

**AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK
AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT FUND**

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

COUNTRY GENDER PROFILE

Human Development Department (OSHD)

JULY 2006

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Boxes and Tables, List of Abbreviations and Acronyms, Namibia: Comparative Socio-Economic Indicators, Definition of Gender Terms, Executive Summary (i – ix)

1.	INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND	1
1.1	Objectives of the Study.....	1
1.2	Methodology.....	1
1.3	Format of the Document.....	2
2.	HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE.....	2
2.1	Colonial and Post-Colonial History.....	2
2.2	National Demographic Indicators.....	4
2.3	Gender Disaggregated Economic Indicators	5
3.	GENDER POLICY, INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS	6
3.1	Gender Policy Framework.....	6
3.2	Institutional Gender Framework.....	8
3.3	Legal Framework.....	9
3.4	Stakeholders for Policy, Institutional and Legal Frameworks.....	10
3.5	Analysis and Strategic Options.....	11
4.	GENDER ANALYSIS BY SECTOR	12
4.1	Macro Economic Framework	12
4.2	Agriculture Sector.....	19
4.3	Education Sector	24
4.4	Health Sector	30
4.5	Infrastructure Sector	35
5.	CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES	40
5.1	The Environment	40
5.2	HIV/AIDS.....	43
5.3	Governance and Decision-Making	47
6	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADB INTERVENTIONS.....	51
6.1	Past and Ongoing ADB Interventions	51
6.2	Gender Analysis of ADB Interventions.....	52
6.3	Areas for Enhancing Gender Concerns in ADB Interventions.....	53
7	GENERIC PROBLEMS IN GENDER MAINSTREAMING	57

List of Annexes

1. References
2. Map of Namibia
3. Demographic Indicators for Namibia
4. Gender Sectoral Development Goals

This report was prepared by Mrs. Gisela GEISLER, Senior Gender Specialist, OSHD.0 and a gender specialist consultant. For further information on the report, please contact Ms. Alice HAMER, Director, OSHD (Ext.2046).

LIST OF BOXES

Box 1.1	Participatory Approach	2
Box 4.1	Economic Policies	13
Box 4.2	Agricultural Policy	22
Box 4.3	Policy on Educationally Marginalised Children	26
Box 4.4	Educational Policies	27
Box 4.5	Policy on Pregnancy among Learners	28
Box 4.6	Policy on HIV and AIDS for the Education Sector	28
Box 4.7	Health Policies	31
Box 4.8	Reproductive Health Policies	32
Box 4.9	Living Environment Policy	36
Box 4.10	Water Policy	36
Box 4.11	Sanitation Policies	37
Box 4.12	Energy Policies	38
Box 5.1	Environmental Policy	41
Box 5.2	HIV/AIDS Policy	43
Box 5.3	Youth, Gender and HIV/AIDS Policy	45

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Labour Force 15+ year olds by Sex and Urban/Rural areas	14
Table 4.2	Employed Population 15+ years olds by Sex and Employment	15
Table 4.3	Full-time Enrolment by Sex and Course at UNAM 1997 and 2002	26
Table 5.1	2004 HIV Prevalence Rates in Pregnant Women	44
Table 5.2	Local Authorities in 1999 and 2005	48
Table 5.3	Positions in Government	48
Table 5.4	Women Management in Public Service	49

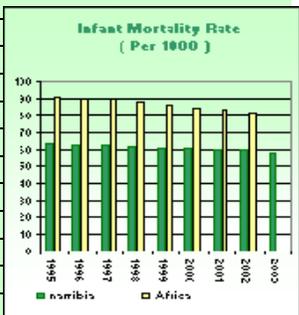
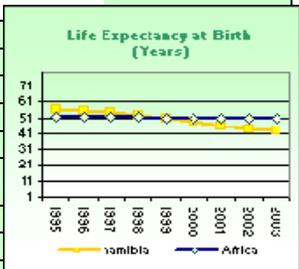
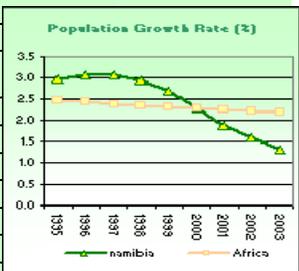
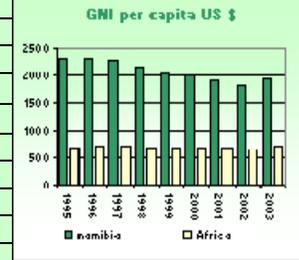
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAA	Affirmative Action (Employment) Act
ADB	African Development Bank
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ALU	AIDS Law Unit (LAC)
ARV	Anti Retro-Viral
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DWA	Department of Women's Affairs in the Office of the President
ECN	Electoral Commission of Namibia
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FAWENA	Forum for African Women Educationalist in Namibia
FES	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GFP	Gender Focal Points
GMMES	Gender Management Monitoring and Evaluation System
GoN	Government of the Republic of Namibia
GSC	Gender Sectoral Committee
GTRP	Gender Training and Research Programme (UNAM)
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft Für Technische Zusammenarbeit
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPI	Human Poverty Index
ILO	International Labour Organization
LAC	Legal Assistance Centre
LaRRI	Labour Resource and Research Institute
MAWF	Ministry Agriculture, Water and Forestry
MAWRD	Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development (now MAWF)
MBESC	Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (now MoE)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MET	Minister of Environment and Tourism
MGECW	Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare
MHETEC	Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Employment Creation (now MoE)
MIB	Ministry of Information and Broadcasting
MLR	Ministry of Lands and Resettlement
MLRR	Ministry of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation (now MLR)
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MoHAI	Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration
MoHSS	Ministry of Health and Social Services
MoJ	Ministry of Justice
MoL	Ministry of Labour (now MoLSW)
MoLSW	Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
MRLGH&RD	Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development
MTI	Ministry of Trade and Industry
MWACW	Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare (now MGECW)

MWTC	Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication
MYS	Ministry of Youth and Sport
NACP	National Aids Control Programme
NAMDEB	Namibia DeBeers LTD
NAMEC	Namibian Men for Change
NAMFISA	Namibian Financial Institutions Supervisory Authority
NANAWO	Namibian National Women's Organisation
NANGOF	Namibian Non-Governmental Organisation's Forum
NAP	National Agricultural Policy
NAPPA	Namibia Planned Parenthood Association
NAWA	Namibian Women's Association
NDP2	National Development Plan 2
NECD	National Early Childhood Development
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGCO	Namibian Girl Child Organisation
NGM	National Gender Machinery
NGOs	Non Governmental Organisations
NGP	National Gender Policy
NGPA	National Gender Plan of Action
NHE	National Housing Enterprise
NNAWIB	Namibia National Association of Women in Business
NPC	National Planning Commission
NWL	Namibian Women's Lobby
NWN	Namibian Women's Network
OVC	Orphans and other Vulnerable Children
PLAN	People's Liberation Army of Namibia (military branch of SWAPO)
RMC	African Regional Countries
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SRH	Sexual and Reproductive Health
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organization
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UNAIDS	United Nations Joint Programme on AIDS
UNAM	University of Namibia
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNTAG	United Nations Transitory Assistance Group
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WAD	Women's Action for Development
WCPU	Women and Child Protection Unit

NAMIBIA: COMPARATIVE SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS

	Year	Namibia	Africa	Developing Countries	Developed Countries
Basic Indicators					
Area ('000 Km ²)		824	30 061	80 976	54 658
Total Population (millions)	2003	2.0	849.5	5,024.6	1,200.3
Urban Population (% of Total)	2003	29.3	39.2	43.1	78.0
Population Density (per Km ²)	2003	2.4	28.3	60.6	22.9
GNI per Capita (US \$)	2003	1 930	704	1 154	26 214
Labor Force Participation - Total (%)	2003	39.9	43.3	45.6	54.6
Labor Force Participation - Female (%)	2003	42.4	41.0	39.7	44.9
Gender -Related Development Index Value	2002	0.602	0.476	0.655	0.905
Human Develop. Index (Rank among 174 countries)	2002	126	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Popul. Living Below \$ 1 a Day (% of Population)	1993	34.9	46.7	23.0	20.0
Demographic Indicators					
Population Growth Rate - Total (%)	2003	1.3	2.2	1.7	0.6
Population Growth Rate - Urban (%)	2003	2.9	3.8	2.9	0.5
Population < 15 years (%)	2003	43.3	42.0	32.4	18.0
Population >= 65 years (%)	2003	3.9	3.3	5.1	14.3
Dependency Ratio (%)	2003	88.0	86.1	61.1	48.3
Sex Ratio (per 100 female)	2003	95.6	99.0	103.3	94.7
Female Population 15-49 years (% of total population)	2003	23.6	24.0	26.9	25.4
Life Expectancy at Birth - Total (years)	2003	43.3	50.7	62.0	78.0
Life Expectancy at Birth - Female (years)	2003	44.3	51.7	66.3	79.3
Crude Birth Rate (per 1,000)	2003	32.6	37.0	24.0	12.0
Crude Death Rate (per 1,000)	2003	18.6	15.2	8.4	10.3
Infant Mortality Rate (per 1,000)	2003	58.5	80.6	60.9	7.5
Child Mortality Rate (per 1,000)	2003	105.2	133.3	79.8	10.2
Maternal Mortality Rate (per 100,000)	1995	220	661	440	13
Total Fertility Rate (per woman)	2003	4.4	4.9	2.8	1.7
Women Using Contraception (%)	1997	5.6	40.0	59.0	74.0
Health & Nutrition Indicators					
Physicians (per 100,000 people)	1998	28.7	57.6	78.0	287.0
Nurses (per 100,000 people)	1997	168.0	105.8	98.0	782.0
Births attended by Trained Health Personnel (%)	1998	44.0	44.0	56.0	99.0
Access to Safe Water (% of Population)	2002	80.0	64.4	78.0	100.0
Access to Health Services (% of Population)	1992-98	...	61.7	80.0	100.0
Access to Sanitation (% of Population)	2000	41.0	42.6	52.0	100.0
Percent. of Adults (aged 15-49) Living with HIV/AIDS	2003	22.9	6.4	1.3	0.3
Incidence of Tuberculosis (per 100,000)	2000	596.3	109.7	144.0	11.0
Child Immunization Against Tuberculosis (%)	2003	92.0	81.0	82.0	93.0
Child Immunization Against Measles (%)	2003	70.0	71.7	73.0	90.0
Underweight Children (% of children under 5 years)	1996	26.0	25.9	31.0	...
Daily Calorie Supply per Capita	2002	2 278	2 444	2 675	3 285
Public Expenditure on Health (as % of GDP)	1998	4.1	3.3	1.8	6.3
Education Indicators					
Gross Enrolment Ratio (%)					
Primary School - Total	2001	106.0	88.7	91.0	102.3
Primary School - Female	2001	106.0	80.3	105.0	102.0
Secondary School - Total	2001	61.0	42.9	88.0	99.5
Secondary School - Female	2001	65.0	41.3	45.8	100.8
Primary School Female Teaching Staff (% of Total)	1996	66.2	46.3	51.0	82.0
Adult Illiteracy Rate - Total (%)	2003	16.0	36.9	26.6	1.2
Adult Illiteracy Rate - Male (%)	2002	16.1	28.4	19.0	0.8
Adult Illiteracy Rate - Female (%)	2003	16.4	45.2	34.2	1.6
Percentage of GDP Spent on Education	1998	9.1	5.7	3.9	5.9
Environmental Indicators					
Land Use (Arable Land as % of Total Land Area)	2003	1.0	6.2	9.9	11.6
Annual Rate of Deforestation (%)	1995	0.3	0.7	0.4	-0.2
Annual Rate of Reforestation (%)	1981-90	...	10.9
Per Capita CO2 Emissions (metric tons)	1998	0.0	1.2	1.9	12.3



Source : Compiled by the Statistics Division from ADB databases; UNAIDS; World Bank Live Database and UN Population Division. Notes: n.a Not Applicable; Data Not Available.

DEFINITION OF GENDER TERMS¹

The following definitions apply throughout the document:

- **Gender** is “the economic, social, political, and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female. The social definitions of what it means to be male or female vary among cultures and change over time”.
- **Gender Integration** means “taking into account both the differences and the inequalities between men and women in programme planning, implementation, and assessment.”
- **Gender Analysis** is the methodology applied to development problems to identify and understand the dimensions and relevance of gender issues and gender-based constraints. Analysis includes understanding the differences between men’s and women’s roles, rights and opportunities.
- **Mainstreaming gender** means analysing and integrating potential gender differences where appropriate throughout the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all programmes and activities. The consideration of gender issues results in more effective and efficient development. Gender mainstreaming includes a focus on analysis and content, as well as participation and benefits. For example, it is not only important that women and men participate in the economy, but also that policies benefit both women and men equally.
- **Gender Budgeting** is the process of developing methods and tools to facilitate the analysis and where necessary adjustment of a national state budget from a gender equality perspective. At a minimum, this exercise entails an analysis of public expenditure in a state budget by examining: (i) expenditure of special programmes for gender purposes; (ii) equal opportunity expenditure in the public sector employment; and (iii) budget expenditures by government, assessed for their gender impact. Gender budgeting is normally done by sector and encourages ministries to collect gender disaggregated data and to analyse their expenditure in terms of allocating benefits to men and women.

There are various ways policies and programmes can be institutionalised. They fall into one of four types:

- **Gender-blind** – policies that fail to realise that may have a different impact on women and men and consequently do not take gender differences into account;
- **Gender-neutral** – policies that assume that women and men will benefit equally or that outcomes have no gender implications;
- **Gender-specific** – policies that respond to practical gender needs of either sex, but still work within existing gender divisions; or
- **Gender-redistributive** – policies that tend to transform existing distribution of resources and responsibilities to create a more balanced relationship between women and men.

¹ The following section is adopted from Somach et. al. 2004.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Introduction

This gender profile was developed to assist the gender mainstreaming efforts of the African Development Bank, African countries, and development partners based on its gender policy of 2001. This policy was designed to promote poverty reduction and economic development through the use of gender mainstreaming. The ADB is also mandated to work closely with member states to mainstream gender perspectives and to promote the empowerment of women. To this end, the ADB has undertaken a series of Country Gender Profiles to identify gender-related policy and programme interventions, which could lead to poverty reduction, economic growth and human development within member states.

2. Historical and Demographic Overview

Namibia was colonised by Germany in 1884, which lasted until 1915, and in 1920 the League of Nations assigned Namibia to South Africa for administration. The system of apartheid was implemented in Namibia and created one of the most racially segregated societies in the world. In 1988, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 435, which led to Namibia officially becoming an independent state after more than 100 years of colonisation, on 21 March 1990. Demilitarisation and reintegration took place under UN supervision. According to UNDP estimates, just over 1.9 million people lived in Namibia as of 2003. Of this total, 51.5% were female and 48.5% were male. Approximately 67% of the population live in rural areas. Namibia is home to over a dozen ethnic and language groups. Although the UNDP defines Namibia as a Medium Human Development Country, Namibia has the highest Gini co-efficient in the world, indicating a high disparity between a small wealthy population and a large poor sector of the population.

3. Gender Policy, Institutional and Legal Frameworks

Namibia has made progress on gender-related policies and programmes since independence through the ratification of international instruments, national policies and gender-related law reform. Namibia is a signatory to several international gender conventions, all of which uphold the principles of gender equality. The government is currently drafting a Succession Bill which will harmonise methods of inheritance and property regimes for all Namibians. The GoN has two national documents aimed at guiding gender policy: the **National Gender Policy (NGP)**, which sets out the government rationale for its gender policy, and the **National Gender Plan of Action (NGPA)**, which identifies strategies for implementing gender equality. In addition, there are several national level documents that elaborate on the government's gender aims and objectives, including the **Second National Development Plan (NDP2)** and the **Namibia Vision 2030 (2003)**, both of which identify gender as a cross-sectoral issue to be mainstreamed in development initiatives.

4. Gender Analysis by Sector

4.1 The **macro economic structure** of Namibia exhibits the classic characteristics of a post-colonial state, whereby raw resources are exported while other sectors of the economy are underdeveloped. The economy consists of primary sectors based on mining, agriculture and fishing. Employment levels for women are lower than for their male counterparts. Formal sector employment tends to favour men over women in high paying/high profile positions, while women are concentrated in agriculture and domestic service. In the informal sector women dominate in street market selling, while men dominate in shop-based selling. The main recommended areas for interventions are: (i) diversification of manufacturing; (ii) improved access to productive resources (including land, equipment and credit); (iii) the development of gender disaggregated data and time use studies; and (iv) education and public information.

4.2 **Agriculture** (commercial and subsistence agriculture) accounts for the majority of economic activities in Namibia. Subsistence agricultural productive and home reproductive work in the rural areas is heavily dominated by women, who often work as unpaid labourers on family fields. Women are responsible for up to 90% of subsistence crop production. Their lack of access through the use, ownership and disposition of property limits their economic choices and causes economic dependency on men. The main challenge to gender equity in this sector is that women lack access to productive resources that would allow them to enhance their economic productivity, and as a result, remain marginalised. The priority areas for interventions are: (i) greater access to land and agricultural resources; (ii) monitoring and evaluation of interventions in the agricultural sector; (iii) skills upgrading; and (iv) income generating projects and (v) access to financing.

4.3 Concerning **education** the net enrolment rate (NER) for learners in primary school increased between 1992 and 2001 from 89% to 93.7% (94.4% girls versus 92.7% boys). The lowest NER is for Grade 1 at only 39.6% of six-year-olds, with 100% NER by 9 years old. However, NERs drop for learners at about 16 years of age (83.2%) and continue to decline with only 56.9% enrolment for learners 18 years of age. Overall school enrolment is higher for girls (75%) than for boys (72%), but girls tend to be congregated in subjects traditionally thought of as being girl's subjects. The two greatest challenges to educational attainment are teenage pregnancies and the HIV/AIDS pandemic, while some of the main areas with opportunities for interventions are: (i) the need for programmes targeting special needs learners; (ii) studies on the causes of boys lower enrolment and pass rates with a view of formulating activities which seek to close existing gender gaps; and (iii) programmes that seek to reverse the effects of HIV/AIDS on the education sector as a whole and girl's education in particular.

4.4 An important objective of improved **health care** is better access to primary health care for more Namibians. Infant mortality rates have dropped since 1992, although statistics on maternal mortality ratios differ, some suggest that maternal mortality is on the increase. Teenage mothers contribute to over 9% of total fertility in Namibia. Women's and young people's access to sexual and reproductive health care and information are hindered by social and cultural factors. The main areas with opportunities for interventions are: (i) training and advocacy which focus traditional authorities; (ii) monitoring and evaluation of existing interventions; and (iii) funding for health related programmes other than those directly linked to HIV/AIDS, particularly in the area of sexual and reproductive health.

4.5 With regard to **infrastructure**, the domains of public utilities, water, electricity and construction are relatively under-developed in rural areas. Data indicate a high household energy outlay (usually by women or girls) for the collection of water and firewood. Various parastatals are responsible for infrastructural supports but they pay little consideration to differential access by men and women, thus leading to a lack of gender sensitive programmes and also data. Due to the fact that more women than men live in the rural areas, a lack of rural infrastructure affects rural women disproportionately. The main areas with opportunities for interventions are: (i) the need for more funding and research and activities which address gender and infrastructure and (ii) programmes which aim to close gaps in access to and control over infrastructural services between men and women.

5. Cross-Cutting Issues

5.1 **The environment and natural resources management** is a challenge given the aridity of the Namibian environ as well as a poor and growing population. Although women are the primary users of the environment, including land, they have limited rights to own or use land. The amended **Namibian Conservancies Act (1975)** now allows for community based natural resource management. The main gender related challenge in this sector is that environmental policies and

programmes do not take gender aspects of sustainable environmental development into consideration. The priority areas with opportunities for interventions are: (i) expansion of cooperative and self-help conservancy initiatives (ii) increase of stakeholders' participation in project design and implementation; and (iii) need for programmes that aim to empower men and women to utilise the environment in a sustainable manner.

5.2 Regarding **HIV/AIDS**, Namibia had in 2004 an overall estimated HIV prevalence rate of 19.8%, down from 22.3% in 2002 for the childbearing population, the first recorded decline since the pandemic began. The government provides ARVs at most hospitals nationwide, with initial reports of a decline in morbidity and mortality rates. Women who die from AIDS are an average of 5-10 years younger than men, and are diagnosed at a younger age than men, and the percentage of young women living with HIV is 29% compared to only 8% for young men. The main challenge with regard to HIV/AIDS prevention is the 'patchwork' of HIV/AIDS stakeholders working within HIV/AIDS prevention, care and treatment, with little coordination and oversight. The main areas for interventions are: (i) programmes targeting behaviour change, (ii) interventions that target prevention and care messages; (iii) counselling and support services for those affected by AIDS; and (iv) support for orphans, particularly the disadvantaged girl orphans who are more vulnerable to sexual and other exploitation.

5.3 Concerning **gender equality in decision-making**, the number of women in political positions has increased, although women are far from 50% representation in higher level decision-making positions. In Local Authorities, women moved from 41.3% of seats in 1998 to 43.4% in 2004. At the local level, affirmative action policies dictated greater women's representation; however, this is not the case at regional and national levels. In the National Assembly, the pre-2004 election figures went from 26.4% to 27.3% women representatives – an increase of less than 1%. The 2005 Cabinet is made up of 24 members of whom six are women, giving women 25% representation. The main challenge to women's greater participation in governance and decision-making is resistance at all levels of society. The main areas for interventions are: (i) advocacy campaigns to influence attitudes towards female politicians; (ii) skills upgrading of women politicians; (iii) education and information campaigns of male and female voters; (iii) legal reforms which favour greater participation of women in decision making such as quota, electoral laws etc.; (iv) promotion of women at managerial level in the private sector; and (v) coordination of the activities of stakeholders active in this area to avoid duplication.

6. Recommendations for ADB Interventions

6.1 ADB is committed to the development in Namibia in selected sectors that coincide with those identified in this report as lacking both stakeholders and funding for interventions; namely agriculture, the environment and infrastructure. The Bank could develop gender specific targets for project interventions in these sectors, which are neglected. This strategy is bolstered by the fact that there are already a proliferation of gender initiatives in other sectors.

6.2 Ongoing and current Bank operations could include: (i) gender sensitisation for participants and management; (ii) clearly identified targets for women in various employment positions and in target populations of Bank projects; (iii) incentive programmes for service providers or projects that reach gender targeted goals; and (iv) skills upgrading and training for women in management and in non-stereotyped positions. In addition, all subsequent proposals for Bank assistance should contain a gender analysis of implication for women and specific goals for addressing previous gender imbalances.

6.3 The Bank could focus activities on empowering women in economic activities. Given the Bank's ongoing commitment to Namibia's agricultural sector, contribution within this sector could be enhanced to further incorporate gender targets. The Bank could improve household food

security, through built-in mechanisms for alternative household economic activities that will act as stop-gap measures when crop failure occurs. As a cross-cutting issue, all future Bank operations should recognise women as users of the environment. Given that the transport, energy, water supply and sanitation sub-sectors are areas supported by the Bank, areas where gender equity concerns have been largely ignored, the Bank should ensure that future operations have an expressed gender component with targets for women's participation and management and activities that address women's and men's specific needs. Interventions in the social sector, although not prioritised in the 2005-2009 country strategy, remain important to maintain and strengthen the ability of men and women to increase participation in social, economic and political spheres.

7. Generic Problems in Gender Mainstreaming

7.1 One of the main challenges in developing gender programmes and policies is the difference between donors' perceptions of the form and purpose of funding and stakeholders' needs. A lack of core funding limits the ability to plan future activities, and to respond to unforeseen developments, which may require a rapid response. There is a shortage of trained personnel in Namibia, especially in the field of gender. However, securing funding for skills upgrading and education has been identified as a challenge.

7.2 The functioning of Gender Focal Points (GFP) in line ministries and other public institutions (GFPs) is inhibited by a number of factors including: (i) little support from their ministries; (ii) their relatively low position within management structures; (iii) low awareness among general ministerial staff about the role of GFPs and no formalised terms of reference; (iv) little time allocated to perform gender-related tasks; (v) insufficient budgeting; (vi) inadequate training; (vii) little monitoring and accountability. A core issue is an inadequate understanding of the concept of gender mainstreaming. Cultural and social attitudes also still hinder gender equality goals.

7.3 Although Namibia has had a National Gender Policy (NGP) since 1997, there is a lack of compliance with it in decision-making and policy and programme formulation. There is currently no mechanism for ensuring that the NGP is implemented.

1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Objectives of the Study

1.1.1 The African Development Bank Group's (ADB) gender policy, approved in July 2001, provides the requisite conceptual and operational framework for the Bank's promotion of gender responsive development in Africa. Through this policy, the Bank seeks, through gender mainstreaming in Bank operations, to promote and to assist African Regional Countries (RMCs) in attaining gender equality objectives. The policy is designed to concretise the commitment of the ADB to supporting gender equity as a way of fostering poverty reduction and economic development in Africa. This broad objective is contained in the 1999-approved Vision document on the Bank's overarching development strategy in which gender is a cross-cutting issue which must permeate all Bank operations. The Vision document also requires the Bank to work closely with Regional Member Countries to mainstream gender perspectives and to promote the empowerment of women.

1.1.2 The Country Gender Profile was first discussed with the Government of Namibia during a Social Sector identification mission during 2004. This was followed by more concrete discussion in March 2005, during which the outline of the study and its outlook was defined and took shape. The study was launched in June 2005 and presented to the Bank in September 2005. The aim of this report is to present the Bank as well as stakeholders in Namibia with a document they can use for development planning and for funding gender-related sectoral activities such as those identified in this document as strategic options for interventions.² The analysis in this report specifically aims to:

- Identify the challenges to addressing gender inequalities
- Document stakeholders' progress in addressing gender inequalities in Namibia;
- Determine linkages between current gender-related programmes and donor sources;
- Identify information, research, advocacy and project opportunities for interventions in the various sectors.

1.1.3 In carrying out this exercise, this profile seeks to identify the short and long-term gender concerns relevant to poverty reduction and sustainable development. This is to contribute to help Namibia move closer to gender parity and to facilitate mainstreaming gender into Bank operations in Namibia.

