



BEYOND INEQUALITIES 2005

Women
in Botswana

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BEYOND INEQUALITIES 2005

Women in Botswana

A profile of Women in Botswana
produced by the
Botswana Women's NGO Coalition
and the
Women in Development Southern Africa Awareness (WIDSAA) Programme
of the
Southern African Research and Documentation Centre (SARDC).

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WIDSAA is a southern African partnership initiative with national partners in member countries of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Production of this profile was funded by the Southern Africa Regional Office of the Humanist Institute for Co-operation with Developing Countries (HIVOS) and the Botswana office of Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

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PREFACE

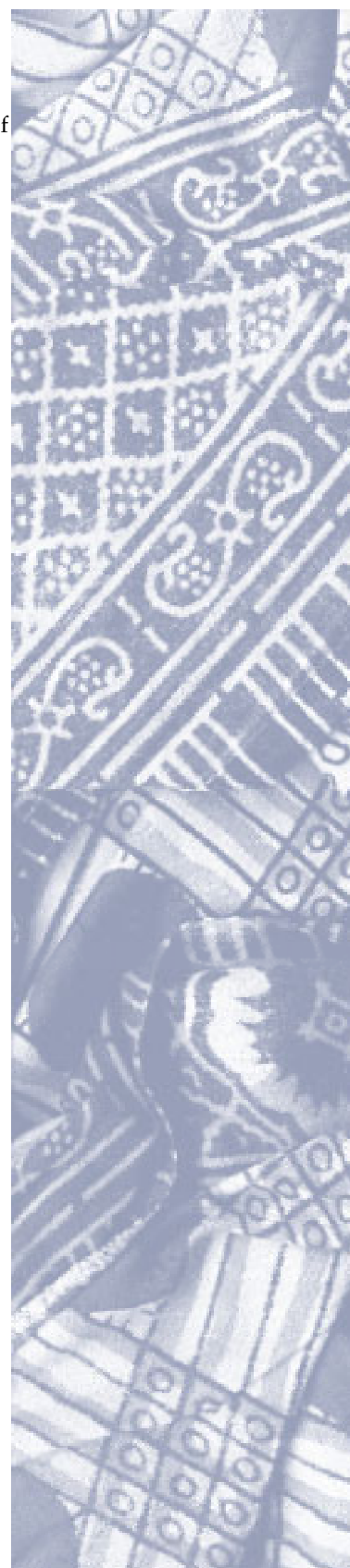
Beyond Inequalities, a series of publications profiling the status of women in southern Africa, has played a significant role in contributing to knowledge on the role of men and women in development in the region, and the efforts being made at mainstreaming gender-equality concerns at all levels. The first set of profiles, presenting the situation of men and women in 12 SADC countries, were published between 1998 and 2000. This new *Beyond Inequalities* series is an update on the status of women, in the context of the dynamic changes, new challenges, setbacks and opportunities that have occurred in the last few years, particularly since publication of the first series.

The analysis of the status of women in SADC is located within some important frameworks, chief amongst them being the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BDPFA), resulting from the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing, China, and the 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, including the 1998 Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children. The region has experienced rapid socio-economic and political shifts, and the focus is increasingly geared towards ensuring that the region accelerates efforts towards economic emancipation. Thus, key developments such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in particular, identify new benchmarks and targets for governments to achieve in order to realise human development and, by extension, equality of opportunities and outcomes for all.

This is a significant time in southern Africa and beyond, in that it is the eve of the end of the decade for achieving women's full equality in line with the BDPFA. The milestones can be identified in the region's response to the challenges of policy, institutional and legislative developments. Twelve SADC member states now have gender/women's empowerment policies in place; Swaziland and Mozambique's policy development processes are at an advanced stage. All countries identified critical areas of concern from the BDPFA, and it is significant that a majority identified issues of women's health (later including HIV and AIDS), economic empowerment and education as key areas for targeted action. In the political arena, there is a slow but upward trend of women occupying seats of power in SADC, particularly in politics, where representation in the legislatures rose from an average of 17 percent to almost 20 percent in the last five years and continues to rise toward SADC's 30 percent target, which has been surpassed in some countries, notably South Africa where 43 percent of the cabinet are women.

There have been advances in legislation, particularly on issues of sexual and domestic violence, with some countries widening the definition of rape to include marital rape, and tightening remedies for survivors of domestic violence to include removal of the abuser from the home. All SADC countries have now ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), and all have adopted, but few have ratified, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

Institutional structures such as gender/women's ministries, departments, units, and gender desks, were put in place or their mandates



Botswana Women's NGO Coalition

The Women's NGO Coalition is a national network of organisations that address women and gender issues and concerns as their main agenda or as a component of their overall agenda. The coalition has 15 NGO members based in urban and rural areas. The coalition was established in 1993 to prepare collectively for the UN Conference that was held in Beijing, China. After 1995, it was registered officially as a collective, advocating and negotiating mechanism for gender equality. The NGOs have numerous projects in the education, economic, gender-based violence, health, political and girl-child sectors for many years. These organisations have contributed to the major achievements that Botswana is proud of as part of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development and the National Gender Programme Framework.

SARDC

The Southern African Research and Documentation Centre (SARDC) is an independent regional information resource centre, which seeks to enhance the effectiveness of key development processes in the SADC region through the collection, production and dissemination of information, and enabling the capacity to generate and use information. SARDC has five main areas of focus, which are pursued by specialist departments for environment and water resources, gender, democracy and governance, regional economic development, and human development. SARDC has offices in Harare and Maputo and partners in all SADC member states. Founding Patron was the late Mwalimu Julius Nyerere.

expanded to take on the challenge of implementing the ambitious plans to achieve full equality between men and women, and in particular women's empowerment. The SADC Gender Unit, by virtue of the restructuring exercise of the institution, has also been integrated into the Department of Strategic Planning, Gender and Policy Harmonisation to ensure it continues to play a pivotal role in facilitating gender mainstreaming. Most of these structures, however, are inadequately resourced and skilled, and thus remain relatively weak and unable to implement gender policies and plans adequately; this has largely limited the effectiveness of post-Beijing plans and initiatives. Gender and/or women's empowerment groups continue to play a role in bridging this implementation divide, and are influential in the policy and programmatic arenas, although they face their own challenges.

Whilst milestones have been achieved, there have been setbacks, and new issues have emerged. Some of the greatest threats to human, and in particular women's development, are HIV and AIDS and other communicable diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis. There are an estimated 14 million HIV-infected people in the SADC region, representing approximately 37 percent of the global total; women and girls being the hardest hit as both the infected and affected. The pandemic has placed a heavy toll on women's labour through increased unpaid care work, as well as further compromising their sexuality rights by virtue of the imbalance of power intersecting with negative cultural beliefs and practices socially and in intimate relationships. The current *Beyond Inequalities* series seeks to highlight some of these issues, and women's coping mechanisms, as well as government and other stakeholder responses.

Although there is now an acknowledgment that HIV and AIDS are development challenges, their gender dimension and links to human rights remain a challenge. The SADC Declaration on HIV and AIDS adopted in July 2003, places a premium on increasing access to treatment and awareness, and, to some extent recognises gender as a key variable. Resource allocation to address the multi-dimensional nature of the pandemic remains weak in most countries and very few countries in SADC are close to reaching the target of universal access to treatment, though some have targeted programmes for pregnant women to prevent parent-to-child transmission.

Poverty remains high, with 40 percent of the population in SADC living in extreme poverty. The SADC Executive Secretary recently observed that poverty reduction strategies employed by governments in the region are trailing behind in terms of meeting the benchmarks set by the MDGs, to halve poverty by 2015. In fact, SADC economies have generally experienced slow growth in recent years, with few exceptions. The average growth rate of 3.23 percent in 2002 falls below half of the seven percent target growth rate set in the MDGs, if poverty and other development indicators are to be effectively addressed in the next few years. A compromised economic outlook and high poverty hits the most vulnerable hardest, in this case women and children, with a corresponding negative impact on their ability to meet their most basic needs. Ten years after the Beijing Conference, poverty remains one of the biggest challenges in the region.

The *Beyond Inequalities* series has been updated based on the conviction (highlighted in the last series) that information is a strategic resource for socio-economic development. Information can catalyse

development, and unless the players have access to reliable information on the complexities and nature of gender relations and how they intersect with development, effective response and the process of positive change will remain slow, and ineffective. The profiles thus identify issues, challenges, limitations and opportunities for accelerating the pace to achieve gender-equality in SADC, through identifying the roles of men and women, their relationships to economic, political and social resources to achieve the highest level of human development.

The series, including this update, was conceptualised and has been implemented by SARDC WIDSAA, in collaboration with partners at national level. WIDSAA aims to contribute to the improvement of the status of women in the SADC region, through awareness-building and collecting, documenting and disseminating relevant, timely, quality and current information to a range of strategic stakeholders. In particular, the information is targeted to policy makers, researchers, media, co-operating partners, development agencies, and the non-governmental sector.

To update this set of *Beyond Inequalities* profiles, a concept paper was developed and shared with partners in SADC countries for comments and critique. The concept paper outlined the rationale and methodology for approaching the updating exercise. This was followed by terms of reference for partner organisations to co-ordinate the research and writing of the profiles, which also included guidelines on style and presentation of the drafts by the researchers.

Each partner organisation identified a multi-disciplinary team of researchers to conduct the work on the profiles. This was coupled with a survey of the previous *Beyond Inequalities* series to determine the nature and extent of access and utilisation, in order to enrich the updating exercise and provide pointers towards a more effective dissemination strategy. The drafts were reviewed by individuals and at annual partners meetings where the researchers presented their initial or working drafts to a group of 25-30 people for critique. This was preceded by a Gender Reference Group meeting to review the drafts and provide guidance on content, methodology and management of the updating exercise.

The partner organisations and researchers held validation workshops with national stakeholders, and some constituted working committees that provided input at various stages of development of the drafts. The methodology for production of the profiles was thus a participatory one, to ensure wide ownership and participation in the process of development and production.

The profiles are all similarly presented in four parts. Part I gives a situational analysis, Part II provides information on achievements and constraints in the context of policies and programmes, and Part III discusses the way forward. Part IV contains references and a bibliography of materials used. Annexes follow at the end of the publication.

Many challenges lie ahead. Ten years of working on achieving gender-equality after Beijing has produced mixed results, with a rollback of some gains made. This *Beyond Inequalities* series gives current insights and perspectives on achievements, gaps and the way forward, as well as areas where opportunities can be found for revitalising processes or finding new direction. The focus of the next decade is on delivery of policies and programmes, and the *Beyond Inequalities* series provides information on what has worked and what has not, and what can be strengthened or abandoned as gender activists in SADC shape an agenda for the future.

WIDSAA

Women In Development Southern Africa Awareness (WIDSAA) is the gender programme of SARDC. The programme was established in 1994 to serve as a catalyst and information service to the SADC region's governments, parliaments, NGOs and agencies, the media and the public in the formulation of policy affecting women. WIDSAA's objective is that SADC women are empowered and advanced, and that all structures are engendered to facilitate gender equality and equity.

HIVOS

The Humanist Institute for Co-operation with Developing Countries (HIVOS) is a Dutch non-governmental organisation, which operates on the basis of humanistic values. HIVOS aims to contribute towards a free, just, and sustainable world. The organisation is committed to the poor and marginalised and to organisations with similar interests in countries in the South, including Africa, central Asia and southeast Europe. Sustainable improvement of their situation is the ultimate benchmark for HIVOS work. An important cornerstone is strengthening of the position of women in society.

Friedrich Ebert Stiftung

The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung¹ (FES) is a non-profit, private, educational, and cultural institution committed to the concepts and basic values of social democracy and the labour movement, and is active in over 100 countries world wide. The Botswana government signed an agreement with FES in April 1974 manifesting strong ties with state institutions, civil organisations, trade unions, and academic bodies. Part of the main FES principle is to ensure that gender issues are addressed across the whole spectrum of its programme. Thus, the Foundation is actively collaborating with various women organisations in Botswana with the general objective of empowering women in their respective fields of action.

Botswana National Gender Policy

Box 1

Principles

The following principles are considered necessary in policy development in all sectors:

- ▣ All policies of government to recognise that women and men are guaranteed equality before the law.
- ▣ All policies to ensure that there is equality in access to resources, information, opportunity and decision-making positions for women and men and special measures to be developed to ensure that current constraints to access to resources experienced by women are redressed.
- ▣ All policies to be conscious of women's multiple roles in production and community management.
- ▣ All policies of government must recognise the need to develop the potential of women and must put to optimal use their skills and capacities including their important role as transmitters of culture and primary educators in order to create a whole some and enriched family and community life.

Goals

- ▣ Enhancement of women's health.
- ▣ Promotion of education and skills training.
- ▣ Promotion of gender awareness in development planning.
- ▣ Elimination of all negative economic and socio-cultural practices as well as inappropriate laws.

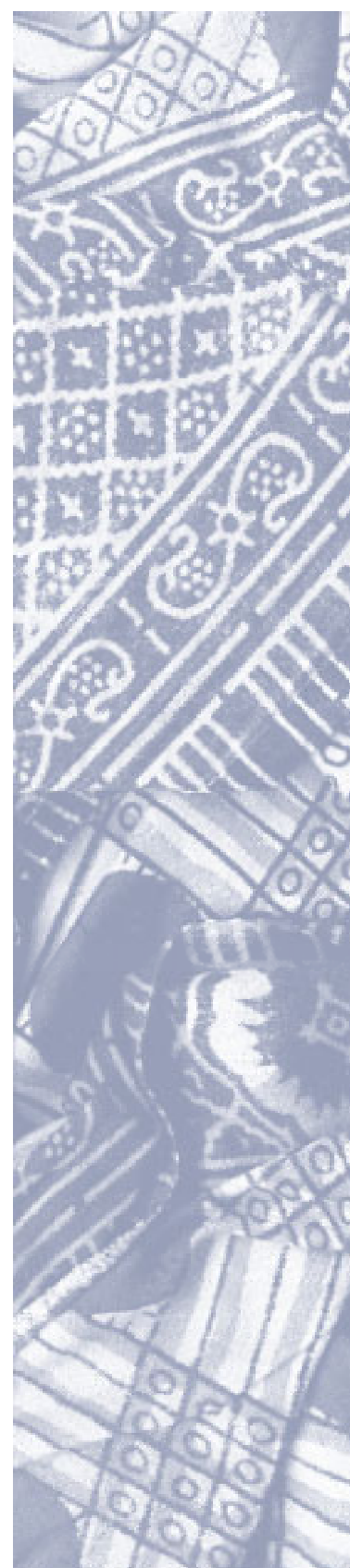
Objectives

- ▣ Create an enabling environment, which promotes women's participation and contribution, which enhances equal jobs and careers.
- ▣ Link up with relevant policies, programmes and measures with a view to establishing structures and machineries to enable women function more effectively in their multiple roles.
- ▣ Eliminate all forms of inequalities and inequities between among women and men
- ▣ Ensure that the needs of women are identified and provided for in development planning.
- ▣ Promote women's health, including reproductive health and rights.
- ▣ Ensure that economic, trade and employment policies promote women's access to gainful employment.
- ▣ Enhance women's productivity at all levels in order to increase their contribution to the development process and in particular to assist women to increase their agricultural output in order to alleviate poverty and ensure household food security.
- ▣ Ensure the education system is designed to create gender awareness.
- ▣ Encourage gender responsive data collection, analysis and research and ensure their use for planning at all levels.
- ▣ Strengthen links between the government, non-governmental organisations and the private sector on women's issues.
- ▣ Enhance coordination and implementation capacity and provide well-trained and experienced personnel to deal with gender issues.
- ▣ Establish the institutional arrangement to review and advise on gender issues.
- ▣ Sensitise women on their role in the management of the environment and population issues.
- ▣ Reduce the incidence of teenage pregnancy, high maternal mortality and high youth unemployment and minimise their negative impact on the status of women.
- ▣ Strengthen the institutional and legal capacity as well as support services to prevent violence and enable victims to cope with the stress.
- ▣ Promote education and skills training of girls/women in a variety of non-traditional career opportunities.

SOURCE Women Affairs Division, 1995

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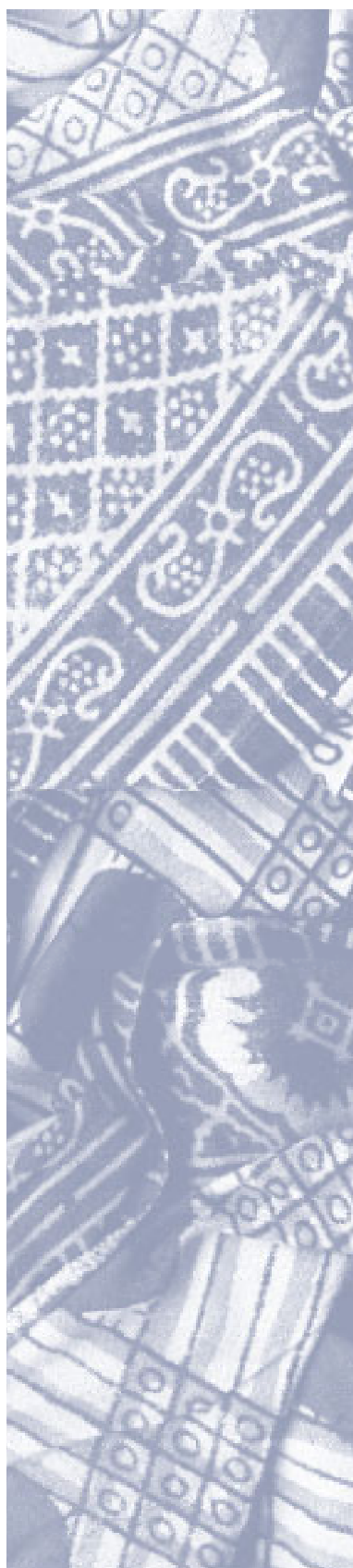
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SARDC WIDSAA Team, Harare

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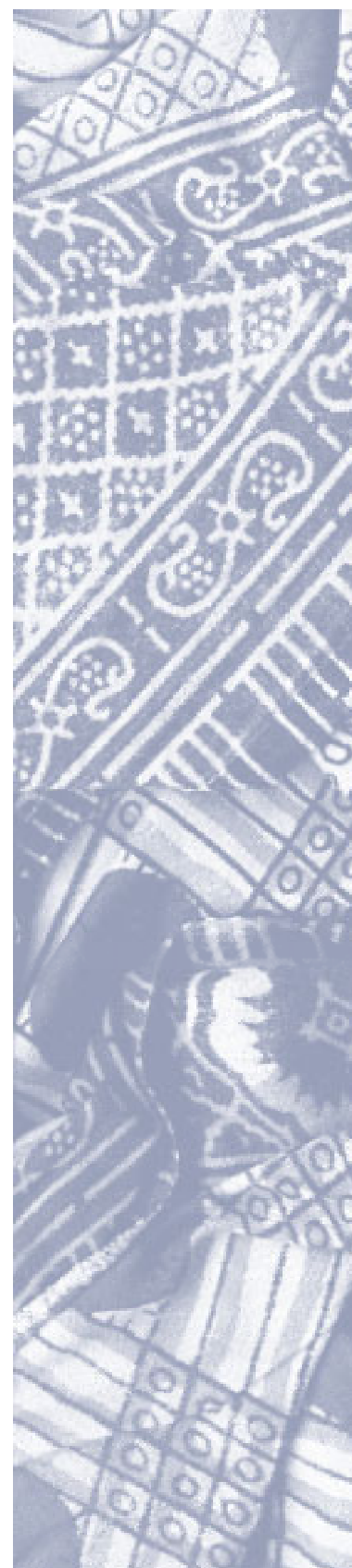
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Loatile Sebone, Chairperson, Women's NGO Coalition, Botswana
May 2005

