming at E-MTCT (elimination of MTCT). Services which are available for infants born to mothers living with HIV include: regular follow up; prophylactic treatment (cotrimoxazole); supply of formula milk in the first year and full-cream milk in the second year; vaccinations, detection of early clinical stages of AIDS and initiation of ARV's and diagnostic test for HIV.[40]



**Mozambique** PMTCT programme coverage is improving. Approximately 86% of ante-natal care facilities offer PMTCT services and HIV testing among pregnant women increased from 12% in 2005 to 87% in 2010. Expanded treatment coverage for pregnant women living with HIV has resulted in a 73% decline in new HIV infections among children from 2011 to 2014[41]. Mozambique has developed a national scale-up plan towards elimination of mother to child transmission of HIV (2010-2015).



**South Africa** has achieved the target of reducing transmission by more than 50% and transmission rates between mothers and babies have fallen to less than 5%. According to a study conducted by the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation at the University of Washington, new HIV infections in South African children under five years old dropped by more than three quarters between 2003 and 2013. The study also found that the number of children who died due to Aids has decreased tenfold over the past 10 years.[42] However, a recent study has found that transmission of HIV

South Africa has **achieved** reducing HIV transmission from mother to child by more than

50%

[36] Schmitz et al. Retaining mother baby pairs in care and treatment: the mothers-2-mothers Mentor Mother model. TUAD0201 IAS Vancouver 2015.
[37] UNAIDS, NAC & MSF Belgium. 2016. Engaging the Community to reach 90-90-90. Lilongwe, Malawi.
[38] http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/country/documents/BWA_narrative_report_2015.pdf last accessed 7 June, 2016.
[39] http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/featurestories/2016/january/20160127_Malawi last accessed 7 June, 2016.
[40] Republic of Mauritius, Country Progress Report, 2015.
[41] http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/featurestories/2015/december/20151208_Mozambique last accessed 7 June, 2016.

SADC accounted for **134,500** averted HIV infections in children

to infants is much higher in adolescent mothers than in older women[43]. Adolescents are much less likely to use contraception or dual contraception.



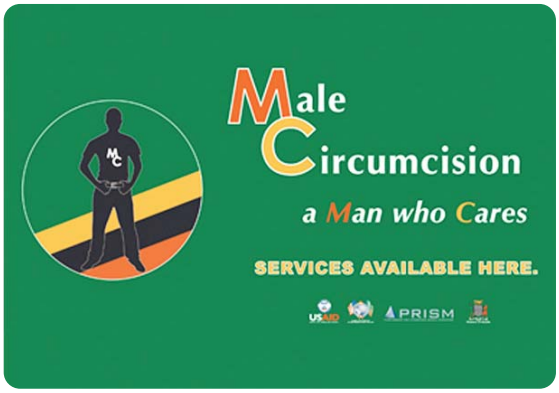
**Swaziland** has successfully expanded services to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV, with new child HIV infections reduced by 63% between 2009 and 2014. The country has achieved the goal of 90% of pregnant women living with HIV receiving antiretrovirals. Mother-to-child transmission of HIV rate is now one percent at six weeks of age and eight percent at the end of breastfeeding[44].



**Tanzania** is scaling up its PMTCT programme, mainly through integrating PMTCT services into Maternal Newborn and Child Health (MNCH) services. By 2010, the majority (90%) of ante-natal care facilities had integrated PMTCT services. HIV testing among pregnant women increased from 14% in 2005 to 86% in 2010, and 74% of pregnant women living with HIV received ARVs for PMTCT in 2011. There are still high levels of transmission during breastfeeding. Tanzania implemented a costed national PMTCT scale-up plan (2011-2015).



In **Zambia**, it is mandatory for every pregnant woman to undergo HIV testing so that if she is positive, she can quickly start treatment to reduce the chance of infecting the baby. 68,820 of the approximately 75,411 (or over 90%) women living with HIV who delivered in 2014 received ARVs for PMTCT. These efforts have translated into a drop in the HIV transmission rate from mother to child from 24% in 2009 to less than 9% in 2014[45].




Programmes offering voluntary medical male circumcision (VMMC) as part of HIV prevention have expanded in Zambia.
*Photo: Google*

**Table 7.5: Number of infections averted in children SADC in 2016**

| Country | Number of new infections in children averted in 2016 |
|---|---|
| Angola | 1800 [1300 - 2400] |
| Botswana | 1400 [1100 - 1900] |
| DRC | 4100 [2300 - 6000] |
| Lesotho | ... [1700 - 2100] |
| Madagascar | <100 |
| Malawi | 14,000 [12,000 - 17,000] |
| Mauritius | |
| Mozambique | 5600 [5000 - 6500] |
| Namibia | 1900 [1600 - 2200] |
| South Africa | 69,000 [62 000 - 75 000] |
| Swaziland | 2,300 [1900 - 2800] |
| Tanzania | 10,000 [7700 - 12 000] |
| Zambia | 14,000 [12 000 - 16 000] |
| Zimbabwe | ... [7600 - 9200] |
| **Total SADC** | 134,500 |
| **Global** | 270,000 [240 000 - 310 000] |

*Source: PMTCT infections averted. http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

Table 7.5 shows the estimated number of infections averted in SADC in 2016. The table shows that SADC accounted for 134,500 of the averted infections in children; almost half of the global total (270,000).

## Medical male circumcision

Voluntary medical male circumcision is a cost-effective, once off intervention that provides lifelong partial protection for males. Modelling suggests that sustaining an 80% circumcision prevalence among men aged 15 to 49 years from 2015 could avert 3.4 million HIV infections by 2025. There are 14 priority countries in eastern and southern Africa with high levels of HIV prevalence and low levels of male circumcision, of which ten are in SADC (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe). These have been identified for intense effort to increase levels of voluntary medical male circumcision.

[42] Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), 2014. http://mg.co.za/article/2014-07-21-hiv-infections-in-children-under-five-down-by-over-three-quarters
[43] http://www.aidsmap.com/South-Africa-Lower-coverage-of-maternal-HIV-testing-among-adolescents-leading-to-higher-mother-to-child-transmission/page/2981306/
[44] http://www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/swaziland/ last accessed 7 June, 2016.
[45] Zambia, Country Report, 2015. http://www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/zambia/ last accessed 7 June, 2016.

Progress among priority countries varies widely. By the end of 2015, Tanzania had surpassed the national coverage target, Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia achieved between 50% and 70%; Botswana and Swaziland, 45%, and Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia and Zimbabwe, under 35% of their coverage targets.

Among priority countries with age-disaggregated data (Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe), uptake of voluntary medical male circumcision was highest among those aged 10-14 years, followed by those aged 15-19 years and 20-24 years.[46]

There is need for more awareness creation around other benefits of circumcision, including reduction of other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), penile cancer, and protection for women and girls from cervical cancer. There is also need for clear messaging to dispel the notion of VMMC as a once off solution or prevention measure. Men still need to use condoms and abstain from risky sexual behaviour.



In **Botswana**, 30,033 males (21,689 aged 0-14 years and 8,344 aged 15 years and older) were circumcised in 2014. Circumcision in males 10-64 years rose from 11% in 2008 to 24.5% in 2013 (BAIS IV). The national target is 80% amongst HIV negative men aged 0-49 years, or 385 000 men by 2016. Most clients for male circumcision have been adolescents and young adults.



In **Tanzania**, the National Strategy on Voluntary Medical Male Circumcision targeted to circumcise 2,800,000 adult males in 12 priority regions by 2015. The regions that are targeted include Rukwa, Mbeya, Iringa, Kagera, Mwanza, Tabora, Shinyanga, Njombe, Geita, Simiyu, Katavi and Rorya district in Mara region.

***Post Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) is provided for in policies but not easily accessible:*** UNAIDS and UNIFEM reports recognise gender-based violence (GBV) as one of the leading factors in HIV infection, usually due to lacerations and other trauma. Treatment can help to reduce the likelihood of infection after sexual violence and is an important factor in caring for women and girls who have been sexually abused. Twelve SADC countries (excluding Angola, Lesotho and Zimbabwe) have policies requiring that health facilities administer PEP after a sexual assault and 13 countries have policies aimed at preventing sexually transmitted infection after sexual assault.

***Pre Exposure Prophylaxis (PrEP) is being tested and has been included in some countries' plans for prevention, especially for those at greatest risk of contracting HIV such as sex workers, partners in sero-discordant couples and men who have sex with men.*** PrEP has been shown to be highly effective in combination with other forms of prevention and those who need it the most have proven that they are able to adhere to treatment.[48]

- Botswana incorporated PrEP into its 2016 HIV Clinical Care Guidelines. PrEP is currently available in the private sector but as from 2017 is available in the public sector.
- PrEP is included in the comprehensive prevention package for MSM and sero-discordant couples in Malawi's National HIV Prevention Strategy 2015-2020, but funding for PrEP has not yet been allocated.
- PrEP is included in the South African National Strategic Plan (NSP) for HIV, STIs and TB (2017-2022). The Southern African HIV Clinicians Society published revised PrEP guidelines in early 2016 advising PrEP as a highly effective and safe prevention option when combined with other prevention strategies.
- Oral PrEP is one prevention strategy in the 2016 Zambia Ministry of Health's Consolidated Guidelines for Treatment and Prevention of HIV Infection.
- Zimbabwe is the site for the SAPPH-Ire PrEP demonstration project, looking at how best to roll out PrEP and ARV treatment to sex workers.

## Harm Reduction



People who inject drugs are 28 times more at risk of HIV compared with the general population. *Photo: Avert*



In Mauritius, where the spread of HIV I has been largely due to injecting drug use, the focus is on

Spread of HIV 1 is due to drug injection in Mauritius

[46] UNAIDS. Prevention Gap Report. 2016. http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/2016-prevention-gap-report_en.pdf Last accessed 3 July, 2017.
[47] Botswana, Country Progress Report, 2015.
[48] http://www.prepwatch.org/scaling-up/country-updates/ last accessed 22 July, 2017.

harm reduction. In general, HIV prevalence in people who inject drugs is 28 times higher than that in the general population. 66.7% of all Mauritian HIV cases since 1987 were people who inject drugs. This percentage increased from 7% in 2001 to 92% in 2005. Following the introduction of the Needle Exchange Programme and the Methadone Substitution Therapy in 2006, it began to decrease to 34.7% in 2015 and 31.1% in the first six months of 2016[49].

Since the implementation of harm reduction services on prevention and support for HIV and AIDS the following progress has been made:

- A fully-fledged Harm Reduction Unit was set up in January 2010 to prevent the spread of HIV Infection among people who inject drugs (PWIDs). The unit oversees the Methadone Substitution Therapy programme and the Needle Exchange Programme.
- Some 5 834 people who are injecting drug-users are under the Methadone Substitution Therapy (MST) programme. Approximately 2500 to 3000 access the needle exchange programme per semester.

## Treatment

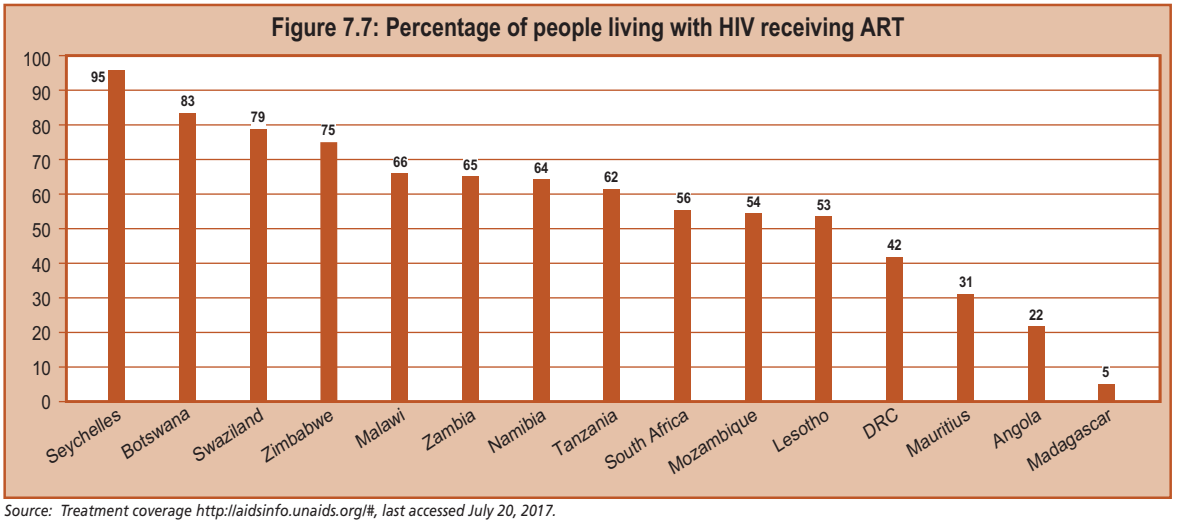
**Article 27.3**
b) Ensure universal access to HIV and AIDS treatment for infected women, men, girls and boys.

### Access to ARVs

***Major gains have been made:*** Most countries in SADC are rapidly expanding the number of people that are on lifelong ARV treatment. The total number of people living with HIV is continuing to increase and guidelines for treatment have raised the CD4 level at which treatment should be initiated. This has increased the number of people that are eligible for treatment. Increased percentages reflect large increases in absolute numbers. Declines in percentages may not indicate declines in absolute numbers of people that are being reached with ARVs. There has been much improvement in the collection and reporting of new data.

SADC member states have a total of 9, 223, 700 people on ART, which is 47% of the total number of the 19, 5 million people on treatment in the world.[50] South Africa has 3,9 million people on ART, 20% of the global total.

SADC has 47% of the world's population on ART




*Source: Treatment coverage http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

[49] Republic of Mauritius Statistics on HIV/AIDS (as at end of June 2016). http://health.govmu.org/English/Documents/HIVJun%20web2016.pdf. Last accessed 8 July, 2017.
[50] People living with HIV receiving ART# http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.

***But progress is still uneven:*** Figure 7.7 shows the percentage of all people living with HIV who are receiving antiretroviral treatment in SADC. Most countries in the region have adapted their policies to "Test and Treat" or to initiate treatment immediately a person tests positive for HIV. Eligibility criteria have changed over time - from CD4 count of 500 to CD4 350, in some cases to CD4 of 240 and now the indicator is percent of all people living with HIV that are on ART. To date only Seychelles, with a very small number of people living with HIV, has achieved UNAIDS target of 90% of those who have been tested positive being on treatment. However, Botswana at 83% and Swaziland at 79% are making good progress. Other countries still need to catch up. This is especially true in Angola and Madagascar, which respectively only provide ARVs to 22% and 5% of HIV positive citizens. There are local gaps and challenges within countries. Women are more likely to access treatment than men.

***Retention on ARVs is as critical as access.*** Antiretrovirals do not cure HIV. They control the virus and reduce replication, allowing the immune system to function. It is thus critical that those on ARVs adhere to their treatment for the rest of their lives. The WHO[51] has recently warned that there is an increase in HIV drug resistance which is a result of poor adherence. People living with HIV who develop drug resistance usually begin to fail therapy, their viral load increases and their CD4 count decreases unless they change their therapy. New lines of treatment are very expensive. People with drug resistance are more likely to transmit the virus and may transmit a strain that is drug resistant. The WHO *HIV drug resistance report 2017* shows that over 10% of people starting antiretroviral therapy had a strain of HIV that was resistant to some of the most widely used HIV medicines in 6 of the 11 countries surveyed in Africa, Asia and Latin America. WHO recommends that countries which have reached the 10% threshold should urgently review their HIV treatment programmes.

**Table 7.6: Twelve month retention on ART**

| Country | Twelve month retention on ART, 2016 % |
|---|---|
| Angola | 39 |
| DRC | 84 |
| Madagascar | 86 |
| Malawi | 76 |
| Mauritius | 81 |
| Mozambique | 70 |
| Namibia | 75 |
| South Africa | 68 |
| Swaziland | 93 |
| Zambia | 80 |
| Zimbabwe | 87 |

*Source: PMTCT infections averted. http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

Table 7.6 shows wide variations in retention on treatment between countries with the lowest of 39% in Angola and the highest of 93% in Swaziland. Six countries are over 80% which indicates that the third UNAIDS target of 90% of those on treatment adhere and have viral suppression is achievable.



The Ministry of Social Integration in **Angola** is helping orphans and street kids' access medication. Research in 2003 showed that 15% of all orphans in the country had lost their parents to HIV and AIDS. In partnership with UNICEF and other NGOs the government is raising awareness of orphans living with HIV and AIDS. In 2004 a law to protect people living with AIDS gives them the right to work, access to free medication and confidential assistance whenever they need it. The government is responsible for providing treatment but it still needs to implement monitoring and evaluation measures for the abuse of these rights especially when it comes to housing. In rural areas most of the women are illiterate, don't have access to transport and have to attend to other matters such as household chores and looking after children therefore they don't have time to go to hospitals for their medicine. More efforts must be made by the government to improve the situation and make it easier for women to have access to medication as they are more socially and psychologically vulnerable than men.



**Botswana** was the first country in the region to provide universal free antiretroviral treatment to people living with HIV. The impact of its treatment programme has been widespread. New infections have decreased significantly, from 15,000 in 2005 to 9,100 in 2013, although they have begun to rise again, with 9,700 reported in 2015. AIDS-related deaths have decreased dramatically.[52]



In **Mauritius** all HIV-positive people can receive ART for free. In addition, all HIV-positive pregnant women can receive PMTCT to prevent HIV transmission to their unborn children.



The ART programme in **Malawi** has become one of the most important priorities of the national response

[51] WHO media: "WHO urges action against HIV drug resistance threat", http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2017/hiv-drug-resistance/en/

[52] https://www.avert.org/professionals/hiv-around-world/sub-saharan-africa/botswana Last accessed on 23 July, 2017.

Angola had the lowest ART **retention** at 39%

with an increasing number of people receiving ARVs. In December 2013, the total number of patients alive on ART stood at 472 865, with 102 586 initiated in the year 2013 alone. Using the CD4 cell count of ≤350 as a threshold for determining eligibility to ART, researchers estimate that, by the end of December 2013, ART coverage in Malawi stood at 83%, up from 65% in 2012. Statistics indicate that more women access ARVs than men, 61% and 39% respectively. There has been evidence of some improvements in mortality and morbidity rates of HIV infected people. The survival outcomes are around 80%, which is still below the 85% WHO target.



**Namibia** has made significant progress in the provision of ART services. In 2003 about 2% of the people in need of treatment received it. By 2011 69%, and by the end of March 2012, 82% of the population in need received ART services. In 2016, 64% of all people living with HIV, irrespective of their CD4 count are receiving ART.

**Namibia: Improving access to Treatment, Care and Support in Henties Bay**






The Henties Bay Family Care Centre/ District AIDS Committee has made commendable progress in access to treatment, care and support. Most recently, the centre acquired an ambulance donated by the Chairperson of the Erongo Regional Council Hafeni Ndemula. Through integrated action planning with larger stakeholders and forming partnerships and networking opportunities to address health issues faced by the community at large, the centre has achieved access to treatment, care and support through:

- increasing access and sustainability initiatives for ARV drugs;
- improving the management of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and OIs;
- integration of HIV treatment into primary health care and the decentralisation of services through having Constituency Development Training on the Decentralization policies involving the larger stakeholders;
- involving the community in decision making processes through the Community Capacity Enhancement through Community Conversations; and
- improving access to nutritional and psychosocial services.

The project has also done formative research and behaviour analysis especially on the use of the femidom condom, target group segmentation and formulation of behavioural objectives. The committee has also started with awareness on voluntary medical male circumcision and having an ambulance will ease the situation of transporting patients to Swakopmund. Since consistent condom use is an effective way to prevent the spread of HIV, the project focuses on giving knowledge on how to use condoms properly. The available data shows that more than half of all reported cases of HIV infection can be linked to unprotected sexual intercourse. Therefore the project implemented conversations related to sexual health. *(Source: SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016)*

Protocol@Work

South Africa invests more than **$1,5 billion** annually on HIV and AIDS programmes



**South Africa** has rapidly scaled up its ART programme, which is the largest in the world. By the end of 2016 3.9 million South Africans were on ART, compared to one million in 2009. South Africa invests more than $1.5 billion annually to run its HIV and AIDS programmes[53].



**Swaziland**'s antiretroviral drugs are 100% domestically funded, which means that the treatment programme is less reliant on international donors and more sustainable. Despite notable improvements in making treatment more accessible, these gains have been felt more by adults living

[53] https://www.avert.org/professionals/hiv-around-world/sub-saharan-africa/south-africa. Last accessed 23 July, 2017.

with HIV. Access to treatment for children continues to be inadequate, with only 54% of children eligible for treatment receiving it in 2012.

**Zambia** expanded access to ART has resulted in decline in the annual AIDS related mortality from approximately 58,000 in 2000 to 19,000 in 2014[54].



**Zimbabwe: Using Mobile Phones (mHealth) to Improve Tracking and Tracing of HIV Care and Treatment Clients**



SAfAIDS' community mobilisation and demand creation efforts are complemented by deliberate efforts to link communities and services providers especially health facilities through strengthening and/or establishing community referral system. This system is a formal community-health facility linkage targeted at strengthening and promoting a bi-directional referral system that improves HIV services uptake, client retention and reduces loss to follow up.

With financial support from USAID through the Organisation for Public Health Intervention and Development (OPHID), SAfAIDS piloted the use of mobile phones to further improve linkages between health facilities and communities to enhance retention of PMTCT and pediatric HIV clients. The pilot initiative was implemented from September 2014 to March 2015 at four health facilities namely Ngundu, Takavarasha, Vuranda and Zivuku in Chivi district Zimbabwe. 36 village health workers and Community Referral Facilitators (CRF) who support the four clinics where equipped with skills on how to use phones to trace and track HIV treatment and care clients.

mHealth significantly contributed to improved linkage between health facilities and communities. Community Referral Facilitators were able to timeously communicate with Village Health Workers (VHWs) who in turned relayed information to clients with appointments or lost to follow up. The number of clients with appointments followed up per month increased by 400% between September 2014 and March 2015. The number of defaulters followed-up declined by 55% during the same period. mHealth also contributed to the increased proportion of clients with appointments who honoured appointment dates. At Takavarasha, the proportion increased from 68% at baseline to 81% at end line, Ngundu (69% to 81%), Zivuku (62% to 70%) and Vuranda (55% to 65%). Village health workers confirmed that the introduction of mHealth motivated them to do their routine home visits and follow ups on clients with appointments and lost in follow up. The percentage of VHWs who used mHealth who were active increased from 65% in August 2014 to 100% in March 2015. The mHealth intervention also contributed towards generation of better quality data compared to a paper based system.

Scaling up the mHealth initiative has the potential to significantly contribute towards addressing some of the gaps in enrolment, adherence and retention of HIV clients. Next steps include:

- Engaging community referral facilitators who are openly living with HIV to follow up on PMTCT clients is a commendable strategy since such CRFs have dependable knowledge and understanding of the importance of adherence and retention into the continuum of care.
- There is need for consistent mentoring and supervision, better incentives, and more involvement of VHWs and CRFs in project management for increased ownership and improved performance of mHealth.

*(Source: SAfAIDS)*




Protocol@Work

[54] Zambia, Country Report, 2015. http://www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/zambia/ last accessed 7 June, 2016.

SADC is experiencing a lower rate of AIDS related **illnesses**

## Saving lives

***A lower rate of deaths from AIDS-related illnesses is transforming societies:*** More people have regained their health and returned to work or are taking care of their families. The region now sees fewer funerals; less time is spent caring for the ill and more time is spent on productive activities.

**Table 7.7: Number of AIDS related deaths in SADC 2005 and 2016**

| Country | Number of AIDS related deaths 2005 | Number of AIDS related deaths 2016 | % decline |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 11,000 [7,200 - 16,000] | 11,000 | 0% |
| Botswana | 10,000 [9,100 - 12,000] | 3,900 | 61% |
| DRC | 37,000 [30,000 - 46,000] | 19,000 | 49% |
| Lesotho | 14,000 [12,000 - 17,000] | 9,900 | 29% |
| Madagascar | 3,100 [2,200 - 4,200] | 1,600 | 48% |
| Malawi | 76,000 [68,000 - 83,000] | 24,000 | 68% |
| Mauritius | <1,000 [<500 - <1,000] | <500 | 50% |
| Mozambique | 54,000 [40,000 - 72,000] | 62,000 | -15% |
| Namibia | 11,000 [9,300 - 13,000] | 4,300 | 61% |
| South Africa | 400,000 [340,000 - 470,000] | 110,000 | 73% |
| Swaziland | 8,300 [7,300 - 9,300] | 3,900 | 53% |
| Tanzania | 110,000 [96,000 - 120,000] | 33,000 | 70% |
| Zambia | 62,000 [55,000 - 70,000] | 21,000 | 66% |
| Zimbabwe | 110,000 [100,000 - 120,000] | 30,000 | 73% |
| Total | 906,400 | 333,600 | 63% |
| Global | 2,000,000 [1,700,000 - 2,300,000] | 1,000,000 | 50% |

*Source: AIDS related deaths http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

Table 7.7 shows the estimated number of AIDS - related deaths in all SADC countries in 2005 (when mortality was extremely high across the region) and 2016.

- In 2005, an estimated 906,400 people died of AIDS-related illness, (45% of the global total). This number has been reduced drastically to 333,600 or 33% of the global burden of AIDS related mortality.
- Overall, the SADC region has registered a 63% decrease in AIDS-related deaths between 2005 and 2016, compared to 50% globally.
- Ten SADC countries registered decreases of over 50% (figures in green). Only Mozambique has registered an increase in the number of deaths (figures in red).
- The highest rates of decline are in Zimbabwe and South Africa (73%) and Tanzania (72%) with the total reduction in number being greatest in South Africa (from 400,000 to 180,000).
- However, six SADC countries with an HIV mortality of 20,000 per annum or more (Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) still account for 28% of the global mortality as a result of AIDS.

### Challenges to expanding treatment

Overstretched and understaffed health systems in the region face many challenges as they struggle to further expand treatment programmes. Some of these include:

- Retaining patients in treatment.
- HIV stigma and discrimination still prevent those that need care and treatment from accessing it and adhering to it. This is particularly true for marginalised groups that are the subject to other forms of stigma such as people with disabilities, sex workers, LGBTI, prisoners and refugees.
- Side effects of the ARVs, including fat deposits, which contribute to stigma.
- Poor data availability and management, both crucial to keep growing numbers of patients in the system.
- Reliance on external funding for treatment programmes. Very few countries in the region can fund their own programmes. However, there is growing commitment to mobilise domestic funds and much greater emphasis on prudent management of available funds.
- Infrastructural capacity, especially laboratories, and few ART sites, meaning that clients must travel long distances to access their medication.
- Skills shortages of health personnel. A response in the region has been task shifting so that nurses and other personnel take on more responsibility. South Africa, for instance, trained over 10 000 professional nurses specifically for ART roll out in the Nurse Initiated Management of ART (NIMART).

- The cost of ARVs, especially second and third line regimens, which will become needed as treatment programmes mature.
- Reaching more men earlier and keeping them in care and treatment.
- Improving treatment for children. Botswana and Namibia have met their goal of 80% of eligible children on treatment and South Africa and Swaziland have been able to get more than 50% of eligible children on treatment. However, few countries provide treatment to more than three out of 10 children who need it.
- The numbers of new HIV infections are increasing at a rate that outpaces treatment.

***These challenges require investment in community mobilisation.*** Winning the battle against HIV requires a whole package of wellness, stigma reduction, opportunistic infections management, ART, and nutrition in addition to medication.

***The risk of tuberculosis and HIV co-infection remains high:*** Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for 80% of those living with both TB and HIV globally. The region has made major strides in reducing TB deaths, including: intensified TB case-finding: (everyone that is enrolled in HIV care should be screened routinely for TB); isoniazid preventive therapy for those without active TB; infection control for TB in all HIV care facilities to prevent the spread of TB and initiating ART early for those with active TB.

**Table 7.8: TB related deaths in People Living with HIV 2005 and 2015**

| Country | TB related deaths in PLWH 2005 | TB related deaths in PLWH 2015 | Rate of decline |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | 5,200 | 7,200 | -38% |
| Botswana | 2,000 | 1,400 | 30% |
| DRC | 19,000 | 16,000 | 16% |
| Lesotho | 6,900 | 4,800 | 30% |
| Madagascar | 1,600 | 1,500 | 6% |
| Malawi | 15,000 | 6,600 | 56% |
| Mauritius | Data not available | | |
| Mozambique | 23,000 | 34,000 | -48% |
| Namibia | 1,900 | 1,000 | 47% |
| Seychelles | Data not available | | |
| South Africa | 100,000 | 73,000 | 27% |
| Swaziland | 3,200 | 1,500 | 53% |
| Tanzania | 53,000 | 25,000 | 53% |
| Zambia | 15,000 | 12,000 | 20% |
| Zimbabwe | 15,000 | 6,300 | 58% |
| Total | 260,800 | 190,300 | 27% |

*Source: TB deaths in people living with HIV http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/#, last accessed July 20, 2017.*

In 2005 TB related deaths constituted 29% of all AIDS-related deaths, both globally and in SADC. In 2015, this rose to 39% of all AIDS related deaths globally and 57% of all AIDS-related deaths in SADC. Clearly, tracking TB and HIV co infection is critical to win the battle against illness and death as a result of HIV and AIDS. Table 7.8 shows that:

- Overall there has been a 27% decrease in TB-related deaths in the region.
- Four countries have registered declines of over 50% (numbers in green). Zimbabwe (58%) and Malawi (56%) registered the highest decreases.
- TB related deaths increased in Angola and Mozambique.

***HIV and cervical cancer co-infection is common:*** Co-infection of HIV with the human papilloma virus (HPV), which causes cervical cancer, is common. The two viruses have similar risk factors and both can be sexually transmitted. Women living with HIV are at least four times more likely to develop cervical cancer than other women. A number of initiatives, such as the Forum of African First Ladies against Breast and Cervical Cancer have spearheaded efforts to expand access to cervical cancer screening through integrating cervical cancer screening and responses into HIV services and plans. There are promising moves to introduce and rapidly roll out a vaccine against HPV to school going age girls. The incidence of cervical and breast cancer is increasing and is becoming more common in younger women. It is anticipated that cervical and breast cancer will be the leading causes of death in women in the region by 2025.

Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for **80%** of those living with TB and HIV globally

***Co-morbidities with chronic conditions***, such as hypertension and diabetes, are of concern for the estimated 5.5 million people aged 50 years and older living with HIV, and the 120 000 people in this age group who acquire HIV every year.

## Care work

**Article 27.3**
c) Develop and implement policies and programmes to ensure appropriate recognition of the work carried out by care givers, the majority of whom are women, the allocation of resources and the psychological support for care givers as well as support for care givers as well as support of people for people living with AIDS.

♂ involvement in care work is a priority in SADC

In the very difficult times before wide-scale availability of ART, the health care system could not cope with the large numbers of very ill patients and relied on community-based caregivers for home based, palliative care and support to families as they struggled to provide care with depleted resources. With the expanding availability of ART and much reduced morbidity and mortality, the health care system came back to the fore. What is increasingly accepted however, is that further expansion of treatment to reach all that need it and maintaining the necessary adherence, cannot be accomplished by the health service alone. It is accepted that community-based HIV service delivery will need to expand from the current 5% to at least 30% of all service delivery. This includes:

- Community motivation and awareness for continued prevention and stigma reduction.
- Support to ensure that the most difficult to reach populations, including LGBTI, sex workers, people living with disability and adolescents, access services.
- Community motivation for testing, including early infant diagnosis, which is currently the largest gap in the 90-90-90 cascade.
- Support for treatment resupply within the community: WHO, UNAIDS and others recognise the need for differentiated care depending on factors such as how stable a patient is on treatment. However, even the most stable patients can be affected by personal, family and community shocks and stresses which can disrupt their adherence. Thus, even they require some support and monitoring to ensure that they are still adhering to their treatment.
- Adherence support.

***There has been some progress, but more work is needed on policies:*** A number of SADC countries have developed care Work policies or at least guidelines on care work, notably Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Work in advocating for policies on Care Work needs to take account of the massive shift that has occurred in the HIV field and encourage retraining and recognition of the vital role that these women and men have played and continue to play in their communities.

***There needs to be a cohesive government response to training and retraining care workers:*** Policies should be clear about criteria for trainees, standardised content and a decentralisation strategy so that people who are not in urban centres have access to training opportunities. Care workers require retraining to equip them for new roles in an era of ART.



Getting men involved in care work is a priority at *Lets Grow*, a community based organisation in South Africa.
*Photo: Trevor Davies*

***Men need to be encouraged to get involved as care givers:*** The previously held assumption that men cannot be involved in care work is gradually changing, but more effort is needed on this front and more men must assume this responsibility.

**South Africa: Caring for orphans and vulnerable children in Polokwane**



Tiang Maatla Home Based Care is a model for the practical implementation of the Department of Health and Social Development, National Integrated Plan for Children and Youth Infected and Affected by HIV and AIDS. The rights of children form the cornerstone of all services to children and youth, and they aim to ensure that they grow into caring and responsible adults.

Tiang Maatla cares for 166 (77 female) orphans and vulnerable children through provision of food, health care, education and social activities. Children participate in all matters concerning them in a non-discriminatory environment. The Home Based Care programme provides care and support to patients, protection and psycho-social care to youth and child-headed families. The youth Development Program engages communities on strategies that will promote the attainment of gender equality.

The orphaned children benefit from the centre in the form of daily meals, clothes, sanitary pads and assistance with school work. Since 2009 the organisation has implemented programs on behavioural change. Such programmes were initiated to tackle issues within adolescents (girls and young women aged 15-24 as well as boys). The main issues affecting adolescents in the community are teenage pregnancy, alcohol and substance abuse in the community, child negligence, orphans and vulnerable children in the community, high unemployment rates and poverty.

Through partnering with the Department of Social Development, schools and clinics, Tiangmaatla began to implement their programmes through initial identification of orphans, children and youth made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS. They provided bereavement counselling for the children as well as monitoring their situations at home and school and provide psychosocial support for the children and their families. The programme has also partnered with local Induna's for provision of land for their projects and well as Be Part of The Miracle, Care and Support for Improved Parent Outcomes (CASIPO), PACT South Africa, Breadline Africa, Independent Development Trust, Peace Corps and the University of Limpopo for service delivery and capacity building.

*(Source: SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016)*



Care givers at Tiang Maatla Home-based Care Centre. *Photo: Tiang Maatla*

Protocol@Work

## Linking testing and care

Only 54% of those living with HIV know their status

As discussed, low levels of testing result in only 54% of those living with HIV knowing their status. This is well below the target of 90%. Some of the barriers to expanded testing are lack of information, continued stigma and fear of knowing one's status. Some of the strategies to overcome these barriers are community mobilisation with treatment education and literacy to rapidly expand knowledge about the availability and impact of treatment, or the benefits of testing. This must be complimented by community efforts to reduce stigma and discrimination. Expanded testing should take the views of adolescents into account with services that are designed to address their specific health-care, sexual and reproductive health and rights, educational, developmental and psychosocial needs. Efforts to make testing more accessible include home testing and testing during community health days.

Expanded testing which supports achievement of the first 90 must be accompanied by efforts to ensure that those that are tested positive are linked to HIV care so that they access treatment to achieve the second 90. A systematic review of the few studies that are available has shown a high loss to follow up with only 25% initiating ART. A study in Swaziland found that only 34% of those that tested positive during home based or mobile testing enrolled in HIV care where their CD4 was tested. Of those that were eligible for ART, only 52% initiated treatment. Factors that were associated with not seeking care were lower age (15 - 24), not believing the test result, not having time to access health services, belief that ARVs cause side effects and alcohol consumption.[55]

Much of the community support for expanded treatment involves support from community based health workers, expert patients and others within clinical facilities. Task shifting from doctors to nurses and nurses to lay workers relieves the impact of shortages of health professionals and enables the health system to respond more efficiently.



HIV testing in Kalimolefe, Lesotho. *Photo: Gender Links Lesotho*

[55] UNAIDS, NAC & MSF Belgium. 2016. Engaging the Community to reach 90-90-90. Lilongwe, Malawi.

## Treatment resupply

The other major shift has been a move to provide treatment resupply within the community or community ART groups (CAGs). In this model people on treatment form groups and chose a representative to attend clinic visits and collect treatment for the whole group. This has addressed challenges such as distance to health facilities and has led to decongestion of the clinics. It also builds in support for one another with high levels of retention. In Mozambique retention in CAGs was found to be 97.7% at 1 year, 96% at 2 years, 93.4% at 3 years and 91.8% at 4 years. The model has been adopted as a national approach in Mozambique and is being used in Lesotho and Zimbabwe.[56]

## Adherence Support

A range of community- based processes such as support groups, resupply groups described in the previous section, treatment buddies, advocacy and stigma reduction are being implemented across the region. These strategies are having positive impact on long term adherence to treatment. As more people begin treatment and the total number that is on treatment for life expands, there will be even more need for such initiatives which focus on loss of patients to follow up and management of opportunistic infections, especially TB.



In **Malawi**, support groups have been adopted as a national programme to provide psychosocial support, encourage HIV prevention, positive living and adherence to treatment. Some of the benefits of support groups that have been reported[57] are:

- enhanced linkage of people living with HIV to HIV services and increased initiation on ART;
- addressing stigma and discrimination;
- increased participation of men;
- engaging in income generating activities and use of some produce to support each other and support vulnerable children; and
- encouraging other people living with HIV to form support groups.

## Care giving for children[58]

In many Sub-Saharan countries, extended families have assumed responsibility, with little public support,[59] for more than 90% of all double orphans and single orphans not living with the surviving parent.[60] Though death rates have reduced greatly in the last few years, it is important to remember that they are still high. This means that there are still children who require care and support.

VSO-RAISA argues that scaling up HIV and AIDS services in community home-based care programmes requires fundamental changes on many levels. Recognising the rights of care providers, and providing a supportive environment for them to provide quality care, is a fundamental entry point to addressing this challenge.

The responsibility for making these fundamental policy changes rests with those who hold power and have a duty to respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights of care providers - national governments, donors, civil society and other key players involved in the fight against HIV and AIDS. It is now time to recognise the contributions of community volunteers in the fight against HIV and AIDS, and to support and empower them to understand and claim their rights.[61]

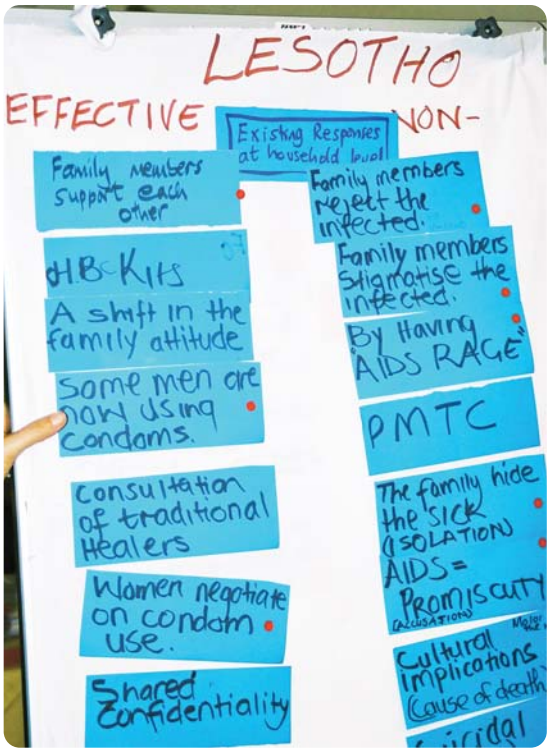
- ***Focus more on prevention:*** Although treatment has played an enormous role in reducing the impact of HIV and AIDS, experts agree that it is not possible to treat the epidemic away. Long term there must be much more emphasis on prevention, including prevention of gender based violence and access to services for the most marginalised including men who have sex with men, sex workers, those who inject drugs and prisoners.
- ***Focus on adolescents and young people:*** For prevention, treatment, care and support. One of the best vaccines for young people is to make sure that they are in schools which are safe, supportive and where they are learning skills that they can use in life. The epidemic in young girls and women must be tackled with specific approaches tailored to this age group.

Community ART groups reduce the challenge of traveling to health facilities

[56] UNAIDS, NAC & MSF Belgium. 2016. Engaging the Community to reach 90-90-90. Lilongwe, Malawi.
[57] UNAIDS, NAC & MSF Belgium. 2016. Engaging the Community to reach 90-90-90. Lilongwe, Malawi.
[58] http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/Africas_Orphaned_and_Vulnerable_Generations_Children_Affected_by_AIDS.pdf
[59] United States Agency for International Development, et. al., Coverage of selected services for HIV AND AIDS prevention, care and support in low and middle income countries in 2003, Policy Project, USAID, Washington, D.C., June 2004.
[60] Monasch, Roeland, and J. Ties Boerma,'Orphanhood and childcare patterns in sub-Saharan Africa: An analysis of national surveys from 40 countries', AIDS, vol. 18, suppl. 2, 2004, pp. S55-S65.
[61] http://www.vosesa

Domestic funding for HIV and AIDS will improve sustainability to END AIDS

## Next steps



Changing the narrative on HIV and AIDS in Lesotho.
*Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

- ***Renew the focus on co-infections,*** especially TB and cervical cancer.
- ***Recognise the role of a range of community based caregivers:*** Such caregivers need the same support as they have throughout the pandemic - training, remuneration, materials and psychosocial support. Their role in motivating community members to test, prevent infection, access treatment and, very importantly, to adhere to treatment and in addressing stigma at community level, will be critical to end AIDS by 2030.
- ***Increase investment*** in systems for health, including linkages between clinical facilities and community based services. This must include increased domestic funding. Since 2011 measurement of progress on HIV and AIDS was based on only three indicators; sex-disaggregated data on HIV and AIDS prevalence, HIV positive pregnant women receiving PMTCT treatment and comprehensive knowledge on HIV. However lessons from the ground in the past six years has shown that using only these three indicators has not been enough to provide a realistic regional outlook on progress or lack of thereof. The indicators table at the end of this chapter shows new areas like the share of HIV prevalence in adolescences as well as taking treatment measurement beyond PMCT and to include total coverage for all infected people and adherence to treatment provide a realistic picture.
- ***Expand indicators for measuring change:*** The table shows that the current four indicators used to measure HIV and AIDS can be expanded by at least another five, to give a more comprehensive and nuanced assessment of progress towards an AIDS-free generation. Tracking indicators also need to be updated Post-2015.

# CHAPTER 8

# Peace building and conflict resolution

## Article 28



South African Minister of Women in the Presidency Susan Shabangu at a march for the peace and security of women. *Photo: Colleen Lowe Morna*

**8**
**SADC countries deployed women to peace-keeping missions**

### KEY POINTS

- The SADC Secretariat's efforts to develop a Regional Framework for the implementation of Resolution 1325 are underway following a regional consultative meeting in November 2016.
- The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is still the only SADC country to have adopted the UNSCR 1325 National Action Plan. Namibia is in the process of formalising one. South Africa and Madagascar have consultative plans underway.
- Seychelles and Lesotho held peaceful parliamentary elections in 2016 and 2017 respectively. Zambia's elections in 2016, though peaceful, raised credibility questions by the opposition.
- The region experienced a decline in peace as measured by the Global Peace Index ranking for 2017. Lesotho slipped 27 positions from position 63 in 2016 to position 90. Swaziland had the biggest improvement from position 90 in 2016 to 77 in 2017.Mauritius is still ranked as the most peaceful country on the continent and DRC as the least peaceful regionally.
- Old and emerging challenges to women security in the region include high prevalence of sexual and gender based violence, violent extremism, the low visibility and representation of women in formal peace processes and inadequate resources allocated to women's recovery and reintegration needs.
- Eight countries deployed women to Peacekeeping missions (Zimbabwe, Namibia, Tanzania, South Africa, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia and DRC).

**12 SADC countries keep sex disaggregated data on defence**

## What the Protocol requires

Part eight of the Protocol has two sub-articles on Peace Building and Conflict Resolution. They cover equal representation and participation of women in key decision-making positions in conflict resolution, peace building, and peace keeping in line with the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security Resolutions and other Resolutions. The Protocol also compels governments in the region to take necessary steps to prevent human rights abuses of women and children in time of conflict and to prosecute perpetrators of such abuse.

**Table 8.1: New provisions**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| 1. State Parties shall put in place measures to ensure equal representation and participation in key decision-making positions in conflict resolution, peace building, peace keeping in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security Resolution and other related Resolutions. | 1. State Parties shall put in place measures to ensure equal representation and participation in key decision-making positions in conflict resolution, peace building, peace keeping, in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security Resolution and other related Resolutions. |

As illustrated in Table 8.1, the only new addition to the Protocol is the addition of peace keeping to Article 28.1. This adheres to international good practise. Peace building must be accompanied by peace keeping.

## Key trends

**Table 8.2: Tracking Table-Peace Building and Conflict Resolution**

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - 2030 target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **COUNTRIES WITH UNSCR NATIONAL ACTION PLANS** | | | | |
| 15 Countries with UNSCR 1325 National Action Plans | 1 (DRC) | 1 (DRC) | 1 (DRC) | 14 countries (Angola. Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) |
| **COUNTRIES WITH SEX DISAGGREGATED DATA ON THE DEFENCE** | | | | |
| 15 Countries with sex disaggregated data on the defence | 5 countries (Botswana, Madagascar, Malawi, South Africa & Zimbabwe) | 12 countries (DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Zambia & Zimbabwe) | 15 countries (Angola, DRC, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia & Zimbabwe) | |
| **PROPORTION OF WOMEN IN DEFENCE** | | | | |
| Highest | South Africa (24%) | South Africa (30%) | South Africa 30% | -20% |
| Lowest | Botswana (0.1%) | Botswana & Madagascar (1%) | Botswana & Madagascar (1%) | -49% |

| Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - 2030 target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **COUNTRIES WITH SEX DISAGGREGATED DATA ON THE POLICE FORCE** | | | | |
| 15 countries with sex disaggregated data on the police force | 6 countries (Botswana, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa & Zambia) | 13 countries (Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia & Zimbabwe) | 15 countries (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) | |
| **WOMEN IN THE POLICE FORCE** | | | | |
| Highest | South Africa (21%) | Seychelles (39%) | Seychelles (39%) | -11% |
| Lowest | Mozambique (7%) | DRC (6%) | DRC (6%) | -44% |
| **COUNTRIES WITH SEX DISAGGREGATED FOR CORRECTIONAL SERVICES** | | | | |
| 15 countries with sex disaggregated for correctional services | 0 | 6 countries (Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Seychelles & South Africa) | 6 countries (Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Seychelles & South Africa) | 9 countries (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia & Zimbabwe) |
| **WOMEN IN PRISON SERVICES** | | | | |
| Highest | South Africa (27%) | Seychelles (53%) | Seychelles (53%) | +3% |
| Lowest | Mauritius (8%) | Mauritius (9%) | Mauritius (9%) | -41 |
| **COUNTRIES THAT INCLUDE WOMEN IN PEACE SUPPORT OPERATIONS** | | | | |
| 15 countries include women in peacekeeping forces | 7 countries (DRC, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe & Zambia) | 9 countries (Botswana, DRC, Madagascar, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe & Zambia | 9 countries (Botswana, DRC, Madagascar, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe & Zambia | 6 countries (Angola, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Seychelles, Swaziland) |
| Highest | Namibia (46%) | Zimbabwe & Namibia (29%) | Zimbabwe (35%) | -15% |
| Lowest | Tanzania (6%) | Mozambique 0% | DRC (3%) | -47% |
| **SCORES** | | | | |
| 100% CSC | 40% | 68% | 64% | -36% |

*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

Table 8.2 shows that:

- South Africa is the only country to have reached the 30% mark for women's representation in defence. It is also the only SADC country that allows women to engage in combat and the only one of two on the continent.
- Data on defence remains elusive especially for Angola, Tanzania and Swaziland. There is need for SADC countries to publish and share sex disaggregated data that allows tracking of gender progress within defence forces.
- Seychelles, at 39% for women's representation in the police, is still the highest in SADC on this front. South Africa increased its representation of women in the police force from 34% to 35%. Namibia has the third highest representation of women in the police in the region at 31%. Four countries, Botswana (26%), Zimbabwe (25%), Malawi (23%) and Lesotho (21%) have reached the 20% mark. Angola and Swaziland remain a challenge as no data is available for these countries.
- Sex disaggregated data is least available for correctional services yet this is a sector with a high number of women. At 53%, Seychelles continues to have the highest proportion of women in correctional services in the region. It is the only country in the region to have achieved gender parity in correctional services.
- Nine SADC countries deployed peacekeepers to UN missions in 2016: DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Namibia South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe had the highest ratio of women to male peacekeepers deployed 35%. It was closely followed by Namibia with a significant decline from 36% in 2015 to 26% in 2016. Madagascar was third with a decline in women's representation from 21% in 2015 to 17% in 2016.

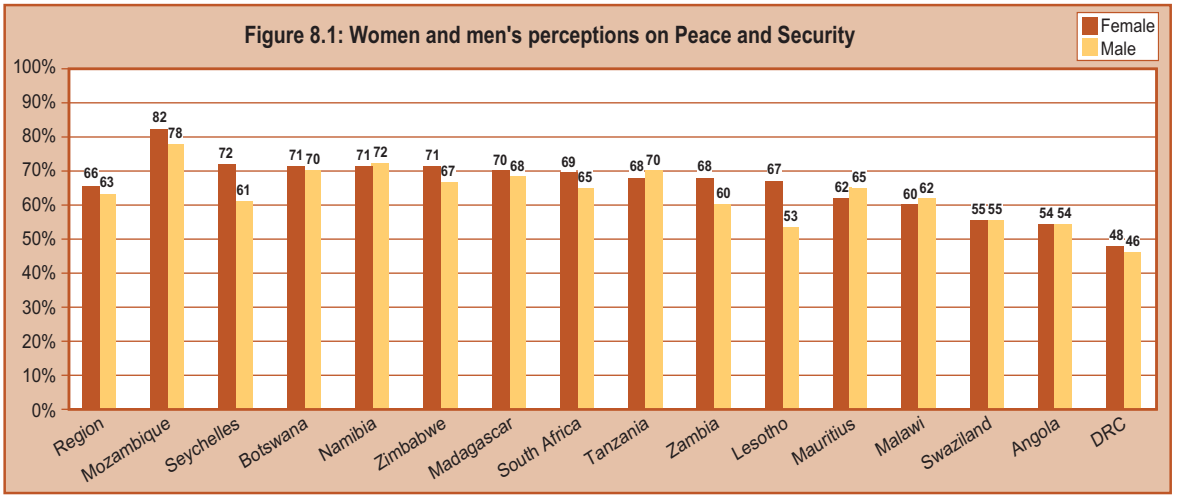
**NO SDGI (insufficient data)**

**CSC** has **dropped** from **68%** in **2015** to **64%** in **2017**

## Scores - CSC

66%
scored
higher
than
63%

Due to the difficulty of collecting reliable data in this sector across all countries of the region, there is not SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) for peace and security. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post 2015 era. Not surprisingly, the overall score dropped from 68% in 2015 to 64% in 2017 with these tougher tests in place.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 8.1 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the sector for 2017. There is three percentage points difference between the score of women (66%) and men (63%). Women in eight countries (Mozambique, Seychelles, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Madagascar, South Africa, Zambia and Lesotho) scored their governments higher than men. Men in Namibia, Tanzania, Mauritius and Malawi scored governments higher than women. Women in Mozambique gave their government the highest score (82%), followed by the women in the Seychelles (72%). Citizens of Swaziland rank their country the lowest at 55% for both women and men.