1.2 Methodology

1.2.1 A literature search was conducted for published information relating to gender issues in Namibia. Relevant stakeholder organisations such as ministries, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and donors were contacted for documentation and interviews. A consultative workshop with stakeholders who address gender concerns was also held. During this workshop stakeholders reviewed the document, with particular focus on the sectoral interventions and challenges, gave input in their particular field of expertise and made recommendations. The final changes to this report were guided by this consultative workshop.

1.2.2 Most data for the sections that examine gender stakeholders, opportunities for interventions and challenges in each sector are derived from face-to-face interviews, the

² For this report gender stakeholders include government ministries and other government organisations, NGOs, CBOs, donors, civil society and sometimes private sector.

administration of questionnaires with approximately 50 stakeholders, and from relevant published data supplied by stakeholders. This review is not meant to be exhaustive, given the number of stakeholders and diversity of topical areas covered, but it is meant to highlight the main activities and challenges in the area of activities which pursue gender equity.

Box 1.1 Participatory Approach

The study has used a participatory approach including a one-day consultative workshop held in Windhoek which gathered 29 participants from a wide range of stakeholders including government (7), bi- and multi-lateral donors (6), University of Namibia/Polytechnic (5) and NGO/CBOs (11). The workshop was opened by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, Ms S. Ausiku and discussed the objectives for the meeting, the challenges in all of the relevant sectors and issues related to gender mainstreaming. Participants generally agreed on common recommendations, which are largely incorporated into this report.

1.2.3 Every effort was made to research the latest available information on topics covered, although some data sources were not available and there may be gaps in the information presented might remain. Due to the nature of this study many other authors' works were reviewed and are acknowledged in the reference section.

1.3 Format of the Document

Section 1 of this document gives a brief overview of the background, aims and methodology of the document. Section 2 gives a country description for readers not acquainted with Namibia. Section 3 identifies the legal and policy frameworks for gender activities. Sections 4 and 5 examine each sector or cross-cutting issue by first giving a brief descriptive overview, followed by a discussion of the main gender stakeholders, sector analysis and the main strategic options for interventions. Section 6 examines current and possible future Bank interventions in Namibia, and Section 7 describes possible interventions and challenges that are common throughout most sectors and cross-cutting issues discussed in the document.

2. HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

2.1 Colonial and Post-Colonial History³

2.1.1 Namibia had been under foreign colonial rule for over a century, but gained its independence from South Africa in 1990. Germany colonised the territory from 1884 to 1915 when its government was defeated by the Union of South Africa army during the First World War. South Africa was to administer Namibia as a protectorate, but instead tried to incorporate it as a province, using the system of *apartheid* (literally 'apartness') thereby creating one of the most divided societies in the world: every aspect of social and economic infrastructure was divided along racial lines – with the white population having access to the best supports and black and so-called “coloured” persons having access to almost no support systems. The Contract Labour System recruited men from the rural areas for work in 'white' areas, leaving women to look after homesteads, located in “native reserves”. The pass system prevented women from travelling and living with their husbands in urban areas, and men,

³ The terms 'African' and 'black' are used interchangeably to refer to the indigenous people of Namibia. People of European ancestry are called 'whites' and people whose ancestry is mixed are called 'coloureds'. Although these terms are problematic due to the inequalities they conveyed during apartheid, they are used in this report for convention.

while on labour contracts were restricted to visits to their families. Long separations caused the African family system to weaken.

2.1.2 The national liberation movement emerged in the early 1960s to end South Africa's occupation of Namibia. In 1966, the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) began a liberation war through its military arm, the People's Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN) and escalated its lobbying efforts to achieve an internationally sanctioned independence for Namibia. In 1988, the Security Council adopted Resolution 435 which established a UN Transitional Assistance Group (UNTAG) to supervise a cease fire and monitor South Africa's withdrawal from Namibia. The repatriation and reintegration of exiled civilians and ex-fighters was conducted concurrently to the establishment of the Namibian government. It is estimated that 32 000 PLAN members of which as many as one-third were women, and approximately 25 000 ex-fighters for South Africa, of which 16 000 were Namibian were demobilised in 1989. Large numbers of Namibians, both men and women, also had gone into exile in neighbouring countries as well as across the globe. Within Namibia both rural and urban populations, amongst them many women, who were left behind to look after children and fields, contributed to the guerrilla war for independence by assisting PLAN fighters with important tasks such as producing and procuring food, shifting weapons, doing reconnaissance and other tasks behind the frontline.

2.1.3 The SWAPO Women's Council was formed in 1969 to mobilise Namibian women to participate in the liberation struggle and to lobby support from international women's groups. Within SWAPO both women and men held positions of power, such as women PLAN fighters and diplomats. Women who chose to leave the country typically worked in SWAPO-run refugee camps, often alongside men. Many women were trained in typically male-dominated occupations such as automobile mechanics, radio technicians and electricians. In addition, both men and women in exile studied abroad and received higher education and training in top-level management positions.

2.1.4 The most important aspects of the specific Namibian history which had a profound effect on women's status and role in Namibia were the restrictions imposed by the colonial governments on the one hand and the experiences of empowerment during the independence struggle on the other hand. Although women in most traditional African societies were subject to male dominance, the superimposition of colonialism, including apartheid, further disempowered them. Western colonial ideas impacted gender relations by altering previous cultural beliefs and practices. The reinterpretation of customary law and the prevailing Roman-Dutch civil law classified women as minors. For example, women married within "community of property" could not enter into a legal contract without their husband's consent. Under *apartheid* discrimination existed against both white and black women based on their gender, but black women were further discriminated against based on their 'race'. This changed with women's participation in the independence struggle, either as combatants, as exiles or as supporters of guerrilla fighters within the country. Even though women's liberation was a goal that was subordinated to national liberation, the struggle offered women opportunities to be accepted as full members of society, be able to train and fight alongside men. This also influenced the SWAPO view of women's role in society.

2.1.5 At independence many returning women exiles had difficulties being accepted by both their families and their men, since they had diverted from circumscribed gender roles, and had turned into what was considered "quasi men" in a society which returned to traditional pre-struggle values. Even 15 years after returning to their communities, some ex-fighter women are still not fully integrated into traditional family units. The experience of empowerment shaped the behaviour of a critical mass of women, who after independence fought for participation in politics, for gender sensitive legislation and the recognition of their

achievements during the struggle. They also looked at their sisters in neighbouring countries, such as Zimbabwe, where participation in the independence struggle did not result in gender equity later on and learned from their mistakes. At first haltingly, women gained ground moving Namibia to considerable achievements in the area of gender equality (by comparison with other SADC countries), such as almost 30 % representation in parliament, legislated quota for women in local government, progressive legislation such as the rape law etc.

2.2 National Demographic Indicators

2.2.1 Census data indicate about 1.8 million people in Namibia in 2001, with UNDP estimates of just over 1.9 million in 2003. According to the 2001 census 51.5% were female and 48.5% were male. The annual population growth rate between 1991 and 2001 was 2.6%, while the growth rate before 1991 was 3.1%. Namibia has 39% of its population under 15 years of age. Namibia has a population density of 2.1 persons per square kilometre; however, the population is unevenly distributed due to environmental conditions and historical factors. The sex ratio in Namibia differs considerably by region. Erongo and Karas has the most skewed sex ratio with 115 and 114 males for every 100 females, while in the northern region Omusati and Ohangwena have the lowest sex ratio with 81 and 83 males per 100 females respectively. This is due to male in and out-migration. Women are, in any case, in the majority in the populous rural North, that exhibit higher levels of poverty and social exclusion.

2.2.2 Namibia is a country with a rapid urbanisation rate, which has come with urban poverty. The urbanisation rate is currently highest in the populous north with 7.5% moving into newly declared small rural towns, while Windhoek as the largest urban centre houses 39 % of the population. 40% of the urban population live in informal settlements, where service delivery is weak and incomplete, housing is inadequate, and land rights are uncertain. In many informal settlements female-headed households predominate, with figures reaching up to 60 %.

2.2.3 Namibia is generally characterised by a high number of female-headed households, which in 2001 reached 45% nationally, up from 39% in 1991, comparable to Botswana where in 2001 it stood at 46%. (In Zambia, for example, FHHs constituted only 20% of all household in 2001). A 2004 survey established that in the small northern town of Ondangwa, for example, female-headed households made up over 57% of all households. Female headship in Namibia is, moreover, a phenomenon not strongly linked to divorce or death of partner, but appears also to be a choice of lifestyle. According to the 2001 census data 56% of the population over 15 years of age were in fact never married, while only 28% were married (both civil and traditional marriages), and 7% divorced or widowed.

2.2.4 The overall fertility rate in Namibia dropped from an average of 6.1 in 1991 to 4.1 in 2001. The decline has been attributed to women's greater participation in the cash economy, higher levels of education and better access to and utilisation of fertility regulation. The overall population growth rate for Namibia dropped from 3.1 to 2.6 in the same period. Infant mortality rates have declined to 49 females versus 55 males per 1 000 live births, while the child (under five) mortality rate has dropped from 87 in 1991 to 71 for 2001. Infant and child mortality rates are higher for children whose mothers live in the rural areas, are widowed or divorced, have low educational attainment and/or are unpaid family workers.

2.2.5 Mortality patterns have changed dramatically in recent decades. Life expectancy for females dropped from 63 years in 1991 to 50 years in 2001, while male life expectancy declined from 59 years to 48 years for the same time period. This decline is due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Namibia shows an increase in the number of deaths of people in the 25-50

(with concentration in the 30-34) year old age groups. The number of reported deaths in Namibia has risen by 80% between 1998 and 2001, with one out of every six households having experienced a death in the household for that time period. Adult mortality data indicate that 24% of households in Namibia have children under 15 years who have lost one parent, with 3% of households with children who have lost both parents. In 2001 4% of children under 15 years were orphaned by their mother, 9% by their fathers and 1% with no parents alive.

2.2.6 Namibia's diverse ethnic groups include the Afrikaners, Basters, Caprivians, 'Coloureds', Damara, German, Herero, Kavango, Nama, Owambo, Himba and Bushmen. The most common languages spoken in Namibia are Oshiwambo (48%), Nama/Damara (11%), Rukavango (10%), Afrikaans (11%) and Otjiherero (8%). Approximately half of all Namibian ethnic groups are matrilineal, meaning that children do not inherit from their fathers but rather from their mother brother (maternal uncle). This descent has also significant implications for social organisation since mother and children retain strong links to their maternal family and women retain rights to fields there, while in some cases marriage is also matri-focal, meaning the husband moves to his wife's village. Divorce rates are higher among matrilineal and matri-focal social groups.

2.3 Gender Disaggregated Economic Indicators

2.3.1 For Namibia the poverty line is based on an average annual expenditure of US\$74 per adult. In a 1999 survey, 75.9% of households in Namibia fell below this poverty line. Male-headed households tend to spend more than female-headed households (US\$86 versus US\$53). However, even though more FFH fall under the poverty line, its members might not be necessarily worse off than their counterparts in MMHs. Studies in other parts of Africa have indicated that income distribution amongst members of FHH might be more equitable and more spending might be directed towards human development needs. In Namibia, where female headship appears to be largely based on choice (see 2.2.3), staying unmarried appears to present advantages to women. Interestingly, contrary to the statistical evidence that female heads of households are poorer, data from a survey in the North of Namibia in 2004 suggest that this category of households were more likely to have secondary education, to maintain stronger links to rural areas, and frequently succeeded in obtaining better housing than their male counterparts, all indications that the relative income poverty of female headed households went hand in hand with better human development indicators and a better quality of life for its members.

2.3.2 The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines Namibia as a medium human development country; however, Namibia has a Gini Coefficient of .71, the highest in the world, indicating a high disparity between a small wealthy sector and a poor large sector of the population. Namibia's rating as a middle income country has restricted it from receiving specific types of development aid. By comparison the Gini coefficient for SADC is .58, and a Gini coefficient above .55 is an indication of an unequal income distribution. UNDP indicates that Namibia's Human Poverty Index (HPI) is 37.8%, ranking it 62 out of 175 countries. However, when examining Namibia's Human Development Index (HDI), Namibia has a rating of 62.7%, ranking it 114 out of 173 countries.⁴ The difference in these two figures indicates the skewed nature of income distribution in Namibia. When examining both indices by sex, females have poorer scores than males. For the HPI, it is 26% for females and 21.7% for males, primarily due to lower adult literacy rates, access to potable water and higher percentages of income going towards food. The HDI shows the same trend,

⁴ HPI is an index that measures longevity, knowledge and standard of living. The higher the HPI score the worse off the indicator. HDI measures a long and healthy life, knowledge and decent standard of living. The lower the score the worse off the indicator.

(62% females versus 65% males), although this gap has lessened since 1998 (65% females and 77% males). These scores take adult literacy rates and income levels into account. The Gender Development Index (GDI) for Namibia was 63, which ranked Namibia 100 out of 175 countries.

2.3.3 Women have annual incomes almost half that of men (US\$4 833 versus US\$9 511). The 1999 Levels of Living Survey found that on aggregate the average monthly income of adults was US\$106, with US\$70 for those residing in female-headed households and US\$127 for those in male-headed households. These data further exemplify income disparities because most Namibians earn far below the national average. Women are also less likely than men to be employed in the formal sector. Women tend to dominate in unpaid family labour (24% versus 18%), and in the agricultural sector. Women of all ages are more likely than their male cohorts to be unemployed.

3. GENDER POLICY, INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

3.1 Gender Policy Framework

3.1.1 The Namibian government has formally supported gender equality since independence and has made some progress with regard to gender-related policies and programmes since independence, including the ratification of international documents, such as the *Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women* (CEDAW) (1992), the *CEDAW Optional Protocol* (2000), the *SADC Declaration on Gender and Development*, the *Beijing Platform for Action*, the *African Regional Platform for Action* (1997) and the *African Charter on Women's Rights* (2004), as well as national policies and gender sensitive legal reform. In the area of legal reform progress has been particularly evident, such as with the very progressive rape, domestic violence and maintenance acts (see below). Problems, however, still exist with regards to implementation and monitoring of these acts. Moreover, while the new laws should override customary law, in practice this is still not always the case. The Married Persons Equality Act (see below), for example, while progressive, applies only to civil marriages leaving out the majority of customary marriages.

3.1.2 The Namibian Constitution, adopted at independence in 1990, makes provision for equal rights in marriage, during marriage and in divorce. It commits Namibia to the elimination of discriminatory practices based upon, among other things: sex, religion and race. With the abolishment of apartheid and the establishment of a democratic government, men and women's equality is enshrined in the Constitution. Furthermore, it recognises the previously disadvantaged position of women and encourages the implementation of affirmative action policies to advance women's social status. The Constitution also calls for legislation to provide for equal remuneration for men and women as well as maternity and related benefits. Through the Constitution, Namibia encourages equal power relations and treatment of women and men in all spheres of social, legal and economic life.

3.1.3 Namibia has several national documents that constitute the policy framework for gender equity, including the National Gender Policy (NGP), the National Gender Plan of Action (NGPA). Other less specific guiding documents include the **Second National Development Plan (NDP2)** covering the period 2001/2002 - 2005/2006. It identifies gender and development as a cross-sectoral issue that encompasses all dimensions of Namibia's economic and social fabric. Specific areas identified include early childhood development for girls and boys, community development and government commitment. The NDP2 recognises women's socio-economic disadvantaged position in areas such as rural development, education, commerce, industrial activities, politics and decision-making. The NDP2 identifies

specific sectoral objectives in areas such as legal reform, poverty reduction, rural development, reproductive health, education and training, economic empowerment, management of the environment, improved access to information and education, and improving the situation of girls. The NDP2 stipulates that these broad sectoral areas are addressed through advocacy and information campaigns. Institutional capacity building is also identified as necessary to strengthen structures and institutions to promote gender equality.

3.1.4 The **Namibia Vision 2030 (2003)** also identifies a policy framework for long-term national development, and includes in its objectives to mainstream gender in development, as well as to ensure that women and men are given equal opportunities to exercise their skills in all aspects of life. The Vision 2030 includes mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating progress with regard to gender issues and recommends involving traditional authorities in gender sensitive programmes; addressing misconceptions on gender and discourses that reflect gendered ideologies; implementing gender policies and programmes; undertaking gender analysis of data; and capacity building for gender research. The document also identifies differences between men and women in access to resources as an area for redress. It further recognises unequal representation in positions of power and calls on stakeholders to address imbalances between men and women in decision-making positions. It promotes the formulation of national policies that (i) ensure equitable access to social services, including education and health, (ii) ensure equitable access to services and resources with the removal of limitations and barriers; (iii) implement gender-related policies; and (iv) discourage gender-based violence.

3.1.5 Namibia served as President of the UN General Assembly during the Millennium Summit in New York in 2000 and has presented its first progress report of the **Millennium Development Goals** in 2004. The recommendations of the report will feed into the review of NDP2. The document notes that Namibia has made good progress towards gender equality in the educational sector, improving maternal health, and providing safe drinking water but notes that progress has been slow with regard to decision-making, while in the area of HIV/AIDS prevention, the situation has worsened since the 1990s.

3.1.6 The government has adopted a **Poverty Reduction Policy (1998)** aimed at lifting the poorest sections of the population above the poverty line. In an effort to reduce gender-specific poverty, the government is tasked to: reduce poverty by supporting women's economic efforts in income generating and development activities; promote the development and use of environmentally friendly technologies to reduce labour-intensive domestic work loads; promote women's participation in scientific studies and investigation; improve women's access to credit and savings; recognise women's participation in food security in rural households; provide market facilities for farm products; increase employment through labour-based public works programmes; and increase representation in community level decision-making. Although this policy is important, Namibia considers the NDP2 its primary development document. The **National Poverty Reduction Action Plan (2004)**, the second action plan of its kind, went hand in hand with Participatory Poverty Assessments in two regions, both of which aim to monitor the impact of the Poverty Reduction Strategy at the local level.

3.1.7 The **National Gender Policy (NGP)**, approved by Cabinet in 1997 and adopted by Parliament in 1999, seeks to address the needs of women, to identify actions that will increase women's access to resources, and to ensure women's participation in decision-making. The NGP serves as a guide to eliminating gender inequalities and discriminatory practices, but focuses on women on account of their previously disadvantaged position. It identifies the following critical areas as national gender goals: (i) reducing poverty of women

and accelerating rural development; (ii) achieving gender balance in education and training; (iii) improving access to and quality of reproductive health services; (iv) reduce violence against women and children; (v) accelerate women's economic empowerment; (vi) improve information, education and communications on gender; (v) achieve gender balance in decision-making; (vi) increase attention to gender and management of the environment; (vii) improve women's and girls legal status.

3.1.8 The **National Gender Plan of Action (NGPA) (1998)** was a five-year plan for implementing the NGP. The NGPA identified National Gender Goals as well as objectives, planned activities, role players and expected outputs for addressing each of the abovementioned areas of concern. The NGPA's stated goal was to promote gender equality by empowering women through the dissemination of information, co-ordination and networking with all stakeholders, mainstreaming of gender issues, promotion of law and policy reform, and monitoring of progress so as to ensure that all Namibians have full and equal participation in the political, economic, social and cultural development of the nation. The implementation of the 1998 NGAP has not yet been evaluated and a new plan has not yet been presented. However, the plan has recently been judged as having been too vague, and too broad, lacking in clear implementation mechanisms and gender transformative agendas.

3.1.9 In 2003 the then MWACW presented a long-term **National Gender Mainstreaming Programme** which aims to put in place policies, programmes, capacities and mechanisms to create the necessary conditions for women's empowerment in all spheres by 2030. The objectives of the programmes are the full institutionalization of gender mainstreaming, the promotion of gender balance in all sectors, the creation of capacity to generate and disseminate gender disaggregated data, to influence changes in negative cultural attitudes, and to ensure women's equal access to resources, services and decision making. The programme is based on a participatory process, which identified among others weakness of the institutional framework for gender equality, capacity constraints, lack of enforcement and monitoring mechanisms, and lack of political commitment as constraints to successful gender mainstreaming.

3.2 Institutional Gender Framework

3.2.1 The government has established several institutions to address gender issues and developed a system within those institutions for addressing gender inequalities. Relevant government mechanisms include:

- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (MGECW)
- Gender Sectoral Committees (GSCs)
- Gender Focal Points within all ministries
- National Gender Mainstreaming Task Force (a collaboration of stakeholders)
- Gender Management Team (high level management from ministries and parastatals as well as NGOs) – (suggested but not instituted)
- Gender Commission (yet to be instituted)

3.2.2 One milestone for gender issues was the establishment of the Women's Desk in 1990, which was upgraded to the Department of Women Affairs (DWA) in the Office of the President in 1997, further upgraded to the Ministry of Women's Affairs and Child Welfare (MWACW) in 2000 and renamed to the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare in 2005. Currently the MGECW is the lead organisation for coordinating national gender initiatives and the National Gender Machinery (NGM), although supported by other stakeholders.

3.2.3 The structure of the MGEWCW is designed to develop and coordinate gender programmes; constitute Gender Sectoral Committees; organise GFPs; coordinate international affairs and multi-bilateral relations; facilitate gender research; and contribute to gender sensitive and/or gender-related legislation. In addition, the National Coordination Division within the MGEWCW coordinates nationwide gender activities through regional offices and Gender Sectoral Committees. The MGEWCW has also appointed an overall Development Planner for all Gender Sectoral Committees to make them more efficient in coordination efforts. The main divisions of the MGEWCW address three issues: (i) gender issues; (ii) children's issues; and (iii) community development. Within the MGEWCW the sections dealing with women's issues are the National Coordination, GSCs, Training Programme Development, Ministerial, GFPs, International Affairs, and Research and Legislation.

3.2.4 Another development is the Cabinet decision of 1998 which gave the then MWACW a mandate to appoint Gender Focal Points (GFPs) in all ministries and government organisations. Ministries selected one of their own staff to receive gender sensitive training and to act as a facilitator for gender mainstreaming within their ministries. Responsibilities of GFPs include raising gender awareness within their respective ministries, reviewing their ministries policies and programmes for gender sensitivity, reporting back to the MGEWCW, and drawing up an annual gender budget for their ministries. The primary aims of GFPs are to address past gender imbalances and to ensure implementation of gender mainstreaming within ministries. However, not all ministries actually have GFPs, some due to a lack of personnel and some due to resistance to gender issues by some ministry personnel, and those who do have GFPs do not always allow them to devote time to this add-on position/task.

3.2.5 Many ministries also have their own sectoral gender plan of action. Integration of gender perspectives was successful in some ministries, but has been less successful in parastatals, as well as in the private sector, with some having advanced women's issues, while others have all but ignored them.

3.3 Legal Framework

National Law Reform

3.3.1 At independence thirteen laws are said to have favoured men over women. Many of these laws have been changed, but not without resistance at all levels of society - from lawmakers to community members. The Married Person's Equality Act, which grants husbands and wives equal rights in civil marriages, caused heated debate also among parliamentarians, with many male members being opposed. Customary law even though it should be subordinated to constitutional provisions which outlaw gender discrimination, still cause gender-based discrimination because it is still used, particularly in the context of traditional courts in rural areas. There are several government initiatives such as the **Customary Law Bill**, which will, among others, recognise customary marriages and harmonise civil and customary laws and will minimize the effect of customary law. However, law reform, law enforcement and judicial responses to violations of human rights do not yet guarantee women and men equitable protection in Namibia.

3.3.2 At independence, under Roman Dutch law husbands had wide-reaching rights over their wives, who remained minors, as well as property within the marriage, even if the wife had acquired such property prior to marriage. The **Married Persons' Equality Act (1996)** specifies equality of persons within marriage and does away with the legal definition of the man as the sole head of the household. The Act also provides women, married in community of property, equal access to bank loans and stipulates that immovable property should be

registered in both spouses' names. However, the act only covers couples married under civil but not customary law, even though as many as one-third of all marriages are under customary law.

3.3.3 In line with the Constitution the **Affirmative Action (Employment) Act (AAA) (1998)** focuses on previously disadvantaged groups, including women. The Act identifies affirmative action as a set of measures to ensure that all Namibians have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in the workforce. The AAA further establishes the Employment Equity Commission (EEC), with the primary objective of overseeing implementation of the AAA.

3.3.4 The **Combating of Domestic Violence Act (2003)** has a broad definition of domestic violence that includes physical, sexual and economic abuse (including destruction of property), intimidation, harassment (including stalking), trespassing, emotional, verbal or psychological abuse (including constant “degrading” or “humiliating” conduct). The Act also simplifies the process of obtaining a protection order for both persons and property. The introduction of this Act serves to make society aware that violence within the home or family is not tolerated by Namibian society. The **Combating of Rape Act (2000)** defines sexual acts that previously did not meet the legal definition of rape as constituting rape. In addition, under the new Act, the term ‘coercive circumstance’ is broadly defined to include physical threats of force, or other uses of intimidation on the victim. The new Act makes marital rape illegal, sending a message to men that their wives are not property.

3.3.5 The **Maintenance Act (2003)** provides that both parents have a legal duty to maintain their children, regardless of whether the children were born inside or outside of a marriage and whether or not parents are subject to any other customary laws which may not recognise a parents' liability to the child. This new Act is important because it provides relief for women who are most often the caregivers to children. Under the new Act, the defendant parent can be ordered to be paid maintenance in kind (such as with goats or cattle) if (s)he does not have wage employment.

3.3.6 The **Native Administration Proclamation (1928)**, which is still in force in Namibia, makes a different rule for civil marriages between 'natives' north of the old 'Police Zone', which took place after 31 July 1950. The High Court has ruled that parts of the Proclamation are unconstitutional and has ordered that Namibia reform this law before the end of 2005. The GoN is in the process of drafting a Succession Bill which will harmonise methods of inheritance and property regimes for all Namibians.

3.4 Stakeholders for Policy, Institutional and Legal Frameworks

3.4.1 A range of NGOs in Namibia work on various aspects of gender equity. Many began gender-related activities after independence when NGOs generally became more established and proliferated. 50 NGOs, including women’s NGOs formed in 1991 a national umbrella organisation, the Namibian Non-Governmental Organisations’ Forum (NANGOF). Women’s organisations themselves tried over the years to form a national umbrella but never succeeded to form one that included all organisations. This has remained a weakness of the women’s movement and has constrained coordination also with the government. There are dozens of small NGOs, but the more important NGOs active in gender equity number perhaps 20.