ACRONYMS

ACP	Africa, Caribbean and Pacific
AGOA	Africa Growth and Opportunity Act
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ALDEP	Arable Land Development Programme
ARV	Anti-Retroviral
AU	African Union
BCWP	Botswana Caucus for Women in Politics
BDC	Botswana Development Corporation
BDP	Botswana Democratic Party
BDPFA	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action
BECI	Botswana Export Credit Insurance
BEDIA	Botswana Exports Development and Investment Agency
BFHS	Botswana Family Health Survey
BGGA	Botswana Girl Guides Association
BIAC	Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce
BIDPA	Botswana Institute of Development and Policy Analysis
BNCP	Bushbuckridge Nature Conservation Project
BNCW	Botswana National Council on Women
BNF	Botswana National Front
BoB	Bank of Botswana
BONASO	Botswana Network of AIDS Service Organisations
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resources Management
CBO	Community Based Organization
CEDA	Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CJS	Community Junior Secondary
CORDE	Cooperation for Research, Development and Education
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSO	Central Statistics Office
EU	European Union
FAP	Financial Assistance Policy
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FER	Foreign Exchange Reserves
FES	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GL	Gender Links
GMAS	Gender and Media Audience Study
GNP	Gross National Product
GPPC	Gender Policy and Programme Committee
GRG	Gender Reference Group
HBC	Home Based Care
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Surveys
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICJ	International Court of Justice
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information Communication Technologies
IEC	Independent Electoral Commission
IEC	Information, Education and Communication
IHS	Institute of Health Sciences
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JC	Junior Certificate
KYT	Kgetsi Ya Tsie Trust
LWDP	Livestock Water Development Project



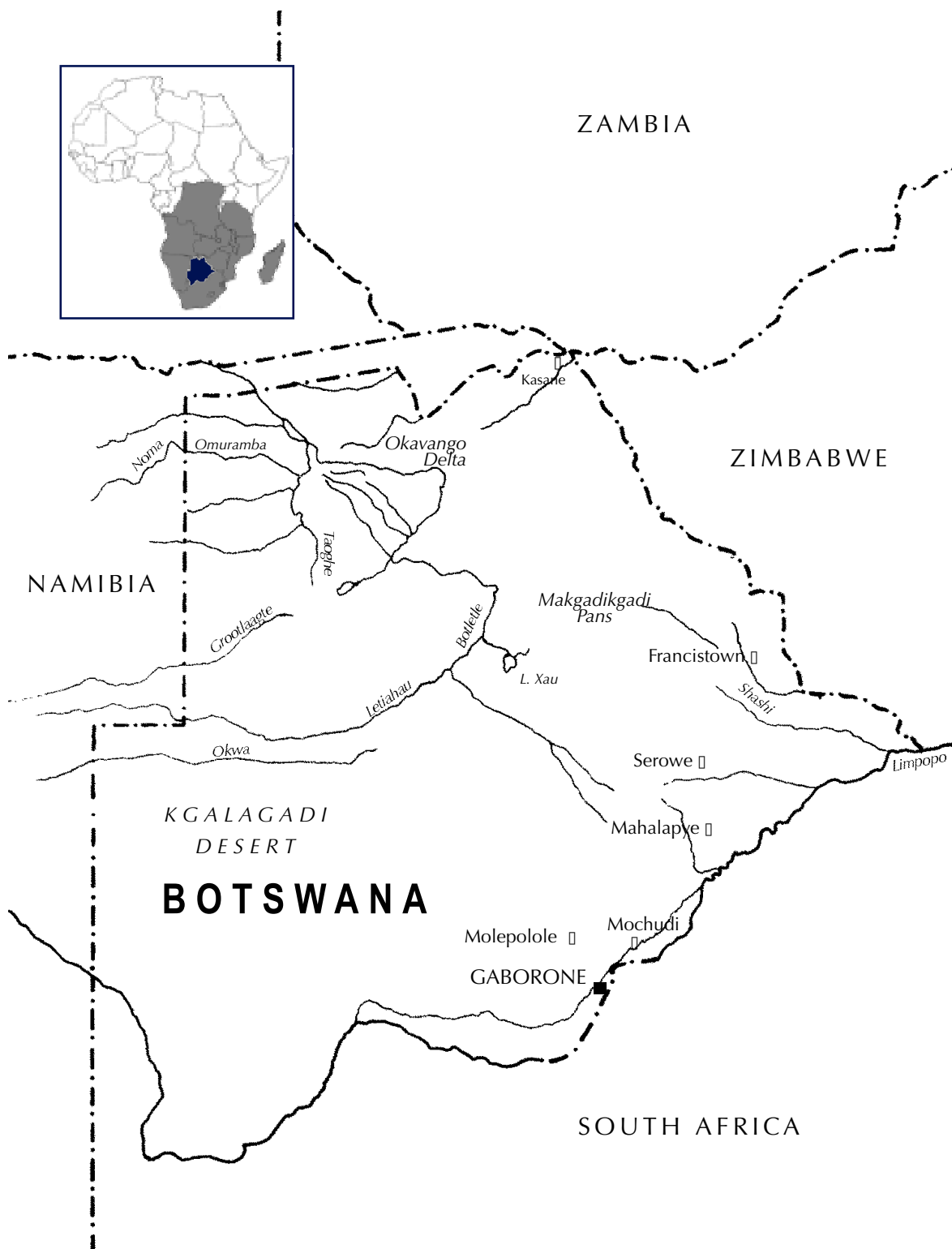
MCH	Maternal and Child Health
MCH/FP	Maternal and Child Health/Family Planning
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFDP	Ministry of Finance and Development Planning
MIS	Multiple Indicator Survey
MISA	Media Institute of Southern Africa
MLHA	Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs
MLGL	Ministry of Local Government and Lands
MoH	Ministry of Health
MPs	Members of Parliament
NAMPAADD	National Agricultural Master Plan for Arable Agriculture and Dairy Development
NDP	National Development Plan
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PEP	Post-Exposure Prophylaxis
PHC	Primary Health Care
PMTCT	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission
RADP	Remote Areas Development Programme
RNEP	Revised New Education Policy
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SARDC	Southern African Research and Documentation Centre
SDR	Special Drawing Rights
SHHA	Self Help Housing Agency
SLOCA	Small Livestock Owners Communal Area
SMME	Small Micro and Medium Enterprises
SPRDP	Selibe-Phikwe Regional Development Programme
SS	Senior Secondary
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
TB	Tuberculosis
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
TIPA	Trade and Investment Programme Agency
TT	Teacher Training
UB	University of Botswana
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNICEF	United Nations Children Emergency Fund
UYP	Urban Youth Project
VAT	Value Added Tax
V&TT	Vocational and Technical Training
WAD	Women's Affairs Department
WAR	Women Against Rape
WHO	World Health Organization
WIDSAA	Women in Development Southern Africa Awareness
WID	Women In Development
WiLDAF	Women and Law in Development in Africa
WLSA	Women in Law in Southern Africa Research Trust
WNGOC	Women's NGO Coalition
WTO	World Trade Organisation
YWCA	Young Women Christian Association

BOTSWANA DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

Official Name	Republic of Botswana
Capital City	Gaborone
Independence Date	30 September 1966
Head of State and Government	President Festus G. Mogae
Last election held	30 October 2004
Ruling Party	Botswana Democratic Party
Legislature	Parliament
Languages	English and Setswana
Land Area	582,000 sq km
POPULATION	
Total	1,736,000 (2002) women 51.59% men 48.4%
Annual growth rate	2.4% (2001)
Birth rate	28.9 births/1,000 population
Death rate	12.4 deaths/1,000 population
Total fertility rate	3.27 children born/woman
Urbanisation	46%
HEALTH (2001)	
Life expectancy at birth	55.6 years women 57.4 years men 52 years
Infant mortality rate	56 deaths/1,000 live births women 51 deaths/1,000 live births men 60 deaths/1,000 live births
EDUCATION	
Adult literacy rate	81%
ECONOMY	
Gross Domestic Product (GDP)	US\$6.5 billion
as % of GDP	
-agriculture	4%
-industry	44%
-services	52%
GDP per capita	US\$2,796
Export/ Import ratio	
(exports as % of imports)	127.3%
Currency Pula (100 Thebe)	US\$1= 4.57P
Inflation rate	7.5%

Note All statistics are for 2003 unless otherwise specified.

SOURCES <http://www.cso.gov.bw>
<http://www.sadc.int>



INTRODUCTION

Since independence in 1966, Botswana has experienced remarkable and rapid economic growth, transformation, and social development. However, despite its economic successes the country has numerous challenges, for instance, increase of poverty and social inequalities and the HIV and AIDS pandemic. This has hampered the full participation of a significant proportion of people in the development processes. This scenario has further limited their access to social and economic opportunities and other benefits of development.

Poverty is still a major concern in the twenty-first century and inequalities are increasing amongst the various social groups. A significant proportion of the youth, women, and marginal remote rural dwellers have remained largely outside the successful development experiences of Botswana.

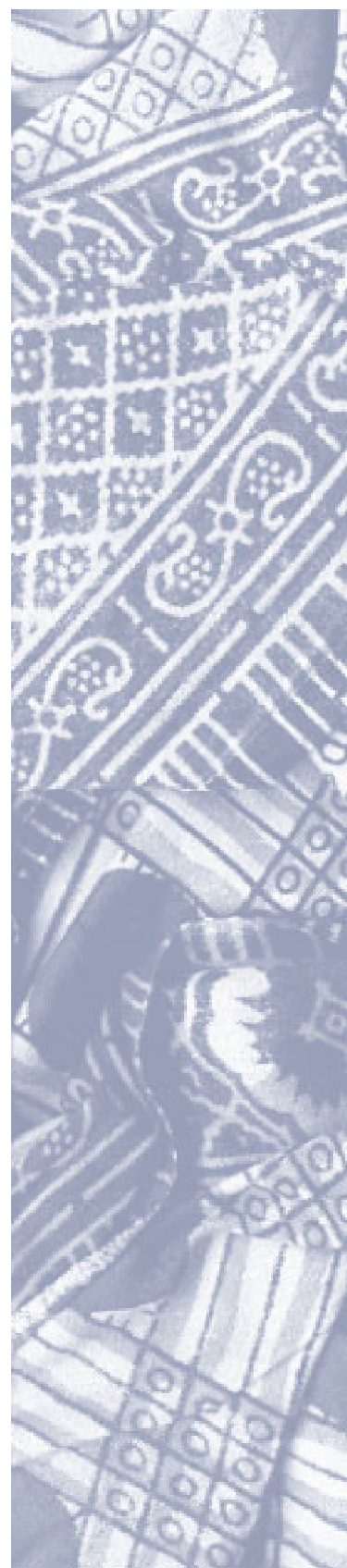
The Botswana government introduced various safety net policies and programmes and has avoided the high levels of starvation and destitution faced by other countries in Africa. However, these strategies are *ad hoc* and based on a welfare approach, which has created serious levels of dependency on the state. These policies are not a long-term solution to the deep rooted and persistent poverty and inequity. This scenario needs urgent and radical policy approaches to empower the affected and marginal groups to lead sustainable livelihoods above the poverty datum line.

Further, the government has recognised the existence of gender inequalities and has taken measures to address the major gender gaps and disparities in the country.

This updated gender profile highlights most of the numerous achievements and challenges that the country faces as it strives to achieve the goal of gender equality and equity. Despite its positive economic climate and conducive political environment, Botswana has poverty amidst plenty that needs urgent intervention. The extent and nature of poverty has a rural, female and youth face which needs meaningful strategies to address the root causes of unequal access to and control of resources and opportunities as well as a review of the gender and rural insensitive structural and macro-economic policies.

One of the major reasons for the failure by the Botswana government to alleviate poverty is the limited or lack of incorporation of gender concerns in the design of policies and programmes as well as the inadequate use of people-centred development approaches. Gender awareness is still low thus not fully recognized as a major planning variable and thus not well mainstreamed into planning procedures, principles, and strategies. This hampers an all-inclusive and effective approach to development that will ensure that the needs of women and men are mainstreamed and adequately addressed.

The timing of this update on the situation of women and men is appropriate as it is now 10 years after the Beijing Platform for Action was adopted and eight years since the SADC Gender and Development Declaration was adopted and signed by all SADC heads of state and government. This profile will indicate the major achievements and challenges over the past decade as well as map the way forward to create a just, compassionate and prosperous society for all in



the twenty-first century as indicated in the Vision 2016 goals and strategies.

Botswana is confronted with major challenges which have slowed down growth and negatively affected development achievements because of a slow down in economic growth due to a decline in revenue in the diamond sector and the impact of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. The pandemic is a big challenge as it is eroding the human and financial resources that the country had developed since independence. The government has prioritised HIV and AIDS programmes and declared war on the pandemic in order to cushion the effects on the economy and society. The interface between gender, HIV and AIDS and age should be well defined, as the existing unequal gender and power relations are a major contributing factor to the increasing rates of the pandemic.

Given its level of economic and human resources as well as its favourable political climate, Botswana has a potential for achieving growth with equity. The promotion of alternative people-centred and gender-sensitive policies will go a long way in reducing the high levels of poverty and social inequalities. The gender and development approach is an appropriate strategy to understand and analyse the depth of development challenges, such as HIV and AIDS, and unequal access and control of resources and other opportunities.

Vision

Social justice and the respect for human rights are the cornerstones of the country's development philosophy. Vision 2016 clearly stipulates that by the year 2016, Botswana needs to have created a just and compassionate society as well as a productive and prosperous society where growth and development are accompanied by an equitable distribution of national wealth. Social justice demands that existing gender, class and regional imbalances should be urgently addressed and appropriate people-centred measures should be put in place. The major aim of this strategy is to provide all people with equal rights and equal access to economic, social and political opportunities to fully develop their potential and livelihoods irrespective of their gender or social position.

Aims and objectives

The main aim of this update on *Beyond Inequalities: Women in Botswana* is to reflect on the achievements and challenges as a result of the implementation of global and regional action plans, such as the Beijing Platform for Action, the SADC Gender and Development Declaration, the Millennium Development Goals and the World Social Summit on Sustainable Development among others. The specific objectives are:

- To contribute to the improvement of the status and position of women in the SADC region;
- To ensure the documentation of current quantitative and qualitative gender empowerment information and statistics of women;
- To provide stakeholders with an opportunity to contribute in an important and credible data collection and documentation research project; and
- To raise awareness and increase access to current gender and women's empowerment issues, concerns and priorities.

Conceptual framework

The gender and development approach is the guiding principle of this situation analysis. Gender is defined as a social construct and a relational concept that refers to the socially given roles, responsibilities, attributes and activities of women and men.² Gender is used as an analytical concept and variable in this profile based on a gender analysis framework that explores and highlights the gender division of labour and relationships between women and men, and indicating the inequalities in participation in development, distribution of power and resources at the various levels of the social institutions.³ This was strengthened by the women's empowerment framework aimed at unravelling the subordinate position of women and identifying ways in which women can be the main actors and advocates for gender transformation.

The approach to the research was also participatory, providing an opportunity for relevant stakeholders to input into the process by providing guidance through the identification of key issues and validation of the gender issues and concerns highlighted. This ensured the incorporation of the voices of the researcher and user of information.

Methodology

This situation analysis is a desk study that relied completely on available and current literature in the form of official government, UNDP, academic, NGO and private sector research reports. Botswana is fortunate as it has a relatively reliable database that provides gender-disaggregated data. The Central Statistics Office reports provide national level data that is relatively comparable over time.

The process of collection and analysis of the data was participatory in that the reference group composed of key stakeholders in the public and civil society sectors guided it. The final draft was validated by a broader profile of stakeholders at a one-day workshop.

Limitations of the data

The major limitation of the data used is that the situation analysis was completely dependent on secondary data. This limited comparative analysis as the studies used different methodologies that were not necessarily comparable. Further, some of the existing literature and data did not have adequate gender disaggregated or analysed information in some areas, especially in the environment sector. Other reports were not easily accessible and time was limited for one to undertake follow up visits to retrieve reports etc.

Institutional framework

Botswana has developed and strengthened an institutional framework to promote and enhance gender equality and equity since the early 1980s. National and regional level institutions and mechanisms for the advancement of women have been established and strengthened in the public and civil society sectors. The private sector has lagged behind in this regard, as very limited initiatives have been taken to address gender concerns in this sector. It should be noted that there were a few civil society structures such as, Young Women Christian Association (YWCA), Botswana Caucus for Women in Politics (BCWP) and the Botswana Girl Guides Association (BGGA) among others, that existed before the introduction of public sector level institutions who have played a critical advisory role to government since independence.

There are major challenges in this area in terms of the capacity of the existing institutions to effectively mainstream gender in national policies and programmes as they usually have limited financial and human resources. Nevertheless, the existing national machinery at government and civil society levels has made tremendous strides to create an environment that ensures development from a gender perspective. There are notable and significant achievements since the Beijing conference which resulted from the advocacy and programme strategies implemented by the relevant public and civil society sector agencies. The collaborative environment between the NGOs and Women Affairs Department (WAD) has contributed to a collective networking strategy that has promoted positive action.

Women's Affairs Department

The WAD was established in 1981 and is located in the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. The main goals of the department are to co-ordinate and facilitate the full and effective mainstreaming of gender in all national policies and programmes, as well as create awareness to promote the empowerment of women.

The department has successfully implemented some of its objectives with the support and collaboration of women's NGOs, gender researchers and activists at the University of Botswana in the following areas:

- Creating awareness through organizing workshops and training for all stakeholders which has contributed to a higher level of awareness amongst most stakeholders at the national as well as district levels.
- Undertaking research activities on the socio-economic implications of violence against women and the review of laws affecting the status of women.
- Training of trainers and gender focal points on gender as a social and development concept, and mainstreaming strategies as a way forward to ensure the incorporation of a gender analysis at the initial stages of policy and programme development;
- Promoting the review of laws such as the Deeds Registry Act of 1996, The Citizenship Act of 1992, the Affiliation Proceedings Act of 2000 and Amendment of the Penal Code as regards the Rape Law of 1998, among others that discriminate against women, while currently the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs are considering the amendments of the Marital Persons Property Act and reviewing a draft Domestic Violence document submitted by Women's NGOs;
- Providing financial support to NGOs and CBOs in the economic sector, to improve the economic activities of women's groups and entrepreneurs in the informal sector and providing project support, through seed funds from the government and donors such as UNDP, has gone a long way to sustaining income-generation activities in rural areas in particular;
- Providing relevant policy guidance to the Ministry on a regular basis, which has transformed the nature of recent policy reviews such as the National Land Policy Review and the Agricultural Subsidies Review consultancy.

WAD is currently confronted with limited human and financial resources. This has hampered its capacity to undertake its role and responsibilities effectively. There is also limited recognition of the role of WAD in the public sector, thus limiting its ability to adequately pro-

vide policy guidance in this sector. In addition, most top-level officials are still gender-insensitive which makes their role difficult, as they do not have support from most permanent and deputy permanent secretaries in the public sector.

The location of WAD is also a problem, since the host ministry is given low priority in recognition and budgetary processes. The role and position of WAD structures and its level of authority and influence has to be reviewed if it is to make a substantial impact in the twenty-first century.

The Botswana National Council on Women (BNCW)

The BNCW is a new machinery that was established in 1999. The council is a high-level policy advisory body to the whole institution of government. The main aim of the council is to provide policy direction and guidance to ensure that current policies are gender sensitive. The council works very closely with its secretariat, WAD, to co-ordinate and facilitate policies that will enhance the empowerment of women as well as promote gender equality.

To date, the BNCW has provided input into the review of policies such as the Rural Development Policy, the agricultural subsidies policies, the national land policy, and the national poverty strategy. The BNCW also works in collaboration with civil society to identify current and emerging gender concerns and priorities and advocates for their urgent attention and incorporation in mainstream development initiatives. The council has set up sub-committees to facilitate this process, consistent with the six critical areas of concern for Botswana.