Tanzania Vice-President Samia Suluhu Hassan speaking to soldiers of the Female Force for Prevention of Violence (FFU) immediately after the open training three days of police women from the Federation of Military Police in Southern Africa (SARPCO) opens the SARPCO policewomen workshop in Tanzania 2017.
*Photo: Azania Post*

## Background

Peace support operations seek to create conditions for long lasting peace in conflict and war-torn conditions. Peacekeepers provide security and peacebuilding support to help countries make the transition from conflict to peace. Such efforts are supported by the military, police and civilian personnel.

It is crucial that gender perspectives be integrated into all elements of peacekeeping policy including security reforms, disarmament processes, and the operations of the police, military and in elections. There has been an increase in efforts globally and within the continent to improve the representation of women in peace and security work.

In July 2016, the African Union (AU) launched the "Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa" report. This report "outlines member states and regional economic communities' implementation of UNSCR 1325 as an entry point to assessing the state of implementation of the broader Women, Peace and Security Agenda on the continent."[1] The report notes that to date there are nineteen AU members states that have adopted national action plans. Furthermore, the report notes that there are very low levels of parti-

[1] African Union Commission, Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa, July 2016, p. 10.

cipation by women in peace support operations and in peace processes across the continent.[2]

The Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF) convened in April 2017 under the theme "Reclaiming the United Nations as a Peace Organisation - ensuring women's meaningful participation for peace and strengthening multilateralism."[3] Attendees from the SADC region included South Africa and the DRC.

The conference stressed that local women and women's groups must be at the centre of conflict prevention efforts because they have the analysis, the knowledge and the capacity to do so. Delegates emphasised the need for the UN to move from managing conflicts to addressing root causes of instability, contributing to building a "sustainable feminist peace" with women at the forefront.[4]

## SADC Organ on Politics Defence and Security, 2016-2017

The Organ for Politics, Defence and Security (the Organ) dates back to June 1996 as a formal institution of SADC with the mandate to support the achievement and maintenance of security and the rule of law in the SADC region. The Organ focuses on six key areas: politics, defence, police, state security, public security and regional peace support operations.

Tanzania chaired the Organ for the year 2016-2017 and has been responsible for organising key events during this period. Some of the key most notable events during this period are highlighted.

Tanzania hosted a two-day meeting of the Ministerial Committee of the Organ (MCO) in June 2017, to discuss peace and security in the region. The meeting discussed the political situation in DRC including the elections as well as the recommendation made to Lesotho in relation to implementing constitutional, parliamentary, judicial and public-sector reforms. It also involved a review of progress in SADC's common position on the implementation of the African Union draft protocol on the free movement of persons and the community's standby force command.[5]



Female faces are becoming more familiar in peace and security.
*Photo: Zotonantenaina Razanandrateta*

SADC also commenced work on a new cooperation and regional integration strategy to succeed the current development blueprint that is expected to end in 2020. The Revised Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP), which was approved in 2015, is expected to end in 2020 and a new development blueprint to shape southern Africa's regional integration agenda post-2020 is underway.[6] All other priorities noted on this document are underpinned by Priority C which focuses on peace and security to be coordinated by the Organ on Politics, Defence and Security. Tanzania will hand over chairmanship to Angola at the August 2017 SADC summit.

SADC has also sought to advance the promotion of the women, peace and security agenda in the region. It has developed a draft framework for mainstreaming gender into SADC's peace and security architecture, which is in the process of adoption. It also has a strategy for combating Sexual and Gender Based violence in conflict and post-conflict situations.

Within conflict-affected areas and communities, women are often marginalised from peace processes. Work on equality, development, security and peace must re-centre women to include the voices and rights of women.[7] Local women must be given the platform to be heard in peace processes and these processes must address root causes of violence, as well as the root causes of violations of human and women's rights.

The women, **peace** and security agenda is steadily **gaining** ground in SADC

[2] Ibid, page 20.
[3] Www.peacewomen.org (Accessed 16/08/2017)
[4] Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. (2017) "It is time to rebel. It is time to reframe. It is time to resist. It is time to reclaim the UN" http://wilpf.org/it-is-time-to-rebel-it-is-time-to-reframe-it-is-time-to-resist-it-is-time-to-reclaim-the-un-said-the-participants-of-a-major-convening-that-gathered-together-women-led-civil-soci/ (Accessed 25/07/2017)
[5] SADC Hosts Public Security Sub- Committee Meeting. "https://www.sadc.int/news-events/news/sadc-hosts-public-security-sub-committee-meeting/ " (Accessed 15/07/2017)
[6] SADC Today, June 2017. http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/5113 (Accessed 18/07/2017)
[7] Ruane, A. (2017) "From Wallpaper to Centre Stage: Women's Meaningful Participation as a Key to Reclaiming the UN as a Peace Organisation " http://www.peacewomen.org/e-news/women-peace-and-security-e-news-may-2017 (Accessed 16/07/2017)

♀ are often marginalised from **peace** processes

**Meeting of the Interstate Politics and Diplomacy Committee (ISPDC)**



SADC Secretariat together with members of SADC Organ with all SADC Elections Observation Mission.
*Source: http://ardenkitomaritz.blogspot.co.ke/2017/05/international-community-applauds.html*

The Interstate Politics and Diplomacy Committee (ISPDC) of the Organ on Politics Defence and Security Cooperation met on 24th February 2017 at the Julius Nyerere International Convention Centre in Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania. The meeting was attended by Angola, Botswana, DR Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe, and Chaired by Honourable Dr Augustine P. Mahiga, Minister of Foreign Affairs, East Africa, Regional and International Cooperation of the United Republic of Tanzania.

In his remarks, Dr Augustine Mahiga, acknowledged the efforts made by SADC in supporting the Kingdom of Lesotho through the Oversight Committee and the Facilitator. He also noted progress that has been made towards implementation of the MCO, Council and Summit decisions including the return of the exiled opposition leaders in Lesotho

The meeting noted the Interim Progress Report submitted by the Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho; and that a comprehensive report on the approved Reforms Roadmap and the implementation of SADC Decisions will be submitted by the Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho for consideration at the next MCO meeting in June 2017. The meeting also noted the operationalisation of the Oversight Committee and that the Committee and SADC will continue to support Lesotho in the implementation of the reforms and SADC decisions.

*Extract from Southern Africa Development Cooperation (SADC) website. https://www.sadc.int/news-events/news/meeting-interstate-politics-and-diplomacy-committee-ispdc/*

## State of Peace and Security in Southern Africa

SADC countries face a plethora of security issues including intra-state violence, political differences, migration challenges, economic disparities, food and water scarcities, gender based violence, human rights abuses as well as post conflict Disarmament, Demobilisation, and Reintegration (DDR).


Women police officers from the Armed Forces of the Police Federation of Southern Africa (SARPCCO) Dar es Salaam, 2017. *Photo: Azania Post*

The 2017 Global Peace Index (GPI) shows that amidst continuing social and political turmoil, the world continues to spend enormous resources on creating and containing violence but very little on peace. There is need to focus on peacebuilding with specific attention to institutions and structures that focus on "sustainable peace." The 2017 GPI report noted that current resources allocated towards peacebuilding were way below the optimal threshold. The economic impact of violence is massive and countries must make efforts to curb conflict. The report also noted a global decline in militarisation.

| Table 8.3: Global Peace Index 2017 ranking of Sub-Saharan countries | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Country | Rank in Sub-Saharan Africa 2016 | Rank in Sub-Saharan Africa 2017 | Rank Globally 2016 | Rank Globally 2017 | Variance |
| Mauritius | 1 | 1 | 23 | 22 | 1 |
| Botswana | 2 | 2 | 28 | 27 | 1 |
| Namibia | 8 | 8 | 55 | 50 | 5 |
| Malawi | 7 | 7 | 45 | 48 | -3 |
| Zambia | 4 | 4 | 40 | 41 | -1 |
| Lesotho | 11 | 18 | 63 | 90 | -27 |
| Tanzania | 9 | 9 | 58 | 54 | 4 |
| Madagascar | 3 | 6 | 38 | 44 | -6 |
| Mozambique | 13 | 14 | 68 | 78 | -10 |
| Angola | 21 | 21 | 98 | 100 | -2 |
| Seychelles | No data | | | | 0 |
| Swaziland | 19 | 13 | 90 | 77 | 11 |
| Zimbabwe | 32 | 32 | 127 | 127 | 0 |
| South Africa | 31 | 28 | 126 | 123 | 3 |
| DRC | 41 | 41 | 152 | 153 | -1 |

*Source: Global Peace Index Report 2017 http://visionofhumanity.org/*

Table 8.3 shows the Peace Index ranking for countries in the region and globally for 2017. From the table, there is a slight decline globally in SADC countries as four (compared to three countries in 2016) rank 100 and above. Mauritius went up one place scoring the highest in the region at position 22 while DRC, at position 153, scored lowest. Namibia, Tanzania, Swaziland and South Africa also improved their scores considerably. Lesotho, Mozambique and Madagascar had significant drops in ranking. In the last few years, the three countries have experienced notable political unrests and related conflicts.



**Mozambique** continues to witness what has been described as the 'invincible civil war'. Since 2013, conflict between long-term foes opposition Renamo and ruling Frelimo have revived the prospects of a new civil war, 20 years after the end of former war. Low-level warfare has resurfaced because Renamo accuse ruling Frelimo of rigging elections, disregarding the Rome Accord, and marginalising their strongholds. More than 15,000 people have been displaced by the conflict.[8]

The UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) noted that 8,600 people have also fled from the conflict to neighbouring Malawi and Zimbabwe. Locals living near the border in Zimbabwe have been forced to move deeper inside the country in an effort to create a buffer zone to counter the fighters.[9]

Despite leaders of the fighting groups agreeing to a two-month truce in March fighting continues in Mozambique. Negotiations between Frelimo and Renamo mediated by civil society have not been successful. Recently Mozambican President Filipe Nyusi agreed to Renamo's demand to invite international mediators.

## Elections

Considered as one of the most stable and peaceful regions of Africa, Southern Africa is nevertheless characterised by considerable inequalities and human security challenges. Some of these challenges include corruption and crime, abject poverty, and the exclusion of youth, women and minorities. These challenges have the potential to trigger conflicts that threaten to stifle development and peaceful coexistence. Recent elections in Africa have seen an emerging trend by sitting Presidents to extend their term limits. This has been a cause of conflict in the region, as currently seen in the DRC.

In July 2015, SADC adopted a revised framework for governing elections called the **2015 Revised SADC principles and Guidelines Governing Elections**. The guidelines seek to strengthen election observation by calling for longer-term observation, the inclusion of civil society in SADC's Electoral Observer Missions and by clearly defining concepts and providing criteria for measurement.[10] It is important for SADC countries to adhere to

Southern Africa is considered one of the most peaceful regions in Africa

[8] Daily Nation. (2016). "Mozambique's escalating violence forces thousands to flee" http://www.nation.co.ke/news/africa/Mozambique-escalating-violence-forces-thousands-to-flee/1066-3500828-format-xhtml-v8l9kiz/index.html (Accessed 26/07/2017).
[9] Muisyo V. and Dube P. (2017) "Mozambique conflict spills over the border into Zimbabwe" http://www.africanews.com/2017/01/17/mozambique-conflict-spills-over-the-border-into-zimbabwe// (Accessed 28/07/2017).
[10] K. Chirambo and D. Motsimai (2016). "The 2015 SADC Elections Guidelines: Can they work? ISS Southern Africa Report Issue 5.

election guidelines as elections themselves have the potential to generate conflict.



Resource-rich **DRC** has been embroiled in one of the deadliest conflicts in Africa, spanning over a decade. The war and its aftermath has been responsible for the death of about 5.4 million people and the displacement of millions of others.[11] Although multiple peace agreements have been signed over the years, including the major one in 2002 that marked 'the end of the war', violence continues in many regions of the country, especially in the eastern side.[12]

Dozens of armed groups such as the M23, the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR) and their commanders have been implicated in multiple war crimes that include rape, ethnic massacres, civilian killings, forced recruitment of children, and pillage. There have also been increased incidences of kidnappings of Congolese civilians and humanitarian aid workers. The UN's peacekeeping mission (MONUSCO) has been operating in the country since 1999 and is mandated to protect civilians and to help with the reconstruction of the country.



Women march against sexual violence in conflict ravaged DRC, 2015. *Photo: Global Fund for Women*

President Joseph Kabila's constitutionally mandated two-term limit officially expired on December 19, 2016. However, the electoral commission's failure to announce presidential elections, three months before the end of Kabila's term, led to an upsurge in conflict in September 2016. This resulted in of excessive force by security forces to quell Congolese protestors, leading to the death of at least 66 people. The violence also witnessed the torching of opposition party offices and the beating and burning to death of police officers by civilians. Government repression against free speech intensified in 2016.

Following weeks of intense negotiations, participants at talks mediated by the Catholic Church reached an agreement on 31 December 2016. The deal, signed by representatives of Kabila's ruling coalition, the political opposition, and civil society, made a clear commitment that presidential elections would be held before the end of 2017, that Kabila would not seek a third term and that there would be no referendum nor changes to the constitution.[13] No timeframes were provided for this deal and the president himself was not a signatory to the agreement.

In February, the government announced that the country did not have money to conduct elections in 2017 and expressed doubts on elections taking place the same year. The president further appointed a new cabinet in May retaining most of the former people in key portfolios. The new appointments went against the provisions of the new deal and immediately faced resistance from the opposition.17 In June 2017, president Kabila denounced making promises on holding elections in the DRC, seeming to back away from a deal to hold elections this year.

Without elections, an upsurge on conflict is likely to happen again. All eyes are on DRC now, waiting to see whether and if an election date for 2017 will be announced following increased international pressure.



On 3 June 2017, **Lesotho** held its third general election in five years following years of political infighting. Recommendations in January 2016 by the Double Troika of SADC urging Lesotho to implement reforms recommended by the SADC Facilitator Commission of Inquiry were first met with resistance by then Prime Minister Pakalitha Mosisili. He accused the SADC of interfering with the sovereignty on Lesotho. Botswana considered withdrawing its representatives currently serving in the Oversight Committee on Lesotho.[14] However, the return of the exiled leaders contributed to national reconciliation in undertaking reforms that would normalise the political and security challenges affecting the country.

**Elections** in some SADC countries have in the past generated **conflict**

[11] Rosen, A. (2013) "The Origins of War in the DRC" https://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2013/06/the-origins-of-war-in-the-drc/277131/
[12] Cashion, T. (2016). "A fragile peace raises hope for Eastern Congo" http://www.washingtontimes.com/news/2016/jun/23/a-fragile-peace-raises-hope-for-eastern-congo/
[13] Human Rights Watch, (2016). "Democratic Republic of Congo: Events of 2016" https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2017/country-chapters/democratic-republic-congo (Accessed 25/07/2017).
[14] Mokhethi, S. (2017) "Botswana considers leaving Lesotho after Mosisili breathes fire to SADC" https://www.africanindy.com/news/botswana-considers-leaving-lesotho-after-mosisili-breathes-fire-to-sadc-9184637. (Accessed 14/07/2017).

In June 2017, SADC deployed 41 observers from SADC Electoral Observation Mission (SEOM) drawn from 9 countries to observe and report on the Lesotho elections.[15] The mission included the SADC Oversight Committee and the Electoral Advisory Council. The defence and security organ urged the government to undertake reforms in order to stabilise its political system and avoid a repeat of previous political crises. Lesotho's main opposition leader, Thomas Thabane won the country's election, but failed to gain an outright majority. Former Prime Minister Pakalitha Mosisili conceded defeat. Observers hailed the June 2017 elections as peaceful and democratic in comparison to the 2014 elections when Lesotho fell under a full-fledged army rebellion that led to the death of Brigadier Mahao as well as the attempted assassination of both the Prime Minister (Thabane) and the Commissioner of Police.

Despite the mostly peaceful 2017 elections, the SADC observer committee raised concerns over the deployment of armed soldiers in many polling stations. The electoral commission was also investigating why armed soldiers had been deployed at polling stations on voting day; a move viewed as intimidating for voters. The army has previously been accused of interfering in politics.[16]

Two days before the inauguration of Prime Minister Thomas Thabane on 14 June, his wife Lipolelo Thabane, was mysterious killed allegedly for politically-related motives. This is an example of violence against innocent women in elections. It also highlights that the country could still be facing political instability. There is urgent need to fast track implementation of the recommendations made by the oversight committee to ensure urgent and complete political stability. The SADC elections advisory group comprised only one woman. This raises questions with regard to SADC's commitment to mainstream gender in its peace and security initiatives.



In August 2016, **Zambia** held its general election with incumbent President Edgar Lungu defeating his main rival Hakainde Hichilema, in a highly contested election.

The opposition party quickly rejected the result, claiming the electoral commission had colluded to rig the vote against its candidate. The EU observer mission supported Hichilema's view that police had acted with political motives sometimes blocking his campaign and cracking down some of his political gatherings.[17]

The situation post-election has not been stable as president Lungu has been accused of trying to establish a dictatorship by imposing a 90-day state of emergency in the country. In July 2017, lawmakers from Lungu's Patriotic Front (PF) party gave the police increased arrest and detention powers, after the president alleged that supporters of the main opposition, the United Party for National Development (UPND), were behind a string of recent arson attacks.[18] In April, opposition leader Hakainde Hichilema was arrested at his home and charged with treason for allegedly attempting to block a motorcade in which the president was travelling.

Furthermore, a spate of xenophobic attacks plagued Zambia in April 2016 following days of attacks on foreigners in the capital, Lusaka. The violence was sparked by rumours that foreigners had carried out ritual killings. Six people were killed in the violence and over 250 foreign - owned shops looted. However, local civil society groups noted that people were using foreigners as scapegoats amid anger over the rising cost of living and other economic issues.[19]

Zambia has been one of the more exemplary peaceful multi-party democracies in the continent and the sudden decline in political stability amid slow growth in the economy is worrying. There is need to strengthen the country's weakened key civil society groups which are crucial if Zambia is to get over this political and regional divide.



**Seychelles** also held its parliamentary elections in September 2016, with SADC observers terming it a fair, credible and peaceful election.



In Angola all eyes were on the historical presidential elections on 23 August 2017, as president Jose Eduardo dos Santos, who had ruled the country for the last 38 years, stepped down from power. Citizens called for open and credible elections, denouncing the manipulation of elections in 2008 and 2012. The country has had a history of arresting and jailing activist who demand for fair elections.

SADC **elections advisory group** for the **Lesotho** elections comprised only one ♀

[15] Ngatane, N. (2017). @SADC Observer Mission readies for Lesotho elections" http://www.sabc.co.za/news/a/67eb4b004140a1d69d7d9d47c5f82b19/SADC-Observer-Mission-readies-for-Lesotho-elections-20170524 (Accessed 16/07/2017).
[16] Enca, (2017) "Probe into soldiers at Lesotho voting stations" http://www.enca.com/africa/soldier-s-presence-at-lesotho-voting-stations-probed (Accessed 19/07/2017).
[17] Marima, T. (2016). "Zambia: President Edgar Lungu elected in disputed vote" http://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/08/zambia-president-edgar-lungu-elected-disputed-vote-160815130511717.html (Accessed 15/07/2017).
[18] Corcoran, B. (2017). "Zambia's president Edgar Lungu 'plotting dictatorship'" https://www.irishtimes.com/news/world/africa/zambia-s-president-edgar-lungu-plotting-dictatorship-1.3156944 (Accessed 16/07/2017).
[19] Mfula, C. (2016). "Zambia police fight rioters as attacks on foreigners spread" http://www.reuters.com/article/us-zambia-riots-idUSKCN0XG23P (Accessed 1/08/2017).

**SDG Goals 5** and **16** provide a valuable tool for **advancing** the gender, peace and security agenda

## Progress in implementation of UNSCR Resolution 1325

**Article 28** State Parties shall put in place measures to ensure equal representation and participation in key decision making positions in conflict resolution, peace building, **peace-keeping** in accordance to UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security Resolution and other related Resolutions.

In September 2015, UN Member States adopted the United Nations (UN) 2030 Agenda, the new global development framework for the next 15 years. The 2030 Agenda, with its 17 goals and 169 targets, includes gender, peace and security as an integral part, with a dedicated Goal 5 on gender equality and Goal 16 on peaceful societies[20].

The 2030 Agenda, with a focus on Goals 5 and 16 in particular, provide a valuable tool for advancing the gender, peace and security agenda not only globally but within the Southern African region. It complements the UNSCRs on women, peace and security, which focus solely on conflict and post conflict situations.

The United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 provides a framework for implementing the Women in Peace and Security commitments, including the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The UN Security Council adopted UNSCR 2242 in 2015. This reaffirmed the critical role for regional organisations in driving this agenda and the further progress required at the national level.[21] In 2016, The African Union Commission on Women, Peace and Security agenda noted that development and implementation of NAPs must involve civil society groups including those led by women.[22] Action plans need to be localised and context specific instead of opting for a one-size fits-all approach.

Seventeen years since the adoption of UNSCR 1325, Southern African countries (except for **DRC**)[23] are yet to develop National Action Plans (NAPs). **Namibia** is on its way to developing one following a stakeholder consultative conference in July 2017 in Swakopmund, attended by various African countries to deliberate on the development of a National Action Plan (NAP). Once formalised, the NAP will be a guiding tool in the domestication of UNSCR 1325 on Women in Peace and Security. Other SADC countries currently developing NAPs include **South Africa, Zimbabwe, Angola, Tanzania** and **Madagascar**.

**Study on UNSCR 1325 in East and Southern Africa**

In September 2016, UN Women in Eastern and Southern Africa and the Office of the United Nations Special Envoy for the Great Lakes Region launched the Global Study on the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR 1325) in eastern and southern Africa.

The study surveys the implementation of commitments on the Women, Peace and Security agenda around the world. It also examines the dynamic landscape of global peace and security, and presents recommendations on the way forward. The delegates acknowledged the need to understand new and existing threats to women's security, particularly the high prevalence of sexual and gender based violence, violent extremism, the low visibility and representation of women in formal peace processes, and the inadequate resources allocated to women's recovery and reintegration needs, which undermine women's security, empowerment and gender equality, and consequently sustainable peace and development.[24]

[20] Loswick, A., Naidoo T., Smith R., Dhlamini M. and Mawowa S. (2016) "Gender, Peace and Security and the 2030 Agenda: A way forward for South Africa".
[21] United Nations, (2015) "Security Council Unanimously Adopts Resolution 2242 (2015) to Improve Implementation of Landmark Text on Women, Peace, Security Agenda" https://www.un.org/press/en/2015/sc12076.doc.html (Accessed 18/07/2017).
[22] Abdulmelik, S. (2016) "Implementation of the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Africa" Report by the African Union Commission Chairperson. http://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/pubs/2016womenpeacesecurity-auc.pdf (Accessed 18/07/2017).
[23] DRC adopted a UNSC Resolution 1325 NAP in 2010.
[24] UN Women Africa. (2016) "Call for inclusion of women in peace processes: UN Women launches the global study on the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 in Eastern and Southern Africa" http://africa.unwomen.org/en/news-and-events/stories/2016/08/call-for-inclusion-of-women-in-peace-processes (Accessed 1/08/2017).

There was notable progress on the implementation of women peace and security agenda in the eastern and southern Africa regions. However, challenges that required significant collective commitment as well as resources to address them were also identified.

Seven crucial thematic areas were explored as key factors in monitoring accountability for women, peace and security. They include:



Participants at the UNSCR 1325 Global Implementation Study Nairobi.
*Photo: UNgreatlakes*

- **Women's participation**: women's involvement in peace processes has positive impact in pushing for the commencement, resumption or finalisation of negotiations, particularly when momentum has stalled or talks have faltered.

- **Protecting the rights of women and girls in humanitarian settings**: increased attention has been paid to violence against women and girls, particularly sexual violence in conflict, resulting in greater visibility, high-level advocacy, and the development of technical tools. However, too little funding is allocated to programming and services for survivors.

- **Toward an era of transformative justice**: justice must be transformative in nature, addressing not only the singular violations experienced by women, but also the underlying inequalities which render women and girls vulnerable during times of conflict and which inform the consequences of the human rights violations they experience.

- **Keeping the peace in an increasingly militarised world**: there is need for a larger focus on demilitarization, and the development of effective strategies for conflict prevention and the non-violent protection of civilians. Moreover, the study highlights that women's presence in the security sector has been found to significantly lower rates of complaints of misconduct, rates of improper use of weapons, as well as raise the credibility of forces, increase access to communities and vital information, and lead to a greater reporting of sexual and gender based crimes.

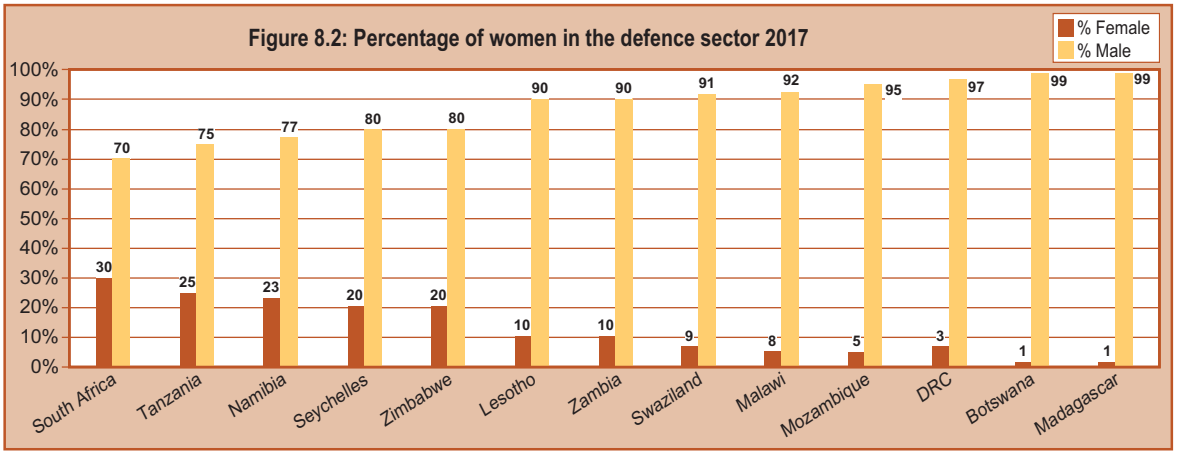
- **Building inclusive and peaceful societies in the aftermath of conflict**: women in conflict-affected and recovering countries lack economic opportunities necessary for survival, remain confronted by daily violence in their homes and communities, struggle to cope with heavy burdens of care and dependency, and continue to endure the emotional and physical scars of conflict, without support or recognition. In the aftermath of conflict, violence against women often increases, underlining the importance of rebuilding rule of law institutions.

- **Preventing conflict**: states that have lower levels of gender inequality are less likely to resort to the use of force. Stronger recognition is required of the influence of gender norms, gender relations, and gender inequalities on the potential for the eruption of conflict.

- **Countering violent extremism**: across regions, a common thread shared by extremist groups is that in every instance their advance has been coupled with attacks on the rights of women and girls-rights to education, participation in public life and autonomous decision-making over their own bodies.

**7**
**crucial**
thematic
areas
explored

## The defence sector[25]




*Source: Cheryl Hendricks, collation of data 2010-2017.*

Women **representation** in the defence sector in SADC is still very low

Figure 8.2 reflects the proportion of women in the defence forces of 15 SADC countries for which this data could be obtained.[26] Mauritius does not have a defence force. South Africa (30%) ranks highest in the region, followed by Tanzania (25%).Seychelles and Zimbabwe have 20% women in their defence forces (though this is dated information and it may have changed by now). The DRC's Defence Force has 3% women. Women in Malawi's Defence Force stand at 8% Madagascar adopted a 10% quota for the intake of women into the *Gendermarie* (Military Police), but the institution still remains relatively inaccessible to women. The section that follows provides insight into women in defence in SADC countries for which information could be obtained.



Women comprise a mere 3% of the **DRC**'s Defence Force. Data on women's position within the military is limited. The DRC's Defence Force has recently been accused of massacring civilians, many of whom were women and children.[27] The Defence Force has to mainstream gender into its security sector reform programming.



In **Angola**, existing data indicates that women constitute 2.6% of the Defence Forces. News reports note that women play a key role in the Angolan Armed Forces (FAA). The head of the Combative Preparatory Division of the South Military Region noted a significant increase in the number of women in the FAA recently.[28] Women mostly serve in social areas such as health and education as well as in operational areas. Women however also serve in some of the senior ranks. In 2012 for instance, four women military personnel of the Angolan Armed Forces (FAA) were to be brigadier generals.[29]



**Madagascar** is in a process of reforming its security sector. In 2016, in this context, the country drew up its new national policy for peace and security. A circular on the national security policy statement was approved and is well on the way to being adopted. The document has 8 pillars for implementation: the army, the national police, the national gendarmerie, the justice forces, territorial administration, intelligence service and the governance and safety management bodies. It also defines four axes, which are strategies; capacities; ethic, integrity, and social accountability and finally gender and other transversal issues.



The **South Africa**n National Defence Force (SANDF) had made some progress towards gender parity. In 1994-95 only 12% of SANDF members were women and this had risen to 30% by 2015. The country has also been making steady progress with regard to women occupying senior positions in the defence forces as noted by

[25] Represents all women in defence forces, civilian, non-combat and combat.
[26] Reported by Dr. Cheryl Hendricks, 2016.
[27] "'Look They are dying': Video Appears to Show Massacre by Congolese Soldiers." The New York Times February 17, 2017.
[28] Mucuta, D. (2017) "Bravura das Mulheres nas fileiras das FAA" http://jornaldeangola.sapo.ao/reportagem/bravura_das_mulheres__nas_fileiras_das_faa (Accessed 28/07/2017).
[29] Angop, (2012) "Quatro mulheres das FAA promovidas à classe de generais" http://www.angop.ao/angola/pt_pt/noticias/politica/2012/4/19/Quatro-mulheres-das-FAA-promovidas-classe-generais,9fe7574e-96a7-4737-be23-b0241fcd0555.html (Accessed 28/07/2017).

Minister Nosiviwe Mapisa-Nqakula during the Defence and Military Veterans Department Budget Vote 2017/2018. By the end of January 2017, the The Department of Defence (DOD) reported 40 female uniform members in command positions out of a total of 225 (17%). The percentage of female-generals has gradually increased from 16% in 2013 to 19% in 2017. It is envisaged over this financial period that a total of 11 female defense members will be deployed as Attachés.[30]



Women constitute 8% of the **Malawi** Defence Force (MDF). In 2016, Chanju Mwale was promoted from the rank of major to Lieutenant Colonel. The Malawi Defence Force (MDF) cited shortage of housing as the main reason for not recruiting more women.[31]



**Tanzania** has an active armed force of about 27,000 (Army: 23,000 Air force: 3,000 Navy: 1,000, Reserves of 80,000 and Paramilitary of 1,400). Women constitute 25% of Tanzania's Defence Force. Tanzania is a big contributor of its defence forces to peace support operations and has never shied away from this responsibility. This has raised Tanzania's profile as a regional icon for maintaining peace and security.[32]



**Namibia** has made commitments in gender mainstreaming in its defense forces. Women constitute 23% of the Namibia Defense Force. Recently, 24 women from the army, air-wing and maritime wing successfully completed part of a 17 -week quartermaster commissioning course, which started in April 2016. The gruelling course aimed to upgrade identified warrant officers and senior non-commissioned officers, who possess good leadership qualities, into commissioned officers with the necessary military decorum and competencies.[33] In April 2017 Namibian Minister of Defense Penda ya Ndakolo, implored Namibian women to join the Namibian Defense Force (NDF) and steer the force to greater heights.



Women constitute approximately 10% of **Zambia**'s Defence Force. Women first entered the force in 1974. In 2009, Fridah Kazembe became the first woman Brigadier General. Although the Zambia Defence Force has a quota of 30% it has made little progress in the recruitment of women and has been unable to meet this target. However, Zambia has increased the number of women in the air force as shown in the case study below:

**Zambia welcomes its first female fighter pilot**

Twenty four year old Second Lieutenant Thokozile Muwa mba has made history in Zambia as the country's first female fighter pilot to be accepted into the male dominated area of the military.

"I look at the fact that when I am in the aeroplane, the aircraft knows no sex as it depends on my input even if I am a woman. I can also give it the right steering for it to respond correctly," Muwamba added.



Second Lieutenant Thokozile Muwamba.
*Photo: Zambia Observer*

The Zambian Air Force Commander Lieutenant General Eric Mwaba Chimese announced in 2015 their decision to introduce female pilots to boost the fight for gender equality in Zambia. According to Brigadier-General Kapungwe, who is the commander of the ZAF base in Mumbwa, having Second Lieutenant Muwamba as the first female fighter pilot is a clear illustration that women were progressing.

The Zambian Air Force Commander Lieutenant General Eric Mwaba Chimese announced in 2015 their decision to introduce female pilots to boost the fight for gender equality in Zambia "We want to see more women in the country to become fighter pilots in future

*Source: africanews.com http://www.africanews.com/2017/01/09/zambia-welcomes-its-first-female-fighter-pilot//*

Many militaries globally and in SADC prohibit women from participating in combat roles

Protocol@work

[30] South African Government, (2017) "Minister Nosiviwe Mapisa-Nqakula: Defence and Military Veterans Dept Budget Vote 2017/18" http://www.gov.za/speeches/minister-nosiviwe-mapisa-nqakula-defence-and-military-veterans-dept-budget-vote-201718-25 (Accessed on 23/07/2017).
[31] Afrifem. (2014) Shortage of Accommodation Affects Recruitment of Female Soldiers. (http://www.afriem.org/2014/05/shortage-accommodation-affects-recruitment-female-soldiers/
[32] Minde, N. (2017). "Contributor Profile: Tanzania" http://www.providingforpeacekeeping.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/Tanzania-Minde-10July2017-FINAL.pdf (Accessed 2/07/2017).
[33] New Era. (2016). "Minister urges women to join NDF" https://www.newera.com.na/2016/08/12/minister-urges-women-join-ndf/ (Accessed 2/07/2017).

South Africa **allows** women to serve in combat

Protocol @ work



**Zimbabwe:** Recent and updated data on women serving in the military is scant. In June 2017, President Robert Mugabe noted that the enrolment of women within the military school was in line with the government's policy of promoting gender equality in all spheres and called for more women to enrol. He also commended 19 female officers who were part of 108 officer cadets who graduated at the Zimbabwe Military Academy (ZMA) for their resilience in the officer cadet training.[34] The difference in the number of women and men enrolled in for the training indicate that gender imbalances still exist in the military.

## Women in combat: an emerging debate

The global debate on whether women should serve in direct combat in recent years is gaining momentum in Africa. Many militaries prohibit women from participating in combat roles. Doubts on women's ability to excel in combat roles have been raised, based on whether women meet the necessary physical demands. In militaries, women are required to perform extra hard to prove their physical strength and endurance. In 2013, the United States removed the ban on women serving in combat roles in their defence force.

With more and more governments on the continent enrolling women into their defence forces and peace support operations, the question remains on whether women should be on the front line in combat. Hendricks notes that "this question emerges predominantly from men still caught in stereotypical roles of men as protectors, and women as in need of male protection." In addition, feminists have always argued for the demilitarisation of our societies and have been opposed to war.[35] South Africa has increased gender equality training as reflected in the case study that follows:

### South African National Defence Force champions gender equality



South Africa Women Defense Forces.
*Photo: Source: GovernmentZA/ /CC by 2.0*

South African National Defence Force champions gender equality The reform of policy relating to women in the military is legally and politically driven rather than through the intervention of any particular feminist lobby demanding equal rights for women. Only recently has a small, but active feminist voice emerged among the senior female officer ranks pressing for greater participation of women in decision-making and greater sensitivity to gender. These voices will no doubt gain more momentum once the Gender Forums initiated in 1997 are established and begin to address the gender issues that limit women's career advancement.

The historical overview of women's involvement in the armed forces indicates that given the opportunity, women can also play an active role in armed formations. Therefore, the defence of a country should not be regarded as an exclusive male prerogative.

The South African National Defence Force (SANDF) is one of the few armed forces in the world which accepts the right of women to serve in combat. There are women crews in the Artillery and Armoured Corps of the Army, and the Air Force has women trainee pilots. The 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 South African Infantry Battalions deploy women infantry personnel as part of their contingent on external operational duties in Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo and Central African Republic. Though they are permitted to serve, women have been largely confined to support roles such as "finance, personnel, logistics, medical services, and welfare."

The SANDF has the highest proportion of women in Africa within its ranks, only one gender officer has been appointed at Defence Headquarters level to address gender related issues and formulate policies in this regard. Unless additional similar appointments are made across the arms of service to address this issue, the SANDF may be seen as only paying lip service to constitutional and legislative requirements. Institutional arrangements and monitoring mechanisms must be established to ensure that women have every opportunity to participate equally with male counterparts.

[34] The Herald, (2015) "President Commissions 108 Officer Cadets" http://www.herald.co.zw/president-commissions-108-officer-cadets/ (Accessed 24/07/2017).
[35] Point made in discussions with Prof. Cheryl Hendricks on this chapter, August 16, 2017.

As is the case in other armed forces, once women participate in the military in greater numbers and in non-traditional roles, the debate shifts to new questions: Should they be permitted to serve in all combat specialties? Should this be voluntary or compulsory? Are women physically and psychologically suited for combat? What effect will women have on cohesion, morale and ultimately operational effectiveness? Then there are the uniquely female concerns such as the effect of pregnancy on deployment; parental and family concerns and sexual harassment.

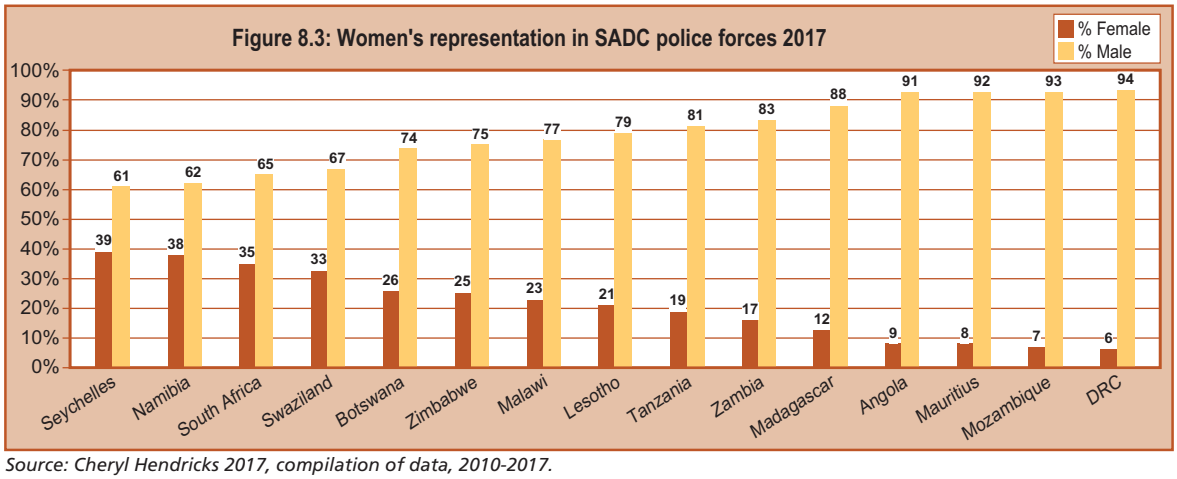
With women now serving in combat roles, a more recent survey conducted by the SANDF's Equal Opportunities Chief Directorate (EOCD) in February/March 2013 among all military personnel revealed some interesting findings. When military women were asked whether they would go into frontline combat if given the chance, 75% black African women, and 58% of Coloured women said they would compared to 34% of whites.

Opinion was divided on whether women should only receive such assignments if they choose: 41% supported the volunteer option, compared to 47% who felt it should be compulsory for all, with the remainder being unsure.

More women are willing to serve in combat roles. This may be attributed to the role of women in the revolutionary struggle and also the fact that white women appear less willing to serve beyond the borders of South Africa. Even where women meet the job specifications and have the ability to serve in combat, opinion remains divided especially in those positions where physical demands may exceed the physiological capabilities of women. To overcome this, most countries are striving towards gender-neutral policies that specify which specialties (combat and non-combat) require muscular strength, endurance and cardiovascular capacity. This has been the policy adopted by the SANDF. The EOCD survey revealed that while only 28% of women felt they did not have the ability to serve in demanding combat roles, 41% of males held this view. Once again the views differed by race, with more Africans (42%) than Coloureds (37%) and whites (30%) expressing the opinion that women do not have the physical capability to serve in combat. These sentiments were most strongly held by African men, as 60% of African women felt they had the physical ability to perform in combat. In general, women are more positive about their capabilities than men.

*(Source: Lieutenant Colonel Mkhwanazi, SANDF accessed from African defence website http://www.african-defense.com/defense-news/gender-equality-in-the-south-african-national-defence-force/)*

## Police services




*Source: Cheryl Hendricks 2017, compilation of data, 2010-2017.*

Seychelles has **39%** women in the police service

DRC has the least women in the police services at 6%

Figure 8.3 shows that Seychelles, at 39%, records the highest percentage of women in the police services, followed by Namibia at 38% (up from 31%) and South Africa at 35%. Swaziland has 33%, Botswana 26% and Malawi has 23% women's representation in the police service. Tanzania Police Force has 19% women's representation. Eight countries have 20% or more representation of women in their police services. Three countries - DRC, Mauritius and Mozambique - have less than 10% women in their police forces.[36]

Women in the police services have been sharing best practices and challenges through networking forums. In May 2017, the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation (SARPCCO) held a three day Women's Training Conference in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania where they shared progress in promoting gender equality and on handling sexual and gender based violence. Their deliberations were presented at the SADC Organ on Politics, Defence and Security meeting.



The **Malawi** Police Service dates back to 1921. Female police officers started to be recruited in 1972. The Malawi police service considers its female employees to excel at every level of command with a 50/50 share of responsibilities.[37]

But a 2015 report by Time Group Malawi indicated that policewomen continue to face discrimination in relation to access to service-related housing.[38] Policewomen married to civilians were barred and evicted from police-owned houses.



**Madagascar** has 12% women in its police force. Women recruited at police level, are present at all levels of decision making in the implementation and deployment of the 93 police stations of the 112 Districts.[39]



**Namibia** has a relatively large percentage of women in its police force (38%). The Namibian Police Force (NamPol) Women Network has grown since its inception in February 2010.The officers have received a platform and structure to enhance cooperation and coordination as well as share best practices.



Chief Inspector, Johanna Van Rooyen, with Walvis Bay Deputy Commissioner, Malinda. *Photo: Confident Reporter*

In December 2017, the network organised its first Conference at Walvis Bay. The conference tackled challenges and solutions of women empowerment, abuse, and gender-based violence and other issues that empower police women. Network Chairperson Anna-Marie Nainda noted that through this network, policewomen have gained recognition that was absent before. Milestones made by police officers in Namibia were also recognized and police women were urged to seek self-development and empowerment.[40]



In **Tanzania**, only one woman serves as a police commissioner while nine others serve as deputy commissioners. Women make up 19% of the Tanzania police force. In May 2017, a three-day workshop themed "Women Police Officers for better Police Work" organised by Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (SARPCCO) hosted more than 700 policewomen from Swaziland, South Africa, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Tanzania.[41] Discussions focussed on identifying challenges and offering proposals that face policewomen which were to be presented at the SADC security summit meeting scheduled to be held the following week in Arusha. Police commissioner Elis Mapunda, who is chairman of the Tanzanian Police Network, and the only female commissioner in the Tanzania Police Force, noted that among the major challenges faced by female soldiers is finding a balance between police obligations and family care duties.

[36] Reported by Dr. Cheryl Hendricks.
[37] Malawi Police Service, (2016) "Police women urged to be hard working and professional" https://web.facebook.com/malawipolice/posts/466846206841678?_rdc=1&_rdr (Accessed 1/08/2017).
[38] Chitsulo, M. (2015). "Malawi Police discriminate women officers" http://www.times.mw/malawi-police-discriminate-women-officers/ (Accessed 1/08/2017).
[39] Gaby Razafindrokoto, Presentation at the ISS Conference on Gender and Security, June 2015.
[40] Confidente. (2016) "Policewomen gather at first Erongo Network Conference" http://www.confidente.com.na/2016/12/policewomen-gather-at-first-erongo-network-conference/ (Accessed 29/07/2017).
[41] Channel Ten, (2017) "Polisi wa kike nchi za SADC wakutana kujadili changamoto zinazowakabili" https://www.channelten.co.tz/polisi-2/ (Accessed 29/07/2017).



The **South Africa**n Police Service (SAPS) has put in place crucial measures to ensure gender mainstreaming in its operations. Through the women empowerment initiatives the national Commissioner mandated senior women to facilitate women empowerment in SAPS. This has led to formulation of policy documents such as the Sexual Harassment Policy within SAPS. Affirmative action measures include:

- 40% of all training is reserved for women to improve their mobility to middle and senior positions.
- 70% of all places in the Emerging Leadership Programme are reserved for women to broaden the pool of women leaders in the SAPS.
- All senior appointments are monitored to ensure that they are in line with the South African Police Service Employment Equity Plan numeric goals.
- All recruitment and promotion drives are monitored to ensure that business units reach their numeric targets.[42]



South African policewomen marching with their male counterparts. *Photo: Defence web*

In Gauteng, Female law enforcement officers took to the streets of South Africa in August 2016 in an effort to reduce road crashes and raise awareness about road safety. Operations involved deployment of all-female teams in several law enforcement operations to mark women's month. The operation served to highlight challenges that female law-enforcement officers continue to face at home, at the workplace as well as in society. The initiative also features special programs and exhibitions.

## Correctional and prison services

Data on women in correctional facilities in the region is scarce. The SADC Women in Correctional Services Network established in 2015 is yet to create a sex-disaggregated database with this information.

**Table 8.4: Women's representation in correctional services**

| Country | % Male wardens | % Female wardens | % prisoners who are women |
|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | | | 3 |
| Botswana | | | 4 |
| DRC | | | 4 |
| Lesotho | 74 | 26 | 2 |
| Madagascar | 84 | 16 | 4 |
| Malawi | 85 | 15 | 1 |
| Mauritius | 91 | 9 | 6 |
| Mozambique | | | 2 |
| Namibia | | | 3 |
| Seychelles | 47 | 53 | 7 |
| South Africa | 72 | 28 | 2 |
| Tanzania | | | 3 |
| Zambia | | | 3 |
| Zimbabwe | | | 3 |

*Source: International Centre for Prison Studies, Country reports by Cheryl Hendricks*[44]

As reflected in Table 8.4, only six countries in the region have sex-disaggregated data on prison staff. Sex-disaggregated data is least available for correctional services yet this is a sector with a high proportion of women. Seychelles has the highest proportion of female staff (53%). This is the only country to exceed gender parity targets. At 53%, Seychelles continues to have the highest proportion of women in correctional services in the region. It is the only country in the region to have achieved gender parity in correctional services. The Seychelles has 608 prisoners, mostly men incarcerated for sexual offences, fraud, arson, murder, piracy and drugs.[45] Seychelles (7%) has the highest proportion of women prisoners. Mauritius (9%) has the lowest proportion of female warders. Malawi (1%) has the lowest proportion of women prisoners.

Data on women in **correctional** facilities in the region is **scarce**

[42] South Africa Police Service "Overview on the Women Empowerment Interventions in SAPS and Women Network Programmes" https://www.saps.gov.za/resource_centre/women_children/overview_women_network.php (Accessed 28/07/2017).
[43] News24. (2016). "SA rolls out all-female traffic officer teams" http://www.wheels24.co.za/News/sa-rolls-out-all-female-traffic-officer-teams-20160810 (Accessed 28/07/2017).
[44] Prison Studies (2017) http://www.prisonstudies.org/info/worldbrief/wpb_country.php?country=24
[45] http://www.seychellesnewsagency.com/articles/817/Restorative+Justice+in+Seychelles+Convicts+come+face+to+face+with+the+victims+of+their+crimes

Having women in negotiation and mediation is important for the region

Protocol @ work

The **Namibian Correctional Service (NCS)** in conjunction with International Corrections and Prisons Association (ICPA), the African Correctional Services Association (ACSA) nations met in for a five-day intensive training session on "Developing Correctional Leaders" in Omaruru, Namibia at the Lucius S. Mahoto Correctional Service Training College. Thirty seven corrections professionals from 10 African countries (Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Sudan, Swaziland, Uganda and Zimbabwe) participated. Sessions covered organisational and leadership drivers for change, examples of transformational leadership in action, a focus on values, integrity and standards, and community partnerships and community corrections. Participants also shared programmatic and operational information from their home nations and held general discussions both among themselves and with the training.[46]

## Peace processes

**Article 28: 2** State Parties shall, during times of armed and other forms of conflict, take such steps as are necessary to prevent and eliminate incidences of human rights abuses, especially of women and children and ensure that the perpetrators of such abuses are brought to justice before a court of competent jurisdiction.

## Peace negotiations

**Negotiation Training in South Africa and Madagascar**

Clingendael Academy, the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the South African Department for International Relations and Cooperation (DIRCO) have a strong relationship. During the last week of February 2017, Clingendael Academy Director Ron Ton visited Pretoria, South Africa, to contribute to a three-week programme for high level African Women Mediators.

Other cooperation partners in the training activities on conflict resolution are the Centre for Mediation in Africa (CMA), ACCORD and the Mediation Support Unit of the UN. One of the exercises in particular analysed how to promote the role of women in African conflict resolution and peace negotiations. Group responses on mediation included:

- "It should be the mediators to demand inclusion of women in negotiation teams"
- "Empowerment, mentoring programmes and training for more women negotiators"
- "Have women involved from grass roots level to decision making level"
- "Awareness campaigns and publicity to attract national and international support"

After finishing the training in Pretoria, Clingendael Academy continued to Madagascar to deliver negotiations and diplomatic training to 35 diplomats at their Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the capital of Antananarivo. *(Source: Clingendael Academy://www.clingendael.nl/news/negotiation-training-south-africa-and-madagascar)*

Having women in negotiation and mediation is important for the region. However, available data shows that women are seldom involved in mediation processes and when they are, they are underrepresented. Currently the South African Department of International Relations runs an annual training for women in mediation. The AU has started collecting and organising a roster of women who are expert mediators and negotiators who can be called upon in conflict situations across Africa. This is an initiative that the SADC could also consider.