3.4.2 Only 9% of all NGOs, CBOs and civil society organisations in Namibia support gender specific interventions, while other organisations address gender issues through their mainstreaming in sectoral work. Several international, multilateral and bilateral donors have specifically targeted gender programmes with financial and technical assistance. UN agencies

such as UNFPA, UNDP and UNAIDS; bilateral and other development partners such as Sweden, Norway, Bristol Myers Squibb Foundation, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, Konrad Adenauer Stiftung and Hivos have made gender issues the focus of their work in Namibia. Some donors fund information, research and advocacy projects, while others fund development projects with specific gender components.

3.4.3 The Ministry of Justice drafts gender-related laws, while the MGECW assists in gender-related legal reform efforts and makes recommendations about which laws are in need of reform. Although the government is responsible for legal reforms, it is assisted by NGOs that conduct research and have legal advocacy programmes. MGECW also runs a legal literacy programme which educates people about their legal rights, and informs them about their responsibilities; such as the need to write wills.

3.4.4 The major NGO engaged in the legal reform process is the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC), which has drafted gender-related laws and participated in dialogue between stakeholders and communities on gender-related legal reform. LAC's stated objective is to protect the human rights of all Namibians through (i) litigation and advice; (ii) education and training; and (iii) research and advocacy. LAC conducts legal research and makes policy recommendations relating to human rights issues including women's and children's rights. The Gender Research and Advocacy Project within LAC was established in 1993 and has drafted several gender-related laws. This project undertakes research, mobilises communities, engages in advocacy work, produces training materials and disseminates information through the mass media to raise public awareness. LAC, the Office of the Prosecutor General and the Namibian Police collaborate on training police, magistrates and other service providers on new gender relevant legislation.

3.4.5 Various units at the University of Namibia have conducted research on gender-related topics such as gender-based violence and customary law upon which legal reforms have been based. In 1999/2000 the Gender Training and Research Programme conducted research on rights to property and inheritance, which has been used to inform policymakers working on reforming inheritance law. Donors that have funded legal reform activities include USAID (inheritance), the Deutsche Gesellschaft Für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) (domestic violence) the North-South Institute Austria (customary law), the Dutch Embassy (training materials for service providers on gender-based violence), Swedish Development Agency (simplified guides for forthcoming legislation), the Danish Embassy (training materials for court officials), UNICEF (materials on topics such as sexual abuse and the Maintenance Act), Namibian Literacy Trust (translation of materials on domestic violence); UNDP (simplification and translation of legislation into indigenous languages).

3.5 Analysis and Strategic Options

3.5.1 Namibia has engaged in an ambitious law reform process, which has also sought to eliminate gender inequality in the law. There are, however, still negative attitudes towards gender equality, both at the community and national levels, which is a challenge to implementing gender sensitive laws and programmes. This lack of knowledge is exacerbated by the fact that civil society often does not engage in advocacy activities when new laws are proposed or old laws are changed, thus lawmakers do not know what public attitudes are about law reform efforts.

3.5.2 The implementation of laws is also affected negatively by the fact that magistrates do not always have the power to enforce application of new laws. With regard to the Maintenance Act, for example, magistrates are not able to attach property or to penalise men who derail the process, they also do not have powers to enforce payment orders, and

there are no maintenance investigators (although the Act makes provision for this). More generally, courts lack mechanisms to enforce court rulings according to new laws. There is still a disparity between what laws identify as rights and how implementers of these laws (judges, magistrates, law enforcement personnel, etc) apply them. Education and monitoring of implementers is urgently needed to ensure compliance by court personnel and enforcement of gender-related laws and judgements.

3.5.3 Other gender related challenges to the existing legal framework include the urgent need for the reform of laws relating to divorce. Divorce of a civil marriage can only be granted on outdated principles of fault. In theory if a couple married in community of property are divorced, property is divided in half, but in practice a larger share of assets is awarded to the 'innocent' party; however in practice, when the 'innocent' party is a man he will also get a larger share of the communal property than when the 'innocent' party is a woman. If the couple is married under customary law, 'native' authorities distribute property under 'native law and custom' which favours the husband and his kin group. In addition to divorce, inheritance and marital property rights, the recognition of customary marriages, and a review of the Combating of Immoral Practices Act (1980) are well overdue; while legal reforms such as the Children's Status, and the Child Care and Protection Bills need to be completed.

3.5.4 Information on laws needs to be made more accessible to community members by simplifying administrative procedures. One of the main constraints to effective legal reform is that many of the NGOs who run education and information campaigns on new laws, and who engage in research on the required legal changes and lobby for them lack core-funding, since donors have moved to short-term project funding. NGOs therefore have difficulties maintaining information and education as well as monitoring.

3.5.5 With regard to the National Gender Policy and the NGM, GFPs appear not to exist within parastatals (such as the Public Service Commission and the EEC), and several line ministries either do not have GFPs or have/use them only sporadically, which means that gender mainstreaming activities are neglected.

3.5.6 The legal reform process could be enhanced by further research, such as on sexual harassment in the workplace, family law issues such as cohabitation and the treatment of stepchildren, or the impact of the current divorce law on access to property. In addition, there is urgent need for research on discrimination against young teenage mothers. In order to facilitate this process, mechanisms need to be put in place to monitor the implementation of legal reforms and evaluate their impact at the community level. Tools, indicators and mechanisms for the assessment of the implementation and impact of the National Gender Policy are still missing and need to be put in place. Information and education campaigns on legal changes need to be stepped up and need to target all Namibians, including marginalised groups such as sex workers, girls in child-led households and pregnant teenagers. Such efforts might result in greater participation at public hearings on legal reforms as part of community consultation. Currently attendance at such forums is weak.

4. GENDER ANALYSIS BY SECTOR

4.1 Macro Economic Framework

4.1.1 The economy of Namibia is dominated by three primary sectors based on mining, agriculture and fishing, with 54% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) exported to earn hard currency. Estimates for 2004 indicated a real GDP growth rate of 4.4% attributable to a major expansion in mining activities. Although these primary indicators have improved

since independence, the Namibian economy is still characterised by high inflation (average 8.3% annually since 1997), which slowed down from 11.4% in 2002 to 7.2% in 2003, and high interest rates. On the fiscal front, the budget deficit widened considerably from 2.6% of GDP in 2002/03 to 7.5% of GDP in 2003/04, owing to a fall in government revenue, attributed to the appreciation of the Namibia dollar against the major international currencies. The budget deficit has, however, fallen to 2.4% of GDP in 2004/05, lower than the 2005 target of 3%.

4.1.2 Some world trends that have negatively impacted Namibia's economic growth include: sharp increases in oil prices and regional economic uncertainty. Positive world trends include growth in the USA and Europe markets during the late 1990s. In South Africa, although there have been exchange market pressures; economic policies and structural reforms contributed to the recovery of economic activities. Namibia's total fixed capital stock shows a shift away from agriculture, fishing, mining and quarrying, with government finance towards manufacturing, transport and telecommunications, as well as real estate and business services. This shift reflects world trends and indicates some diversification of the Namibian economy. However, Namibia's primary economic sectors (mining, commercial agriculture and fishing) are heavily orientated towards the employment of men, with women working only in support industries such as fish processing. Women have less employment opportunities and earn less than men. In addition, the manufacturing sector is underdeveloped, thereby limiting the growth of employment opportunities.

Box 4.1 Economic Policies

*Two major documents guiding the economic policies of Namibia are the **Second National Development Plan (NDP2)**, the **Namibia Vision 2030** and the **Poverty Reduction Policy**, through which government has tasked itself to reducing poverty through agricultural development; non-agricultural growth such as Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs); human capital development in education, improving health, and shelter programmes. The medium term objectives are: to revive and sustain economic growth; create more employment opportunities; reduce inequalities in income distribution; promote gender equality and economic empowerment; and to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS. In addition, the government has a variety of sectoral policies aimed at employment creation and the protection of workers, as well as a **Policy and Programme on Small Business Development** (1997) which seeks to establish a framework for the transformation of the under-developed small business sector into a leading economic sector.*

Gender Budgeting

4.1.3 The Namibian government recognises the importance of integrating gender into Namibia's overall economic and social development policies. As part of the NGP, the Ministry of Finance (MoF) conducted a gender analysis of the national budget in 1997. A gender-disaggregated analysis was done for the education and agriculture sectors because they provided the best data for the exercise. The analysis used a 'Gender-Disaggregated Public Expenditure Benefit Incidence Analysis' to examine the extent to which people benefit from public services. This was done through an analysis of unit cost whereby the cost of a unit provided in a particular service and the number of units utilised by women and men, and boys and girls was examined. The findings show a gender differentiation for government cutbacks of employment, where personal experience and background tended to determine outcome. Thus people with greater education and personal experience were less likely to be affected – with men more likely to fall into this category.

4.1.4 The analysis also found that basic statistical tools and data were not available in a gender-disaggregated and systematic form, thus inhibiting a gender analysis of all sectoral budgets. Although some sectors of government have begun to collect gender-disaggregated statistics (for example in agriculture), the national budget does not yet use gender-

disaggregated data. Therefore, it was concluded that the government does not have the ability to mainstream gender into its national budget. However, the National Gender Mainstreaming Programme (MWACW) has recommended that a framework and the capacity be in place by 2008.

Employment

4.1.5 Participation in the labour force, if the informal sector is included, is particularly difficult to measure since the majority of women are unemployed or involved in informal sector activities. Table 4.1 shows that in 2001 about 54% of the total population age 15 or older participated in the labour force, while in 1991 it was 58%.⁵ In 2001 this rate was slightly higher for men (60%) than for women (50%), with men's rate of participation having declines while women's rate remained relatively unchanged. Women's participation in the urban labour force has risen over the past ten years, with a corresponding decline of participation in rural areas. This suggests that women migrate to urban areas in search of employment.

4.1.6 However, overall employment levels for women (64.1%) are still lower than for their male counterparts (73.2%). Table 4.2 below indicates that most employed people work in the private and government sectors. Although women have lower participation rates than men in the private sector (35.7% versus 48.2%), they have slightly higher participation rates in government. However, for all employment categories without cash remunerations, women dominate, while men dominate in the same sectors when payment is involved. These data show that women are more likely than men to work without pay.

Table 4.1 Labour Force 15+ year olds by Sex and Urban/Rural areas

	Urban (%)		Rural (%)		Total (%)	
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001
Male	75	74	65	51	69	60
Female	53	65	48	40	49	50
Both	64	69	56	45	58	54

4.1.7 Women are slightly more likely than men to work in agriculture (39% versus 38%), and substantially more likely to work in the service industry (52% versus 43%) primarily as domestic workers and waitresses. However, men are more likely than women to dominate in industry (19% versus 8%). In addition, men are almost twice as likely as women to occupy senior management positions, while women are more likely to be teachers and nurses, indicating that women continue to hold positions traditionally ascribed to them. Black Empowerment Enterprises are eligible for favourable loan terms and have advantages for contract awards. However, these companies primarily benefit men who have the ability to provide collateral and have business training or experience.

4.1.8 Formal sector employment still tends to favour men over women in high paying/high profile positions, while women's employment is concentrated in low or unpaid positions. In addition, the classification of domestic duties (work for own family) as economically inactive underestimates women's contribution to the nation's growth.

⁵ Labour Force Participation Rate is the proportion of the economically active population within a given population group.

4.1.9 As can be seen from Table 4.2 below, women continue to be employed in less profitable economic activities than men. In the informal sector women carry out gender stereotyped activities such as brewing beer, cooking food, making baskets and other handcrafts. Women dominate in street market selling, while men dominate in shop-based selling. Due to women's greater likelihood of having dependent children, women often take advantage of all income generating activities, regardless of risk or low profitability.

Table 4.2 Employed Population 15+ years olds by Sex and Employment

	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total (%)
Subsistence Farming (with pay)	2.7	1.3	2.1
Subsistence Farming (without pay)	4.4	6.4	5.3
Other Employer (with pay)	4.0	3.1	3.6
Own Account (without pay)	3.9	6.3	5.0
Government (with pay)	18.5	19.2	18.8
Private (with pay)	48.2	35.7	42.7
Family Worker (without pay)	9.5	16.0	12.4
Other Family Worker (without pay)	3.3	6.1	4.5

Small Business Sector

4.1.10 The Policy and Program on Small Business Development seeks to raise the average sector income by at least 10 % in real terms, to enable the sector to create more employment and to diversify. Currently the informal sub-sector offers the largest employment in both full and particularly part-time activities. Most part-time informal small businesses engage in activities with low value addition, such as selling agricultural produce or in retailing and catering. The majority are one person operations with daily turnovers of as little as N\$ 10-50. In the formal sector, businesses tend to be much larger and more profitable.

4.1.11 The Ministry of Trade and Industry serves as the lead ministry within the Government for development of the small business sector. In carrying out this responsibility, the Ministry has set up a Steering Committee on the implementation of the SME Policy and Program which includes non-governmental organizations and the private sector. The SME Unit has developed training and application guide manuals and materials and provides assistance to entrepreneurs to develop bankable business proposals and conduct feasibility studies. The establishment in 1999 of a Small Business Credit Guarantee Trust caters for SMEs which are credit worthy, but cannot offer adequate collateral to access loans from commercial financial institutions, provides up to 80 per cent guarantee for loans not exceeding N\$250,000. The trust also acts as a catalyst to encourage lending institutions in the private sector to provide finance to the SME sector. By the end of October 2004, the Trust had granted guarantees valued at N\$50 million to over 600 SMEs operating in various sectors. These guarantees have enabled SMEs to create and sustain over 3,700 jobs since the inception of the scheme.

4.1.12 It is estimated that the large majority of part-time and roughly half the number of full-time entrepreneurs in the informal sector are women. In the formal sector they are dominated in numbers by men. Over half of the women are own account workers many of whom do not manage to earn adequate incomes. Most engage in low profit margin but time-consuming

activities, such as selling cooked food, home brewing, sewing and crafts. Less than 1% of women owned formal businesses in 1997. While all small businesses are generally constrained in their growth, women are particularly disadvantaged, with many informal sector entrepreneurs lacking collateral to obtain loans. The policy on SME development was reviewed in 2004 and is in the process of being revised to address current challenges within the small business sector.

Micro-finance

4.1.13 A range of different lending institutions exist in Namibia including commercial banks, non-banking financial institutions, public and private financial corporations, savings and credit cooperatives, NGOs, and informal lenders. Government has a number of SME lending programmes, including those supported by the ADB. The government currently uses commercial bank criteria for entitlement to credit guarantees, which limits women's and poor men's access to credit. The informal financial sector is very small in Namibia, and according to a 2004 survey 45 % of the population are totally excluded from financial services. In fact, 14 % of the respondents of this survey still banked "under their mattress" only, 41 % held cattle or livestock to be the best investment instrument and in case of financial emergencies only 13 % said they would borrow money from a bank, while 44 % borrow from friends. The survey also established that women are overrepresented among the 42 % of the survey population with lowest levels of contact with any financial services.

4.1.14 The micro-lending market is divided into formal lenders registered with the MoF and the Namibia Financial Institutions Supervisory Authority (NAMFISA), which are usually salary based and therefore restricted to the formally employed, and semi-formal and informal micro-lenders, who are either only registered with MoF for tax purposes or not registered at all. A survey in 2002 examined 125 Micro Financial Institutions (MFIs) of all categories in Namibia. The majority of the clients of these MFIs were located in urban areas (61%) and were primarily people with full-time employment who were excluded from commercial loans. Women constituted 44% of MFI clients but accounted for only 36% of the loan portfolio, suggesting that their loans are smaller. MFI loans were used for trade/commerce and service activities (12.1% and 12.7%) followed by manufacturing (7.4%). Other activities included loans for consumption and education. Most loans were offered for three months only, while only 10% were long-term. Loans were between US\$16 and US\$320. Interest rates varied between 2% and 35%.

4.1.15 Most NGO MFIs only offer credit, not being allowed by law to offer saving and insurance services. An exception is the Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia, which operates on a group based, compulsory savings basis. Another NGO, Women's Action for Development educates community members in how to save, but does not directly handle money. Savings and credit cooperatives are also legally entitled to take deposits from members, but of 103 cooperatives only two were fully registered and only 15% offered saving and credit services. Some MFIs also offer training, budget and debt planning to their clients. A number of small local non-profit Microfinance Institutions, which are funded by international donors, are trying to reach women entrepreneurs specifically and offer short term loan using group based guarantees.

Stakeholders in Macro Economic Institutional Framework

4.1.16 Economic empowerment is the responsibility of several line ministries. The Ministry of Finance (MoF) budgets for gender sensitive activities in other ministries. The Ministry of Trade and Industry (MTI), supported by the GTZ, helps disadvantaged people in self-

sustainable economic enterprises through a credit guarantee scheme to assist them to begin their own SMEs, as well as by providing training to all ministerial staff on gender issues.

4.1.17 The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MoLSW) is mandated to ensure women's equal participation in the work force through its monitoring and enforcement of the Affirmative Action (Employment) Act. In addition, the MoLSW conducts labour force surveys such as *The Informal Sector Survey*, *Namibia Labour Force Survey* and *Namibia Child Activities Survey*, all of which have data disaggregated by sex. Namibia DeBeers LTD (Namdeb) falls under the Ministry of Mines and Energy. Although Namdeb has no specific gender policy or mission statement, it is the first parastatal to have a woman Chief Executive Officer as well as a number of women managers. Namdeb staff members are also able to improve their educational attainment, with specific encouragement for women's educational advancement.

4.1.18 Women's Action for Development (WAD) serves, supports and encourages disadvantaged women by organising them into self-help groups to promote income generating activities. One of WAD's most successful programmes has been the savings clubs initiative, in which rural women come together to save. One unintended consequence of this scheme has been that women with fewer children were shown to save more, which motivated other members to also demand access to family planning methods. The Legal Assistance Centre has conducted studies on the socio-economic situation of domestic workers, sex workers and farm labourers, to determine if these employment groups are prone to abuse. The Namibian National Women's Organisation (NANAWO) promotes women's full participation in all spheres of economic and social life. Namibia Women's Network is an indigenous organisation that strives toward empowering women in rural areas through training, awareness campaigns, and self-help initiatives.

4.1.19 The Namibia National Association of Women in Business (NNAWIB) is located on the premises of the National Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The organisation generates income through membership fees and runs gender-related programmes including training on group dynamics, which was supported by the then MAWRD and a public policy participation centre, funded by a Swedish organisation. NNAWIB has also completed several gender-related training programmes such as a workshop on intellectual property rights funded by the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, a project on measuring women's empowerment funded by UNDP and European Union, and a home economics programme funded by the GTZ. Projects planned by the NNAWIB include promoting leadership skills for women to be funded by Namdeb and Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, basic business management to be funded by MAWF and MGECW, and Namibian Women in Business response to HIV/AIDS to be funded by Hivos.

4.1.20 The Labour Resource and Research Institution (LaRRI) aims to build capacity of the Namibian labour movement, and has undertaken a study on gender in the informal sector, which is funded by the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung. LaRRI has also completed a research project on gender and labour market liberalisation in Namibia funded by the African Labour Research Network.

4.1.21 GTZ supports a range of economic activities such as SME enterprise development, service delivery promotion, and the Windhoek Vocational Training Centre, although none of these programmes have a specific gender component. The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung and MGECW give ongoing financial support to NNAWIB, while the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the US Department of Labour support the MoLSW for HIV/AIDS awareness and gender training. In 2004 the National Planning Commission and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism undertook a study, funded by the UNDP, GTZ and SIDA on

mainstreaming gender, HIV/AIDS, environment and sustainable development into the Namibian Poverty Reduction Programme.

4.1.22 A range of donors, including Oxfam Canada/UK, |HIVOS, FES, Catholic Relief Services, UNDP Namibia, EU, Austrian Government and others fund non-profit MFIs which offer small short to medium term loans to communities and also women, such as small scale traders, using group based guarantees. These MFIs include Community Support Initiatives, Lisikamena (Kavango), Namibia Development Trust and the Okatumbatumba Hawkers' Association.

Analysis and Strategic Options

4.1.23 Primary industries in Namibia are agriculture (commercial), mining and fishing, all of which rely heavily on men's labour. In addition, Namibia relies on the exportation of raw materials and importation of finished products, suggesting the need to diversify its economic activities and to expand the manufacturing sub-sector to allow women more equitable access to employment. There is no equitable representation of men and women in Namibia's three primary employment sectors because of traditional gender stereotypes and lack of training, which preclude women from working in these industries. Employment levels for women are lower than for their male counterparts. In the informal sector women carry out gender stereotyped activities and still dominate in street market selling, while men dominate in shop-based selling. Labour force participation is particularly difficult to measure since the majority of women are technically unemployed or involved in informal enterprises. There is a lack of recognition of the importance of women's unpaid labour in national economic statistics and policies.

4.1.24 Despite a large proliferation of MFIs the services and loan products they offer need to be improved to make them more suitable for poor and rural clients. Most financial lending institutions do not cater to poor clients who have no collateral. Many MFIs only offer short-term loans, while savings and insurance services are largely lacking. With regard to MFIs the government needs to urgently put in place a regulatory framework to reduce defaults, diversify and regulate services, as well as to protect clients from abusive and exploitative lending and loan practices. Regulation also needs to ensure that MFIs have sufficient capital to cover costs and ensure sustainability. Legislation that allows MFIs to operate savings schemes might be a contributory factor towards this aim. Government currently uses commercial bank criteria for entitlement to credit guarantees for SMEs, which limits women's access to credit. It is suggested that a credit instrument be developed to meet the needs of women, as well as alternative methods of cash accumulation such as savings clubs.

4.1.25 The ADB plans to roll out its Regional Women in Business Program from West Africa to Eastern and Southern Africa in 2007. The program will be targeting women owned SMEs and is to contribute to a more equitable business environment for women entrepreneurs by raising their capacity and by reinforcing the key players in this field. It also aims to reinforce the capacity of established national organisations of women entrepreneurs, and to enhance their ability to be competitive. It would be desirable if Namibia, to complement its ongoing activities in this area, be included in the program.

4.1.26 The main challenge for economic advancement of women has been identified by stakeholders as the restrictive access to and control over productive resources, as well as a lack of employment alternatives in primary and manufacturing industries, which means that women cannot use such resources for employment and income generation. This lack of access is closely linked to cultural norms of ownership which disadvantages women. In order to further strengthen women's access to business opportunity the following recommendations are put forward:

- Government facilitation and assistance with the marketing of products from small and medium enterprises is desirable, particularly for rural products, since it would further encourage production.
- Market research would help agro-processing industries and small rural industries, many of which are run by women, to better direct their activities towards products that the market is more likely to absorb.
- Black Empowerment Enterprises have access to resources aimed at previously disadvantaged groups, which may not benefit women. Therefore, a gender audit should be conducted to determine if women are being empowered and to what extent they have been able to take advantage of empowerment initiatives.

4.1.27 The lack of gender disaggregated data makes gender mainstreaming in the national budget problematic. The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare also notes the need for time-use analysis surveys to enumerate women's unpaid activities and reflect these in national accounts. The Government should require gender disaggregated data from all ministries and conduct time-use surveys in order to adjust national budgets and national accounts. Gender budgeting activities, which could draw on the joint efforts of civil society, academics and ministry staff, as happened in Tanzania, might stimulate the future collection of such data.

4.1.28 Given the high Gini coefficient, and the skewed income distribution, Namibia needs to consider an acceleration of its economic redistributive policies and programmes, using the MDGs as a medium to mobilise resources and stakeholders for a common approach.

4.2 Agriculture Sector

4.2.1 Approximately 67% of the population live in rural areas, a decline from 72% in 1991, of which 52% are female. This slightly skewed sex ratio is the result of men migrating to urban areas in search of employment. Particularly in the populous north where 42.6% of the population live, it is women who are the main participants in subsistence agriculture and maintain rural homesteads while men are away in urban areas. Most rural Namibians depend on subsistence agriculture, even though the majority (64%) supplement it by cash incomes. The main sources of income for most Namibian households are wages and salaries (41%), farming (28%), pensions (11%), businesses other than farming (9%) and cash remittances (6%).

4.2.2 In the commercial farming sector, animal husbandry predominates, while the medium and small scale farming sector is dominated by rain-fed mixed crop and animal production characterised by very low levels of productivity and outputs. 4 200 commercial farmers occupy 36.2 million hectares of farmland made up of 6 337 freehold title deeds, each having an average landholding of approximately 8 620 hectares. The communal areas, by contrast, support 95% of the of the nation's farming population but occupy only 48% or 33.5 million hectares of the total agricultural land. The contribution of the sector to GDP is approximately 11% compared to the industry and service sectors accounting for 28 and 61% respectively. Agricultural exports, mainly livestock products and fish, constitute only 15% of total merchandise exports.

Crop Production

4.2.3 The cultivation of rainfed crops in Namibia is, of climatic necessity, regionally concentrated, and mainly confined to the northern communal areas. Even though maize is preferred for consumption pearl millet and sorghum are the main crops in the communal

areas due to their drought resistance. Maize and wheat is grown in the commercial sector under irrigation. National cereal production (roughly 5% wheat, 25 % maize, 70% sorghum and millet) fluctuates considerably between years but even in good years it does not meet the national cereal demand, causing Namibia to import a significant portion. Consequently even rural households spend a large part of their expenditure on food. In the Northern Ovambo region surveys established that only 5 % of all rural households could produce a surplus and most did not produce enough to last the whole year.

4.2.4 Data from the Agricultural Census was disaggregated by age and sex of household head for the northern rural regions, which are largely held under communal land tenure.⁶ In most regions, female household heads are more likely to work full-time on the holding, while male household heads are more likely to work part-time, seasonally or casually on the holding. Agricultural Survey data also indicate female-headed households in all regions have less arable land available than male-headed households. This is primarily due to the custom of women having only limited access to land.

4.2.5 One of the most vulnerable group in the agricultural sector are women employed on commercial farms or living in households where the principal breadwinner is a labourer on a farm. Farm workers usually support a large network of dependents with their low wages, and female workers are especially precarious as they often work on a casual basis, while wives of farm workers often are evicted from the farm upon the death of their husbands. The Farm Worker's Union encourages enforcement of the Labour Act in the agricultural sector.

Livestock

4.2.6 Beef is the most important livestock related activity, followed by small stock (sheep and goats) production. The combined livestock sub-sector contributes 70 % of agricultural output, with only 5 % of this attributable to production in the communal area. Yet, the communal areas hold about 62% of the total cattle, 70 % of the total goat and 15 % of the total sheep population. However, livestock ownership in the communal areas is highly skewed, with as many as half the rural households having no livestock at all.