The main constraint faced by the BNCW is the limited capacity of its secretariat, WAD, which, as noted above, does not have adequate human and financial resources to effectively service the council. Since its inception, the BNCW has made numerous resolutions, which have not been implemented due to WAD's limited capacity. The BNCW has recommended that the status of the council be elevated to provide adequate advice to government. The council has further recommended that a Cabinet Directive should be put in place to direct that all ministries must mainstream gender in all existing and new policies and programmes consistent with national and regional policy instruments.

Civil Society Organisations

The women's NGOs have played a critical role in the advancement of women since independence. Before the establishment of WAD in 1981, organisations such as YWCA and BCWP provided policy guidance to government and they contributed to the current conducive political environment.

The establishment of more empowerment based women's organisations such as Women and Law in Southern Africa Research Trust (WLSA), Emang Basadi, Methlaetsile and Women's Finance House among others, has elevated the level of NGO intervention from a welfare approach to a more empowering perspective.

NGOs have, in the past, challenged government's conservative attitude towards women and gender issues and have strongly advocated for policy and legal reform. Most of the amendments of certain Acts, e.g., the Citizenship Act, Deeds Registry Act, the Affiliation Proceedings Act were due to the initiatives and advocacy strategies of civil society organisations. NGOs have contributed to the development

of the current National Policy on Women in Development and the National Gender Programme Framework.

Women's NGO Coalition

The Women's NGO Coalition is a national advisory network composed of organisations that address women and gender issues and concerns as their main agenda, or a component of their overall agenda. The coalition has 15 NGO members based in urban and rural areas.

The network was established in 1993 to collectively prepare for the UN World Women Conference on in Beijing, China. After 1995, it was registered officially as a collective advocating and negotiating mechanism for gender equality.

The NGOs have had numerous projects in the education, economic, gender-based violence, health, political and girl-child sectors. These organizations have contributed to the major achievements that Botswana is proud of as part of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA), the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, and the National Gender Programme Framework. Most of the NGOs work in collaboration with WAD and together they have translated Botswana's international obligations into national plans and strategies.

The NGO Coalition has developed a strong advocacy network and strategy that ensures that Botswana promotes gender equality at all levels. Most of the NGOs' programmes target the low-income women and make a difference in the lives of poor women by providing legal aid and education services, political education training, funding support for economic activities, information and education in the area of HIV and AIDS and reproductive health, pre-school education and training opportunities for young women and men with special emphasis on educating the girl-child. Their programmes are urban and rural-based and they have made a difference to the lives of many women. The outreach to most urban and rural women however, is still limited due to the organisations' inadequate capacity.

The major challenges they are facing include sustainability of programmes due to limited funding and human resources as well as increasing coverage through the outreach programmes. The declaration by World Bank and IMF that Botswana is a middle-income country has affected NGOs negatively, with most donors leaving the country.

NGOs in Botswana were and still are completely dependent on donor funding since government has no clear policy on NGO funding. The exodus of donors has seen some NGOs closing down due to lack of funding. Further, the extent of the coverage of most NGOs is limited, being concentrated in the urban areas and peri-urban villages. Another challenge is improving their governance and management structures to promote democratic and transparent policy and decision-making processes. They also need to develop their strengths in participatory development approaches as they try and embrace a more people-centred approach.

Botswana Caucus for Women in Politics (BCWP)

The BCWP is a new structure that was facilitated by *Emang Basadi* as part of their political education programme. The structure was established to facilitate collective action and advocacy for the promotion of women to positions of power across party lines.

This is another milestone achievement as it has provided a forum for women in politics to share ideas and strategies for a more gender friendly and inclusive political agenda. The caucus has provided political skills training, education and awareness to its members, the party structures and the public.

Gender Policy and Programme Committee (GPPC)

The GPPC is a University of Botswana (UB) gender structure that was established in 1992 to create gender awareness at the UB and facilitate the incorporation of gender into policies, academic programmes and administrative procedures. Since 1995, the UB has made various strides to incorporate gender courses and degree programmes at undergraduate and graduate levels. Gender research has always been a key component of the university's research agenda and this has contributed to the existing database.

The University of Botswana recently also developed a Sexual Harassment Policy, the first of its kind in the country. The GPPC organized a national conference in 2001; a milestone achievement which contributed to a gender research agenda as well as the dissemination of research information to various stakeholders. Some GPPC members also provide support to national initiatives and collaborate with WAD and NGOs in advocating for gender transformation.

The major challenge of the National Machinery is its incapacity to fulfil its goals and objectives. The level of participation by the public and civil society institutions in the structure is limited and its coverage is therefore inadequate. A major issue of concern is the sustainability of civil society programmes, given the slow growth in the economy and the exodus of the major donors from Botswana. Government needs to have a clearer policy framework to support NGOs as they often complement its goals and objectives in the various sectors.

There is also need to review the institutional framework, which needs to be elevated to a higher level of authority and influence. There have been recommendations that WAD be relocated to a much more influential ministry that will provide a conducive policy and budgetary environment to effectively implement the national gender policy and programme.



Vision 2016 – A long term vision for Botswana

Box 2

Vision 2016 presents a long term vision for the year when Botswana will have been an independent nation for 50 years. It identifies the major challenges ahead, and proposes a set of strategies to meet them.

The development plans of Botswana are rooted in four national principles: democracy, development, self reliance, and unity. The fifth principle is *botho*. This defines a process "for earning respect by first giving it, and to gain empowerment by empowering others."

The Vision sees:

- An educated, informed nation.
 - ▣ Improvement in the relevance, quality and access to education lie at the core of the vision for the future.
- A compassionate, just and caring nation.
 - ▣ By 2016, Botswana will have eradicated absolute poverty, so that no incomes in the country will be below the appropriate poverty datum line. Within the next decade the percentage of people living in poverty will be less than 23 percent, which is half of the level in 1994.
- A safe and secure nation.
 - ▣ By 2016, violation of the physical wellbeing and human rights of individuals will have been eliminated.
- An open, democratic and accountable nation.
 - ▣ The Botswana of the future will be a community-oriented democracy, with strong decentralized institutions. Botswana will build upon its history, and emphasise the accountability of all citizens.
- A moral and tolerant nation.
 - ▣ No citizen of the future Botswana will be disadvantaged as a result of gender, age, religion or creed, colour, national or ethnic origin, location, language or political opinions. The future Botswana will have eradicated negative social attitudes towards the status and role of women, the youth, the elderly and the disabled, and will be free from all forms of sexual harassment.
- A united and proud nation.
 - ▣ By the year 2016, Botswana will be a united and proud nation, sharing common goals based on a common heritage, national pride and a desire for stability.

Botswana has a small population with a large resource base. This can be seen as an advantage in that changes can be introduced more quickly. Vision 2016 envisages all citizens of Botswana fully embracing and actively managing the process of change.

SOURCE *Vision 2016 Towards Prosperity for All*, published by the Presidential Task Group on a Long Term Vision for Botswana, September 1997

PART I

SITUATION ANALYSIS

ECONOMY

Botswana has maintained a credible development track record in the economic, social and political spheres since independence in 1966. The country has achieved and sustained a remarkably rapid rate of economic growth, which at its peak averaged 10 percent per annum.⁴ Most of the past rates of economic growth were led by a diamond-dominated industrial sector, with the state playing the major role of redistributing this wealth through infrastructure development, social services, direct employment and development grants.

Although diamonds contribute more to the Gross National Product (GNP) than any other commodity, agriculture remains the next most viable sector in the economy of Botswana, although according to the National Budget Speech of 2003, agricultural output has declined due to a recent drought and an outbreak of foot and mouth disease in the country. Economic growth has slowed in recent years, despite the ambitious target of over eight percent set by Vision 2016.⁵ This has adversely impacted on the lives of the rural women who are mostly subsistence farmers. It has also reduced their income and employment opportunities in this sector.

Through the export-oriented development strategy that drives the economy of Botswana, appropriate macro-economic policies, which include international trade protocols, trade policies and investment promotion initiatives have been adopted. These together with high exports, lower imports, and high foreign direct

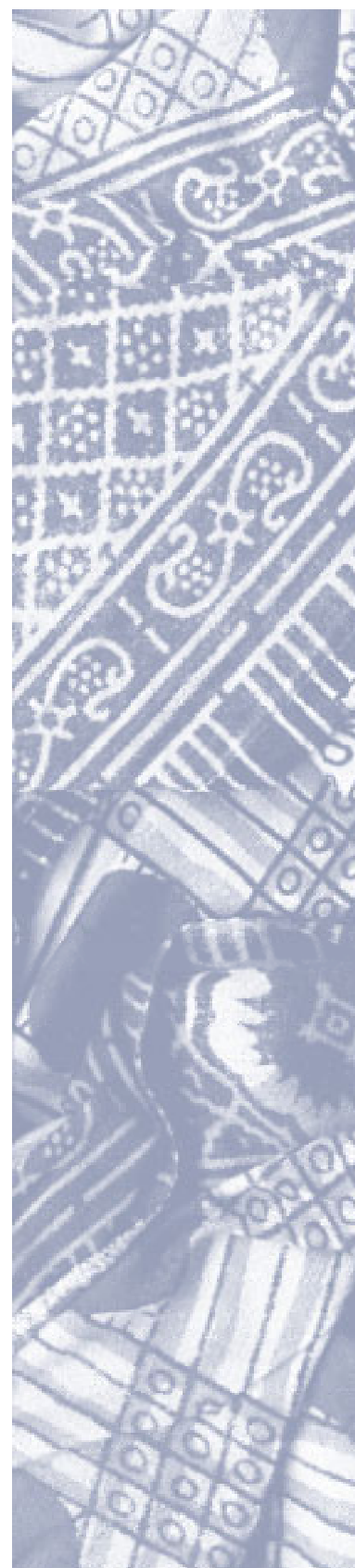
investment, fixed exchange rates and stable inflation have supported the impressive economic growth.

However, the fruits of this impressive economic growth and social transformation have been unequally shared among its citizens. Botswana is still faced with some major development challenges, such as unemployment, which is estimated at 21.5 percent, and poverty, which was estimated to be directly affecting 37 percent of the population.⁶ These statistics have serious implications on the lives of women, as studies indicate that 58 percent of the total households are female-headed and 42 percent are headed by males.

Among the female-headed households, which are the principal poverty groups, 38 percent have no cash-earning members.⁷ The majority of them reside in rural areas where economic opportunities are limited. Where economic opportunities are boundless, female-headed households face peculiar socio-economic constraints which include among others: lower income earning capacity and fewer or lack of assets; lower availability of household labour and other resources; a greater burden of dependents; and care-giving for children, the elderly, and of late, the ailing, especially HIV and AIDS home-based care patients⁸ and orphans.

Macro-economic policies

Botswana's economic policies are export-oriented. This development strategy seeks to increase the market for competitiveness of the country's exports, and to



widen the range of quality goods and services available to the domestic market through imports, and to attract foreign direct investment that maximizes new technology and skills transfer into the country. Botswana's trade policy is closely linked to the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) Agreement.⁹ The Trade Policy seeks to "achieve the broadest possible free and dependable access for Botswana's industrial products and services."¹⁰

This development strategy is supported by a variety of government initiatives including trade and multilateral agreements, macro-economic policies and business development programmes,¹¹ which are components of the economic policy framework. These include the Import Tariff Structure, Exchange Rate Policy and trade protocols comprising World Trade Organization (WTO), the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP)-European Union (EU) Trade Agreement, United States Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), SACU, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Trade Protocol and the Botswana-Zimbabwe Trade Agreement.

Some investment promotion initiatives were put in place to support the trade protocol at local level. The Financial Assistance Policy (FAP) was replaced by the Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA) in June 2001 even though it had benefited many companies dealing in textile production and manufacturing including certain agriculture projects. Although the collateral requirement for grants from women was less than that of men as part of affirmative action by the government, it was concluded that the programme was not achieving its goal. The CEDA pro-

vides financing to all citizen-owned or shared businesses in all sectors of the economy in the form of subsidized loans and risk sharing as opposed to outright grants as was the case with FAP.

The Botswana Exports Development and Investment Agency (BEDIA) replaced the Trade and Investment Promotions Agency (TIPA) in 1998 as a one-stop investment-clearing agency that promotes, facilitates and monitors investment flows in Botswana. Its objectives include promotion of investment and manufacture's exports as well as construction of factory shells for lease to investors.¹² The TIPA had been established in 1984 as an export promoting initiative whose objective was to provide information needed by potential investors in Botswana, assisting in logistical support in communication with relevant government departments, parastatals and private organizations.

The major setback of Botswana's macro-economic policies is that they tend to focus on the formal sector of the economy and exclude the informal sector in which the majority of women entrepreneurs operate. This results in women being unable to equally benefit with men from the government's citizen economic empowerment programmes and policies.

One may also argue that this exclusion of women, results in false economic performance reports that exclude the participation of the majority of the population in the economic development of the country. The reports do not only exclude women, but also exclude poor and disadvantaged men and the disabled people who usually operate in the informal sector of the economy.

The policies do not take into consideration the differential socio-economic positions of women

within the economy. Since this has led to many government policies not achieving the intended goals, it is therefore essential to mainstream gender into all government policies to achieve gender equality.

Macro-economic structure

Economic growth

Table 1 indicates a tremendous upward trend in economic growth from 1998 to 2002. The good performance of the economy is a consequence of a very high real growth rate in the mining sector (see Table 2), though it declined in the years 2001-2002.

The non-mining sectors, on the other hand experienced a slow-down in real growth rate in the period 1999-2000, as shown in Table 2. This was due to slower growth rates recorded by major non-mining sectors such as manufacturing, construction, finance and business services, and social and personal services. However, the performance of this sector improved, recording higher growth in 2001/2002 than previous years.

As indicated in Table 3, exports became diversified due to the rapid increase in exports of motor vehicles. From 1999 onwards however, as the motor vehicle assembly operations encountered problems and eventually ceased production, the share of diamonds increased.

Women do not benefit directly from export activities because of the nature of their economic activities. They venture more into informal small businesses that cannot compete on international markets or even on local markets. In terms of employment, they are mainly found in the textile industry that has proved to be unsustainable in Botswana.¹³ Women as employees are insignificant in the major exporting sectors.

GDP Per Capita, 1998-2002

Table 1

Year	GDP current prices (Pula)	GDP per capita (current prices)	GDP per capita (constant prices)
1998/99	21.5 billion	13 413	12 295
1999/02	24.9 billion	15 165	15 238
2000/01	28.7 billion	16 992.6	16 524
2001/02	32.0 billion	18 520.8	16 911
2002/03	N/A	N/A	N/A

SOURCE: BoB Annual Report 2002; MFDP Annual Report, 2003

GDP by Type of Activity in Constant 1999-2000 Prices

Table 2

Economic Activity	% 1998/99	% 1999/00	% 2000/01	% 2001/02
Mining	32.1	33.4	36.5	34.5
Agriculture	3.1	2.6	2.6	2.5
Manufacturing	4.6	4.4	4.1	4.0
Construction	6.4	6.1	5.8	5.9
Hotel/Restaurants	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.4
Trade*	9.1	9.0	9.0	9.5
Transport	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.9
Business Services*	11.4	11.0	10.9	11.4
General Government	16.3	16.1	16.0	16.9
Social & Personal Services	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.2
GDP excluding Mining	67.9	66.6	63.5	65.5

SOURCE: BoB Annual Report, 2002

Percentage Distribution of Export by Type, 1998-2001

Table 3

Year	Diamond	Copper	Beef	Textile	Vehicle
1998	69.5	5.0	3.9	3.5	11.1
1999	79.4	4.6	2.0	2.0	5.5
2000	82.3	6.0	2.2	1.8	2.0
2001	84.5	4.2	3.2	1.3	2.1

SOURCE: BoB Annual Report, 2002

Foreign direct investment

The current economic development strategy for Botswana emphasises the advantages of attracting foreign direct investment to the country. Data has shown that from 1997 to 2001, the total FDI increased by 177 per cent, with the mining sector accounting for the largest share (86 percent) as well as the bulk of FDI growth.¹⁴

The non-mining FDI grew more slowly, by 66 percent over the period. Within the non-mining sector, the most important recipients of total FDI were the finance sector (7.5 percent) and trade (retail and wholesale) sector (6.7 percent). The manufacturing sector experienced relatively slow growth of FDI, while the construction sector declined.¹⁵

Women benefit from FDI in terms of employment in the major recipient industries as compared to men who are mainly owners. The women employees are susceptible to exploitation by investors because they are mostly unskilled, and therefore receive low wages and at the same time, the Employment Act does not protect them from sexual harassment or any other form of harassment by employers, which is quite rife in the private sector.

As shown in Table 4, Botswana boasts high levels of official FER¹⁶ because exports have grown faster than imports, leading to rising current account surpluses. This is also due to a fixed exchange rate policy that prevented the appreciation of the exchange rate, which would have tended to eliminate such surpluses of the Balance of Payment¹⁷ under a floating rate regime. Women, like men, benefit indirectly from this in that in times of crises or natural disasters, the reserves are employed to arrest the situation.

Botswana's monetary policy aims to achieve a sustained low inflation; however inflation rose sharply in July 2002 due to the impact of the introduction of the Value Added Tax (VAT) on a range of goods.¹⁸ This impacts negatively on the cost of living of the poor and low-income earners who are mainly women. It also

exacerbates the rates of poverty among the poor and disadvantaged citizens especially the female-headed households.

The expenditure on social-economic and public services has increased over the years with a decline in the year 2000/01.¹⁹ This is evidence of the efforts made in the Poverty Reduction Strategy through various measures of intervention.

The first was the assessment of entrepreneurs to enhance their productivity, therefore create employment opportunities, and diversify the economy through direct productive support schemes.

The second set of anti-poverty policies relate to government programmes geared towards employment creation in rural areas such as Labour-based Public Works Programme (LG117), Labour Intensive Public Works Programme, and Remote Area Development Programme (RADP).

A third group of policies developed by government to alleviate poverty are the direct safety nets aimed at benefiting the destitute, orphans, disabled among others under such safety net programmes as the Destitute Programme, Orphanage Support Programme, World War II Veteran allowance, Old Age Pension Scheme and the Drought Relief Programme. These programmes have made a great impact on preventing starvation.²⁰ However, since they are mainly welfare-related and not empowerment based, this may have created dependency on government in some areas.

Economic development challenges

Unemployment

Most of the economic growth from the 1980s to 1990s was in

Foreign Exchange Reserves (FER)				Table 4
Year	FER	Current Acc (% of GDP)	FER (% of GDP)	
1998	26 485	4.0	123	
1999	28 852	11.5	116	
2000	33 880	9.7	118	
2001	41 182	8.0	129	

SOURCE: BoB Annual Report, 2002

Inflation Rate and Cost of Living Index						Table 5
Year	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	
Inflation (%)	6.5	7.8	8.5	6.6	8.1	
COL Index	115.3	125.0	135.9	143.4	159.5	

SOURCE: BoB Annual Report, 2002

the urban areas. Where employment opportunities have developed in the rural areas, these have primarily been in the large rural villages. The total of both formal and informal sector employment increased from 379,938 in 1991 to 453,385 in 2001, representing 73,447 additional jobs, an average growth rate of two percent per annum over the decade.

Although the unemployment rate in Botswana as a whole ranges between 15 to 20 percent, it is significantly higher in the rural areas, perhaps as high as 50 percent outside main rural villages.²¹ This is where most women reside due to their traditional domestic and community roles, even though Botswana Institute of Development and Policy Analysis (BIDPA) claims "access to formal sector employment in rural Botswana is largely influenced by the individual's education level and to a lesser extent by their gender."²²

Studies indicate that there is a gradual decline in the rural population outside of major villages as people leave in the hope of obtaining a better lifestyle. However, unless this is accompanied by urban employment growth, then poverty will be transferred from rural to urban areas. Investment in employment opportunities in rural areas will provide incentives for people to remain in rural areas.²³

Poverty

In spite of the high economic growth, poverty remains one of the major development challenges for Botswana. Studies have shown that the impact is more evident at the micro level than at the level of the household and communities.²³ In 1994, it was estimated that 47 percent of the households in Botswana were

living below the poverty datum line.²⁵ Of these, 30 percent were classified as "very poor" and 23 percent of the population lived on less than US\$ 1 per day.