[46] International Corrections and Prisons Associations. "Developing Correctional Leaders: 4th Training Workshop for African Corrections Professionals" https://icpa.ca/developing-correctional-leaders-4th-training-workshop-for-african-corrections-professionals/ (Accessed 24/07.2017).

**Zimbabwe: Police Commissioner leads by example in peacekeeping**



"The police in the UN peacekeeping operations are there to assist the host country police," says Priscilla Makotose, United Nations-African Union Mission in Darfur (UNAMID) Police Commissioner, the highest-ranking female police officer in the UN system, appointed in March 2016.



Priscilla Makotose breaks the glass ceiling at UNAMID.
*Photo: UNAMID*

Makotose, a Zimbabwean national, has a wealth of experience in policing and management, with a policing career that spans more than 30 years. Within the UN system, she has had a taste of peacekeeping operations before her current posting: she was among the officers who served in the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) in 2005.

In an interview with *UN News Centre*, Makotose explained the critical role played by UN Police components in peacekeeping and other UN missions, especially in helping to enhance the policing abilities of local police in host countries to serve the communities better.

Usually, the UN police are deployed in conflict or post-conflict environments. In most cases, in conflict or post-conflict areas, the local police would have lost their operational ability, and the UN police come in to re-establish them. If they have not lost their operational ability, their capacity to reach out to the rest of the population might have declined. This decline in capacity could also apply to their ability to provide the required police services. Sometimes, they may have lost their credibility with the population. We help them to rebuild that and to reintegrate them, so that they are able to work for the community; that they're responsible for the population's safety and security, as well as being accountable to the population as civil servants.

Different UN missions deploy according to the mandate that they are given by the United Nations Security Council. So what they do is guided by the UN Security Council Resolution. For example, in UNAMID we are there for the protection of civilians. In some missions, UN Police may have capacity building and mentoring roles, while in other peacekeeping missions, they may even have executive powers, where they actually act as the local police, providing services to the local community and the population. The UN police do not go into a host country to replace the local police; unless it does not exist at all. If there is a resolution that gives executive powers to them to act as local police, carrying out crime prevention and detection tasks, including carrying out arrests. In most of the missions we are just there to support the local police: to enhance their capacity to serve their communities.

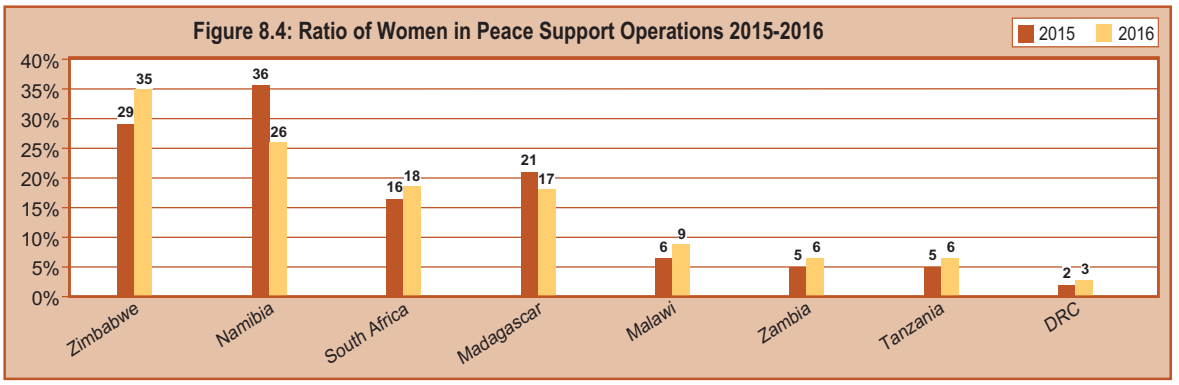
Makotose in many capacities in Zimbabwe including crime management and investigation, Police Administration, Deputy Director for Administration in Criminal Investigation Department of Zimbabwe Republic Police and she was among the officers who served in UNMIL in 2005. Makotose brings to the UNAMID mission a wealth of experience in policing and management. Her policing career spans 30 years with expertise in police command.

Makotose earned her Master's Degree in Business Administration from National University of Science and Technology in Zimbabwe. She is married and has two daughters and two sons.

*(Source: Adapted from UN News Centre, November 2016)*

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Women representation in **peace** support operations in SADC is still very **low**




*Source: Calculations 2015 and 2016 UNDPKO Country Monthly Statistics for Peace missions by Cheryl Hendricks (2015) and Sheila Maingi & Shanice Mumbi (2016).*

Figure 8.4 shows a slight increase in the ratio of women to men deployed as peacekeepers from SADC countries in 2016.

Nine SADC countries deployed peacekeepers to UN missions in 2016: DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Namibia South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe had the highest ratio of women to male peacekeepers deployed 35% followed by Namibia with a significant decline from 36% in 2015 to 26% in 2016. Madagascar was third with a decline in women's representation from 21% in 2015 to 17% in 2016.

Countries that had slight improvements in deploying women peacekeepers include South Africa 18%, Malawi 9%, Zambia 6%, Tanzania 6% and DRC 3%. Overall South Africa had the highest absolute number of troops averaging 289 in 2016. Women's overall proportional representation in 2016 remained the same as in 2015. In terms of absolute numbers, South Africa led with 289 women deployed in 2016. The other countries were Tanzania (130), Malawi (88), Zambia (60), Zimbabwe (31), Namibia (16), Madagascar and DRC (2) women deployed.

This data shows that the proportion of women deployed in peace support operations from the region is still very low. Governments must implement the provisions made in the revised SADC Gender Protocol to ensure gender balance is observed in peace support operations.

### *Transforming Peacebuilding Structures*

There has been a growing recognition on the need for inclusive peace processes that involve women's participation. Progress internationally has been slow with only a 1% difference recorded in the deployment of women peacekeepers from 2000 to 2015. Countries in Southern Africa, as the data illustrates, have made a concerted effort to deploy more women peace keepers. Much more can be done to involve women in peace negotiations and peacebuilding programmes. Positive and long-term peace cannot be achieved without re-examining the current structures and processes.

As Professor Cheryl Hendricks notes, "The current structures and processes are constructed by men, to deal with wars and crimes that they largely commit, to forgive themselves for committing harm that has predominantly impacted women, to redistribute power and resources among them according to who has monopoly of the potential to do harm."[47]

There is urgent need to transform relations and institutions that have contributed to women's lack of participation in peace processes. Patriarchal and sexist attitudes rooted in cultural stereotypes about women's ability to serve in defence positions must be examined. Special challenges that women in peace operations face must also be addressed to ensure that women peacekeepers are able to work effectively within safe environments.




[47] Hendricks, C. (2017) "Intersecting Discourses of Emancipation: Gender, Peace and Security and the Decolonization of Knowledge" Professional Inauguration Speech, University of Johannesburg

**2017 Global Open Days event held in Goma, Eastern DRC**

The Office of the United Nations Special Envoy for the Great Lakes region, with support from the United Nations Stabilisation Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) and UN Women, organised the Global Open Days event on Women, Peace and Security in Africa's Great Lakes region in Goma from 31 January to 2 February 2017.

Open Days consultations aim to provide a platform for women and peace activists to highlight their experiences, including the challenges they face and their contributions to the promotion of peace and security worldwide. Open Days are intended to strengthen the implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) and subsequent resolutions on women, peace and security.

Resolution 1325 with its four pillars on prevention, participation, protection, and peacebuilding and recovery, has become the focal point for galvanizing worldwide efforts to deal with the many challenges that women face in situations of conflict. In line with Security Council Resolution 1325 and subsequent provisions, the Office of the Special Envoy for the Great Lakes undertook last year a fact-finding regional tour on women's participation in Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Consultations held with government officials, representatives from the international and donor community, as well as civil society organizations and women leaders revealed a discrepancy in the initiatives undertaken at national level to implement Security Council Resolution 1325 and the Peace, Security and Cooperation Framework agreement. The Framework agreement outlines national, regional and international actions that aim at ending the cycles of violence and conflict in eastern DRC. The consultations also revealed a critical need for capacity building for women in leadership positions and for political participation.

The Women's Platform of the Peace, Security and Cooperation Framework agreement established by the Office of the Special Envoy in January 2014 to empower and support women in the region as peacemakers and leaders, will pursue its efforts to ensure that voices of women from the Great Lakes region are effectively heard, heeded and included in peace processes. The 2017 Global Open Days event provided an opportunity to refocus the strategies on the implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325, and to ensure that such efforts remain on track.( Source: "2017 global open days event held in Goma, eastern DRC"
*https://ungreatlakes.unmissions.org/2017-global-open-days-event-held-goma-eastern-drc)*

## Sexual violence during conflict




**Article 28: 2** State parties shall, during times of armed and other conflict take steps as are necessary to prevent and eliminate incidences of human rights abuses especially of women and children and ensure that the perpetrators are brought to justice before a court of competent jurisdiction.

Women are at a disproportionately higher risk of becoming victims of conflict-related sexual violence globally. Sexual violence during conflict is committed by armed actors including state forces, pro-government militias and rebel groups as well as by civilians. Such violence can include sexual harassment, rape, sodomy as well as related murders. Sexual violence incidents constitute grave violations of human rights and are tactics used to intimidate, harass and to instil fear.

In the SADC region, DRC continues to be plagued by the highest incidences of conflict-related sexual violence and has been termed by the UN as one of the worst and most dangerous places for women to live. Rape remains a dominant component of the conflict in the eastern Congo where women are raped by civilians, rebel groups as well as by military personnel. In 2016, over 3000 [sexual violence] complaints were received by civilians and military jurisdiction in 2016, versus 2414 complaints in 2015.[48]

On 1 January 2016, the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development officially came into force.

DRC has the **highest** prevalence of **conflict** related sexual **violence**

[48] Y.K. (2017) "Sexual Violence DRC: Over 3,000 complaints received by Congolese Jurisdictions in 2016" http://allafrica.com/stories/201703080287.html (Accessed 26/07/2017).

Agendas **2030** and **2063** have a greater **focus** on conflict prevention through peace education

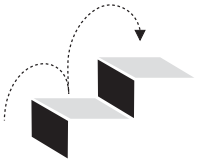
UN Security Council Resolutions such as the 1352 and 1820 have been pivotal in in the protection of women during conflict and preventing sexual related violence. However, the UNSCRs on women, peace and security are limited to conflict and post-conflict settings and do not offer a longer-term approach which addresses the underlying causes of violence and insecurity.[49] The 2030 Agenda is more comprehensive. Reference is also made to this issue in the African Union Agenda 2063.

**Table 8.5: Policy frameworks on gender, peace and security**

| Key issues for peace | UNSCRS on women, peace and security | Agenda 2030 | Agenda 2063 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reducing violence and making the public feel secure | End of gender-based violence, including sexual violence, and all other forms of violence against women and girls in armed conflict and post conflict situations (see UNSCRs 1325, 1820, 1888, 1960, 2106). | Elimination of all forms of violence against women including trafficking (see target 5.2). | Elimination of all forms of gender-based violence against women and girls (see target 51, 37) |
| | Integration of a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations and the negotiation and implementation of peace agreements (UNSCRs 1325, 2242). | Significant reduction of all forms of violence and related deaths everywhere (see target 16.1). | Reduction of violent crimes, armed conflict, terrorism, extremism and ensuring prosperity, human security and safety for all citizens (see targets 34, 37 and 36) |
| | Training of all military and police personnel on sexual and gender based violence (UNSCR 1960). | Education in human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence (see target 4.7) | Elimination of all harmful social practices including female genital mutilation and child marriages (see target 51). |
| | | End of abuse, exploitation trafficking and all forms of violence against children and elimination of all harmful practices such as child, early forced marriage and female genital mutilations (see targets 16.2 and 5.3) | Functional mechanisms for peaceful prevention and resolution of conflict at all levels and a culture of peace and tolerance nurtured in Africa's children through peace education (see target 32). |

*Source: SaferWorld https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/publications/1053-gender-peace-and-security-and-the-2030-agenda-a-way-forward-for-south-africa*

Table 8.7 shows that Agendas 2030 and 2063 have a greater focus on conflict prevention through peace education. The combination of UNSCR Resolutions on peace with Agendas 2030 and 2063 provides a more holistic gendered approach to reduce all forms of violence.



## Next steps

Terrorism and terrorist acts across the continent have the potential to trickle down to SADC countries. These countries should network and share security information with other regional bodies to ensure that radicalisation and terrorism do not take root among its member states. Moving forward:

- SADC should collate sex-disaggregated data across the security sector and publish this on its website to allow easy tracking
- All member state should adopt and implement the NAP for 1325.
- The issue of gender responsive budgeting and costing for gender mainstreaming should be a priority for all members especially in the implementation of NAP for 1325 and SDG 5.
- SADC should increase visibility and coverage of women's contributions within the security sector through news article and blogs on its website. Very few articles exist on activities being undertaken by women in defence, police and peacekeeping.
- The scourge of conflict sexual-related violence is extremely high in places like the DRC. Prevention and justice for victims needs to be prioritised by member states. More women need to be deployed as peacekeepers to address the needs of such victims.
- All member states should take a special measures to fight against impunity.
- SADC should create a roster of qualified women mediators and negotiators who can be called upon during conflict similar to what the African Union is currently doing.
- SADC must increase efforts to work with Civil Societies in mainstreaming gender into the peace and security agenda. Civil societies role in pushing for UNSCR 1325 has been highlighted by the AU.
- The participation of youth, especially young women, in the implementation of UNSCR 1325 is a determinant of the successful implementation of the resolution.[50]
- SADC must institute led capacity building programmes on gender, peace and security.
- SADC should pursue cross-learning with other regional bodies such as the Economic Cooperation of West African States (ECOWAS) where many of their member states countries have NAPs for UNSCR 1325.

[49] Loswick, A., Naidoo T., Smith R., Dhlamini M. and Mawowa S. (2016) "Gender, Peace and Security and the 2030 Agenda: A way forward for South Africa".
[50] Ibid.

CHAPTER 9

# Media, Information and Communication

## Articles 29-30



Making every voice count in SADC. *Photo: Valentina Madope*

### KEY POINTS

- A new SADC Gender Protocol provision on media ownership paves the way for a critical mass of women media owners and balanced participation of women in decision-making in media.
- The Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) remains the latest research on women's voices and their role in the media sector. It shows a paltry increase in women sources in the media from 17% in the 2003 Gender and Media Baseline Study (GMBS) to 19% in the GMPS 2010, and 20% in the GMPS 2015. The proportion of women sources is the single most important measure with regard to giving a voice to women.
- A country comparison shows that the highest percentage of women sources recorded in all countries decreased from 32% in 2010 to 28% in 2015. The lowest country percentage (14%) declined to a new low of 6%.
- There has been an encouraging increase in the proportion of women in media management from 27% to 34%. This is a key indicator of progress of gender mainstreaming at decision-making level. Lesotho (53%) has the highest proportion while DRC (17%) has the lowest.

**only 20% of news sources**

## What the Protocol requires

The 2008 SADC Gender Protocol had one time bound media target: Gender equality in and through the media by 2015. However, all countries failed to meet the target of 50% sources and women media decision-making. The Protocol specifically called for gender sensitivity in covering Gender Based Violence (GBV) and discouraged the media from promoting pornography, degrading or exploiting women. Part Nine of the Protocol has two articles, addressing Gender in Media, Information and Communications, and Universal Access to Information and Communication Technology. As before, the Protocol calls for mainstreaming gender in all information, communication and media policies, programmes, laws and training. It calls on media-related bodies to mainstream gender in their codes of conduct, policies and procedures. It also encourages media to give equal voice in all areas of coverage.

**Table 9.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| | ***Article 29.1***: The Protocol calls on member states to enact legislation and develop national policies and strategies, including professional guidelines and codes of conduct, to prevent and address gender stereotypes and discrimination in the media. |
| The SADC Gender Protocol calls on member states to take measures to promote the equal representation of women and men in decision-making structures of the media, in accordance with Article 12.1 that provides for equal representation of women in decision-making by 2015. | ***Article 29.4***: State parties shall take measures to promote the equal representation of women and men in the ownership, and decision-making structures, of the media. |

NEW

**Equal Ownership of the media!**

Table 9.1 shows that SADC heads of state approved minimal revisions to the SADC Gender Protocol on media and ICT. While *Article 29.1* strengthens existing provisions on mainstreaming gender in media policies and legislation, there is no longer a time bound media target. Engendering new legislation, policies and strategies will allow gender equality to be prioritised through the law. The wording of the provisions is careful not to be prescriptive or make assumptions about the extent to which government can influence the media, especially as media pushes for self-regulation without government interference.

*Article 29.4* makes the important addition of *ownership* to the section on equal representation of women and men in media decision-making. So far, tracking has focused on women on boards of directors and as media managers. If women begin to own media outlets, they will be in a better position to influence content, decision-making, industry practices and policies in a gender aware manner. They can also bring different perspectives to stories on gender issues. As women begin to occupy top most positions in media companies, we will slowly see the sector's long-standing glass ceiling begin to shatter.



The SADC Protocol encourages media to give equal voice in all areas of coverage. *Photo: Gender Links*

## Key trends

| Table 9.2: Trends in Media 2009, 2015, 2017 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Parameter | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
| **WOMEN SOURCES** | | | | | |
| % women sources | 50% | 19% | 20% | 20% | -30% |
| Country with highest percentage of women sources. | 50% | Lesotho (32%) | Botswana and Seychelles (28%) | Botswana and Seychelles (28%) | -22% |
| Country with lowest percentage of women sources | 50% | Mozambique and Zambia (14%) | DRC (6%) | DRC (6%) | -44% |
| **WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT** | | | | | |
| % women in management | 50% | 27% | 34% | 34% | -16% |
| Country with the highest percentage of women in management | 50% | Lesotho (52%) | Lesotho (53%) | Lesotho (53%) | +3% |
| Country with the lowest percentage of women in management | 50% | DRC (10%) | DRC (17%) | DRC (17%) | -33% |
| **WOMEN IN MEDIA IMAGES** | | | | | |
| % women in media images | 50% | 27% | 28% | 28% | -22% |
| Country with the highest percentage of women in images | 50% | - | Malawi (74%) | Malawi (74%) | -40% |
| Country with the lowest percentage of women in images | 50% | - | Tanzania (10%) | Tanzania (10%) | -40% |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | 67% | 66% | 53% | -47% |
| CSC | 100% | 40% | 66% | 65% | -35% |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Table 9.2 shows that:

- There has been a mere one-percentage point increase of women sources in the media from 19% to 20% during the tracking period. The highest proportion of women sources is in Seychelles and Botswana (28%) and lowest in DRC (6%). DRC has consistently been the country with the lowest proportion of women sources overtime.
- The proportion of women in management has gone up from 27% at baseline to 34% in 2017. Lesotho (53%) has the highest proportion of women in decision-making and is the only country in the region to surpass the 50% target. South Africa is conducting an in-depth Glass Ceiling Study in 2017.
- While women comprise only 20% news sources they account for a much higher proportion of images (28%) suggesting that women are more likely to be seen than heard. Malawi (74%) has the highest proportion of women in images while Tanzania (10%) has the lowest.

### Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. In the case of media, the SGDI has been revised to remove percentage of women in the media overall, and percentage of women in media studies, as these targets have now largely been achieved. The three remaining indicators measure women sources, images, and women in decision-making. These are more telling indicators of the real progress being achieved in narrowing the gender gap. Not surprisingly, the SDGI has dropped from 66% in 2015 to 53% in 2017. The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This score has also been expanded to take account of the new additions in the Post 2015 era. The overall score dropped from 66% in 2015 to 65% in 2017 with these tougher tests (such as women's ownership of the media) now in place.

SGDI

53%

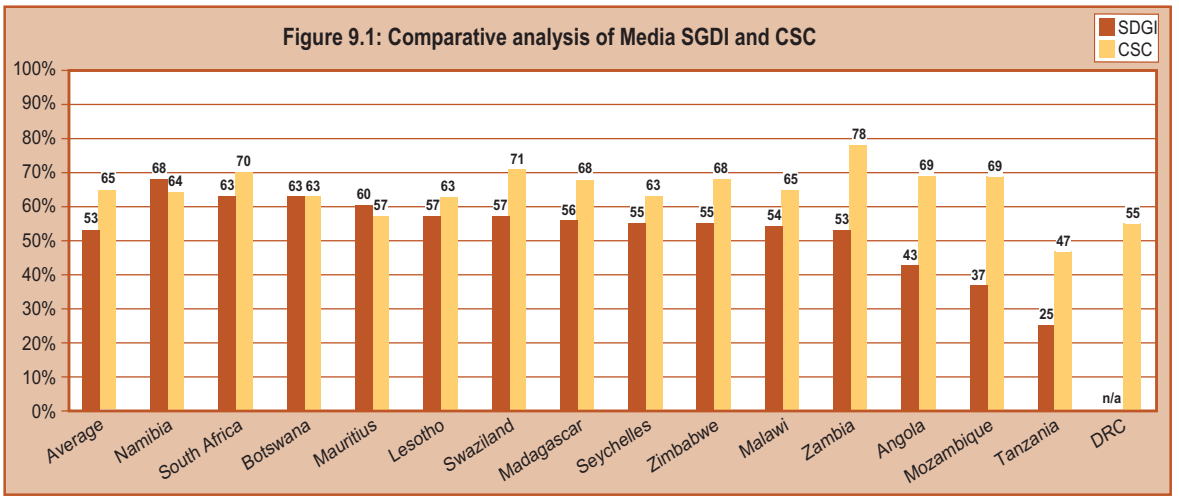
in **2017**

from

66%

in **2015**

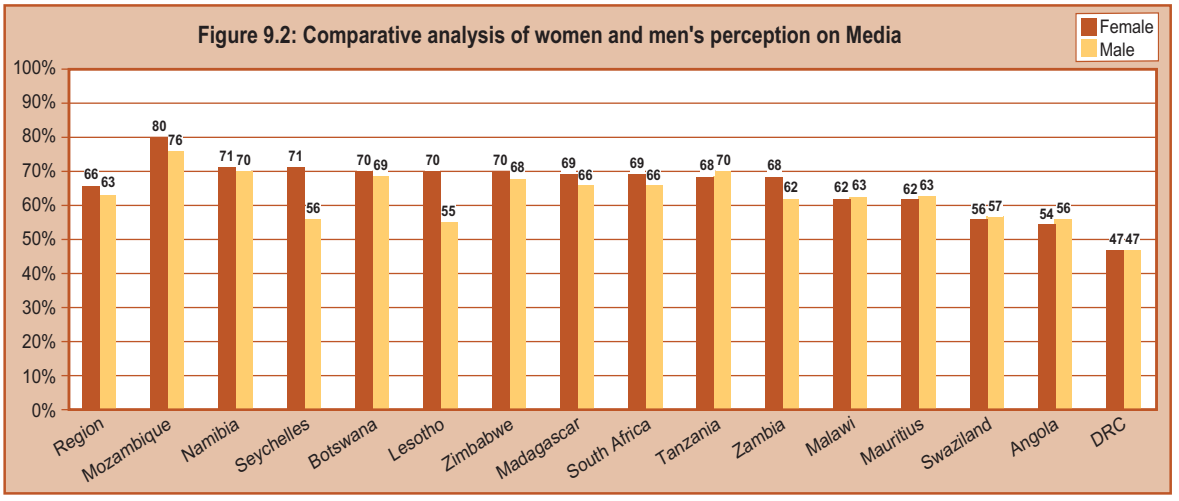
**CSC**
**53%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 9.1 illustrates the media SGDI and CSC scores. The CSC gap between the CSC (65%) and SGDI (53%) is higher than for any other sector. The media SGDI has declined by 13-percentage point since 2016. This significant decline can be attributed to the change in media indicators, which have been reduced from five to three indicators, which are more telling of the trends in the sector. The difference between the SGDI and CSC gives a variance between the two. In general, there is a higher negative variance for this sector than any other i.e citizens believe that their countries are doing better than they actually are.

**66%**
scored
higher
than
**63%**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 9.2 shows sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the media sector for 2017. On average women (66%) had slightly higher scores than men (63%). Women in Mozambique are most optimistic about the media they consume while women in DRC (47%) are the least optimistic. The highest variance between women and men is in Seychelles and Lesotho at 15%. DRC has no variance, showing that women and men in this country largely concur on the media's performance.

## Background

The media is one of the most important yet difficult areas of work for advancing gender equality. Women in the media are either missing, or they are represented in ways that reinforce their traditional roles and/or objectify their physical attributes. The media can be part of the problem, but it can also be part of the solution in changing attitudes and behaviours, paving the way for its audience to understand the importance of gender equality. Unless "the media promotes gender equality in the workplace and also in the way women are represented, both within the working environment and in the representation of women"[1] then women cannot play their full role in society.

The right to communicate and access to media are basic human rights, espoused in Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Media access and freedom of expression therefore become tools for development. Gender equality closely links to these freedoms. One of the key challenges confronting those fighting for gender equality is how to change mindsets hardened and reinforced by centuries of socialisation, and cultural and religious beliefs.

### Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action

Access to media is the 12th critical area of concern in the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA). Section J calls on the media to promote women's full and equal participation in media management and for the media to aim for gender balance in appointments to all management bodies.

Section J strategic objectives include:

- Strategic objective J.1: Increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision-making in and through the media and new technologies of communication.
- Strategic objective J.2: Promote a balanced and non-stereotypical portrayal of women in the media.

Critical areas of Section J include:

- Content and representation.
- Access.
- Women's participation in decision-making at all levels of media and ICT processes and structures.
- Policy development.
- Media and information literacy.
- Freedom of expression.
- Women media workers' working conditions and safety of women in media and online.

### The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP)

The GMMP is a one-day voluntary global monitoring project that has taken place every five years since the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. Working with journalism and media training institutions in the region, GL coordinated the global study in 12 countries. The global coordinator, World Association for Christian Communication (WACC), launched the GMMP in 2015. The fourth GMMP in 2015 showed that women constitute a mere 24% of news sources globally and 22% in Africa[2].

### Report on the Status of Women in News Media

The International Women's Media Foundation (IWMF) Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media (2011) remains the most recent global research on women and men working in the media. It reveals that, globally, men occupy 73% of the top management jobs. Among the ranks of reporters, men hold nearly two-thirds of the jobs, compared to 36% held by women. The IWMF report showed that despite commitments made in Beijing, the glass ceiling is still very much alive in 20 of the 59 nations studied (reference please). It will be important to coordinate a follow-up study to track any progress since 2011.

### Global efforts for gender equality in and through media

The Global Alliance on Media and Gender (GAMAG) is a network of individuals and organisations committed to gender equality in and through the media around the word. It is facilitated by United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). In 2015, GAMAG mounted an unsuccessful campaign for the inclusion of targets and indicators on gender and the media in the SDGs. GAMAG continues to undertake efforts to improve gender equality in the media by coordinating activities on research advocacy and policy on gender and the media.

UN Women also fostered a partnership with leading media houses for the "Step it Up for Gender Equality Media Compact" ("Step it Up"), to develop concrete actions for the implementation of the Sustainable Development Agenda and focus on gender equality and women's rights issues on two fronts:




[1] International Federation of Journalists. 2009. Getting the balance right: Gender Equality in Journalism. International Federation of Journalists. Brussels.
[2] World Association of Christian Communicators. 2015. Global Media Monitoring Project. Toronto.

- In their reporting, disrupting stereotypes and biases, and
- In increasing the number of women in the media, including in leadership and decision-making functions.[3]

This alliance of media institutions is committed to playing an active role in advancing gender issues within the Post-2015 framework. The outlets implement "Step it Up" by increasing their focus on women's rights and gender equality issues through high-quality coverage, complemented by gender-sensitive corporate practices.[4] SADC media houses such as Channel Africa, Media 24, City Press and South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) news have joined the campaign.

## Gender and media research in Southern Africa

Southern Africa has undertaken some of the most extensive and consistent research on gender equality in and through the media. This research has been coordinated by Gender Links, which provides the secretariat for the Gender and Media Diversity Centre (GMDC), bringing together media training institutions committed to promoting gender equality in and through the media.

**Table 9.3: Gender and media research in the region**

| Year | Study | What it covered |
|---|---|---|
| 2003 | Gender and Media Baseline | First regional study to monitor news items on gender in the editorial content of Southern African media. It monitored more than 25 000 news items. |
| 2009 | Glass Ceilings in Southern African Media Houses | Survey of women and men in a representative sample of media houses - newsrooms, marketing, management, administration. |
| 2010 | Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) | Monitoring of news items from a representative sample of media outlets over a period of one month. This study followed on from the original 2003 *Gender and Media Baseline* study. |
| 2010 | Gender in Media Education (GIME) study | Staff and student composition, content and practise of media education and training. |
| 2015 | Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS) | A follow up to the 2010 GMPS research, covering 14 SADC countries. |

*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study 2015.*

**27,045 news items monitored in 2015 GMPS**

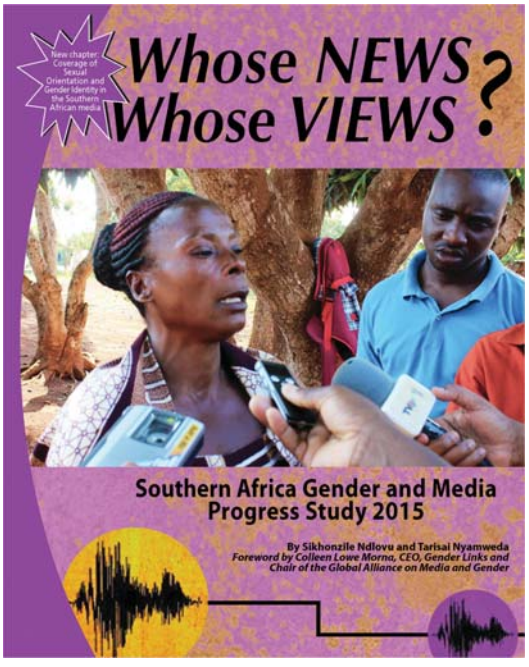



Table 9.3 summarises key gender and media research that has taken place in Southern Africa, culminating in the 2015 Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS). Covering 27,045 news items, researchers for the 2015 GMPS study monitored news content in 14 SADC countries over one month (slightly lower) than the 33,400 monitored in the 2010 GMPS. This three-part study sought to explore progress made since the 2009 *Glass Ceilings* study, the 2010 GMPS and the 2010 Gender in Media Education (GIME) audit. Together the studies analysed women and men in media studies, in media practise, and in media content. The 2015 GMPS represents a culmination of many years of research, advocacy, policy and training. Table 9.4 represents a summary of the key findings of these studies.

[3] http://www.unwomen.org/en/get-involved/step-it-up/media-compact#sthash.INLxFHhx.dpuf
[4] http://www.unwomen.org/en/get-involved/step-it-up/media-compact/partners#sthash.rTBhOQXB.dpuf

| Table 9.4: Summary of key GMPS findings | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AREA** | **2003** | **2010** | **2015 OVERALL** | **HIGHEST COUNTRY** | **LOWEST COUNTRY** | **2015 COE** | **2015 NON-COE** | **GLOBAL** |
| **Who speaks in news?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| Overall | 17% | 19% | 20% | 28% | 6% | 22% | 19% | 24% |
| Private media | N/A | 19% | 18% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Public media | N/A | 20% | 24% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Community | N/A | 22% | 21% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **Who is seen?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| Images in newspapers | N/A | 27% | 28% | 74% | 10% | N/A | N/A | 30% |
| **Women in adverts** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| % women in adverts | 41% | N/A | 50% | 50% | 49% | 50% | 50% | N/A |
| **Who decides?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| Women in the media | N/A | 41% | 40% | 55% | 26% | 40% | 37% | N/A |
| Women in senior management | N/A | 28% | 34% | 67% | 0% | 34% | 39% | N/A |
| Women in top management | N/A | 23% | 34% | 47% | 0% | 35% | 34% | N/A |
| **Who reports?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| All reporters | N/A | 27% | 34% | 69% | 0% | 34% | 34% | 37% |
| TV reporters | 38% | N/A | 42% | N/A | N/A | 50% | 49% | 38% |
| TV presenters | 45% | 46% | 61% | 68% | 30% | 47% | 55% | 57% |
| Radio reporters | 34% | N/A | 50% | 97% | 35% | 30% | 29% | 41% |
| Print reporters | 22% | N/A | 39% | 100% | 31% | 33% | 31% | 35% |
| **Sources and sex of reporter** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| Female sources/ women reporters | N/A | 31% | 25% | 100% | 2% | N/A | N/A | 16% |
| Female sources/male reporters | N/A | 15% | 17% | 4% | 5% | N/A | N/A | 22% |
| **What is reported on?** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| Economics | N/A | 12% | 17% | N/A | N/A | 18% | 11% | 17% |
| Politics | N/A | 19% | 21% | N/A | N/A | 17% | 66% | 16% |
| Sports | N/A | 18% | 17% | N/A | N/A | 18% | 19% | N/A |
| **Who speaks on what?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| Economics | 10% | 12% | 18% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 21% |
| Political stories | 9% | 13% | 14% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 18% |
| Sports | 8% | 12% | 13% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **Origin of stories** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| International | N/A | 22% | 16% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 26% |
| SADC | N/A | 8% | 8% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| National | N/A | 42% | 44% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Local/community | N/A | 18% | 28% | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| ***Gender based violence*** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| GBV stories compared to total | N/A | 4% | 1% | 1% | 0 | 0.4% | 0.4% | N/A |
| **Who speaks on GBV** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| % women sources | N/A | 27% | 58% | 100% | 18% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| ***HIV and AIDS*** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| HIV and AIDS compared to total | 3% | 2% | 0.2%% | 1% | 0.1% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **Who speaks on HIV and AIDS?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| % women sources | 39% | 20% | 30% | 100% | 23% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| ***Sexual orientation and gender identity*** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| SOGI stories compared to total | N/A | N/A | 0.1% | 68% | 0 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **Who speaks on SOGI?** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| % women sources | N/A | N/A | 46% | 68% | 0 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **Future of gender and media (GIME)** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** | **% W** |
| % female lecturers | N/A | 36% | 40% | 71% | 19% | 42% | 43% | N/A |
| % female students | N/A | 61% | 64% | 78% | 29% | 65% | 62% | N/A |

*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study 2015, page 7.*

Women constitute **20%** of sources in SADC

Gender censor-ship!

## Gender and freedom of expression

The quest for gender equality in and through the media occurs within the broader framework of struggles for freedom of expression. Last year marked the 25th anniversary of the Windhoek Declaration, which states that: "The worldwide trend towards democracy and freedom of information and expression is a fundamental contribution to the fulfilment of human aspirations."

All SADC countries guarantee the right to freedom of expression. All countries in SADC also have media laws and policies that govern the operations and behaviours of the media. Some countries, however, embraced stringent media laws that purport to uphold the status quo and which in many instances pose a threat to media freedom and democracy. In many ways, freedom of the media continues to decline in the region.

Recent freedom of the press statistics reveal that Freedom House considers three out of 15 SADC countries - Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Swaziland - as "not free." Meanwhile, Freedom House considers Namibia, South Africa and Botswana, often seen as the torchbearers of media freedom in the region due to progressive media laws, as "free."[5]

The 2017 *World Press Freedom Index* conducted by Researchers Without Borders reveals that no SADC country is among the world's top 20. Namibia now ranks 24th down from 17th place in 2016. South Africa's status has improved, moving from 39th to 31st place. Swaziland (152) and DRC (154) are amongst the worst in the world on press freedom.

**Table 9.5: State of media freedom in SADC**

| Country | Media provisions |
|---|---|
| Angola | The constitution protects freedom of speech and of the press, however Angola continues to have a restrictive media environment. Press status for the country is "not free." The only outlets with a truly national reach and most widely accessed - *Jornal de Angola*, television channel Televisão Publica de Angola (TPA) and Radio National de Angola (RNA) - remain under government's firm grip. Private media is operational; however, it is very limited.[6] |
| Botswana | The Botswana Constitution enshrines freedom of expression in Chapter 12. On the surface, the country seems to have a free and diverse media environment. However, several laws, like the National Security Act, restrict free access to information. The government has been reluctant to pass the Freedom of Information Act, although a number of government policies provide for it - including the national strategic vision, Vision 2016.[7] |
| DRC | DRC laws and the constitution provide for freedom of speech, information, and the press, but in practice, these rights are limited. The government and non-state actors (such as armed groups) often use other regulations and methods to restrict freedom of speech and suppress criticism.[8] The political allegiance found in the stories out of most media outlets in DRC normally reflects that of the owner. |
| Lesotho | While the Lesotho Constitution does not directly mention press freedom, it guarantees freedom of expression and information exchange. However, multiple laws, including the Sedition Proclamation No. 44 of 1938 and the Internal Security (General) Act of 1984 prohibit criticism of the government, give penalties for seditious libel, and endanger reporters' ability to protect the confidentiality of their sources.[9] |
| Madagascar | Madagascar enjoys a diverse and pluralised media landscape, which radio has, in recent times, dominated. Madagascar has a liberal policy towards the media, which has fostered the development of media pluralism and diversity.[10] |
| Malawi | Section 36 of the Malawi Constitution states that the press shall have the right to report and publish freely, within Malawi and abroad, and to be accorded the fullest possible facilities for access to public information. Additionally, Section 35 states that everyone shall have the right to freedom of expression. Radio continues to be the most popular medium of accessing information as it has the widest reach and is available in many languages.[11] |
| Mauritius | Freedom of expression has always been guaranteed under Section 12 of the Constitution of Mauritius. Within the same section, limitations are possible in the "interests of defence, public safety, public order, public morality or public health." Although Mauritius has not signed the SADC Gender Protocol, its constitution guarantees gender equality across all sectors. |
| Mozambique | Mozambique's revised 2004 constitution guarantees freedom of the press, explicitly protecting journalists and granting them the right not to reveal their sources. The environment for media freedom worsened in 2013, primarily due to an increase in attacks and detentions of journalists by both security forces and non-state actors, as well as the firing of editors whose coverage politicians deemed overly critical of the government.[12] |
| Namibia | The constitutional guarantee contained in Article 21.1 (a) of the Namibian Constitution gives all Namibians the right to freedom of expression, including freedom of the press and other media. |

[5] Freedom House. 2017. Populists and Autocrats: The Dual Threat to Global Democracy Accessed from https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/freedom-world-2017 accessed 12/07/2017.

| Country | Media provisions |
|---|---|
| Seychelles | Seychelles has very few media outlets. The main outlet is the Seychelles Broadcasting Corporation. The creation of the Seychelles Media Commission sought to provide a platform for adjudication on media issues while ensuring more freedom, and the reduction of television and radio licence fees. |
| South Africa | In the last couple of years, South Africa has seen the development and establishment of crucial industry bodies in response to the democratic imperative for accountability, including the newly revitalised Press Council and the Broadcast Complaints Commission (BCCSA). However, threats to media freedom from various quarters still exist - some by government and political parties; others from the profit-seeking corporate sector.[13] Conditions for media freedom improved marginally in 2015, with the courts reaffirming journalists' right to access information and further limiting arbitrary restrictions on publishing information in the public interest.[14] |
| Swaziland | The 2005 Constitution of the Kingdom of Swaziland guarantees freedom of expression. However, subsequent clawback clauses restrict this right, and King Mswati III can suspend the right to freedom of expression at his discretion. There are no laws or parts of laws restricting freedom of expression. |
| Tanzania | Tanzania has a very vibrant media industry with strong regulatory systems. The new draft constitution makes provisions for media freedom and free media access to all its citizens. Tanzania has many private media houses as well as a strong community media sector. |
| Zambia | Article 20 of the Zambian Constitution protects freedom of expression. Regarding media protection in the constitution, Article 20 (2) states that "subject to the provisions of this constitution no law shall make any provision that derogates from freedom of the press." Political issues continue to dominate the mainstream media, and diversity of content in the print media remains limited. Great strides have been made in the area of self-regulation, which has narrowed the divide between state and privately-owned media as they united in the establishment of the self-regulatory body, the Zambia Media Council (ZAMEC). However, citizens often cannot express themselves freely due to the perceived elevated levels of political intolerance.[15] |
| Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe has repressive media laws which hinder free media practice, including laws around access to information based on the principles of "official secrecy." Its media industry is also highly polarised, with private media aligning itself to civil society and human rights defenders, whilst the public media has been reduced to a government conduit. Persecution of journalists is common. |

*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study 2015, page 17.*

## New media regulation

New media is fast becoming a powerful vehicle to advance news and uncensored information. This is helping to amplify ordinary citizens' voices, especially women's. It also offers new opportunities and threats for the media landscape. It has opened access to far-reaching content, even in the most remote areas where traditional media would otherwise not reach. It is allowing for the creation and dissemination of information among all citizens, allowing them to be both producers and consumers of content.

Governments in the region are increasingly keen to regulate new media platforms to stifle dissent and alternative views. In 2016, Zimbabwe had an Internet shutdown following citizen protests against the government. Lawmakers in the country are now developing a new ICT policy, including a cyber law.[16] The country has also recently appointed new board members on the censorship board to regulate and control the media and film industry in the digital era.

In 2016, Angola enacted a new media law that limits freedom of expression, despite opposition from its journalist union and other groups. Meanwhile, Madagascar's National Assembly has adopted a cybercrime law that provides for prison sentences for anyone insulting or defaming a state representative online.[17] The law, however, does not clearly define "insulting and defaming."

This is a disappointing trend given the many opportunities presented by new and digital media for women to express themselves, coordinate and participate in online spaces.

**NEW** media presents opportunities for **women** to **express** themselves, coordinate and **participate** in **online** spaces

[6] https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/2015/angola
[7] http://downloads.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/trust/pdf/AMDI/botswana/amdi_botswana3_media_health.pdf
[8] http://uncoveringthedrc.blogspot.co.za/2012/01/media-landscape-in-drc.html
[9] http://www.mediamonitoringafrica.org/images/uploads/Lesotho_Interim_Report_PrintVersion_2.pdf
[10] http://www.unesco-ci.org/ipdcprojects/countries/madagascar
[11] http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/africa-media/09541.pdf
[12] https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/2014/mozambique
[13] http://www.gcis.gov.za/sites/www.gcis.gov.za/files/docs/resourcecentre/medialandscape2014_ch5.pdf
[14] https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/2016/south-africa
[15] http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/africa-media/10575.pdf
[16] International Medias Support.2016. Restrictions on WhatsApp in Zimbabwe. Accessed from https://www.mediasupport.org/restrictions-on-whatsapp-in-zimbabwe/
[17] Reporters Without Borders. 2016 Jail terms for defaming officials online under new law. Accessed from https://rsf.org/en/news/jail-terms-defaming-officials-online-under-new-law

## Gender in media laws, policies and training

**Article 29.1:** State parties shall enact legislation and develop national policies and strategies, including professional guidelines and codes of conduct, to prevent and address gender stereotypes and discrimination in the media.

**Article 29.2:** State parties shall ensure that gender is mainstreamed in all information, communication and media policies, programmes, laws and training in accordance with the Protocol on Culture, Information and Sport.

**Article 29.3:** State parties shall encourage the media, and media-related bodies to mainstream gender in their Codes of Conduct, policies and procedures and adopt and employ gender aware ethical principles, codes of practise and policies, in accordance with the Protocol on Culture, Information and Sports.

**No** member states have **enacted** specific gender and **media** legislation

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, Article 29.1 is new. However, it covers similar ground to Articles 29.2 and 29.3. These articles concern the mainstreaming of gender in policies and laws and professional standards. Mindful of constitutional provisions in most SADC countries for freedom of expression, the provisions are not prescriptive.

While the state can make requirements on gender equality for public entities and in licence provisions for the electronic media, other forms of media (especially private, print media) are mostly self-regulated. Thus it is important to strike a balance between what can be achieved through legislation, and what is better achieved through self-regulation.

Over the past year since the adoption of the revised Protocol, no member states have enacted specific gender and media legislation. However, countries have made progress in other areas, such as in Zimbabwe, where legislators recently revised the national gender policy with the aim of eradicating gender discrimination and inequalities in all spheres, including media and ICTs. Others have been mainstreaming gender in professional guidelines and codes of conduct. Table 9.7 summarises the gender provisions in legislation and Codes of Ethic in SADC countries:



Earline Chimoyo at The Polytechnic of Malawi interviewing Alex Machila of Association of People with Albinism - aiming at eradicating gender discrimination and inequalities in all spheres. *Photo: Noel Ntaba*

| Table 9.6: Legislation and codes of ethics in SADC[18] | |
|---|---|
| **Country** | **Legislation and Code of Ethics** |
| Angola | The Angola Code of Ethics for professional conduct guidelines stipulates that:<br>• "journalists must not identify, directly or indirectly, the victims of sexual crimes or under age delinquents, although they can state the gender and age of those involved. In the case of an express request from the victim that their identity be divulged, the journalist must alert them of the possible harm to their image and mental well-being."[19] |
| Botswana | The Botswana Press Council Code of Ethics 2004 provides as follows:<br>Media institutions must not identify victims of gender violence or publish material likely to contribute to such identification unless the victims have consented to such publications or law has authorized them to do this. In cases where consent is given subject to certain conditions, then such conditions must be respected.<br>• Media institutions must not publish material that is intended, or is likely, to cause hostility or hatred towards persons on the grounds of their race, ethnic origins, nationality, gender, physical disabilities, religion or political affiliation.<br>The Botswana Press Council developed a Gender Code of Practice in 2011. The Code outlines basic principles that guide media practitioners in disseminating information.<br>• Media coverage should be balanced, fair and inclusive of both sexes.<br>• Media houses must ensure a balance of women and men as sources, experts, authorities and commentators on a wide range of issues debated in the media.<br>• Media houses should have policies that encourage reporting on gender issues.<br>• Members should use non-sexist, gender-sensitive language.<br>• Media Practitioners are not permitted to report stories that advocate hatred based on gender, and which constitutes incitement to cause harm.<br>• Botswana also developed media gender policies in 2014. |
| DRC | In the Constitution,<br>• Articles 23, 24 and 25 have enshrined the right to freedom of expression, information and demonstration without discrimination.<br>• Law No. 04/017 of 2004 provides for the High Authority of Media (HAM) notes that gender is one factor that needs to be taken into account when appointments are made to ensure diversity with HAM. |
| Lesotho | The Media Code of Conduct notes that:<br>• A licensee shall not broadcast content which, measured by contemporary community standards is likely to incite or perpetuate hatred or gratuitous vilification of a person or section of the community on account of race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, marital status, sexual preference, age, disability, religion or culture.<br>The Lesotho Broadcasting Corporation Bill 2004 notes that:<br>• Programmes broadcast must reflect the circumstances and aspirations of women, men, and children in contemporary society in Lesotho. |
| Madagascar | Communication Act No. 90-031 of 21 December 1990 notes that:<br>• Everyone has the right to express opinions and ideas through the media regardless of hardware support. |
| Malawi | The Media Code of Ethics 2008 states:<br>• A journalist shall not identify victims of sexual assault or publish material likely to contribute to such identification unless, by law, he/she is at liberty to do so.<br>• A journalist shall avoid prejudicial or pejorative reference to a person's race, colour, ethnic origin, religion, sex or sexual orientation or to any physical or mental illness or disability unless such reference is relevant to the story. |
| Mauritius | • Mozambique has a Gender Policy and Strategy for the Implementation of the Promotion of Access by Women to Information.<br>The Code of Ethics notes:<br>• The media should strive to represent social reality in all its diversity, complexity and plurality, and shall strive to redress imbalances in society when reporting on women, children, minorities, and the underprivileged and disabled persons. |
| Mozambique | |
| Namibia | • Namibian National Gender Policy promote women's access to information and communication technology in order to eliminate the negative portrayal of women and girls. |
| Seychelles | • Code of Conduct for the Media, Broadcasting Regulation, Seychelles Media Commission Act 2010, Seychelles Broadcasting Corporation Act and Newspaper Act. |
| South Africa | The Broadcasting Act 1999 states:<br>• Broadcasters must contribute to democracy, development of society and gender equality and cater for a broad range of services and specifically for the programming needs in respect of children. |

[18] SADC, SARDC. 2016. SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016. Accessed from http://www.sardc.net/books/BI/SADC_Gender_Monitor_%202016.pdf
[19] Code of Ethics Angola. Accessed from http://www.journalism.co.za/blog/code-of-ethics-angola/

**Main-streaming** gender in media Codes of Ethics

Tanzania has a Media Gender Code of Ethics

| Country | Legislation and Code of Ethics |
|---|---|
| | • The licensee must demonstrate its commitment to reflecting and portraying women in their positive societal roles - as independent intellectual beings, as leaders, decision makers, academics, agents of change, and to award representation of men in roles that do not bolster gender ascendancy and stereotypes.<br>• The licensee must endeavour wherever possible to increase the number of programmes for, by and about women and must submit every three years to the regulator a programme of action aimed at implementing such pledge.<br>The Electronic Communications Act 36 of 2005:<br>• Provides for the regulation of electronic communications in the Republic in the public interest and for that purpose to promote broad-based black economic empowerment, with particular attention to the needs of women, opportunities for youth and challenges for persons with disabilities;<br>• Caters for a broad range of services and specifically for the programming needs of children, women, the youth and the disabled.<br>The Independent Broadcasting Act 1993 promotes the empowerment and advancement of women in the broadcasting services.<br>• The code of ethics and conduct for South African print and online media, effective since January 2016 notes, ". . . the media shall avoid discriminatory or denigratory references to people's race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation . . ." It also encourages journalists to commit to the highest standards in order to maintain credibility and keep the trust of the public. "This means always striving for truth, avoiding unnecessary harm, reflecting a multiplicity of voices in our coverage of events."[20] |
| Swaziland | The Swaziland National Association of Journalists Code of Ethics, notes:<br>• A journalist should not originate material which encourages discrimination on the grounds of ethnicity, colour, creed, gender or sexual orientation.<br>• Journalists should also be aware of gender-based assumptions and prejudices, and should guard against the continuous negative stereotyping. |
| Tanzania | The Media Gender Code of Ethics states:<br>• In their coverage of politics, economic issues or war, members shall ensure that their audience receives women's voices and views.<br>• Media houses shall take proactive steps to equally seek out the views of both women and men in their diversity regardless of their social standing.<br>• Media houses shall desist from reporting stories that advocate or incite violence based on gender which could constitute incitement to cause harm.<br>• Media houses are encouraged to incorporate gender balance in their recruitment and selection policies to ensure equitable representation of women in all levels of decision-making.<br>• Media houses shall prohibit the use of sexist language in their coverage.<br>The Code of Ethics for media professionals states:<br>• Ensure publications do not place gratuitous emphasis on gender, religion, minority groups, sexual orientation, age, race, colour or physical or mental disability.<br>• Refrain from reporting issues from the perspective that it is mainly a women's affair.<br>• Avoid the use of words and expressions that imply that women are inferior to men, because if constantly used, assumption of inferiority tends to be reinforced in the minds of the public. |
| Zambia | The Electoral Act 2006 notes that:<br>• the media shall report election news in an accurate manner and not make any abusive editorial comment, incite violence or advocate hatred based on race, ethnicity, tribe, gender, sex, political or religious conviction. |
| Zimbabwe | The Constitution of Zimbabwe 2013 Section 17 on gender balance in the media provides for<br>• Capacity building of media personnel on gender<br>• Every person is entitled to freedom of the media which freedom includes protection of the confidentiality of journalists sources of information<br>• In 2016, The Voluntary Media Council of Zimbabwe established a revised digital media code of ethics. Its general standards state: "Online content creators who subscribe to this Code should uphold ethical standards associated with informing, entertaining and educating the public . . . Information shared should be gender sensitive and balanced, men and women should be treated as equals in instances where they are sources, new subjects and as audiences."[21] |

[20] Press Council of South Africa. 2016. Code of ethics and conduct for South African print and online media. Accessed from http://www.presscouncil.org.za/ContentPage?code=PRESSCODE
[21] Voluntary Media Council of Zimbabwe. 2017. Revised digital media code of conduct. Accessed from http://www.vmcz.co.zw/index.php/news/597-revised-digital-media-code-of-conduct

## Gender policies in media houses

At the micro or work place level, gender equality in the media must begin with policy frameworks in order to institutionalise progress. However, across the region, media houses still struggle to adopt gender policies that guide their work. In Zimbabwe, for example, an audit carried out by Gender and Media Connect in 2014 revealed that only three out of 12 media houses surveyed had formulated gender policies.