4.2.7 The Agricultural Survey shows that in all regions female-headed households own fewer head of cattle per household than male-headed households, primarily due to customs which view cattle as a 'man's property' and hinders women's accumulation of cattle as a form of wealth. With the exception of the Caprivi, female-headed households also own fewer goats, chickens and donkeys. In addition, women who live within male-headed households are typically not able to own livestock in their own right. This limited access to livestock means that women lack access to the benefits of ownership, including access to meat, income from the sale of meat/animals, dung for fertiliser, and draught power. The lack of draught power for ploughing also means that female headed household usually have lower yield and smaller cultivated areas.

Fisheries

4.2.8 After independence the Namibian Government established a coherent fisheries policy and enacted comprehensive fisheries legislation. The sub-sector has its own ministry, the

⁶ In Namibia there are two basis forms of land tenure. There is privately owned land, which is purchased or inherited by an individual and gives the owner rights to sell, inherit and access loans based on its market value. In the communal areas there are usufruct rights to land where by an individual or household obtains the right to dwell on and use the land, but general the land cannot be inherited, sold or used for securing bank loans. Usually once the person granted usufruct rights has died, control of the land reverts back the headman or controller of the land, although ownership of land is vested in the government.

Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources. Fishing quota, reinforced by marine observers and coastal patrols has led to the restoration of fish stocks, which were almost totally depleted at independence. The Namibian fisheries sector is often quoted as a success story. The total catch of all species has varied since independence between 500 000 to 800 000 tons per annum. The contribution of the fisheries sector to GDP rose from about 4 % at independence to 10.1 % in 1998. 95 % of Namibia's fish is exported, contributing to 30 % of total export earnings. Around 14 220 persons are employed in the fisheries sector, approximately half in offshore processing, the majority of whom are men, and half in fish factories on the shore, which also include women. Gender disaggregated data are, however, not available.

4.2.9 The presence of the Namib Desert has meant that very few of Namibia's people historically have lived on the coast and exploited the rich fish resources. As a result there is no large artisanal fleet, common in other countries, with only 300 licensed fishing vessels in the whole of the Namibian Fisheries Sector. The combination of desert and topography of the coastline has meant that Namibia has only two main harbours, Walvis Bay and Luederitz, and no other significant landing sites.

Gender Division of Labour

4.2.10 Gender disaggregated data on subsistence agricultural productive and home reproductive work in the northern rural areas suggest a rather rigid gender division of labour. Regardless of household type, women predominate in all cropping activities, except in land preparation where 77% of workers are male. For all other cropping activities women make up as much as 90% (row planting) but no less than 61% (broadcasting) of the work force. In general, cropping, other than land preparation, is considered women's work, while the care of livestock is considered men's work. Males in male-headed households are less likely than females in female-headed households to take on cropping tasks that go against gender stereotypes. Animal husbandry is almost exclusively a male domain, although herding small stock is sometimes done by women (16%) and feeding livestock has a 50/50 gender division of labour. While adult men are primarily responsible for animal husbandry tasks, boys and senior men may also participate. Adult men account for almost half of the work force for herding large stock, while the distribution along age and sex lines is a little more egalitarian with regard to small stock, with boys (23%) more likely to be herders than girls (7%).

4.2.11 In most rural communities, women and girls constitute 75% of the workforce that fetch water and collect firewood. Fetching water is primarily a female task given that 36% of rural households letting their daughters fetch water compared to versus only 15% who assign the task to sons . These data indicate that girls spend a good deal of time collecting wood and fetching water. In addition, a 2002 study found that men spend more time in leisure activities such as playing sport, visiting family and friends, doing hobbies, reading, and other 'fun things'; while women spend more time caring for children and the sick, housekeeping, cooking, fetching water/wood and making or preparing food or crafts for sale. On average, women spend 2 hours more per day more than men in reproductive or productive chores.

4.2.12 Various social structural factors constrain women from unfettered use, ownership and control over the means of production such as land, property and cash/credit. Women are, in part, constrained by civil and customary laws, which deprive them of opportunities to access property in their own right. These constraints limit women's economic choices and cause women to be economically dependent on men.

Extension

4.2.13 Communal areas were during *apartheid* neglected, which also held for extension services. This legacy still has effects today, since there are too few staff overall to serve the vast numbers of small scale farmers in the North. A survey in the 1990's established that then one extension officer needed to cover over 3000 farmers and that only 1/5 of households received extension services. Despite the predominance of women in subsistence agriculture as unpaid labourers (47.8 %), agricultural extension services have largely neglected them. In the 1990's only 17 % of extension workers were women. However, intake in one of two agricultural colleges, Orongo, stood in 1995 at 41 % women, which together with the training and support of the FAO funded *Integration of Women in Agriculture and Rural Development Project* and a project funded by Norwegian government aimed at improving information on women's contribution to agricultural production for gender sensitive planning between 1994 and 1997, might have changed matters since then. While the project improved knowledge of the sexual division of labour in the agricultural sector at the time and raised awareness about gender issues in the agricultural sector, this information and training was not maintained over the years, and there is again a dearth of information of gender concerns in the agricultural sector, even though gender training was included in the annual training program for agricultural extension officers.

Box 4.2 Agricultural Policy

*The policy guiding the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF) is the **National Agricultural Policy (NAP)** of 1995 (although updated in the NDP2) which contains a number of references to the need to address severe gender imbalances in rural Namibia, with specific reference to the use of gender sensitive programmes and policies, indicating the government's awareness of the heavy work burden women bear in communal agricultural production. The NAP states that not only do female-headed households in the rural areas face constraints and discrimination, but the crucial role of women in agricultural development needs to be re-emphasized. The NAP indicates the government's willingness to assist women to overcome such obstacles as limited access to land, a lack of security of land tenure, and poor access to services and financing. The NAP also notes that women's control over land and other resources, as well as their ability to utilise services needs to be enhanced.*

Land Tenure System

4.2.14 Roughly half of Namibia's land is held under freehold title, while the rest is referred to as 'communal land'. No communal land can be sold and mortgaged, since it is held under customary tenure controlled by traditional authorities, who are paid a fee for allocating usufruct rights. In rural areas these rights are generally granted to a man because he is often perceived to be the head of the household. The matter has been different in more urban settings, particularly in informal settlements where women hold usufruct rights to many plots. Since 1992, however, the land around newly declared municipalities, where informal settlements are located, fell from the control of traditional authorities to local government authorities, causing usufruct rights to be turned into rental plot contracts, which can be terminated easily. At least 45 000 informal settlement families, female-headed households prominently among them, are since faced with the loss of long-term security of tenure.

4.2.15 The draft Flexible Land Tenure Bill introduces two new types of tenure: the starter title and the landhold title, the first allows for perpetual occupation of a plot as part of a group managed block of land, with restricted rights of transfer, and the latter offers important aspects of a freehold title, including the right to mortgage and use the land as collateral, but without the lengthy and expensive procedures. The Bill, if passed into law, will provide security of tenure to informal settlement dwellers, many of whom are female-headed household. The Communal Land Reform Act (2002) rules that communal land must be re-

allocated to a surviving spouse upon the death of the person in whose name the land was held, and that the right to remain on the land is not affected by re-marriage. If there is no surviving spouse, or if the surviving spouse does not wish to remain on the land, then it goes to, "such child of the deceased person as the Chief or Traditional Authority determines to be entitled to the allocation of the right in accordance with customary law". This Act should give women much greater security in respect of tenure on communal land.

4.2.16 In most Namibian communities, custom precludes widows from inheriting substantial property such as land, buildings and large movable property such as cars and tractors. It is important to note that, in general, the most commonly identified custom that contravenes women's rights is the practice of widows being evicted from their homes and all property confiscated by the deceased husband's relatives. In addition, with most communities in Namibia during customary divorce, heard at a customary court, the wife receives little or none of the marital property even if the husband is at fault for the divorce. This denial of access to marital property, including means of production (land) experienced by many women serves to maintain their cycle of poverty, which in turn leads to reduced economic independence and vulnerability. Women are also restricted from obtaining bank loans because of their lack of ownership of immovable property.

Stakeholders in the Agricultural Sector

4.2.17 MAWF is responsible for including women in agricultural and rural development programmes, as well as maintaining a Gender Management Monitoring and Evaluation System (GMMES). Given the recent split of the Directorate of Rural Development from this ministry; it is unclear where the gender monitoring and evaluation system will be housed in the future, possibly in the newly formed MRLGH&RD. This system is a database from several agricultural surveys collected in rural Namibia, which have been disaggregated by sex of household head. The data aim to capture women's contribution to the communal agricultural sector, as well as to differentiate women and men's utilisation of various agricultural techniques. The database is available for use by all stakeholders, including the business sector and private research organisations. MAWF also has agricultural extension officers who do community outreach to educate people on conservation, efficient agricultural methods and prevention of soil erosion. The Food and Agricultural Organisation has funded gender sensitisation for extension officers as part of their skills upgrading. FAO also funded GMMES. The FAO Office in Windhoek maintains a Gender Research Officer and has funded gender sensitising agricultural extension officers. The Integration of Women in Agriculture and Rural Development project aimed particularly at introducing more participatory and gender sensitive approaches to extension activities among subsistence farmers in communal areas. This involved training in participatory rural appraisal techniques and practical field investigation which were to investigate men's and women's different activities, constraints and priorities. The project also brought these concerns into the formulation of the NAP in 1995.

4.2.18 A few NGOs also work in the field of women in the subsistence agricultural sector. These NGOs focus on reducing workloads in agriculture, improving production outputs and small scale and cooperative crop production and agro-marketing (such as growing tomatoes for sale in local markets). Women's Action for Development (WAD) supports women in development initiatives through training and economic empowerment. Many of WAD's activities include women's small business initiatives, such as vegetable gardens, *marula* jam production, brick-making, maize mills, butchery, bread baking and needlework production. The Namibia Women's Network aims at household food security by training women to produce food on a sustainable basis.

Analysis and Strategic Options

4.2.19 National data are not collected to examine the situation of women members in both male-headed and female-headed households to better judge living standards, thus data that compare male versus female-headed households might give a skewed representation of the standard of living for these households. Research needs to be undertaken on the relative well being of people within households to determine if members of female-headed households are indeed worse off. In fact all poverty data should make a distinction between members of male and female headed households, rather than take the household as the lowest unit.

4.2.20 No new data have been added to GAMMES for some time, with the dataset currently only reflecting agricultural activities in the northern communal areas and technical expertise to maintain the data base is lacking. The ministry responsible for its maintenance in the future is also not yet determined. The Directorate of Rural Development wants the MGECW to take responsibility, but this would further stretch that ministry's resources. Given that this data base is an important development tool for the agricultural sector, it should be (i) continuously updated and expanded to include additional regions; and (ii) the MAWF or the MRLGH&RD, (in the Directorate of Rural Development) should maintain it.

4.2.21 Although the Communal Lands Act and the proposed Succession Bill will give some relief, landless female-headed and child-led households need to be actively targeted for resettlement. Any reforms of property regimes should encourage greater accumulation of and control over property by women. Support should also be given to measures that aim at the distribution of communal land to women, taking into account that many households are female headed. The Communal Land Reform Act and amendments as well as the proposed Flexible Land Tenure Bill need mechanisms for the implementation of monitoring of women's (and widows) increased access to rural productive resources, particularly land. Agricultural skills upgrading and training need to be stepped up, and female extension officers be trained and deployed, particularly in communal areas and among the largely female subsistent farmers. Non-gender stereotyped agricultural income generating activities which could produce a higher rate of return need to be increased. Moreover, given the predominance of female farmers in the subsistence sector, agricultural extension in this sub-sector needs to be maintained/ increased and extension messages be tailored to the needs of women farmers. The training and upgrading of female extension officer should be of prime importance.

4.3 Education Sector

General Enrolment Trends

4.3.1 Namibia has made progress since independence in making education accessible to all. The NER for learners in primary school increased between 1992 and 2001 from 89% to 93.7% (94.4% girls versus 92.7% boys).⁷ The Net Enrolment Rate (NER) for Grades 1-7 is (93.7%). The lowest NER is for Grade 1 at only 39.6% of six-year-olds, with a 100% NER for 9 year olds. However, NER drops again substantially for learners at about 16 years of age (83.2%) and continues to decline with only 56.9% enrolment for learners 18 years of age.⁸ However, the Gross Enrolment Rates (GER), representing inappropriate age for grade, are much higher (over 117%) for grades 1 – 7, but lowering to about 51.1% by grades 8 – 12. This indicates that learners are not passing from one grade to the next and sometimes drop

⁷ The 2002 educational statistics are the most recent available due to technical problems at the MoE.

⁸ NER is the number of learners of appropriate age enrolled in a range of grades, divided by the population in the same age group. GER is the total enrolment in a range of grades, divided by the number of people in the population of the appropriate age for those grades.

out and re-enter where they left off. In terms of new entrants, repeaters, and re-entrants, the number of re-entrants only accounts for less than 1% of the total, but this indicates that many learners who leave school, do return. Repeaters are most prevalent in the first grade of each phase (grades 1, 5 and 8) while there are very few repeaters in the senior secondary phase, primarily due to government policy of not allowing those who fail Grade 10 examinations to return to school.

4.3.2 Gender disparities remain which need to be addressed. In Namibia intake rates for girls at tertiary education level have been consistently higher than those for boys. It is in this sub-sector that efforts to close the gender gap have also been particularly successful, lowering the ratio between 1992 and 2001 from 162 to 111 girls for 100 boys. Secondary education ratios also improved from 124 girls per 100 boys to 113 girls per 100 boys in the same period. The 2001 Census data indicate that literacy rates between boys and girls at school aged 15-24 are also in favour of girls with 92% of girls as compared to 87% of boys being literate in this age group. The NER for grades 1 - 10 is higher for girls age 7 – 16 than for boys of the same age group (94.2% versus 91.8%), with girls age 14-18 having a NER of 52.4% versus 43.9% for their male counterparts. Girls had higher promotion rates in the lower grades of the secondary level, while boys do better from Grade 7 through Grade 11, meaning that boys (56.2%) are more likely than girls (42%) to pass from junior secondary to senior secondary school levels. This is caused by the higher number of girls who leave school due to pressures at home and teenage pregnancy.

4.3.3 Currently, Namibia spends approximately 32% of its Gross National Product (GNP) on education. The total education vote is comprised of 'Basic Education, Culture and Sport' with an operational expenditure ceiling in excess of US\$33.6 million; 'Higher Education' with close to US\$80 million; and an 'Education, Training and Culture Development' budget of US\$27.36 million. The overall 2001 budget for education shows an average allocation per pupil of US\$64.⁹ The number of pupils in government schools has increased since independence, precipitating an increase in the number of schools and teachers. For example, enrolment in the formal education programme grew from 372 572 in 1989 to 544 550 in 2002, an increase of about 68%. This rapid growth has obviously placed a strain on the government's ability to provide effective educational services.

Primary and Secondary Education

4.3.4 A recent UNICEF-sponsored school fees study has shown that the concept of free education for all is not yet a reality in Namibia. Many children are, in fact, excluded from education if they cannot pay the school fees. The schools in question simply say that they are 'full' and give preference to fee-paying children. The MGECW has expressed concern about the situation of children being turned away from school for lack of funds. This situation means that children who are marginalised due to poverty become even further marginalised due to a lack of education. This situation is likely to hit girls more due to the fact that they are the first to drop out when funding constraints occur.

⁹ This figure excludes subsidies to the University of Namibia, private schools and hostels, scholarships and aid to students in foreign countries and subsidies to cultural organisations.

Box 4.3 Policy on Educationally Marginalised Children

*The MoE, in conjunction with the Office of the President, has identified specific children in need of special support services and has the Intersectoral Task Force for Educationally Marginalised Children which was established in 1996 and in 2000 a **National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalised Children** was developed which focuses on educationally marginalised children – meaning children at risk of not getting an appropriate education. The inter-sectoral Task Force was created to advise the government on developing and implementing a national policy to meet the educational and learning need of these children. The policy identifies poverty and negative attitudes towards disadvantaged groups as the underlying causes of educational marginalisation. This policy is likely to also help girls' in their access to education.*

4.3.5 Gender differences exist in subjects taken by girls and boys. In the traditionally female domains of domestic science, needlework and shorthand typing, girls are in the majority. Many more girls than boys study art and music, possibly because these subjects are regarded as of no real economic value. In an age where mathematics, science, computer know-how and other technical skills are often a prerequisite for job eligibility, statistics indicate that female prospects for employment are less promising than for those of males.

Tertiary Education

4.3.6 At independence gender disparity was particularly high in tertiary education with 162 girls for every 100 boys. Tertiary education institutions include colleges of education, Vocational Education and Training (VET), University of Namibia (UNAM), Polytechnic of Namibia and a number of smaller institutions providing specialised training. Colleges of Agriculture, the National Health Training Centre and the Namibian Institute of Mining and Technology (NIMT) provide such specialised training. Gender disaggregated data pertaining to these specialised educational institutions are limited, however much of this training is perceived of as being suitable for males only. In 2002 85% of enrolments in NIMT were male. Academic institutes, such as UNAM, keep detailed annual reports that provide gender-based statistics that confirm higher enrolment figures of females.

Table 4.3 Full-time Enrolment by Sex and Course at UNAM 1997 and 2002

	1997			2002		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Total # (%) of Enrolments	2 045 (58.2%)	1 469 (41.8%)	3 514	5 536 (63.5%)	3 371 (36.5%)	8 907
Humanities & Social Science	51%	49%	390	62%	38%	904
Medical & Health Services	81%	19%	533	76%	24%	468
Economics & Management Science	46%	54%	651	49%	51%	1 289
Education	52%	48%	780	59%	41%	1 183
Science	37%	63%	298	39%	61%	632
Law	45%	55%	98	46%	54%	326
Agriculture	36%	64%	69	39%	61%	211
Centre for External Studies (CES)	75%	25%	726	73%	27%	3 894

4.3.7 Full-time enrolments of students at UNAM are summarised in Table 4.3 above, and indicate that total student enrolment for 2002 was 8 907, an almost 150% increase over the 1997 figure. Females numbering 5 536 comprised 62% of this enrolment, and continue a growing trend since 1997 of higher rates of female enrolment. This disparity in favour of

females can partially be explained by choice of subject. Courses traditionally taken by male learners, such as Agriculture and Science, still have a higher percentage of male enrolments; even though this percentage has been steadily declining as more females enter these courses. Similarly, courses once considered an exclusive female domain, such as nursing in the Medical and Health Services has seen a gradual increase in male enrolment. These figures suggest traditional stereotyped occupations are slowly being eroded. An increase in student enrolments is evident in distance education, which accounts for 44% of the total student population. Approximately three-fourths of the students enrolled at the Centre for External Studies are women, primarily because this centre specialises in nursing and teacher training – still stereotyped women’s fields of study.

4.3.8 The gender differentiation of academic staff in the main tertiary learning institutions is relatively constant 60% male to 40% female academic staff were employed at UNAM in 1997; in 2002 43% of the academic staff were female. UNAM continues to invest in staff development, supporting the government's AAA policy, with women (42%) academic staff more likely than men (33%) to be selected for further studies.

Box 4.4 Educational Policies

*The Constitution combined with the **Education Act (2001)** and national educational policy of 1993, "Towards Education for All", guarantee that all children have a right to education, that children cannot leave school until they have a primary education or are at least 16 years of age, and that the government should provide education free to children whose parents cannot afford school fees. The Act indicates that parents or guardians of children, whose regular school attendance is compulsory, must ensure that the child regularly attends school. The Act also indicates that all tuition for primary and special education in state schools must be provided free until Grade 7 or the age of 16 years.*

The "Education for All" policy, has six goals: (i) expand and improve early childhood care and education; (ii) ensure that all children, especially girls, have access to and complete a primary education; (iii) ensure that all learners needs are met through equitable access; (iv) achieve a 50% improvement in adult literacy by 2015; (v) eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education; and (vi) improve the quality of education with measurable learning outcomes.

4.3.9 In vocational education and training (VET) institutions only 32% of total enrolments are women due largely to the fact that the majority of courses being offered are thought of as typical men’s trades, such as boiler making, diesel mechanics, bricklaying and plumbing. While there has been some increase in women's enrolment in these subjects, exact figures are not available and women at these institutions are predominantly enrolled in typical “female” courses such as needlework and dressmaking.

Factors Affecting Educational Attainment

4.3.10 Other disparities in education are regionally and ethnically based, such as relative remoteness or lifestyle of children of ethnic groups that lead nomadic lifestyles or are relatively less integrated into development processes, such Himba and San (the former nomadic cattle-herders the latter hunter-gatherers). Other disparities concern vulnerabilities affected by HIV/AIDS, being orphaned or being disabled. The MoE has, in consultation with other stakeholders, identified children who are at risk of being educationally marginalised. Differences apart, all children subsumed under this category face the risk that they may not, for whatever reason, attend school in a consistent and appropriate manner. The government has formulated policies and strategies to cater for the effects of HIV/AIDS and educational marginalisation. While the disparities in educational attainment which in some instances favour girls over boys are well recognised, no special programmes or policies cater for boys, partly because reasons for the gender gaps are not well understood.

Teenage Pregnancy

4.3.11 Despite limited research, it is known that teenage pregnancy and family demands impact negatively on female learners. Indeed, if not for this, the percentage of female learners at Grade 10 (16 year olds) and above, could be 2% to 3% higher. Although the incidence of teenage pregnancies has stabilised, there is still a lack of support and negative attitudes towards girls who fall pregnant. Pregnant teenagers are required to leave school, with few returning. A girl who becomes pregnant is by law allowed back to the same public school after one year's absence. However, the girls will have to give proof that they have someone responsible looking after their baby, criteria many cannot meet. Although the one-year absent rule is supposed to also apply to schoolboys who impregnate girls, they are rarely identified and older men who are guilty of impregnating school girls seldom face any consequences.

Box 4.5 Policy on Pregnancy among Learners

*In 1997 the government passed its **Policy on Pregnancy among Learners**. This policy acknowledges that teenage pregnancy is detrimental to teenage mothers, but also to the health and social welfare of their children. The policy states that girls should be supported rather than punished for pregnancy and that schools have a duty to provide Sexual and Reproductive Health (SRH) information to learners. The policy further states that pregnant girls should have someone at school to talk to and to give advice. However, it also stipulates that the girl must: 1) name the father of her child; 2) leave school for a 'time of confinement' and up to 12 months after giving birth. This policy still lays the social burden of pregnancy on the girl, implying guilt on her part and denies her an education based on outdated western concepts such as 'time of confinement'.*

HIV/AIDS and the Educational Sector

4.3.12 A challenge to achieving Namibian educational goals is the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Children whose relatives have AIDS generally have lower enrolment and completion rates due to a lack of school fees, increased domestic chores and labour in the communal agricultural sector. By the year 2010 as many as 130 000 children in Namibia may have lost their mother due to AIDS, with orphans at risk of dropping out of school, or with experiences of erratic attendance, as well as poor concentration due to emotional and behavioural

Box 4.6 Policy on HIV and AIDS for the Education Sector

*The **National Policy on HIV and AIDS for the Education Sector**, which is applicable to all government and private educational institutions, states that: learners and employees should not be required to disclose their status or HIV related information; educational institutions should supply HIV/AIDS and SRH age/ability appropriate information; no learner or employee can be denied access to an educational institution based on his or her HIV status; HIV positive learners of compulsory school going age are required (health permitting) to attend classes; no learner should be excluded from a government school as a result of their vulnerable status such as their inability to pay school fees; educational institutions should put into place mechanisms to safeguard against discriminatory behaviour; and educational institutions should take precautionary measure against HIV exposure due to extracurricular school activities such as the playing of sports.*

disturbance. Children affected by AIDS face socio-economic challenges such as lack of adequate food, money for school related expenses, poverty, abuse and exploitation, all of which affect their education. In addition, educational staff such as teachers, principles and hostel caretakers are infected and affected by AIDS. Teachers are particularly at risk of HIV infection, with rates estimated to be between 14% and 25%. Girls are most likely to drop out

of school due to sickness in the family, as funds available for school are diverted to the sick and girls are expected to take care of the sick family member.

Stakeholders in Education Sector

4.3.13 The Ministry of Education (MoE) promotes gender sensitive education and is thus responsible for gender equity in the education sub-sectors. The MoE through its Directorate of Youth has started a Gender Desk to achieve gender equity goals. In addition, the MoE provides mobile school units and has concentrated on building schools in remote rural areas, which increases access to schooling for both girls and boys. Some of the line ministries involved in assistance to OVC include the MGECW, Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS) and the Ministry of Education. UNICEF funds a programme with the MGECW which registers OVC, so that they can receive financial support, school fee exemptions and school uniforms.

4.3.14 In the tertiary education sub-sector, gender equity goals are absent in mission statements, although UNAM is in the process of formulating a gender policy. However, UNAM already has a Gender Focal Point, the GTRP (a gender specific training and research institution) and several of its departments such as Sociology, Law, and Education offer courses on gender analysis and gender mainstreaming. GTRP offers gender training courses to government departments and national level organisations as well as the general public. The Polytechnic also offers courses on gender issues and more general gender training, while its mission states that it provides an academic institution of high quality to all people regardless of race, colour and sex.

4.3.15 Several organisations have come into existence to further the position of girls in Namibian society. The Namibian Women's Association (NAWA), through its sister organisation Namibian Girl Child Organisation (NGCO) has as its mandate to implement affirmative action for girls and aims to achieve equal rights and opportunities. In addition, the National Early Childhood Development (NECD) programme is committed to the holistic development of children and aims at raising awareness about their needs. The Forum for African Women Educationalist in Namibia (FAWENA) has the specific goal of improving the educational status of girls. Some key objectives of FAWENA are to initiate policy debates, mobilise resources and create linkages with NGOs to promote girl's and women's education. FAWENA has secured funding through the Forum for African Women Educationalists, has sent young girls for training, and has implemented projects on peer counselling. In addition, FAWENA has secured funding from the African Education Initiative from the US Ambassador's fund for a scholarship programme to educate San girls by paying for their school fees, hostels, school supplies and mentoring.

4.3.16 UNICEF also has a support programme for *Children and Women in Especially Difficult Circumstances* aimed at strengthening the capacity of the Directorates of Social Services (MoHSS), Youth (MoE), and Community Development (MLGH&RD), the legal and law enforcement professions and other relevant institutions so that children are aware of and have effective access to support services and protection. Some of UNICEF's programmes include capacity building in government and civil society, strengthening and improving access to services, and improving the knowledge, attitudes and practices of parents and caregivers.