The Human Poverty Index in Botswana showed that poverty was more than double in rural areas compared to urban areas and the worst forms are concentrated in the country's most remote areas where a high degree of dependence on government welfare exists. However, the figure fell down to 36.6 percent by 2001. The goal of Vision 2016 see (Table 2) is to reduce the proportion of population living below the poverty datum line to 23 percent by 2007 and zero by 2016. The devastating impact of HIV and AIDS, if not properly addressed, is likely to render the goal difficult to attain.

The main causes of poverty include the country's narrow economic base, limited income generating opportunities and a small domestic market. The economy is dependent on mining and the population is not only small but has a skewed income distribution pattern.

Poverty, to some extent, is an unemployment problem. Other causes of poverty in Botswana include drought, lack of education and skills, lack of productive assets, policy failure and inappropriate targeting of programmes, the decline of traditional support mechanisms such as the extended family and problems related to market access and low producer prices.

As already mentioned, this affects women more than men as shown by the significantly lower success rate of female households in getting out of poverty compared to the male-headed households. Whereas the female-headed households experienced a decrease of 10 percent in poverty,

male-headed households reduced it by 14 percent points.²⁶

Botswana has developed a system of grassroots community participation.²⁷ However, there are limitations to that participation because of the limited capacity of some members of the community to comprehend some of the policies being proposed by the Government. Further, the participation of minorities and especially women who are very vulnerable to poverty is very limited. As for women, most tribes did not, until recently, consider public affairs a domain for them,²⁸ thereby excluding women from decision-making processes that involve their developmental needs. This may explain why many development policies and programmes do not achieve the intended outcome.

Access to economic resources

Cash and credit

There are different structures that facilitate access to cash and credit in Botswana.

These are Government programmes that include FAP, CEDA, Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises (SMME), and the Arable Land Development Programme (ALDEP); Financial institutions such as the National Development Bank and Commercial Banks. Although women participate in the schemes, their participation tends to be concentrated in activities, which at face value are traditionally associated with household roles such as bread-baking, knitting, sewing, textile and garment manufacturing and food processing.

The textile and manufacturing sub-sector has faced stiff competition from South African sponsored chain stores, which are able to supply cheaper and better quality products. This makes it even more difficult for the local producer, particularly women

entrepreneurs, to penetrate and compete in the markets. It is hoped that the AGOA Agreement will give women more access to external markets.²⁹ The SADC Trade Protocol facilitates exports within the SADC region, which also benefits Botswana's economic development strategy that is export-oriented.

In the SMME the majority of participants, 70.3 percent, are women.³⁰ Due to the expanded scope of this scheme to include service industry, women entrepreneurs have gone a long way into investing in business activities including food catering, health and beauty and other service industry activities. Generally, women participants are in the majority in the areas of street vending (60.5 percent), hawking (81 percent), manufacturing (74.5 percent) and general trading (58.4 percent). In the food processing industry sub-sector, more males were found to be venturing into activities with a higher investment profile, high returns and ensured security as opposed to their female counterparts, though there were 62 percent female participants compared to 38 percent males.

On the manufacturing front, male entrepreneurs tended to be the more active applicants, at 75 percent. This can be attributed to a number of reasons, namely, low technical skills base among women and limited access to land for business operations.

There is need to promote greater participation by women in those activities with potential for higher economic returns, areas that are dominated by male entrepreneurs.

Land

Women are still having problems when it comes to owning industrial plots or residential plots in Botswana. In rural areas, women

do not know about the property law³¹ let alone its amendment. Traditions whereby women cannot independently own land are still rife, and it is not easy for them to break such traditions without causing "trouble" in the family.³² While women are the single biggest group that has so far benefited from FAP and SMME micro funds, they have not equally enjoyed equal access to business lease plots and commercial and industrial licenses.

According to a Women's NGO Coalition (WNGOC) report in 1999, only 35.6 percent of commercial and industrial plot holders were females, as compared to 60.5 percent males. This points to the fact that most women who have benefited from FAP and SMME funds operate home or cottage-based production activities, and this tends to limit their potential to grow or graduate to higher levels of industrial operation. Therefore, this hinders women from benefiting directly from all trade agreements, policies and investments promotions put in place by the Government.

Labour

Women face difficulties in accessing labour services because of the nature and scope of their businesses. The businesses are too small to pay competent wages compared to their male counterparts.³³ Most of them venture into informal businesses to provide for their families, to be their own bosses and because they have given up on finding employment in the formal sector.³³

Agriculture

Although the agricultural sector no longer claims a significant share of the GDP, the great majority of the Botswana still rely on it. They continue to rely heavily on

rain fed cultivation, although financially, livestock rearing constitute the largest component of the agricultural sector.³⁴ Even though women dominate the agricultural activities (53 percent), they tend to concentrate on such activities as poultry and small stock production.

Like all other government schemes, the ALDEP has benefited women participants most (52 percent) as opposed to male counterparts (48 percent). However, the outcomes have been less beneficial to women because most agricultural land is owned by men (see Table 6).

Land Use Holdings						Table 6
Holding	No of Holdings	Male owned	Female owned	Population/area	Male owned	Female owned
Land	65 617	-	-	298 978	-	-
Crop	32 353	-	-	94 161	-	-
Cattle	66 113	50 929	15 184	2 468 399	1 775 513	692 886
Goat	81 316	55 435	25 881	1 886 588	1 404 420	482 168
Sheep	23 011	17 704	5 307	306 337	240 669	65 668
Donkeys	54 366	-	-	409 320	-	-
Chicken	77 559	-	-	928 238	-	-
Horses	1 259	-	-	4 668	-	-
Pigs	548	-	-	5 347	-	-

SOURCE: Agriculture Statistics Report, 2001

In Table 6, it is evident that most of the agricultural wealth in the country is in the hands of males. Though the land holdings figures are not sex disaggregated, it can be safely concluded that the male-headed households tend to hold more land than female-headed households.³⁵ The same can be said about the crop holding.³⁶ From the same Table, it can be noted that males as compared to their female counterparts own the majority of the livestock holdings and population in Botswana. Although some data is missing it can be concluded that generally the agricultural wealth, which is key to the life of Botswana, is owned and controlled by men.

People in rural Botswana have a close relationship with nature.

Natural resources

The people in rural Botswana have a close relationship with nature. They depend on the environment for their livelihoods, it supports their daily lives, and they get materials for food, healing and building from the environment. The relationship between rural people and nature is becoming even stronger because most of the people depend on the environment for livelihood sources as Botswana is faced with low production in agriculture due to frequent poor annual rainfall amounts leading to droughts.

Women in Botswana are actively involved in CBOs that are not wildlife-based. These CBOs are mainly engaged in the utilization of the veld products. Most of the veld products CBOs fail to flourish, as they do not have permanent sources of income like the wildlife based CBOs. The wildlife-based CBOs receive wildlife hunting quotas which are sold to safari hunting companies and are also leased to Community Hunting Areas by landboards and they rent out the land to the hunting or photographic companies. In veld products, CBO members harvest the available resources to sell and earn income.

An example of a successful CBO which has made both an economic as well as a social impact on the lives of rural women is the *Kgetsi Ya Tsie* Trust (KYT). The Trust is a grassroots community based rural women's micro-enterprise organization. It is located in the Tswapong Hills area in Eastern Botswana and started operating in 1997. It registered as a trust in February 1999. It is involved in the harvesting, management, and marketing of the veld products as a means of survival. The trust is primarily

aimed at socio-economic empowerment of women by promoting their direct participation in viable natural resources and other micro-enterprises. Through the trust women are trained in basic business management, production and marketing. The trust also has a micro-lending facility that supports women's micro-enterprises. The trust boasts membership in 22 villages of the Tswapong Hills Area.

Veld products

Research has indicated that most of the women in rural Botswana depend on the veld products for their livelihoods. Veld products contribute to the rural economy. Their contribution seems to be ignored in policy making because government has never made efforts to identify that contribution. These veld products are found on the tribal lands, where everyone has open access. Harvesting of veld in the communal lands and relying on that as a livelihood source make women more vulnerable to poverty.

People who depend on veld products as a livelihood source, most of whom are women lose the harvesting grounds every quarter of the year when the tribal land allocations are done. There is still a great emphasis on arable and livestock agriculture despite the fact that the output from agricultural sector has remained stagnant. The land under arable agriculture will continue to increase in size especially with the emergence of programmes like the National Master Plan for Arable Agriculture and Dairy Development (NAMPADD).

Food security and water

Food security is one of the objectives of the National Policy on Agricultural Development of

1991. The Revised National Food Strategy of 1997 is also meant to support especially the vulnerable rural based population in light of poor arability of most land in Botswana to produce even the basic foodstuff for survival.

There is continued government support in the form of programmes such as ALDEP, the Small Livestock Owners in Communal Areas (SLOCA), the Livestock Water Development Project (LWDP), the Emergency Plant Protection (Drought Relief) and lately the NAMPAADD. This seeks to improve the performance of the agriculture sector by introducing improved technology, efficient use and management of human, land and water resources. The Plan focuses on rain-fed, irrigated and dairy farming.³⁷

The Ministry of Minerals, Energy and Water Resources recognizes the link between poverty and water availability, and that the worst affected group is women. Not much was done during the National Development Plan 8 (NDP 8); therefore, this will be addressed during NDP 9 as part of the National Master Plan Review.³⁸

Water is one major constraint facing agriculture in much of the country. Rainfall is low and erratic, and droughts are regular. The NAMPAADD perceives irrigation as an option, which needs to be subsidised. However, it must be recognised that men, or male-headed households, own almost all boreholes in the country, which put women and female-headed households at a disadvantage.

EMPLOYMENT

Employment legislation

Following the amendment of the Employment Act of 1996, there is no discrimination in terms of the applicability of employment leg-

islation. In the private and informal sectors, the minimum terms and conditions of employment are not generally enforced and a lack of information on employee rights means that many employees, especially women, are not receiving their statutory benefits.³⁹

Employment by sector

The largest employer in the economy is government (central and local) with 33.4 percent of total employment. This is followed by the Private sector with 32.4 percent, and the third largest employer is the Informal sector (including domestic services) with 16.6 percent. The informal sector is dominated by females with about 66.9 percent of total employment in this sector. Traditional agriculture and Parastatal make 14.1 and 3.5 percent of the total employment respectively.⁴⁰

On average government and manufacturing almost had equal distribution of 53.2 percent males and 46.8 percent female, and 45.5 percent males and 54.5 percent females respectively. Women are disturbingly missing in the mining/quarrying sector with 94.1 percent males and 5.9 percent females.

This is followed by construction with 87.5 percent males and 12.5 percent females; electricity/water with 84.6 percent males and 15.4 percent females; agriculture with 71.8 percent males and 28.2 percent females; private/parastatal sectors accounted for 65.5 percent males and 34.5 percent females and local government with 62.3 percent males and 37.7 percent females.

Women are missing in the agriculture sector because they are more involved in subsistence farming than commercial farming that is easily captured by the GDP data collection.

Male-headed households own almost all boreholes in the country.

*Rural
employment is
dominated by
agriculture.*

Most of the jobs are concentrated in the urban areas, which accounted for 54.9 percent of the total employment. While 43.8 percent of government employment was in urban areas, Private Sector was over 78.4 percent. Informal Sector was more prevalent in urban areas. This is reflected by the number of workers 36,378 compared to 20,862 in rural areas. Parastatals are concentrated in urban areas, and most of the employees consequently 83.3 percent were in urban areas.

Rural employment is however dominated by agriculture 30.5 percent. Public Administration is the second largest employer 18.0 percent. Construction and Education accounted for 14.1 and 12.1 percent of total rural employment respectively.⁴¹

Employment by industry

The total currently employed population numbered 345,405, out of which 189,301 are males and 156,104 females. Major industrial employers are Public Administration (17.4 percent); wholesale, hotels, restaurants and trade (15.7 percent), agriculture (15.6 percent); construction (11.9 percent) and education (9.6 percent) of total employment.

The largest employer of females is education, with 62.3 percent, followed by the wholesales, hotels, restaurants, and trade, which accounted for 59.3 percent. Private households are also one of the major employers of females with 89.7 percent of its employees being females.

Health and social work are also some of the industries dominated by women. The male dominated industries are construction 68.5 percent, agriculture 68.9 percent, mining, and quarrying 84.3 percent and Business Services (75.5 percent).⁴²

While women in Botswana, on average are more educated than their male counterparts, they tend to be employed in less remunerating professions in the formal sector, and they tend to have less labour market characteristics compared to their male counterparts.⁴³

Employment by occupation

There are indications that the most common occupation is elementary occupation (labourer), with over 35.4 percent of the total employment.

Women are mostly in the occupations of Clerical (67.3 percent), Service (58.5 percent) and Technical/Associate Professionals (59.3 percent) of the total employment. The high number of females in Technical/Associate Profession is because of the large number of female teachers. Female administrators/managers and professionals account for 25.7 percent and 31.3 percent of the total respectively.

There is a significant shift to engendered participation in employment in Botswana, with women becoming more active in the workforce than before and entering into occupations that were previously monopolized by men.

This shift is associated with changing cultural roles and gender relations both within and beyond the household, and it is related to the increasing number of female-headed households. Importantly both women and men view these socio-cultural changes positively.⁴⁴

The number of senior citizens who qualified for the old age pension (65+) stood at 71,900 or 7.6 percent of the population aged 12 years and above. Amongst these, 78 percent were found in rural areas and females accounted for 55.6 percent of the total.

Informal sector

In this sector, labour relations, where they exist, are based mostly on casual employment, kinship or personal and social relations rather than contractual arrangements with formal guarantees (open to abuse and exploitation of workers and this is where women are mostly found). The labour relations are not registered under specific forms of legislation. There is no complete set of accounts maintained. That is why they are difficult to include in the calculation of GDP. It also creates difficulty for industrial courts to deal with disputes between employer and employee and it puts the employee at a disadvantage. It is mostly women who suffer in this regard.

Informal sector as main activity

According to the 1998 Central Statistics Office (CSO) report, of the 57,240 informal sector employees enumerated, 47.1 percent were paid employees, 48.7 percent were self employed and only 4.2 percent were unpaid workers. Women accounted for 66.9 percent of the informal sector employees, and most of these (52.5 percent) were in paid employment, whilst 40.7 percent were in self-employment both with and with no employees. A substantial proportion (62.5 percent) of these women in paid employment was in urban areas.

The largest employer of these paid employees is the household sector with 70.3 percent of the total paid employees. Of the paid employees in the household sector, 89.7 percent of them are women as housekeepers and babysitters. This could also be true for those found in rural areas. The construction and wholesale and retail trade follow, with 10.4 and 9.6 percent respectively.

The self-employed are predominantly in wholesale and

retail trade, constituting 37.8 percent. The construction, hotels, and restaurants follow, with 12.8 percent and 7.8 percent respectively. Women also dominate in the wholesale and retail trade, contributing about 70.7 percent of all employees in this industry. Women constitute about 53.0 percent of the total informal sector employment amongst the 15-44 years age group.

As of 1997/98, it was estimated that there were about 60,000 microenterprises in Botswana, most of which operated in the informal sector employing one-to-two people. Of these, 70 percent were located in rural areas; 65 percent were involved in trading activities; and women, mainly not registered and operating from home, owned 75 percent.

Excluding private households, women contributed 55.6 percent of the total workforce employment in this sector. The total number of employees engaged in the informal sector as a secondary activity amounted to 4,668, out of which 2,873 (61.5 percent) males and 1,795 (38.5 percent) were females.⁴⁵ More men have more than one source of income than women. For men the informal sector is an additional choice, but for the majority of women it is the main, if not the only, source of income and livelihood.

The role of NGOs

A number of NGOs are playing a critical role of financially assisting women who are unable to access the above-mentioned financial schemes.⁴⁶ One of these NGOs is Women's Finance House, which aims to assist low-income women entrepreneurs with access to credit and savings. Its target group is poor rural and peri-urban women. Since 1997, it has switched from individual loans to group-based micro lending.

Women also dominate in the wholesale and retail trade.

It is quite evident that men control the economic sector of the country.

Emang Basadi Women's Association aims to address women's issues in areas of social, economic, political and women's legal status.

It is through the Women Economic Empowerment Project that women accessed small loans to start small income generating projects.

At the Women's Shelter Project, women are counselled, sometimes with their partners and family members and taught life skills such as sewing and fabric painting. Co-operation for Research, Development, and Education (CORDE) was formed to provide support to production and service enterprises and community groups for social economic development. The organization works with small, medium and micro-enterprises as well as other development organisations in and outside Botswana with a strong bias towards rural areas. It also provides education and capacity building.

It is quite evident that men control the economic sector of the country. The men dominate the formal sector; employment, commercial agriculture, and majority land holdings and operate highly profitable businesses. Women's contribution to sustainable economic development is generally missing in national economic reports. The apparently low rate of women's participation in economic activity is actually a reflection of systematic under-reporting of their activities.

Labour force data collection still relies on single occupation criteria to define economic activity among the population. Despite evidence from time-use data, that women participate in a multiple of income generating activities, which they combine with their regular housework, these activities are excluded, and housework

is taken as the definite main activity. This approach identifies economic activities as those that have potential for cash earning income, and thus excludes most of the subsistence activities on which rural households and womenfolk engage in.

Thus, the nation's women continue to be reported as participating only minimally in the creation of national wealth and household income, despite evidence from other sources that indicate that they engage in agriculture and contribute significantly to the production of food.⁴⁷

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

The Beijing Platform for Action indicates that "achieving the goal of equal participation of women and men in decision-making will provide a balance that more accurately reflects the composition of society and is needed in order to strengthen democracy." Women's equal participation in politics is imperative as it plays a significant role in the advancement of women and gender equality.

Despite the existence of multi-party democracy and democratic rule since independence in Botswana, women remain under-represented in political positions at the national and local level.

The increase in the percentage of women in parliament and councils in 1999 was unfortunately not maintained in the 2004 elections, as the ruling and opposition parties did not field women in substantial numbers. Further, most women who stood for elections were strongly challenged by men and most of them lost dismally. Equal representation of women and men in positions of power is still a long way to be achieved.

The Constitution that was adopted in 1996, established a multi-racial democracy based on a

multi-party parliamentary system centred on regular, free, and fair elections, separation of powers of the Legislature, the Executive, and the Judiciary.⁴⁸ Further, the Constitution upholds the rule of law and independence of the courts. Therefore, since independence, Botswana has largely embraced and practised multiparty democracy and good governance. It is generally recognized internationally and regionally as having a good record of democracy, political stability, and respect for human rights.⁴⁹

The public directly elects 50 constituency members of the National Assembly.⁵⁰ The National Assembly elects four members and the Speaker. The Presidential candidate, who is supported by the majority of Members of Parliament, takes office as President and she/he appoints members of Cabinet from the members of the National Assembly.

The President has the powers to dissolve Parliament and hold a general election every five years. National elections have been successfully held in 1965, 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1994, 1999 and 2004.

The Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) has been returned to power since independence.⁵¹ The opposition parties have become relatively stronger over the last 10 years and there are serious efforts to unite opposition parties to challenge the dominance of the ruling party.

The 2004 election demonstrated the strength of the opposition as they gained more seats in Parliament and received a substantial percentage of the vote. Some of the women who lost in the 2004 election stood in highly contested opposition constituencies.

In addition to the National Assembly, there is a 15 member House of Chiefs that provides advice to the National Assembly

on matters concerning customary law practices and tradition. This is still a male dominated institution as the majority of chiefs are men. In recent years, three women have been nominated as chiefs and they represent their ethnic groups in the House of Chiefs.

Their presence has made a difference to debates and discussions on gender concerns. The House of Chiefs tends to promote traditional culture, laws, and practices, and thus has in the past questioned gender reform initiatives, such as the Marital Power Bill, recently adopted by Parliament.