The GL-initiated Centres of Excellence (COEs) for Gender in the Media constitute one of the more far-reaching efforts to transform gender equality in and through the media by working media house by media house. The COE process involves conducting a situation analysis; developing, and implementing a gender policy; monitoring and evaluating progress; and sharing good practices, including at Gender and Media Summits. Over the past five years, GL has expanded its original gender policy process by another ten stages, including on-the-job training on key thematic areas espoused in the SADC Gender Protocol. The 2015 GMPS showed a slightly higher proportion of women sources (22% in the COEs) than in the non-COEs (20%).

### *Media houses commit to equality*

Across the region, media houses have shared testimonial evidence of the difference that gender awareness is making in their daily work. Some media houses have shown commitment of leadership through drafting and implementing policies.



In Malawi, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and the Malawi Government, through the Ministry of Gender, have been yielding positive results by advocating for the formulation and implementation of gender policies in all media institutions. Currently, 12 media houses in Malawi have formulated and implemented gender policies. These include the Malawi Institute of Journalism, Nation Publications Limited and several radio stations including Capital FM, Joy, FM 101 Power, Transworld, Zodiac, Dzimwe community radio, Star, Radio Maria and Radio Islam.[22] The Ministry of Gender is also working to implement training and development programmes to build the capacity for mainstreaming gender at workplaces and in editorial content.



**BAM media commits to equality in the media**




Ntsepang Mosena, one of the owners of Lesotho's BAM Media Group, receives the Media COE award from GL CEO Colleen Lowe Morna at the fifth GEM Summit.
*Photo: Thoko Chikondi*

The team behind Lesotho's BAM Media is striving for more than just business impact: they also want to touch the lives of their audience by addressing gender inequalities in the country. BAM Media has taken concrete steps to empower women and highlight their significance and worth in the traditionally patriarchal business space. It also endeavours to guarantee a society that affords as many opportunities to women as to men.

It was not always this way. Before they took part in the gender mainstreaming process, the team at BAM Media mostly conformed to the system of keeping male-dominated coverage in the headlines. But that has recently changed. Women now appear as newsmakers in positive ways, not only as victims of abuse.

Gender mainstreaming efforts by BAM Media have and continue to bring about positive results. The Annual Finite WoMen Appreciation Awards event, hosted by BAM Media and now in its fifth year, has imparted a positive image for local women, while also helping men view women in this light. The event has seen significant growth over the years.

Other gender mainstreaming activities by BAM Media include offering equal work opportunities for women and men leaders in the company. BAM Media has also adopted an action plan to implement its gender policy and a disciplinary code that covers sexual harassment in the workplace.

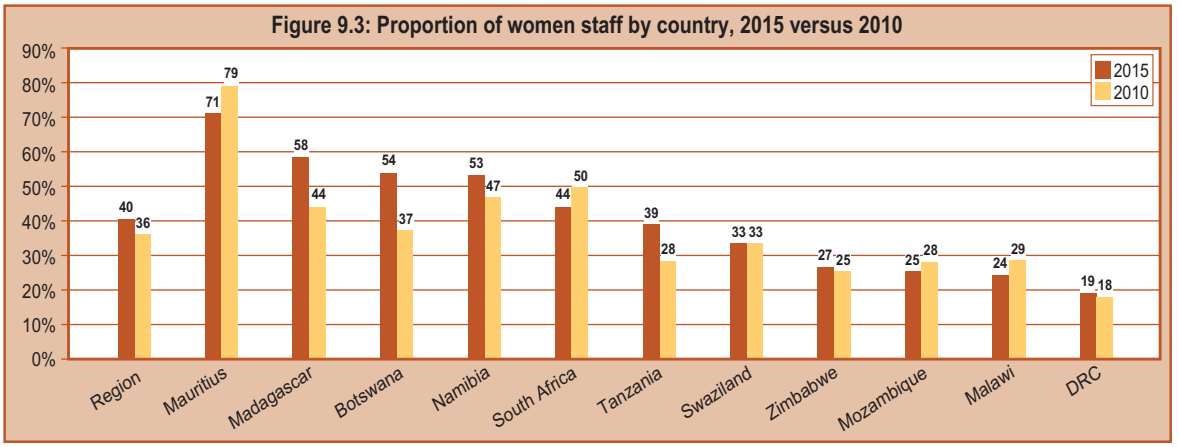
[22] http://www.wikigender.org/wiki/womens-access-to-employment-in-the-media-in-malawi/

Gender gaps in journalism and media training

## Training

Research shows that many practitioners do not consider gender an important part of journalism and media training. However, media education institutions and media development organisations have the capacity to influence attitudes, skills and knowledge of media practitioners, starting at entry level, but also through ongoing capacity-building initiatives. Massive gender gaps remain prevalent in media training institutional composition and in training curricula. Although a larger number of female students enrol in journalism and media studies, fewer women work as journalists. With the changing environment of the media industry, which is experiencing major cutbacks, some worry that in coming years even fewer women will work in the industry.

The 2015 gender in media education findings for the GMPS covered media departments at 15 tertiary institutions in 11 countries. This is ten fewer institutions than in the 2010 GIME study. These more up to date findings, however, do offer important new information on gender in media education and training.

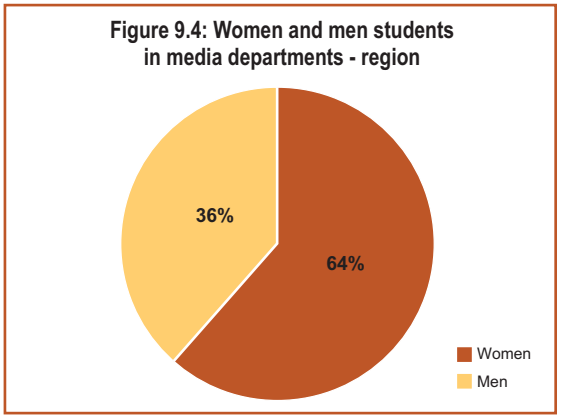



*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study 2015, page 106.*

***There has been an increase in the proportion of women trainers:*** from 36% in the 2010 GIME to 40% in the 2015 GMPS. Although change is slow, this is evidence that institutions may have started addressing the gender gaps in staff composition.

***However, this varies considerably by country:*** Figure 9.3 shows country variations over time. The University of Mauritius continues to lead (71%) although this figure has declined from 79% in 2010. The lowest proportion of female staff is in DRC (19%). The findings show a steady increase in the proportion of women staff in several countries: from 37% to 58% in Botswana; from 44% to 58% in Madagascar; and from 47% to 53% in Namibia.

***There are more women in journalism and media studies:*** The findings show a steady increase in women students in the region, from 61% in 2010 to 64% in 2015. While men remain in the majority of the academic staff, Figure 9.4 shows that women comprise the majority of students in the departments of media education and journalism training in the 15 tertiary institutions audited.




*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study 2015, page 107.*

***The high proportion of women students is also higher than the proportion of women working in the media.*** This finding reflects the challenges that women face working in the media: the dual roles of juggling domestic and professional responsibilities amongst others. This leads to many women journalists and media graduates opting for jobs in advertising, public relations, marketing and non-profit communication industries.

**Community of Practice takes journalism education online and across borders**

The findings in this chapter point to the need for stronger and more sustainable engagements with media training institutions. Capacity building is one of the key inputs to the effectiveness of a gender aware media, which is why GL has created an online Community of Practice (COP). Media trainers and students from all corners of the region use it to "connect, collect and coordinate" debate and dialogue, knowledge generation and sharing, and capacity building on key gender, diversity and media issues in SADC.

Reaching and transforming journalism and media studies and students is an effective long-term strategy for achieving gender equality in and through the media.

The COP builds on best practices on gender in the media from the GL and Southern African Broadcasting Association (SABA) fifth Gender and Media Summit 2016. It houses a wealth of knowledge resulting from the GMPS that included monitoring 27 000 news items; gender and diversity research conducted by students; online resources on gender and media diversity; an analysis of news items collected in the GMPS 2015 including artefacts; and the GEM Summit entries.



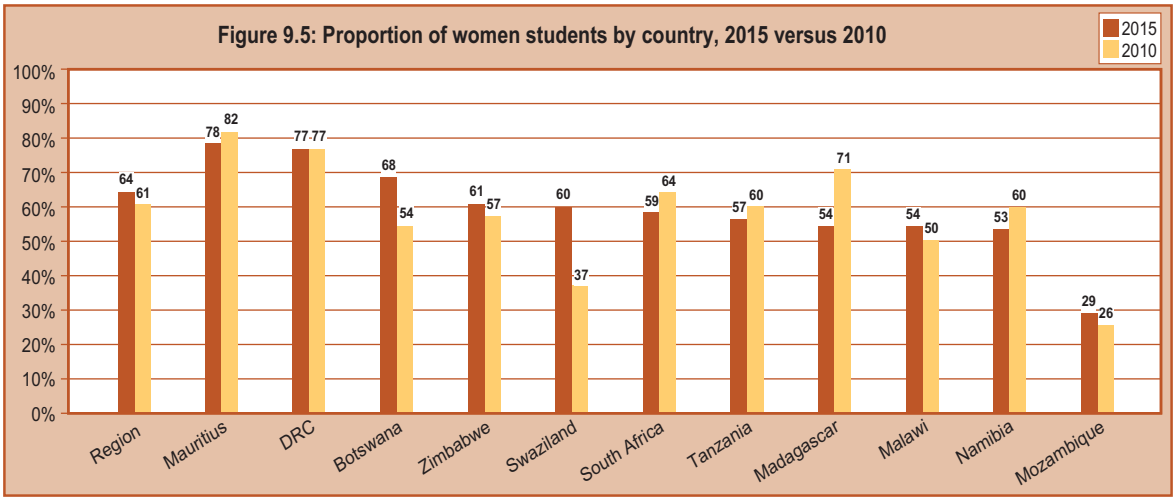
Southern African women media managers and editors attend a management and leadership training workshop in Windhoek.
*Photo: Tarisai Nyamweda*

This project adds value to innovative ways of teaching already used in journalism education especially use of technology to promote dialogue across countries of the region; share and engage in student research; and curate and engage with use contemporary case studies. Access to this platform also enhances journalistic skills, thus contributing to improvement of journalism education.

The COP is also an opportunity to enhance freedom of expression for both students and lecturers through dialogues and debates. It provides opportunities for journalism and media trainers to facilitate knowledge sharing and exchange as they show case progress in mainstreaming gender in their institutions.

The **GMDC COP** will "connect, collect and coordinate"

**Figure 9.5: Proportion of women students by country, 2015 versus 2010**




*Source: Gender and Media Progress Study. 2015, page 108.*

students outnumber

students in journalism and media studies

***In many countries, women comprise a large majority of students, but in a few, men form a majority:*** Figure 9.5 shows that although Mauritius still has the highest proportion of women students, there has been slight decline from 82% to 78%. Faculty Institute of Information and Communication Sciences (IFASIC) in DRC has maintained second position at 77%, the same as in 2010. Swaziland experienced a dramatic increase in women students from 37% to 60%. While in Madagascar and Namibia, the proportion of women declined. Mozambique is the only country in which women students make up less than half the total (29%, up from 26% in 2010).

## Academic research on gender

The period under review has seen a marked increase in research on a range of media issues, including gender and the media. The quantity of this research varies among the institutions and is greatly dependent upon a number of factors:

- The capacity of staff members to do research;
- Incentives for research; and
- Increased research on gender and the media by journalism and media students.

**Gender and media research in SADC media training institutions**



Memory Kutengule, a journalism and media studies student, records activities during a media and information literacy workshop in Blanytre at Malawi Polytechnic.
*Photo: Noel Ntaba*

Media trainers and academics who participated in a Gender in Media Education research symposium in May 2016 hosted by GL, noted that academic institutions require lecturers to publish research and contribute articles to refereed journals.

But they noted that staff in the departments of media, journalism and communications have not focused on gender and the media as a specialised field of inquiry and thus do not have connections to the wide body of knowledge on gender and the media, as well as the feminist media material that exists in academic institutions and universities across the globe.

Gender and media studies is in its infancy within academic institutions in Southern Africa. However, it has been the primary focus of the research and training collaboration between GL and the departments of media, journalism and communications in academic institutions across the region.

Gender and media studies focus on the ways in which the media contributes to gendered attitudes, identities and behaviours acquired by individuals in society, as well as on how the media perpetuates sex-role stereotypes through voice and representation.

Those attending the symposium listed the following as reasons to strengthen the development of gender and media research in the region:

- ***Knowledge generation:*** This research will contribute to teaching and learning at the national, regional and international levels by generating a body of gender and media knowledge from Southern Africa.
- ***Curriculum review:*** The gender and media knowledge that emanates from research can be used to inform media, journalism and communication departments' curriculum reviews.
- ***Media trends:*** Research will help to identify emerging trends in the media and thereby generate future research themes.
- ***Generating evidence for the media industry:*** Research findings provide evidence for engaging the media industry on practices that contribute to sexism and discrimination. The findings can feed into the development of continuous education trainings for media practitioners and provide practical recommendations for the continuous improvement of media institutions.
- ***National policy development:*** Research findings can be used to feed into and influence the development of gender-responsive information and communications policies at the national level and inform sections on media, information and communications in countries' national gender policies.
- ***Gender and media literacy:*** Findings from gender and media research can be used to strengthen media literacy education for citizens to increase their understanding of how to engage the media as informed consumers of media who can be pro-active in advocating for change.

Civil society organisations have also been in the forefront, training journalists on how to mainstream gender in news content regardless of the news topic. In SADC, GL is a key player in empowering media practitioners with gender analysis skills. Through its Media COE process, GL has trained journalists across the region on all themes of the SADC Gender Protocol and developed training packages and tools for use by the media. In DRC, the Congolese Union of Women in Media (UCOFEM), one of the main gender and media organisations in SADC, together with other organisations, has been conducting training for journalists on gender issues. The training encourages journalists to cover issues in a way that respects rights to freedom of expression, social justice and citizenship, while also conducting advocacy with media leaders so that they become involved in changing the image of women in their media houses.

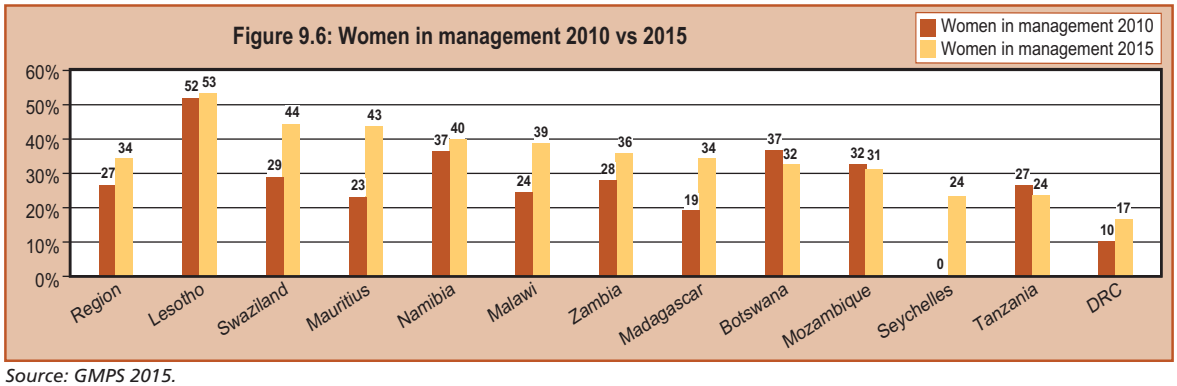
## Women and men in the media: people behind the news

**Article 29.4:** State parties shall take measures to promote the equal representation of women and men in the ownership, and decision-making structures, of the media.

### Ownership and decision-making

"It is a rare occurrence to find a woman heading a media house. Other than those that lead media houses by virtue of owning the media houses or being part of the family which owns the media houses, women that lead media houses as professional hired hands are few and far between."[23]

There is presently limited data on ownership of media by women and men in the region - the welcome new parameter introduced in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol. However, the governance structures of media houses in Southern Africa remain firmly in the hands of men (70%), with women constituting only 30% of those on boards of directors. The proportion of women has gone up by a mere two percentage points over the past five years since the last *Glass Ceiling* study[24].




*Source: GMPS 2015.*

Figure 9.6 shows that women now make up 34% of those in senior management in the media, up from 28% in 2010. The proportion of women in media management in the region ranges from 17% in DRC (up from 10% in 2010) to 53% in Lesotho (up from 52% in 2010).

However, a lack of women in key decision-making positions persists in other countries, such as Zimbabwe and South Africa. According to Zimbabwe National Statistics (ZimStat) the Zimbabwe Newspapers Group (Zimpapers) employs just seven women editors, compared to 51 men editors.

Women in management have **gone up** to **34%** from **27%** in 2010

[23] WANIFRA. 2016. Women In News Handbook: Gendered Manager in the Media. https://s3-eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/womeninnews-dev/resources/1496060549uDwZ2C.pdf
[24] Lowe Morna, C and Made, P. 2009. Glass Ceiling: Women and Men in Southern African Media. Gender Links, Johannesburg.

**Women under-represented at all levels of decision-making**

"Women are under-represented at all levels of decision-making. It is also important to highlight that the number of women has remained at seven over three years while that of men has increased by four. Lack of women representation in vital positions of the media mean that women are not able to present, defend and mobilise support for issues that affect their lives. At the Zimbabwe Broadcasting Holdings women were critically less represented than men especially among producers, editors, reporters, manager and camerapersons."[25] In Zimbabwe media, women do not outnumber men in any category, even as news presenters.

In South Africa, the 2014 *State of the Newsroom report* by Glenda Daniels indicates a decline of approximately 9% in the proportion of women holding editor-in-chief positions at major South African media titles.

**Supporting women in decision-making in the media spurs progress**

The World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers (WAN-IFRA) is engaged in the Women in News project in Middle East and North Africa and sub-Saharan African countries including Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe. It emphasises using coaching, mentoring and networking to complement media and newsroom leadership training.

An evaluation of the programme reveals that of the 120 women journalists, managers and editors from more than 40 media houses who passed through the programme between 2010 and 2014:

- 44% received a promotion to a new position within their organisations;
- 75% made a career move of their choosing;
- 68% felt there are more opportunities for women to progress within organisations; and
- 84% felt more motivated to remain in the industry as a direct result of the programme.

Participants also reported having greater confidence, enhanced capabilities to perform in their positions, and a feeling of having overcome the relative isolation within which they were operating. Individual participants felt empowered after they had repeatedly come up against institutionalised gender discrimination and harassment in the newsroom and within the management structures of their media. This resulted in a significant number of women choosing to leave their media to launch their own initiatives, or leave the industry altogether. The issue of gender bias in the news, or being relegated to certain beats, was a pervasive yet "hidden" issue - many were not even aware that such biases existed. Built on this logic, and WAN-IFRA's own status as a partner to the news media industry and its strong legacy of successful industry mobilisation and campaigning, WAN-IFRA has developed an advocacy component to Women in News, which focuses on overcoming the cultural and institutional bottlenecks to gender mainstreaming.

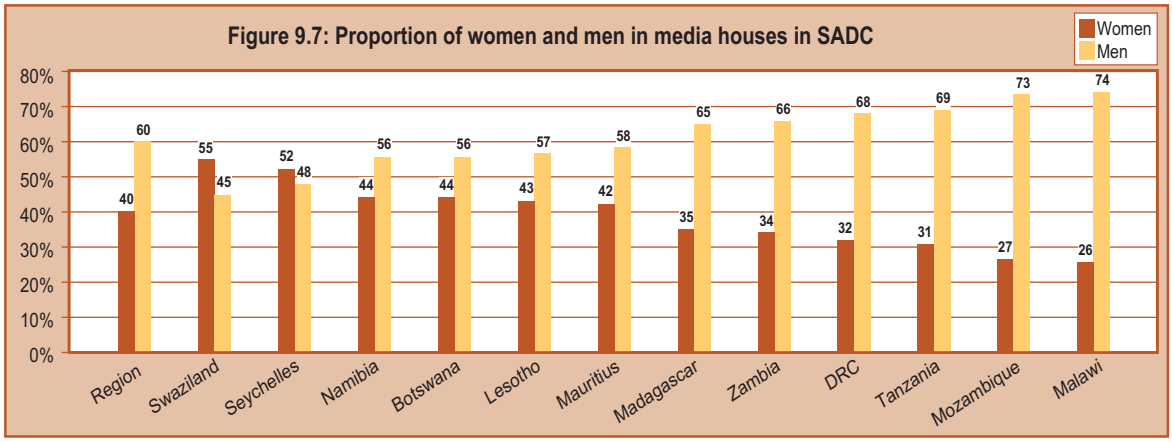
*Extract from Women in News: WAN-IFRA Gender and Media Freedom Strategy*[26]



Men dominate in practise in the SADC Region. *Photo: Zotonateinanina Razanandratefa*

[25] http://www.zimstat.co.zw/sites/default/files/img/Women_and_Men_Report_2016.pdf
[26] Women in News: WAN-IFRA Gender and Media Freedom Strategy Terms of Reference Mid-term evaluation 2017

## Women and men in media practise




*Source: GMPS 2015.*

***Men predominate as employees in Southern African media houses:*** Figure 9.7 shows that the media is a largely a male-dominated industry with men constituting 60% of the employees compared to 40% women. This is one-percentage point below 2009 findings.

***Considerable variation exists between countries:*** Swaziland (55%) has the highest proportion of women in the media, while Malawi is lowest at 26%. Of the 12 countries for which researchers could obtain country-level data, ten had fewer than 50% women employees in the media.[27] As only one media house in Zimbabwe responded to the survey, this is one of the countries in which GL does not have country-level results. However, related research in Zimbabwe reflects the extent to which the media remains a hostile environment for many women.




### Gender discrimination rife in South Africa newsrooms



In South Africa, Media Monitoring Africa investigated the extent of gender discrimination in newsrooms. The study reveals that the root causes of gender discrimination, the inequalities and social injustices that continue to persist, maintain a grip due to deeply ingrained patriarchy in society. It highlighted gender stereotypes as one of the biggest drivers of gender discrimination. Sexual harassment is the most common type of discrimination experienced by participants.

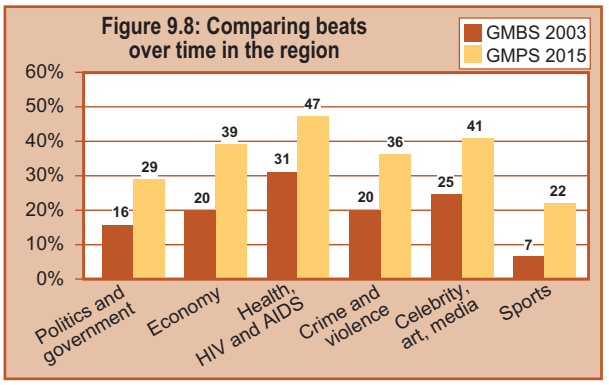
The study found that "women journalists were an easier target of sexual harassment than their male counterparts but that their experiences of this was more a result of comments made in passing regarding how a female colleague was dressed or being vulgar towards women than being coerced into sexual relationships." It noted that many believe that sexual harassment is an individual problem rather than an organisational issue "as it was a simpler form of discrimination to deal with compared to glass ceiling and financial inequality."

The study found that more junior-level employees fall victim to discrimination and most perpetrators hold positions of seniority and are predominantly male. It identified 37% as male managers.[28]

The study also revealed that 54% of journalists are not aware of policies for dealing with sexual harassment in their workplaces. This is a major concern because it can hinder women journalists from seeking justice after such violations."[29]

[27] Insufficient media houses responded in South Africa and Zimbabwe to make country-level conclusions.
[28] Dibetso, (L) 2014. Visible Invisibility. Gender Discrimination in South Africa Media Workplaces. Media Monitoring Africa. Accessed from http://www.mediamonitoringafrica.org/images/uploads/VisibleInvisibilityReportweb.pdf
[29] Ibid.

**Women** under-represented **as news source at only 20%**



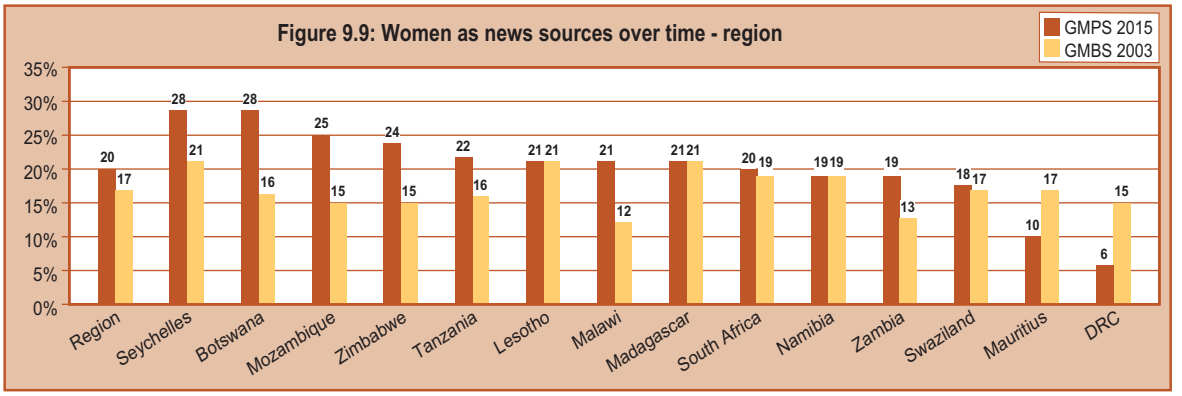

*Source: GMPS 2015.*

***Women reporters are venturing into male-dominated beats.*** Figure 9.8 shows that women reporters continue to challenge stereotypes and make strides in covering all news beats. The region has seen a marked improvement in this area. The biggest gains appear in the coverage of the economy, where the proportion of women reporters rose from 20% in the GMBS to 39% in the 2015 GMPS. Women also now comprise 22% of sports reporters (traditionally a male preserve) up from 7% in 2010.

## Representation of women in the media

**Article 29.6:** State parties shall encourage the media to give equal voice to women and men in all areas of coverage, including increasing the number of programmes for, by and about women on gender-specific topics that challenge gender stereotypes.

The media has a long-standing tradition of unequal representation and portrayal of women in media. This leads to consistent silencing of women's voices in the media even on issues that most concern them.



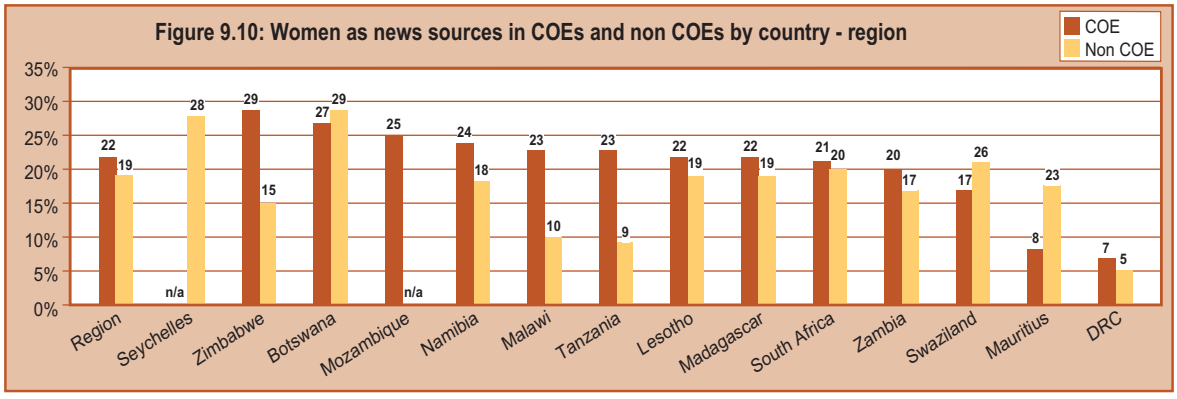

*Source: GMPS 2015.*

***There has been negligible change in the proportion of women sources, from 17% in the 2003 GMBS to 20% in the GMPS:*** Journalists still present news overwhelmingly from a male perspective. Figure 9.9 shows that women remain underrepresented as news sources in the media at just 20% of sources. This is four percentage points below the global GMMP average and two percentage points less than the GMMP African average. Further, no countries have reached one-third women's representation in media.



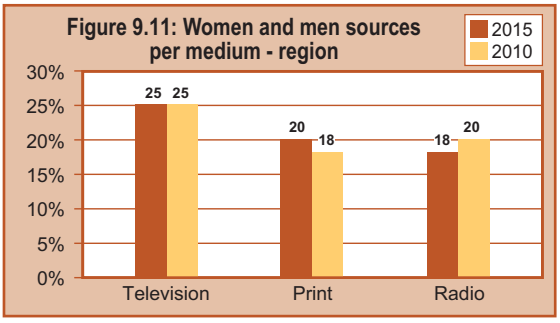

News coverage in some South African newspapers.
*Photo: Tarisai Nyamweda*

***There is more forward than backward movement at country level:*** Only two countries (Mauritius and DRC) have slipped backwards with regard to the proportion on women sources. Lesotho, Madagascar and Namibia remained the same over 12 years, while Seychelles has maintained its position at the top (28%). At 28%, Botswana ties with Seychelles and made the most significant improvement, compared to 16% in 2003.




*Source: GMPS 2015.*

***COEs perform slightly better than non-COEs.*** Figure 9.10 shows that, overall, women comprised 22% of all sources in COEs compared to 19% in non-COE media houses. This pattern is true for eight of the 12 countries that monitored both COEs and non-COEs. Zimbabwe registered the highest gap: 29% for COEs compared to 15% for non-COEs. In Namibia, COEs registered 24% women sources compared to 18% in non-COEs.[30] GL has not rolled out its media COE project in Seychelles. Meanwhile, non-COEs scored higher than COEs in Botswana, Mauritius and Swaziland. GL will conduct country and newsroom research to better understand these findings.




*Source: Gender Links 2015.*

***There is no marked difference in the way that print, radio and television media access women sources compared to the 2010 GMPS.*** At 25%, television remains the medium with the highest proportion of women sources. Print media gained two percentage points from 18% to 20%. Radio has the lowest proportion of women sources (18% compared to 20% in 2010).

***Public media leads the way on women's representation:*** The GMPS shows that women comprise 24% of sources in the public media compared to 18% in the private media and 21% in community media. While it is encouraging that public media performs slightly better than private and community media, overall performance by all three remains disappointing.



In DRC, UCOFEM media monitoring in September 2013 found that women made up only 27% of sources and voices on TV, 22% on radio and only 16% in print media. In addition to low representation, qualitative monitoring through case studies shows three main ways that media perpetuates sexist stereotypes. Firstly, women continue to be represented as sexual objects, as victims, as "servants," or as ordinary persons, whereas media shows men as leaders powerful and extraordinary persons. Secondly, media presents women and men in "traditional roles," which translates into the private sphere for women and the public sphere for men. Finally, the media often sensationalises issues, such as violence, to reinforce existing stereotypes.[31]



Election coverage results released by Tanzania Media Women's Association (TAMWA) in 2016 show

**TV (25%) has the highest proportion of women sources in the region**

[30] The Namibia Broadcasting Corporation (Radio and Television) is the only COE in Namibia, whilst 9 non COEs participated.
[31] https://www.awid.org/news-and-analysis/women-still-lag-behind-media-democratic-republic-congo

Subtle stereo-types are **most** dangerous because they **demean women**

that the "media continue to use men as the main sources in the news content. From about 2577 sources used in various media during the 2015 election, men were 2256, which is about 88%, compared to women, who contributed only 303 sources which was equivalent to 11%."[32] This study also reveals that even when media practitioners made efforts to ensure women's voices, they rarely appeared on the front pages. Most women, in print media, started to be visible after the fourth page of any given newspaper.



In Zambia, research conducted monthly by Panos Institute Southern Africa (PANOS) since December 2016 assesses quantity of coverage of women in Zambia's newspapers. It found that "women are severely marginalised by the media and this undermines public opinion about their abilities and capabilities. Panos is generating this evidence each month and using it to advocate for better representation and portrayal of women in media coverage."[33] In January 2017, the assessment showed that women's representation in newspapers comprised just 10% of total coverage.



A 2016 study on poverty and media conducted by Media Monitors and the Zimbabwe Union of Journalists in Zimbabwe shows that men's voices dominate in all mediums, with women representing a minority of those interviewed in newspapers (19%), television (34%) and radio (24%). Although poverty disproportionately affects women, media ignores their opinions on the issue in many cases. When media does portray women, it is in a skewed way: they remain the face of poverty, "while men are represented as solution holders to poverty alleviation," the report notes. "For example, women are depicted mostly as victims of poverty. Women continue to be unidentified and nameless, but they are also the picture of the 'residents' who are affected by poor service delivery."[34]

## Portrayal of women in the media




**Article 29.6:** State parties shall take measures to discourage the media from:

- Promoting pornography and violence;
- Depicting women as helpless victims of violence and abuse; or exploiting women, especially in the area of entertainment and advertising, and undermining their role and position in society; and
- Reinforcing gender oppression and stereotypes.

"Depictions of women and men in the media has an enormous impact of how society views them," notes a recent report by the Ethical Journalism Network. "More often than not, the media has been blamed for promoting misogyny and sexism through its content and institutional cultures. Media can help to shape public opinion for action in favour of positive action to defend women's rights by telling the story of gender violence through the ethical, careful and sensitive prism of quality journalism."[35]

## Gender stereotypes in the media

The 2015 GMPS found several examples of stories perpetuating stereotypes about women. Women are typically presented as sexual predators or in stories that emphasise their physical qualities such as beauty. Stereotypes are either blatant/overt or subtle. Subtle stereotypes are the most dangerous because they demean or type cast women using what is perceived as normal in society whilst the blatant ones are right in your face.

[32] Sanga, E (2016). Gender gap in media election coverage. Press Statement, Dar es Salaam, 2016. Accessed from http://www.tamwa.org/tamwa/index.php/blog/features-stories/gender-base-violation/item/86-gender-gap-in-media-election-coverage
[33] How Zambian newspapers report on women covered women in January 2017. Accessed from http://www.panos.org.zm/index.php/2017/06/10/2937/
[34] Media Monitors. 2016 .Reporting poverty in Zimbabwe: A media monitoring report. Accessed from http://cdn.agilitycms.com/who-makes-the news/Reports/Reporting%20Poverty%20in%20Zimbabwe.pdf
[35] http://ethicaljournalismnetwork.org/media-stereotypes-and-the-scourge-of-violence-against-women-introduction-by-ejn-director

# Zambian media blames ♀ dress




*New Vision* 3 April 2015 carried a story 'Cover that flesh' that blames women's dressing for moral decay in Zambia. The story which was accompanied with pictures of women wearing mini skirts and dresses has a headline which in essence is understood to order women to cover their bodies and it uses a derogatory word "flesh".

It further has a caption which says that things have gone haywire in Zambia because of the way women dress by exposing their bodies. It accuses women to have brought about moral decay in the Zambian society. The article is one of the stories which reinforce blatant stereotypes in that it demonises women and demeans them by bringing their integrity into question. The story reinforces the stereotypical belief that women's bodies are under the control of society or men meaning, women are under constant surveillance and policing.

Le Defi Quotidien of 6 April 2015 carried a story '*Des prosituees arretees dans une Guest House a Flacq*', which reinforces gender stereotypes around women's occupations as sex workers in Mauritius.

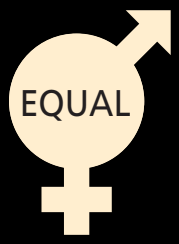
The article is about prostitutes who were caught red handed in a guest house in the east of Mauritius. The article is accompanied with a picture of a lady whose face is not included but she is wearing a very short and revealing dress with high boots. With crossed arms, it looks like she is waiting for a client. The prostitute is standing next to a dustbin which indirectly shows the status attributed to her. This picture associated with the article is altogether irrelevant for it is not the picture of the person included in the story.

In Mauritius, sex workers have been ostracized by society and have received attention only for scandalous news which serve to denigrate them even more. This one article is a clear example stating that sex workers are selling their bodies and 'charms' for Rs 1250. The journalist terms the prostitutes as 'filles de joie' which means 'joyful girls' in English. This sarcastic remark shows the lack of respect for women in general and the article goes further to denigrate women by elaborating on the poses and nude situations the police found the sex workers in.

The 3 April 2015 *H-Metro* edition in Zimbabwe carried a story that typically celebrates women's beauty. The story entitled, 'Edgars celebrates beauty' describes how Edgars Stores Limited marked the end of their Beauty Extravaganza Promotion by treating women to free makeovers outside the stores to create awareness and celebrate the beauty of local women. Whilst on the surface this may appear as a celebration of beauty it reinforces societal beliefs that women are always worried about their looks and are willing to spend money on beauty commodities. It also portrays women as slaves of beauty.




While the article appears to be a simple store promotion, it is loaded with a lot of subtle gender stereotypes. The headline "Edgars celebrate beauty" reaffirms gender stereotypes entrenched in our society about how women are supposed to look. There appears to be set standards of beauty. Women are not born beautiful but have to be taught how to look beautiful hence "we used today as an activation day where we set up outside the store and were giving makeovers to women for free who want free makeover advice". Not only that, women buy beauty in order to meet societal expectations as the story states that "the promotion is meant to share ideas and knowledge regarding awareness of the products that we sell that is cosmetics namely fragrances, hair care and body care lines".




feature equally in advertise-ments

The story quotes Edgars Stores Limited Marketing Executive while all other seven women are seen but not heard. While the story is placed inside the paper, there is use of full colour include writing the headline in red and framing it in red, the colour associated with love, as if to say women are only loved for their beauty. The story is accompanied by three photographs with images of seven women. With no voice or image of men, the story makes beauty a "task for women" in their attempt to please men. A close camera shot on the women's faces makes it worse as it sends a message that only light skinned women are beautiful.

An article from *Le Matinal* 7 April 2015, describes the achievements of 3 young and talented women cooks who have won a prize for a recent competition in Mauritius. While the women are glorified and congratulated for their work and creativity greater credit is given to a male cook for initiating them in the competition.

The success of all the three women was not described as one based on merit and hard work; rather it was attributed to their male partner. This article shows the patriarchal nature of society and the value it places on women. Women have always been attached to domestic work and women as cooks is no exception. However, in the restaurant industry, women cooks are most of the time inferior to men. This shows that the cooking profession is related to men who are always termed as high level chefs compared to women who are inferior.

Additionally, in the article it is clearly mentioned that the organizer of the competition is a renowned male chef and even within the testimonial of the chef he highlights that 'the girls were wonderful in what they did'. This connotation speaks loud. While the latter could have used words like 'chef' or 'cooks', he chose to highlight on the word 'girls' which again marks the segregation between men and women in the restaurant industry.

## Gender in advertising

As part of the 2015 GMPS, GL conducted a follow up to the 2007 Gender and Advertising in Southern Africa study by exploring the representation and portrayal of women and men in advertising. This section draws comparisons in the manner women are portrayed in adverts compared to news content.

The 2007 study showed that women are more likely to be seen than heard; they predominated in billboards and still images and hardly featured in voice-overs; and it is in these still images blatant stereotypes were at their worst. In 2007 overall, women constituted 41% of all subjects (those featuring in the advertisements as voices and or images) in the advertising monitoring. No country in the advertising study had equal numbers of women and men subjects.

One of the ways in which gender stereotypes are reinforced in advertising is the fact that women are far more likely to feature as images than as voices in advertisements. In the study, women comprised 54% of subjects in billboards followed by 51% of the subjects in print advertisements. In contrast, they comprised 42% of TV and 35% of radio advertisement subjects.

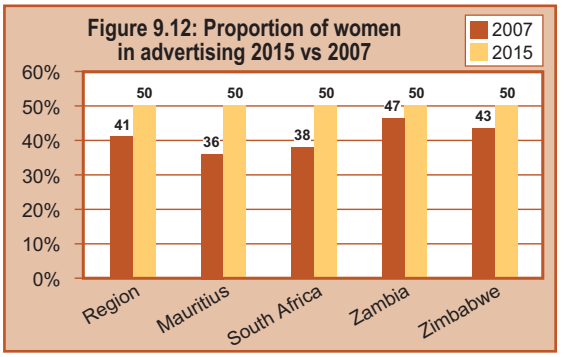
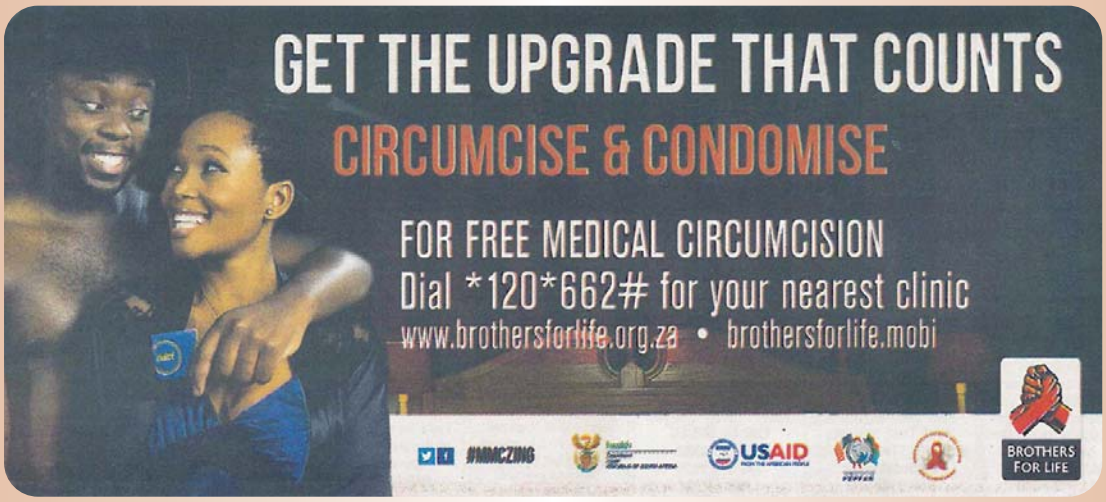



Figure 9.12 shows that the regional average of women in advertising went up from 41% to 50%. Mauritius recorded the highest increase from 36% to 50%. The monitoring yielded examples of gender aware practise.




***Women and men practising safe sex:*** This advert on male circumcision, *Get the Upgrade that counts* appeared in *Daily Sun*, 23 April 2015. The advert aims to increase awareness on circumcision and condom use for better and quality health. It shows the benefits and transition that circumcision can bring forth. The title of the advert is written in bold white text cast against a black background such that it stands out. The other words ''circumcise and condomise'' are written in red and stand out as red light indicating the most important message on the advert.

Visual images illustrate the message fairly. The advert shows both a man and woman as partners suggesting that this can benefit both sexes. The body language and eye contact shows the intimacy, partnership and trust between the woman and man featured in the article. It suggests that they are both aggregable to the idea and are content about the benefits it will bring forth.

Language is also positive as it does not demean anyone. This can allow for the advert to be received positively by the public and not be deemed only for men. Seeing both a man and a woman in the advert can also encourage women to talk to their partners about male circumcision and encourage them to for circumcision for the benefit of both partners. The messaging in the advert goes further to educate audiences that it does not only stop with circumcision but also condomise to achieve better sexual health.

***Women in banking:*** The ZNBC TV, 13 April, carried an advertisement on mobile phone banking. This is a gender balanced advertisement showing the equal worth and respect of men and women in society. It shows that both women and men have money which they can bank using mobile banking. as it can be seen in the advertisement, both man and woman are showing accessing banking service of the Standard Chartered Bank sending a message that even both earn money.

## Coverage of Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity

There is very limited coverage of Sexual Orientation and Gender Identities (SOGI) in the region. Introducing monitoring of SOGI for the first time, the GMPS found only 0.1% of stories on these issues. Most SOGI stories appeared in South African media. In Tanzania, homosexuality is criminalised under the Sexual Offences Act of 1998. Talking about Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) issues is taboo in the region and homophobia and transphobia are common. As a result, media ignores these issues.[36] In Zimbabwe, researchers note a level of self-censorship in the practice of journalism, especially when reporting SOGI.[37]

Media shies away from SOGI coverage

[36] FesMedia (2015) African Media Barometer-Tanzania Frederich Ebert Stiftung and Media Institute of Southern Africa, Windhoek Namibia. Accessed from http://www.fesmedia-africa.org/home/what-we-do/africa-media-barometer-amb/amb-country-reports/
[37] Mhiripiri, N.A AND Adebayo, L.2014. Reporting Homophobia in Zimbabwe and Nigeria media. Dakar.Accessed from http://www.academia.edu/13608624/Reporting_Homophobia_in_the_Zimbabwean_and_Nigerian_media

**Coverage of Sexual Orientation and Gender Identities often problematic in the region...**

**From taboo to tolerance: time for LGBTI to come out of the shadows**




March against Gender Based Violence in Orange Farm, South Africa highlights protection of LGBTI rights. *Photo: Thandokuhle Dlamini*

The topic of sexual orientation and gender identity (SOGI) remains a contentious issue in SADC and in Africa at large. Strict legislation, and in some instances merely socially accepted norms that act against realisation of diverse SOGIs, have been promulgated to curb this so-called "un-African" trait. Some countries in the SADC region are openly opposed to acknowledging and addressing issues of diverse sexual orientation. Zimbabwe and Zambia are the most resistant, whilst Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia and South Africa rate amongst the most accommodative.

The absence of legislation specific to SOGI has partly perpetuated increase in GBV. There is a close co-relation between sexual orientation and GBV, yet this link is often absence in most discourse, including in the media. It is as if it doesn't happen. In an environment where there is abundant state-controlled media, controlled by governments that have institutionalised homophobia, it is necessary to take note that homophobia and transphobia extend into the media creating newsrooms that strategically misrepresent or underrepresent SOGI.

Tensubi (2010), argues "the media remain both a powerful "creator" and "moderator" of issues that, hitherto, may have been treated as taboo, controversial, a lightning rod, or one about which people would or should neither "ask, nor tell."[38] Due to its wide reach and agenda setting role the media has the potential to change mind-sets and perceptions on SOGI. However, media have often been part of the problem rather than the solution in enhancing effective communication in this regard.

For the first time, GMPS research looked at SOGI in the SADC region in the 2015 study, analysing representations in terms of quantity of coverage, portrayal and voice. It found an absence of SOGI stories and a lack of voices of SOGI activists, underscoring a need to push media practitioners to address this gap. Where SOGI is covered in the region, coverage is often problematic when considering representations and sourcing patterns. Research often found representations illustrating LGBTI people being distilled to the sex act that accompanies their orientation.

This research is ground-breaking in that it is the first comprehensive study on media coverage and portrayal of LGBTI issues in SADC. Hopefully it will be followed by further research. It provides vital baseline data that will form a basis for all advocacy interventions going forward. GL is also aware of the lack of coordination around this issue, and worked with Ford Foundation to provide a networking opportunity that culminated in the key GMPS SOGI research questions.

Part of the media's role involves representing the diverse voices of society and educating the public about challenges faced by average citizens. However, so far, at least on this topic, the media continues to miss this opportunity.

[38] Tensubi, SK.2010. An exploratory overview of African Media Representation of Homosexuality : Lessons from Nollywood in International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences Volume 5 and 6. Accessed from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274377650_An_Exploratory_Overview_of_African_Media_Representation_of_Homosexuality_Lessons_from_Nollywood

## The Gender and Media Summit

As part of the campaign to promote gender aware reporting that challenges stereotypes, promotes debates, empowers women, and also conforms to the journalistic principles of balance, truth and fairness, GL and the Southern Africa Broadcasting Association (SABA) coordinated the fifth Gender and Media Summit and Awards in Namibia in August 2016. Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila, Prime Minister of the Republic of Namibia and the only woman prime minister in SADC, officially opened the summit, which ran under the theme "Empowering women in and through the media - Providing a voice for gender equality."

The bi-annual summits serve as a useful platform to deliberate and discuss emerging gender and media issues in the region and highlight concerns on gender and media. The 2016 summit offered a global overview of initiatives taken to address women's empower-ment, considering the SDGs and the Post-2015 Agenda.

Since 2004, participants have gathered in South Africa to share best practices in this area of work. In 2016, on the 25th anniversary of the Windhoek Declaration on an Independent and Pluralistic African Press, the summit took place in Namibia for the first time. It featured awards for gender in media leadership and practice, as well as the launch of the Southern Africa branch of the Global Alliance for Media and Gender (GAMAG). The summit also included the launch of the regional GMPS study. The following stories are among the winners of various regional awards at the summit:




High level dignitaries at the opening session of the Fifth Gender and Media Summit in Namibia. *Photo: Veronika Hambili*

Gender and Media **Summits** discuss emerging **gender** and **media issues**

Media **can be** part of the **positive** solution in the fight against GBV

**Gender aware reporting showcased at the summit**

**"The irony of women empowerment" by Joseph Mwale, Malawi (Winner, print)**
*Nation on Sunday*, one of the publications for Nation Publications Limited-NPL in Malawi, published the story, "The Irony of Women Empowerment," divided into six-sub stories on 14 February 2016. It exposes problems faced by women, especially in attaining elective and appointed positions in Malawi. In the story, women explain the challenges they face with the electorate and within their political parties. It then zeroes in on what political parties, civil society and the international community are doing in Malawi to help women gain elective positions. The article went in depth to provide and analyse the numbers on how women have been faring in Malawi elections since 1994. It further looks at the prevailing elective laws and protocols supporting women's participation in politics. The article ends by identifying possible solutions to each problem.