4.3.17 UNESCO has been providing ongoing funding for the Ministry of Education (MoE), MGECW and the Ministry of Youth and Sport (MYS) via basket funding. Within the Ministry of Education it has funded the development of gender sensitive educational materials and gender policy formulation. In the MGECW, UNESCO has funded a gender

advocacy programme, as well as a youth leadership programme. UNESCO has also sponsored gender awareness training workshops within the Ministry of Education, while UNICEF and the Peace Corp support FAWENA's empowerment programmes. FAWENA is also supported by the Forum for African Women Educationalists for gender sensitisation of school board members for sensitising parents to the need of reducing the workload of girls in the household. FAWENA also plans to begin science and maths projects for girls with the support of the donor agency, Petro.

4.3.18 Among the strategic options to advance gender equity in education is research, that should be conducted on the number of teen pregnancies and how many of these girls return to finish their education. There may be the need for human rights advocacy if this policy is found to have constitutional implications. This research could lead to a review of the policy, as well as inform projects and programmes. Persistent cultural practices mean that girls' are given heavy domestic workloads, which may interfere with their ability to study and attend school. Parents thus need to be educated about the harmful effects of cultural practices which interfere with girls' education. There has also not been enough research, advocacy and legal reform supporting women's and girls' rights within traditional or cultural settings. Programmes need to address girls dropping out of school on account of pregnancy or care demands in the home.

4.3.19 Special bursary programmes might help encourage boys and girls to move away from stereotypical subjects in school. Gender equality goals can be met with gender awareness training for school principals, girls' empowerment programmes in schools, and the promotion of girls' education in science and technology. In tertiary education, boys/men should also be encouraged to study social work (as well as other non-traditional courses) given the growing need for counselling and care for people affected by AIDS and the need for gender sensitivity in this area. The education curriculum needs to be reformed to be gender neutral. In this case, best practices in other Southern African countries can be examined. Multi-media methods and other pro-active approaches could be used to advocate for closing gender gaps in the area of education.

4.3.20 The current policy of non-repetition for Grade 10 learners who fail restricts access to education, particularly for girls who are more likely to fail due to cultural and economic reasons. Once students fail Grade 10, they often remain without work and prospects for future employment. Programmes are needed for affected learners, and a review of the policy barring failed Grade 10 learners is much needed.

4.3.21 The reasons why boys have lower enrolment and lower pass rates than girls in some educational levels is not well understood. Today, focus on gender and education has largely addressed imbalances in girl's and women's education; however, boys are also disadvantaged at many educational levels. There is the need to research and understand why boys and girls are not on par at all levels of educational attainment and to inform policy about the findings.

4.4 Health Sector

Access to Health Care Services

4.4.1 The government system consists of hospitals offering both general and specialised services, as well as community clinics which have primary health care facilities. The majority of patients, who attend community clinics are cared for by nurses, although most clinics have one doctor on duty. Services at community clinics are family planning, postnatal care, childhood immunisations, wound dressings and specimen collections, which are sent to the hospital laboratory for analysis. There is also a pharmacy at each clinic, which is staffed by

nurses and dispenses primary level drugs. Community clinics do not offer in-patient services. The missions (Lutheran, Roman Catholic and Anglican) are non-profit health care providers and typically operate in the rural areas. There is also a wide range of private medical doctors, private hospitals and private clinics for those with the ability to pay commercial rates or with medical aid.

4.4.2 The MoHSS budget comprises about 14% to 16% of total government expenditures since 1990. In addition, international aid agencies contributed between US\$6.4 and US\$10.7 million annually over the past five years to improving the health care sector. The public expenditure for health is 4.2% of GDP (up from 3.7% in 1990), while private expenditure is 2.9% of GDP, with a per person per capita expenditure of US\$366. The provision of health care services is split between government (70-75%), missions (15-20%) and the private sector (5%).

Box 4.7 Health Policies

*The MoHSS policy since independence has been focusing on better preventative health care services. Namibia has expanded its **Primary Health Care Programme**, and has developed programmes on issues such as HIV/AIDS, safe motherhood, TB and malaria. Namibia's health policies include the promotion of health education, the continued decentralisation of health care provision, supporting a Food Security Network, increasing the training of health care personnel, continuing to improve access to health care facilities, continue the fight against HIV/AIDS and strengthen family and reproductive health care programmes.*

A 2005 sub-regional workshop organised between the African Union, International Planned Parenthood Association and WHO focused on critical issues in SRH. The resultant Windhoek Declaration recognises the link between SRH rights, population, poverty and sustainable development. Major concerns to be addressed include high rates of maternal morbidity and mortality, high HIV and AIDS prevalence, gender inequality and violence against women.

4.4.3 In 1991, there were 324 doctors in Namibia, in 2001 this figure had risen to 600, with 350 of these in private practice. Approximately 10 000 people are employed by the MoHSS, of which 3 000 are trained health care workers. There are about 7 500 people per public service doctor and 950 per registered nurse. There are also 249 clinics, 37 health centres and 46 hospitals in Namibia. Nationally, 271 people share one hospital bed, with the vast majority of hospital wards showing a medium to high bed occupancy rate. The area of health care coverage has grown from about 23 300 square kilometres in 1981 to about 71 200 square kilometres in 2001. An important aspect of improved coverage is better access to primary health care, with about 80% of people living within a ten kilometre radius of a health care facility.

Reproductive Health

4.4.4 Progressive information and education campaigns have helped to raise awareness about family planning methods and their potential benefits, while school education programmes have targeted girls with messages about delaying fertility. The area of most noted increased knowledge is for the male condom (71% in 1992 to 92% in 2000). The use of contraceptives increased from 29% in 1992 to 44% in 2000. Women who live in urban areas and have higher levels of education are most likely to use a modern method of contraception. The use of male condoms as a contraceptive method increased from .04% in 1992 to 5.2% for 2000. The DHS data of 2000 indicates that 67% of women surveyed had heard of female condoms; however, accessibility to and affordability of female condoms in comparison to male condoms is still a disconcerting challenge given Namibia's ever-growing rate of HIV infections.

4.4.5 Overall maternal mortality figures for Namibia in 2000 were 271 women per 100 000 live births, with maternal deaths representing about 10% of all deaths of women 15-49 years old. Based on the DHS data, it appears that maternal mortality rates have increased since independence from 225/100 000 live births in 1992 to 271/100 000 live births in 2000. Given the use of the sisterhood method, the small number of reported maternal deaths (50 for the sample) and possible sampling errors for the 2000 data, they might be inaccurate, as has been suggested by Health Information System data which indicate a drop in maternal mortality ratios. Given the grave inconsistencies in the various data sources, this area must be investigated further in order to determine if there are social structural factors that might account for an increase in maternal mortality.

4.4.6 Other DHS indicators for maternal health include deliveries by a trained person (risen by 7% from 1992 to 75% of all births), and contraceptive prevalence rate which have increased from 21% in 1992 to 37% in 2000. For women who were pregnant within five years to the DHS, only 13% saw a doctor and 78% saw a nurse. Most women who gave birth had the assistance of trained personnel, 65.7% were assisted by a nurse or midwife, while only .09% said they had no one to assist them. The DHS indicates that women with higher levels of education and those in urban areas are most likely to have used antenatal care.

4.4.7 Teenage mothers contribute to over 9% of total fertility in Namibia, with urban girls more likely to become pregnant than rural girls. According to the 2001 national census girls between the ages of 12 and 14 had 577 babies with 58 of these being born in the 12 months preceding, while those 15-19 years old had 15 762 babies with 3 901 of these born in the 12 months prior to the Census. Teenage pregnancy has been discussed in public debates in Namibia as a problematic phenomenon among teenagers, and it is often associated with health risks in conjunction with HIV infection.

Box 4.8 Reproductive Health Policies

*The **Reproductive Health and Family Planning Programme** has been introduced in Namibia with the overall objective of protecting and improving the health of community members, especially women and girls. The objectives of the programmes are to reduce maternal and infant mortality, improve contraceptive use, and improve access to reproductive health services. Namibia's population policy of 1997 is aimed at: alleviating poverty, promoting sustainable development, enabling people through education to make rational family planning choices, reducing levels of fertility through the use of modern family planning methods, promoting human resource development, reducing the overall growth rate from over 3% annually to 2% by 2025 and reducing total fertility to 3.5 live births per mother by 2015.*

4.4.8 Currently in Namibia, the **Abortion and Sterilisation Act** (1975) only allows for abortion under strict conditions, such as if the pregnancy is the result of rape, if the woman's life is at risk or if the foetus is known to be severely deformed. Research by UNFPA has established that the incidence of illegal and self-induced abortion is common. Often the results are gynaecological infections, sterility and in some cases death. Negative social and cultural attitudes towards teenage pregnancy contribute to a high incidence of illegal abortions, which risks the lives of the girls, and 'baby dumping' which leads to young girls being found guilty of murder should their abandoned babies die. A draft Abortion and Sterilisation Bill was issued for discussion in 1996 but sparked strong reaction from church groups and other anti-abortionist lobbies who launched vigorous campaigns against the planned law reform, which has since been shelved.

Stakeholders in Health Sector

4.4.9 Under the Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS) several sections are tasked with activities related to gender equity goals. However, with regard to gender mainstreaming, MoHSS works closely with MGECW. The MoHSS has a Food and Nutrition Programme which aims to improve nutrition at the family/household level, an Expanded Programme of Immunisation which seeks to immunise children against childhood disease and immunise pregnant women against tetanus, a Family Planning Programme which aims to increase the percentage of women using family planning, and reduce unmet family planning demands, an Adolescent Health Care and School Health Programme which aims to reduce teenage pregnancy, a Reproductive Tract and Breast Cancer Prevention and Care Programme which aims to increase early detection through screening for cancer. One of the relevant sections within the directorate are the Women and Child Protection Units (WCPU), which are funded by UNICEF and function as places where domestic violence, child abuse and rape cases can be reported and then referred to appropriate agencies/organisations.

4.4.10 UNFPA is a substantial donor to health related activities, particularly for adolescent sexual and reproductive health. Other stakeholders for SRH include UNICEF, Namibia Planned Parenthood Association (NAPPA), Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (MIB), MoE, MoHSS and the MGECW. UNICEF is a substantial donor partner of MoHSS and has supported projects such as: (i) community based health care training for traditional healers, headmen, pastors and women's organisation; (ii) training for MoHSS personnel and GFPs; and (iii) the production of training manuals and IEC materials. UNICEF also supports several ongoing programmes within the MoHSS that address issues of gender-based violence, such as shelters for survivors, education for services providers such as police and judiciary personnel, and the preparation of survivors for court appearances.

4.4.11 Several NGOs are also involved in advancing health care for women, particularly with regard to gender-based violence, and sexual and reproductive health (including addressing teenage sexuality and pregnancy). USAID has previously funded workshops and information pamphlets on domestic violence and sexual abuse through Women's Solidarity, as well as a publication explaining the new Rape Act through the Legal Assistance Centre. The Namibia Girl Child Organisation (NGCO) prepares girls for future leadership, focusing on addressing teenage pregnancy. Given that Women's Action for Development takes a holistic approach to women's empowerment, the organisation also provides health care training in hygiene, nutrition, family planning, child care, HIV/AIDS awareness, and the use of female condoms. Sister Namibia addresses women's sexual and reproductive rights and HIV/AIDS issues. NANAWO, an umbrella for some women's organisations, addresses reproductive health, HIV/AIDS and inheritance issues. The Namibia Red Cross's programme, *Desert Soul*, has been operational for a year and offers a health communications programme aimed at effecting behaviour change.

4.4.12 The Namibia Planned Parenthood Association (NAPPA) addresses sexual and reproductive health and rights, but does not specifically address gender issues. NAPPA has only recently secured core funding and immediately conducted research on young people's attitudes towards family planning. Since the US government announcement of the "Global Gag Rule" in 2001, NAPPA as with most of its sister organisations, is unable to secure USAID funding. However, the organisation has secured grants from a variety of bi- and multi-lateral donors for the production of dramas on condom use, for scholarships, for peer education on adolescents' reproductive health, as well as capacity building for family planning and sensitisation of traditional authorities. UNFPA focuses on reproductive health, poverty reduction and gender and development. The organisation plans to focus on behaviour change and maintenance of such changes by doing micro-level interventions with messages

targeted for smaller groups (such as age and gender specific messages) with the expectation that such interventions might lead to more consistent condom use.

4.4.13 Several initiatives have addressed gender-based violence, such as a national conference on Men Against Violence, which led to the formation of Namibian Men for Change (NAMEC) in 2000. NAMEC is significant because it is one of the first male driven initiatives to address gender issues in Namibia. The organisation has been core funded by Bristol Meyers Squibb and the Finish Embassy to sensitise men and boys to end violence against women and children. Women's Solidarity, an NGO formed in 1989, had been a leading NGO addressing gender-based violence, sexual abuse and HIV prevention. However, it closed in 2003 when it lost core funding but was revived in 2005, still without core funding. Women's Solidarity has, in the past, provided information on rape and gender-based violence through awareness raising programmes in community workshops, educational talks at schools, the production of educational materials, face-to-face and telephone counselling, advisory and referral services and legal advocacy work.

4.4.14 Women's and young people's rights to access sexual and reproductive health care and information are hindered by outdated concepts of social and cultural acceptability. These attitudes place women and young girls at risk of HIV and STI infection, as well as unwanted pregnancies. One of the few programmes that have tried to empower adolescents and youth in Namibia is *'My Future is My Choice'* - a programme modelled after one developed for African-American children aged 9 to 15 years old. Namibian youth who have received training on SRH issues through this programme experienced significant knowledge gains. Not only do young people improve their knowledge on HIV and increased condom use; they also changed their attitudes, intentions and behaviours with regard to sexual activity. This finding underscores the fact that there is hope for changes in the sexual behaviour of young people in Namibia once they are empowered through information and education.

Analysis and strategic options

4.4.15 Namibia has made substantial gains in reducing infant mortality rates, increasing the use of family planning and improving its health care provision. There are, however, still issues of access to health care facilities that will not be addressed in the near future given Namibia's vast land mass and small, dispersed population. Rural dwellers will still experience long distances, a lack of transportation and long waiting times when accessing health care. In addition donors seem to have focused disproportionately on AIDS, while other aspects (such teenage pregnancy and reproductive health) are said to be under funded. Health care research, interventions and information campaigns also have been neglected. There is also a high turn-over of medical practitioners, as Namibia, which does not train doctors, relies heavily on expatriate doctors. This causes capacity constraints which also affect women's health.

4.4.16 In order to improve knowledge, capacity and service delivery in the health sector the following interventions might be considered:

- Urgent research needs include data collections on condom (both male and female) use in order to understand why people continue to participate in sexual risk-taking even though they know the risks are not adequately understood. Research of the reasons for child-rape are is also prioritised by stakeholders.
- Sexual and reproductive health rights also need to be investigated from a male perspective in an effort to further the understanding of links between masculinity and sexuality.

- Although various information and education campaigns do exist already, they primarily focus on HIV/AIDS. In addition a national communication strategy targeting communities on other health related topics such as maternal health and Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health is urgently needed.
- Traditional authorities urgently need to be included in and consciously targeted by information and education campaigns that sensitise them about gender equality, because they should be harnessed as agents in advising communities in rural areas that currently are particularly disadvantaged with regard to information on reproductive health, social grants to foster parents, best parenting practices, alcohol abuse and gender based violence.
- Information and education campaigns also need to target youth in 'youth friendly' environments such as Multi-Purpose Youth Resource Centres, or youth friendly clinics with peer educators and Adolescent Friendly Health Services. These campaigns should utilise existing structures and include community radio stations for information dissemination.

4.4.17 Given the conflicting data on maternal mortality ratios, operational research to determine actual needs in emergency obstetric care and the use of maternal audits is imperative. Women's reproductive health still needs urgent attention. For example, information dissemination on maternal health needs to be increased and data on the incidence and effects of illegal abortions needs to be established. In addition, domestic violence also still remains an urgent issue that needs on-going attention, because even though the Domestic Violence Act has been passed, the incidence of violence in the home remains high, because the law is not sufficiently applied. Many donors withdrew support in this area when the Act came into effect, not recognising the need for adequate enforcement, monitoring and evaluation.

4.5 Infrastructure Sector

4.5.1 The water, electricity and construction industries in Namibia are relatively under-developed in the rural areas, so that Namibia has limited infrastructure with which to provide people, especially in rural areas, with formal housing, electrification, transportation, communication, and access to water and sanitation facilities. Moreover, decentralisation and devolution of powers from central to local government, have meant that municipalities, responsible for service delivery and revenue collection, are unable to finance services, particularly in informal settlements. Again, because more women than men live in the rural areas and informal settlements, a lack of infrastructure and service delivery disproportionately affects women.

4.5.2 A number of acts, policies and programmes govern infrastructure development in Namibia. However, these policies make little or no reference to gender differentiated access and needs and they lack mechanisms to address these. Indeed, most government policies in this sector are 'gender blind' with the assumption that gender does not make a difference in an individual's access to infrastructural support – an assumption that is not supported by data.

Living Environment

4.5.3 The Namibian Census indicates the average household size in Namibia is five persons per household with an average of two people per room. In urban areas 66.6% of housing units

are detached or semi-detached units, while in the rural areas 66.4% are traditional dwellings. However, 9.2% of Namibian households live in impoverished housing (shacks), 17.6% in the urban and 3.7% in the rural areas. Most people own their dwellings without a mortgage (60.2%), although three-fourths of these are rural dwellings. Over half of all housing has a roof made from corrugated iron sheets, but 35.9% (primarily in the rural areas) have roofs of thatch, while 37.9% of housing have cement walls and an additional 20.8% are wood, stick and pole construction.

4.5.4 The Levels of Living Survey indicates that female-headed households are more likely than male-headed households to live in traditional dwellings (44% versus 32%), while male-headed households are more likely than female-headed to live in semi-detached or detached houses (49% versus 42%), shacks (12% versus 10%) and singles quarters (5% versus 1%). These data indicate that female-headed households have, on average, more a traditional housing standard than male-headed households.¹⁰

Box 4.9 Living Environment Policy

*Namibia has identified housing (along with education, health and agriculture) as one of its priority development areas. The **National Housing Policy (1991)** guarantees people the right to housing, especially from previously disadvantaged groups. The overall policy goals are to facilitate access to adequate and affordable shelter for all people throughout Namibia. The government's stated objective for the near future is to make adequate housing accessible to 60% of the low income population by 2006 and to put into place revolving credit funding by 2005.*

Access to Water

4.5.5 Namibia is a country with a large land mass, a small population and very little rainfall. This combination has meant that the government has had difficulty providing Namibians, especially those living in the rural areas, with accessible and affordable water supplies. The Census data indicate that 87% of all households in 2001 (80% rural and 98.4% urban) had access to clean potable water for drinking and cooking, compared to only 65% of households in 1991. Over half of households have water piped into their homes (considered to be reliable, safe and adequate), but 78% of these households are situated in formal urban areas, while rural households use communal taps (33.3%), safe boreholes (10.6%) and rivers, dams or water canals (10.6%).

Box 4.10 Water Policy

*The **Water and Sanitation Policy (1997)**, dictates that essential water supply should be made accessible to and affordable for all Namibians, allow local communities to have a reasonable say in their own water resource management and facilitate environmentally sustainable water utilisation. As discussed within the poverty reduction plan, women's participation in rural household water supply needs to be recognised and their representation in community decision-making programmes and natural resource management should be ensured.*

4.5.6 Given that female-headed households are more likely to be found in the rural areas, it can be surmised that they will also be less likely to have access to potable water. In urban areas female-headed households are less likely than male-headed households to have piped water inside the house (20.8% versus 33.7%), while for rural areas female-headed households

¹⁰ Recent research has shown that with the proliferation of self-help and build together projects, most of which primarily have women participants, women's housing standards in the informal settlements in the peri-urban north have improved relative to men's.

are more likely to use free public water taps (27.7% versus 16.8%) and boreholes (9.8% versus 5.4%).

4.5.7 While most households have access to potable water, the data do not represent distances people must travel to access these supplies. Approximately one-third of rural households live more than 500 metres from their water source, with an additional 12.7% living a kilometre away and 15% living more than one kilometre away. These data indicate a substantial outlay in household energy (usually by women or girls) in time and distance for the collection of water. Although it would seem intuitive that development projects aimed at the provision of water points might decrease water collection times, in fact, this can cause an increase in household water consumption, which actually increases time spent on such tasks.

Access to Sanitation

4.5.8 The Census data indicate that 54% of all households in 2001 (17.4% urban and 78.3% rural) did not have adequate toilet facilities (this means they used the bush), compared to 61% of households in 1991. Over 70% of urban households have flush toilets, while rural households primarily depend on the bush (78%) and long drop pit latrines (8.1%). Households situated in informal urban/peri-urban settlements also face serious problems with regard to lack of adequate sanitary facilities. Overall, 30.9% of households in Namibia have regular rubbish removal, although 65% of urban versus only 8.4% of rural households have this facility available. Most rural households burn their rubbish (27.9%) or dispose of it in pits (28%).

4.5.9 The Levels of Living Survey indicates that while 47% of households in their survey utilise the bush or bucket as a toilet, 52% of female-headed versus 45% of male-headed households utilise these methods of solid waste removal; while conversely 53% of people in Namibia have other toilet types, only 48% female-headed versus 55% male-headed households had access to these other types of facilities.

Box 4.11 Sanitation Policies

*The **Water and Sanitation Policy** also aims to make adequate sanitation affordable and available to all Namibians; achieve equitable service provision to all communities; and allow communities to determine which solutions and service levels are acceptable to them. The government's stated policies include continuing sanitation and hygiene promotion programmes focused on the stimulation of household demand for sanitation and addressing the link between sanitation, hygiene and health. In addition, the government is working on an **Environmental Management and Pollution Control Bill** which will, among other things, require towns to dispose of solid waste in a systematic and hygienic manner, while the poverty reduction plan also identifies the need to strengthen women's awareness and access to household sanitation and environmental health facilities.*

Energy Usage

4.5.10 Most energy sources consumed at the household level are either electricity or 'traditional fuels' such as wood, charcoal and animal waste, with about 60% of Namibians using traditional fuel sources. The Namibian Census indicates that 32% of all households in 2001 (9.5% rural and 67.6% urban) used electricity for lighting, compared to 24% of households in 1991. However, 23.9% of urban households use candles for lighting, while rural households are more likely to use candles (41.5%), wood (21.8%) and paraffin (21.1%) for lighting their homes. Figures for access and use of electricity are also worse for urban households situated in informal settlements, such in Ondangwa's informal settlements where only 15% of households were connected to electricity. Overall, 62% of all households in

2001 (89.1% rural and 19.6% urban) used wood or charcoal for cooking, compared to 74% of households in 1991. The government has implemented an extensive programme of rural electrification. Since 1992 more than US\$32.48 million has been invested in rural electrification with the end result that rural areas accounted for 24% of electricity consumption compared to less than 8% in 1993.

Box 4.12 Energy Policies

The Namibian Electricity Supply Industry Restructuring Programme was started in 1998 with the aim of improving efficiency and promoting growth in the electricity industry. The government policy on renewable energy use indicates that solar or wind power is preferred but has an insignificant share of total energy consumption (less than 1%). The government's stated objectives for the near future are to provide 20% of the rural population with electricity and install 6 823 solar energy systems during 2001-2006.

4.5.11 The Levels of Living Survey indicates that female-headed households are more likely than male-headed households to cook without electricity (64% versus 58%) and they are also more likely to light without electricity (66% versus 57%). These energy consumption patterns suggest that female-headed households are located in rural areas/informal settlement where access to electricity is low and/or either have lower incomes and/or different priorities for expenditures. In addition the heavy reliance on wood in the rural areas for energy consumption means that the most likely persons to be affected by woodland depletion, which results in longer time spans and distances needed to be covered to collect firewood, are women.

Transportation

4.5.12 The majority of people in Namibia walk to the nearest service facility such as a school (80%), health facility (56%), police station (44%), post office (46%) or shop (72%). Rural people are far more likely to walk, or hitchhike, while urban people are more likely to use a car or take a taxi. Overall walking times are greater for rural (average of 60 minutes) than for urban (average of 30 minutes) people. Data indicate that on average, women take about 40 minutes to travel to a health facility in Namibia. Data indicate that members of female-headed households are more likely than people in male-headed households to walk to school (89% versus 75%), a health facility (65% versus 52%), the police station (51% versus 41%), the post office (54% versus 41%) and shops (79% versus 68%), however, members of male-headed households (between 15%-29%) are more likely than those female-headed households (between 3%-9%) to use their own or a company car to get to the abovementioned infrastructural facilities.

Communication

4.5.13 Namibia had 64 mainline telephones per 1 000 people in 2001, compared with 39 per 1 000 people in 1990. In addition, there were 55 cellular subscribers and 24.6 internet users per 1 000 population in 2001, while these services were not available in 1990. In 2004 a survey found that almost half of the population in Namibia had access to a cellular phone. The Census data indicate that 80% of all households in 2001 (84.5% urban and 76.6% rural) had access to radio, compared to 59% of households in 1991. In addition, 36.5% had access to television, 18% had access to a daily newspaper, 38.6% had access to a telephone and 7.2% had access to a computer. In 2004 only 2.1% of Namibians had access to the internet. With the growing tendency towards community radio, reach for this media, as well as relevancy to rural populations will increase.

4.5.14 The Levels of Living Survey indicates that female-headed households have less access than male-headed households to telephones (66% versus 74%), radios (85% versus 89%) and televisions (45% versus 52%). Indeed, the National Gender Study supports these data in that male-headed households are more likely to have 'entertainment' equipment such as tape recorders, hi-fis, personal computers and motor vehicles, while female-headed households are more likely to have 'housekeeping' equipment such as sewing machines and washing machines.