There is an independent judiciary system that has a High Court presided over by a Chief Justice and a Court of Appeal. The modern courts have played a critical role in promoting legal transformation, from a gender perspective. There is also a parallel system of customary courts presided over by traditional and nominated chiefs, headman and their representatives, who hear evidence and pronounce verdicts in public hearings.

A few Customary Courts set the pace for transformation as they have changed certain customary laws and practices where they have pronounced judgments that are contrary to expected practice. The Kanye and Mochudi courts are known for having changed the maintenance laws allowing mothers to claim payment of support for not only the first children, but for subsequent children also.⁵²

In the last decade, Botswana strengthened its democracy. One of the major achievements since 1995 has been the lowering of the voting age from 21 to 18, through a referendum. An Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) has been established to strengthen the electoral process. The strengthening of opposition political parties

Engendering elections Box 3 and governance

Governments elected into office in 2004 clearly showed their commitment to the 2005 targets set by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in its 1997 Declaration on Gender and Development, although the electorate did not always support them on this issue.

The most notable case was Botswana, where the general elections on 30 October saw a sharp drop in the number of women elected to parliament, down from seven in the previous parliament to four. Only 12 women candidates contested the elections.

Although heavily criticized for being the laggard in reaching regional gender targets, trailing all but Mauritius, President Festus Mogae used his prerogative to redeem the situation by appointing women to three of the four nominated seats for non-constituency MPs, thus bringing the number back up to seven.

He then took another significant step by appointing four women cabinet ministers out of a total of 14 full ministers. This means that 28.6 percent of the cabinet positions in Botswana are held by women.

In addition, Mogae gave arguably the most important cabinet post in the country at the present time to a woman, that of Health, to Professor Shiela Tlou.

SOURCE Southern African News Features, (SANF) 04 no 107, SADC, December 2004

over the last 10 years, and efforts to unite the opposition parties will strengthen the position of the opposition and the nature of Botswana democracy.

The opposition strengthened its representation in Parliament in the last election and gained a significant proportion of the votes. These initiatives do not seem to have had a positive impact on the representation of women in politics. It has had a relative impact on the participation of relatively young and educated men as the profile of members of parliament has changed since the 2004 elections.

Despite Botswana's impressive achievements as a democracy, there is a lot of room for improving the democratic process, as there are numerous challenges that limit the nature of democracy and political process. The major challenge is the fact that representation in most democratic structures is not inclusive of most groups in the country, including women, the youth, and the minority groups.

Another challenge is that most people do not cast their votes during elections, which undermines the democratic process.⁵³ In 1994 and 1999, less than 50 percent and 44.6 percent respectively, of the voting age population cast their votes as compared to 67 percent in 1965. The percentage of people that voted in the 2004 election was not substantially different from the 1999 elections. Research and evaluation data have indicated that the major reasons why people are not voting include limited voter information, voter apathy, and lack of political awareness and education to fully understand the importance of voting.⁵⁴

It is further evident that there are more women who vote than men, yet they continue to vote for

men. Gender activists have attributed this situation to the patriarchal nature of African society where it is common belief that men are leaders and women are followers.⁵⁵ The 2004 primary elections by the different parties demonstrated the fact that men are still preferred as leaders as very few women were nominated as candidates.

The transformation process and establishment of new democratic structures in Botswana has opened various avenues for women and men to participate in the political process and structures of the country.

In addition, the general and rapid socio-economic changes over the last three decades has provided opportunities that have impacted on women, men, boys and girls differently as indicated in the previous chapters. The general development achievements in Botswana have contributed to a reduction in gender disparities and gaps to some extent, i.e. access to education and health as well as a limited share in the economic wealth of the country (see section on the economy).

Participation of women and men in parliament and cabinet

Women comprise more than 50 percent of the population and are the majority of voters, yet they are still inadequately represented in high political and decision making positions.⁵⁶ Women are also conspicuously absent on boards and the management structures of private sector organisations as compared to men.

The statistics indicate that well over 50 percent of the decision making positions are occupied by men as statistics indicate that there were only 18 percent female representation in Parliament, 26 percent in Cabinet and 15 percent at Local Government Level in

1999. The 2004 election results have shown that women have lost the gains they made in 1999 as the numbers of women in parliament and council has decreased. The 2004 elections were very disappointing as women performed poorly and civil society organisations did not strongly advocate for women candidates compared to the 1999 elections.

This limits the voices of women at the highest levels and their ability to influence policy decisions. This further constrains the process of gender mainstreaming, as it requires a critical mass of women and men at decision and policy-making levels to influence policy reform.

From the 7 female parliamentarians, 4 were elected and 3 were appointed by the president as non-constituency MPs. A total of 12 women contested and 7 were from the BDP. A total of 14 ministers were appointed. Of these, 4 are women and 10 are men. Five assistant MPs were also nominated and 1 is a woman.⁵⁷

Although Botswana has consistently practised liberal and multi-party democracy, political process and activities have been and still are primarily the domain of men, as it is in most African societies. As noted by some researchers,⁵⁸ "political independence has transformed Botswana from the rule based on hereditary Chiefs to one based on popular consent through universal adult suffrage, but notably for women this transformation has changed the form rather than the substance of their participation and representation in positions of power and politics."

Women have not used their voting power to transform the male dominated nature of the legislature and executive. Research has shown that traditional stereo-

typed attitudes, gender insensitive party policies, and procedures still prevail in party structures. The party membership and the voting public are still making it difficult for women to participate actively at decision making levels.

There is an urgent need to have a demonstrated political commitment and will as well as a positive transformation of public attitudes to radically increase the number of women in Parliament and Cabinet. There is a need to advocate for affirmative action policies by political parties and other governance structures.

Since 1995, a few women have been appointed as judges. This is a positive step in the right direction but women are still under-represented in the administration of justice and transformation in this regard is very slow. Women occupy only 14 percent of the positions in the top management of the judiciary while men occupy 86 percent.

Representation of Women and Men in Parliament and Cabinet, 1994-2004

Table 7

Institution	1994			1999			2004		
	Women	Men	Female %	Women	Men	Female %	Women	Men	Female %
Parliament	4	40	9	8	36	18.2	7	50	11.1
Cabinet	2	13	19	4	13	23.5	4	10	28.6

SOURCES Women's Affairs Department (WAD) 2002; Botswana Press Agency (BOPA) www.ipu.org

Table 8 indicates the gender disparities at the local authority level. It is clear that the representation of women is well below the 30 percent minimum requirement. Despite the fact that there are more women in the rural population, as party members and as voters, they are still a minority group in decision-making. Only 15 percent of the councillors are women as compared to 85 percent men.

Representation of Women and Men in Local Authorities, 1999

Table 8

Position	Women	Men	Female %
Mayor	1	9	10
Town/City Clerk	5	23	18
Councillors	70	409	15
Total	76	441	43

SOURCE WAD 2002

The 2004 elections did not add any gains at this level as well. It is also evident that decision-making positions at local authority level are a male domain.

Even-though there have been a few more women as Council Secretaries and City Clerks since 1995, the progress is very slow. This is an improvement from 1994, as there were fewer women in these governance structures.

Research has shown that the subordinate position of women and the embedded perception that the public domain is reserved for men continues to exclude women. Existing structures of all parties in Botswana have less than 30 percent representation of women in the party executive committees.

The under-representation of women in decision-making structures is a major obstacle to women's equal rights and undermines the commitment to gender equality and participatory democracy. Research data indicated that the fundamental problem is male dominance, traditional practices, attitudes, and the discriminatory nature of political systems and structures. There is also evidence that party policies and procedures are not gender-sensitive.⁵⁹

All party structures do not demonstrate a high level of political commitment to gender equality in decision-making. Some parties have a 30 percent quota policy and indicate in their manifestos that they want more women in decision-making and have mainstreaming strategies but have failed to translate their promises into practice. Another major obstacle that affects women directly in terms of their capacity to campaign is limited access to economic resources and social support from the family and community.

The electoral process is another major hurdle that needs to be

critically reviewed by all parties, as the present, first-past-the-Post constituency-based system is not inclusive of all social groups. It is argued that experience has shown that a proportional representative system will facilitate an increase in the number of women and other minority groups in politics.⁶⁰

Civil society organisations, such as Emang Basadi, the Botswana Caucus on Women in Politics and the IEC need to develop innovative education and sensitisation approaches to address the gender disparities and traditional attitudes that are a major barrier in the advancement of women in politics.

The effective participation of women and other social groups in the governance process is an issue of human rights and social justice and it will strengthen Botswana's democracy. The perspectives, values, and experiences of male and female parliamentarians will enrich debates and decisions that affect the lives of women and men as well as the future destiny of this country.

It is also evident from available statistics that the participation of women in middle management in the public and private sector has improved. In the Public sector most of the managerial positions are occupied by women but very few advance to the top position of permanent secretary. Presently this position in the public sector is still a male domain and less that, women occupy 10 percent of this top-level position.

Even though some progress has been made since 1995, most women in the public service are concentrated in the middle management level and movement to the top is very slow. There are many women who qualify for top management positions but it is very difficult for them to break the glass ceiling. There is need to

Representation of Women and Men in Decision-Making Positions in the Public Sector Table 9

Grade	Women	Men	Total
F0	0	4	4
F1	11	13	24
F2	10	36	46
E1	5	37	42
E2	53	122	175
D1	73	146	219
Total	152	358	510

SOURCE Women's Affairs Department 2003

Key

F0 – F2 are salary levels that are for top chief executives in the public sector.

E1 – E2 are deputy level positions

D1 – is middle management positions

change mindsets of managers, as they still believe in male leadership, which is the major obstacle to the promotion of women. There needs to be more proactive advocacy and negotiation by women that are in management themselves with the assistance of WAD and civil society organisations.

Women are worse off in the private sector as compared to the public sector. There are very few women in Chief Executive positions compared to men, as indicated in Table 10.

The representation of women as Chief Executives in the private and parastatal sector has not changed significantly as organisations in these sectors are predominantly led by male Chief Executive Officers. Further, a limited number of women participate in private sector Boards, as it is still a male domain and an exclusive elitist arena that is difficult to enter for both women and men that have limited power and economic wealth.

Research has shown that limited relevant managerial training, recognition as potential managers as well as discriminatory promotion practices affect the advancement of women to top management and Chief Executive positions in the private sector.⁶¹ There is a need for gender training and sensitisation of these organisations and advocacy for the recruitment and promotion of women into top-level positions as well as in boards by civil society organisations and WAD.

The role of political parties and women's leagues/wings

Research has shown that the policies, procedures, and operations of political parties are a major obstacle to the participation of women in politics.⁶² The manner in which parliamentary candidates and pri-

mary elections are done makes it difficult for women to compete on an equal footing with men. Women are usually given low priority as candidates and are confined to activities of the women's wings within parties.

Table 12 shows that women are not given the opportunity to contest for elections as parliamentary candidates by all parties as demonstrated during the 1999 elections.

Most parties do not have affirmative action policies or a quota system to enhance the participation of women. Political parties have a critical role to play to change this obvious gender disparity in decision-making. The unequal representation of women and men in politics and decision-making makes the nature of democracy in Botswana questionable. A critical review of the 2004 elections by the BCWP and Women's NGO Coalition is of paramount importance to assess experiences, lessons learnt and major obstacles. There is need to prepare for the 2009 elections in advance.

In most cases, very few women hold positions in mainstream political structures. Most of the existing party structures have women's wings/leagues that are supposed to facilitate the participation of women in the issues of the parties. Research has shown that these structures remain marginalized as they are not taken

seriously and serve the welfare needs of the parties, such as fundraising, choir development, campaigning activities among others.

The establishment of the Botswana Caucus on Women in Politics is expected to facilitate a more conducive environment for

Gender Composition in Decision-Making in the Private Sector Table 10

Position	Women	Men
Board Member	20	122
Head of Company	5	32
Head of Department	119	320
Total	134	474

SOURCE WAD 2002

Gender Composition in Decision-Making in the Parastatal Sector Table 11

Position	Women	Men
Board Members	29	58
Head of Company	1	9
Deputy Heads	2	1
Head of Department	13	38
Total	45	106

SOURCE WAD 2002

Parliamentary Candidates by Gender and Political Party, 1999 Table 12

Year	1999	
Party	Women	Men
Botswana Democratic Party	6	3
Botswana Congress Party	3	34
Botswana National Front	37	21
Total	12	92

SOURCE WAD 1999

Gender and Political Party Results, 2004 Table 13

Political Party	Seats won	Women	Men
Botswana Democratic Party	44	4	40
Botswana National Front	12	Nil	12
Botswana Congress Party	1	Nil	1

SOURCE www.gov.bw

First woman Attorney-General Box 4

In June 2005, Dr Athaliah Molokomme was appointed Attorney-General, effective October 2005, the first woman to hold that position.

Dr Molokomme was the second woman to be appointed as a judge of the high court, in May 2003. The first woman judge of the high court of Botswana was Unity Dow, appointed in January 1998.

Dr Molokomme is a lawyer, and was the first head of the SADC Gender Unit.

SOURCE SADC WDSA, 2005.

women to compete equally with men for party positions, primary and parliamentary elections. There is need for unity and strong advocacy, mobilization and training by the Women's Caucus and Emang Basadi in order to make a difference in the representation of women in politics, party and other decision-making structures.

The role of civil society

Civil society organisations continue to play a critical role in the advocacy for a more transparent and inclusive political process. Non-government organisations such as Emang Basadi and the Women's Caucus have advocacy and political education programmes that have contributed to the current levels of participation by women. Since the 1994 elections, civil society, the women's organisations, in particular, have played a critical role to promote voter education, information, as well as train potential and actual women candidates for political office.

A number of NGOs that are promoting gender equality and women's rights have advocated for a higher level of representation of women in parliament as the only strategy to ensure that gender concerns and the interests of women and girls will be adequately mainstreamed into policies and programmes. There is need to strengthen the role of civil society in this regard as it has made a difference to the political agenda since 1994. NGOs need support to develop programmes that are sustainable, as civil society's role is important for any thriving democracy.

Emang Basadi has played a significant role through public and party political education to promote political changes. The 1999 elections demonstrated the

power of civil society as there were more women in parliament and cabinet than ever before in Botswana. Women's organisations, collectively through the Women's NGO Coalition, played a critical advocacy role for higher representation of women in positions of power.

A more consistent and holistic public political education programmes are necessary to promote gender transformation at all levels.

SOCIAL STRUCTURES

Kinship systems

The Tswana society has always been highly structured and predominantly patrilineal. For most societies in Botswana, descent is traced through the father and property and rank normally passed to the son, or to the next male member of the lineage. In times of need and trouble, a man is supposed to be advised and helped by his close male relatives, from both his parents' side and wife's side.

In marriage, a man is automatically respected by his in-laws whereas a woman has to earn the respect from her in-laws by being a "good wife." The position of men and women is not equal in Tswana society. Gender ideology, which propagates male superiority and female subordination, is built into all kinship structures.⁶³ However, there has been a considerable transformation in the structure and organisation of the Botswana society. The most salient transformation has been through legal, education and economic reforms.

In recognition of the existence of cultural perceptions and practices that discriminate against women, the government adopted the National Policy on Women in Development in 1995.

The aim of the policy is to promote gender-awareness and to address all cultural practices

that subjected women to discrimination. This has resulted in the amendment of a number of laws that affect the rights of women between 2000 and 2004 (present). The review of the laws has resulted in more job opportunities for females.

Historically a distinct class system emerged among the Tswana, the highest being the chiefs (*dikgosi*), sub-chiefs (*dik-gosana*); next came the commoners, *batlhanka*, and the immigrants who have not yet been accepted as full members of the clan. The immigrants like the daughters-in-law had to prove themselves as beneficial to the community to win the respect of the community. Class distinctions mainly operated in political life but also have social implications as well. With the constitution recognising that every person is equal before the law, it is a punishable offence by law to treat any person as a slave.

While the structures may still exist and the chief and sub-chiefs still maintain their positions in the society, their authority over their subjects has been undermined by the existence of political authorities like the District Commissioners, the police and other higher authorities to which the subjects can appeal. They have to operate under the overall legal system of the country.

Sexuality

The traditional construction of woman still demands that she either be a docile daughter, wife or caring mother. Women's sexuality was determined by the socio-cultural norms which denied women control over their own sexuality. Women are not expected to refuse the sexual advances of their male partners.

In 1994, the family planning services were revised to ensure

that every individual has the right to access the services regardless of age or marital status. This has resulted in an increase in the contraceptive prevalence rate from 42 percent in 1996 to 44.4 percent in 2000.

However, regardless of the government efforts to empower women to have control over their sexuality, their relatively poor economic base means they are still dependent on their male partners for their livelihood. This becomes a liability with regards to sexual issues. With the growing threat of HIV and AIDS, this implies that women become more vulnerable to infection than males.

In 1997, the government amended section 178 of the Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act, to create a victim friendly system that protects instead of further victimising the victim.

Socio-political and socialisation

In recent years, there have been some changes in the orientation of these cultural practices. The amendments of the laws have ensured that women who meet the requirements of the positions are given an opportunity to do so.

This has resulted in the appointment of the first woman high court judge, the enthronement of the first woman *kgosi* (paramount chief) who is currently the chairperson of the *Ntlo ya Dikgosi* (House of Chiefs) and the first ordained woman reverend.

Regarding socialisation of children, the situation has not changed what it was when the last national gender profile was produced in 1998. Girls are still initiated into following their mothers and other women at home in their female roles of cleaning, sweeping, preparing food and nursing younger siblings. The boys accompanied men

to the cattle-post and on hunting trips, a custom that still continues to some extent, but is slowly dying because, hunting is prohibited and the educational system is replacing the responsibility of parents.

Traditional initiation ceremony rituals prepared boys and girls for two very different types of roles, one domineering and in control, the other into lives of self-effacement and submission to men in their families. Male members of a regiment remained bound in strong solidarity as intimate and equal companions throughout their lives.

Girls, however, did not develop such bonds because they had to move to their husband's village after marriage. Despite the discontinuation of these initiation ceremonies, socialisation of boys and girls is still along the same lines through school, textbooks, the media, and the family.⁶⁴ The infusion of family life education in the school curricula is an attempt by the government to address the stereotyping of the subjects.

Marriage relations

The situation of women's rights in marriage has also not changed much from the time the last national gender profile was produced in 1998. Women continue to have fewer rights, when boys have greater freedom to select their brides and a husband "has the right" to demand sex from his wife irrespective of her wishes.

However, in recent years, the processes of urbanisation and modernisation have weakened the hold that culture had on society and thus, have advanced the status of women. First, marriage as an institution in Botswana is no longer universal. Marriage is being replaced by consensual relationships where women and men live as couples without having gone through any marriage ceremony or even without the consent of their respective families. This arrangement has afforded women some control not only over their sexuality, but also over their lives, as their uncles and brothers no longer have any direct control in this type of relationship.

Furthermore, the increases in the proportion of women who remain single, coupled with high divorce rates, have resulted in more female-head households. In 2001, females headed 46 percent of households. This implies an increase in the number of female decision-makers at household level.

Table 14 gives a classification of persons aged 15 years and over by marital status. The Table clearly shows that marriage as an institution is becoming uncommon for both women and men in Botswana. While in 1971 over 40 percent of the marriageable population was reported to have been in marital unions, by 2001 only 17 percent of both women and men were reported to have been in such unions.

EDUCATION

Botswana's record in expanding its educational facilities is most impressive. Since education is essential for human resource development, the government has given serious attention to the expansion of this sector. Enrolment increased from 8.3 to

Marital Status by Gender of Persons Aged 15 Years and Above Table 14

Marital Status	1971		1981		1991		2001	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Never Married	44.0	37.0	51.7	44.5	54.8	49.5	51.7	46.5
Married	47.1	42.9	44.4	41.5	29.0	27.2	17.1	17.9
Cohabiting	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	12.2	12.0	16.8	17.1
Separated/Divorced	5.0	6.6	2.1	3.3	1.7	2.0	1.2	1.8
Widowed	2.1	11.9	1.8	11.0	1.5	8.5	1.3	6.5

SOURCE Mukamaambo, 1995 and Mookodi, 2004

81.1 percent between 1993 and 2002.