**"Early Marriages in Zambia," by Pennipher Sikainda-Nyirenda, Zambia (Winner, TV)**
This documentary looks at early marriage as a major challenge in most rural parts of Zambia. It outlines the experience of three young children who fell victim to early marriage. In their villages, located in Nchelenge District of Luapula, adults marry off both girls and boys for various reasons. The children interviewed, two girls and a boy, shared their experience and the circumstances that led to their marriages. The documentary increases awareness about the dangers of early marriage and the effects this has on the children and society. While some children have failed to see beyond marriage, the children in this story rebuilt their lives after their experience. In addition, the documentary highlights these young children not as victims but as change agents in their community.

**The story of "Anatoria" by Aurelie Gabriel at Radio Kwizera FM, Tanzania (Winner, radio)**
"For three years, Anatoria (not her real name), 13, has been staying with her uncle in Mubuhenge village, North-western Tanzania. She does not receive the very basics of life such as clothing and a balanced diet, and she is punished corporally." This is how Gabriel details the story of the struggles of a girl child, a topic often overlooked or purposely not talked about. This programme aimed to help a young girl who had suffered abuse under the care of a relative by reuniting her with her mother. Gabriel sought to highlight the plight of the weak and stir dialogue in the community. Further, the story had a happy ending: the reunion succeeded.

## Coverage of Gender-Based Violence

**Article 29.7:** State parties shall take appropriate measures to encourage the media to play a constructive role in the eradication of GBV by adopting guidelines which ensure gender sensitive coverage.

The SADC Gender Protocol encourages the media to desist from promoting violence against all persons, especially women and children, and from depicting women as helpless victims of abuse and reinforcing gender oppression. It also encourages the media to play a constructive role in the eradication of GBV through gender sensitive coverage. However, as found in the GMPS in 2015:

***The media is often part of the problem rather than the solution when it comes to coverage of gender violence:*** The GMMP 2015 study revealed that "Overall, women remain more than twice as likely as men to be portrayed as victims than they were a decade ago, at 16% and 8%, respectively.[39]

[39] http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2015/11/press-release-gmmp#sthash.E8TuFzbf.dpuf

***GBV is not newsworthy:*** The 2015 GMPS found that GBV stories compromise a mere 1% of total stories covered in the media, compared to 4% in the 2010 GMPS. This is despite a stern warning from the UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women, Dubravka Šimonovic, who recently called GBV "an almost acceptable phenomenon" in South Africa, noting that "despite an arsenal of progressive laws and policies to deal with gender-based violence put very ably in place, there has been little implementation, hence impact and gender-based violence continues to be pervasive and at the level of systematic women's human rights violation."[40]



Journalists cover a 16 Days of Activism march in Mozambique.
*Photo: Ruben Covane*

***Women comprise the majority of sources on GBV.*** On a positive note, women make up the majority (58%) of news sources on GBV. In most SADC countries, with only a few exceptions (Botswana, DRC and Malawi), women constitute the largest proportion of sources on this topic.

**Is media Part of the problem or the solution on GBV?**[41]
***By Tarisai Nyamweda***

The media plays a vital role in raising awareness on GBV. It sets the agenda, which gives it the power to dictate what people see and hear, as well as shape their attitudes towards different aspects of life. However even in this era of an influx of multi-media tools to communicate, there is still a lack of awareness and dialogue on what comprises GBV, legislation frameworks in place for legal recourse, prevention mechanisms, where to go for help, care and rehabilitation. The media's core theme should then be about speaking out, education on GBV issues and leading dialogues on coming up with solutions and ideas for prevention and care.

Although it is important to cover many stories on GBV, it is equally important for the media to move beyond the numbers and give more analytical and critical coverage. News coverage must be able to probe and give analysis of the causes and the differential impact of GBV. The media also often misses the opportunity to give GBV stories a human face by denying survivors the chance to speak about their experiences.

Very few record the first-hand accounts of women. Although it may be difficult to interview survivors of GBV because of the sensitivity of the issue the way they are approached is also very important. According to the GMPS, spokespersons (23%) speak in most GBV stories. Survivors of violence make up only 13% of those speaking in GBV stories in SADC. This is a worrying trend because it means the voices of those most affected remain stifled. Yet, stories of speaking out can actually give survivors of violence hope and information of where to get help as well as give agency and confidence to beat these traumatic experiences.

So, if we are to meet the targets of the Protocol and the Sustainable Development Goals by 2030 we need enlightened and effective media coverage to contribute to the eradication of GBV. The media must begin to move beyond court reporting, speaking mostly to spokespersons and be sensitive in reportage. Most importantly, we need a media that educates and speaks firmly against GBV and not camouflage it.

*Excerpt from the GL News Service*

♀ are **more** than **twice** as likely as ♂ to be portrayed as **victims**

[40] http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/blog/2015/12/despite-progressive-laws-gender-based-violence-pervasive-in-south-africa-un-expert-warns/
[41] Nyamweda, T. 2016 Is media part of the problem or the solution in Addressing GBV. Gender Links. Accessed from http://genderlinks.org.za/news/southern-africa-is-media-part-of-the-problem-or-solution-in-addressing-gbv/

## ICTs and women's empowerment

State parties shall put in place information and communication technology policies and laws in the social economic and political development arena for women's empowerment regardless of race, age, religion or class. These policies and laws shall include specific targets developed through an open and participatory process in order to ensure women's and girl's access to ICTs.

**ICTs present many opportunities for empowerment**

ICTs play a significant role in advancing women's rights in the region: over a brief time becoming tools that women can use to amplify their voices. Access and use of ICTs can facilitate education for women and girls, increase literacy, and improve participation in democratic and social processes. It can also improve access to relevant information and spur freedom of expression. With the opportunities that ICTs create for women also come challenges that create barriers, such as lack of digital skills, access, affordability and availability. Data shows there is an increased gender divide in access to ICTs, especially for women living in the poorest countries. The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) estimates that the overall gap between men and women with regards to access to internet increased from 11% in 2013 to 13% in 2016. The gender gap is an estimate that represents the difference between the internet user penetration rates for males and females relative to the internet user penetration rate for males, expressed as a percentage. Africa has the highest regional gender gap (23%).[42]

SADC has seen slow progress in policy and regulatory processes in internet access and availability, which promote women's empowerment through ICTs. According to the World Wide Web Foundation, women's exclusion from the digital revolution is primarily due to policy failure, and policy failure can be reversed. Rapid progress is possible in all countries through simple steps like reducing the cost to connect, introducing digital literacy in schools and expanding public access to facilities.[43]

The Affordability Report by the Alliance for Affordable Internet (A4AI) indicates that large numbers of women in developing countries remain offline because "they cannot afford to connect." In Mozambique, for example, women make up only 33% of those online in low income communities.[44] Mozambique has some of the highest internet costs (as a proportion of average per capita income) in the region, the lowest numbers of women online and the largest internet gender gaps.[45] Other SADC countries have made strides in promoting universal access to ICTs.



The **Botswana** government recently revised its ICT policy to fund the development of WIFI hotspots in public sites. In line with this aim, it is also making a renewed push to revive the country's Kitsong centres. These are public access centres equipped with computers, printers, copiers and data cards. This allows equal access for women, especially in poor regions of the country as it eradicates the burden of prohibitive costs.

If not addressed, the cost of ICTs will continue to hinder women's access, limiting their freedom to information. There remains a need to break the gender divide in Southern Africa and ICTs can be a significant means of empowering women and girls. Engendering national ICT policies and strategies to improve women's access is an increasingly urgent issue. Governments must also track the gendered aspects of policy implementation using disaggregated data on specific targets relating to access.

[42] International Telecommunication Union. 2016. ICT facts and figures. Accessed from http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Documents/facts/ictfactsfigures2016.pdf
[43] World Wide Web Foundation. 2016. Women's Rights online. Accessed from http://webfoundation.org/docs/2016/09/WRO-Gender-Report-Card_Overview.pdf
[44] Mozambique affordability report.2016. Accessed from http://1e8q3q16vyc81g8l3h3md6q5f5e.wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/A4AI_2017_AR_Mozam_Screen_AW.pdf
[45] World Wide Web Foundation. 2016. Women's Rights online. Accessed from http://webfoundation.org/docs/2016/09/WRO-Gender-Report-Card_Overview.pdf

## Next steps

As the analysis in this chapter shows, gender disparities remain pervasive in the region's media sector. In some instances, countries are far from reaching the 50% mark for gender equality in and through the media: in content, education, and in decision-making. Governments must prioritise the enactment of laws to remedy these gaps and mitigate further misrepresentation in the media.

The news out of SADC's media sector is mixed. In many cases, countries have shown improvement in one area while stalling or backtracking in others. This points to a need to increase resources for those interventions that have shown promise, including additional capacity-building and skills-sharing with media houses - the worst offenders as well as also those on their way to entrenching progressive policies. Activists and media practitioners looking to change the way the media sector operates should stay the course: change is possible, as many media houses have shown. Some other areas of focus should include:

***Post-2015 workshops:*** Trainers can use country reports from the Southern African GMPS 2015 as advocacy tools to push for media houses to mainstream gender in content and institutional practices. This should happen in close collaboration with GIME training institutions as well as Media COE facilitators. The results will be disseminated to individual media houses, through profiles of each of these. It will be important to include new and emerging areas of work, including stories about SOGI.

***Capacity-building and training:*** The Protocol provisions on media training remain a powerful tool for training institutions, many of which are state funded and thus accountable to the state legislation. Capacity-building for practising journalists is an effective approach to ensuring sustainability of gender and media projects. GL, partners and other organisations focusing on media training have a collection of training manuals and tools on gender and media that trainers can roll out to improve coverage. Additionally, GL's Community of Practice will continue to be an excellent virtual platform for students and trainers from across SADC to access knowledge and training materials.

***Strengthen monitoring:*** The GMPS provides a wealth of data and indicators for holistic reflection of women's representation. It includes the gendered nature of news beats; sources overall as well as in diverse types of media; and on different topics. Researchers should prepare to carry out follow up research to monitor progress and obtain up-to-date information. Yearly media monitoring for institutional composition will assist in giving sufficient comparative data on the new Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting (MER) framework. GL will also roll out online monitoring tools that can track women's voices and presence in the media, as well as embark on a South Africa national study to assess progress, or lack thereof, of women in the media in key decision-making and other levels. This study will also document the lived realities of women working in the media.

***Gender and Media Diversity Centre:*** The need to consolidate gains made in the last decade continue to inform all future gender and media work in the region. Those fighting for gender equality must carry the ground-breaking research, policy, advocacy efforts, training and collaboration through the Gender and Media Diversity Centre (GMDC) forward in the period ahead.

Partnerships, networks, and "networks of networks" have been at the core of progress so far. Reviving and renewing the GMDC presents a platform for networking, sharing and collaboration. The revived GMDC now has a Steering Committee made up of GIME institutions. These institutions have the requisite skills and knowledge to set the gender and media agenda, especially on research and knowledge creation. The GMDC is a Southern African institutional base for the generation,

**SADC** countries are still **far** from **reaching gender equality** in and through the media

**Gender and media work** from across the region **must seek to strengthen the gender and media movement**

collection, connection and dissemination of knowledge on gender, media and diversity. The centre houses a wealth of knowledge resulting from institutional research agendas, codified best practices, and an analysis of news items from partner institutions. It builds on existing strong collaborative relationships in Southern Africa and the global context in this field of gender and media research, lobbying and activism. As the knowledge arm of GL, the GMDC houses academic and institutional research from Africa and beyond. This includes the GIME audit which GL conducted in 2010.

***Reviving the gender and media movement:*** Future gender and media work must seek to strengthen the gender and media movement amid dwindling resources for gender work, especially in the media. If gender and media activists and organisations, media development organisations and media houses work together, there will be more muscle in implementing gender and media initiatives on a broader scale in all SADC countries. The GEM summits and awards should continue in order to introduce renewed energy into gender and media work in the region. This initiative breathes new life into advocacy efforts, action planning and policy efforts.

***Increase global advocacy:*** The 62nd session of the Commission on the Status of Women will take place at the United Nations Headquarters in New York from 12 to 23 March 2018. One of its areas of focus is women and the media under the theme: "Participation in and access of women to the media, and information and communications technologies and their impact on and use as an instrument for the advancement and empowerment of women." This presents a crucial opportunity for international, regional and local level collaboration on the issue of women and media, providing an opportunity to compare and contrast challenges across borders and learn best practices at addressing them.



Women in the news in Botswana: It is important for women to appear as both news sources and news producer in the media.
*Photo: Keletso Metsing*

# CHAPTER 10

# Gender, climate change and sustainable development

## Article 31



Emily Tjale shares her experiences on climate change adaptation at a gender and climate change dialogue in Joubert Park, Johannesburg. *Photo: GenderCCSA*

### KEY POINTS

- Climate projections in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) mostly point to a warming climate, particularly in the inland subtropics; frequent occurrence of extreme heat events; increasing aridity; and decline in rainfall.
- Southern Africa's already high rates of poor nutrition and infectious disease will increase and likely affect women more than men.
- Southern African countries need specialists trained on climate change issues, adaptation and mitigation in each ministry.
- Declining agricultural livelihoods due to climate change fuels rural-urban migration, adding to the already significant urbanisation trend in the region. This has widened the gender gap on income.
- Women remain more prone to climate change vulnerability in SADC, and as a result should be involved in developing adaptation and mitigation policies.
- Providing funding to improve women's access to climate-resilient technologies could lead to positive impacts on women's economic and social empowerment.
- Access to electricity in some SADC member states is less than 20% and approximately 190 million people in the region live without it. Most climate change and gender case studies demonstrated capacity building.
- Of the 178 project best practice case studies submitted for the SADC Protocol@Work summits in 2017, 37 concerned climate change and sustainable development category.
- Women's representation for climate change decision making in SADC is at 24% with Zimbabwe highest at 44%.
- There is co-relation of the increase of genetically modified foods (GMOs) and declining food security which mainly affects women.

**= 24%** climate change **decision-makers**

Climate Change **NOW** **in** the Gender Protocol!

## What the Protocol requires

The revised SADC Gender Protocol introduces a new Part Ten on Gender and Climate Change for the first time, following intense lobbying by the Alliance first for an Addendum on Gender and Climate Change, and then for its full inclusion in the Post 2015 Protocol. The Climate Change Article is cross-referenced with the Protocol on Environmental Management and Sustainable Development.

**Table 10.1: New provisions**

| |
|---|
| Article 31, 1a: State parties shall develop policies, strategies, and programmes to address the gender issues in Climate Change in accordance with the SADC Protocol on Environment and Sustainable Development. |
| Protocol on Environmental Management for Sustainable Development<br>Article 20: Gender Equality. |
| 1. State Parties shall undertake gender analysis and gender mainstreaming of all environmental management, climate change and sustainable development policies, programs, projects and budgets. |
| 2. State Parties shall develop and implement gender responsive policies, strategies, projects and programmes for environmental management and disaster reduction especially on climate change for sustainable development. |
| 3. State Parties shall design gender responsive capacity building, education and training on environmental management, and climate change for sustainable development initiatives. |
| 4. State Parties shall employ people-centered, equitable, gender inclusive and participatory consultations of all stakeholders in all environmental management and climate change for sustainable development programmes and initiatives. |
| 5. State Parties shall utilise local knowledge, particularly women's skills, knowledge and capacities in mitigation and adaptation strategies for environmental management. |
| 6. State Parties shall , as part of their research agenda include all aspects of gender in environmental management, risk assessment, emergency and disaster response and other sustainable development initiatives. |
| Article 31, 1b: State Parties shall conduct research to access the different gendered impacts of climate change and put in place effective mitigation and adaptation measures. |

## Key trends

**Table 10.2: Climate change and sustainable development trends 2009, 2015 and 2017**

| Parameter | Target 2030 | Baseline 2009 | Progress 2015 | Progress 2017 | Variance (Progress - target) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **PERCENTAGE WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING BODIES THAT ADDRESS CLIMATE CHANGE** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50% | | Lesotho 50% | Zimbabwe (44%) | -6% |
| Lowest | 50% | | 0% (Botswana, DRC, Seychelles, Tanzania) | DRC (none); and Botswana | -50% |
| **PERCENTAGE WOMEN SOURCES ON GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE** | | | | | |
| Highest | 50% | | | Seychelles 55% | +5% |
| Lowest | 50% | | | Botswana 7% | -43% |
| **POLICY AND PROGRAMMES** | | | | | |
| Ratifying the global climate change treaty (Paris Agreement) | 15 countries | | 12 countries (Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe) | 13 countries | -2 countries (Malawi, Tanzania) |
| Evidence of gender sensitive climate change policies/strategies (MERF) | 15 countries | | 10 countries (mainly referenced in gender policies) | 10 countries (mainly referenced in gender policies) | -5 (data not clear for Angola, DRC, Malawi, Swaziland and Seychelles) |
| **SCORES** | | | | | |
| SGDI | 100% | | | 51% | -49% |
| CSC | 100% | | | 64% | -36% |

*Source: D Marema (2017) and Gender Links (2017).*

Climate change poses a challenge for the SADC countries as they work to achieve the SDGs and implement the Protocol of Environment and Sustainable Development. The impact of climate change and environmental issues, such as floods, deforestation, air pollution, natural disasters, persistent drought, sea-level rise, coastal erosion and ocean acidification continue to disproportionately affect women and girls.

Table 10.2 shows that:

- Zimbabwe achieved the highest representation of women in climate change decision-making 44%. Botswana and DRC have the lowest level (44%) of women's representation in climate change decision-making.
- The extent to which women's views and voices are heard on climate change, an indicator of voice, shows that women sources in Seychelles constituted over half of all sources (55%) while in Botswana women constituted a paltry 7% sources on this topic.
- All countries except for Malawi and Tanzania have ratified the Paris Agreement.
- Ten SADC countries have gender responsive climate change policies.

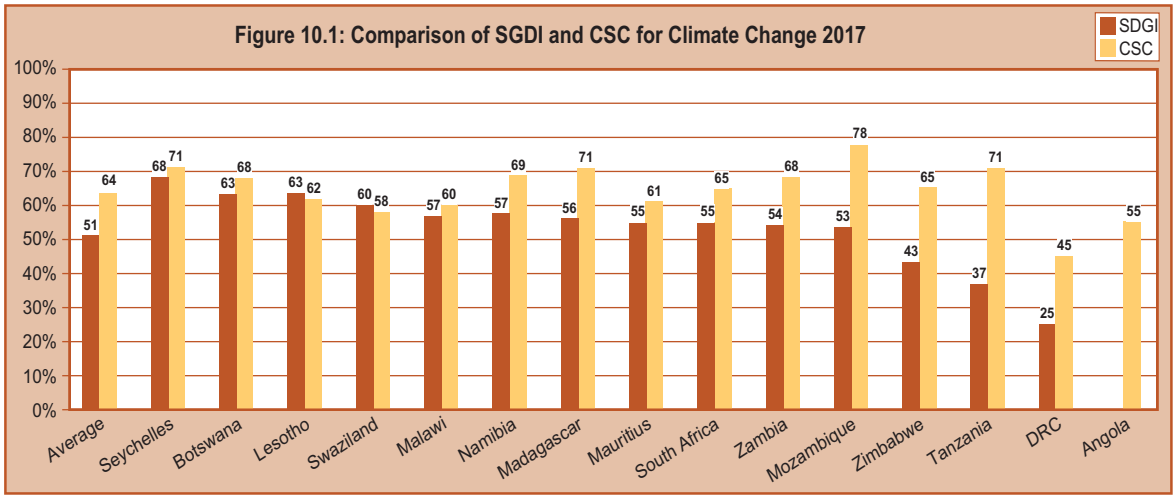


Civil society demonstrates against lack of gender responsiveness in climate change provisions at Cop 17 in Durban, 2012. *Photo: Gender Links*

## Scores - SGDI and CSC

The SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) is a composite empirical measure of progress. Climate Change indicators were introduced in the SGDI for the first time in this reporting period. As reflected in the trends table, these include women's representation in climate change decision-making (an access indicator) and the extent to which women's views and voices are heard in this topic category (a voice indicator).

The Citizen Score Card (CSC) is a measure of how citizens (women and men) rate their governments' efforts to provide accessible and quality services. This CSC was updated in 2016 to include the climate change provisions of the Protocol. This is therefore the first time that the Barometer presents a CSC score for climate change.




**SDGI 51%**

**CSC 64%**

Figure 10.1 compares the SGDI and CSC scores for 2017. It shows that overall at 51% for the SGDI and 64% for the CSC, these scores (based on empirical data and perceptions respectively) are quite different. Variance is calculated as the difference between the SGDI and CSC. Only Lesotho and Swaziland show positive variances (ie people who are more skeptical than what the numbers

tell us). Tanzania and Zimbabwe had the highest negative variances, i.e where citizens are more optimistic than what the facts on the ground tell us. Angola could not be analysed comparatively due to unavailable data for the SGDI. Overall, citizens are positive about the efforts being made by governments to address climate change. This ranges from 78% in Mozambique to 45% in DRC.

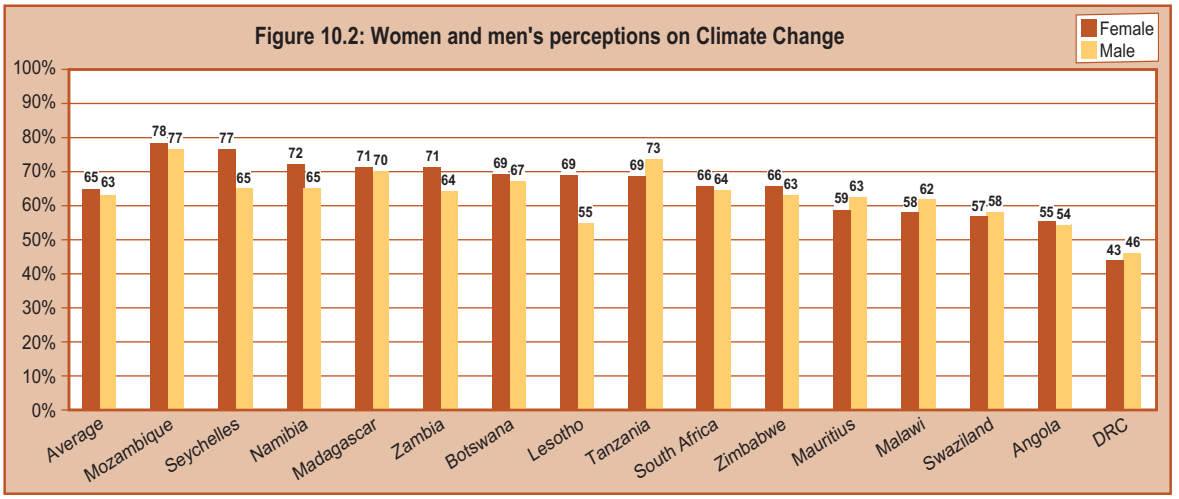



Figure 10.2 provides sex disaggregated data on the CSC for the climate change sector for 2017. On average (65%) women had slightly higher scores than men (63%). Women generally show more optimism than men in this sector. This is especially so in Seychelles, which has the highest variance between women and men. In Tanzania, Malawi, Mauritius, and DRC, women are slightly less optimistic than men.




Showcasing climate friendly cooling systems in South Africa. *Photo: Gender CCSA*

## Background



Women smallholder farmers showcasing their gardending project at Nwajaheni primary school in Nwamitwa village in Tzaneen, South Africa. *Photo: Gender CCSA*

Climate change will spare no country or region, but we also know it will unequally negatively impact developing countries, which raises the question of how adequately leaders on the African continent have equipped it their nations to respond to climate change challenges, particularly considering Africa's diverse development needs. Localising climate change adaptation methods will remain key to achieving sustainable development and protecting

Climate change is perceived as a technical and scientific issue which has little to do with a country's citizenry, and governments often treat it as such. However, many studies have proven that it is a human-made phenomenon, which will require humans at all levels to address it. Climate change especially affects women, who are in the majority in the world and particularly in the SADC region. Climate variability fuels incidences of sexual violence, nutrition-related diseases and epidemics like malaria, water borne diseases and respiratory illnesses.

Of late, rates of gender violence because of climate change have been on the rise, for ex-ample in the aftermath of disasters, when women and girls must travel long distances to fetch water or wood to use for cooking. Recent water shortages and declines in agricultural activities in the region have also seen men leaving women and girls behind in the rural areas as they migrate to cities and other areas in search of jobs. During disasters, like the devas-tating fires that ravaged Knysna in the Cape of South Africa, women have to find shelter for their homeless children and the elderly, care for the injured and sick.

Southern Africa emitted 1027[2] million metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalent (MtCO2e) in 2011, with Angola, South Africa and Zambia having the highest greenhouse gas emissions. The region's emissions represent about 2% of global emissions. Since 1990, total emissions have increased in eight countries in SADC while decreasing in Swaziland, Madagascar, Malawi and Zimbabwe. Greenhouse gas emissions from the Southern Africa Regional Mission countries are primarily from the energy (544 MtCO2e), land-use change and forestry (255 MtCO2e) and agriculture (166 MtCO2e) sectors. Total greenhouse gas emissions of the countries in the Southern Africa region increased 30% between 1990 and 2011.

Climate change is currently featuring prominently in the development agenda of the SADC countries. However, it is important to note that people across the region have been living with, and adapting to, a high degree of climate variability and its associated risks for many centuries. Accelerated changes in the climate and increasing incidences of climatic disasters (floods, droughts, etc.) during the last century - and the scientific evidence that Africa is the most vulnerable continent to climate change and the least able to cope with these changes[3] - has brought these climate risks into sharper focus, and made the need to address them more urgent for many states in the continent and the SADC region.

A changing climate, added to the shocks stemming from the current global economic slow-down, will make it increasingly difficult for African governments to balance urgent short-term needs and longer-term development priorities. According to the United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) the army worm, a destructive caterpillar indigenous to the Americas, could put Southern Africa's food security at risk. FAO mentioned that the army worm outbreak has affected more than half of the 15 states which make up the regional body. Zimbabwe has been the hardest hit, with up to 130,000 hectares of maize affected. In Namibia, worms damaged 50,000 hectares of maize and millet. In Zambia, the army worm destroyed 124,000 hectares of maize.[4] It targets maize, sorghum, soya beans, groundnuts and potatoes.

Even though climate variability will affect most of the population in the region, the degree of vulner-

SADC emissions repre-sent **2%** of **global** emissions

[2] Climatelinks (2015), Greenhouse Gas Emissions Factsheet: Southern Africa, available at: https://www.climatelinks.org/resources/greenhouse-gas-emissions-factsheet-southern-africa

[3] Quartz Africa (2017), These are the African cities most vulnerable to climate change article, availa-ble at: https://qz.com/997384/lagos-abidjan-durban-dar-es-salaam-among-coastal-african-cities-most-vulnerable-to-climate-change/

[4] African farming (2017), Army worm threatens African food security, available at: https://www.africanfarming.com/army-worm-threatens-southern-african-food-security-un/

dominate all forms of **agricul-ture**

ability to adverse impacts will vary depending on livelihood opportunities, gender, age, disability and social class. Research has documented that climate change will particularly affect the poor due to their dependence on climate-sensitive sectors or activities such as agriculture, fishing, and forestry. Limited possibilities for the region's poor to diversify into less climate-sensitive activities will exacerbate this.



Some or all of these challenges have already been affecting SADC countries in various ways. Projections show that **Angola** may see an increase in both the maximum and minimum temperatures of up to 4.9°C by the end of the century, and an intensification of droughts.[5] These projected changes have important implications because scientists expect them to magnify existing problems, thus creating new risks for human and natural systems. Temperature projections indicate that extremely hot days (the hottest 10% of days in the observed record) will become two to four times more frequent by the 2060s. The effect of increasing temperatures on total precipitation is uncertain. While annual precipitation in most of southern Africa is likely to decrease, Angola lies within the area of the tropics for which model projections widely vary in both positive and negative directions.



Researchers project that **Botswana** will suffer more than other countries from climate change. Most of the country's agriculture occurs in areas of higher precipitation of around 400-600 mm of rainfall per annum.[6] Different climate change scenarios make varying predictions for the 2000-2050 period but most predict a 50-100 mm decline in rainfall. Sorghum and maize, the two primary food crops produced in Botswana, typically thrive only with plenty of rain. Women dominate nearly all forms of agriculture in Botswana.



The **DRC** is vulrerable in several ways to projected changes in climate. A vast majority of Congolese dependent on sectors which are highly interlinked with climate processes, such as small-scale agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and mining. If the climate changes, these livelihoods may be threatened. For example, changes in temperatures and rainfall may affect crop production and alter biodiversity and ecosystem resources. Furthermore, and depending on how interactions between rainfall, temperature, and disease pathways develop, more regions of the country may become susceptible to vector- and water-borne diseases. Finally, the low-lying, coastal areas of the DRC, which high tides often inundate, have already experienced erosion. Sea level rise may cause more frequent erosion, saltwater intrusion, man-grove ecosystem damage and destruction, and infra-structure and land losses.



USAID is helping women adapt to climate change by teaching them new farming meth-ods in South Kivu province, Eastern DRC.
*Photo: USAID DRC website by Afri-care/Adolphe Muwaw*



Climate change is projected to increase the frequency and intensity of droughts in **Lesotho**, which will have serious effects on food security, poverty, and the economy.[7] Droughts remain the most prominent cause of crop failure and they have led to the steep reduction in cereals and other staple crops in recent years. Localised floods from variable rainfall happen quite frequently in Lesotho and cause adverse impacts to the environment, economy, and society. Projections indicate an increase in the frequency and intensity of floods in the future.



Climate change will result in a reduction of key water points in **Madagascar**, draining swamps and rivers during the dry season. This means reduced access to water supplies for drinking, sanitation and energy generation, and reduced water quality. Climate change is likely to compound the existing problems of the country's agriculture sector, which include limited productivity and low yields. Rainfall variability and higher temperatures have consequences for the production of staple

[5] Carvalho, S.C.P., Santos, F.D. & Pulquério, M. (2017) Climate change scenarios for Angola: an analy-sis of precipitation and temperature projections using four RCMs. International Journal of Climatology, 37(8), 3398-3412. DOI:10.1002/joc.4925 (IF2016 3,760; Q1 Meteorology & Atmospheric Sciences), available at: http://ce3c.ciencias.ulisboa.pt/research/publications/ver.php?id=612
[6] Moseley, G. (2016), Agriculture on the Brink: Climate Change, Labor and Smallholder Farming in Botswana, available at: http://www.mdpi.com/2073-445X/5/4/34/htm
[7] RIASCO (2017), Response Plan for the EL Nino-Induced Drought in Southern Africa, acailable at: http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/RIASCO%20Action%20Plan%20Draft%20Document%20PDF%20version.pdf

rainfed crops such as rice, cassava and maize. For example, unreliable rainfall will lead more farmers to use irrigation, which is likely to strain water resources, and higher temperatures and reduced rainfall will likely lead to increased incidence of diseases, such as cassava mosaic disease. Extreme weather events also threaten agricultural productivity.



This low-income country faces many challenges that increase its vulnerability to a changing climate, including high population growth, dependence on rainfed agriculture, high rates of malnutrition and HIV and AIDS and inadequate power supply. Agriculture is central to **Malawi**'s economy, contributing nearly 40% of GDP and roughly 90% of the country's export earnings.[8] Improving agricultural production is key to poverty reduction, but the increased frequency and intensity of drought and flood events hinders progress. Erratic rainfall, higher temperatures, droughts and dry spells pose a challenge to maize productivity. The increased frequency of droughts and floods, along with higher temperatures, also negatively impact fisheries, wildlife and forests, which provide food, income, fuel and other environmental services to vulnerable populations.



Projected impacts of climate change in **Mauritius** include an 8% decrease in annual rainfall; decreases in utilisable water resources of up to 13% by 2050; increases in heavy precipitation events with increased risk of flash floods; more frequent heat waves in summer; and increasing frequency of heat spells, giving rise to cardiovascular and pulmonary complications. The country may experience propagation of vector-borne and infectious diseases because of higher temperatures and recurrent floods, as well as a reduc-tion in live corals by 80-100% by the year 2100.[9] Changes in fish stock distribution and fluctuations in abundance of conventionally fished and "new" species may disrupt existing allocation arrangements.



**Mozambique** is highly vulnerable to climate change-related natural disasters, in particular those of a hydro-meteorological nature (such as floods, drought and cyclones). Its terrain is mostly coastal low-land, with a vast network of rivers and tributaries emptying into the Indian Ocean. The coastline is highly susceptible to cyclones and tropical storms. Its capital, Maputo, is also highly



Greenhouse food production is increasingly being used in urban areas to achieve food security. GenderCCSA trains women to grow their own food using greenhouse technology.

*Photo: Gender CCSA*

vulnerable to the effects of climate change since it faces the Indian Ocean and is the most densely populated urban area in Mozambique.[10] A rising sea level has resulted in salty intrusion, causing damages to agriculture and contributing to urban poverty. Any further sea-level rises would flood the lowest-lying areas (which are the most populated), with serious consequences for the urban poor who have a limited capacity to adapt to climate change. Shrinkage of sand strips on the beaches result in serious coastal erosion with negative consequences for economic activity. An extreme weather event could cripple Maputo's infrastructure, particularly *Avenida da Marginal*, which runs along the shoreline. Although government recently rehabilitated *Avenida da Marginal*, it has yet to build ade-quate protection barriers. Moreover, the city's three islands, located a few kilometres off the coast, show clear evidence of climate change effects, including the disappearance of man-groves, degradation of well-water quality, desertification and exposure of sand dunes, worsening wind erosion, loss of coastline and lack of arable land for domestic agriculture.



Temperatures in **Namibia** have been increasing at three times the global mean temperature increases reported for the 20th century. The temperature rise predicted for 2100 ranges from 2-6°C.[11] Particularly in the central regions, scientists expect lower rainfall, while projecting overall rainfall to become even more variable than it is now. Even if rainfall changes little from today's levels, rises in temperature will boost evaporation rates, leading to severe water shortages. This will

Agriculture contributes to **40%** of Malawi's GDP

[8] Climatelinks (2017), Climate Risk Profile: Malawi, available at https://www.climatelinks.org/resources/climate-change-risk-profile-malawi
[9] GFDRR (2017), Disaster Risk Profile: Mauritius, available at https://www.gfdrr.org/disaster-risk-profile-mauritius
[10] UNHABITAT (2016 ), Climate Change assessment for Maputo, Mozambique: a summary, available at http://unfccc.int/files/adaptation/knowledge_resources/databases/partners_action_pledges/application/pdf/un-habitat_furtherinfo6_060511.pdf
[11] Republic of Namibia (2015), Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDC) of The Republic of Namibia to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change available at: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Namibia%20First/INDC%20of%20Namibia%20Final%20pdf.pdf

Climate change **contributes** to **8%** decrease in **annual** rainfall

affect poor rural pastoralist and dry land populations most and increase the frequency and intensity of extreme events such as droughts.



Climate change, compounded by the recent El Niño, has put **Seychelles**' archipelago and biodiversity systems at higher risk. Fourteen of the 15 warmest years on record have occurred since 2000, resulting in a drastic change in the country's weather.[12] Climate change has also contributed to rising sea levels and massive bleaching of coral, which is significant to islands, particularly for the coastal areas. For Seychelles, which relies heavily on fishing and tourism, the potential damage could be significant, both economically and socially. Rising tides have eroded the coast and contaminated fresh water supply. Changes in rainfall patterns have resulted in intense precipitation events in the wet season while extended periods of drought characterise the dry season. Meanwhile, floods wash greater amounts of effluents into the sea, resulting in a higher acidification of oceans and accelerating coral bleaching.



School children plant indigenous trees as part of a clean-up exercise following floods in Seychelles in 2014.
*Photo: Joena Bonnelame, Seychelles News Agency*



Climate change impacts in the agriculture sector have already affected **Swaziland**. Livestock and crops production has declined by more than 30% on average over the last few farming seasons.[13] This is mainly because of increase in temperatures and below normal rainfall, which has seen the country experiencing recurrent droughts and prolonged dry spells over the last five years. The country experienced its worst drought in the 2015/16 resulting in the loss of both crop and livestock productivity.



Knysna Mayor Eleanore Bouw-Spies thanks fire fighters for their efforts after wild fires destroyed a large area of Knysna in South Africa in 2017. *Photo: Google Images*



**South Africa**'s economy and its people face appreciable risks due to the potential impacts from ongoing climate change, perhaps best illustrated by deadly wild fires that devastated parts of the country in 2017. Researchers project that South Africa's climate will warm faster than the global average, potentially resulting in drastic socio-economic and environmental effects. Most stakeholders understand sectoral risks due to "slow onset" climate change owing to the well-developed human and technological capacity to make projections of risk by in-country practitioners. Research has predicted increasingly adverse im-pacts due to ongoing in South Africa linked to water security, agricultural production and food security, human settlements, human health and well-being, as well as for certain natural ecosystems on land and in the ocean.



**Tanzania** is bearing the heaviest burden of flooding, which threatens infrastructure assets worth $5.3 billion in Dar es Salaam.[14] The nation's commercial capital is vulnerable to flooding, which cripples the ability of poorer city residents to access clean water and better sanitation. Temperatures in Tanzania have been increasing at a substantial rate, almost twice that of maximum temperatures. Tanzania's coffee farmers, the most of whom live on razor thin margins, will likely to be among the hardest hit. The impact of climate change on coffee is dramatic. Over the last 60 years, Tanzania's average yield per hectare has been cut roughly in half.[15]

[12] Republic of Seychelles (2015), Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) Under The United Nations Framework Convention On Climate Change (UNFCCC), available at: http://www4.unfccc.int/submissions/INDC/Published%20Documents/Seychelles/1/INDC%20of%20Seychelles.pdf
[13] The Kingdom of Swaziland Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs (2016), Swaziland Third National Communication to the UNFCCC, available: https://www.environment.gov.za/sites/default/files/reports/themeC_vulnerabilities_risks.pdf
[14] VOA news (2017), Tanzania Prepares for Worsening Effects of Climate Change, available on https://www.voanews.com/a/tanzania-prepares-for-climate-change/3885307.html
[15] Aljazeera America (2016), For Tanzania's coffee farmers, climate change is a buzzkill, available on http://america.aljazeera.com/articles/2015/8/16/for-tanzanias-coffee-farmers-climate-change-is-a-buzz-kill1.html



Changes in climate pose challenges to **Zambia**'s ongoing efforts to combat poverty, reduce food insecurity and sustainably manage natural resources. Climate projections in Zambia include increases in temperature, more extreme weather (intense precipitation, floods and droughts) and increased rainfall variability.[16] Climate changes will impact agriculture, water resources, human health, ecosystems, and energy and infrastructure.

**Zimbabwe** has seen hotter average temperatures due to climate change and variability. The country's annual



mean surface temperature has warmed by about 0.40C from 1900 to 2000.[17] The period from 1980 to today has been the warmest since Zimbabwe started recording its temperature. The timing and amount of rainfall received have become increasingly uncertain. The frequency and length of dry spells during the rainy season have increased while the frequency of rain days has declined. Such a scenario has impacts on Zimbabwe's economy which remains primarily agro-based with more than 70% of the population living in rural areas and dependent on climate-sensitive livelihoods such as arable farming and livestock-rearing.

**Table 10.3: Gender dimensions of climate change**[18 19]

| Area of concern | Gender implications |
|---|---|
| **Food security** | Most women in the region take part in farming, but women as a group have trouble obtaining education, income, land, livestock, and technology. This means that climate change may negatively impact female farmers more than male farmers by further limiting their resources. Women produced between 60% and 80% of all food in the developing world, yet they own just 10% of all agricultural land and approximately 2% of land rights. |
| **Water** | Many countries in the region have been experiencing droughts and water shortages. This has compromised the livelihoods of many communities, particularly of women and young girls whose responsibility, in many countries, is to ensure availability of water. They now must travel long distances to collect water, often exposing themselves to dangerous threats such as human trafficking and sexual violence. |
| **Division of labour** | Gender-based prejudices and stereotypes exclude women from areas of the green economy such as transport and energy, wasting human resources to and preventing the SADC region from achieving its full competitive potential. |
| **School drop-out** | In many countries, girls and young women have been forced to stay out of school to look for opportunities to generate income for their families as agricultural production in the region declines. |
| **Land** | Women, especially single women and widows, still struggle to access land for resettlement and production, including farming to generate income for their families. |
| **Transport** | Women depend on access to public transport to a larger degree due to lower levels of car ownership, but also because of their preferences for the use of environmentally-friendly solutions (public transport). |
| **Health** | Women are more likely to have a greater awareness of health issues and more highly developed risk perceptions, which often impacts how they perceive health and environmental issues, while men tend to be more strongly oriented towards convenience. |
| **Stress** | Stress levels and related diseases may increase for both women and men. Because society expects men to provide for the family, they experience and express stress in different, often more devastating ways than women. |
| **Migration** | In many countries, men migrate from rural areas and small towns to move to big cities due to declines of natural resources and agriculture. They often leave women behind to care for the children and the elderly on their own. |
| **Gender violence** | Incidents of sexual violence remain frequent in shelters where natural disaster victims take refuge and men and women share limited space with no privacy. These shelter also often lack safe and adequate ablution blocks and often women and girls must walk alone outside at night to relieve themselves, risking sexual abuse. |
| **Energy Poverty** | Due to their lower average income, women are at greater risk of energy poverty than men, and have fewer options for investing in low-carbon options such as energy efficiency and renewable energies. |
| **Decision-making** | The climate change sector does not equally include men and women at decision-making levels. There is an urgent need to improve gender equality in decision-making in this field, especially the transport and energy sectors, and to increase the number of women with relevant qualifications in scientific and technological areas. as well as the number of women participating in relevant scientific bodies at the highest level. |

*Source: GenderCCSA 2016.*



own

**10%**

land

[16] Climatelinks (2016), Climate Change Risk Profile: Zambia, available at: https://www.climatelinks.org/resources/climate-change-risk-profile-zambia
[17] Government of Zimbabwe, Ministry of Environment, Water and Climate (2016), Zimbabwe's Nation-al Climate Change Response Strategy, available at www4.unfccc.int/.../Download.aspx?...Climate%20Change%20Response%20Strategy...
[18] UNESCO (2017), Women underrepresented in decision-making on climate change, available on http://www.unesco.org/new/en/media-services/single-view/news/women_underrepresented_in_decision_making_on_climate_change/ (accessed on 11July 2017).
[19] Wikepedia (2017), Climate Change and Gender, available on https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Climate_change_and_gender (accessed 11 July 2017).

Table 10.3 illustrates several gender dimensions of climate change. It shows how climate change has become a cause of conflict and how it perpetuates poverty, gender-based violence and an increased burden of care work amongst women.

## Gender aware climate change policies

**Article 31, 1a**: State parties shall develop policies, strategies, and programmes to address the gender issues in climate change in accordance with the SADC Protocol on Environment and Sustainable Development.
**Article 20.2** of the ***Protocol on Environmental Management for Sustainable Development*** State parties shall undertake gender analysis and gender mainstreaming of all environmental management, climate change and sustainable development policies, programmes, projects and budgets.

The Protocol **provides** for gender responsive climate change policy frameworks

### International frameworks on climate change

In two decades, discussion about climate change has gained increased traction on the international scene. The 13th Sustainable Development Goal (SDG13) invites the world "to take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts." Meanwhile, the Paris Agreement appeared to be an acknowledgment that most of the world's leaders now realise the threat posed by continuing to ignore climate change. These international moves provide opportunities to combine multiple actions to fight climate change alongside other development objectives.

#### *The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)*

The Conference of the Parties (COP) to the UNFCCC takes place annually and is the supreme decision-making body linked to the Convention. This is where government signatories develop plans to limit greenhouse gas emissions. Issues of poverty reduction and the different responsibilities of industrialised and newly industrializing nations have been central to many of the debates and new agreements that build on the framework convention. COP welcomes civil society and non-governmental organisations as observers to offer opinions and expertise, and to represent the people of the world.

Around 1400 organisations observe the annual conferences and many have grouped themselves into constituencies.[20] These provide focal points for easier interaction with the UNFCCC Secretariat, based in Bonn, and individual governments. Nine constituencies exist cur-rently, broadly grouped by the type of organisations they represent: businesses and industry; environmental; local and municipal governments; trade unions; research and independent organisations; and those that work for the rights of indigenous people; young people; agricultural workers; and women and gender rights.



Mmamosweu Tshoabi, of Serapeng Sa Basadi organic products, tests a biogas stove at the Greenhouse People's Environmental Centre in Joubert, South Africa *Photo: Gender CCSA*

Marrakech, Morocco hosted the 22nd Conference of the Parties (COP22) in 2016. Negotiators from almost 200 countries attended to showcase progress and start the important process of turning the UN's Paris Agreement into a detailed blueprint for action.

[20] Women & Gender Constituency, (2017), The UNFCCC: An international agreement to address climate change, available on http://womengenderclimate.org/our-background/ (accessed 13 July 2017).

### *The Paris Agreement*

The Paris Agreement entered into force on 4 November 2016, 30 days after the date on which at least 55 parties to the UNFCCC, accounting for an estimated 55% of the total global greenhouse gas emissions, deposited their instruments of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession with the depositary.[21] It is the world's first comprehensive agreement to address climate change. However, setting out the details is a longer process, which the countries participating in COP22 have decided they will complete[22] by 2018, with a review of progress in 2017. This timeline meant that stakeholders could tie up few of the loose ends left by the Paris Agreement in Marrakech.

A number of decisions within the Paris Agreement will require ongoing observation and follow-up, even though they did not play a major role at this year's COP.

Stakeholders widely viewed the Marrakech Action Proclamation, issued by heads of state and governments gathered at the COP, as a reaffirmation of global commitment to the Paris Agreement, despite US President Donald Trump's election victory and subsequent withdrawal from the Paris Agreement. Other COP22 achievements include:

- The establishment of a new fund to encourage transparency efforts, with a $50 million injection of cash from countries including Australia, Canada and Germany.
- In Paris, stakeholders asked countries to set out their long-term decarbonisation strategies and plans to 2050. So far, 22 countries, including the UK, 15 cities and 196 businesses have committed to do this.
- Forty-seven of the world's poorest countries, which have grouped together as the Climate Vulnerable Forum, committed to generating 100% of their energy from renewable sources as soon as possible. They also pledged to update their nationally determined contributions before 2020 and to prepare long-term strategies.

Bonn, Germany, will host the 23rd Conference of Parties (COP 23) in November and December 2017. Climate change talks will continue during 2017.

## Gender dimensions of the UNFCCC

The women and gender constituency of the UNFCCC is a platform for observer organisations working to ensure women's rights and gender justice within the climate change convention framework. It provides an entry point and a platform to exchange information between members and with the UNFCCC Secretariat. The constituency also ensures that meetings, workshops and conferences include the participation and representation of women's civil society and non-governmental organizations which otherwise would not be able to attend.

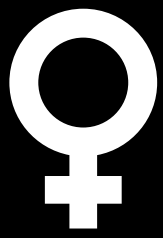


Women trained by Gender CCSA on income generation take part in urban farming. *Photo: Gender CCSA*

Globally, under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol, the proportions have been less balanced: for example, the executive board of the Clean Development Mechanism in June 2015, had just 10% women's representation (one out of the ten members).[23] Women comprised 36% of the party delegates to the 20th session of the COP and the eighth session of the Conference of the Parties.

Improving the participation of women in climate change decision-making presents an ongoing challenge, both at national and international level. While the numbers of women on UNFCCC boards, bodies and government delegations have improved slightly in recent years, women remain underrepresented, particularly in high-level positions. At the 16th Conference of the Parties (COP16) in Cancun, for example, women accounted for as few as 30% of all delegation parties and between 12 and 15% of all heads of delegations.

Since COP 21 (Paris) the size of the parties' delegations is increasing. Astonishingly, with the higher number of party-delegates, the share of women is decreasing.[24] Stakeholders first attempted to address the importance of women's participation in the UNFCCC in Marrakesh in 2001, yet progress on implementing this decision has been limited. At COP18 in Doha, Qatar, all parties adopted an additional decision on promoting "gender balance" in the UNFCCC. While this progress is welcome, it is important to keep in mind that in order to enable equal participation of women in climate change



comprised

**36%**

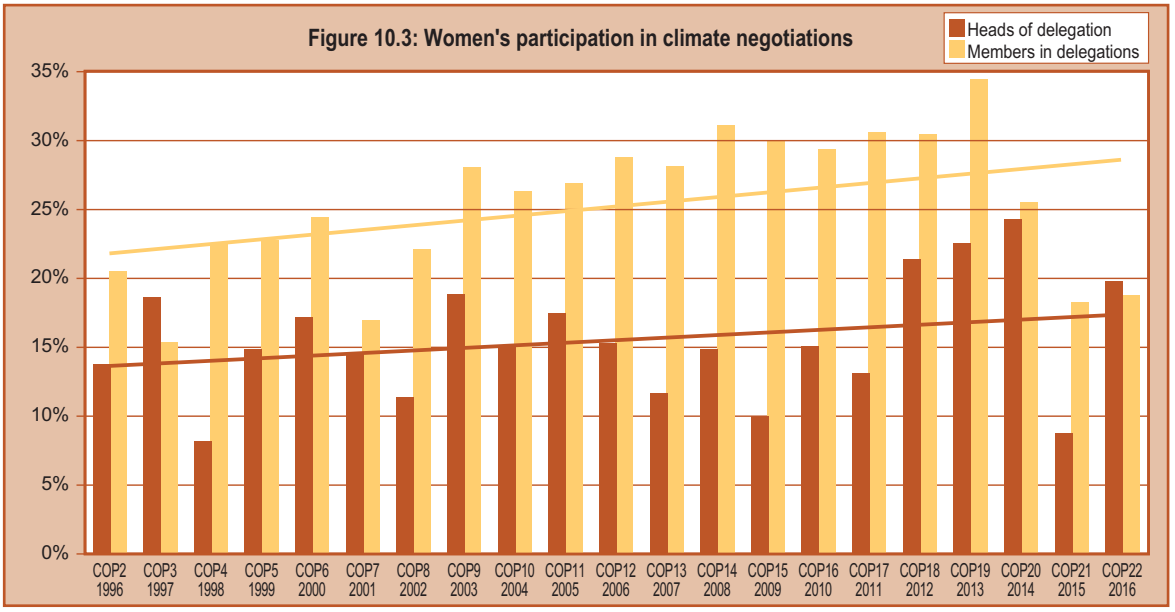
of the

**UNFCCC**

delegates

[21] UNFCCC (2017), Paris Agreement - Status of Ratification, available on: http://unfccc.int/paris_agreement/items/9444.php (accessed 11 July 2017).
[22] Carbon Brief (2016), COP22: Key outcomes agreed at the UN climate talks in Marrakech, available on https://www.carbonbrief.org/cop22-key-outcomes-agreed-at-un-climate-talks-in-marrakech (accessed 11 July 2017).
[23] European Institute for Gender Equality (2016) Gender in Environment and Climate Change, availa-ble on: http://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming (accessed 11 July 2017).
[24] GenderCC (2017), Gender@UNFCCC, available on: http://gendercc.net/genderunfccc.html (accessed 11 July 2017).

processes at all levels, there is a need to address the deep-rooted social and cultural inequalities that can act as constraints to women's real inclusion and prevent them from participating meaningfully.