Stakeholders in Infrastructure Sector

4.5.15 Various parastatals are responsible for the provision of infrastructural supports. The government's main section for the provision of low cost housing is the National Housing Enterprise (NHE). The Directorate of Rural Water Supply is responsible for water point provision in the rural areas, while Namwater is responsible for bulk water supply. Not only is water provision for human domestic and livestock consumption a development priority, but given Namibia's arid environment, water resource management and conservation are top priorities for the Directorate of Resource Management in the Department of Water Affairs within the MAWF. The Directorate is tasked with managing water resources, monitoring surface and groundwater levels and water allocation planning. The Ministry of Mines and Energy is the lead ministry for energy, with the National energy provider being Nampower, which has pursued rural electrification schemes. Namibia's transportation and communication sectors are guided by the Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication (MWTC) which launched the MWTC2000 programme aimed at restructuring the sector. Communication in Namibia is also guided by the Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication (MWTC). The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (MIB), now headed by the former Minister of Women Affairs and Children Welfare, is mandated with providing education and information as an awareness raising tool. Given the Minister's previous position she is expected to use her new position to highlight gender issues in the media. MIB also promotes women in power sharing by focusing on gender equity in politics, and provides youth with gender sensitive information.

4.5.16 The Namibia Housing Action Group and the Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia are NGOs that seek to help members upgrade their shacks to brick houses and cater for the very poor, the vast majority of whom are women. The federation operates on a group guaranteed loan and compulsory savings basis. It also seeks to negotiate blocks of plots for shack dwellers from councils. With the assistance of UNDP and United Nations Centre for Human Settlement, the government has implemented the Build Together Programme, which is a government credit programme that focuses on helping low income people to build their own houses. Here too, women form at least half of the beneficiaries. In addition, the Namibian Women's Brick-making Cooperative and WAD run brick-making courses for women. With the exception of Build Together, which utilises loans in instalments commensurate with progress in building, these projects use a combination of income generation, saving and loans.

4.5.17 GTZ supports the strengthening of institutional management capacity in the road and transport sub- sectors, even though the organisation does not specifically address gender equity concerns. UNDP provides support to energy and environmental projects. UNDP has a gender strategy and action plan which includes: (i) building gender analysis into the design of energy services; (ii) the protection of poor women's rights to utilise natural resources; and (iii) the design of a gender sensitive strategy for sustainable development with specific emphasis on energy and water resource management.

Analysis and strategic options

4.5.18 The Namibian government has several policies and programmes aimed at improving people's living environment. However, few of these programmes are specifically designed to be gender sensitive. The situation is compounded by the fact that very few donors and NGOs are working on women and infrastructure. Therefore, there is a lack of gender specific research, advocacy and development. Indeed, gender-related opportunities and challenges for this report are difficult to identify due to the lack of information. In addition cultural and social norms discourage girls from being involved in infrastructure delivery and maintenance because it is thought that men are the owners of technology.

4.5.19 Namibia has limited infrastructure with which to provide people, especially the rural populations, with formal housing, electrification, transportation, communication, and access to water and sanitation facilities. Due to the fact that more women than men live in the rural areas and female-headed households dominate in many informal settlements, a lack of rural infrastructure disproportionately affects female-headed households.

4.5.20 Limited research and data on the incidence and the effect of gender differentiated access to infrastructure such as information technology, communication and transportation has been conducted in Namibia. Therefore, a comprehensive study of the influence of gender inequalities on access to and control over infrastructure needs to be urgently conducted.

4.5.21 Very few stakeholders address the area of gender and infrastructure. Stakeholders need to recognise women's unequal access to and need for infrastructure and to develop strategies for improving access and services. Donors, NGOs and CBOs should be encouraged to identify and implement gender specific programmes in the infrastructure sub-sectors. Prime among these is the need for women to be empowered to increase their access to and control over potable water, hygienic sanitation, safe energy and a better standard of housing. Service delivery needs to take the different needs of women and men into account, such as the need for water sources closer to the home, intermediate transport needs in road construction, alternative uses of electricity, and low cost housing options.

5. CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

5.1 The Environment

5.1.1 The environment and natural resources management are cross-cutting issues and directly affect all Namibians. Future viability of the economy will ultimately depend upon sustainable growth and renewable natural resources. This is a particular challenge given the aridity of the Namibian environment as well as a poor and growing population. Thus, one of the main goals of this sector is to promote sustainable economic development.

5.1.2 Women are the primary users of environment, but they lack ownership and even usufruct rights to land. Women's security to use land is jeopardised by harmful cultural practices such as discriminatory marriage customs and inheritance systems, which favour men and dispossess women of land. Even when women have the civil legal right to land, many lack the education, social or economic ability to legally enforce land claims.

Box 5.1 Environmental Policy

*The government has a National Biodiversity Programme which coordinated the development of a **National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan**. This plan includes the creation and rezoning of national parks, the management of protected areas and land use plans for national monuments. In addition, many rural areas have begun community based natural conservancies aimed at economic development of local communities through their own management and utilisation of their natural resources for tourism purposes.*

5.1.3 In 1996 Namibia amended the **Namibian Conservancies Act (1975)** thereby allowing for a progressive policy of community based natural resource management. Namibia currently supports 30 community based conservancies registered with the MAWF, with an additional 40 set to be registered. There is over 4 million hectares of communal land under the control of conservancy management committees. As of 2002, over US\$1.1 million was earned by conservancies; double that of their 2001 earnings. These earnings come from community owned and operated tourism enterprises such as lodges, campsites and craft centres, with 20% of earnings from joint venture lodges with private sector. Many of these enterprises have emphasized women's participation in leadership with women accounting for about 25% of personnel on conservancy management committees; however, the largest of these conservancies, with 32 000 members has the only women as a Conservancy Chair, continuing the trend that although women are members of management teams, their positions are generally lower than those of male members.

Stakeholders in Environmental Sector

5.1.4 The Minister of Environment and Tourism (MET) is responsible for ensuring that women and men utilise the environment in sustainable ways. The Ministry of Lands and Resettlement (MLR) is responsible for ensuring women's and men's equal access to land. The MLR has a resettlement programme for dispossessed Namibians; however, it does not have a gender component, but considers resettlement a household issue. The Ministry Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF) is tasked with ensuring women's equal access to agricultural land and support services. Despite the Food and Agriculture Organization's (FAO) gender initiatives, MAWF still holds gender stereotyped views on women and the environment. A review of one of the ministry's recent quarterly newsletters, revealed that only three pictures featured women selling baskets, doing a cultural dance and behind a desk at a computer. Pictures of 'spokespersons', experts/authorities and farming activities only featured men.

5.1.5 NGOs working towards sustainable utilisation of the environment include the Desert Research Foundation of Namibia, albeit without a specific gender focus. LAC produced a report on land issues, which addressed issues of rights to land also in resettlement projects, but it did not contain a specific analysis on gender and land. The NDP2 also notes that rural women have several income generating activities such as basket making, leatherworking and roof thatching that makes use of the environment, and thus are in a position to make choices about the sustainable utilisation of the environment.

5.1.6 UNDP has been funding community based conservancies, an integrated management of marine resources programme, and biomass and biodiversity programmes, but there has been little specific funding on research, projects or programmes that target gender equity and the environment. UNDP also plans to fund a national capacity self-assessment to examine capacity building to protect the global environment in the thematic areas of biodiversity, climate change and land degradation. UNDP also has an urban environmental programme aimed at improving the environmental living conditions of peri-urban and urban residents. This programme includes training courses aimed at municipal employees in conjunction with

the MRLGH&RD, the National Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and Urban Trust Namibia. However, none of these programmes were found to have an explicit gender component.

5.1.7 USAID has also supported community based natural resource management programmes to ensure that people in communal areas have the same rights to wildlife as those living on privately owned land. The World Bank supports an Integrated Community-Based Ecosystem Management Project, which supports ecosystem processes to conserve biodiversity, and supports women's inclusion in awareness training, and conservancy processes.

5.1.8 FAO has between 2002 and 2004 supported a project which promotes the use of indigenous fruit which particularly targeted women, and aims at both better nutrition and income generation. It is led by the Directorate of Forestry and encourages the participation of small communities and farmers, particularly women, in fruit tree propagation and processing activities.

5.1.9 The International Atomic Energy Agency runs a project in northern Namibia on the sustainable utilisation of aquifers. It is aimed at increasing the local population's access to safe water, improving agricultural production due to better water management, and putting into place measures against over-exploitation and water quality deterioration – without consideration of women as the primary users of rural water supplies. The GTZ supports natural resource management and rural development including programmes addressing land management and land reform, water management, national biodiversity and desertification. In addition environmental programmes such as the Gobabeb Training and Research Centre, Benguela Environmental Fisheries Interaction and Training Programme, advisory services for communal dry forest management, substitution of ozone depleting substances, are supported, however, none of these programmes were found to specifically target gender issues.

5.1.10 The main government counterpart for conservancies is the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, while the main NGO counterpart is Namibian Organisation of Community Based Natural Resource Management Services Organisation. Within this ministry sub-sector, both contacts for community-based organisations are women, while within the sister NGO, all four staff members are women.

Analysis and strategic options

5.1.11 The Namibian government, as well as other stakeholders, have begun to include gender as a dimension of sustainable utilisation of the environment. However, with little or no gender disaggregated data for the environment sector, it is difficult to identify opportunities and challenges within this sector. Funding and initiatives that target women as those who preserve the environment are also lacking.

5.1.12 Community based conservancies and community management of natural resources is a relatively new development, which will require close monitoring and evaluation, with possible law or government policies aimed at ensuring that gender is mainstreamed into this sub-sector, as well as to identify emerging challenges.

5.1.13 The main opportunity identified in the environmental sector the lack of stakeholders working on gender issues, leading to a lack data, without which programmes and interventions cannot begin to target women. Research on cooperatives, conservancies and self-help initiatives needs to be undertaken to produce gender disaggregated data for programme planning and policy formulation. Women lack ownership of productive resources

and need appropriate technology to lighten their work load. Donors and NGOs urgently need to focus on women as users of the environment, if sustainable utilisation is to be achieved. Gender mainstreaming of environmental activities, programmes and policies does not yet happen and needs to be supported.

5.1.14 Programmes and projects in the environment sector should make use of gender sensitization as well as quota for women in decision making.

5.2 HIV/AIDS

5.2.1 AIDS has become the biggest health threat in this century, with many hidden dimensions to the disease. AIDS has increased dramatically from 1 261 cases in 1991 to 14 866 reported new infections in 1999, up from a total of 12 701 in 1998, bringing the total of HIV positive diagnoses to 68 196 by the end of 1999. In 2000, there were a total of 14 691 new cases of HIV reported and 7 522 new cases reported between January and June 2001, bringing the total of cases of HIV reported in Namibia as of June 2001 to 90 409. It is estimated that the rate of transmission of HIV from mother to child is 33%. Among infants, pre-maturity accounts for 50% of all deaths, while AIDS accounts for 1%. As the age of the child increases, so does the likelihood of dying from AIDS, with it being the fourth most common cause of death in children 1-12 months old (16%) and second most common in children 1-4 years old (18%).

5.2.2 Based on the 2004 HIV sentinel survey of pregnant women, Namibia has an overall estimated HIV prevalence rate of 19.8%, down from 22.3% in 2002 for the childbearing population. This is the first recorded decline in overall prevalence rates in Namibia since the beginning of the pandemic. In the most sexually active age groups, of 15 to 34 years old, there has been a levelling off or decline in prevalence rates. Table 5.1 below shows that in the 20-24 year old age group over 18 % and 25.9% in the 25-29 years old pregnant women were found to be HIV positive. AIDS has been the number one cause of death since 1995, accounting for 19% of all deaths in hospitals between 1995 and 25% of deaths for 1999, although this number is probably higher since 10% of deaths were attributed to TB.

Box 5.2 HIV/AIDS Policy

The goals of National HIV/AIDS Draft Policy (2005) include the prevention of HIV, the reduction of HIV vulnerability, the improvement of the provision of treatment, care and support of people living with HIV/AIDS and the mitigation of the socio-economic impact of AIDS on people, families and communities. The policy specifically notes the unequal position of girls and women in society, as well as their greater risk to HIV infection and greater likelihood of being affected by AIDS due to biological, social, cultural and economic factors. The policy recommends a multi-sectoral approach for the national response to HIV/AIDS, and calls for an enabling environment in which government and its partners recognise, respect and protect the rights of people living with HIV/AIDS.

The Guidelines for Anti-Retroviral Therapy (2003) establishes guidelines for the provision of an Anti-Retro Viral (ARV) drugs. NACP has also developed Guidelines for Home Based Care. Although the MoHSS does not provide intensive home based care, it supports services for persons providing such care. It has also produced a Handbook for Home Based Care Providers.

5.2.3 The government has begun dispensing ARVs at most government hospitals nationwide. Some factors affect efficacy of ARV treatment, however. These include the requirement that medication needs to be taken very regularly, after meals, and without stopping when symptoms recede. However, support programmes are in place and initial

reports indicate a decline in mortality rates, with a corresponding increase in health indicators for HIV positive people.

Table 5.1 2004 HIV Prevalence Rates in Pregnant Women

Age group (years)	Negative.	Positive.	Total	Prevalence
13 – 19	677	74	751	9.9%
20 – 24	1 092	251	1 343	18.7%
25 – 29	771	269	1 040	25.9%
30 – 34	536	163	699	23.3%
35 – 39	293	93	386	24.1%
40 – 44	114	14	128	10.9%
45+	20	3	23	13.0%
Overall	3 503	867	4 370	19.8%

Gender and HIV/AIDS

5.2.4 There are differences in HIV and AIDS prevalence rates by sex. In 1999 women accounted for 54% (8 028) of all new cases of HIV infection. Women who die from AIDS are an average of 5-10 years younger than men, and they account for more deaths in the 30-34 year old age group compared to the 35-39 year old group for men. Women are also diagnosed at a younger age than men, given that the median age of HIV diagnosis is 30 years for women and 35 years for men. In addition, young women between the ages of 15-24 have an overall infection rate of 18.8%-20.8%, compared to corresponding estimates for young men of 7.9%-10.4%. The percentage of young women living with HIV is 29% compared to only 8% for young men. Although women are physically more vulnerable to HIV infection, biology alone does not account for the significant sex differential. Gender inequality is a significant co-contributor to the spread of HIV. Consequences of gender inequality and patriarchy, such as gender-based violence, women in poverty and women's lack of access to social and economic resources, place them at particular risk.

5.2.5 Girls are particularly at risk of HIV infection due to their earlier exposure to the disease, usually by older men who exploit girls' and young women's low socio-economic status by having sexual intercourse with them in exchange for small gifts or money. In addition, many girls are exposed to HIV infection by their male cohorts because social norms consider sexual intercourse a necessary part of dating.

5.2.6 Women are more likely than men in Namibia to live in impoverished circumstances and their economic as well as social marginalisation place them in HIV risk-taking situations. For many women, their economic dependence and lack of empowerment mean that they do not have the right to refuse high-risk sexual behaviour or to enforce condom use, even if they know their partners have been unfaithful. Many married women risk HIV infection because they do not have control over their husbands' sexual behaviour and they cannot demand condom use.

Adolescents and HIV/AIDS

5.2.7 The onset of HIV/AIDS and the high incidence of teenage pregnancy indicate that adolescents and youth have unmet sexual and reproductive health needs which require immediate attention. Age specific data for pregnant women and STD patients show that HIV infects 42% of female STD patients aged between 20 and 24 years old. On the other hand, 24

% of male STD patients in the same age group are HIV positive. The figures from MoHSS indicate that HIV prevalence among STD patients is still significantly higher among females than for males under 30 years of age. In general, teenagers in Namibia are aware of HIV and AIDS because it is taught in school as part of sexual health, in addition to the national level campaign concerning the AIDS pandemic. They regard condoms as effective for protection from sexual health risks including HIV infection. The majority of secondary school respondents (86%) in a 2001 study showed positive attitudes toward constant condom use with 59% reporting that they always use condoms when they have sexual intercourse. However, there is a lower level of knowledge among out-of-school teenagers.

Box 5.3 Youth, Gender and HIV/AIDS Policy

The Draft National HIV/AIDS Policy (2005) also makes provision for the protection and care of OVC, defines government policy concerning HIV/AIDS and young people. The policy also states that people should be better protected from adverse with traditional or religious practices that put them, and particularly young girls and women, at risk.

Stakeholders in HIV/AIDS Prevention

5.2.8 The MoHSS, in conjunction with several NGOs, donors and CBOs have formed the National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) which coordinates nationwide efforts to deal with the social and economic consequences of the AIDS pandemic, as well as to educate the general public about preventative measures. NACP has engaged in intensive efforts to distribute condoms free of charge. All hospitals, clinics and other health facilities have condoms available, as well as other distribution points such as small neighbourhood shops and bars and schools. Several information campaigns have been organised by NACP, aimed mainly at sexual behaviour change.

5.2.9 The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting hosts the Namibian HIV & AIDS Media Campaign which collects, produces and disseminates HIV/AIDS information in the form of electronic media reports and written publications. The programme focuses on HIV/AIDS awareness and respect for women as well as focusing on strategic development and communication through its production of posters, radio spots, pamphlets, videos, and youth workshops. The programme plans to produce a gender focused “take-control” multi-media campaign, as well as media training and involvement in HIV/AIDS and gender issues. NGOs, such as Sister Namibia and WAD have also focused on providing education and information about sexual risk taking behaviour.

5.2.10 The MGECW has several programmes aimed at addressing gender and HIV/AIDS issues. Ongoing and planned activities include: (i) training of MGECW staff; (ii) conducting legal literacy programmes about women’s rights; (iii) training youth peer educators in gender and sexual and reproductive health; (iv) conducting meetings on topical issues relating to HIV/AIDS; (v) encouraging employee testing; (vi) mobilising women for income generating activities to avoid the poverty/sex worker trap; (vii) developing guidelines and action plans for HIV/AIDS mainstreaming; and (viii) conducting research on issues relating to gender and HIV/AIDS.

5.2.11 The NGO, *New Start*, runs several voluntary counselling and testing centres throughout the country which also offer HIV counselling. The normal charge for testing is N\$10 (US\$1.60), but the fee can be waived. The government also offers pre- and post-test counselling services at hospitals. Some NGOs offer community-based counselling by social workers and community liaison officers.

5.2.12 The Council of Churches in Namibia, as well as several other faith-based organisations, have been particularly active in care and support for AIDS affected households and individuals. However, most NGOs depend heavily on volunteer workers, who tend to be women, adding an additional burden. The AIDS Care Trust (ACT) works with people living with AIDS by providing counselling and emotional support groups, as well as with income generating projects and gardening projects funded by Namdeb and Hivos. ACT also has a feeding programme for people who are on ARVs. Women Support Women specifically focuses on supporting women affected by HIV/AIDS. Several new organisations of people living positively with HIV have been formed to give support and encouragement to others. *Lironga Eparu* ('Learn to Live') is one such organisation.

5.2.13 The Legal Assistance Centre has an AIDS Law Unit (ALU), whose main objective is the promotion and protection of the rights of people living with HIV/AIDS. ALU has launched the Treatment Action Forum, which aims to improve access to ARVs, through treatment, literacy campaigns, and community mobilisation. ALU participates in research and advocacy against discrimination of people living with HIV/AIDS, as well as people's right to health care, grants and other social services. ALU also assists various government departments, the private sector and NGOs in developing HIV policies for the workplace.

5.2.14 The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS under the UNAIDS Secretariat has the aim of redressing gender inequalities by addressing women's and girls' sexual rights, by educating them, protecting them against gender-based violence, increasing their access to property and inheritance, protecting care givers from exploitation, and removing barriers to their access to medical treatment.

Analysis and strategic options

5.2.15 There have been substantial efforts by government, NGOs, CBOs and donors at mitigating the impact of the HIV pandemic. Although women are disproportionately affected by AIDS, few programmes specifically address gender and AIDS, however. The AIDS pandemic has, moreover, placed children in the eye of the storm as caregivers to sick and dying parents, as orphans, in child-headed households, as the educationally marginalised and as the stigmatised and dispossessed of Namibia. In spite of all the funding women continue to form the basis of voluntary home-based care, as well as caregivers to children orphaned by AIDS, which adds to their already overburdened workload. And even though women carry much of the burden of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, their unequal status in society continues to leave them vulnerable to sexual risk-taking. Condom use is still primarily a man's decision and myths and rumours about women's role in spreading AIDS make the encouragement of effective behaviour change in men difficult.

5.2.16 One of the most important areas identified for gender and the HIV/AIDS sector is the need for more in-depth research to understand social aspects of the pandemic. An adequate understanding of what motivates people to change their sexual behaviour, especially how women can reduce risk-taking is still needed. Claims that girls in child-led households are being sexually exploited by community members, because they have no guardians to protect them, urgently needs to be investigated and measures be put in place to prevent such abuse. Although a decline in rates of HIV infection in pregnant women has been reported, research is needed to determine the exact causes of this decline. Too little research and advocacy is being done in the area of stigmatisation, which needs to be addressed before more people come forward for testing and treatment. It is particularly important to address the stigmatisation of women, given that when they test positive, their husbands or partners often disown them.

5.2.17 The focus of most HIV prevention education is placed on women, but in fact, sexual and reproductive decision making lies largely with men. Therefore there should be more focus on reaching men such as “Men for Social Change” does and more emphasis needs to be placed on boys’ sex education. Men frequently do not use health care facilities, because they do not meet their needs. Prevention messages also need to target messages to specific high-risk populations groups such as sex workers, truck drivers, students, orphans and so on.

5.2.18 Donors do not fund feeding programmes, while food security is a main challenge for people on ARVs. Donors also do not fund the care and support of people living with AIDS, with caregivers being primarily women. Donors should be more responsive to the current milieu of HIV/AIDS and poverty and therefore fund feeding, as well as care and support programmes.

5.2.19 Counselling services for those affected and infected by AIDS, in particular for caregivers and orphans, need to be improved. Grandmothers are the primary caregivers to orphans but they face exploitation and deprivation, as well as serious constraints accessing social benefits through lack of information, illiteracy or lack of documentation. Grandmothers need to be assisted in accessing benefits for orphans under their care. Orphans also need to be empowered through information and education directed at caregivers. The transition into orphan hood should become a process, whereby sick parents register their children and discuss issues of orphan hood with them and their prospective caregivers. Orphans also need to be educated and informed in a manner that is appropriate, and they need to be integrated into income generating activities, so as to reduce dependency on caregivers.

5.3 Governance and Decision-Making

5.3.1 In recent years campaigns, policies and programmes aimed at increasing women's position in political power sharing have taken place. As will be discussed below, the number of women in political positions has increased, although women are far from having 50% representation in higher level decision-making positions.

Women in Government

5.3.2 One area where it was hoped that political status might see a shift was in the area of women's more equitable representation at the various levels of political decision-making. In fact, Namibia is among the few SADC member countries which have almost achieved the 30% representation of women in National Parliament and is nearing 50% representation of women in local government largely due to a legislated 30% quota in local government elections.

5.3.3 Increased numbers of women in positions of power sharing have not always translated into women’s greater ability to push gender issues forward as national concerns, however. A 2004 survey of Local Authority representatives, for example, found that there is no significant difference in male and female candidates’ views and preferences even though women made up almost 50% of all Local Authority Councillors. One of the reasons why women follow the party line more than pursuing gender transformative policies might be partly due to the party list system, which makes candidates even more dependant on their political party than a proportionate representation system would. In addition, local authorities do not congregate as a body but stay in their constituencies – therefore, no critical mass can

be formed.¹¹ Indeed, it is precisely due to the perceived lack of power and low standing of local councillors that parties are prepared to allow more women into these positions. National politics is another matter, and here women's progress has been much slower, quotas are not legislated but are up to political parties, many of whom do not employ them.

5.3.4 The 50/50 campaign in Namibia began in 1999, as part of a global effort aimed at achieving gender equality in political representation. Slogans from the campaign include “50-50 in Government, Get the Balance Right” and “The Hand that Stirs the Pot Can also Run the Country”, implying that if women can run a household, they can run a country. The 50/50 campaign advocates 50% of candidates put forward for elections on party lists be women, presented on 'zebra' style lists which alternate women and men candidates in order to avoid women being placed at the bottom of the list. The campaign aimed at equal representation of women at *all* levels of government in order to create a critical mass, held to enable women to influence and change politics. The 50/50 campaign and its resultant 50/50 Bill was an NGO effort spearheaded by Sister Namibia, in collaboration with stakeholders and the Women's Manifesto Network. The Women's Manifesto was developed in 1999-2000 in collaboration with stakeholders now united in the Namibian Women's Manifesto Network. The 50/50 Bill went before Parliament and was referred to a standing committee for review. Despite intense lobbying efforts and popular support by NGOs and women's groups in Namibia, the standing committee rejected the bill on technical grounds.

5.3.5 In the 2004 Local Authorities elections women won 123 of the 283 seats available countrywide, moving from 41.3% of seats in 1998 to 43.4%. Women form the majority on thirteen councils but one is completely under men's control. However, within local authorities, women are underrepresented as Mayors, but are more adequately represented as Deputy Mayors and Local Authority Councillors. These data indicate that although women have representation at the local level, it is in positions lower than men.

Table 5.2 Local Authorities in 1999 and 2005

	1999		2005	
Women	117	41.3%	123	43.4%
Men	166	58.7%	160	56.6%
Total	283	100%	283	100%

5.3.6 At the regional and national levels with no legislated quota, women progress was less rapid. Only three of the 13 Regional Governors are women, and in National Parliament women make up 27.3%, an increase of 1% from before the 2004 election. However, at independence women made up only 8% of parliamentarians indicating that substantial progress has been made.

Table 5.3 Positions in Government

	Ministers		Deputy Ministers		Permanent Secretary	
	1999	2005	1999	2005	1999	2005
Women	3 (13.0%)	5 (22.7%)	3 (17.6%)	5 (26.3%)	1 (5.0%)	5 (22.7%)
Men	20 (87.0%)	17 (77.3%)	14 (82.4%)	14 (73.7%)	19 (95.0%)	17 (77.3%)
Total	23 (100%)	22 (100%)	17 (100%)	19 (100%)	20 (100%)	22 (100%)

¹¹ Keulder (pers. comm.) contends that Critical Mass Theory could be tested at the local level by comparing policies and programmes instituted by local authorities that have more women than men against similar policies and programmes for local authorities that are primarily composed of men. If Critical Mass Theory were to hold true, those local authorities with more women would thus tend to have more gender sensitive programmes and policies. Others argue that because local authorities do not congregate as a group, critical mass theory cannot be tested at the local level.