The greater increase in the secondary level is because of the implementation of the 10-year basic education for all policy. The enrolment at primary level has already reached a satisfactory level of near 100 percent.

The government has put in place enabling policies and programmes such as; free education up to secondary level, ensuring that no child is returned from school due to not having uniform.

The welfare services provide for needy children. Primary schools are built within easy walking distance of young children. The non-reliance of the economy on agriculture has also contributed towards the improvement of enrolments, as children are no longer required to assist with farm work.

Enrolment rates at university level have also increased appreciably. Between 1993 and 2002, the increase in the enrolment rate at the university level was 180 percent.

The trends in enrolment rates between 1993 and 1999 show that females had a slight edge over males. By 2002, there were nearly equal numbers of females and males enrolled. The enrolment of students at vocational training institutions increased by 132.8 percent between 1993 and 2002.

The main cause of the increase in enrolments was the direct increase in the educational facilities that made it possible for those who wanted to be in the institutions to access the facilities.

Furthermore, while it is not the government policy to discriminate by gender during enrolment at certain facilities. Females also tend to dominate in non-technical institutions while males dominate in technical ones and in science related subjects. Furthermore, in terms of staffing,

there are more female staff members at lower level institutions like primary school than at university levels. Normally, where there is no obvious gender bias, the proportion of females at any one level or doing any subject should conform to the national proportion of between 50 and 52 percent. Any major deviation from the national average reflects non-random variation.

Within Botswana's educational structures, there exist two systems, namely the formal and non-formal educational structures.

Depending on one's performance, the two could lead to tertiary education, and finally to employment. The subsequent section provides these differentials in details.

Formal education

In line with the provisions of the Revised New Education Policy (RNEP), and the objectives of the government to make education accessible to the majority of people, there have been increases in the number of educational establishments at both primary and secondary school levels while the university institution has remained one. However, the need for a second university has been felt and agreed upon.

It has also been agreed that the second university be located in the Serowe-Palapye sub-district of the Central District.

Primary and secondary education

The face of primary education in Botswana is rapidly changing. While the student population has always been skewed in favour of girls at both primary and junior secondary levels and of boys at senior secondary levels, recent data suggest that more boy-children are increasingly accessing primary education than they used to do in the past. While

males have a slight edge over females at primary levels, by the time they both reach junior secondary school, girls have an advantage over boys. The advantage of girls over boys in enrolment continues even at senior secondary school level.

The increase in boys' enrolment at primary level may be due to the lowering of the official entry age at primary level. While in the past any person up to age 12 could enter primary one, the lower level at entry into primary school has been fixed at 7 years. Poor performance of the pastoral agriculture sector, where boys participated in herding calves and goats also implies that at younger ages, boys like girls are not very useful. While non-skilled employment for girls after primary level is almost non-existent, boys could have a number of employment opportunities; this could explain more females than males at both junior and senior secondary levels.

Tertiary education

At tertiary level of education, females still dominate at teacher training colleges, but their dominance has decreased to the extent that their proportion decreased from 85 percent in 1988 to 56.1 percent in 2002. Males still dominate at institutions where applied and technical subjects are taught, at Vocational and Technical Training (V&TT), but the proportion of females at these institutions has increased from one year to the next, such that by 2002 females made up 38.2 percent of total enrolment.

The gender disparity among students at the university level continues to diminish to the extent that in 2002 females contributed 50.7 percent of the enrolment at that level. The increase in female enrolment at university is a reflection of their dominance at

senior secondary level. As both females and males have equal access to university education, improved performance of girls at Ordinary Levels would imply that there are equal chances of females and males entering the university.

Parents have also been sensitised on the value of female education. This is not to say Batswana were not aware of the importance of educating girls, because there is a Setswana idiom that says "Educating a girl is educating the whole nation, but educating a man is educating one person".

The 1998 and 2002 education statistics show that while female enrolment at the university level increased from, 47.8 to 48.8 percent from 1996 to 2002, enrolment at faculty level portrays a different picture. Females continue to be very few in technical faculties such as Engineering and Science. For the Faculty of Engineering, female students accounted for only 12 percent in 2002, which was an improvement from the 3.3 percent recorded in 1996. For the Faculty of Science they contributed 26 percent in 2002. This was a slight decline from the 28.3 percent in 1996.

As in the case of the university, enrolment at other tertiary institutions shows that females are dominant at the institutions that traditionally are feminine in nature. These are Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce (BIAC), which trains lower to mid-career government professionals, and the Institute of Health Sciences (IHS), which trains nurses. Disparities between males and females are more pronounced at institutions that are more science or technically-oriented. At these institutions, female enrolment rates are about a third of the total enrolment.

Table 16 shows the proportion of males and females by the type of subjects taken. As is the case with the type of institutions, males dominate in design and technology and in art. The highest proportion of females is in home economics where females make up over 80 percent. The lowest enrolment proportion for females is found in design and technology subjects, with only 19 percent.

There are proportionally more females than males who progress to the next significant level as indicated in Table 17. For the Standard 1 class of 1991, only nine percent of females did not reach Standard 7 compared to 18 percent males. By the end of school period in Form 5, 44 percent of the females were still in school compared to 38 percent for males.

The proportion of females and males who dropped out of school due to deaths, illnesses, and desertions fluctuated between 2000 and 2002. Furthermore, all the notified cases of dropouts due to marriage were of females. While there are cases of males dropping out due to pregnancy, the proportion of such cases is small though the proportions tend to fluctuate. This supports the suggestion that those responsible for the girls' pregnancies could be older out of school boys. The education regulation is that where a school boy is responsible for a schoolgirl pregnancy both should temporarily break from school and reapply later, usually when the child is one year old.

Teaching staff

The proportions of female teaching staff at different institutions in 2001 were as follows:

- ▣ Primary females made up 79.9 percent of the total 12,379 employed;

Percentage of Female Learners in Botswana in 2000 and 2001 Table 15

Institutions	2000	2001	2002
Primary schools	49.7	49.4	49.4
Secondary schools	52.0	51.9	52.1
Teacher training colleges	58.0	57.2	58.9
Vocational and technical training	37.8	53.8	38.2
College of education	52.8	48.8	56.1
College of agriculture	25.8	26.1	26.8
University of Botswana	50.1	48.8	50.7
All Levels	50.4	50.1	50.1

SOURCE 1998 and 2001 Education Statistics

Number of Students by Practical Subjects and Sex Table 16

Subject	1998		2001	
	Total	% Female	Total	% Female
Agriculture	124 305	52.8	131 136	51.6
Design & Technology	51 906	20.6	57 916	19.0
Home Economics	46 842	86.7	55 045	85.2
Art	39 817	32.8	48 215	29.2
Computer studies	5 955	52.1	17 800	51.6
Others	3 191	50.2	6 650	51.7
Total	272 016	49.5	316 762	48.1

SOURCE 1998 and 2001 Education Statistics

Progression Rate by Sex Table 17

	1991	1997	1998	2001	2002
	Std 1	Std 7	Form 1	Form 4	Form 5
% Males	100	82	76	38	38
% Females	100	91	86	45	44
% Average Total	100	86	81	41	41

SOURCE 1998 and 2001 Education Statistics

Dropout Rates by Reason and Sex Table 18

Reasons for dropping out	1998		2001		2002	
	Total	%Female	Total	% Female	Total	%Female
School Fees	214	52.3	22	40.9	175	50.9
Expulsion	20	20.0	1	100.0	52	17.3
Illness	102	51.0	182	45.5	280	55.0
Death	46	47.8	176	48.3	274	46.7
Marriage	21	100.0	3	100.0	12	100.0
Pregnancy	1 282	98.2	112	100.0	1 490	99.7
Desertion	1 248	51.9	5 253	38.7	6 321	38.8
Other	354	57.6	341	37.8	382	47.6
Total	3 282	70.6	6 090	40.4	8 986	50.2

SOURCE 1998 and 2001 Education Statistics

- ▣ Secondary females made up 47.2 percent of the total 9,261 employed;
- ▣ College of education females made up 39.7 percent of the total 234; and
- ▣ Botswana College of Agriculture females made up 19.5 percent of the total 82

Adult and non-formal education

Literacy rates

The overall literacy rate for Botswana as estimated in 2003 among the population aged 15 and over was 81 percent. This proportion is an increase of 12 percent from the 1993 figure of 68.9 percent. The female and male desegregation of the literacy rate shows that females had a higher literacy rate than males, at 82 percent compared to 80 percent for men.

Participation in non-formal education

In 2003, 185,236 persons were eligible for literacy classes. They comprised of 101,487 females and 83,749 males. Of this total, 71.5 percent had never attended a literacy class and 28.5 percent had never enrolled in a literacy class. These included 5.7 percent that had left and 22.8 percent that was still attending literacy classes. In terms of gender specific attendance, females take advantage of the adult literacy programme services compared to males. At least 64 percent of females had never attended literacy classes compared to 80.6 percent men.⁶⁵

**Disabled Children Aged 5-17 Years Table 19
by School Attendance, 1991 and 2001**

	1991		2001	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
No Schooling	35.8	33.9	27.7	25.9
Still Attending	56.6	57.5	62.5	64.6
Left School	7.65	8.6	9.8	9.4

SOURCE 1998 and 2001 Education Statistics

MEDIA and ICTs

The media in Botswana display familiar problems in their portrayal of women. Although the situation has improved for the better from the time the last national gender profile

was produced in 1998, sexism is evident in the presentation of women in print, broadcast and online media. Women's views and voices are grossly under represented.

A recent audience survey revealed that men and women would like to receive more positive, local and human-interest news.⁶⁶ In addition, women want more stories on women's rights.

Through news worthiness and other criteria by which material is selected, and in the presentation of content, the media marginalise women and produce negative and stereotyped depictions, which belittle women's contributions to society. News and entertainment media cast women in a narrow range of roles, which treat them as sex objects and define women in terms of their relationship to men. As a result, women are depicted predominantly as entertainers or as victims.

Another survey of news media in the region commissioned by Gender Links and the Media Institute of Southern Africa (MISA) in 2002 reports that women account for only 16 percent of known news sources in Botswana, slightly lower than the regional average of 17 percent, and the global average of 18 percent.

However because of the greater gender balance that appears to have been achieved in the newsrooms in Botswana compared to the rest of the southern African region, the gender disparity in beats in the media is not as marked as in other parts of the region.

It is particularly significant that women constituted the majority of those reporting on economics, disaster, war and conflict, media and entertainment, health, HIV and AIDS as well as sustainable development. Women are close to achieving

parity with men in the politics beat. They are however, outnumbered by men in other traditionally male beats such as mining, agriculture, sports, and human rights.

Gender activists are resorting to the use of communication channels outside the mainstream media as alternatives with better opportunities for providing women's voices a platform. The increasing use of electronic mail and internet communications technology as well as women-centred web sites are assisting women in Botswana to network and air their views. However, gender aspects of the medium have not been thoroughly investigated and women's access and use could still be limited.

HUMAN RIGHTS AND LAW

Botswana is a member of the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU), and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). As such, the country has ratified and/or signed international and regional conventions, such as the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), The African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights and the SADC Gender and Development Declaration.

These instruments stipulate that every state shall ensure the elimination of all discriminatory legislation against women and girls as well as protect and promote their rights. The signing of CEDAW, the CRC and the SADC Gender and Development Declaration are milestone achievements as these instruments have created an enabling environment to promote policy and legal reform.

Even though Botswana recognizes the importance of these con-

Gender and Media Audience Study

Box 5

Women and men across the six countries, Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zambia, said they would like to receive more positive, local, and human-interest news. In addition, women want more stories on women's rights.

This is according to some of the findings of the Gender and Media Audience Study (GMAS) conducted by Gender Links (GL) in partnership with universities and media advocacy organisations in southern Africa in 2004.

The study further reveals that audiences, especially women, would find the news more interesting if the ideas and views of women were reported more often. Both women and men, but especially women (69 percent women, compared to 45 percent men) felt that the news would be more interesting if the ideas and views of women are reported more often. Audiences strongly endorse the challenging of stereotypes: Both women and men, but especially women (76 percent women, compared to 56 percent men) agreed that the news would be more interesting if it carried stories about women in a wider range of roles. This finding is consistent across all six countries. Women and men also want to see more men portrayed in non-traditional roles such as parents, caregivers, and homemakers.

In Botswana, also one of the higher income countries in the study, television is fast catching up among women with 42 percent of women identifying television as their main source of news, compared to 44 percent who identified radio as their main source of news.

The comparative figures for men are 25 percent for television and 50 percent for radio. The consolidated findings illustrate that more women (38 percent) get their news from television than men (31 percent). The reason most often cited by women for their preference of radio and television as a source of news is that they are able to perform other tasks while consuming news from these types of media. This reflects the dual roles that the vast majority of women in the region play, in the work place and as homemakers.

The gender gap in newspaper consumption in almost all countries in the study reflects disparities in literacy, education, and spending power between women and men.

Despite progressive ICT policies, the Internet is still hardly a source of news- especially among women: Although many countries in the study (for example South Africa, Botswana and Mauritius) have proclaimed policies to create "information societies", overall only 2 percent of women and 2 percent of men in the sample chose the Internet as their main source of news.

Women and men prefer short news reports to any other news genre but there are interesting exceptions: Most of the women (52 percent) and men (49 percent) interviewed said they preferred short news reports to any other news genre.

SOURCE: Excerpt from Gender and Media Audience Study (GMAS) conducted by Gender Links in partnership with universities and media advocacy organisations in Southern Africa in 2004.

ventions; the main challenge is that they are not automatically infused within domestic laws. In collaboration with civil society organisations, the government developed a National Gender Programme Framework in 1998, which was officially launched by the President, as a response to the call to translate international instruments into domestic policies and laws. This document translates the BPFA into a national plan of action.

Since 1995, a number of laws have been amended with the view of improving the legal status of women and increasing access to the law by women and

*Any law that
discriminates
against women
may be
challenged as
unconstitutional.*

children.⁶⁷ In 1996, the Botswana government put in place a National Policy on Women and Development.

The National Constitution

The Constitution of Botswana enshrines a Bill of Rights, which provides for fundamental freedoms and basic human rights that promote equality and protection before the law. The Constitution is the supreme law of the land and it provides a conducive framework to promote democracy, human rights, and gender equality.⁶⁸ Section 2 of the Constitution provides for equal treatment between women and men. Thus, any law that discriminates against women may be challenged as unconstitutional.

The *Unity Dow vs. Attorney General* case of 1992 was an example of the right to challenge such cases as it further clarified that the provision in the Constitution that promotes the equal treatment of women and men. This was a landmark decision that positively contributed to achieving the goal of gender equality.⁶⁹

A 1998 report on the review of all discriminatory laws recommended that Section 3 of the Constitution should be amended to include sex in its definition of discrimination to provide clearly that everyone is entitled to equality before the law and equal protection of the law.⁷⁰

Further, in 1998, the Penal Code was amended. Sections 141 and 142 were amended, introducing significant changes in terms of the definition of rape and strengthening enforcement procedures. The Penal Code Amendment Act of 1998 provides for a gender neutral and broader definition of rape, meaning that both women and men can be raped, and that rape can occur

through different forms of penetration, including instruments.⁷¹ It is now mandatory for the accused to declare their HIV status, as sentences tend to be stiffer if the perpetrator was aware that they were HIV positive at the time the rape was committed.

However, the implementation of the amended rape law has created some problems, with some Magistrates and Judges dismissing some of its provisions as discriminatory and inconsistent with the Constitution. For example, some judges have thus dismissed the particular provision that allows the courts to give stiffer sentences to offenders that knew their HIV status.

The enforcement procedures of this law are also still problematic, as offenders still get away with minimal sentences and some cases are thrown out as a result of the inefficiency of the prosecutors and inadequate evidence. There is evidence that Magistrates and Police Officers assume that women and girls that are raped or defiled are not credible and need to prove beyond reasonable doubt that they are innocent.⁷²

In 1996, the government facilitated the amendment of the Deeds Registry Act, which enables married women to have access to property in their own right. In addition, in December 2004, Parliament passed the Marital Power Bill, which abolishes the power of men as household heads and sole decision-makers in family property and other related issues. This is another positive achievement since the new law provides equality between spouses as joint decision-makers, giving them equal power and rights to the property of the family. This positive decision by Parliament has generated mixed reactions from the public, especially from men and decision-makers.

A few Chiefs and Parliamentarians have opposed the abolition of men's marital power and argued that "men are natural heads of households and decision-makers" which should not be questioned. They have also argued that the Bill is contrary to cultural practices and beliefs. One of the paramount Chiefs indicated that the proposed law "strips men of their traditional role of head of households and decision-makers and this interferes with customary laws." The response from the public on the proposed law clearly indicates that there is a need for extensive legal education for women and men as well as decision-makers.

There is relative political commitment to promote legal reform. However, despite the amendments and achievements made so far, discrimination against women and girls still remains. Part of the problem is Botswana's generally poor record in domesticating international instruments.

Botswana also has a dual legal system comprising of customary law, which is mainly uncoded and applied by tribal/customary courts, and the general law, which includes statutes and the Roman Dutch Common law applied by Magistrate and High Courts. This provides for choice of law depending on what is easily accessible. The majority of people live in the rural, peri-urban, and urban villages where customary courts are more accessible. The Constitution recognizes the traditional authorities, their structures, customary laws, and practices as an integral component of the legal system.

The dual legal system provides challenges for women's rights, given the patriarchal nature of customary law. The dual system negatively impacts on the legal status of women as

indicated in the various research projects undertaken by WLSA, Women's Affairs Department, Emang Basadi and others.⁷³

Both the general and customary law systems have discriminatory provisions that subject women to male domination, which is clearly indicated in the report of the review of all the laws that affect the status of women.⁷⁴ This report has provided a good gender analysis of the common and customary laws, which should be used as a basis for advocacy and justification for legal reform.⁷⁵

Legal reform

It should be noted that there has been considerable transformation in the social structure and organisation of the Botswana society. It is important to highlight some of these changes to contextualise the legal status of women and the need to promote legal reform. The numerous social change processes have had differential impact on the legal status of women and men.

Women in Law in Southern Africa Research Trust (WLSA) and Women and Law in Development in Africa (WiLDAF) are some of the organisations that have continuously advocated for a re-conceptualisation of the family and women's human rights as part of their research and advocacy agenda, within the context of the human rights debates emphasising that women's rights are human rights.

The changing social, economic and political status of women over the years has created opportunities and challenges that need to be reviewed within the context of the current Constitution and dual legal system.

Research undertaken by WLSA and other researchers has shown that the family structure

The changing social, economic and political status of women has created opportunities and challenges...

Before the amendment of 1995, the citizenship law discriminated against married women as compared to their single male or female counterparts.

has changed over the years and there are numerous family forms that have a bearing on women and men's rights. Research indicates that the responsibility and maintenance of children is now the direct responsibility of women as men are taking less responsibility to maintain children.

Legal status of women and men

The human rights of women and girls are a critical area of concern given existing discriminatory legislation which promotes unequal treatment of women and men before the law. The success of the *Unity Dow vs. Attorney General* Citizenship court case in 1992, as well as continued advocacy by civil society organisations, certain sections of discriminatory Acts have been amended.⁷⁶

Citizenship Law

The law regarding citizenship is outlined under the Citizenship Act of 1982, as amended in 1984 and 1995. Before the amendment of 1995, the citizenship law discriminated against married women as compared to their married male and single female counterparts. The unamended law denied them the legal right to pass on their citizenship to their children regardless of where they were born.

Further, Section 13, made special provision for wives of Botswana citizens to acquire citizenship after two and half years of residency. This special provision was not extended to the husbands of Botswana women, thus discriminating against the women.