*Source: GenderCC*

**20%**
of
**COP22**
Heads of
delegations

Figure 10.3 shows women's participation in COP climate negotiations over time. The head of delegations increased to almost 20% in 2016 compared to 8% in 2015. However, women members of delegations remained low, dropping substantially from a high in 2013.

### *The Sustainable Development Goals*

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)[25] 2015-2030 form the backbone of the Post-2015, post-Millennium Development Goal agenda. They seek to change the course of the 21st century by further extending and advancing global objectives in addressing key challenges such as poverty, inequality, and violence against women. SDGs break down into 169 associated targets that are "integrated and indivisible, global in nature and universally applicable, taking into account different national realities, capacities and levels of development and respecting national priorities." Apart from encompassing human rights and fundamental freedoms to ensure that all global citizens enjoy these without discrimination, many of the SDGs targets specifically recognise the equality and empowerment of women as the objective and as part of the solution.

The head of the UNFCCC, Patricia Espinosa, has said that "the ultimate objectives of the Paris Climate Change Agreement and the Sustainable Development Goals will be achieved only if they are fully recognized as one encompassing agenda."[26] Thus, stakeholders must consider action on climate change and sustainable development in tandem. Climate change and increased risk of extreme weather resulting in natural disasters have the potential to undermine progress on poverty alleviation, weaken the stability of communities and increase inequality. Similarly, unsustainable development can slow, or threaten progress on climate change, by potentially increasing consumption of fossil fuels as consumers become wealthier, homes become larger and people rely more on private cars than public transit.

### *African Union commitments*


Gender CCSA staff demonstrate a solar powered cooker.
*Photo: Gender CCSA*

[25] SADC (2017) SADC Gender and Development Monitor 2016: Tracking Progress on Implementation of SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, available on: http://www.nepadsanbio.org/sites/default/files/2017-01/SADC_Gender_and_Development_Monitor_2016_Eng.pdf (accessed 10 July 2017).
[26] Shahyd, K. (2017), Sustainable Development Is Critical for Climate Action, available on: https://www.nrdc.org/experts/khalil-shahyd/sustainable-development-critical-climate-action (accessed 11 July 2017).

Since the African continent is among the most vulnerable to climate change impacts, long-term, stable and scaled-up support to increase resilience to climate is very relevant. Africa currently has four priorities: adaptation, mitigation, financing and the strengthening of the negotiation process. During COP22, the African Group of Negotiators (AGN) especially called for new investments in agricultural transformation. They identified critical issues, including early warning systems, risk and vulnerability assessments for agriculture, information services, and climate risk finance and insurance schemes.

Africa has seized the opportunity of COP22, dubbed[27] "the action COP," to demonstrate leadership in the implementation of the Paris Agreement, through the nationally determined contributions (NDCs) and in ensuring that it provides the means of implementation, namely finance, capacity building, technology development and transfer.

The continent's leaders have proactively responded with the establishment of the Committee of Africa Heads of State and Government on Climate Change (CAHOSCC) and the African Group of Negotiators (AGN) on climate that have, thus far, tremendously influenced global negotiations.

Presence of heads of state at COP22 and the Africa Day event further demonstrated the importance placed on securing the continent's interests within the global climate governance mechanism and in defining the roadmap to reduce global temperature rise to "well below" the 2°C goal, considered by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) as the threshold for averting dangerous changes to the climate system.

Beyond COP22, a critical issue remains the alignment of NDCs with existing national development priorities and initiatives. Pan-African initiatives and programmes operating through a range of partnerships will enhance implementation. These include the African Adaptation Initiative (AAI) and the African Renewable Energy Initiative (AREI). The latter, supported by the governments of France and Germany, seeks to achieve at least 300gigawatts of renewable energy capacity by 2020.

Stakeholders have urged African governments to work with women, especially women farmers, to address issues of climate change and food security. Civil society organisations such as GenderCCSA have been leading this work on the ground.

The impacts of climate change will continue to manifest in various ways throughout both natural and human systems in sub-Saharan Africa. Climate change projections for this region point to a warming trend, particularly in the inland subtropics; frequent occurrence of extreme heat events; increasing aridity; and changes in rainfall patterns with a particularly pronounced decline in southern Africa. The region could also experience a sea-level rise as much as one metre by the end of this century under a 4°C warming scenario. Researchers expect sub-Saharan Africa's already high rates of undernutrition and infectious disease to increase compared to a scenario without climate change. Particularly vulnerable to these climatic changes: the rain fed agricultural systems on which the livelihoods of a large proportion of the region's population currently depend. As agricultural livelihoods become more precarious, climate scientists expect the rate of rural-urban migration to grow, adding to the already significant urbanisation trend in the region. Women in the SADC region, who manage most smallholder farms, largely depend on rainfed agriculture.



Gender CCSA staff demonstrate grass composting techniques.
*Photo: GenderCCSA*

African leaders formulated ***African Agenda 2063*** as a framework to guide Africa's development in the next 50 years. Launched in 2015, it has 13 fast-track programmes and projects and a results-based approach to implementation.[28] Agenda 2063 also enjoys political commitment: the keen interest of the heads of states and governments in Agenda 2063 and the creation of a Ministerial Follow-up Committee underscore this. The Global Agenda 2030 and SDGs form a sub-set of Agenda 2063, which has a wider scope. Hence the decision to assume an integrated and coherent implementation, monitoring and evaluation of Agenda 2063 and the SDGs. Implementing Agenda 2063 is ipso facto implementing the SDGs. Some countries have begun implementation of Agenda 2063.

**Agenda 2063** provides for **working** with women **farmers** to **reduce** climate change

[27] African Development Bank Group (2016), Africa Day at COP22: African leaders demonstrate com-mitment and action to address climate change, available on: https://www.afdb.org/en/news-and-events/africa-day-at-cop22-african-leaders-demonstrate-commitment-and-action-to-address-climate-change-16405/ (accessed 10 July 2017).
[28] African Union Commission (2017), African Agenda 2063: What Progress Since Adoption in 2015?, available on: https://www.au.int/web/sites/default/files/newsevents/mediaadvisories/31932-ma-african_agenda_2063_where_are_we_-_towards_implementation_23_01_2017.pdf (accessed 11 July 2017).

Climate change has gendered **impacts** on the **energy, health** and agricultural sectors

Following a conference of African ministers of environment in Cairo in 1985, leaders established the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN).[29] Its mandate is to provide advocacy for environmental protection in Africa; to ensure that Africa meets basic human needs adequately and in a sustainable manner; to ensure that states realise social and economic development at all levels; and to ensure that agricultural activities and practices meet the food security needs of the region. AMCEN sessions occur every two years. In addition, officials have convened several special sessions in between regular sessions to consider specific issues of concern.

The measures adopted by AMCEN in seeking solutions to environmental concerns in Africa have consistently been participatory and consultative. The existence of AMCEN has had an impact on the way representatives handle environmental issues in the region. AMCEN has also contributed to strengthening Africa's participation and active involvement in global negotiations and international agreements linked to the environment.

AMCEN's role includes, among others:

- Providing continent-wide leadership by promoting awareness and consensus on global and regional environmental issues;
- Developing common positions to guide African representatives in negotiations for legally binding international environmental agreements;
- Promoting African participation in international dialogue on global issues of importance to Africa;
- Reviewing and monitoring environmental programmes at the regional, sub-regional and national levels;
- Providing regional strategic and policy guidance to promote sound environmental management for sustainable development;
- Promoting the ratification by African countries of multilateral environmental agreements relevant to the region; and
- Building African capacity in the field of environmental management.

Since its first session, those involved have created several AMCEN programmes, initiatives and activities to facilitate the effective implementation of its mandate towards environmental protection in Africa. It has implemented many concrete measures about regional policy development, awareness-raising, advocacy, coordination, networking, knowledge management and dissemination, and training. Through its strong convening power, it has brought together African governments, institutions and their development partners to deliberate and craft common positions on important issues for regional, international and global consideration.

## SADC frameworks for climate change

Alongside the discrete actions of national governments, SADC coordinates policy discussions at the regional level, including on a range of climate change initiatives.[30] Regional strategies and policies on climate change include the S*ADC Policy Paper on Climate Change (2011)*, which highlights the current and projected impacts of climate change on the region and suggests possible adaptation options and the *SADC Climate Change Adaptation Strategy (2011)* which recognises that water issues will impact a range of sectors, including energy, health and agriculture.



Construction of a GenderCCSA biogas plant in Eastern Cape.
*Photo: GenderCCSA*

The Disaster Risk Reduction Strategic Plan (2006-10) set out a strategic direction to achieve the long-term goal of building resilience in SADC nations. Meanwhile, stakeholders are currently finalising the development of a Regional Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan. The Framework of Sub-Regional Climate Programmes (2010), developed under the AMCEN, maps programmes and actors working on climate change adaptation in Southern Africa and identifies gaps or focus areas.

In addition to regional strategies, several member countries have identified other priorities in national strategies and plans. Every country has submitted at least one National Communication to the UNFCCC. Most have submitted National Adaptation Plans and all either have or are developing a national climate change strategy. Countries also have climate change integrated into sectoral strategies. For example, in Malawi, climate change adaptation is covered in the Food Security Policy, the National Agricultural Policy, the Agriculture Sector-Wide Approach, the Water Policy and the Disaster Risk Management Policy.

[29] UNEP (2017), African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN), available on: http://www.unep.org/africa/amcen (accessed 11 July 2017).
[30] Climatelinks (2016), Climate Change Risk Profile: Southern Africa, available on: https://www.climatelinks.org/file/2249/download?token=3YUmGJ5- (accessed 9 July 2017).

## The SADC Gender Protocol

The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development provides a framework for the empowerment of women, elimination of discrimination, and the promotion of gender equality and equity through gender-responsive legislation, policies, programmes and projects. The region marked a huge achievement when SADC countries agreed to include a chapter to address the current challenges of climate change facing the region. The Protocol now contains Chapter 31, which focuses on Gender and Climate Change. This is a milestone on the road to ad-dressing issues of gender and climate change, an area that lawmakers have often over-looked. This new chapter on Gender and Climate Change should be cross-referenced with the SADC Protocol on Environment and Sustainable Development that elaborates issues around environment and sustainability in the region.

This new article has only two provisions. The first calls for state parties to develop policies, strategies, and programmes to address the gender issues in climate change in accordance with the SADC Protocol on Environment and Sustainable Development and the second urges SADC states to conduct research to access the different gendered impacts of climate change and put in place effective mitigation and adaptation measures. The SADC climate change research priorities include building research capacity and strengthening platforms for research innovations; contextualising information at more localised scales; and better under-standing what would engender the transformations to move societies to a resilient and low-carbon development pathway.

## National strategies



**Botswana** is developing a National Adaptation Plan (NAP).[31] It will highlight priority areas such as Climate Smart Agriculture, which includes techniques such as low to zero tillage and multi-cropping to increase mulching and prevent soil erosion. The NAP calls for a broader stakeholder consultation so that the products of this process represent the views and aspirations of all the stakeholders and respond to their needs. The outcome of this process will be significant in guiding how the country responds to the development challenges linked to global warming and climate change across all sectors. Already exiting climate change information, socio-economic and development indicators, local experiences as well as existing policies, plans and institutional frameworks will inform this. The Ministry of Environment Wildlife and Tourism is coordinating the national Adaptation Plan development, with support from the National Committee on Climate Change.



**Lesotho** adopted a Vision2020 statement to guide all development goals, objectives and aspirations in the medium and long term.[32] It overlapped with Lesotho's work to meet the MDGs. Two key strategies aimed at fulfilling the Vision 2020 pronouncements: the Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) 2005-2007 which sought to reduce poverty from 56.6% in the base year of 2003 to 29% at the end of the plan period, and the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP):2012-2017. The latter embraced the key poverty targets of the PRS while seeking to consolidate all development goals with an associated Public-Sector Investment Programme for the plan period.



**Madagascar** has committed to evolve its progress toward sustainable economic and social development, whilst being environmentally aware and resilient to various hazards. The Government is implementing ambitious development programmes to boost the national economic output through the Politique Générale de l'Etat, the Plan National de Dévelopement 2015-2019[33] and its implementation plan. Climate actions rank among the top priorities in these programmes in the coming years. The Ministry of the Environment, of Ecology, the Sea and Forest (MEEMF) is responsible for the implementation and coordination of actions, as well as the mainstreaming of climate change issues in various social and economic sectors. The National Bureau of Climate Change Coordination (BNCCC) of MEEMF ensures the role of coordinating, facilitating, supervising and monitoring the effective implementation of all the measures/actions provided within. The BNCCC works closely with ministries, the National Climate Change Committee, sectorial and regional environmental offices, as well as non-governmental actors operating in the fight against climate change.



Stakeholders in **Malawi** have developed the National Climate Change Management Policy, which is currently pending cabinet approval

The **revised** Protocol includes a stand alone **Article 31** on Climate Change

[31] UNFCCC (2015), Botswana Intended Nationally Determined Contribution, available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Botswana%20First/BOTSWANA.pdf
[32] Kingdom of Lesotho Ministry of Energy and Metereology (2015), Lesotho's Intended Nationally De-termined Contributions, available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Lesotho%20First/Lesotho%27s%20INDC%20Report%20%20-%20September%202015.pdf (accessed 12 July 2017).
[33] Republic of Madagascar (2016), Madagascar's Intended Nationally Determined Contributions, available on http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Madagascar%20First/Madagascar%20INDC%20Eng.pdf (accessed 11 July 2017).

**Most** SADC countries are **yet** to **develop** or implement national adaptation strategies

and endorsement, to spur climate change activities in Malawi.[34] Its overall goal is to promote climate change adaptation and mitigation for sustainable livelihoods through measures to increase levels of knowledge and understanding and improve human well-being and social equity, all while pursuing economic development that significantly reduces environmental risks and ecological scarcities. In addition, Malawi has sector-specific policies, including mainstreamed adaptation and mitigation activities and implementation frameworks that foster development and transfer of technology and capacity building.



**Namibia** is still preparing its NAP and so has not yet developed an advanced adaptation strategy and plan.[35] Yet, past experiences of disastrous climate change impacts have obliged its government to incorporate climate change adaptation in Namibia's development agenda. The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET), which is responsible for all environmental issues in the country, is the National Focal Point to the UNFCCC.



**Seychelles** has a National Climate Change Strategy that provides an overarching framework and direction for climate change adaptation.[36] The Seychelles Sustainable Development Strategy 2012-2020, Chapter 12, which provides strategic goals and objectives to guide adaptation until 2020, incorporated this plan. These plans call for the mainstreaming of climate change adaptation into all sectoral plans, a goal that has already progressed in several sectors, including tourism, health, finance, agriculture, biodiversity, fisheries, disaster management, and land-use planning. Legislators also mainstreamed climate change adaptation in the Seychelles Strategic Plan, which is the definitive document intended to guide land-use management during the next 25 years (to 2040). The plan makes reference to sectoral plans by various ministries and is intended to provide an integrated framework for the development of new plans, particularly regarding land use.



**South Africa** is developing a National Climate Change Adaptation Strategy and Plan to be integrated into all relevant sector plans, and upon which it will base its UNFCCC National Adaptation Plan (NAP).[37] An assessment of sectoral, cross-sectoral and geographical vulnerabilities to the adverse impacts of climate change inform this plan. It will present pathways for adaptation towards an inclusive and just transition to a climate resilient economy and society, considering local and indigenous knowledge, gender, and economic and environmental implications.



Bertha Chiroro and Ndivile Mokoena pack honey for women entrepreneurs to sell in South Africa. *Photo: Gender CCSA*



**Swaziland** has developed a series of notable climate actions which include (amongst others) the establishment of a multi-stakeholder National Climate Change Steering Committee in 2011.[38] This committee spearheaded the development of Swaziland's 2014 National Climate Change Strategy and Action Plan and 2015 National Climate Change Policy. The policy aims to support the development of a sustainable, climate resilient and inclusive low-carbon green growth economy in line with vision 2022, outlined in the national development strategy.

[34] Republic of Malawi (2016), Malawi's Intended Nationally Determined Contributions, available on http://www4.unfccc.int/submissions/INDC/Published%20Documents/Malawi/1/MALAWI%20INDC%20SUBMITTED%20TO%20UNFCCC%20REV%20pdf.pdf (accessed 11 July 2017).
[35] Republic of Namibia (2016), Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDC) of The Republic of Namibia to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Namibia%20First/INDC%20of%20Namibia%20Final%20pdf.pdf (accessed 10 July 2017).
[36] Republic of Seychelles (2016), Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) Under The United Nations Framework Convention On Climate Change (UNFCCC), available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/submissions/INDC/Published%20Documents/Seychelles/1/INDC%20of%20Seychelles.pdf
[37] Republic of South Africa (2016), South Africa's South Africa's Intended Nationally Determined Con-tribution (INDC), available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/South%20Africa%20First/South%20Africa.pdf (accessd 10 July 2017).
[38] Kingdom of Swaziland (2015), Swaziland's INDCS, available on http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Swaziland%20First/Swaziland%27s%20INDC.pdf (accessed 12 July 2017).
[39] Government of Zambia (2016), Zambia's Intended Nationally Determined Contribution to the 2015 Agreement on Climate Change, available on: http://www4.unfccc.int/ndcregistry/PublishedDocuments/Zambia%20First/FINAL+ZAMBIA%27S+INDC_1.pdf (accessed 12 July 2017).



**Zambia** has in the recent past developed various climate change-related policies, strategies, projects and programmes.[39] These include: the National Policy on Environment (NPE, 2007); the National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS, 2010); National Forestry Policy of 2014; National Energy Policy of 2008; The National Agriculture Policy of 2014; Transport Policy of 2002; National Strategy for Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+, 2015); Second National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP2); the National Adaptation Plan of Action on Climate Change (NAPA, 2007); Technology Needs Assessment (TNA, 2013); Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs, 2014); and the Second National Communication (SNC, 2015). These all align with the Revised Sixth National Development Plan (RSDNP) and the Vision 2030 which promotes "a prosperous middle-income country by 2030." Both also support development of a low carbon and climate-resilient development pathway. The development of the Seventh National Development Plan (SeNDP, 2017-2021) is also underway and will consider climate change issues.

## Capacity

**Article 20.3** of the **Protocol on Environmental Management for Sustainable Development** State parties shall design gender responsive capacity building, education and training on environmental management, and climate change for sustainable development initiatives.

Women and men have different capabilities in terms of mitigating and adapting to climate change at the individual and group level. Education, gender roles, division of labour and income shape the options available to women and men to convert to low-carbon lifestyles and related technologies. Capacity building initiatives on gender and climate change have been attempting to help close the gender gap in climate change mitigation in the region.

Uncovering the dynamics of power relations helps us understand why some groups contribute differently to greenhouse gas emissions and why climate change affects some differently than others. It also enables us to analyse the ways in which climate change mitigation and adaptation may lead to different roles and responsibilities in the future. All stakeholders must consider these to identify solutions that draw on the skills, knowledge, resources and experiences of both sexes.

The Protocol provides for gender responsive capacity building on climate change

Protocol@Work

**Learning and building on gender and climate change**



A group of women in Bizana, Eastern Cape, take part in GenderCCSA training, including the creation of hot bags.
*Photo: Nokwanda Langazana*

GenderCCSA, a gender and climate justice organisation based in Johannesburg, has been working with women on gender integration in climate change adaptation. Their initiative uses a "learn and build" methodology of awareness training on gender integration in climate change adaptation, energy efficiency, waste management, and sustainable farming methods in selected communities in Gauteng and Eastern Cape. Women farmers undertook a process of skills training and capacity building by making hot bags (energy efficient food storage products); processing herbs into skin care lotions, soaps and medicines; bee-keeping and compost making using worms (vermiculture). The initiative aims to build the capacity of grassroots women, small-scale farmers and civil society community leaders in climate change adaptation and finance, renewable energy and energy efficiency and sustainable ag-riculture so they can engage more effectively in local debates about climate change.

***Climate impact*** - The initiative empowered women living in poverty to adapt to the negative impacts of climate change. Skills include: 1) learning to make products that will help them adapt to climate change impacts; 2) diversification of the sources of income to improve their livelihoods; and 3) increased resiliency to climate change.

***Gender impact*** - The initiative enhanced and increased women's productivity and diversified their sources of income: they led and managed the work. Women champions have since been establishing cooperatives to run the various initiatives and save money through selling garden produce and products. The "learn and build" methodology has enabled women to make and sell various products they learned as part of the project. It has given women an opportunity to exchange information about how to package and sell their produce. Additionally, women learn by counselling each other, giving each other tips on economic empowerment and strategising about other income-generating projects such as packaging their pro-duce and herb processing.

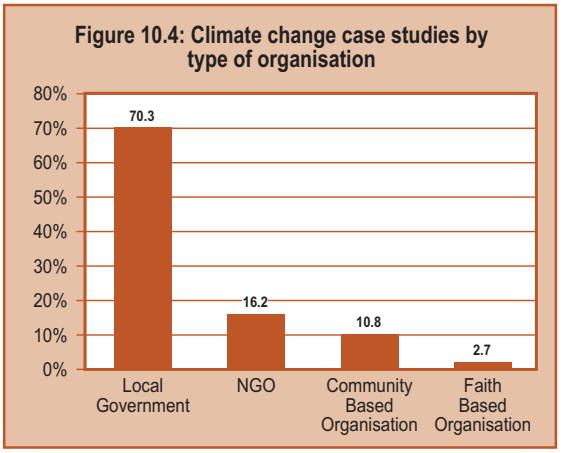
***Lessons learned:***

- Adaptation to climate change should focus on women's particular vulnerability, and also understand their unique capabilities.
- Most grassroots women do not have strong financial and marketing skills and thus are unable to meet the quality standards set by various players in the formal markets. This means women must identify local markets that do not require expensive standards.
- Once women know about the issues of climate change and how they can participate in policymaking processes, it will become easier for them to demand that their govern-ments include them in the public participation processes. Thus, they will be able to make meaningful contributions to the policy process and ensure that politicians hear their voices.
- Adaptation will be more effective if it makes use of women's traditional strengths. Their experience gives them the potential to lead community and national efforts - well beyond their household door-step.

**37** Protocol @work climate change case studies in 2016 Summits

## Stakeholder engagement

***Protocol on Environmental Management for Sustainable Development***
***Article 20.5:*** State parties shall employ people-centered, equitable, gender inclusive and participatory consultations of all stakeholders in all environmental management and climate change for sustainable development programmes and initiatives.




Of the 178 project best practice case studies submitted for the SADC Protocol@Work summits in 2017, 37 appeared in the climate change and sustainable development category.

Figure 10.4 shows that local government councils have the highest number of case studies for gender and climate change. 37 councils allocated budgetary resources to gender and climate change and 34 received in-kind contributions for gender and climate projects. The example that follows shows the kinds of projects being implemented at the local level.

**Namibia council empowers women on climate change mitigation**



The town of Oshikuku in Namibia is hit hard by annual flood waters, which do not spare homes, animals, businesses or anything else in their path. During the flood season, schools close and it becomes dangerous for women and children to move around, sell goods or access potable water and health care. Thus, Oshikuku residents are aware of the challenges linked to changing weather, which is why they supported the town council when it rolled out several new initiatives to mitigate climate change and improve agriculture in recent years.

These initiatives collected information from rural communities, indigenous peoples, and re-searchers on how to employ agricultural biodiversity to cope with climate change; and iden-tify tools and practices relevant for coping with climate change. Ultimately, the council aims to address gaps in its community and identify research that will respond to the needs of farmers, community members and indigenous people.

Council has also worked with women in the community to plant trees, create recycling pro-grammes, and manage the community's water, including during annual flooding. It built bridges in areas where it has previously been dangerous for community members to walk during flood season. These bridges also ensure women and children can avoid exposure to water-borne diseases.

The gender representative on council, Emilia Mwetulundila, says public participation in these projects has been very important "because we have access to get primary information from different sources, we have the ability to give our views and concerns and it's a platform where the community can communicate with councillors and officials."

As a result, she says the initiatives have empowered local women to participate in economic life and climate change programs. This includes receiving training as part of some projects that has allowed local women to develop new skills and support their families.

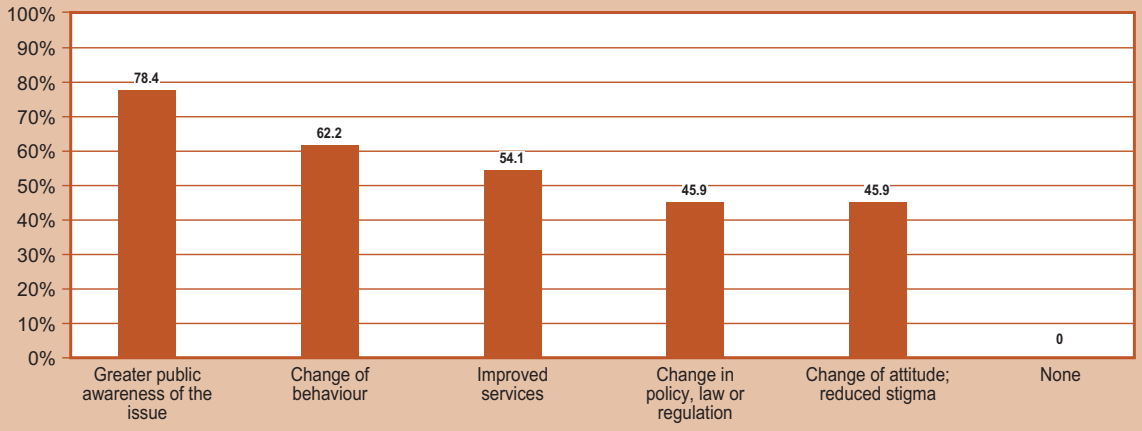
"We are indeed grateful for what council have done for us," says local businesswoman Maria Shipunda. "We have been struggling for years to get potable water and proper sanitation, and ensure the health, safety and well-being of all women. I am happy with the development brought by the council; this is indeed a progressive council."

*Source: SADC Protocol@Work Summit 2016*



Children walk to school in a flooded area in Omusati region, Namibia. *Photo courtesy of the Namibian*

**Figure 10.5: Climate change case studies by focus area**




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78% of Protocol@Work climate change case studies **focused** on awareness raising

Figure 10.5 shows that most climate change and gender case studies demonstrated capacity building through raising awareness, followed by those linking to behavioural change, improved services, policy change and reduced stigma. Raising awareness on climate change is a critical programme area for all stakeholders at both local and national levels. Climate change mitigation has opened doors to creating more participatory income generation activities, especially amongst women. Rural communities that rely on land as means of day to day survival present an opportunity for environmental management practices that link rural women farmers to commercial markets and more equitable distribution systems for their goods.

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Climate change **mitigation** has created opportunities for women's participation

**Localising climate change adaptation**

Farmers in the Bophelo Thembisa Cooperative in Castille village outside Bushbuckridge in Mpumalanga province have recently incorporated innovative climate change adaptation strategies. The cooperative, a group of three women and two men, has been growing vegetables and ground nuts on an eight hectare communal farm. They also make jewellery for extra income.

After receiving permission from the chief to utilise the land, the group erected fencing using second-hand barbed wire and self-made poles cut by hand. During their first year of operation, 2015, the cooperative planted only two hectares of ground nuts and sweet potatoes. Following a good harvest, they used their proceeds to further develop four more hectares.



Children count the number of PET bottles for recycling in Tembisa, 2016. *Photo: Infrastructure News*

Due to challenges relating to lack of infrastructure for irrigation and water storage facilities, however, some crops failed. "We started off fetching water from the nearby river to manually water the plants and later received a hip pump which does not require electricity," explains Grana Mahlake, one of the farmers.

Climate change has affected the project, especially excessive heat, which affects the crops and the farmers' ability to work. Although Bushbuckridge is known for a hot climate, Mahlake believes that temperatures have risen too much in recent years. She says by 10am, the sun is already too hot to work under, which means the farmers must cut their days short. Lack of rain and recent droughts also impact their yields.

These challenges forced the cooperative to meet with other South African farmers to learn how to alter their crops and instead specialise in vegetables that can withstand the hot and dry conditions, such as ground nuts and chillies. These crops have helped in other ways, says Mahlake. "Because our area doesn't experience extreme cold in winter, we manage to plant all through the year which helps when coming to cash flow."

*Source: Gender CCSA*

State parties shall utilise local knowledge, particularly women's skills, knowledge and capacities in mitigation and adaptation strategies for environmental management.

**Table 10.4: Representation of women and men in key decision-making positions related to the environment**

| | Angola | | Botswana | | DRC | | Lesotho | | Madagascar | | Malawi | | Mauritius | | Mozambique | | Namibia | | Seychelles | | South Africa | | Swaziland | | Tanzania | | Zambia | | Zimbabwe | | Total Female | Total Male | Overall total | % Female |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | | | | |
| Year | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | 2017 | | | | | |
| Minister of Environmental Affairs (Wildlife) | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 10 | 15 | 33% |
| Deputy Minister of Environmental Affairs | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 42% |
| Permanent Secretary/DG | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 13 | 31% |
| Minister of Tourism | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 15 | 13% |
| Deputy Minister of Tourism | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 42% |
| Permanent Secretary/DG | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 7 | 9 | 22% |
| Minister of Fisheries | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 10 | 12 | 17% |
| Deputy Minister of Fisheries | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 20% |
| Permanent Secretary/DG | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 0% |
| Minister of Water Affairs | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 13 | 23% |
| Deputy Minister of Water Affairs | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 40% |
| Permanent Secretary/DG | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0% |
| Minister of Agriculture | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 15 | 13% |
| Deputy Minister of Agriculture | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 11 | 15 | 27% |
| Permanent Secretary/DG | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 10 | 10% |
| **Total** | **3** | **6** | **0** | **10** | **0** | **10** | **4** | **6** | **2** | **4** | **1** | **11** | **5** | **11** | **1** | **5** | **4** | **13** | **2** | **3** | **7** | **8** | **3** | **11** | **1** | **11** | **3** | **11** | **4** | **5** | **40** | **125** | **165** | **24%** |
| **Percentage** | **33** | **67** | **0** | **100** | **0** | **100** | **40** | **60** | **33** | **77** | **8** | **92** | **31** | **69** | **17** | **83** | **24** | **76** | **40** | **60** | **47** | **53** | **21** | **79** | **8** | **92** | **21** | **79** | **44** | **56** | **24** | **76** | | |

*Source: Gender Links 2017.*

Table 10.4 illustrates women's representation in climate change decision-making in the region. At 24% in 2017, the same as 2016, women have yet to reach one third of decision-making positions, nowhere close to 50-50 representation. Zimbabwe (44%), Lesotho and Seychelles (40%) have the highest representation of women in climate change decision making. DRC and Botswana have no women represented in climate change decision making; Malawi and Tanzania (8%) have the lowest level of women in decision-making in climate change.

## Research and adaptation measures for climate change

Article 31, 1b: State parties shall conduct research to access the different gendered impacts of climate change and put in place effective mitigation and adaptation measures.

**Article 20.6 *Protocol on Environmental Management for Sustainable Development:*** State parties shall, as part of their research agenda, include all aspects of gender in environmental management, risk assessment, emergency and disaster response, and other sustainable development initiatives.

The Protocol **provides** for **research** on the gendered **impacts** of climate change

Focusing on increasing resilience and the adaptation capacity of communities remains fundamental to addressing their vulnerability to a changing climate. However, this requires an understanding of the impact of climate variability on poverty and vulnerability, and who it affects. The impacts of climate change often particularly affect rural women because they play a major role in natural resource management and ensuring food security and nutrition in the households. In many SADC countries, women remain responsible for growing, processing, managing, and marketing food and other natural resources. This includes managing food gardens as well as finding energy solutions and access to water in their households. As a result, climate change adaptation and mitigation actions must be relevant, accessible, and benefit the poor and avoid exacerbating inequalities in the communities. It is crucial for government officials to build the adaptive capacity and resiliency of communities, vulnerable groups including women, and the institutions that support them based on the capacities of affected communities themselves. The specific impacts of climate change on different sectors include:

- Agriculture: Increased crop losses/failure due to more pests (the recent army worm outbreak), weeds, and pathogens;
- Water: Increased variability of flows, reduced water quality and salinisation of coastal aquifers;
- Human health: Changing distribution of vector-borne diseases and more death/illness from extreme events;
- Ecosystems: Changes in species composition, increased degradation/deforestation and altered fire regimes;
- Infrastructure: Damage to roads, bridges, etc., reduced efficiency of flood protection mechanisms; and
- Energy: Increased cost and revenue losses, changing seasonal energy demands and reduced hydropower generation.



Waste recycling efforts in parts of the region have become a source of income for some.
*Photo: GenderCCSA*

Article 31, 1b, compelling states to conduct research to access the different gendered impacts of climate change and put in place effective mitigation and adaptation measures is an important step toward finding effective and appropriate mitigation and adaption measures. Lack of research and gender disaggregated data often results in ineffective or inappropriate mitigation and adaptation measures that often exacerbate gender inequality. Integrating gender equality in research will enable inclusivity in mitigation, adaptation and financing efforts.

Adaptive activities (e.g. climate-proofing agriculture, pest, disease and fire management) remain critical to sustainable development. Adaptation efforts, which are daily issues for in-dividual women and men, families and households, will require more resources than such individuals currently have available. Though this affects both women and men and women- and men-headed households, it is likely to be more acute for women and women-headed households because of gender gaps in income and social and economic resources.

**Defending the rights of women farmers**

A recent initiative by GenderCCSA aimed to support women farmer cooperatives by helping them mitigate and adapt to the many gender related insecurities due to climate change in the South African provinces of Limpopo, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Gauteng. The project capacitated producers to claim their rights to food security and climate justice in the context of climate change.



GenderCCSA staff display their products and services related to climate change and women farmers.
*Photo: Nokwanda Langazana*

GenderCCSA supported 1200 women in four provinces to access their needs on climate finance and funding mechanisms for agriculture as well as increasing public awareness on food and climate justice. The women's needs were documented on DVD, and the group used posters and flyers to influence policymakers at country, regional and global levels to prioritise the needs of women small scale producers in climate finance and funding mechanisms for climate resilience. The project aimed to increase integration of gender aspects in all areas of poverty reduction, climate-related policies, programmes and strategies.

***Climate impact:*** Food insecurity can lead to famine, political instability and violence. Adaptation will be effective if it makes use of women's traditional strengths. Their experience gives them the potential to lead community and national efforts, well beyond the household level. Responses to climate change hold the potential for real improvement in people's daily lives.

***Gender impact:*** The project highlighted how climate justice for women focuses on the social vulnerabilities women face due to climate change. It created a discourse bringing together issues pertinent to rural women, agricultural cooperatives, gender activists, and the climate change sector.

***Lessons learned:*** There is little documented evidence from South Africa on how climate change impacts the poorest in general and small-scale farmers and women in particular. There is a need for studies that look at men and women separately in order to develop sound policies. South African policies, in particular the green paper on land reform, appear to be "gender blind," not making specific reference to the needs of women. In many traditional authorities, the pervasive notion that women cannot own land still remains common. In such areas, no one is enforcing gender-sensitive policies. *Source: Gender CCSA*

Mitigation strategies are also not gender neutral.[40] Mitigation within the context of sustainable development can help to promote gender equity and women's empowerment by addressing at least four issues:

- Women and men's energy needs and uses;
- Women and men's employment and entrepreneurship, though potential challenges and constraints exist in the agriculture, energy and power sectors;
- Incorporating women and men's traditional knowledge and practices into mitigation strategies and policy frameworks; and
- Paying close attention to ensuring gender equity in the use, conservation and management of forests.

Some mitigation actions, such as the provision of clean and modern energy services, save both women and men time, reduce accidents and promote better health. Others, such as those affecting land use, can shift the balance of economic and social resource distribution between women and men and among different communities, and therefore exacerbate inequality.

Extreme weather conditions also have gendered impacts. Disaster studies from around the world show that drought and flooding often affect more women than men. Other differentiators such as age, socio-economic status and ethnicity are also important determining factors in this context. Both women and men are vulnerable to climate change, particularly if it reduces their capacity to adapt to its negative impacts and adversely affects their ability to contribute to mitigation.

[40] Gender, Development and Social Chage (2017), Khan, Z. and Burn, N,(Ed.), Financing for Gender Equality:Realising Women's Rights through Gender Responsive Budgeting, Springer Nature, Macmillan, London, 280.

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Drought and floods **affect** more women than men

Only **60%** of SADC has **access** to safe drinking **water**

Women face frequent exposure to additional gender-specific factors and barriers that consistently render them more vulnerable than men to the effects of climate change and disasters. This may prevent them from utilising their specific skills and knowledge (such as resource management and conservation) to improve mitigation and adaptation outcomes. Women have a critical role to play in combatting climate change: all levels of decision-making must include more women. This will be a significant factor in addressing the impacts of climate change in Southern Africa.

The region hosted the 17th Conference of the Parties (COP17) of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), in South Africa in late September 2016. The conference offered little joy for Southern Africa as it did not meet key expectations. Despite consensus from most SADC countries to lift a ban on trade in ivory due to the region's record of well-managed wildlife that has resulted in huge elephant populations in some countries, CITES maintained the restrictions.



GenderCCSA staff and community members inspect a biogas system in Eastern Cape, South Africa. *Photo: GenderCCSA*

## Access to clean water and energy sources

Women and girls remain responsible for most household and community activities, including energy and water provision in SADC, and thus are the primary energy producers and end users at household level. Major challenges within the gender, water and energy nexus include the limited participation of women in designing home energy systems, resource access, and decision-making at national and regional levels.

As illustrated by some of the country-specific examples, SADC's water and energy sectors are under increasing pressure due to population growth, agricultural and industrial development and climate change. Existing infrastructure does not yet meet a large proportion of the basic social needs of the region's people, let alone satisfy the massive energy and water needs for industrial development. Access to electricity in some of the member states is less than 20%, while only 60% of SADC's population has access to safe drinking water. Limited or degraded water resources, further impacted by climate change, will affect those most the most vulnerable - the poor, the elderly, women and children.[41] Without access to water and modern energy services, women and girls spend most of their time on time-consuming, non-remunerative and highly laborious basic tasks such as collecting biomass fuels and clean water. This further exacerbates gender inequalities as many women cannot access wage employment, education or business opportunities due to these responsibilities. It also limits options for social and political interaction outside the household.

The SADC region is rich in renewable and non-renewable energy resources, including coal, oil and natural gas hydrocarbon resources, as well as significant deposits of uranium, a source of nuclear energy. Despite these rich natural resources, energy access and utilisation remain low by international standards. Outside South Africa, power consumption averages 124 kilowatt-hours per person per year or about enough to power one light bulb per person for six hours a day.[42] The development and supply of energy in many parts of Southern Africa remains a critical resource constraint on development due to poor infrastructure. Water and energy sources have become a cause of conflict in some communities.

Official data indicates that the status of energy demand and supply amongst the mainland member states of SADC grew by a weighted average of 3% per annum during 2014/15.[43] Although SADC has a unit that studies water and energy, reports available rarely show sex disaggregation. Over the last few years, Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe have had to resort to load-shedding as a stop-gap measure to conserve energy.

[41] Prasad, G (2012), 'Energy, water and climate change in Southern Africa. What are the issues that need further investment and research?', available on (https://www.erc.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/119/Papers-2012/12-Prasad-Energy_water_climate_change.pdf (accessed 25 July 2017).
[42] UNECA (2015), ''Sustainable development goals for the Southern Africa sub region - Summary report', available https://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/PublicationFiles/southern_africa_sdg_summary_report_english.pdf'(accessed 25 July 2017).
[43] Sunday Standard (2016), SADC's Longing To end energy and water crisis', available on http://www.sundaystandard.info/sadc's-longing-end-energy-and-water-crisis

Energy issues also continued to dominate regional integration discourse in SADC during the past year.[44] The region made significant progress towards development of a strategy to allow the uptake of cleaner alternative energy sources as well as developing innovative ways of using less energy to power its development agenda. Energy experts from the region approved the Regional Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Strategy and Action Plan (REEESAP) in October in Johannesburg, South Africa. The REEESAP (2016-2030) provides a framework for SADC member states to develop renewable energy strategies, leading to the greater uptake of renewable energy resources as well as mobilisation of financial resources.



**Angola:** To increase electrification in the country, the Ministry of Energy and Water projects has stated that, by the end of 2018, the country's power generation mix will consist of 64% hydropower, 12% natural gas and 24% other fossil fuels.[45] Government anticipates this total once several major projects come online during 2017 and 2018: the Soyo (gas) combined cycle plant, Cambambe hydroelectric phase 2, and the Lauca hydroelectric project. For these and future projects, external financing and private project development will be key, especially given the current government budget and economic downturn. Angola holds great potential for renewable energy production. To address rural demand, the government is pursuing the development of small-scale off-grid projects leveraging fossil fuels as well as renewable technologies (small hydro, solar, wind, and biomass).



**Botswana** has identified the use of solar energy as a potential alternative source of electricity supply in the country. The government is undertaking a green energy feasibility study aimed at providing alternative sources of electricity.[46] Botswana has already made some headway in developing alternative energy sources, with tenders out for solar and coal bed methane (CBM). It has a scalable 100 megawatt (MW) solar power plant, which is ear-marked to meet electricity needs for Jwaneng, mines in the North West region and the surrounding areas. On gas power, Tlou Energy Limited has focused on delivering power in Botswana through the development of CBM at its Lesedi project. The company recently announced it has received a detailed request for proposal from the government to develop up to 100 MWs of gas power.



Around 99% of the national electricity in **DRC** comes from hydro-power.[47] Traditional bio-mass - organic matter used for fuel - remains the main source of energy for cooking and heating. Small-scale renewable energy projects could make a valuable contribution. Direct benefits include the ability to increase energy access for the Congolese people, particularly those in rural areas. Stakeholders can rapidly develop small-scale projects, like a power unit of less than 1 MW, not connected to the grid, for local-level use. For example, in Gemena, a pilot project has allowed for a local electric production by using biofuel to supply a local mini-grid. This now provides 72 households with reliable electricity. These initiatives are more flexible and more adapted to the DRC setting where electricity access in rural areas barely reaches 6%. In this setting, small-scale renewables make much more sense. The DRC has opted to roll out other small- to medium-scale projects like the dams of Kakobola, which generate about 9 MW. The country is also slowly opening to alternatives, like solar and biomass, with many potential benefits. The Kananga small solar installation, inaugurated in the Central Kasai province this year is one example. It can deliver 1 MW of power to the country.



According to its Department of Energy, **Lesotho** could potentially produce 450 MW in hydro-power and several hundred more with wind power. However, only 17% of this potential is being exploited, 96% of it at the Muela hydro-power plant and the rest from mini hydro-power plants at Mantsonyane, Mokhotlong, Tsoelike and Semonkong.[48] Breeze Power, a company owned jointly by the government of Lesotho and Harrison and White Investments, is investigating 12 sites for wind power generation. Energy demand is growing in South Africa and the rest of the region, and Lesotho has the potential to export renewable power.



**Madagascar** holds interesting opportunities in renewable energies for foreign investors, as energy is a top priority for the government. The strong political will to electrify the country using

SADC **adopted** a strategy for **clean** sources

[44] The Herald (2017), 2016 an eventful year for the SADC, available on http://www.herald.co.zw/2016-eventful-year-for-sadc/ (accessed 12 July 2017).
[45] U.S. Commercial Service Angola (2017), Angola - Electric Power Equipment, available on https://www.export.gov/apex/article2?id=Angola-Electric-Power-Equipment (accessed 12 July 2017).
[46] MmegiOnline (2017) Gov't finalises renewable energy strategy, available on http://www.mmegi.bw/index.php?aid=66467&dir=2017/february/08 (accessed 12 July 2017).
[47] SAIIA (2017), Why Renewable Energy is just as important as Hydropower in the DRC, available on: http://www.saiia.org.za/opinion-analysis/why-renewable-energy-is-just-as-important-as-hydropower-in-the-drc (accessed 13 July 2017).
[48] U.S. Commercial Service (2017), Lesotho Renewable Energy, available on: https://www.export.gov/article?id=Lesotho-Renewable-Energy, (accessed 13 July 2017).

There is a **growing demand** for renewable energy **use** at household level

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renewable energy is demonstrated by prioritisation in the National Development Plan and by the country's New Energy Policy, Nouvelle Politique de l'Energie, launched in 2015.[49] It aims to supply nearly three-quarters of the population with electricity by 2030, with a renewable energy component of 85%, and 20% in mini-grids. Currently, only 15% of Madagascar's 24 million inhabitants have access to electricity, and only 6% in rural areas. Yet Madagascar has great natural potential for renewable energy, such as solar, wind, bio-mass and hydropower, much of which remains untapped.



**Malawi** has significant renewable energy resources, but so far has only exploited its larger hydropower resources. This is due to lack of funding for research institutions, inadequate policy provisions and implementation, previously high technology costs, and the lack of experience with technologies such as solar and wind power.[50] Malawi's installed electricity capacity is a mere 351 MWs, not enough to meet current demand, let alone to plan for the future. As in many countries across sub-Saharan Africa, Malawi's abundant renewable energy resources - such as solar, wind, and hydropower - are the source of rapid new generation capacity. Independent power producers can turn these resources into reliable, distributable electricity most efficiently through investment in renewable energy power plants. To support and advance such transactions, Power Africa entered into a new agreement with the Government of Malawi, signed in February 2016.



**Mauritius** is targeting renewable energy production exceeding 35% of the electricity generation mix by 2025 from a 2016 level of 20% (mostly sugarcane-based generation). Analysis released in late 2016 by Afrobarometer about renewables in Mauritius concluded the population is onboard with their government's aggressive push toward green energy.[51] Renewable energy include a 9 MW wind farm built by the French company Quadran in 2016 and local firm Sarako Ltd delivering a 15 MW solar farm in 2014.



**Namibia** has some of the best renewable energy resources, including solar resource locations for a variety of installations.[52] The country also has suitable locations and available space for wind energy generation, with locations where the power production profile closely matches the time of day electricity demand for Namibia. The projects proposed for the energy sector in the fifth National Development Plan (NDP 5) period are all renewables.

**Changing energy sources and attitudes in Zimbabwe**

Until a recent environmental project helped changed their minds, most women in Kadoma thought liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) was both expensive and dangerous to use, says a local government representative in the region. The project, a collaboration between the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, the Kadoma City Council, the Forestry Commission, and several local organisations, used public demonstrations to convince local women that LPG is a better choice than the firewood they previously spent many hours collecting.

Electricity shortages have become a common phenomenon in recent years in both urban and electrified rural areas in Zimbabwe. Because of this, communities have resorted to using alternative energy sources like firewood, which is not sustainable or environmentally friendly and leads to deforestation.

It is against the background of increased load shedding in



Clean up campaign in Kadoma. *Photo: Gender Links*

[49] NAMA News (2017), Opportunities in Renewables for Foreign Investors in Madagascar, available on: http://mitigationandtransparencyexchange.org/news/2016/09/29/opportunities-in-renewables-for-foreign-investors-in-madagascar/ (accessed 13 July 2017).
[50] ESMAP (2017), Renewable Energy Resource Mapping in Malawi, available on: http://www.esmap.org/re_mapping_malawi (accessed 13 July 2017).
[51] The Guardian (2017), Naval power: Mauritius looks to Perth base for renewable energy solutions, available on https://www.theguardian.com/sustainable-business/2017/apr/18/naval-power-mauritius-looks-to-perth-base-for-renewable-energy-solutions (accessed 13 July 2017).
[52] New Era (2017), Renewable energy answer to multi-faceted energy needs, available on https://www.newera.com.na/2017/02/24/renewable-energy-answer-to-multi-faceted-energy-needs/ (accessed on 13 July 2017).

urban areas that the Ministry be-gan working to mitigate the effects of climate change through building capacity and sensitising women on the use of alternative sources of energy.

Its project has several benefits for the local communities along with reducing deforestation, which leads to desertification. It also improves air quality and spares local citizens the negative impacts of burning firewood for fuel, such as the harmful effects of smoke inhalation and the emission of unburned hydrocarbons through traditional stoves.

District leaders carried out various sensitisation campaigns about the advantages of using LPG. They also mobilised women to begin selling LPG and helped them form groups to start business projects. The district also conducted feasibility studies to ascertain the possibility of establishing women-run LPG filling stations in Kadoma.

The project has empowered local women and helped save them time that they would previously have spent collecting firewood. *(Source: SADC Protocol @Work Summit 2016)*

Clean water resource management is affected by gender inequality through lack of women's participation, gender skewed technical skills and lack of synergy on policies and practice. Organisations such as the Global Water Partnership Southern Africa have been addressing this.

**Global Water Partnership Southern Africa marks International Women's Day 2017**

The gender gap in the water sector is a significant challenge both internationally and regionally as those involved in development strategies tend to have many years of experience, traditionally associated with more established male players. Bridging this gap is a means of ensuring that women, men and youth join the process of designing and shaping the future they inherit. Addressing this means providing shared ownership and capacity with respect to the global and regional water challenges.

Drawing on the global theme for this year: "Planet 50-50 by 2030: Step It Up for Gender Equality," The Global Water Partnership (GWP) Southern Africa partners showcased various initiatives to narrow the gender gap in the water sector as part of International Women's Day 2017. These include an increase in intake of female students in water-related programmes at technical institutions, development of gender disaggregated water indicators and elimination of gender discrimination through policy to practice initiatives.

GWP continues to encourage its partners and other stakeholders to "step it up" in gender mainstreaming into national water strategies, policies and programmes that can lead to better outcomes towards achieving gender equality and for achieving water security.

*Adapted from GWP Southern Africa website*[53]

**Only 40% of SADC has access to adequate sanitation facilities**

Water scarcity is a growing concern in the region with population growth and associated demands for domestic, agricultural, and industrial increasing stress on limited water resources.[54] Alarmingly, the SADC 2015 figures indicated that out of the more than 292 million people in SADC, only 60% have access to safe drinking water while only 40% have access to adequate sanitation facilities.[55] The SADC regional Infrastructure Master Plan estimates that, in order to support regional development by 2027, there is a need to increase the current 14% of the stored water resources to at least 25%. This will involve training citizens, especially women, on techniques such as rainwater harvesting and recycling.