5.3.7 The 2005 Cabinet is made up of 24 members (including the Prime Minister and Deputy Prime Minister) of whom six are women, giving women 25% representation. Of these 6 portfolios, only one could be considered a gender-stereotype portfolio (Minister of Gender Equality and Child Welfare). The other women held positions that have traditionally been reserved for men: The Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Justice, Attorney-General, Minister of Finance and the Minister of Home Affairs and Immigration.

Women in Parastatals

5.3.8 Women are severely underrepresented in parastatals with only one of the 12 parastatals in the country having a woman Chief Executive Officer. In the Namibian Defence Force and Special Field Forces there are no women in top management positions, and there is only one woman in a senior position within the Namibian Police Force. Educational institutions in Namibia seem to have a better record for gender equal management in that 34.4% at UNAM, 38.7% at Polytechnic and 48.8% at the College of Education are women in management. At UNAM, overall total administrative staff has almost a 50/50 gender balance. However, men dominate top management positions at all three institutions. Table 5.4 below shows the slow progress of women's representation in the public service, with only an 8% gain from 1998 to 2004.

Table 5.4 Women Management in Public Service

	1998		2002		2004	
Women	89	21%	146	30%	155	29%
Men	339	79%	346	70%	375	71%
Total	428	100%	492	100%	530	100%

Women in Traditional Authorities

5.3.9 In most communal areas in Namibia, traditional authorities such as headmen, chiefs, *indunas* and kings, control land and enforce customary law. They are consulted for various social and customary legal problems that occur in their communities. However, most traditional authorities are men and given that many of Namibian cultures practice patri-local settlement patterns, they are very often related to the men in their communities. Few women traditionally hold positions of political power, although some individual women have political influence through their male relations. Traditional courts are usually constituted by men in positions of power who hear disputes within the community and enforce customary laws.

5.3.10 In many Namibian pre-colonial communities women held positions of authority and their social status was, in many respects, equal to that of men. In traditional African communities individual women had *de facto* social power, exerting pressure on men both as mothers and wives. In addition, in some cultures, such as the Nama and in the Kavango, women were traditional leaders and chiefs. Today, the Nama still have a woman chief. However, the social, political and economic organisation of these cultures was and still is one of male dominance. In many cases the subordination to Western ideals of patriarchy undermined the social positions which women might have had. Many customary laws, whether or not they discriminated against women, were manipulated by colonial authorities and were used to advance colonial government policies. Changes in customary law frequently incorporated Western concepts of patriarchy and discriminated against women. Although

women in most pre-colonial Namibian societies were subject to some form patriarchy, the imposition of Western colonialism further disempowered them.

Stakeholders in Governance

5.3.11 MRLGH&RD runs a candidate training programme for local government election candidates supported by Friedrich Ebert Stiftung. The Ministry also conducts workshops aimed at ensuring that both women and men candidates receive training to develop campaign and leadership skills. MGECW specifically promotes women in the election process. Elected women in the National Assembly, as well as across national and regional levels, have formed a number of groups that promote women in leadership. For example the Elected Women's Caucus, the Namibia Elected Women's Forum, and the National Council for Women in Development in Namibia all work towards promoting women's equal participation in political power sharing.

5.3.12 The Electoral Commission of Namibia (ECN) initiates and oversees all aspects of the electoral process including the registration of voters and political parties, implementing a code of conduct with all political parties, and assuring equality for all political parties. The ECN has a GFP and has been involved in actively targeting groups that have been marginalised from the democratic process, including women. This is done within the Electoral Support Consortium made up of the ECN and several NGOs with funding from international donors, including the governments of the Netherlands and Sweden as well as USAID. Implementing partners include the ECN - which coordinates the overall programme -, Namibian Institute for Democracy; Legal Assistance Centre; and the Institute for Public Policy Research.

5.3.13 Several NGOs are also involved in promoting women's greater participation in decision-making, especially in politics. The Namibian Women's Manifesto Network mobilises women for elections, trains women leaders and holds workshops to raise awareness on women's political and human rights. The network also identified amendments to the Namibian electoral acts (the 50/50 Bill) in order to further a gender balance in politics. The National Society for Human Rights (NSHR) has also been involved in advocating for the 50/50 campaign. Sister Namibia also runs civic and voter education activities focusing on improving gender equality in political participation and the organisation's quarterly magazine - *Sister Namibia* - regularly features women in leadership and highlights the accomplishments of successful women from the public, private and civil sectors. Funding has come mostly from Hivos, Heinrich Boell Foundation and the Netherlands. The Namibian Women's Network (NWN), which consists of eleven rural groups from across Namibia, also provides advocacy, lobbying and voter education. The Namibian Women's Lobby (NWL) aims at empowerment of women in decision-making and capacity building. Women's Action for Development (WAD) works towards women's socio-political empowerment and has formed forty-two Women's Voice committees in seven regions as well as a national Women's Voice committee. These committees are avenues for community outreach as well as for identifying women leaders, including potential women political candidates.

5.3.14 USAID offers funding for gender-related activities through its democracy and human rights fund, such as a workshop on strengthening democracy for women in leadership organised by Women Support Women. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung supports capacity building for elected women and women in management, networking and exchanges for elected women, gender sensitisation of local community leaders, and capacity building for women's wings of political parties and women in business activities. Some of the organisations that have been supported include the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Rights, Community and Social Welfare; Women's Caucus in Parliament; women's wings of political

parties; the Namibia Elected Women's Forum and women in trade unions. In the future, the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung plans to support gender sensitisation of Members of Parliament.

5.3.15 Several NGOs focus on educating and empowering girls as future women in leadership. For example, the NGCO teaches girls alternative lifestyles (rather than being a wife and mother) and informs women and girls about legislation and their rights. These activities are funded by the Open Society for Southern Africa, the Finnish and Swedish Embassies, UNICEF and Forum for African Women Educationalists.

Analysis and strategic options

5.3.16 The Namibian government has shown its commitment for women in positions of decision-making within government; however, major challenges that remain include the fact that the capacity of both men and women with regards to political procedure and decision-making still needs to be built. Women's unequal socio-economic status hinders their decision-making at the community and household level. Without a corresponding increase in economic independence, women cannot hope to challenge male decision-makers at any level.

5.3.17 The 50/50 campaign, which demands gender parity in political decision making, requires positive discrimination such as legislated quota and rules about the placement of women on party lists. A legislated quota in local government elections has, indeed, brought near parity. Quota are important also at higher levels of government to fully enable the democratic and gender sensitive project started at the local level. Yet this has so far been resisted. The critical mass theory hypothesizes that the more women in positions of power, the more they will push for gender-related reforms; however, there has been no research to test assumptions of women in power and decision-making to determine where their allegiance lies. Research on women politicians attitudes and practices towards gender-related law reform, as well as women voters' attitudes to gender equality in politics and decision-making needs to be conducted so as to inform the many programmes that are currently running.

5.3.18 The 50/50 Bill needs to be revised and again presented to Parliament and quota for women at national and regional levels should be legislated. Gender equity goals should also become a reality in parastatals and the private sector, were this is currently not the case. Women in positions of power, within government, NGOs and private sector are in need of skills upgrading in order to make their interventions, also but not only on behalf of gender equality, more effective. At the same time law makers and politicians need to be trained to be more gender sensitive. Traditional authorities need to be trained on gender to help them integrate gender equity concerns in their communities, as well as to examine cultural practices that are not gender sensitive. In addition, women should form their own community level decision-making bodies that can identify unfair gender practices and challenge community level male leadership when necessary.

6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADB INTERVENTIONS

6.1 Past and Ongoing ADB Interventions

6.1.1 ADB assistance to Namibia started after independence when the country, even though classified as an ADB country, was able to benefit from some ADF loans. ADB assistance to Namibia has increased since the Rand Denominated Lending Instrument was introduced in 1997. This facility enables Namibia to take loans in local currency (since the Namibian Dollar is pegged to the South African Rand) thus avoiding foreign exchange shocks. This has made ADB loans more attractive relative to other lending institutions, particularly for

agriculture and infrastructure. The sectoral distribution of Bank operations in Namibia shows that transport (56.83%) and agriculture (17.18%) dominate, with, the social/education (16.38%), power (7.66%), multi-sector (.97%) and water supply and sanitation (.94%) trailing behind.

6.1.2 Completed projects financed by ADB include two Lines of Credit to Agribank which supported emergent/emerging farmers in both the commercial and the communal sub-sectors. In the transport sub-sector a Trans-Caprivi Road Study was financed by TAF resources and the Trans-Khalagadi Road was financed by an ADF loan. The two operations within the education sector consisted of: (i) the *Basic Teacher Education Project*, financed by an ADF loan, which had as its primary objective improving basic education through the construction of two basic teacher education colleges and strengthening the management capacity of the Ministry of Education; and (ii) *Human Resources Development Project*, financed with an ADB loan, which had as its primary goal the construction of an Information and Learning Centre at the University of Namibia. Other interventions included a 400KV Inter-connector in the Power sub-sector (ADB loan), and three TAF grant financed interventions, a Ground Water Investment Study, an Agricultural Resources Study and the Multi-sector Trade Reform Project.

6.1.3 Ongoing projects include: (i) the Tandjieskoppe Green Scheme Irrigation Project, which is an operation to fund irrigation projects for the production of grapes, dates and vegetables with the aim of stimulating social and economic development as well as increasing contribution to the GDP; (ii) a third line of credit to Agribank (iii) the Northern Railway Extension Project; (iv) the Aus-Posh Pinah Road; and v) the Kamanjab-Omakange Road. Ongoing projects come to a total lending value of UA 88 416 million.

6.1.4 ADB strategies in the Draft Country Strategy Paper 2005-2009¹² are based on Namibia's Vision 2030 and NDP2 development objectives. In this context, the Bank's primary development goal is to support agriculture to increase its contribution to GDP and improve household food security. The Bank will also focus on economic development in the area of SME enhancement with a view towards private sector development. Another sector that may be targeted for Bank Group lending is infrastructure development, especially in the roads sub-sector. The Bank's overall lending strategy seeks to compliment current government efforts, impact poverty reduction, and to help diversify the Namibian portfolio by including support for public-private partnerships. In spite of the reservations of GoN to further borrow from the bank for the social sector, the development of human resource capacity – particularly for women, should be taken into account in all sectors. However, the Bank also notes the need for Namibia to enhance land reform to facilitate an effective decentralisation policy. Recognising Namibia's human resource challenges, the Bank has proposed to include capacity building to Namibia into project lending, as well as technical expertise and the use of MIC grants for skills upgrading.

6.2 Gender Analysis of ADB Interventions

6.2.1 Within the agricultural sector projects, the Agribank's lines of credit, were/are intended to also benefit women engaged in crop and livestock production. The first two lines of credit, which have been completed, resulted in 68% of the loan proceeds going to emerging/communal farmers, out of which 42% were women farmers. The Green Scheme Project's credit facility also targets women farmers, and the proposed irrigation scheme is anticipated to create job opportunities largely for women (80%). It is also anticipated that women will save long trips to fetch water, time that can be better spent on productive

¹² Which was delayed in order to coincide with the NDP3 due in 2006.

activities. However, the project design does not address the problem that the financial intermediary for the loan schemes is operating on a commercial basis, requiring securities and collaterals which many small-scale farmers, and women in particular, are not likely to have. Moreover, the irrigation project neglects the fact that the cultivation of cash-crops might increase women's workload as unpaid family labour while at the same time it might decrease their control over subsistence fields and produce/income. No mitigating measures have been put in place to avoid food insecurity. Bank analysis also indicates that within the transport sector women represented about 35% of the workforce on the Northern Railway Extension project, with one of four project managers being a woman. While these figures are encouraging they can still be improved on to meet the SADC goal of 30 % women in decision making.

6.2.2 Recent ADB work in Namibia has indicated the greater recognition of women's inclusion into development projects and programmes. It also emphasized the need to correct historical socio-economic imbalances between the communal and private tenure farming areas, and between urban and rural areas, taking into consideration related gender issues. The ADB report notes that rural women provide more than 90% of the labour for agricultural production, but they are not been adequately incorporated into agricultural planning activities, so that their access to scientific and technological information and facilities is limited. To improve this situation, women should be integrated into a range of socio-economic development activities, and gender concerns should be mainstreamed in all project activities, not just selected components, such as credit.

6.3 Areas for Enhancing Gender Concerns in ADB Interventions

Generic Approaches for Current Portfolio

6.3.1 In Namibia, ADB has shown its commitment to the development of specific sectors; including those that tend to coincide with the sectors identified in this report as having the least gender specific interventions and stakeholders, namely agricultural and infrastructure. Capacity constraints in the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Trade and Industry have been identified as hampering gender mainstreaming issues, as well as Bank activities. The Bank could utilise its technical assistance fund for gender training and skills upgrading for staff that are directly linked to Bank interventions. The Bank could propose to government that staff trained under such programmes become Gender Focal Points in their respective ministries. Further engendering Bank Group projects would be facilitated by Bank support to the government in developing gender specific sector guidelines and/or policies, which to date have fewer gender mainstreaming activities. Given that ADB has a commitment to gender mainstreaming, current projects should set a precedent for the future portfolio by integrating women into project management, and recruiting women professionals as technical experts.

6.3.2 Given that most ADB projects have an HIV/AIDS awareness raising campaign, all ongoing and current Bank operations should include: (i) gender sensitisation for participants and management of projects; (ii) clearly identified targets for women in various employment positions for each sector; and (iii) incentive programmes for service providers or projects that reach targeted goals; and (iv) skills upgrading and training for women in management and non stereotyped positions. In addition, all subsequent proposals for Bank assistance should contain a gender analysis of implication of the project for women and specific goals for addressing previous gender imbalances within the sectors under consideration.

Generic Perspectives for Future Portfolio

6.3.3 Given the Bank's current interest in expanding areas of Namibia economic performance, as well as the growing trends in community based environmental conservation efforts as well as Namibia's ever expanding share of the global tourist market, the Bank should look for investment partners to encourage such community based enterprises, but with gender mandates for gender raining of participants and management as well as clearly defined quota of 50% women's participation at all management levels. The Bank has recently expressed the opinion that it needs to strengthen its activities with regard to the economic framework, particularly within the public-private sector. Therefore, the Bank could focus on facilitating public-private partnerships which also empower women. Opportunities for this a given in the fields of agro-processing, for example.

6.3.4 Stakeholders in Namibia expressed an interest women's greater participation in Black Empowerment Enterprises. This is an area where the Bank could increase its visibility by expanding funding options for Black women's enterprises, particularly in manufacturing. Accompanying studies on market demands could help direct enterprises towards what the market is more likely to absorb. Given stakeholders' expressed interest in expanding markets for women's production, the Bank could assist women's enterprises in providing a market distribution infrastructure also for rural women's products. The Bank's Regional Women in Business Programme should include Namibia in order to raise women's business and entrepreneurship skills. Given that ADB is already in the process of developing a regional Franchising Program that covers Namibia, expansion of activities in entrepreneurship development in Namibia would be desirable.

6.3.5 The Bank could combine its interest in the transport sector with its desire to increase public-private partnerships by financing road upgrading and construction along transport routes. All road projects should keep in mind that men's and women's transport needs might differ, and offer also access to non-motorised intermediate transport.

6.3.6 Given that ADB has a commitment to gender mainstreaming, all future projects should integrate women into project management, and recruit women professionals as technical experts. The use of gender specialists in project design and implementation should also be considered.

Agricultural Sector Interventions

6.3.7 Given the Banks ongoing commitment to Namibia's agricultural sector, contribution within this sector could be enhanced to incorporate gender targets, since at the current rate, the gender status quo is only maintained, but not improved. The Banks ongoing loan scheme should be revised to require 50% of loans to emerging farmers be women, with specific targets for how many of these loans go to female-headed households and possibly older girls running orphan household. All future agricultural projects should include a clearly defined gender component, with enforceable gender targets, in both participation and management. The Banks technical assistance fund should be used for skills upgrading and training, which targets women participants and managers in agricultural projects. Within ministries, this fund could be used to gender sensitise relevant personnel during their standard skills upgrading. In this sector, agricultural extension officers should specifically be targeted for gender sensitisation.

6.3.8 At the same time Bank projects should encourage women's participation in non stereotypical income generating activities (where income also tends to be higher) and women's greater control over productive resources through incentive scheme for women's

participation. Such activities could include livestock production and cooperative crop production scheme with higher cash values. However, increasing women's participation in cash crop production will only increase rural women's workloads unless there is also a corresponding emphasis on the introduction and training for labour saving technologies. For example, millet grinding is a significant expenditure of women and girls time. The introduction of millet grinding mills could afford some women a cash-generating business (those who run the mills) as well as increase the time women have for cash crop production.

6.3.9 Given that one of the Bank's stated goals is to improve household food security, and that women are the primary producers in the subsistence agricultural sub-sector, the volume and value of food produced needs to be increased. There also need for built-in mechanisms for alternative household economic activities that will act as stop-gap measures when crop failure occurs. Creativity in the utilisation of forms of community philanthropy could be utilised where community cooperatives are formed and goods (whether sold or consumed) are shared between members with the expectation that when one has a product of similar value in the future that it too would be shared. ADB could encourage community cooperatives through providing business management training and exchanges of products and skills between up-and-coming cooperatives and well established projects.

6.3.10 Given the fragile nature of the environment and land intensive utilisation for household subsistence crop production, the Bank should endeavour to introduce new technologies, types of seeds/crops and environmentally and gender friendly agricultural methods into the agricultural projects it supports. Gender friendly technologies should be those that have been tested to be able to easily be used by women and researched to ensure that they do not inadvertently lead to an increase in women's work.

Environment Sector Interventions

6.3.11 As a cross-cutting issue, all future Bank operations should recognise women as users of the environment, if sustainable utilisation is to be achieved. There should be gender mainstreaming of environmental activities, programmes and policies into all Bank operations. Given that all ADB projects require an environmental assessment, it is imperative that these interventions be moved beyond a mere assessment and mitigation plan, and include environmental capacity building activities into all project designs, which ensure equal participation of women and men in activities and use curricula that address specific concerns of both women and men.

Infrastructure Sector Interventions

6.3.12 Given that the transport, energy, and water supply and sanitation sub-sectors are areas supported by the Bank, as well as areas where gender issues have been largely ignored, the Bank should ensure that all future operations in this sector have an expressed gender component with target goals not only for women's participation, but also for women in management positions. Insofar as ADB has taken the lead in the Infrastructure Development within NEPAD, there is a need to develop gender sensitive infrastructure projects, particularly in Namibia where gender mainstreaming in the sector is weak.

6.3.13 Women should be trained in technology use such as information technology with computer training courses and taught to drive cars and productive vehicles such as tractors. Bank policies should encourage women to participate in the construction industry for these projects by offering incentives to construction contractors that can demonstrate women's participation at all levels. Women in non-stereotyped positions could then be targeted for skills upgrading as an incentive for companies.

6.3.14 The Bank has demonstrated its interest in the improvement in the water and sanitation sub-sector, given that women are the primary users of water supplies, the Bank should concentrate on water infrastructure supports such as dams building and pipeline provision in areas where research has demonstrate a higher than average number of female-headed households. Given the high number of female-headed households in many of Namibia's growing informal settlements (40% or more of the households) which often lack basic water and sanitation, project interventions that support financially weak local governments and councils in their capacity to deliver services and upgrade informal settlements, will benefit many women and contribute to the improvement of their and their children's standard of living and health status.

6.3.15 The Bank has already had a substantial outlay of funds for the trans-Kalahari and trans-Caprivi corridors to enhance trade, the Bank should look at goods exchange programmes that encourage women entrepreneurs to utilise these routes to bring goods they produce to sell in other regions of the country or in other countries within the SADC sub-region.

6.3.16 Future Bank labour-based construction should ensure women's and men's equal participation regardless of payment for work preformed. Previous studies have shown (and this report has earlier documented) the tendency for women to be over-represented when there is no accompanying remuneration for work preformed and to be under-represented when there is cash remuneration involved. For example, labourers for remuneration for the Northern Railway Extension Project only had 35% women representation, indicating that women were less likely than men to economically benefit from the project. This was the only construction project where data were disaggregated by gender.

Social Sector Interventions

6.3.17 Even though the Social Sector has not been prioritised in the 2005-2009 ADB country strategy, interventions in the social sector remain important in order to maintain and improve the human resource base and strengthen the ability of the country to increase women's participation in social, economic and political spheres. This profile clearly pointed to gaps in the social sectors that need to be addressed urgently. In the education sector teenage pregnancies and the concomitant dropping out of school of young mothers has been identified by stakeholders as one of the greatest challenges to girl's educational attainment. On the other hand the profile also has revealed that in the Health Sector provision of relevant and appropriate sexual and reproductive health services to adolescents also remains one the greatest challenges.

6.3.18 Project interventions that create alternative education opportunities for girls who have dropped out of school due to pregnancy together with interventions that improve adolescent's access to contraception and information on the dangers of sexual activity would be able to address the gaps in two sectors, contribute towards combating the spread of HIV/AIDS and as pointed out could also be seen as a chance for greater involvement of men in reproductive health decision making.

6.3.19 The other important issue emerging from the profile is the plight of children and particularly girls in child-led households. Given that the number of such households is on the increase it is imperative that their members are provided with all possible opportunities to lead fully productive lives. Without such measures economic growth is going to be slowed due to human resource constraints. The concerns of the members of child headed households need to be addressed in future project interventions.

6.3.20 The profile has clearly indicated that the capacity of GoN to mainstream gender issues is weak and needs strengthening. MGECW is overburdened with work since its members are not just coordinating gender mainstreaming activities but also are expected by other ministries to organise their gender mainstreaming activities. This would suggest that the understanding of the concept of gender mainstreaming is weak in many ministries and that the capacity to implement gender mainstreaming activities is even weaker. However, without the capacity to effectively mainstream gender activities in all ministries, gender equity is not likely to move forward. Therefore all the activities and project interventions suggested above are dependent on an efficiently functioning National Gender Machinery. This can be achieved by supporting gender focal points in the ministries where projects are located, by making gender experts part of project implementation units.

6.3.21 Lastly, the Bank should use its mandate for country dialogue to also address issues important for reaching gender equity and Millennium Development Goals. The reform of laws that are discriminatory and contravene the constitution and impede other already gender sensitive legislation, the need for women's equal representation in decision-making all need to be addressed with the government. Country strategies should reflect the challenges pointed out in this profile, and participatory stakeholder workshops, good in themselves, should always include representatives of women's organisations, the MGECW, and gender focal points in ministries.

7 GENERIC PROBLEMS IN GENDER MAINSTREAMING

7.1 As one of the last countries to gain independence on the African continent Namibia has made great strides in development, and particularly with regard to gender equity. The Namibian constitution, when it was adopted in 1990, was one of the most gender sensitive constitutions on the continent, due to the commitment of the government and other stakeholders, such as women's organisations. This report acknowledges the success but also points to the challenges that still remain. Gaps, of course, once they have been identified provide opportunities of closing them and thereby improving the quality of life of all Namibians.

Human resource Constraints

7.2 Due to the short time Namibia has been independent, its colonial history of not empowering African and coloured populations, and its small population, there is a general lack of human resource capacity, importantly for this report in the area of gender mainstreaming and gender disaggregated statistical data compilation. The need for capacity building through partnerships for skills transfer would be a value added benefit for Namibian development. Lack of capacity also limits the effectiveness of Gender Focal Points (GFPs) within ministries, because they often have had little gender training, which was obtained through short sporadic workshops. High staff turn over exacerbates the capacity constraints. The functioning of GFPs, even of those who have adequate training, is further inhibited because they get little support from their ministries; have not enough clout in the organisation to influence decision-making, lack time and resources and meet with a lack of understanding in colleagues. With very few exceptions Ministries also have not formulated own gender mainstreaming strategies which would help GFPs to justify their activities and claim budgetary allocations. Effective communications channels, such as a functioning Gender Management System which brings gender stakeholders together with senior management is necessary to create synergies, commitment and clout.

7.3 A core problem of gender mainstreaming is thus the inadequate understanding of the concept itself within the present Namibian socio-cultural environment. Some NGOs confuse gender/women specific programming with gender mainstreaming, while some ministries lump gender and HIV/AIDS together, sending out confusing messages. Cultural and social attitudes still hinder gender equality goals. Although education and information can help to alleviate this situation, social attitudes change slowly. The MGECW faces some of the same attitudinal problems as other stakeholders, in that some ministry personnel are resistant to gender equality, while others feel that it is the MGECW's responsibility to handle all gender-related issues and problems. Some see no point in having a MGECW if they are also required to mainstream gender into their own policies and programmes, thus overburdening the ministry personnel, who should coordinate only rather than implement.

7.4 Prevailing negative attitudes would suggest that there is still need for gender training of government officials, particularly men, who need to understand that gender mainstreaming also incorporates the interests of men. A national training manual on gender issues could be developed and advocacy campaigns could be attached to pre-existing information campaigns as well as develop new gender specific information strategies. It is also important to note that gender training must be a continuous activity, which seeks to refresh the knowledge of those already trained and carefully targets the newly appointed who might have no capacity.

Knowledge Gaps

7.5 There is a lack of knowledge about many aspects of gender that constrain effective interventions. Knowledge gaps need to be closed by research in several areas. They include overall gender-disaggregated data, the living standards of members or male and female headed households, the legal system, teenage pregnancy, the social dimensions of HIV/AIDS, gender differentiated access to infrastructure.

Funding Constraints

7.6 Donors prefer to fund gender within particular fields rather than gender on its own. This places gender issues at risk of being 'evaporated'. While the expectation is that gender is mainstreamed into all programmes, this often is not the case, because there is a serious misinterpretation of what 'gender mainstreaming' means. In effect gender mainstreaming still means that organisations take a 'gender blind' approach. Gender mainstreaming activities such as gender budgeting, as well as the capacity constraints of the NGM often do not attract funding and are neglected.

7.7 Many bi-lateral donors prefer to fund short-term projects, rather than providing long-term core funding. This has caused several NGOs working in the area of gender to close or be vulnerable to closure as well as causing a multitude of other problems. Many bi-lateral donors have left Namibia, due to its middle income country status, or they do not have specific funds for 'stand alone' gender projects, since they embrace gender mainstreaming. This leads to a lack of core funding which would take care of administrative costs and salaries and would enable NGOs to engage in long-term planning. There is also a danger that competition for funds determines the areas NGO's work in, which might lead to crowding in certain areas perceived to be 'popular' amongst donors and leaving out areas and sector where there are gaps and needs. Agriculture and infrastructure might well be such neglected sectors. Gender mainstreaming projects in these sectors might stimulate also NGO activities and funding.