In 1995, certain sections of the Citizenship Act were repealed and replaced with gender-neutral provisions. The current Citizenship Act gives the right to both mother and father to pass on their citizen-

ship to their children. The positions relating to citizenship by adoption, naturalization, and registration has always been gender neutral. The 1995 amendments were a landmark achievement for women's legal rights.

The amended Citizenship Act provides women equal rights with men to citizenship and nationality of their children in compliance with international conventions such as CEDAW and the CRC.

There are however, certain gaps that still remain and should be further reviewed. One major issue is that children that were born to Botswana women and foreign fathers, married or single before 1982, still cannot become Botswana citizens by birth or descent, as their fathers are still non-citizens as the amendment only dates back to 1982.⁷⁷

The legality of dual citizenship is not clear to most immigration officers, making it difficult for them to interpret the law. The Citizenship Act should be further amended to provide for children born to Botswana citizens before 1982 to be registered as citizens. The immigration department should provide clear guidelines to all immigration officers to assist with the interpretation of the law in order to facilitate its implementation.

Property rights of married women and men

There are a number of legal provisions that are derived from the marriage laws that adversely impact on the legal status of married women and men. This is further complicated by the multiplicity of marriage regimes that have different principles and rules. For instance, the different customary laws allow marriage of girls and boys at different ages and the age differences are not clear. In 2003,

the Marriage Act was amended to protect boys and girls. They can now only marry at the age of 18 years.

Further, individuals between these ages and 21 can marry with parental consent and the law recognizes the consent of the father as sufficient to the marriage of a child born within wedlock. This gives the father more legal rights than the mother and assumes inequality between the mother and father in decision-making.

Customary law still makes the girl child vulnerable to abuse and domination by older men because of the differential treatment given to boys and girls as well as women and men in society.

Under customary law, the legal age of marriage remains unclear as no age is stipulated. According to traditional practice, boys and girls can only get married if they have gone through the initiation process. Therefore, it is implied under customary law that there is no minimum or restricted age at which people may marry. There are certain groups in the country that still allow a girl to be married at 14, 15 or 16 years to older men as a cultural practice.⁷⁸ This violates the rights of the girl-child and negatively affects their educational opportunities. This problematic situation needs to be reviewed as recommended in the 1998 law review report.

Customary law is further complicated by the fact that marriage is a process that affects and involves the participation of both families over a period based on the different value system of the ethnic groups.⁷⁹

Marriage under common and customary law has consequences on the personal legal status and rights of wives, husbands, and their children. In 1996, Section 18 of the Deeds Registry Act was

amended, to give women legal access, control, and ownership of property bought on the market in their own right, whether married in or out of community of property or whether or not the marital power has been excluded.

There is a need for the government to promote the implementation of the recommendations of the 1998 review report as making *ad hoc* amendments to the law is problematic since legal reform is not being approached from a holistic perspective.

Legal status of unmarried women

Under common law, women and men above the age of 21 have the same legal rights. The Age of Majority Act defines the age of majority at 21 years but the Act is not clear whether they have full legal capacity under customary law, since both single women and men fall under the guardianship of the male head of the family and their rights are determined and exercised through him.

Single men, according to existing common and customary law, obtain full legal capacity on marriage whereas women remain under a legal guardian all their lives. Women married or unmarried, are still subjected to male guardianship all their lives under customary law. Upon marriage, guardianship is transferred from their father to their husband. This means that single women cannot bring cases to court in their own right, sue, be sued, or engage in any legal transaction in a customary court.

In addition, women and men have unequal access to customary courts and are treated unequally whether married or unmarried.⁸⁰ Under the legal system in Botswana, single women and men are treated equally, they have equal rights to property, and they have equal legal status.

Under customary law the legal age of marriage remains unclear as no age is stipulated.

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Researchers have shown that the application of this practice by some customary courts has changed due to the changing status of women. Single women are being allowed to bring cases to courts in their own right.⁸¹

This practice is not uniform throughout Botswana though, and it depends on the Chief and Court presidents who preside over these cases, as well as the nature of the case. It is recommended that the situation be reviewed and a standard practice be put in place in order to promote and protect the rights of all single women. Civil society organisations need to be more proactive and engage the Chiefs and Customary Courts to advocate for a total review of customary laws and practices.⁸²

Traditionally, women who are unmarried have no direct access to property such as land or cattle as these resources are allocated to families and households through the male head. Therefore as a rule and practice, women have no direct control and access to productive resources except through their male guardians. There have been some changes in the administrative laws of property such as land, and single women can now access land through the Land Boards without the assistance of a male guardian.

In practice though, it is still difficult for single women to access land due to the customary rules and practices that some Land Board officials still implement.⁸³ Under the customary law of inheritance, the eldest male child is the legitimate heir of a deceased man's estate and he takes over sole control and administration of the estate. Research reports have noted gaps in the customary law as regards the inheritance of property as documented by various court cases and research reviews.

A Parliamentary Law Reform Committee recommended in 1984 that a uniform system of inheritance should be introduced given the unequal division of property under Customary Law. This was supported by the 1998 review of all discriminatory laws by the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. It is suggested that an assessment of the status of the implementation of the amendment of discriminatory laws be undertaken.

The past recommendations made by various reports have not been implemented and most customary courts still practice the traditional laws where the eldest son inherits property. There is need to review this practice on access to property and other assets especially today given the impact of the HIV and AIDS pandemic.

Cohabitation and women's rights

Cohabitation of women and men in urban and rural areas is a critical area of concern for women's rights. Cohabitation is a growing phenomenon that needs to be legally recognized as it causes major problems for women and children in times of death, separation, and disputes concerning division of property.⁸⁴ The customary and common laws do not accommodate these unions since it is assumed that disputes between lovers who are not married cannot be heard or tried in customary courts (*nyatsi ga e sekwe*). This is a serious social phenomenon, which requires an urgent review. Current laws do not protect the spouses or their children.

Another concept that is problematic among some ethnic groups is the "borrowing of a woman", where she cohabits with a man but has no legal status or rights. In recent years, customary courts are responding to the

changing family situation and status of women and are hearing cases of cohabitation. They have noted that they are very difficult cases to resolve, as the laws are not clearly stipulated. This area needs urgent legislation. Media and research reports have noted that women and children who live in such relationships are disadvantaged, as current laws do not protect them.

Maintenance of children

The WLSA⁸⁵ study on maintenance of children and other studies have shown that the support of children by their parents, especially their fathers is a major problem of concern. There is evidence that in most cases, children lack support and female-headed households and single parents have sole responsibility for their children.

According to customary law, children born out of wedlock belong to their mother's family where they have an inferior legal status and limited rights. Customary law provides that a single woman's parents can sue a man for maintenance of a first child (*Tsenyo or tiga lebele*). This traditional law and practice normally did not cover the maintenance support of subsequent children. In view of the socio-economic changes that have occurred over the years, some courts, such as the courts in Kanye and Mochudi have relaxed this practice and have combined the compensation for the first child and ordered maintenance support for subsequent children, responding to the growing proportion of female headed households with children.

The inception of the Common Law of Maintenance and Affiliation Proceeding Act of 1970 made provision for the support of children under the common law.

Research has revealed that these provisions are not effective in addressing the needs of children. Most women faced problems using the law; including the burden to prove paternity, the mandatory 12 months notification provision, and that, the amount of support is very minimal (P100). In 1999, WLSA and Metlhaetsile, supported by other civil society organisations, advocated for amendments to the Affiliation Proceeding Act, based on the findings of the maintenance study.

This resulted in some amendments to the Affiliation Proceedings Act. The amount of support was raised from P40 to a minimum of P100, or based on an assessment of the father or mother's income. The claim for support gave rights to the mother or father to bring a maintenance case to court, making it gender neutral. The law also now gives rights to grandparents who look after children to bring cases to courts.

The statute was further amended to remove the reference to children as "illegitimate," advocating for equal treatment of children born in or outside of marriage.

The enforcement of these laws remains a major problem as law enforcement officers delay cases and do not adequately enforce the law, i.e. follow up on the fathers of children to ensure that they pay the maintenance, or using the provision for Garnishee orders, which permit law enforcement officers to arrange with employers for the deduction of the maintenance fee directly from their salary.

In addition, most rural and low-income urban women have limited legal literacy, thus they do not understand the maintenance laws adequately enough to effectively utilize them. Civil society organisations should continue to

Another concept that is problematic is the "borrowing of a woman"...

Most rural and low income urban women have limited legal literacy.

advocate for legal reform as well as strengthen their legal education and literacy programmes to improve legal awareness and promote the legal rights of single women.

Gender-based violence

The concept of gender violence is a broad concept that refers to violence that occurs in various relationships and in and outside the home environment.⁸⁶ The Beijing Platform for Action includes the following forms of violence as critical areas of concern;

- ▣ Violation of human rights: during war, through murder, rape, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, forced sterilisation, illegal abortion and the female selection of the sex of their children before they are born;
- ▣ Physical, sexual and emotional violence: wife battering, sexual abuse of female children in households, marital rape, female circumcision and violence related to the exploitation of women;
- ▣ Physical, sexual and emotional abuse within the community; sexual harassment at work and in schools, and forced prostitution;
- ▣ Physical and emotional abuse encouraged by the state.

The above is also consistent with the forms of violence identified in the Addendum to the 1997 Gender and Development Declaration of 1997 on violence against women and children. This section will deal with some of the above-mentioned forms of violence consistent with and as defined by the National Gender Programme Framework for Botswana.

Gender-based violence is largely a direct consequence of the unequal and hierarchical power relations between women and men. The superiority of

males and inferiority of females ingrained through the socialisation process influences women and men's social behaviour, actions and attitudes.

A 1998 study by WAD found that men with low self-esteem who want to assert their dominance and place women in what they perceive as their rightful place commit most domestic violence cases. It is further evident from the data that men use beating and rape to keep women subordinate and maintain their control and dominance. Culture is often used as an excuse since it apparently gives men the right to chastise their wives if they misbehave.⁸⁷

Cases of violence against women and girls are generally the most under reported.⁸⁸ Literature indicates that the culture of silence and the nature of customary practices and traditions contribute to the limited reporting of these cases. It is further evident from the literature that failure to report these criminal cases is attributed to a number of reasons including, family members stopping or threatening women from reporting, concern about the loss of economic support, feelings of shame, emotional pressures, the lack of faith in and limited knowledge of the laws and legal systems.⁸⁹

Further, available statistics on cases of violence against women and girls are limited and not well documented. This is a serious problem that needs to be addressed, as it is difficult to deal with these cases if the extent of the problem is not known.

Domestic violence

Research data and workshop reports have indicated that the most prevalent forms of gender-based violence in Botswana are domestic battering, rape, emotion-

al abuse, economic violence, sexual harassment, indecent assault, defilement and incest. Studies have further shown that most women that are battered are in married and cohabiting relationships. A study done by WILDAF Botswana in 1995/1996 revealed that victims of femicide included current and former wives, cohabiting partners, or girlfriends and were from all ages.

This is supported by a study in Gaborone,⁹⁰ which indicated that 43 percent of the women left their homes because of physical abuse. The data further shows that most women stay in abusive relationships for economic reasons and to protect and support their children.

A 1998 WLSA study indicated “women cannot afford to take their abusive partners to jail and forfeit maintenance for themselves and their children.” A disturbing serious emerging trend that is of concern in the last few years is “passion killings” which needs immediate interventions to stop young women in particular, being killed by their partners. There is no data available to assess the extent and nature of the problem but it is an emerging topical issue of concern that must be addressed by civil society in collaboration with WAD, other government departments, the Chiefs, and the community at large.

A study on rape, undertaken by Emang Basadi in 1998, indicated that most of the rapists are relatively young; 72 percent were under 30 years and were men known to the victim. Most rape cases are not reported as a result of pressure from parents and relatives due to fear of embarrassment as well as to avoid the cumbersome legal requirements such as getting corroboration and doctors evidence.⁹¹

The Law Reform Committee has rejected the concept of marital rape in many workshop discussions in Botswana. Many do not believe that anyone can be raped by their spouse. As a result of advocacy by youth and women's groups for further review of rape laws and enforcement procedures, the Law Reform Committee was tasked to hold national consultations on the major issues concerning this. However, it did not make any radical recommendations. The committee entrenched the view that marital rape is a cultural issue as man has conjugal rights with or without consent of the wife.

According to Botswana police figures,⁹² cases on rape and defilement have increased over the years. Reported cases of rape and defilement have increased from 6.8 percent to 18.3 percent and 30 percent to 65 percent for rape and defilement cases respectively from 1995-1998. A 1999 report on rape in Botswana indicates that these cases are a serious challenge to the Police Department, NGOs and for society.

The effects of violence against women and girls are costly to society. Violence negatively affects their mental and physical health status as well as their families' economic and poverty status.⁹³ Most women are still economically dependent on men especially in rural and low-income urban areas, making them more vulnerable in abusive relationships.

The public at large, civil society and public and private sector organisations are concerned with the increasing rates of gender-based violence. The 1999 report on the socio-economic implications of violence against women in Botswana, the 1999 study of rape in Botswana and the study on incest and defilement by WLSA in 2002 all indicated very clearly the increasing and dis-

Most rape cases are not reported as a result of pressure from parents and relatives.

turbing incidence of violence against women and girls.

The 1999 study by WAD on the Implications of Violence Against Women undertaken in most regions of Botswana indicated that 95.8 percent of the population studied noted that violence against women and girls is a serious problem in their communities. Further, there are media reports on a weekly basis that also indicate the increasing numbers of gender-based cases of violence over the years.

The 1999 report indicates that 60.4 percent of the respondents noted that they had been victims of violence in the previous five years. The data further shows that the most common forms of abuse in all communities are severe beating, social and economic abuse, verbal and emotional abuse, rape and sexual assault of women by men and sexual exploitation of girls under 16 years of age. Most respondents noted that verbal and emotional abuse (50 percent) and severe beating (43 percent) were the most common forms of abuse in most districts in Botswana.⁹⁴

All age groups suffer from all forms of violence including 12-15 year olds. Most respondents suffered multiple forms of violence over a period of five years, 53 percent of all age groups suffered from all forms of violence and 24 percent of the 12-15 age group suffered from sexual harassment.

Data indicates that there are more women who are victims of violence in semi-urban areas than in rural and urban areas; 73 percent, 54.6 percent and 58.6 percent respectively as shown in Table 20.

Civil society organisations, such as, Emang Basadi, WLSA, and the Women's Shelter Project provide legal assistance to women and

girls who are violated but, they cannot cope with the demand, given the increasing cases of violence against women and children. Sexual assault and abuse of children and women within the family, community, household, and organisations is a criminal offence, a direct threat to their lives and security, and a violation of their human rights.

Since 1995, inadequate measures have been taken to curb this serious and escalating problem. Civil society organisations, although crippled by meagre resources continue to play a critical role in the provision of legal services, education, and counselling. The government now provides minimal resources for gender-based violence programmes, while the donors' support to civil society organisations has decreased drastically making it difficult to deliver sustainable services.

The incidence of incest and defilement

Incest and defilement are other critical areas that are major concerns. The 2002 WLSA study findings indicated that there are social, cultural and legal factors that perpetuate offences of defilement and incest. The study further revealed the contradictions in the definitions of a child that exists under common and customary laws. This creates difficulties in the treatment of defilement and incest cases and creates legal loopholes. The study further showed that even though incest and defilement are crimes in Botswana, these acts are protected and kept a secret by family members at the expense of the girl-child. As with rape cases, incest and defilement cases are not well reported.

The court records and police statistics indicate that very few cases are reported for fear of victimisation, stigma and putting

Percentage of Violence Against Women Victims by Settlement Table 20

Settlement Type	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
% of Victims	58.6	73.4	54.6

SOURCE WAD Report 1999

shame on the family. Table 21 indicates the cases reported over a 6-year period, indicating the low levels of reporting as well as cases tried in courts. The WLSA report notes that the police and court records were confusing as there seemed to be sometimes no distinction between rape and incest and or defilement. Data from police and court records indicated that in 1999 there were 160 cases of defilement that were recorded as rape cases.

The report further notes that the police stated that it is easier to charge the offender with a rape case than a defilement case as a defilement case is most likely not to succeed. Most defilement cases were not reported as family members often practise a culture of silence since most of the perpetrators are relatives or acquaintances as indicated in Table 22.

It is further evident from the WLSA 2002 research report that most of the perpetrators of defilement are close to the family and known to the girl-child. Table 22 indicates that the majority of cases are committed by a relative, a friend, or an acquaintance.

In most cases girls are more at risk from people that they know than complete strangers. It is further evident from the data that most cases are committed at home or in places near home.

The girl child is at higher risk of sexual abuse and harassment in the home, the school and in the community. Very few cases have been reported by the print media of boys being abused by a teacher or elderly men in the community.

This is a serious issue of concern that requires drastic and urgent action by government and NGOs. Women Against Rape (WAR) and Child Line are some of the organisations that always deal with sexual and physical abuse of children but they have

limited resources to implement effective and sustainable programmes.

Over the last few years, media reports have indicated that the incidence of femicide and so called "passion killings" are increasing at an alarming rate. In both customary and common law these cases are not taken seriously as they are viewed as family/domestic matters. This also prevents cases of physical violence and wife battering to be reported and results in the withdrawal of cases by the families of the victims.

The role of civil society

Civil society organisations have played a very significant role in advocating and promoting legal reform as well as increase legal awareness. There are efforts by civil society in collaboration with the Women's Affairs Department to review the laws affecting sexual violence and physical abuse.

The research and test cases undertaken by WLSA, Emang Basadi, and Metlhaetsile have provided a good database to advocate for legal reform and legal services and education programmes.

WLSA and its collaborating partners developed a domestic violence document in response to the escalating cases of violence against women and girls and it was tabled in parliament as a private members motion in 2002 for consideration by the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs.

This must be seriously followed up by WAD, Women's NGO Coalition and BNCW to ensure that its recommendations are implemented.

The Children's Act is currently under review and issues of incest

Cases of Defilement Reported to the Police by Year and Area Table 21

Year	Greater Gaborone	Greater Francistown	Total
1994	5	0	5
1995	3	0	3
1996	9	3	12
1997	16	10	26
1998	22	18	40
1999	5	3	8

SOURCE WLSA 2002

Relationship Between Perpetrators and Survivors of Defilement Table 22

Relationship	Greater Gaborone	Greater Francistown	Total
Relative	22	7	29
Acquaintance	30	39	69
Neighbour	20	18	38
Friend	20	24	44
Stranger	40	34	74
Total	132	122	254

SOURCE WLSA 2002

and defilement will be addressed more effectively. Focus will be on law enforcement and strengthening existing legislation to deal with violent crimes against girls less than 16 years. Civil society organisations, such as Child Line, have had input into the review of this act and are providing services to deal with cases of sexual and physical violence of children.

They have made a difference to the lives of many low-income women in Gaborone and the surrounding villages. The major challenge currently is the sustainability of these programmes as all the organisations lack adequate capacity to address this problem effectively.

There is a need for NGOs to effectively fund raise to sustain their programmes. Most importantly, they need to advocate more aggressively for government support as it is the responsibility of the State to assist low-income families with legal aid. Botswana does not have a national legal aid system, thus it is the responsibility of civil society to advocate for the introduction of such a system in the country.

HEALTH

Health status of the population

Botswana is generally considered to have one of the healthiest populations in sub-Saharan Africa. There are several factors said to be contributing to this situation. These include the health care system and, to some extent, the climate. As depicted earlier, Botswana boasts an arid or semi arid climate with erratic rainfall. Such a climate does not harbour the kinds of tropical diseases that are major causes of morbidity and mortality in many other African countries.

However, the country is still faced with some health problems that can be linked to poor socio-economic conditions (such as inadequate food, low levels of

education and lack of clean safe water) and long distances to health centres in some rural areas caused by the settlement patterns in the country.