[53] Global Water Partnership Southern Africa, March 2017, accessed 25 July 2017 http://www.gwp.org/globalassets/global/gwp-saf-files/step-it-up-for-gender-equality_iwd17_gwpsa.pdf
[54] Dlamini S.B (2017), Speech at the SADC Joint Energy and Water Ministers Meeting', available on http://www.gov.sz/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1967:sadc-states-must-invest-more-in-energy-and-water-access&catid=103:news&Itemid=822 (accessed 25 July 2017).
[55] Sunday Standard (2016), SADC's Longing To end energy and water crisis', available on http://www.sundaystandard.info/sadc's-longing-end-energy-and-water-crisis (accessed 25 July 2017).

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**Rainwater harvesting and conservation training for women farmers**

Rain is the only source of water for drinking and domestic usage in many areas of SADC. Thus, GenderCCSA is implementing a sustainable livelihoods project in four drought-prone communities in Limpopo and Western Cape. It is using technical capacity-building trainings for women farmers to spread awareness among communities about how to harvest every drop of rain for drinking, domestic usage and food production.

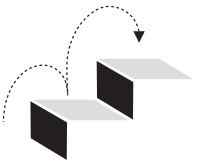
GenderCCSA also facilitates workshops and technical assistance of women in rooftop construction, rainwater harvesting, runoff farming, storm flow conservation, benching and terracing of agriculture, micro-catchments, solar pump systems and using in-situ rainwater for sustainable food production.

Their initiatives aim to reduce the amount of time women spend looking for water and doing household work. These interventions will allow women more time for other activities, such as income generation.

***Climate impact:*** Climate change, including shifts in rainfall patterns, drought, temperature hikes, changes in sowing and harvesting dates, and water and land quality, affects food productivity. This project is based on innovative adaptation technologies to mitigate excess usage of natural resources. Rainwater conservation by women has had a positive impact on food security. It also saves water which reduces flooding in downstream areas. In turn, this reduces water-borne diseases.

***Gender impact:*** This project trains those women most vulnerable to climate change about ways to adapt and improve their lives. As a result, women farmers now practice multiple rainwater harvesting technologies to save water for future use - providing a positive impact on rural women's lives and reducing their work loads. Women farmers can now collect and utilise rainwater for kitchen gardening for their family's consumption. This also economically empowers women.

***Lessons learned:*** The issues of climate change, poverty, environment and gender are tightly interwoven and cannot be separated. However, government and policymakers often do not recognise this inter-connectedness and thus do not come up with holistic policies and programmes. Climate change policies and programmes, as well as technological and large-scale, market-based climate change adaptation solutions, present the best way to adapt to the impacts of climate change. Climate change concepts can be technical and scientific, which is why it is important to provide accessible materials in order to sustain capacity building in grass-roots communities and with women, especially in rural communities where many women have limited education. *Source: GenderCCSA*



## Next steps

- Prepare regional stakeholders, women's groups and environmental groups for the UN-FCC COP 23 conference in Bonn, Germany.
- Lobby for a UNFCCC non-market-based approach with a strong focus on climate justice, including gender-responsive activities.
- Urge UNFCCC parties to develop an ambitious gender action plan that ensures timely imple-mentation and monitoring of gender-related decisions and mandates under the UNFCCC.
- Strengthen the SADC Protocol Alliance climate change cluster through research and capacity building.
- Monitor the localisation of the SDGs and the implementation of the new Protocol provi-sions linked to this sector, ensuring leaders in member states keep climate change and gender issues linked to global warming and changing weather on the agenda.
- Promote advocacy that targets member states to implement gender and climate change prog-rammes that include food security, water and sanitation, energy, indigenous people and disaster management.

Raising awareness of gendered **impacts** is **critical**

# CHAPTER 11

# Implementation

## Articles 32-36




Civil society remains a critical watchdog in implementation of SADC instruments. Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA) members march to claim their rights in Luanda, Angola, November 2015. *Photo: Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA)*

**Botswana** signed the **Protocol** for the **1st time** in **May 2017**

### KEY POINTS

- SADC has adopted a Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework to implement the SADC Gender Protocol with 123 indicators, with some of these being sub-indicators to the 82 indicators in the MERF.
- Botswana signed the Protocol for the first time in May 2017.
- A committee of Ministers responsible for gender and women appealed successful that the SADC Gender Unit should not be subsumed under the Directorate of Social and Human Development.
- 442 Centres of Excellence for Gender in local Government have updated their gender action plans in line with the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol.
- The Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance has reviewed the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) in line with the Post-2015 Protocol. The Alliance dropped some of the original 23 indicators that have bow been achieved and added several others from the MER Framework, SDGs, and "unique" media, attitude and assessment indicators giving a total of 36 measurable indicators (compared to 23 before). The index now covers nine of the eleven sectors of the Protocol, compared to six before.
- In 2016, the Alliance reviewed the Protocol knowledge quiz and Citizen Score Card in line with the Post-2015 Protocol.
- The SGDI places gender progress in the region at 61% while the citizens rated their governments higher at 65%.
- Knowledge of the revised Protocol is at 49% compared to 46% score of 2016.
- The Alliance launched the Young Women's Alliance on 17 August, SADC Day 2017 in Pretoria, South Africa, ahead of the 2017 SADC Heads of States Summit.

## What the Protocol requires

Part Eleven of the SADC Gender Protocol (the Protocol) provides final provisions for implementing, monitoring and reporting. These provisions include legal remedies for persons who have been violated on the basis of gender. The Protocol calls on Member States to ensure gender sensitive and responsive budgets with the aim of empowering women and girls. The Protocol recognises the need for governments to mobilise financial, human and technical resources to ensure the successful implementation of the Protocol. The Protocol provides for institutional arrangements for implementation and describes the reporting arrangements to the SADC Council of Ministers. Article 35 of the Protocol calls for implementation in line with the SADC Implementation Action Plan and the SADC Monitoring and Evaluation Framework.

**Table 11.1: The Revised Gender Protocol**

| Former provisions | New provisions |
|---|---|
| Article 33<br>1. State Parties shall ensure gender sensitive budgets and planning, including the designation of necessary resources towards initiatives aimed at empowering women and girls. State parties shall mobilise and allocate the necessary human, technical and financial resources for the successful implementation of this Protocol. | Article 33<br>1. State Parties shall ensure gender sensitive and **responsive budgets** and planning, including the designation of necessary resources towards initiatives aimed at empowering women and girls. State parties shall mobilise and allocate the necessary human, technical and financial resources for the successful implementation of this Protocol. |
| Article 35: Implementing Monitoring and Evaluation<br>1. State Parties shall ensure the implementation of this Protocol at the national level. | Article 35: Implementing Monitoring and Evaluation<br>1. State Parties shall ensure the implementation of this Protocol i**n line with the SADC Implementation Action Plan and the SADC Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework.** |

Table 11.1 shows the new provisions of Section 11. These are:

- Article 33:1 has been amended to add *gender responsive* to gender sensitive budgeting across all sectors nationally to promote gender equality. The strengthening of provisions on Gender Responsive Budgeting is significant. It underscores the desire by ministers to move from words to action by "putting money where their mouth is" on gender equality.
- Implementation of the Protocol should be in line with the *SADC Implementation Action Plan as well as the SADC Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework.* The new provision in Article 35 will ensure that implementation of the Protocol is harmonised across all Member States in line with the SADC frameworks for monitoring and evaluation. The new provision will enable a tracking system reflecting where the countries need to improve data collection for gender transformation. Tracking of progress of implementation of the Gender Protocol remains essential to sustain gains made in the Millennium Development Goals era. The revised provision defines a framework of implementation that will link with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the African Union Agenda 2063 and the Beijing Plus Twenty Review. The provision allows for implementing the Protocol simultaneously with other SADC Protocols and instruments that are cross-referenced in the Protocol.




Of the **29** indicators for which data is **available** from the MERF, the **SDGI** is measuring **20**

| Table 11.2: Trends in Implementation 2009, 2015 and 2017 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Parameter** | **Target 2030** | **Baseline 2009** | **2015 Progress** | **2017 Progress** | **Variance** |
| **Signing and ratifying of the Protocol** | | | | | |
| Number of countries that have signed the Protocol. | 15 countries | 13 countries | 13 countries (Angola, Lesotho, Malawi, Madagascar, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe). | 10 countries[1] (Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe). | -6 countries (Malawi Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa and Zambia) |
| Number of countries that have ratified the Protocol. | 15 countries | 9 countries | 12 countries (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe). | 9 countries (Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe). | -6 countries (Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa and Zambia) |
| **Gender policies and action plans alignment** | | | | | |
| Number of countries developing policies and action plans aligned to the Protocol. | 15 countries | 3 countries Namibia, Seychelles, Zambia | 8 countries (Namibia, Swaziland, Seychelles, Zambia, Lesotho, DRC, Mozambique and Malawi) | 8 countries (Namibia, Swaziland, Seychelles, Zambia, Lesotho, DRC, Mozambique and Malawi) | -7 countries (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar, Mauritius, South Africa, |
| **Partnerships** | | | | | |
| Number of Alliance country MOU's. | 15 | 12 | 15 | 15 | - |
| Number of theme MOUs | 5 | 8 | 10 | 10 | +5 |
| **Knowledge of the Protocol**[2] | | | | | |
| Highest | 100% | Zimbabwe (54%) | DRC (55%) | Swaziland (70%) | -30% |
| Lowest | 100% | DRC (26%) | Seychelles (37%) | Mauritius, Zimbabwe (35%) | -65% |

Table 11.2 shows that:

- Ten countries - Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe - have signed the updated Protocol. In 2016, Botswana joined the fold by signing the updated SADC Gender Protocol for the first time. Mauritius is still hesitant to sign due to the age of marriage set at 18years in the Protocol.
- Eight countries have developed Gender Policies and action plans aligned to the 2008 Protocol. In the year under review Zimbabwe adopted a Post-2015 gender policy. An important next step is for all countries to update their gender policies and action plans in line with the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol.
- Gender Links as the coordinating organisation for the Alliance has MOU's with 15 country focal networks. These MOUs now need to be reviewed in line with the revised Protocol and newly adopted Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework. The Alliance is now consolidated into five clusters. Cluster based MOUs will be signed during the August 2017 Alliance annual meeting.
- The highest average knowledge score for the Protocol has been 54%. In 2016, the Alliance updated the knowledge score card in line with new developments. In 2016, the Swaziland knowledge score shot up from 43% in 2015/16 to 70% in 2016/2017, the year that Swaziland chaired SADC. Mauritius and Zimbabwe have surprisingly low scores of 35% (lower than 2015/16 scores of 46% and 47% respectively). Outreach work to popularise the Protocol is essential for implementation as the regional average score remains low at 49%.

[1] SARDC (June 2017) SANF 17 no 23 available at https://www.sardc.net/en/southern-african-news-features/sadc-gender-ministers-to-review-progress-on-regional-gender-development/ (Accessed 25 July 2017).
[2] Data for 2009 missing in Angola and Seychelles.

## Signing of the Protocol

**13** countries signed the original Protocol (2008), **10** countries have signed the revised Protocol (2016)

**Article 39: Signature**
The Protocol shall be signed by the duly authorised representatives of Member States.

**Article 40 Ratification**
The Protocol shall be ratified by the signatory states in accordance with their constitutional procedures.

**Article 41 Entry into force**
The Protocol shall enter into force thirty (30) days after the deposit of instruments of Ratification by two-thirds of the Member States.

**Table 11.3: Signing and ratification progress of the Protocol by country**

| COUNTRY | SIGNED PROTOCOL | SIGNED the agreement amending the PROTOCOL[3] | RATIFIED PROTOCOL | DEPOSITED INSTRUMENTS |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Botswana | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| DRC | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| Lesotho | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Madagascar | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| Malawi | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Mauritius | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ |
| Mozambique | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Namibia | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Seychelles | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| South Africa | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Swaziland | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Tanzania | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Zambia | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Zimbabwe | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

*Sources: SARDC SANF 17 No 23, June 2017; SADC Gender Monitor 2016.*

- ***Fourteen SADC Countries have now signed the Gender Protocol*** following Botswana's decision to sign after the updating of the Protocol in 2016.
- ***Ten SADC Member States including Botswana have signed the Agreement Amending the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development:*** At their Swaziland meeting, Ministers commended Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe for signing the agreement amending the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development and urged the remaining five countries to expedite their signing of this Agreement. Ministers noted that Malawi was ready to sign the amended SADC Protocol following the amendment to her Constitution to align it with the legislation on the Marriage in which minimum marriage age has been pegged at 18.[4] Zambia signed the Protocol at the 2017 SADC Heads of State Summit

[3] SADC (2017) Record: Meeting of Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs, June 2017.
[4] Ibid.

## Botswana signs the Protocol



President Ian Khama signs the Gender Protocol with witnesses from the SADC secretariat and other Botswana government officials, May 2017. *Photo: SADC*

On 10 May 2017, Botswana became the fourteenth SADC member state to sign the Revised SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. Botswana President Ian Khama signed and acceded to the revised Protocol at a ceremony in Gaborone witnessed by the SADC Executive Secretary, Dr Stergomena Lawrence Tax.

In a statement, Chair of the Alliance Emma Kaliya said: "this is a great moment for the region. Botswana hosts the secretariat of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and has taken many positive moves to implement the Protocol. It has been very painful for us to have Botswana working from the outside. We welcome the decision by the government to join the fraternity of those working to attain gender equality by 2030."

Past reservations from the Botswana Government on the Protocol include the prescriptive nature of the targets, and specific concerns on employment for widows, and the exclusion of widowers. The country's reservations on the time frames are now accommodated in the reviewed Protocol which does not include time bound targets. The Constitution and legal rights section has been amended to include both widows and widowers' rights.

"The Revised Protocol's targets are more realistic thereby taking into consideration Botswana's concerns. Furthermore, the Protocol has been harmonised with other SADC Instruments to optimize resources and avoid duplication," Botswana said in a statement.

Speaking at the signing ceremony, the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Nationality Immigration and Gender Affairs, Banny Molosiwa said: "I can only thank the SADC member states for agreeing with us, after engaging them with regard to the reservations we were having.''

Since 2011, BOCONGO, the Alliance focal network, has lobbied the Government of Botswana to sign the Protocol through showcasing the strides that have been achieved by the country in various sectors especially education. The Alliance accelerated lobbying efforts when Botswana chaired SADC in 2015.

In August 2015 the Alliance invited the Vice President Mokgwetsi Masisi to officially open the 2015 SADC Gender Protocol@work summit where he indicated that Botswana would likely sign the revised Protocol. Botswana becomes the 14th out of the 15 SADC countries to sign the ground-breaking Protocol. This leaves Mauritius as the only country yet to append its signature to the Protocol. "We urge Mauritius to review its stance," Kaliya said. "Mauritius is one of the oldest democracies in the SADC region, with strong constitutional, legislative and institutional provisions for gender equality. We need all 15 countries of SADC to pull together to make our slogan, 'action and results' a reality in this Post-2015 period."



**Mauritius** is now the only SADC member state yet to append its signature to the Protocol. Ministers of Gender and Women's Affairs raised concerns at the June 2017 Gender Ministers meeting over Mauritius's reservations to the reviewed SADC Protocol which was contravening the Mauritius Civil Law which allows children to marry at the age of 16 with parental consent[5]. This reservation implies that unless Mauritius reviews this law, there is no probability of it signing the Protocol. Mauritius previously raised concerns about its Constitution clashing with the previous Protocol. The SADC region is region with high levels of child marriages worsened by poor economic opportunities for women and high levels of gender based violence. The Alliance is advocating for Mauritius to review its laws to set the age of marriage at 18 in line with the reviewed Protocol.

[5] Ibid.

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**The Protocol has set the age of marriage at 18**

**Article 33: Financial provisions**

1. State parties shall ensure gender sensitive and responsive budgets and planning, including designating the necessary resources towards initiatives aimed at empowering women and girls.
2. State parties shall mobilise and allocate the necessary human, technical and financial resources for the successful implementation of this Protocol.

**Table 11.4: COUNTRY MAPPING OF NATIONAL GENDER POLICIES, PROCESS AND ALIGNMENT TO THE PROTOCOL**

| Country | Gender ministry | Gender integrated in national development plans? | Gender policy (date) | Gender action plan (date) | Aligned to Protocol? If not, how feasible? | In-country Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) Process | Upcoming process/entry points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Angola | Ministry for Family and the Promotion of Women. | Yes, The PRRP/ECP have defined objectives targeting women and gender equality. (Post-conflict rehabilitation and National Reconstruction Programme/Estratégia de Combate à Pobreza). | National Strategy to Promote Gender Equality up to year 2005. | Yes, 2005. | No, not specifically but addresses sectors similarly. | Yes, gender budgeting initiative introduced in 2000. A UNIFEM programme in support of the Ministry of Finance in mainstreaming gender in budgeting processes. | Advocacy on development of aligned policy and implementation plan. Advocacy in women's representation in the upcoming election (August 2017). |
| Botswana | No, Gender Affairs Department under the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. | Yes | Yes, draft form 2011. | Yes, based on WID Policy, 1997. | Yes | UNECA assisting Botswana with gender budgeting process BOCONGO leading civil society leads effort to address GRB. | Baseline implementation of the SADC Gender Protocol and harmonising existing national policies with the Protocol |
| DRC | Minister of Gender, Women and Children. | Yes | Yes adopted 2011 | Yes adopted 2011 | Yes, costed implementation plan in March 2014. | Implementation of costed plan | Ongoing backstopping and support from GL and Alliance network. |
| Lesotho | Ministry of Gender, Youth Sports and Recreation. | Yes | Yes, 2003 requires review | Yes, need to review action plan | In the pipeline led by Alliance focal network, Protocol ratified | Buy in of GRB | Hold a GRB workshop |
| Madagascar | No, changes parent ministry depending on government in place. Currently Gender under the Ministry of Population. | | | | | | Implementation of the reviewed SADC Gender Protocol |
| Malawi | Yes, Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare | Yes, 1996-1999. | Gender Policy 2005 reviewed in 2013 incorporating comments from the Office of | Yes, 2005 -2008. | Yes, Gender Equality Act aligned to the Protocol | Yes, government-driven initiatives with support of SADC Gender Unit. | Alignment of action plan finalised in October 2014. Enforcement of the Gender Equality Act. |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | President and Cabinet. | | | | |
| Mauritius | Yes, Ministry of Gender Equality, Child Development and Family Welfare | Yes | Yes, 8 March 2008. | No, but proposals to formulate may be brought to the Gender Ministry for consideration. | To some extent. | In the process of establishing civil society initiatives around gender budgeting. | Advocacy around signing the Protocol and review of child marriage policies. |
| Mozambique | Yes, Ministry of Women and Social Action. | Yes | Yes, March 2006. Requires review | Yes, addressing gender-based violence. | Yes, finalised in August 2014. | Yes, a joint civil society and government initiative. | Post -2015 implementation of the gender action plan. |
| Namibia | Yes, Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare. | Yes | Yes, revised 2010 - 2020 National Gender Policy. | Yes, costed gender action plan developed in 2011. | Yes, thematically incorporates the 28 targets. | Yes, costing of the national gender action plan completed. | Mainstreaming through thematic clusters across government ministries. |
| Seychelles | No, Gender Secretariat, housed within the Social Development Policy Division of the Minister for Social Affairs, Community Development and Sports. | Yes, but often gender neutral. | Yes, 2012 Draft National Gender Policy. | Yes, still in draft form. | Yes, integrates all 28 targets in the National Gender Policy and costed gender action plan. | Initiatives supported by UNFPA; gender mainstreaming processes supported by the SADC Gender Unit. Follow up workshop scheduled for September 2014. | Finalising the National VAW study, implementation of the gender action plan ongoing |
| South Africa | Yes, Ministry of Women. | Yes, but not to a large extent. | Yes, adopted 2000. | Yes, plans addressing gender-based violence. | Feasible through advocacy with Alliance focal network. | Yes, gender budgeting initiatives supported by UN Women. | Advocacy and lobbying with Ministry of Women to review Gender policy and Action plan Post - 2015. Lead as SADC chair of Ministries of women in implementing the Post 2-15 Protocol. Engagement mechanism between civil society and Ministry of Women. |
| Swaziland | No, there is a Gender and Family Unit that has been elevated to the Deputy Prime Minister's office from the Ministry of Home Affairs. | Through the Deputy Prime Minister's office | Yes, National Gender Policy 2010 to be reviewed and aligned to Protocol. | Yes, plan was developed in 2011 and revised in 2012 to align to Protocol | Yes | Has developed gender action Plan aligned to the Protocol. Yes, gender budgeting initiative supported by UNFPA. | Implementation of costed Gender Action Plan Aligned to the Protocol. |
| Tanzania | Yes. Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children. | Yes, Mkukuta II and I. | Yes, Gender Policy 2001 which requires review started a review of the policy in 2011. | Yes | Alignment in tandem with constitution review process; Buy-in of costed implementation plan. | Yes, a strong civil society led process. | Constitutional Review still ongoing. Revision of national gender policy. Advocacy campaign by civil society for the signing of the reviewed Protocol |
| Zambia | Ministry of Gender | Yes, to some extent. | Yes, adopted in 2000. | National Action Plan on Gender-Based Violence (2008-2013). | Has developed costed gender action plan aligned to the Protocol. | Yes, as of the beginning of 2011, the national GRB launched in conjunction with UNIFEM (UN Women). | Constitutional adopted in January 2016, civil society will likely advocate for a review of the Gender Policy following the provision for a gender commission |
| Zimbabwe | Yes, Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development. | Yes | Draft Gender Policy reviewed 2013 and is before cabinet | Yes, currently developing one parallel to the national policy review process. | Yes, aligning to Gender Protocol in the revised policy. | Policy reviews, capacity building initiatives, budget analysis processes and feedback sectoral budgeting process. | Implementation of revised National Gender Policy (2017). Alignment of laws to new Constitution. |

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

**9** countries have **engaged** in GRB initiatives

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Table 11.4 shows that:

- Fourteen SADC countries have integrated gender in national development plans, with the exception of Madagascar, which is a fragile post-conflict state and has not yet ratified the Protocol.
- Fourteen SADC countries have some sort of gender policy, again with the exception of Madagascar. At least six countries are completing or undertaking reviews after concerns that most policies are dated.
- Eight countries; Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia, DRC, Lesotho, Mozambique, Malawi and Seychelles are developing costed gender action plans aligned to the Protocol. However, these now need to be aligned to the revised Protocol.
- Nine countries have engaged in GRB initiatives of some kind (Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).

**Zimbabwe launches a revised National Gender Policy**




Hon. Nyasha Chikwinya, Minister of Women's Affairs, Gender & Community Development launches the revised National Gender Policy in Harare July 6, 2017 as Margaret Sangarwe-Mukahanana (left), Chairperson of the Zimbabwe Gender Commission and Georges van Montfort, UNDP Country Director, among others look on. *Photo: UNDP*

Zimbabwe unveiled a revised National Gender Policy (NGP) on July 6, 2017 with a call for gender justice, equality, integration, inclusiveness and shared responsibility for sustainable development. Developed through a consultative process and coordinated by the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development with support from UNDP and UN Women, the NGP provides a broad framework to guide and coordinate all efforts for addressing gender inequality and discrimination in Zimbabwe.

Minister of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development, Nyasha Chikwinya pointed out that new policy sets out priorities, builds coherence and facilitate resource mobilisation in support of gender equality and equity. The policy demonstrates the government's commitment to building an inclusive society by preventing and addressing any discrimination based on gender.

The new NGP addresses the gaps of the 2004 policy, and address emerging issues at the national, regional and global level including alignment to the SDGs, the SADC Gender Protocol and the African Union Agenda 2063. It reflects recent developments in the country including the 2013 Constitutional provisions that are explicit on the promotion of gender equality and removal of discrimination between men and women; the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation which commits to advancing equal participation of men and women in productive sectors; and other frameworks and agreements such as the 2011 Broad Based Women's Economic Empowerment Framework (BBWEEF), and the SADC Gender and Development Protocol which Zimbabwe has recently signed.

This NGP's vision is translated into 10 priority thematic areas namely: Gender, Constitutional and Legal Rights; Gender and Economic Empowerment; Gender, Politics and Decision Making; Gender and Health; Gender, Education and Training; Gender Based Violence; Gender, Environment and Climate Change; Gender, Media and Information Communication Technology (ICTS); Gender and Disability; and Gender, Culture and Region. In a first in Zimbabwe, the policy is also accessible in braille.

*Source: UNDP in Zimbabwe*[6]

Four countries (Botswana, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe) have established Gender Commissions or are in the process of doing so. The Commissions work as a watchdog for gender equality as in the Botswana case below:

[6] UNDP (July 2017), Milestone as New Gender Policy is launched, available here http://www.zw.undp.org/content/zimbabwe/en/home/presscenter/articles/2017/07/06/milestone-as-new-national-gender-policy-is-launched0.html accessed 20 July 2017.

**Botswana establishes a Gender Commission**



Botswana's National Gender Commission has been hailed as a step in the right direction to fight gender inequality. The commission, which was launched in September 2016, replaced Botswana's National Council on Women. The commissioners were drawn from sectors of government, parastatals institutions, the private sector and civil society organisations.




Chigedze Chinyepi, Alliance focal person has been appointed one of the Commissioners of the Botswana National Gender Commission. *Photo: Google Images*

Launching the Commission, the Minister of Labour and Home Affairs, Edwin Batshu, said the government is aware that gender inequality is a major obstacle to socio-economic and political development.

The Commission's work will be in line with the Post-2015 Development Agenda and the National Policy on Gender and Development. The 16 member commission appointed by Minister Batshu is mandated to provide strategic policy direction, leadership, and governance of the national gender response. The commissioners will also advise government on gender issues, in particular policy development and service delivery, as well as liaise with gender affairs department to provide guidance and support within government and externally, on the promotion of gender equality and justice.

The commissioners will liaise with the Gender Affairs Department and other stakeholders in parastatals organisation, the private sector and civil society organisation to develop appropriate programs, strategies and mechanisms for enhancing gender equality. Kgosi Mosadi Seboko is the chairperson of the commission. Minister Batshu emphasised stated that gender equality is enshrined in the country's Constitution and is central to development.



**Zambia**'s newly adopted Constitution provides for the establishment of a Gender Equity and Equality Commission as provided for in Article 231 of the Constitution. The Commission is also expected to monitor, investigate, research, educate, advise and report on issues concerning gender equality; ensure institutions comply with legal requirements and other standards relating to gender equality; take steps to secure appropriate redress to complaints relating to gender inequality, as prescribed; and perform such other functions as prescribed.



**South Africa**: The composition, powers and functions of the Commission on Gender Equality (CGE) are set out in Act 39 of 1996. These include:

- Monitoring and evaluating the policies and practices of government, the private sector and other organisations to ensure that they promote and protect gender equality;
- Public education and information;
- Reviewing existing and upcoming legislation from a gender perspective;
- Investigating inequality;
- Commissioning research and making recommendations to parliament or other authorities;
- Investigating complaints on any gender related issue; and
- Monitoring/reporting on compliance with international conventions

The development of SADC Guidelines on **Gender Responsive Budgeting** followed the Ministers Meeting held Namibia in June 2010; and a foll ow up meeting of Ministers in July 2014 to finalise and operationalise the guidelines. At their meeting in Swaziland in June 2017, ministers:

- Directed SADC Secretariat to expedite the popularisation and wider dissemination of the SADC Guidelines on Gender Responsive Budgeting; and
- Encouraged Member States to intensify their advocacy on Gender Responsive Budgeting to ensure Gender Sensitive and Responsive Budgeting to ensure Gender Sensitive and Responsive National Budgets.



The **Namibia** cabinet approved Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) guidelines and gave directives to offices, ministries and agencies (OMAs) to include GRB in their programmes,

**3** SADC countries have established Gender Commissions

**68%**

COE councils have gender structures

**91%**

COE Councils have **Gender Focal Persons**

projects and activities. The Ministry of finance incorporated gender guidelines into the budget call circular for 2015/16 financial year for OMAs to budget accordingly. Accounting Officers of all OMAs were directed to ensure gender issues are incorporated in all sector policies, programmes, plans, budgets, implementation, monitoring and evaluation[7].

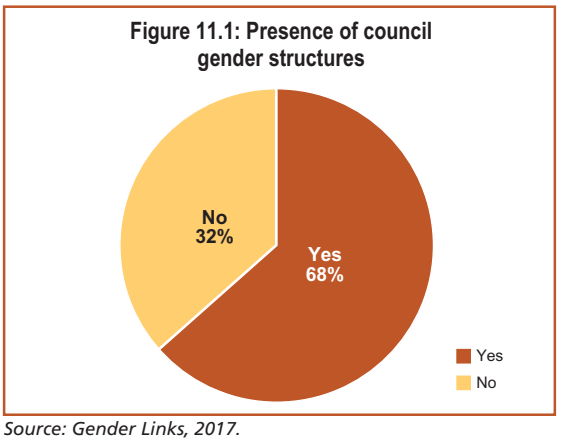


**South Africa**'s Fiscal and Financial Commission is tasked with making recommendations to Parliament, provincial legislatures, organised local government and other organs of state on financial and fiscal matters, including gender as envisaged in the Constitution and other national legislation. The Fiscal Commission had also undertaken an analysis of gender responsive budgeting at the local government level. The Commission examined gender budgeting in the South African local government sector. The Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of 30 municipalities were reviewed for gender sensitivity[8].

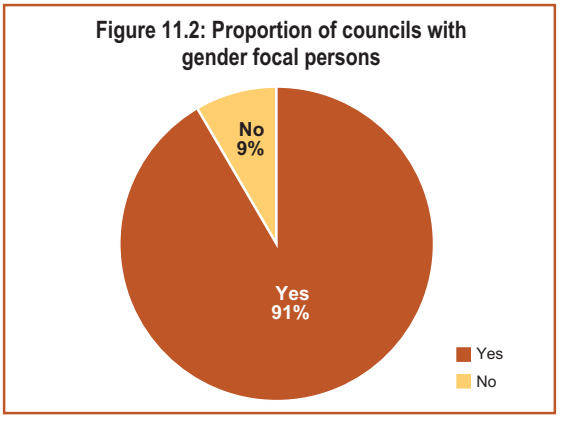
## Gender mainstreaming in local government

There are 442 local government councils that have elected to become Centres of Excellence for gender. In 2016, these councils revised their gender action plans in line with the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol. The ten-stage COE process involves developing and implementing local level action plans aligned to the Protocol, with flagship projects on local economic development, climate change and ending GBV. Councils share good practices at the annual SADC Protocol@Work summits. These COEs are now implementing service delivery in line with the revised Protocol. Gender Links analysed gender structures of 258 of these COEs. The councils cover a population of over 40 million, or 57% of the total population of the ten countries[9]. The COE's include all capital cities of the ten target countries. The COEs are gearing up to implement the revised Protocol in service delivery.

***Gender structures improve service delivery:*** The COEs have set up gender management structures to improve gender mainstreaming in service delivery. These include GFP (administrative functionaries) and Gender Champions (political leaders), gender committees and service specific sub-committees.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*



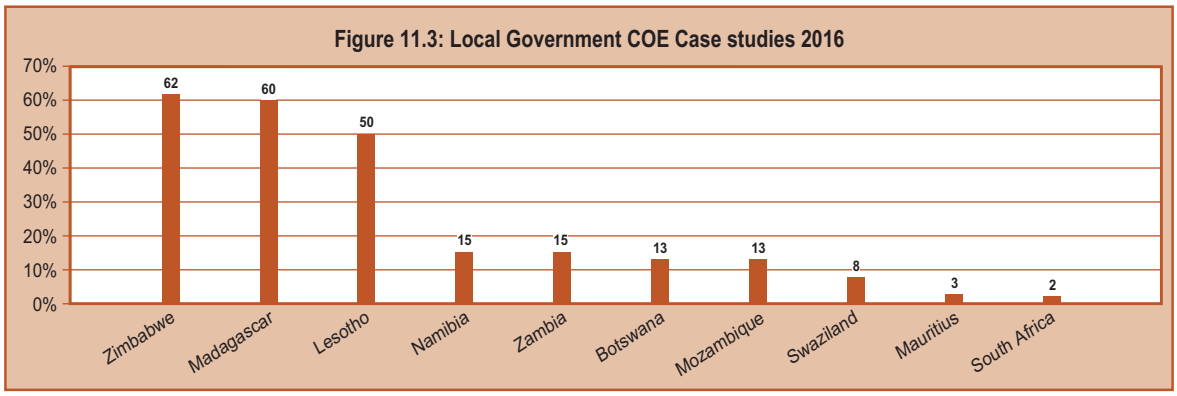

*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 11.1 shows that 68% of the 258 councils analysed have gender structures. Figure 11.2 shows that 91% of the councils have gender focal persons. The commitment of local government to gender equality issues is key for closing the gender gap in SADC.

***Gender is now a key function in council posts:*** Gender forms part of the job descriptions of key functionaries in more than 40% of the COEs. The gender management structures have improved documentation of council's records through sex disaggregation as well as training of council staff, community members and councillors on gender equality. These structures will improve implementation of the Post-2015 Protocol.

Public participation is a critical component of local government processes, presenting an opportunity for women to participate and demand gender responsive service delivery. 61% of COE councils said that women constitute more than half of all participants in public meetings with only 13% stating that women comprised less than one quarter of participants.

[7] SADC (2016) SADC Gender and Development Monitor.
[8] Ibid.
[9] Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe.




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

Figure 11.3 shows local government COE case studies presented at the 2016 summits. A total of 241 case studies were presented with Zimbabwe presenting the highest number of 62. Implementation of the Protocol by councils shows institutionalisation of the Protocol at the community level. Councils now take ownership of gender responsive service delivery in their localities. Gender Links piloted a coding award ceremony for councils' performance on gender highlighting different levels of gender scores for each council.



***Impact assessment of the Zimbabwe COE model reveals gender progress:*** An evaluation study of the Zimbabwe COE process in June 2017 reveals far-reaching, systematic and sustained efforts to promote gender equality in local government in Zimbabwe and in the SADC region. Based on the research report, "At the Coalface, Gender in Local Government" undertaken by Gender Links in 2010, the evaluation assessed "Gender@Work in Local Government" in Zimbabwe following the steps taken since the research to promote gender-responsive service delivery at the local level. Initially piloted with 10 local authorities, the Centres of Excellence (COE) for Gender in Local Government initiative has since been cascaded to 68 Local Authorities (LAs): 74% of all LAs in Zimbabwe, servicing over 10 million people. Described as the "model of choice" for mainstreaming gender in local government by the parent ministry, 2017 is a convenient juncture to reflect on the progress made in the last five years and reposition for the "leave no one behind" Post-2015 Agenda[10].



Inclusive service delivery in Kariba. *Photo: Rossetta Mavi*

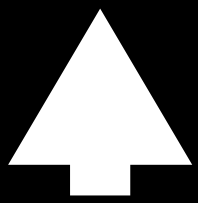
### *Gender specific programmes*

At least half of the COEs have been involved in the Sixteen Days of Activism campaigns with some COEs taking part every year. The COEs collaborate with the community and institutions that work to fight GBV and HIV and AIDS. The campaign has become a platform for dialogue between policy makers and the community. With some members of the community now able to use IT for advocacy during the Sixteen Days campaigns, networking has become stronger and accountability aspects more visible for local government. The most important outcome of the campaign is the community being able to articulate their stories and concerns on violence against women. Intertwined with Human Rights Day and World AIDS Day, the Sixteen Days has become a series of events that leave the community with tangible evidence of the councils' commitments to create safer environments and to end GBV.

### *Rural councils come to the fore*

A significant feature emerging as the programme progresses is the strong implementation of the Protocol by rural councils. The SADC region has its largest populace based in the rural areas therefore it is important to reach out to these areas to reduce

[10] Gender Links Zimbabwe (June 2017).



Zimbabwe has increased the number of COEs from **10** to **68** since 2010

COEs cover **46%** of the SADC population

COEs contributed **$288** million dollars **towards** gender responsive service delivery

gender inequality. The rural areas are an important starting point to increase women's access to resources and to mobilise the implementation of the Protocol.

Ways in which the COE's are using the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol include:

- ***Revisiting gender action plans:*** Key monitoring and evaluation tools and resources have been revised to integrate the SDGs and the Post-2015 SADC Protocol. The local government action planning framework has been revised to align to the revised SADC Protocol targets and indicators.

- ***Standard Setting:*** GL is working together with UN WOMEN on applying the **Gender Equity Seal (GES)** as a new auditable standards and certification system. GES provides a 'gender lens' and specialised standard that can be easily integrated into an organisation's standard audit whether against an external or company code. In addition to performance criteria, GES details specific criteria for policies, procedures, training and other management systems components. The intent is to provide organisations with a clear roadmap to measure and improve their capacity to, and ultimately, demonstrate their progress in, implementing gender equity policies with a view to ultimately earning GES certification.

- ***Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB):*** As councils review their gender and GBV action plans to update with the new SADC Protocol targets and indicators, an important value add is focus on Gender Responsive Budgeting. GRB is an analysis of budgets, both expenditures and revenues, from a gender perspective, that identifies the implications for women and girls as compared to men and boys. This is a deliberate effort to disaggregate the general local government budget in terms of its impact on different men and women while taking into account the different gender relations underlying society.

**Table 11.5: Centres of Excellence for Gender in Local Government**[11]

| COUNTRY | No COE Councils | Country Population* | COE Population | % Population | Gender responsive budget allocations (US$) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Botswana | 32 | 2 331 390 | 1 593 140 | 68% | **53,125,208** |
| Lesotho | 50 | 2 173 390 | 978 757 | 45% | **2,247,881** |
| Madagascar | 67 | 25 254 011 | 4 800 630 | 19% | **2,479,164** |
| Mozambique | 83 | 29 161 872 | 5 738 780 | 20% | **85,158,359** |
| Mauritius | 19 | 1 281 103 | 686 169 | 54% | **4,125,980** |
| Namibia | 36 | 2 574 587 | 995 989 | 39% | **7,735,435** |
| Swaziland | 24 | 1 328 066 | 1 162 554 | 88% | **21,959,468** |
| South Africa | 20 | 55 408 513 | 5 265 062 | 10% | **15,772,481** |
| Zambia | 44 | 17 232 190 | 9 829 337 | 57% | **24,893,689** |
| Zimbabwe | 68 | 16 111 699 | 10 275 458 | 64% | **71,105,690** |
| **TOTAL** | **442** | **152 856 821** | **41 325 876** | **46%** | **288,603,355** |

*Sources: Gender Links, 2017.*

Table 11.5 shows that COEs have contributed over $288 million dollars towards gender responsive service delivery. The highest contributors are Mozambique and Zimbabwe while the lowest are Lesotho and Madagascar. COEs are partnering with civil society, funding partners as well as national government and private sector to implement service delivery in line with the Post-2015 SDG agenda.

[11] Adapted from Gender Links Governance COE report, July 2017.

**Hwange Local Board leading the way in gender responsive resource allocation**

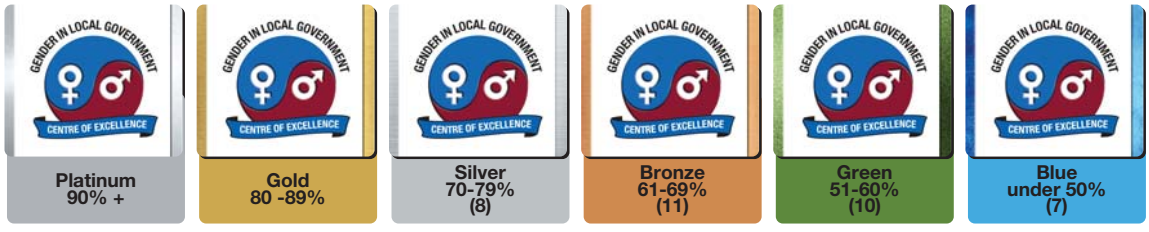
When Hwange Local Board joined the COE process in 2015 its baseline score stood at 30%. Hwange had no budget allocations for gender mainstreaming. Fast forward a year into the programme and Hwange had won the SADC Protocol@Work award for the most resourceful council for gender budgeting in local authorities. The council allocated $636,856.00 towards gender activities: 16% of the council's total budget. This includes $21,000 towards implementing their gender action plan; crafting a gender policy, and improving the livelihoods of the elderly, vulnerable groups and people living with disability. $15000 has been allocated towards promoting gender equality through the 50/50 campaign and other gender awareness training. Budget allocations for infrastructure development has been done with a gender lens, prioritising clinics and community centres that have a bearing on women's health and well-being.

*Hwange Local Board 2016 SADC Protocol@Work Case Study*

GL developed the Gender and Local Government Score Card to measure the gender responsiveness of COE councils as well as tracking their progress in gender mainstreaming. GL updated the score card in 2016 in line with the Post-2015 SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. Beginning with the 2016 summits, the score card is now administered online. The score card comprises 25 questions, rated one to four, with a maximum possible score of 100, on different aspects of gender mainstreaming in local government. Each question asks for budget information and supporting evidence such as photos, videos, and minutes of meetings.

Councils rated on gender performance

**Figure 11.4: 2016 COE Gender in Local Government scores**




*Source: Gender Links 2016 Summit Scores.*



GL CEO Colleen Lowe Morna presenting Melania Mandeya with a Centre of Excellence award. *Photo: Tapiwa Zvaraya*

In 2016, with UN Women support, GL introduced a colour coding for scores as an incentive to councils: under 50% (blue); 51-60% (green); 61%-69% (bronze); 70-79% (silver); 80-90% (gold) and over 90% (platinum). Figure 11.6 shows that of the 36 councils rated in Zimbabwe at the 2016 summit[12] none attained the gold and platinum standards; 8 attained Silver; 11 Bronze; 10 green and 7 blue status. While the summits have been a learning ground for COEs, they have drawn attention to the need for continued nurturing of the councils to ensure their gender mainstreaming efforts are met. It is also an opportunity for GL to adapt further the COE process looking into the future.

[12] 38 councils competed their assessments before the 2016 summit. 23 councils (61 in total) completed the Gender Justice and Local Government Score Card after the summit.

## Regional institutional arrangements

SADC Gender Unit **remains** a standalone Directorate

**Article 34 Institutional arrangements**

1. The institutional mechanisms for the implementation of this Protocol shall comprise the:
Affairs;
(b) Committee of Senior Officials Responsible for Gender/Women's Affairs; and
(c) SADC Secretariat.
2. The Committee of Ministers responsible for Gender/Women's Affairs shall:
(a) ensure the implementation of this Protocol; and
(b) supervise the work of any committee or sub-committee established under this Protocol.
3. The Committee of Senior Officials shall:
(a) report to the Committee of Ministers on matters relating to the implementation of the provisions contained in this Protocol;
(b) supervise the work of the Secretariat;
(c) clear the documents prepared by the Secretariat to be submitted to the Committee of Ministers;
(d) invite the Secretariat to make presentations on gender and development to the Committee of Ministers, as and when necessary; and
(e) liaise closely with both the Committee of Ministers and the Secretariat.
4. The SADC Secretariat shall:
(a) facilitate and monitor reporting by States Parties on the implementation of the Protocol;
(b) coordinate the implementation of this Protocol;
(c) identify research needs and priorities in gender/women's affairs areas; and
(d) provide technical and administrative assistance to the Committee of Ministers and the Committee of Senior Officials.

The SADC Gender Unit is the central coordinating point for gender within the SADC Secretariat. In the year under review, Ministers of Foreign Affairs resolved to merge the SADC Gender Unit with the Directorate of Social and Human Development and Special Projects without prior consultation with Ministers of Gender and Women Affairs The Ministers unanimously recommended that the Council of Ministers "reconsider and reverse the decision taken to merge the Gender Unit with the Director of Social, Human and Development and Special Programmes, as this is contrary to the international, continental and other Regional Economic Communities' set standards as well as the provision in the SADC Treaty that places gender at the centre of the Regional Integration Agenda."[13] The decision to subsume the Gender Unit was overturned by the SADC Council of Ministers ahead of the 2017 SADC Heads of State Summit.



Alliance chair, Emma Kaliya delivers a speech at the commemoration of Women's Day in Lilongwe, March 2017. *Photo: NGOGCN*

[13] SADC (2017) Record: Meeting of Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs, June 2017.

## Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting

**Article 35**: Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation
1. State Parties shall ensure the implementation of this Protocol **in line with the SADC Implementation Action Plan and the SADC Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework**.
2. State Parties shall ensure that national action plans, with measurable timeframes, are implemented, and that national and regional monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are developed and implemented.
3. State Parties shall collect data against which progress in achieving targets will be monitored.
4. State Parties shall submit reports to the Executive Secretary of SADC once every two years, indicating the progress achieved in the implementation of the measures agreed in the Protocol.
5. The Executive Secretary of SADC shall submit the progress reports to Council and Summit for consideration.



Citizens discuss the Alliance's revised gender monitoring tools in Angola, 2017. *Photo: Platforma da Mulheres Accao (PMA)*

The SADC Ministers of Gender and Women adopted the MERF in June 2017. The framework serves as an early warning system for the Gender Protocol. The framework was developed in line with the SADC Policy for Strategy Development and Monitoring and Evaluation (SPME), SADC Guidelines for Monitoring Protocols and the Associated Policy Instruments (adopted in 2015) and Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism for the Revised RISDP (2015-2020). The framework enables Member States to standardise policies and indicators of performance to create synergy for assessment of gender equality progress. The MERF will evaluate achievements made at outcome and impact levels. The guiding principles in selecting the gender indicators included clarity, relevance, economic, adequacy to assess, and independent validation[14]. The Member States propose that an independent evaluation of the implementation processes and results of the Gender Protocol will be commissioned every five years.

The specific objectives of the MERF are to:
- Define the guiding principles to be adhered to in undertaking the monitoring, evaluation and reporting work on the Gender Protocol;
- Define results, indicators and targets at process, output, outcome and impact levels;
- Provide framework for regular feedback on the consistency and discrepancy between planned and actual performance or on compliance with the protocol commitments;
- Describe the institutional arrangements for monitoring, evaluating, reporting and decision-making on progress in implementation of the commitments and realization of the common targets; and
- Outline the system for management and flow of information, on the implementation of commitments in the Gender Protocol.[15]

The Ministers of Gender and Women Affairs directed the SADC Secretariat to submit a repackaged list of indicators on incremental reporting time frames i.e. annually, biannually, and every five years to be reported on by Member States by the end of November each year. Each Member State is to submit data on the MERF by September of every reporting year after country consultations on the data.

**SADC MERF** provides for reporting **biannually and every five years**

[14] SADC (June 2017) Final SADC Gender Protocol Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework.
[15] Ibid.

SADC Gender Monitor **published** every **July**

MERF comprises **82** consolidated **indicators**

***SADC develops an online monitoring system:*** SADC is in the process of implementing an online monitoring, evaluation and reporting system that will enable real-time tracking and of performance and documentation of results. The system will be under the mandate of the Planning and Monitoring and Evaluation units which will be under the directorate of policy, planning and resource mobilisation. The online system is expected to improve quality of institutional plans and enhance effectiveness of monitoring evaluation and implementation.

**Table 11.6: Proposed SADC monitoring and evaluation calendar**

| Date (Month, day) | Task / Activity | Output | Responsible Entity |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Every two years** | | | |
| June/July | SADC Secretariat requests ministries of Gender/Women's Affairs to prepare progress reports on implementation of the Gender Protocol (Level 1 Reports). | Official Requests sent to 15 Member States | SADC Secretariat |
| July - October | Ministries Responsible for Gender/ Women's Affairs send requests for indicator data to sector ministries and other entities in their respective Member States and compile a national progress report. | Official Requests sent to gender focal points in sectors | Ministries of Women Affairs and Gender (through Gender Desks) |
| November | Ministries Responsible for Gender/ Women's Affairs submit the Validated National Progress Reports to SADC Secretariat. | Validated National Progress Reports (final) | Ministries of Gender/ Women Affairs. |
| December - March | Consolidation of the national reports into a regional consolidated report on the status of implementation of the Gender Protocol. | SADC Gender and Development Monitor Draft Report (Level 2 Report) | SADC Secretariat |
| March | Validation of the draft consolidated regional progress report by Member States. | Validated Draft SADC Gender Monitor | SADC Secretariat |
| May-June | Present consolidated regional report on progress in implementing the Gender Protocol to Committee of Senior Officials and subsequent approval by Ministers. | SADC Gender Monitor approved by Ministers. | SADC Secretariat |
| July | Publish SADC Gender Monitor Final Report | Final SADC Gender Monitor published and disseminated | SADC Secretariat |
| **After Every Five Years** | | | |
| Jan - May | Commission Outcome and Impact Evaluation of Gender Protocol | Gender Protocol Independent Evaluation Report | SADC Secretariat |

*Source: SADC (June 2017) Final SADC Gender Protocol Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework.*

Table 11.6 shows the proposed SADC calendar for monitoring and evaluation. Gender reporting from the national level will be done every two years to produce the SADC Gender Monitor while an impact assessment on the Protocol will be done every five years. Table 11.7 shows the type of indicators in the MERF. The indicators relate to all levels of gender equality implementation.

**Table 11.7: Types of MERF indicators**

| Indicator type | Description |
|---|---|
| **Input** | Relate to resources invested in an activity |
| **Process** | Relate to activities |
| **Output** | Relate to immediate results of activities |
| **Outcome** | Relate to medium term results of outputs |
| **Impact** | Relate to long term results showing in lives of individuals |

*Source: SADC MERF 2017.*

Table 11.8 is an analysis of the SADC MERF by the Barometer editorial team. It shows that:

- There are 123 indicators in the MERF (consolidated into 82 indicators and sub-indicators in the framework).
- Governance (34) has the highest number of indicators followed by Constitutional and Legal Rights (17) and Economic Justice (17). There is only one indicator for institutional arrangements.
- There are 22 SGDI indicators missing from the MERF, the highest being for gender based violence (four). The key missing indicators are largely due to non-standardised ways of measuring gender equality progress in certain sectors such as gender based violence.
- There are only three impact indicators; 60 outcome indicators; 54 output indicators; four process indicators and two input indicators.
- An assessment of data availability for each indicator shows that data is readily available for

29 indicators in the MERF. Data is deficient for 66 of the 123 indicators; and not presently available for 28 of the indicators.

- Of the 29 indicators for which data is available, the SGDI is measuring 14. Those not being measured are because they have largely been achieved (eg gender parity in primary and secondary school enrolment). All the SGDI indicators are at impact and outcome level.

Member States are required to report progress of implementation every two years. The new provisions on Implementation will create synergy in reporting across different countries. The new provisions will make it possible for harmonised Protocol monitoring with existing SADC monitoring and reporting systems for other global and regional commitments to reduce the burden of reporting on Member States[16].