7.8 Donors feel that Namibians should be able to become self-sufficient (sustainable) within 5 years of the inception of a programme. However, many gender areas are not self-

sustaining because the benefits offered to the public cannot easily be charged out to a particular person. In addition, the benefactors of most gender-related initiatives such as research, education, advocacy and law reform are poor people who could not afford to pay directly for services.

7.9 Community Based Organizations (CBOs) do not have access to donor funding because they cannot meet donor requirements and therefore they cannot apply for donor funds. Some of the obstacles are: (i) forms are often only available on-line or in the urban areas so CBOs do not have access to the forms; (ii) illiteracy because CBOs cannot adequately complete forms and comply with donors' criteria; and (iii) donors do not often fund grassroots level projects.

7.10 With the exception of UNAM, parastatal organisations do not appear to engage GFP leading to little or no gender mainstreaming activities. Some parastatals assume that line ministries' GFPs are responsible for gender mainstreaming in their organisations, but GFPs within line ministries do not have the resources for such activities.

Implementation Challenges

7.11 Although Namibia has a National Gender Policy (NGP) (1997) and a National Gender Programme of Action (NGPA) (1998), these have largely remained on paper and the provisions are often ignored in decision-making and policy and programme formulation. No mechanism/organisation ensures that the NGPA is implemented and the Plan of Action is out of date, has been judged as being too broad and vague, and, more importantly has lacked the indicators for assessing progress. The more precise National Gender Mainstreaming Programme (2003) which presents indicators, timeframes and assigns responsibilities, still is not systematically monitored. Furthermore, the Gender Commission which had been provided for in the NGP to monitor progress towards its implementation, has never been constituted and various gender mainstreaming taskforces/management systems which were meant to bring stakeholders and senior management together and could take over monitoring tasks are not functioning either. NGO's, on the other hand, lack an all embracing umbrella organisation which could facilitate monitoring as well as implementation. Coordination of NGOs activities is therefore weak, leading to duplication and limiting the efforts of the MGEWC since its members have to maintain bi-lateral communication with all individual NGOs. It is, in fact, this lack of overview, which initiated this report.

7.12 The report points to gaps in sector policy implementation and funding, but the gaps that were pointed out can turn into opportunities if line ministries, donors, NGOs and communities are willing to mainstream gender. One way of raising both awareness and ensure adequate data collection is support to gender budgeting. This activity has thus far not yielded much success but it is a most effective tool in gender mainstreaming and should therefore be driven forward. If organised as in Tanzania, for example, gender budgeting can facilitate the cooperation between NGOs and line ministries, between citizens and Ministries of Finance and potentially in can influence macro-economic planning to be more gender sensitive. Once this happens the rest is easier.

ANNEXES

REFERENCES

- African Development Bank (ADB). 2005. *Namibia: Multi-Sector Country Gender Profile Terms of Reference*. ADB: Tunisia.
- African Development Bank (ADB). 2004. *Namibia: Tandjieskoppe Green Scheme Project Appraisal Report*. ADB: Tunisia.
- Becker, Heike. 1993. *Namibian Women's Movement 1988 to 1992*. ISSA Wissenschaftliche Reihe: Germany.
- Cleaver, Tessa and Marion Wallace. 1990. *Namibia Women in War*. Zed Books Ltd: England.
- Central Statistics Office (CSO). 2001. *Levels of Living Survey 1999: Mini Report*. NPC/CSO: Windhoek.
- Department of Women Affairs (DWA). 1999. *Namibia National Progress Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action*. DWA: Windhoek.
- Department of Women Affairs (DWA). 1998. *National Gender Plan of Action (1998 – 2003)*. DWA: Windhoek.
- Department of Women Affairs (DWA). 1997. *National Gender Policy*. DWA: Windhoek.
- Department of Women Affairs (DWA). 1995. *Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW): First Country Report Republic of Namibia*. DWA: Windhoek.
- Department of Women Affairs (DWA). 1994. *Namibia National Report to the 4th World Conference on Women*. DWA: Windhoek.
- el Obeid, Selma, John Mendelsohn, Marc Lejars, Norbert Forster and Gerard Brule. 2001. *Health in Namibia – Progress and Challenges*. RAISON: Windhoek.
- FinMark Trust. 2003. *Access to Financial Services in Namibia*. FinMark Trust Research Paper No.3. FinMark Trust: Johannesburg.
- Fjeldstad, Odd-Helge and Gisela Geisler. 2005. *Local Governance, Urban Poverty and Service Delivery in Namibia*. Chr. Michelsen Institute and SSD, UNAM (forthcoming)
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). 1997. *Gender and Participation in Agricultural development Planning: Lessons from Namibia*. FAO: Rome.
- Geisler, Gisela. 2004. *Women and the Remaking of Politics in Southern Africa*. Nordiska Afrikanstitutet: Sweden.
- Godana, T. and N. Kalili. 2002. *Study to Cost School Development Fund Exemption for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children*. NEPRU/UNICEF: Windhoek.
- Government of the Republic of Namibia (GoN). 2005. *National HIV/AIDS Policy: DRAFT*. GoN: Windhoek.
- Government of the Republic of Namibia (GoN). 2004. *Costing the Government of the Republic of Namibia Education for All (EFA) National Plan of Action 2001-2015*. UNESCO/UNDP/UNICEF/UNFPA: Windhoek.
- Government of the Republic of Namibia (GoN). 2003a. *Medium Term Expenditure Framework, 2003/04 – 2005/06*. GoN: Windhoek.
- Government of the Republic of Namibia (GoN). 2003b. *Three-Year Rolling Development Budget for the Financial Years 2003/2004 – 2005/2006*. GoN: Windhoek.
- Government of the Republic of Namibia (GoN), Gender-related Law Reforms
- 2003 Maintenance Act (No. 9 of 2003).
 - 2003 Electoral Amendment Act (No. 7 of 2003).
 - 2003 Combating of Domestic Violence Act (No. 4 of 2003).
 - 2001 Education Act (No. 16 of 2001).
 - 2000 Combating of Rape Act (No. 8 of 2000).
 - 1998 Affirmative Action (Employment) Act (No. 29 of 1998).

1996 Married Persons Equality Act (No. 1 of 1996).
1990 The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia.

Harring, Sidney and Willem Odendaal. 2002. *"One day we will all be equal...": A Socio-Legal Perspective on the Namibian Land Reform and Resettlement Process*. LAC: Windhoek.

Hishongwa, Ndeutala. 1992. *The Contract Labour System and its Effects on Family and Social Life in Namibia*. Gamsberg Macmillan: Windhoek.

Hopwood, Graham. 2004. *Guide to Namibian Politics*. NID/IPPR: Windhoek.

Hubbard, Dianne. 2004. *Gender and Legal Issues: the Next five Years (2005-2010)*. Unpublished paper.

Hubbard, Dianne. 2000. *Proposals for Divorce Law Reform in Namibia*. LAC: Windhoek.

Iiping, Eunice and Debie LeBeau. 2005. *Beyond Inequalities 2005: Women in Namibia*. 2nd ed. SARDC/UNAM: Windhoek.

Iiping, Eunice and Debie LeBeau. 1997. *Beyond Inequalities: Women in Namibia*. SARDC/UNAM: Windhoek.

Iiping, Eunice, Debie LeBeau and Andrew Niikondo. 2003. *Capacity Building Needs Assessment for a National Gender Machinery: Namibia Report*. DRAFT. GTRP/MWACW: Windhoek.

Iiping, Eunice and Martha Mwangi. 2001. *The Status of Women in Politics and Decision-making in SADC Countries: Namibia*. GTRP/UNAM: Windhoek.

Institute for Public Policy Research (IPPR). 2002. "Gender and Politics in Namibia Survey". Unpublished data.

Katjavivi, Peter. 1988. *A History of Resistance in Namibia*. UNESCO: Paris.

Keulder, Christiaan. 2003. *Gender and Political Participation*. IPPR: Windhoek.

Keulder, Christiaan and I. Soiri. 2004. *Local Authority Representation in Namibia: Results of the 2004 Representatives Survey*. IPPR: Windhoek.

Khaxas, Elizabeth and Liz Frank. 2003. "Promoting Women's Participation in Politics and Law Reform by Collectively Developing Specific Demands for Affirmative Action Legislation with regard to Elections at all Three Levels of Government". Sister Namibia: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie 2005. *An Investigation into Namibian Ex-fighters Fifteen Years after Independence*. DRAFT. PEACE: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie. 2004. *Structural Conditions for the Progression of the HIV/AIDS Pandemic in Namibia*. Pollination Publishers/UNAM: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie. 1992. *Phase I of Educationally Marginalised Children's Project: Baseline Desk Study*. NISER: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie, Tom Fox, Heike Becker and Pempelani Mufune. 1999. *Taking Risk, Taking Responsibility: An Anthropological Assessment of Health Care and Risk Behaviour in Northern Namibia*. MoHSS/Francaise Cooperation: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie and Eunice Iiping. 2003. "Towards the Development of Time-Bound Programmes for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Namibia". DRAFT. ILO: Geneva.

LeBeau, Debie, Eunice Iiping and Michael Conteh. 2004. *Women's Property and Inheritance Rights in Namibia*. Pollination Publishers/UNAM: Windhoek.

LeBeau, Debie and Christa Schier. 2003. "Gender Disaggregated Work in Rural Northern Namibia". DRAFT. MAWRD: Windhoek.

- Legal Assistance Centre (LAC). 2004. "Summary: Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003". LAC: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development (MAWRD is now MAWF). 2004. *Agriview*. MAWRD: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development (MAWRD is now MAWF). 1995. "National Agricultural Policy ". GoN/MAWRD: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Basic Education Sport and Culture (MBESC is now MoE). 2005. *EMIS: Education Statistics 2002*. MBESC: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Basic Education Sport and Culture (MBESC in now MoE). 2003. *National Policy on HIV and AIDS for the Education Sector*. MBESC: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Basic Education Sport and Culture (MBESC is now MoE). 2002. *The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Education in Namibia*. MBESC: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Basic Education Sport and Culture (MBESC is now MoE). 2000. *National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalised Children*. MBESC: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET). 2004. Review & Mainstreaming of Gender, HIV/AIDS, Environment and Sustainable Development into the Namibian Poverty Reduction Action Programme (NPRAP) for Namibia. GoN: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (MGECW). 2005. Official records on Political Officer Bearers. MGECW: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS). 2005. Media Release: 2004 HIV/AIDS Sentinel Sero Survey Results. DRAFT. MoHSS/GoN: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS). 2004. *The National Strategic Plan on HIV/AIDS: Third Medium Term Plan: 2004-2009*. MoHSS/GoN: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS). 2001a. *Namibia Demographic and Health Survey 2000*. MoHSS/GoN: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Labour (MoL is now MoLSW). 2004. *The Namibia Informal Sector Survey 2001*. GoN/MoL: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Labour (MoL is now MoLSW). 2002. *The Namibia Labour Force Survey 2000*. GoN/MoL: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Labour (MoL is now MoLSW). 2000. *Namibia Child Activities Survey, 1999*. GoN/MoL: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Regional and Local Government and Housing and Rural Development (MRLGH&RD). 2005. Official Records 2005. MRLGHRD: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare (MWACW). National Gender Mainstreaming Programme. 2003. GoN: Windhoek.
- Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare (MWACW). *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)*. Second and third country report. MWACW/GoN: Windhoek.
- _____. 2004. "Women Presence Up in New RC". 9 December.
- _____. 2004. "Women main poll losers". 24 November.
- Namibian Men For Change (NAMEC). n.d. *The Constitution*. NAMEC: Windhoek.
- Namibian National Women's Organisation (NANAWO). 1993. *Constitution of the Namibian National Women's Organisation*. NANAWO: Windhoek.

- Namibian Women's Manifesto Network. 2003. "50-50: Women and men in Local Government – Get the Balance Right!". Pamphlet. Sister Namibia: Windhoek.
- National Assembly. 2003. Minutes and proceedings of the National Assembly. National Assembly: Windhoek.
- National Food Security and Nutrition Council (NFSNC). 1995. *National Food Security and Nutrition Action Plan*. NFSNC: Windhoek.
- National Planning Commission (NPC). 2003. *2001 Population and Housing Census*. Central Bureau of Statistics: Windhoek.
- National Planning Commission (NPC). 2001. *Second National Development Plan (NDP2): 2001/2002 - 2005/2006*. Vol 1-3. NPC/GoN: Windhoek.
- New Era*. 2004. "Women Overlooked" & "Opposition to Sue ECN". 25 November.
- Niikondo, Andrew. 2001. "Critically Examine Change Management Strategies and Organizational Transformation in your Own Organization". Unpublished internship report for Masters of Public Administration.
- Office of the President. 2003. *Namibia Vision 2030: Policy Framework for Long-term National Development*. Office of the President: Windhoek.
- Office of the President. 2004. *Namibia 2004: Millennium Development Goals*. Office of the President: Windhoek.
- Public Service Commission (PSC). 2004. Annual Report 2003–2004. PSC: Windhoek.
- Social Impact Assessment and Policy Analysis Corporation (SIAPAC). 1999. *Food Security and Nutrition Assessment Report - 1999*. SIAPAC/GoN: Windhoek.
- Somach, Susan D., Debie LeBeau and Jerome Mindes. 2004. "Gender Mainstreaming and Disability Sensitization In Civic and Voter Education In Namibia". USAID: Washington.
- Stark, Agneta and Stefan de Vylder. 1998. *Mainstreaming Gender in Namibia's National Budget*. SIDA: Stockholm.
- Steinitz, Lucy. 2003. "When Spider Webs Unite: The Work of Volunteers in Providing Home Based Care in Namibia". DRAFT. CCN: Windhoek.
- Tadria, Hilda. 2003. *Request for Gender Mainstreaming into Namibia Policies and Programmes*. DRAFT. UN/MWACW: Windhoek.
- Tapscott, Chris and Dianne Hubbard. 1991. *Country Gender Analysis: Namibia*. SIDA: Windhoek.
- United Nation Joint Programme on HIV/AIDS, (UNAIDS). 2004. Facing the Future Together: Report of the Secretary General's Task Force on Women, Girls and HIV/AIDS in Southern Africa. UNAIDS: Johannesburg.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2004. *UNDP Corporate Gender Strategy and Action Plan*. UNDP: New York.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2003. *Human Development Report 2003*. UNDP: Oxford.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2001. *Namibian Human Development Report 2000/2001: Gender and Violence*. UNDP: Windhoek.
- United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). 2005. "Namibia: Sexual and Reproductive Health Newsletter". Vol. 2, No. 1-2. UNFPA: Windhoek.
- University of Namibia (UNAM). 2003. "Annual Report 2002". UNAM: Windhoek.

Wieringa, Saskia and Immaculate Mogotsi. 2002. "Women's advancement in Namibia – the concept of empowerment revisited" In *Namibia Society Sociology*, Winterfeldt, Volker, Tom Fox and Pempelani. Mufune (eds). University of Namibia Press: Windhoek.

Women's Action for Development (WAD) 2002. WAD Regional Women's Voices Speak Out! WAD Annual Conference opening paper. 20 November 2002.

Women's Action for Development (WAD). n.d. Introduction to the Programmes of "Women's Action for Development (WAD)". WAD: Windhoek.

Yamakawa, Sayumi. 2001. "Adolescent Sexuality in Namibia: An Analysis of Sexual Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices among Secondary School learners in Katutura". Unpublished Master's thesis. UNAM: Windhoek.

MAP OF NAMIBIA



12 (Source: SARDC 1997:12)

DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS FOR NAMIBIA¹³

Government

Capital:	Windhoek
Administrative Division:	13 regions
Independence:	21 March 1990 (from South African mandate)
Legal Systems:	Based on Roman-Dutch law and 1990 Constitution
Constitution:	Ratified 9 February 1990; effective 21 March 1990
Suffrage:	Universally 18 years of age

Executive Branch

Chief of State:	President Hifikepunye Pohamba (since 21 March 2005)
Government Head:	Prime Minister Nahas Angula (since 21 March 2005)
Cabinet:	Appointed by the President from members of the National Assembly

Legislative Branch

Bicameral Legislature:	National Council (26 seats; two members chosen from each regional council to six-year terms) National Assembly (72 seats; members elected by popular vote to five-year terms)
-------------------------------	--

Judicial Branch:	Supreme Court (judges appointed by the President on the recommendation of the Judicial Service Commission)
-------------------------	--

Geography

Location:	Southern Africa, on the South Atlantic Ocean, between Angola and South Africa
Area:	825 418 sq km
Total Land Boundaries:	3 936 km
Border Countries:	Angola 1 376 km; Botswana 1 360 km; South Africa 967 km; Zambia 233 km
Arable Land:	0.99%
Irrigated Land:	70 sq km (1998 est.)
Environment:	Arid with very limited natural fresh water resources, desertification and land degradation

Social Structure

Population:	1 927 447 <i>note:</i> UNDP estimates accounting for the effects of AIDS (July 2003 est.)
--------------------	---

Age Structure

0-14 years:	42.5% (female 404 346; male 414 559)
15-64 years:	54% (female 522 549; male 517 469)
65 years and over:	3.5% (female 38 486; male 30 038) (2003 est.)

Growth Rate:	1.49% (2003 est.)
Birth Rate:	34.1 births/1 000 population (2003 est.)

¹³ Statistics in this section come from published documents such as UNDP, NDP2, DHS and Census data, which often have differing figures. Every effort has been made to corroborate and harmonize data. The Bank takes no responsibility for variations in data from published sources.

Death Rate:	19.17 deaths/1 000 population (2003 est.)
Infant Mortality Rate	68.44 deaths/1 000 live births
Life Expectancy at Birth	42.77 years
Total Fertility Rate:	4.71 children born/woman (2003 est.)
HIV/AIDS:	Adult prevalence rate – 19.8% (2004 est.)
HIV/AIDS:	People living with HIV/AIDS – 210 000 - 250 000 (2003 est.)
Main Languages:	48.5% Oshiwambo; 11.5% Nama/Damara; 11.4% Afrikaans; 9.7% Kavango groups; 7.9% Otjiherero; 5% Caprivian groups; 1.2% Bushmen groups; Tswana 0.3%; German 1.1%; English 1.9%
Religion:	Christian 80-90% (Lutheran 50%); Indigenous beliefs 10-20%
Literacy:¹⁴	
Total population:	84%
Female:	83.7%
Male:	84.4% (2003 est.)
Household Characteristics	
Household Heads:	Female 45%; Male 55%
Safe Water:	87%
No Toilet Facility:	54%
Electricity for Lighting:	32%
Access to Radio:	80%
Wood/Charcoal Cooking:	62%
Main Sources of Income	
Farming:	28%
Wages & Salaries:	41%
Cash Remittances:	6%
Business:	9%
Pension:	11%
HDI:	62.7% – Ranking 114 out of 175
HPI:	37.8% - Ranked 62 out of 175
GDI:	.63 – Ranked 100 out of 175
Gini Coefficient:	.71 – Ranked the highest in world (2005)
Economics	
Purchasing Power Parity:	\$13.15 billion (2002 est.)
Real Growth Rate:	2.3% (2002 est.)
Per capita:	Purchasing power parity - \$6 900 (2002 est.)
GDP Composition:	Agriculture 11%; Industry 28%; Services 61% (2001 est.)
Population Below Poverty line:	50% (2002 est.)
Inflation Rate (consumer prices):	8% (2001)
Labour Force Occupation:	Agriculture 47%; Industry 20%; Services 33% (1999 est.)
Industries:	Meatpacking; Fish processing; Dairy products; Mining

¹⁴ Literacy is defined as those age 15+ who can read and write.

NDP2 GENDER SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Legal Sector

In an effort to ensure the equality of women and men before the law, as well as protect their basic human rights, the legal sector is tasked by NDP2 to:

1. reconcile existing customary laws and practices within the provisions of the Constitution requiring equality before the law;
2. ensure that Constitutional principles of equality of human rights prevail where there are conflicts between customary and civil law;
3. implement international conventions to which Namibia is a signature;
4. monitor the implementation of domestic gender-related laws; and
5. draft and pass laws on property and inheritance that harmonise existing racially based provisions in customary and civil law; and as a matter of urgency, law reform relating to divorce.

Economic Sector

In an effort to promote economic equality and women's economic independence, NDP2 has tasked all relevant sectors to:

1. improve women's awareness and participation in commercial economic undertakings and encourage the maximum utilisation of raw materials;
2. increase women's participation in industrial activities and skills, while fostering the development of domestic technologies;
3. promote agriculturally based industries for women in the rural areas;
4. increase women's migration into management positions;
5. promote women's involvement in community level sustainable development by having women involved in decision-making within rural cooperatives;
6. promote women's equal access to and control over resources, including access to and control over land; and
7. increase women's participation in economic planning, policy formation, inclusion in financial bodies and as members of boards.

Agriculture Sector

In an effort to promote equality and reduce women's workload, the NDP2 indicates that the agricultural sector is tasked to (i) increase women's overall access to land and labour reducing technologies, as well as (ii) increase women's participation in agricultural decision-making.

Specifically, women within the agricultural sector should have improved access to and control over resources, including access to and control over land. In addition, the agricultural sector is tasked to promote agriculturally based industries for women in the rural areas.

Given that a significant proportion of the agricultural workload falls to women and girls, the agricultural sector is tasked to promote the development and use of efficient and environmentally friendly technologies to reduce labour-intensive agricultural and domestic work loads, enhance women's confidence with and increase the number of women using these new technologies so that they have more time to participate in leisure activities.

The high rate of increase and prospects for economic growth within certain segments of the agricultural sector implies that there should be a promotion of women's involvement in community level sustainable development by having women in decision-making positions within rural cooperatives and conservancies.

Education Sector

To ensure the development and maintenance of a gender balance in education and training, NDP2 tasks this sector:

1. review all educational materials to eliminate gender stereotypes; develop materials for teachers to raise gender awareness in order to provide gender-sensitive teaching;
2. address the problem of high dropout and low participation rates for female learners through community and parents' support with programmes such as flexible school schedules, access programmes for out of school girls;
3. promote research and documentation of formal and informal school enrolments and disaggregate data by gender;
4. ensure appropriate education and training for girls, especially those with special needs and disabilities; focus on the enrolment of OVC in ECD programmes, especially in light of the AIDS pandemic which will place progressively heavier burdens on women and girls;
5. increase the enrolment of girls in the sciences, math and technical training subjects;
6. improve equal access to secondary and higher education, including vocational, technical and environmental education;
7. target girls for training in environmental education including sustainable agricultural practices, rural development, environmental management and alternative energy uses;
8. prioritise education to promote women in management positions and decision-making roles; improve awareness of family planning, sex education and responsible parenthood;
9. improve the career structures for women in the educational and human resource management professions; and
10. address the growing problem of sexual exploitation of female learners by male teachers, especially when pregnancy of the learner results.

Health Sector

Health Care Sector Objectives for Gender

To ensure the good mental and physical health of women and their children, the NDP2 indicates that the health sector is generally tasked with (i) improving women and children's overall health, (ii) reducing mortality and morbidity rates, (iii) increasing condom use, and (iv) improving access and quality of health care services.

Specifically, this sector is tasked to improve the health and nutritional status of women and strength women's decision-making roles in health and nutrition within the family. As a measure of women's health this sector is tasked to reduce total fertility and maternal mortality rates through improvements in women's education and access to family planning, as well as to reduce infant mortality rates.

There is an urgent need to reduce the spread of HIV and STD infections through education and encouraging behaviour change in men, as well as addressing barriers that inhibit female initiation of condom use and improve awareness and distribution of female condoms.

Regarding the link between family planning and sustainable development, equality in access to reproductive health care services for women and men needs to be ensured, as well as to encourage boys' and men's participation in childcare and education.

In an effort to improve service delivery, the health sector should increase accessibility of women and girls to health facilities and improve nursing services through human resource development. In an effort to give equal access to health care employment, the health sector should expand career structures for women and promote gender sensitisation training for health workers and health educators.

Infrastructure Sector

In an effort to improve women's access to information sources, the communication sub-sector sector is tasked by NDP2 to:

1. conduct national Knowledge Attitudes and Practices (KAPs) surveys on the social and economic status and role of women in the political, social and economic process of nation building;
2. carry out gender sensitive research on women's issues, activities, policies and strategies to identify best practices for achieving gender equality and equity;
3. advise regional and local authorities on capacity building of staff through monitoring and evaluating community development programmes;
4. carry out awareness raising activities about gender and development through radio, television and other mass media sources; and
5. conduct research in an effort to target communities with appropriate advocacy materials.

The Environment

In an effort to promote national sustainable and gender equitable development, NDP2 tasks the relevant stakeholders to:

1. increase women's participation in decision making in relation to environmental management;
2. improve women's capacity to manage and protect bio-diversity;
3. identify and develop alternative sources and technologies of energy and water use and building materials for use by women to promote sustainable use of environmental sources;
4. promote women's participation and decision making in regional and community bodies (such as conservancies, water and development committees) concerning the utilisation of natural resources;
5. increase women's awareness in the link between family planning, sustainable development and the environment;
6. empower women as producers, consumers, and caretakers of the environment;
7. reduce women's risks to environmental hazards in their homes, work and communities; improve women's career structures in the environmental, mining, energy, and water sector professions;
8. improve gender disaggregated analysis in environmental assessments and research;
9. promote women's sustainable utilisation of natural resources for economic gain; and
10. promote women's indigenous knowledge of the environment to help develop sustainable ecological management programmes and introduce legislation to protect intellectual property rights to ensure that women's indigenous knowledge is not exploited.

Governance and Decision-Making

In an effort to promote and facilitate equal representation at all levels of decision making, NDP2, NGP and NGPA have tasked all relevant stakeholders to:

1. build capacity within management and leadership to promote women;
2. change negative attitudes of both men and women towards gender equality at all levels of society;
3. monitor and advise on the equal representation of men and women, including those with disabilities;
4. identify levels of decision-making that are key to gender equality (including for girls) in all public, private and professional areas;
5. identify and address differences in areas of power sharing and decision-making;
6. encourage the networking between government, NGOs, CBOs, political parties, parastatals and other gender stakeholders, in an effort to establish a national network of women in decision-making and leadership roles; and
7. conduct research and analysis on women in politics and decision making positions to enhance their capacity.