The SADC Gender and Development Monitor is published by SADC with Members States input. Civil Society publishes this annual SADC Gender Protocol Barometer which has tracked progress of implementation of the Protocol since 2009. As reflected in the foreword to this Barometer, this shadow report remains an essential independent tracking tool, that employs innovative and participatory ways of engaging citizens in the "SADC we want."

**Table 11.8: Analysis of MERF indicators**

| SECTOR | No of indicators MERF | No of missing indicators | INDICATOR TYPE MERF | | | | | MERF | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Impact | Input | Outcome | Output | Process | SGDI NO | SGDI YES | Data available | Data Deficient | Data not presently available |
| Constitutional and Legal Rights | 18 | 1 | | | 2 | 16 | | 18 | | 7 | 2 | 9 |
| Education and Training | 12 | 2 | | | 10 | 2 | | 9 | 3 | 3 | 9 | |
| Final Provisions | 1 | | | 2 | | 1 | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| Financial Provisions | 3 | | | | | 1 | | 3 | | | 2 | 1 |
| Gender and Environment | 3 | 2 | | | | 3 | | 3 | | | | 3 |
| Gender Based Violence | 17 | 4 | 1 | | 3 | 12 | 1 | 17 | | 1 | 13 | 3 |
| Governance | 34 | 2 | | | 31 | 2 | 1 | 29 | 5 | 11 | 20 | 3 |
| Health and HIV and AIDS | 3 | 3 | 1 | | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | |
| Institutional arrangements | 1 | | | | | 1 | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| Media, Information and Communication | 6 | 2 | | | 3 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| Peace Building and Conflict Resolution | 4 | | | | 2 | 2 | | 4 | | | 3 | 1 |
| Productive Resources and Employment | 17 | 3 | | | 7 | 10 | | 16 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 5 |
| SRHR | 4 | 3 | 1 | | 1 | 2 | | 2 | 2 | 2 | | 2 |
| **TOTAL** | **123** | **22** | **3** | **2** | **60** | **54** | **4** | **109** | **14** | **29** | **66** | **28** |
| **GRAND TOTAL** | **123** | **22** | **123** | | | | | **123** | | **123** | | |

*Source: SADC (2017) Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework; Gender Links (2017) SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI).*

Peace Building and SRHR have **only 4** indicators in the MERF

[16] Ibid.

East African Community has launched a **pilot Barometer**

## The Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance

**ALLIANCE ACTIVITY BOX 2016/17**

- **March 2015:** The Alliance participated at CSW 59 with a focus on the targets and indicators for the SDGs and the SADC Gender Protocol Post -2015
- **March 2015:** The UN SDGs working group acknowledges The Alliance's input on the Global SDGs consultations.
- **May 2015:** The SADC Executive Secretary requests the Alliance together with UN Women to work with the SADC Secretariat as technical partners in the review process.
- **May - June 2015:** The Alliance holds 13 national SADC Protocol @ work summits.
- **July - August 2015:** The Alliance completes an alignment exercise for the review of the SADC Gender Protocol; aligning to the SDGs, African Union Agenda 2063 and Beijing Plus 20 review. The Alignment exercise also cross referenced the possible targets with other SADC Protocols.
- **August 2015:** The Alliance launched the sixth edition of the SADC Gender Protocol Barometer in Botswana on the eve of the 36th SADC HOS Summit in Gaborone at the SADC Protocol@Work summit.
- **October 2015:** The Alliance participates actively at the first review process of the Protocol together with UN Women, governments and the SADC secretariat.
- **March 2016:** The Alliance holds two side events on localising SDGs through the SADC Gender Protocol at the 60th session of the Commission on the Status of Women.
- **June 2016:** The Alliance participates at the SADC Gender Ministers meeting which adopted the reviewed Protocol.
- **June/July 2016:** The Alliance holds country level consultations on the Post-2015 Protocol reaching 1224 people.
- **November 2016:** The Alliance holds eight national SADC Gender Protocol Summits producing 737 case studies.
- **November 2016:** The Alliance reviews M and E tools for the SADC Gender Protocol.
- **December 2016:** The Alliance joins the social media platform, Twitter@GenderProtocol.
- **January 2017:** The Alliance joins the Women's March Global
- **March 2017:** The Alliance participates at the 61st session of the Commission on the Status of Women.
- **May 2017:** The Alliances works with EASSI to produce the pilot East Africa Community Barometer.
- **July 2017:** The Alliance finalises the reviewed SGDI which has 36 empirical indicators.
- **June/July 2017:** The Alliance holds gender and rights scoring meetings in 15 countries giving a baseline score for the indicator on Constitutional and Legal Rights

SADC GENDER PROTOCOL ALLIANCE

Gender Links is the coordinating NGO of the SADC Gender Protocol Alliance; a coalition of 15 national gender networks and ten regional NGOs that lead on the various themes of the SADC Gender Protocol. The coalition campaigned for the adoption, implementation and review of the SADC Gender Protocol which is now a Southern Africa's roadmap for achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) five - gender equality.

In 2015, the Alliance held a spirited campaign lobbying for the review of the Protocol and development of an accompanying MER framework. The Alliance has been strengthened from year to year through partner mapping, country specific research and gathering of case studies at the annual national and regional summits. The Barometer as the flagship production of the Alliance has been quoted numerous times at regional and global level as a tool for effectively measuring gender equality.

**Shrinking space**



Malawi government officials, UN officials and SADC civil society join forces in advocating for gender responsive implementation of the SDGs at the 61st CSW in New York. *Photo: Malawi UN Permanent Mission*

Civil society has experienced shrinking space in working with governments during this reporting period. The SADC Gender Protocol Alliance was not invited to the Gender Ministers' meeting held in June 2017 in Swaziland for the first time since gender ministers began meeting.

Although the Alliance played a pivotal role in lobbying for, and the analysis underpinning the MERF, the Alliance was not present for the adoption. This is a cause for concern, given the dynamic relationship that has existed between gender ministries and civil society that has played a critical role in the adoption, review and now implementation of the Protocol.

The SADC Secretariat is working on a framework agreement for interaction with non-state actors. The Alliance is the gender sector representative in the SADC Congress of NGOs (SADC- CNGO) and is actively engaged in these discussions

The origins of the Non-State Actor (NSA) engagement mechanism by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) are in recognition that NSAs are an important stakeholder in the implementation of the SADC Agenda. This recognition is enshrined in Article 5 (2b), 16A and Articles 23 of the SADC Treaty. The recognition is reflected in the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan, especially the revised version (2015 - 2020). Some SADC Protocols and Summit Communiqués also emphasise the need for a more profound and effective engagement mechanism.[17]

Key protocols which provide for engagement with non-state actors include the Protocol on Trade in the SADC Region (1996), SADC Protocol on Mining (1997) and SADC Employment and Labour Protocol (2014). Past SADC gatherings have emphasised the need for more formalised and institutionalised engagement between SADC and Non State Actors. The Gender Protocol does not explicitly provide for SADC engagement with civil society but the MERF recommends implementation of the Protocol with partners including civil society.

The SADC Secretariat requested the Southern Africa Trust (the Trust) to conduct a study to inform the process of SADC engagement with NSA. The Alliance will use this opportunity to lobby for long term mechanisms to ensure inclusion in the Post-2015 era.

Alliance **stream-lined** into **5** clusters

## Institutional strengthening

In 2015, the Alliance streamlined its theme work into five clusters (Governance and Constitutional, Economic Justice, Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights, Media & ICTs, Climate Change& Sustainable Development). Each cluster lead forms part of the Alliance Executive Committee. Figure 10.4 shows how the five theme structures correlate to the three pillars of gender and sustainable development (voice, choice and control). Early 2016 saw the Alliance embarking on a mapping exercise to ensure better coordination amongst the theme clusters of the network.

[17] Southern Africa Trust (2016) Taking SADC to the People.

Alliance **mapping** indicates **135** organisations that are **part** of the Alliance

| Table 11.9: Alliance executive committee | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Cluster** | **Lead organisation** | **EXCO representative** | **Country** |
| Governance (Constitutional and legal rights, Peace, Political representation and participation) | Women in Law Southern Africa (WLSA) | Slyvia Chirawu | Zimbabwe |
| Economic Justice (Education and Productive resources) | Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre Network (ZWRCN) | Pamela Mhlanga | Zimbabwe |
| Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights; Gender Based Violence, Sexual Health, HIV and AIDS) | Safaids | Adolf Mavheneke | Regional |
| Media | Gender Links | | Regional |
| Climate Change | Gender and Climate Change Southern Africa (Gender CCSA) | Dorah Marema | South Africa |
| Alliance chairperson | | Emma Kaliya | Malawi |

*Source: Alliance regional elections, May 2016.*

Table 11.9 shows the results of the Alliance's May 2016 restructuring and elections that resulted in a seven member Executive Committee which includes expert lead organisations and overall Alliance leadership. The Alliance clusters will report progress on cluster action plans on an annual basis.

***African and Global links:*** The Alliance has been creating linkages with mainstream civil society through CIVICUS and the African Civil Society Circle membership. The Alliance has worked closely with UN Women and the Women's Major Group on the Post -2015 agenda implementation. This has involved advocating for gender and media targets in the SDGs and comments during the SDG drafting process. GL is now working closely with the Women's Major group to advocate for financing for gender equality. The Alliance is actively involved in the continental discussions on the Post -2015 agenda through FEMNET membership where the Alliance chair is also the FEMNET chair. Through FEMNET, the Alliance participated in dialogue platforms at African Union level and United Nations level.

| Table 11.10: How the Alliance collaborates with partners | |
|---|---|
| **Partner category** | **Collaboration and sharing** |
| Faith based organisations | Partnerships through Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) during the SADC Gender Protocol Summits, sharing best practices on mobilising through the FBOs. |
| | Capacity building through workshop participation on Post -2015 and climate change. |
| | Coalition building through MOUs and special thematic cluster on FBOs in the Alliance structure represented by NCA. |
| Local government | Local actions in over 430 councils to mainstream gender in service delivery. |
| | MOUs with local government associations and Ministries of local government. |
| National government | Research through barometers, development and costing of gender action plans, SADC gender Protocol summits and gender based violence indicators research. |
| Media houses | The Alliance media cluster collaborates with media houses to highlight issues of concern in the gender discourse in the region. The Alliance has been lobbying for gender sensitive media reporting and education. |
| SADC CNGO | Strengthening the SADC We Want position through gender responsiveness, collaboration at the SADC civil society forum and Heads of State summit. |
| SADC Gender Unit | While continuing to hold governments accountable through the annual SADC Gender Barometer, the Alliance has moved into high gear mobilising for strong targets and provisions in the SADC region on gender equality Post -2015. The Alliance collaborated with the Gender Unit during the review of the SADC Gender Protocol in October 2015. |
| Africa | Preparations for CSW, participation in the Common Africa Position processes, preparation for the Beijing+20 review under FEMNET. |
| Regional blocks | The Alliance is a member of FEMNET and is working with EASSI to build capacity on tracking evidence on implementation of gender equality commitments by governments through an East African Community Barometer. |
| International | Work on the Post-2015 indicators and mapping for CSW activities. UN Women, Women's Major Group and GADN. The Alliance is a member of CIVICUS. |

*Source: GL Alliance Programme, 2017.*

Table 11.10 highlights the types of partnerships that the Alliance network has collaborated with. The partnerships include regional organisations, governments, civil society and intergovernmental bodies. National focal networks continue to develop new partnerships as highlighted in the case of SAWID below:

**SAWID breaks new ground on academic and UN partnerships**

South African Women in Dialogue is a not-for-profit, non-partisan, civil society organisation established in 2003, (led by a dedicated volunteer Board of Trustees, a National Council of 24 women, (18 of them representing the nine provinces) as well as co-opted and purposefully constituted Professional Advisory Commissions that are made up of sector specialists, academics and professionals), whose mission it is to stand together for women's participation on issues of national, regional, continental and international importance, and to establish a common agenda for the development of women through regular dialogue, and to ensure that women's views are taken into consideration whenever decisions are taken on all issues that impact on their lives. SAWID is the Alliance focal network for South Africa.

Between 2006 and 2014, SAWID collaborated with the Independent Development Trust, South Africa government's largest development partner. In 2014, SAWID signed a 3 year MOU with the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) Community Development Directorate. In August 2016, SAWID signed a three year Memorandum of Understanding was signed with UNISA, (the largest higher education institution in the country and the continent, responsible for educating about 40% of all students in South Africa) to establish a Legacy Academy for Community Engagement The academy is set to address the national agenda which is presently resulting in poor human development outcomes.

UNISA, through the UNISA Women's Forum and UNISA's Institute for Gender Studies, has agreed to collaborate with the South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID) platform and UN Women's South Africa Multi Country Office to host a series of dialogues to address issues that affect South African women. These will start with a collaborative dialogue August Women's month dialogue to reinvigorate the role of *African Women Leading Change* at an event to be hosted at the UNISA Sunnyside campus.

SAWID events traditionally start with multi-faith devotions, to inspire unity in diversity and to honour the multi-faith spirituality of women. The proposed dialogues, which seek to address the incredible amount of brutal gender based violence in the country, are also taking place against the reality of other processes, like the discussions around decolonisation, racism and gender equality. The dialogues seek to align efforts to other similar processes, including the fight against the exploitation of sex workers, conversations around radical economic transformation, issues of women and migration, women and climate change, women refugees and xenophobia.

A further focus of the dialogues will be the localisation and ownership by civil society of the African Union's Agenda 2063, linking these goals to work already done by NEPAD, the African Peer Review Mechanism, and the SADC Gender Protocol. The dialogue objectives include:

- To explore the conditions that threaten women's and human dignity in the country.
- To showcase South African women's perspectives towards the solving of human development challenges.
- To discuss evidence-based models to embed human dignity, peace and development at family level.
- To highlight the role of education as a key driver of dignity, self-worth, poverty eradication and family empowerment.
- To coordinate efforts towards the attainment of the National Development Plan, the SADC Gender Protocol, AU Agenda 2063 and the Sustainable Development Goals.
- To define an Agenda and Programme of Action towards women's leadership in society and urgent policy change towards women's and human dignity.

The effectiveness of SAWID has been diminished by changes in political patronage and funding constraints. It is clear that agency must be nurtured at the level of the family and local government, and that education is a major driver for inter-generational poverty. It is hoped that the vibrant new partnership with UNISA will ensure that South African women remain Champions of Change and meaningful transformation during the three remaining years of the African Decade of Women.

SAWID will play a pivotal role in opening up space for dialogue between gender movements and the governments as South Africa takes the chair of SADC. *Source: Marthe Muller, SAWID focal person*

Protocol@Work

**Young Women's Alliance launched**

## Alliance cluster work

The Alliance theme clusters include a specific cluster on economic justice led by the Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre Network (ZWRCN) and Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights led by SAfAIDS. The economic justice cluster includes a sub-group on education. A capacity-building meeting for the economic justice cluster meeting facilitated by ZWRCN trained the Alliance members on the overview of Economic Justice provisions in Protocol and SDGs, economic justice concepts, gender responsive budgeting, the broad overview of macro-economic context in SADC and implications for policy advocacy. SAfAIDS trained Alliance members on SRHR concepts and advocacy strategies. The clusters aim to build the capacity of the Alliance through a Training of Trainers approach. The cluster work has equipped the network with advocacy skills for effective implementation of Post-2015 Protocol. By separating gender equality work into different sectors, the Alliance has managed to explore effective and innovative ways of research and tracking the implementation of the Protocol through dynamic data presentation. The cluster work will improve inclusion of key populations such as PLWHA, sex workers and sex minority groups in the network. Clusters are able to connect through the Community of Practice to learn and share experiences on lobbying and implementing gender programmes. This reporting period has witnessed strategic partnerships for the Alliance for sector specific campaigns at the global, regional and national level.



Safaids, the SRHR cluster leader is working with the Alliance, men and boys to improve SRHR. *Photo: SAFAIDS*

***Young Women's Alliance launched:*** In the spirit of leaving no one behind, the Alliance has mobilised young women to form a Young Women's Alliance. This will enable an intergenerational dialogue on gender issues including the Protocol Implementation. This move will enable the Alliance to tap into social media advocacy, use of technology in research and sustained sharing of best practices between young women and older women. The YWA was launched on 17 August 2017, the SADC Day.

## Alliance outreach

- ***Recognition*** - The Alliance was a semi-finalist in the Southern Africa Trust Drivers of Change Awards held in October 2015. One Africa Award named the Alliance as a semi-finalist in its annual award contest on human rights. The Alliance received official recognition from the Sustainable Development Network for contributing to the SDG indicators. Gender ministers acknowledged the Alliance as a technical partner during the Protocol review process by the Gender Ministers.
- ***Mainstream Media*** - Alliance programme staff regularly participate in mainstream media interviews and contribute opinion and commentary pieces. The blog site will be used by the Alliance to highlight topical gender issues e.g. when participating in global platforms.
- ***New Media*** - the Alliance programme has a twitter handle @GenderProtocol which is managed by the Alliance Advocacy and Coordinating officer and linked to the Gender Links twitter handle. A number of regional and continental gender movements follow the Alliance on twitter. The Alliance unit is planning to establish an informal community of Practice on Facebook.
- ***Website*** - the Alliance has a dedicated section on the Gender Links website. Navigation through the website is possible by countries and project. The Alliance blog is embedded on the website.
- ***Publications*** - A list of stakeholders help with the marketing of all Alliance publications. The publications are also available online for sale for those who want to use them as reference materials. All publications are shared with members for wider distribution.
- ***Country level meetings and Community of Practice*** - The Alliance shares best practices and strategies for gender implementation at the national level through focal network led meetings. However, resource constraints have limited

these interactions challenging the Alliance to use technology for interaction. The Community of Practice is an online space where the Alliance can dialogue on gender equality issues as well as broader civil society issues.

- ***Working with and through partners*** - The Alliance is a member of the Women's major group, the Post-2015 Women's coalition and FEMNET. The Alliance also collaborates with mainstream civil society through CIVICUS, the African Civil Society Circle, SADC CNGO and Southern Africa Trust. Alliance members have a Memorandum of Understanding with Gender Links.

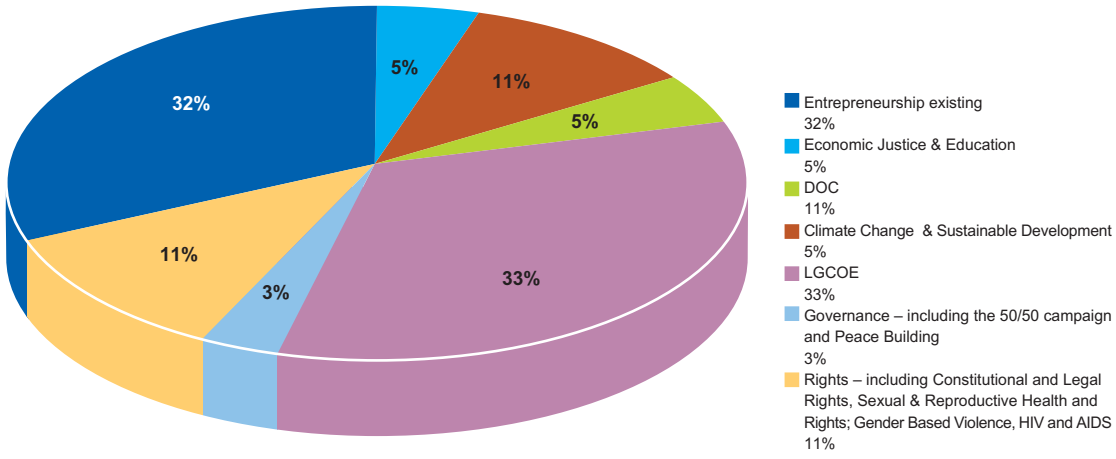
## SADC Gender Protocol Summits

In 2016, Gender Links convened SADC Protocol@Work summits in eight SADC countries showcasing 737 case studies on best practices in implementing the Protocol. Of these, 178 were project based case studies, 82 were drivers of change, 241 were local government Centres of Excellence (COE) and 236 were from survivors of gender based violence linked to entrepreneurship. The case studies reflect depth in implementation of the Protocol as well as a need to build capacity of citizens on the continental and global instruments aligned to the Protocol. The Alliance has reviewed the Protocol knowledge quiz in line with the revised Protocol to assess knowledge of citizens on national, regional and global gender commitments.




Gaby Razafindrakoto takes notes during the Gender Links summit demonstrating best practices on gender equality, Antananarivo November 2016. The Alliance has collaborate d with national gender machineries to showcase Protocol implementation.
*Photo: FPFE*

**Figure 11.5: SADC Protocol@work case studies overall**
**2016 protocol@work case studies by theme**




*Source: Gender Links, 2017.*

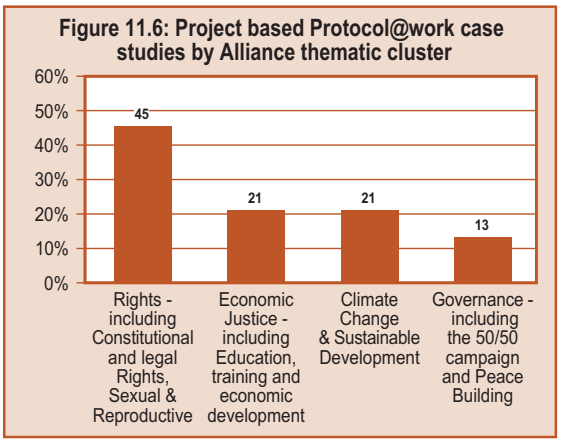
Figure 11.5[18] shows that institutional entries from the local government (33%) and entrepreneurship (32%) constituted the highest proportion of entries. Case studies related to gender rights constituted 11% of the total; drivers of change 11% and governance (3%).

**SADC Protocol @Work** summit in 2016 produced **737** case studies

[18] Gender Links (2016) SADC Protocol@work summits.

**46%**

**Protocol @Work case studies** were on gender and rights




*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

Figure 11.6 shows that the highest number of project case studies presented at the 2016 summits were related to the gender and rights (46%) followed by economic justice at 21%, climate change at 21% and governance at 13%.

Gender Links collaborated with the SADC Gender Protocol Alliance to convene summits showcasing the best practices in implementing the Protocol. Figure 11.6 shows that Protocol usage largely related to prevention of gender based violence.

## Knowledge of the Protocol

Following the adoption of the reviewed Protocol in August 2016, GL reviewed the Protocol quiz to gauge citizen's knowledge of the revised instrument. The quiz is available on the Alliance website and administered at events in the region, including Alliance meetings. The quiz results are sex disaggregated.

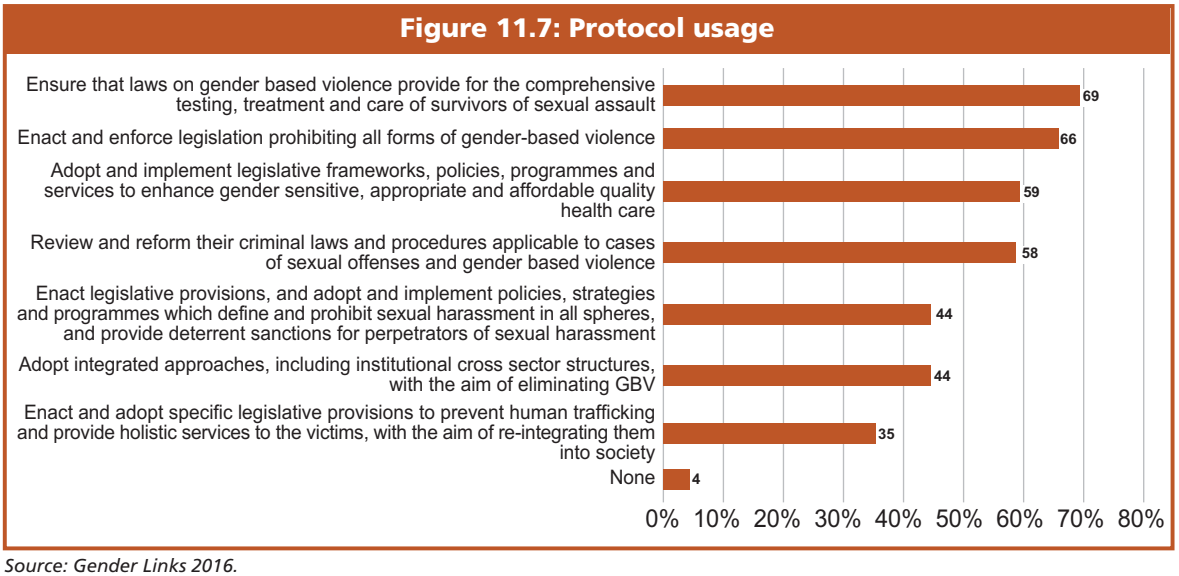
The quiz questions are:

1. The Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol was adopted by Heads of State in?
2. The SADC Gender Protocol was reviewed in line with the?
3. The Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol (targets)?
4. The Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol declares that (age of marriage)?
5. The completely new section in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol is about?
6. The Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol provision on women in decision-making calls for (women's representation)?
7. The new additions on economic empowerment in the SADC Gender Protocol include?
8. SADC member states have made a commitment to (on GBV)?
9. The Education Article in the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol has been reviewed to include?
10. The Health Article in the SADC Gender Protocol has been expanded to include?

The questions are multiple choice and the analysis arranges the participant answers into four possible options. These answers are used to assess the level of knowledge and awareness about the Revised Protocol.



A participant reviews the revised knowledge quiz at an Alliance workshop hosted by FPFE, November 2016. *Photo: FPFE*

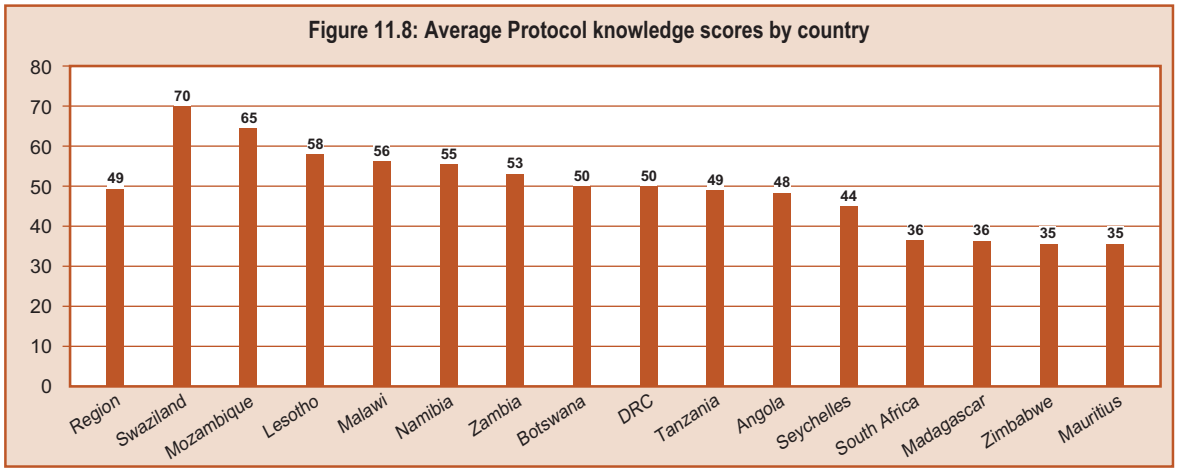



*Source: Gender Links 2016.*

| Table 11.11: Knowledge quiz submissions per country | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Female** | **Male** | **Other** | **Grand Total** |
| Angola | 268 | 86 | | **354** |
| Botswana | 215 | 166 | | **381** |
| DRC | 184 | 232 | | **416** |
| Lesotho | 198 | 198 | | **396** |
| Madagascar | 322 | 216 | | **538** |
| Malawi | 101 | 110 | | **211** |
| Mauritius | 202 | 245 | | **447** |
| Mozambique | 137 | 98 | | **235** |
| Namibia | 111 | 57 | 7 | **175** |
| Seychelles | 151 | 33 | | **72** |
| South Africa | 276 | 157 | | **433** |
| Swaziland | 162 | 93 | | **255** |
| Tanzania | 256 | 226 | | **482** |
| Zambia | 157 | 63 | | **220** |
| Zimbabwe | 278 | 274 | | **552** |
| **Grand Total** | **3018** | **2168** | **7** | **4813** |

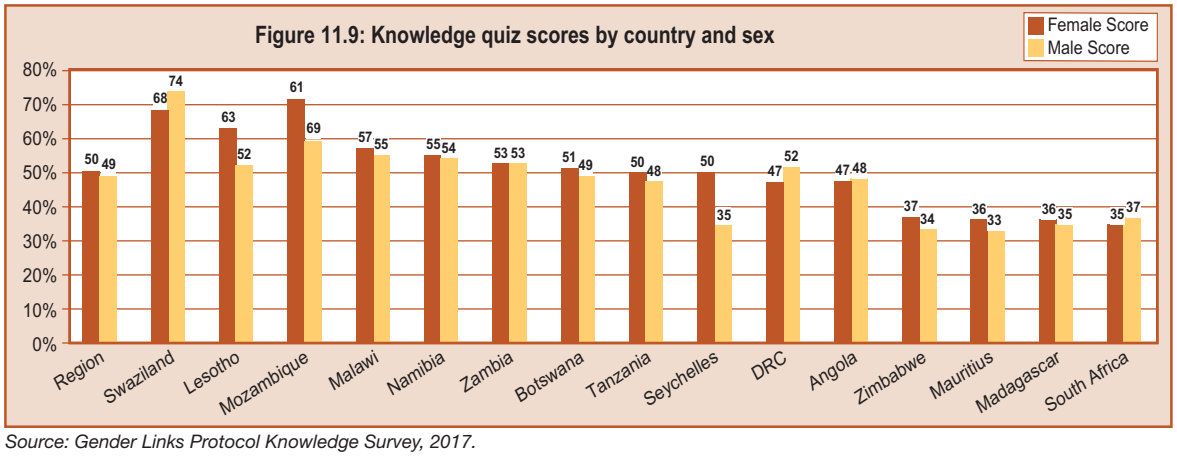
*Source: Gender Links Protocol Knowledge survey 2017.*

Table 11.11 shows that in 2016 the Alliance administered 4813 Protocol quiz questionnaires (62% to women and 38% to men). Zimbabwe administered the highest number - 552 questionnaires. The quiz included those who identify as 'other'. Seven citizens featured in this category.




*Source: Protocol Knowledge Survey, 2017.*

Figure 11.8 shows that overall the regional knowledge score on the Protocol is still low at 49%. Swaziland achieved the highest score at 70% while Mauritius and Zimbabwe scored lowest at 35%. Eight countries achieved a score of 50% and above (Swaziland, Mozambique, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, Botswana and DRC).

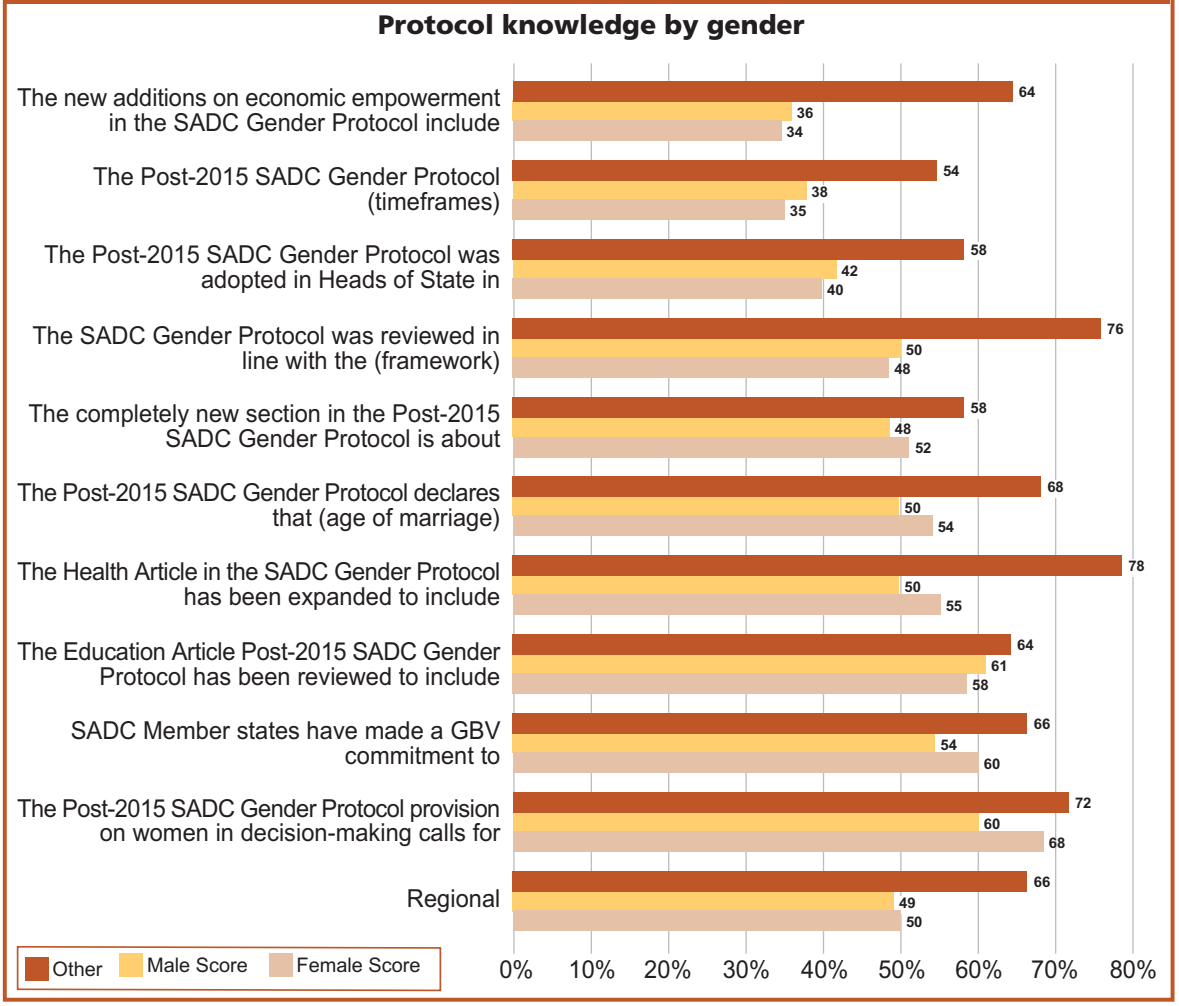



*Source: Gender Links Protocol Knowledge Survey, 2017.*

**Know-ledge** of the Protocol is at **49%**

Figure 11.9 shows the Protocol quiz scores by country and sex. The regional score for women is higher (50%) than that of men (49%). Swaziland had the highest score for women (68%) and men (74%). South Africa had the lowest score for women (35%) while Mauritius had the lowest score for men of 33%.

**Figure 11.10: Average knowledge quiz scores per question by gender 2017**




*Source: Gender Links SADC Gender Protocol knowledge survey 2017.*

49%

50%

Figure 11.10 shows an improvement in the knowledge of the revised Protocol (66% other, 49% men and 50% women) compared with the 2008 Protocol (which had an overall knowledge score of 46%). The highest score of 72% was on women in decision-making. The least well known area concerned Protocol timeframes.

## Next steps

The Post-2015 era calls for more collaboration between civil society, government departments - especially the Statistics offices for better data collection on gender. The following are the next steps on implementation of the Protocol:

- Operationalising of the Young Women's Alliance.
- Finalisation of the SADC Engagement Mechanism.
- Country level launches of the 2017 Barometer.
- Strengthening of the Alliance's cluster work at national and regional level.
- Accelerated resource mobilisation efforts to continue as a legitimate representative network for gender equality in SADC.
- Lobbying SADC for dialogue platforms with SADC secretariat and gender machineries.
- Targeted campaigns on gender specific issues such as SRHR and Economic Justice.
- Revitalising the Alliance Community of Practice for online sharing of best practices.
- Piloting use of technology for research and advocacy through infographics.

# BACKGROUND NOTE ON GENDER AND RELATED INDICATORS

ANNEX A

This background note provides information on the various existing indicators considered in developing the new SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) aligned to the United Nations Agenda 2030, Africa Union Agenda 2063 and Beijing Plus 20.

The Human Development Index (HDI) - which is not a gender indicator - has four components which are meant to reflect Amartya Sen's "capability" approach to poverty rather than a simple income/expenditure monetary measure of poverty. The HDI components are (a) life expectancy at birth for health, (b) adult (15+ years) literacy rate and (c) combined gross enrolment rate for primary, secondary and tertiary education for education, and (d) gross domestic product (GDP) per capita for income. The four component scores are averaged to get the HDI number. The HDI thus gives a single simple (some would say simplistic) measure of the average achievement of the country in terms of human development. A league table was published in the annual Human Development Reports of the UNDP until 2009, and is widely quoted.

The HDI - like all measures - can be criticised on many grounds. Some of the criticisms are relevant from a gender perspective. Firstly, composite indices are appealing because there is only one number. But having a single number is not useful for policy-making purposes unless one knows WHY the single number is lower than one wants it to be. For example, South Africa's HDI has fallen in recent years. The main reason for this is a significant drop in life expectancy, which is one of the four components. The HDI indicator cannot tell you this. It is only by looking into the components that you can see it.

Secondly, there are data problems. UNDP uses international data-sets in the interests of having a uniform approach. This is probably the only feasible approach for an index covering so many countries and compiled from a single office. However it results in the use of data that are relatively old, and thus indicators that our out-of-date. It also results in individual countries contesting the indicators. The need to have indicators for as many countries as possible can also lead to the use of lowest-common-denominator variables, rather than the variables that would best reflect what the indices aim to measure. Where data are not available, sometimes heroic assumptions have to be made. In the case of the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) (see below), this is especially the case in relation to sex-disaggregation of GDP.

Thirdly, the indicators are all based on averages, and thus do not capture inequalities within a single indicator.

In 1995, at the time of the Beijing Conference, UNDP developed two gender-related indices - the Gender-related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) - to complement the HDI.

The GDI uses the same variables as the HDI, but each of the components is adjusted for unequal achievement between women and men. The GDI thus shares all the problems that the HDI has, but also has some further problems.

One problem with the GDI is that it assumes that equality on longevity would mean equal life expectancies for men and women. However, biologically women can expect to live longer than men. So when life expectancies are equal this suggests that women are disadvantaged in some way. This is not reflected in the GDI.

A confusing feature of the GDI is that the method uses only the male-female gap, without considering whether it is males or females who are "doing better". So a country where women outperform men in education will have the same penalty as a country where men outperform women by the same amount. We might think this is not a problem (in that men and boys should not be disadvantaged), but it does complicate how we interpret the GDI if the index combines some components where males are advantaged and others where females are advantaged.

Probably the biggest problem with the GDI is that it is heavily influenced by the income variable, so that wealthier countries will - all other things being equal - be reflected as having less inequality than poorer countries. Analysis has shown that for most countries the earned-income gap is responsible for more than 90% of the gender penalty. Exacerbating this problem is the fact that the income estimates are based on "imputed" rather than real data. Thus for many developing countries the earned income gap is assumed to be 75% because reliable data are not available. The 75% was chosen on the basis of 55 countries (including both developed and developing) for which data are available. Yet another exacerbating feature is that the data for the 55 countries relate only to formal non-agricultural wages. Yet in many African countries only a small proportion of the workforce - and an even smaller proportion of employed women - is employed in the formal non-agricultural sector.

The final problem to be raised here is lack of sex-disaggregated data in some cases. As a result, each year there are fewer countries that have GDI scores than have HDI scores. This means that a higher place in the inter-country ranking for the GDI than the HDI does not necessarily mean that the country is doing relatively well on gender.

The GEM focuses on political, economic and social participation rather than Sen's capabilities. The components are women's representation in parliament, women's share of positions classified as managerial and professional, women's participation in the labour force and their share of national income. Fewer countries have data on all of these elements than on the GDI elements and each year there are therefore fewer countries in the GEM index than in the GDI index.

The GEM measures income in more or less the same way as the GDI, so this component has the problems described above. The influence of the absolute level of income - and thus the bias favouring wealthier countries - is, in fact, stronger for the GEM than the GDI. The political component is problematic in that a parliamentary quota for women will automatically increase the GEM score, but will not necessarily mean that women exercise greater political power in the country.

Development of the Gender Equality Index (GEI) was motivated, at least in part, by the standard measures' lack of attention to issues related to the body and sexuality, religious, cultural and legal issues, ethics, women's rights and care.

The index was called the GEI, rather than the Gender Inequality Index (GII), so as not to focus only on gender imbalances. Instead, the index would measure the extent to which gender equality was achieved in any country.

It was recognised that as a global, comparative measure, the GEI would lose cultural and national specificity and would not capture gender equality in all its dimensions. It was thus proposed that each country also describe the historical and cultural context, and develop country-specific "satellite" indicators to complement the GEI.

The GEI covers eight dimensions, each of which has a number of indicators. The dimensions are:
- Gender identity;
- Autonomy of the body;
- Autonomy within the household;
- Political power;
- Social resources;
- Material resources;
- Employment and income;
- Time use.

The availability and adequacy of the GEI indicators have been tested only in Japan and Indonesia. These tests revealed the especial difficulty of measuring the first two dimensions quantitatively.

In the early 2000s, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) developed the African Gender Status Index (GSI) and the African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS). The AWPS is based on more qualitative judgments, although these are given numeric scores. The existence of the AWPS along-side the GSI is noteworthy, as it highlights the realisation that some aspects of gender equality cannot be adequately captured by quantitative indicators. The GSI is similar to the GDI and GEM in being computed from quantitative data. A major difference is that there are far more indicators - 43 in all!

The use of 43 indicators has two major drawbacks. Firstly, it means that most countries are likely to lack data on at least one indicator, or be forced to use unreliable data from small samples. Secondly, it means that the meaning of the index - and its direct usefulness for policy-making purposes - is even more obscure than for the HDI, GDI or GEM as one has to examine all the elements in detail to work out why a country is scoring higher or lower. The developers of the GSI acknowledge that there may be too many indicators.

UNECA tested the index in twelve countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda). The process took substantially longer than predicted. The delays in part reflected the challenges involved in collecting and checking so many indicators. Even with these delays and despite specifying five-year periods for each indicator, it was not possible to find all the indicators for each country.

The indicators are divided into three blocks, namely social power, economic power, and political power. The indicators all deal with gender issues, understood as the relations between women and men, and thus as needing to compare indicators for men and women. This means that maternal mortality and violence against women are not covered because they only concern women.

Each indicator represents a simple arithmetic comparison of the number of women to the number of men, thus reflecting the gender "gap". (A few of the indicators need a bit of manipulation to be able to get a gap.) Unlike the HDI and GDI, the GSI does not take the overall level of achievement into account. As a result, a good score on the GSI could reflect a high level of equality, but at a level of achievement that is poor for both women and men (girls and boys).

For weighting purposes, each of the three blocks - social, political and economic - has equal weight. Further, within each component of each block, each of the indicators has equal weight. In effect, this means that indicators that are in a component with relatively few indicators "count" more than those in a component with a greater number of indicators. The developers of the GSI suggest that other weighting approaches could be considered, such as:

- Weighting more heavily the components or blocks where there are the biggest gaps.
- Weighting more heavily those that can be changed more easily in the short term so that one can more easily "see" the impact of advocacy and policy changes.
- Giving less weight to the "political power" block because it deals with a small population than the other two blocks.

In the 2010 Human Development Report the GII replaced the GDI. This measure, unlike the GDI, is not influenced by the absolute level of achievement or development. Instead, like the GSI, several of the components focus on the degree of inequality in achievement between males and females on different measures while others focus on levels of women's achievement. The consequence is that a country can score well on this measure even if absolute levels of achievement are low as long as the measures for females and males are equally low.

The three equally weighted dimensions covered by the GII are reproductive health (maternal mortality ratio, adolescent fertility rate), empowerment (share of parliamentary seats held by women and men, attainment at secondary and higher education levels) and labour market participation (labour market participation rate). The rating works in the opposite direction to that of the GDI i.e. a level of 0 indicates no inequality while 1 indicates extreme inequality.

In September 2015, UN Member States adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to be achieved by 2030. Southern African Development Community (SADC) governments joined the rest of the world in adopting these goals.

The SDGs are especially important because they include 17 goals and 169 targets as well as 230 indicators 53 of which relate to gender. Goal five on gender equality has 14 indicators.

The new SGDI on the status of women in SADC countries is based on 36 indicators (compared to 23 in the original SGDI). These are derived from the SDGs, the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework (MERF), SADC Gender Protocol Attitudes survey, the Gender and Rights Assessment (GRA) and the Media Monitoring (see Executive Summary, and Chapter 11 on Implementation). The new SGDI pushes the envelope in introducing proxy indicators for VAW using the Attitudes Survey; measures of voice using media monitoring; and peer review (the GRA) which is a "qualitative measure with a quantitative value." As explained in the Executive Summary and Chapter 11, this forms part of a continual quest to find more accurate ways of measuring the hard-to-measure aspects of gender equality.

Unlike the original SGDI which measured only six areas, the indicators are grouped under nine categories, namely Constitutional and Legal Rights (1), Governance (7), Education (5), Economy (4), GBV (4), Sexual and Reproductive Health (5), HIV and AIDS (5), Media (3) and Climate Change (2). There are, unfortunately, no indicators for the Protocol Articles on Peace Building and Conflict Resolution. The fact that there are no indicators for this area reflects the difficulty in finding sufficient data across all fifteen countries.

Within some of the categories there are disappointing gaps. Ideally, the SGDI would have included an indicator measuring the disparity in pay between women and men doing paid work. Unfortunately, as discussed in the section on other indicator measures such as the GDI, the available datasets of disaggregated earned income are heavily based on assumptions rather than on empirical data. In respect of the maternity leave indicator, the time given to a woman worker does not necessarily mean that she will receive pay while on leave. In some cases, no pay is guaranteed, in other cases only a proportion of the pay is guaranteed, and in some cases paid leave is only available to certain categories of employees, such as those employed by government.

A criticism of the new SGDI may be the number of indicators and the fact that the gaps in data for one country (Angola) meant that we could not calculate an overall SGDI for this country (this will be rectified in 2018, as the data gaps largely related to media monitoring not conducted in Angola). *However, the SGDI is the most comprehensive gender index for Southern Africa of any of the existing gender indicators, and it overcomes many of the shortfalls identified in this Annex.*

To create the composite index, two challenges needed to be addressed. The first was the differing number of indicators in the various categories and how this should be dealt with in weighting. This was necessary so that, for example, Governance, Education and Training, Health and HIV which all have five or more indicators were not given twice the importance ("weight") of Climate Change and

Constitutional and Legal Rights which have two and one indicators respectively. The second challenge was the difference in the range of "raw scores" that were possible for each indicator and how these could be standardised so that averages were not comparing apples and oranges. If this standardisation were not done, an indicator for which the score could range from 0 to 50 would have only half the weight of another indicator for which the score could range from 0 to 100.

## Weighting

Each category is given equal weight by calculating the average score across the indicators in that category. So, for example, for categories with three indicators, the score for that category was the average across the three. This approach also solves the problem of how to deal with countries for which some indicators were missing, as the average was calculated on the available indicators for each country. Nevertheless, while this generated a score for all categories across all countries except for media and climate change in Angola, the averages for countries with missing indicators should be treated with caution as they are not exactly comparable with those of countries for which all indicators were available. The number of missing indicators ranged from zero in Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe to six in Angola.

## Standardisation

Standardisation aimed to convert all "raw scores" into values that range from 0 (for the worst possible performance) to 100 (for the best possible performance).

The indicators consist of several types in terms of what they are measuring:

- Many of the indicators measure the female percentage of people with given characteristics. All the governance, education and media indicators have this form. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100. However, if our aim is to ensure that women do not face discrimination, then a raw score of 50 is the target. In standardisation, all scores of more than 50 - of which several were found, for example, for tertiary education - were therefore changed to 50.

- Several of the indicators measure the percentage of women and girls with a given characteristic. Two examples of such indicators are the percentage of women using contraception and the percentage of women aged 15-24 with comprehensive knowledge on HIV and AIDS. For these indicators, the raw score could range from 0 to 100 and the score therefore did not need further standardisation.

- Several of the indicators measure the female rate for a given characteristic as a percentage of the male rate. Examples here are female and male enrolment in different levels of education. What is being measured here is the gender gap.

- Finally, two of the indicators that relate specifically to gender or women's issues have scores that fall outside the above categories. The first is the number of weeks of maternity leave to which employees are entitled. The second is the maternal mortality rate, which is expressed as the number of deaths for every 100,000 live births. For the first of these indicators, we assumed that the possible range was from 0 to 16 weeks, and calculated the actual number of weeks as a percentage of 16. For the second of these indicators, we set the possible range between 0 and 2000 out of 100,000 (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ Maternal death), and calculate a score out of 100 by dividing the raw score by 20.

A further challenge in the standardisation process was that while the majority of indicators measure a desirable characteristic, for which a high score indicates good performance, there are a few indicators that measure undesirable characteristic for which higher scores reflected poorer performance. Examples include the female share of people living with HIV, maternal mortality rate and certain of the indicator scores. For these indicators the rate was inverted by subtracting the standardised rate from 100. Detailed workings on the SGDI are available on request from alliance@genderlinks.org.za.

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# The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development

## Encompasses

commitments made in all regional, global and continental instruments for achieving gender equality.

## Enhances

these instruments through a Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework.

## Advances

gender equality by ensuring accountability by all SADC Member States, as well as providing a form for the sharing of best practices, peer support and review.

SADC GENDER PROTOCOL ALLIANCE











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The SADC Protocol on Gender and Development is the only sub-regional instrument in the world that brings together global and continental commitments to gender equality in one instrument used to enhance accountability. The Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance is a network of country and regional NGOs that campaigned for the Protocol, its updating, implementation and tracking.

Originally aligned to the Millennium Development Goals that expired in 2015, SADC Gender Ministers updated the Protocol and aligned it to the Sustainable development Goals (SDGs), Beijing Plus Twenty and the Africa Agenda 2063 in 2016. In July 2017, the Ministers adopted a Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting Framework (MERF) that will be the basis of future reporting.

Now in its ninth edition, the 2017 Barometer is the first assessment of the Post-2015 SADC Gender Protocol. Moving with the times, the Alliance has expanded the two key main yardsticks in the Barometer: the SADC Gender and Development Index (SGDI) and the Citizen Score Card (CSC). The Barometer incorporates many MERF and SDG indicators, as well as its own unique measures of voice, choice and control. The Barometer also introduces the Gender Responsive Assessment of Constitutions and Laws conducted by Alliance experts and networks around the region.

A wealth of data, insights and analysis awaits all readers of the Barometer, that will also be made available online and in multi-media formats. The "SADC we want" is one in which citizens engage; step it up for gender equality, and make sure we achieve *Planet 50/50 by 2030!*

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