Indeed, the health status in Botswana tends to vary from locality to locality because of the differences in levels of development. While the eastern part of the country generally has better health indicators, the western districts have lagged behind. This is because these districts are in a more hostile ecological environment; characterised by very low rainfall, poor soils, and a very sparse population with small settlements, coupled with a very underdeveloped infrastructure of all types. This has resulted in poor development in general.

The existing health statistics indicate that the leading causes of patient mortality in Botswana are AIDS, pneumonia and pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) and ill-defined intestinal infections.⁹⁵ The major causes of mortality in patients are summarized for 1998, 1999 and 2000 in Table 23. During 1998, for example, pneumonia accounted for 14 percent of all deaths and the number rose to 16.6 percent in the year 2000.

The number of deaths due to AIDS increased from 13.2 percent in 1998 to 17.9 percent in 1999 but then declined to 15.5 percent in 2000. Pulmonary tuberculosis accounted for 12.2 percent of all deaths in 1998 and by 1999 it only accounted for 10.1 percent of the deaths indicating a slight decline over this period only to increase slightly to 11.4 percent in 2000. The long-standing incidence of tuberculosis could be viewed in terms of the fact that treatment has had only limited success in controlling the disease.

Also, largely, the persistence of tuberculosis could be attributed to inadequate nutrition and poor housing conditions.

Recently, however, there has been a steady upsurge in the number of TB cases that is mainly attributed to the Human Immuno-deficiency Virus (HIV) pandemic.

has been a general increase in the death rates between 1991 and 2001, for both males and females, with the exception of older age groups whose 1991 rates were higher.

Major Causes of Mortality		Table 23		
Causes	Year and Mortality (%)			
	1998	1999	2000	
AIDS	13.2	17.9	15.5	
Pneumonia	14.0	14.8	16.6	
Pulmonary Tuberculosis	12.2	10.1	11.4	
Ill-defined intestinal infections	10.5	9.5	9.3	
Others (Diseases of Pulmonary Circulation and other forms of Heart Diseases)	-	2.6	2.5	
Others (symptoms and Ill-defined conditions)	4.6	4.9	4.5	
Meningitis	-	2.9	3.2	
Acute but Ill-defined Cerebro-vascular diseases	-	2.6	2.6	
Nephritis, Nephrotic Syndrome	-	2.4	2.3	
Anaemia	-	1.8	2.3	
Other Conditions (Number)	1 832	2 349	5 566	

SOURCE CSO 1998, 2002

Health indicators

Botswana has been experiencing a general decline in fertility levels. Fertility has been declining since the early 1980s. The crude birth rate declined from 45.3 births per 1,000 populations in 1971 to 28.9 births in 2001. Total fertility (TFR) dropped from 6.5 births in 1971 to 3.3 in 2001. The fertility decline is mainly attributed to changes in social and economic development, including increased participation in the labour force, increased contraceptive use and the effects of HIV and AIDS.

There has also been a decline in mortality levels since the 1980s, but there has been a reversal of trends from the mid 1990s. This is mainly due to the HIV and AIDS epidemic. The crude death rate declined from 13.7 in 1971 to 11.5 in 1991 and increased to 12.4 in 2001. The 2001 census reported 20,823 deaths, of which 52 percent were male and 48 percent female. Age specific death rates (number of deaths divided by population in the age group), indicate that there

In 2001, age specific death rates at very young ages up to 14 years, for both males and females were the same. After this age, females experience a sharp increase in deaths compared to males especially at the age of 20 years. The rates for males start increasing around age 24 years. However, by the age 30, male deaths are at the same level as female deaths. Female deaths plateau at around age 30-34, which is at a peak of child bearing and this could be attributed to high maternal mortality. The rates start decreasing and remain almost constant for age groups 40-59. For males, the rates have a broad peak from age 36 years to age 49 years and drop slightly after age 50, but increase at age 60. These gender differences in mortality at above 30 years of age could be attributed to unusually high incidences of tuberculosis among men and high rates of road accidents. The high incidence of tuberculosis among men in Botswana is not new; the HIV

Child Health Indicators, 1971-2001				
Indicator	1971	1981	1991	2001
Infant Mortality Rate	97	71	48	56
Under 5 Mortality Rate	152	105	63	74

SOURCE Population and Housing Census 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001
CSO Family Health Survey II 1998

Table 24

and AIDS epidemic has made the situation worse. In 1991, female age specific death rate, were lower than those of males at all the age groups.

As anticipated, life expectancy has followed the trends exhibited by the mortality rates. The general trend shows that the total life expectancy has declined. The life expectancy was reported to have improved from 56.5 years in 1981 to 65.3 years in 1991. But it declined to 55.6 years in 2001. This is mainly due to HIV and AIDS. Although the life expectancy rates are on the decline for both sexes, on the

average females are expected to live longer than males.

Both infant mortality and child mortality show an increase between 1991 and 2001. From 1971, they had both been registering a decline up to 1991 when there was a reversal in trends. For instance the infant mortality rate in 1971 was 97 per 1,000 deaths and it declined to 71 in 1981 and further to 48 in 1991 but rose again to 56 in 2001. This is illustrated in Table 24.

Mortality is influenced by socio-economic and health conditions that prevail at a particular time in a country. The impact of HIV and AIDS on the level of mortality is evident in the esti-

Levels of Infant, Child Mortality, and Life Expectancy by Sex and District, 2001

Table 25

District	Infant Mortality			Child Mortality 1-5 Years			Life Expectancy		
	Average Total	Males	Females	Average Total	Males	Females	Average Total	Males	Females
Gaborone	48	49.0	47.1	16.0	16.3	15.7	65.1	63.8	66.4
Francistown	61	62.2	59.8	23.0	23.5	22.5	62.0	60.8	63.2
Lobatse	53	54.1	52.0	19.0	19.4	18.6	63.7	62.5	65.0
Selebi Phikwe	58	59.2	56.9	22.0	22.4	21.6	62.7	61.5	64.0
Orapa	53	54.1	52.0	19.0	19.4	18.6	63.8	62.5	65.1
Jwaneng	59	59	60.2	57.8	22.0	22.4	62.5	61.3	62.5
Sowa	65	66.3	63.7	26.0	26.5	25.5	61.1	59.9	62.3
Ngwaketse South	47	47.9	46.1	16.0	16.3	15.7	65.2	63.9	66.5
Borolong	64	65.3	62.7	25.0	25.5	24.5	61.4	60.2	62.6
Ngwaketse West	72	73.4	70.6	30.0	30.6	29.4	59.6	58.4	60.8
South East	33	33.7	32.4	9.0	9.2	8.8	68.7	67.4	70.1
Kweneng East	50	51.0	49.0	17.0	17.3	16.7	64.6	63.3	65.9
Kweneng West	61	62.2	59.8	23.0	23.5	22.5	62.1	60.9	63.3
Kgatlang	42	42.8	41.2	13.0	13.3	12.7	66.4	65.1	67.7
Serowe/Palapye	54	55.1	52.9	19.0	19.4	18.6	63.6	62.4	64.9
Mahalapye	59	60.2	57.8	22.0	22.4	21.6	62.4	61.2	63.6
Bobonong	60	61.2	58.8	23.0	23.5	22.5	62.2	61.0	63.4
Boteti	50	51.0	49.0	17.0	17.3	16.7	64.6	63.3	65.9
Tutume	64	65.3	62.7	25.0	25.5	24.5	61.4	60.2	62.6
North East	49	50.0	48.0	17.0	17.3	16.7	64.7	63.4	66.0
Ngamiland East	57	58.1	55.9	22.0	22.4	21.6	62.9	61.7	64.2
Ngamiland West	79	80.6	77.5	35.0	35.7	34.3	58.2	57.1	59.4
Chobe	52	53.0	51.0	18.0	18.4	17.6	64.2	62.9	65.5
Ngamiland Delta	87	88.7	85.3	40.0	40.8	39.2	56.5	55.4	57.6
Ghanzi	60	61.2	58.8	23.0	23.5	22.5	62.2	61.0	63.4
Central Kgalagadi									
Game Reserve	71	72.4	69.6	29.0	29.6	28.4	59.9	58.7	61.1
Kgalagadi South	68	69.4	66.7	28.0	28.6	27.5	60.4	59.2	61.6
Kgalagadi North	77	78.5	75.5	34.0	34.7	33.3	58.5	57.4	59.7
Botswana	55	58	52	20	29	18	63.4	60.0	64.2

SOURCE 2001 Population and Housing Census Data

mates presented in Table 24 which presents the levels of infant mortality, childhood mortality as well as life expectancy classified by sex and by district. The information is for the period 12 months before the 2001 Population and Housing Census. Infant mortality for the districts ranged from 33 to 87 per 1,000 live births. The district with the lowest rate was Southeast while Ngamiland registered the highest rate of 87 deaths. The figures for 2001 are higher than what was estimated during the 1991 census when most of the districts recorded infant mortality rates of less than 50 per 1,000 live births.

The child mortality rates exhibited the same patterns as the infant mortality rates. At district level, the South-east District registered the lowest rate, at 9.0 per 1,000 in the population. The Ngamiland Delta registered the highest child mortality rate of 40 per 1,000. As expected, the life expectancy has followed the trends exhibited by both infant and child mortality rates. As a reflection of the rates shown by both infant and child mortality rates, South-east District has the highest life expectancy at birth at 68.7 years while Ngamiland Delta has the lowest at 55.4 years. In the past, where the urban districts registered low infant and child mortality rates, and high life expectancy rates at birth, the current trends show that there is not much difference between urban and rural districts. For instance, Francistown, the second largest city in the country, has the same level of infant mortality rate as Kweneng West, one of the rural districts at 61 per 1,000 births. Table 25 shows that the males have higher infant mortality and child mortality rates than females or even the totals for each district. It generally follows that they also display lower life expectancy

rates than females throughout the districts.

Nutrition

Children who have access to an adequate food supply, not exposed to repeated illness, well cared for and reach their growth potential, are considered well nourished. Their nutritional status is a reflection of their overall health. Under-nourishment in a population can be gauged by comparing children to the standard distribution of height and weight of children under five. Prevalence of malnutrition among children under five was reported to have decreased from 27 percent in 1980 to 14 percent in 1995 due to supplementary feeding for vulnerable groups such as pregnant and lactating mothers, children and the destitute.

The programme has now been downscaled to medically selected groups and school children. The 2000 Botswana Multiple Indicator Survey (MIS)⁹⁶ further registered a decrease and indicated that 13 percent of the children under five were underweight or too thin for their age. Though there is no significant difference in stunting among boys and girls in the country, there are variations in the districts, with stunting highly prevalent in Francistown and lowest in the South-east. During 1995, Kweneng East, Kgalagadi and Chobe exhibited higher malnutrition levels.

Reproductive health

There has also been a decline in mortality levels since the 1980s and a reversal of trends from the mid 1990. Botswana has been experiencing a fertility decline and this has mainly been attributed to the effect of HIV and AIDS, increased contraceptive use and the decline in teenage pregnancies. Although the proportion of teenage girls falling pregnant has been declining, it remains high, compared to other

countries in the region. The use of family planning remains low among this group compared to the older population groups.

The proportion of teenage girls falling pregnant has declined from 24 percent in 1988 to 16.6 percent in 1996. The proportion of women using contraceptives increased from 42 percent of women in the reproductive age groups in 1996 to 44.4 percent in 2000.⁹⁷ The percentage of women using any modern contraceptive method rose to 42 percent in 2000. The most common method used in 2000 was the male condom (16 percent) followed by the pill (4 percent).

Socio-economic factors can also be said to be a contributory factor to the decline in fertility. For instance, a change in lifestyle as Botswana is getting more urbanised, the high standard of living and budget constraints, as most women are likely to decide on having smaller family size, thus contributing to the decline in fertility. More women are likely to delay childbearing and marriage in favour of furthering their education or careers. Another contributing factor is the increasing number of women participating in the economic sector.

Maternal mortality

Maternal mortality is quite high in Botswana. The majority of

these deaths are due to haemorrhage, infection, complications resulting from unsafe abortion, anaemia and malnutrition. These conditions could be prevented if they are identified through early screening and treated with care.

Teenage pregnancies contribute significantly to the high maternal mortality. Young girls are generally not ready for pregnancy and childbearing mentally, physically, or socially. As such, they are more likely to suffer from medical pregnancy related complications and childbirth. A worrying concern is the fact that exposure to early sex and childbearing lead to the risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases including HIV and AIDS.

Aging

The number of elderly Botswana, those aged 65 years and above has increased significantly in the past 30 years, from a population of 25,487 in 1971 to 83,034 in 2001. However, this has not had an impact on the elderly. These trends may be somewhat altered due to the persistent problem of HIV and traffic accidents in the next few decades.

Another trend in relation to the AIDS pandemic is the fact that more and more of the elderly are now looking after children who have been orphaned. The practice

Key Demographic Indicators, 1971-2001				Table 26
	1971	1981	1991	2001
Population Size	574 094	941 027	1 327 638	1 680 863
Population Age 65+	25 487	43 193	62 531	83 034
Males 65+	10 749	18 577	27 844	34 406
Females 65+	14 738	24 616	34 647	48 628
% Proportion of Elderly				
Total 65+	4.4	4.59	4.71	4.94
Males 65+	1.87	1.97	2.10	4.14
Females 65+	2.57	2.62	2.61	5.86
% Life Expectancy at Birth				
Total	53.4	56.2	61.7	55.6
Males	52.5	52.3	59.4	52.0
Females	58.6	59.7	65.9	57.4

SOURCE: Population and Housing Census 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001

Age and Sex Ratios of the Population in 1981, 1991, 2001 Table 27

Age	Males			Females			Sex Ratios		
	1981	1991	2001	1981	1991	2001	1981	1991	2001
0-4							100	99	93.5
5-9	103	105	102.4	101	105	103	100	98	101.7
10-14	100	105	102.7	98	105	101	95	95	100.0
15-19	94	101	107.8	93	102	106	87	91	99.3
20-24	94	91	93.5	107	93	100	72	86	95.6
25-29	10	100	106.4	100	102	102	72	83	88.7
30-34	103	9	94.4	91	97	93	77	83	95.1
35-39	10	102	98.09	94	104	101	80	85	94.1
40-44	97	95	95.0	100	89	97	84	92	88.7
45-49	101	94	104.0	101	96	104	85	90	86.3
50-54	101	100	95.5	93	99	92	89	92	88.3
55-59	105	96	89.6	110	100	91	85	85	92.3
60-64		98	99.8	89	94	95	77	84	88.9
65-69		100	99.9	112	110	104	89	77	88.1
70-74		103	-	-	94	-	-	86	77.7
75-79		96	-	-	98	-	-	81	-
80-84		93	-	--	84	-	-	76	-

SOURCE: Population and Housing Census 1981, 1991, 2001

of grandmothers looking after grandchildren has always been part of tradition in Botswana but they used to be supported economically by their children. Most elderly people are now looking after grandchildren whose parents have died. The worst affected are those households which are headed by females. Women are more disadvantaged than men and are poorer than men. Female-headed households have to survive on the lowest incomes relative to those households headed by males. The indicators of those aged 65 years and above from 1971 to 2001 are depicted in Table 26.

The age and sex structure of the population shows that there are more women than men in all age groups (see Table 27). Even though there has been a decline in the life expectancy rates, females continue to live longer than males. The chances of survival are even greater for females once they pass the childbearing years.

HIV and AIDS

The HIV and AIDS pandemic has impacted deeply on the structure

and growth of Botswana's population. Although the impact is yet to be fully assessed, overall, AIDS-related mortality is reversing the significant progress that had been made in raising life expectancy and reducing mortality rates. It is estimated that since 1995, AIDS-related conditions have been responsible for over 10 percent of Botswana's annual deaths.

In Botswana, the first HIV case was diagnosed in 1985.⁹⁸ Since then, the number of reported cases has been rising. Urban areas, semi-urban villages and remote areas have all experienced a rapid increase in the numbers of infected people.

During the early years of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, infection was largely concentrated in the urban areas. However, the urban-rural gap has been reduced considerably over the years, such that the rate of infection in urban and rural areas is not much different. HIV and AIDS have become an endemic health problem affecting both urban and rural areas equally.⁹⁹ This closing gap

may be due to increased mobility and link between rural and urban areas and similar behavioural patterns of urban and rural dwellers. This may also be related to income disparities especially in specific project locations where economically buoyant men and women are brought in contact with less economically privileged local women.

Current estimates of HIV prevalence is 35.4 percent among women aged 15-49 years,¹⁰⁰ making Botswana one of the highest among the countries hardest by the epidemic. The epidemic disproportionately affects women relative to men. The 2000-2002 figures reflected the fact that in the younger age groups, i.e. 35 years and below, there were more females affected than males, whereas in the older age groups it was the opposite (see Table 28).

Women are not only the most vulnerable to infection, but they also provide the bulk of care to those infected. They usually assume greater responsibility for caring for the sick, at home and or in hospital. The Botswana government has formally adopted the home-based care (HBC) concept for those living with AIDS in recognition of the fact that the health sector cannot cope with the rising numbers of the sick. HBC refers to "the care given to individuals in their own natural environment, which is their home, by their families, supported by skilled social welfare officers and communities to meet spiritual, material and psychosocial needs, with the individual playing a crucial role."¹⁰¹

The HBC programme operates through committees that are part of civil society's response to the epidemic. Committees comprising of health workers, social workers, and volunteers from the community co-ordinate the programme. The whole programme

falls under a specific sub-unit of the AIDS-STD Unit, which participates in policy formulation on HBC and co-ordinates HBC activities. Community care and support groups have sprung up almost everywhere and have been providing comfort and hope to persons living with, or affected by, HIV and AIDS.

The HBC programme has been a success if viewed within the context of limited resources in the public health sector. Through the programme, healthcare has been extended to the family and the community thereby taking pressure from health facilities. However, from a gender analysis point of view, this increases pressure on women and girls in the communities who have to carry the bulk of the burden of caring for the patients in the homes. Once people living with HIV and AIDS are accepted as a reality within the community, this reduces the discrimination and stigma and their families and the community tend to accept their responsibility to prevent further transmission of the virus.

Furthermore, they often need care for a very long time, and by being cared for at home, carers may be able to pursue income-generating strategies in their home environment, which would be impossible if they had to stay with the patients in hospital or continuously visit them there. This is a well-intentioned programme that aims to alleviate the increasing congestion in hospitals. However, the burden tends to fall more on the women. In fact, HBC in almost all the cases means "women-based-care," adding to their already huge tasks and stresses.

There is now a growing scholarly consensus that the prevalence and severe impact of HIV and AIDS in Africa extend beyond just being health or medical issues, but rather broader

Gender and Age Distribution of Reported Adult HIV and AIDS Cases in Botswana, 2000-2002 Table 28

Age Group	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
15-19	11	39	50
20-24	40	145	185
25-29	164	288	452
30-34	231	247	478
35-39	191	161	352
40-49	269	163	432
50+	138	99	237
Total	1 044	1 142	2 186

SOURCE Ministry of State President and National AIDS Coordinating Agency, 2002

Impact of HIV and AIDS on Botswana**Box 6**

Economy: Botswana's workforce largely falls within the sexually active age groups. The number and quality of people available to work will decline over the next five years. The pandemic will increase poverty and human suffering and weaken the government's capacity to deliver essential services and sustain human development.

Demographic: The structure of the population and its growth rate will continue to be altered. Mortality across all ages is on the rise; as a result, life expectancy has declined. If the epidemic continues at this rate one third of Botswana's adult population could die over the next eight to 12 years, and the structure of the population will shift to increasing the numbers of very young and very old.

Health: The nation's health system is being stretched to the limit and an increasingly large proportion of the sector's resources are now being devoted to people living with AIDS. The epidemic has an impact on health resources and facilities and seriously limits the system's capability to deliver even basic care services.

Education: High levels of morbidity and mortality are impacting on both teachers and children. Among teachers, the number hours being taught in the classroom is being reduced and the quality of teaching and the learning environment are being affected. With the growing number of children either affected or infected by the pandemic, school enrolments are expected to decline due to drop-outs, increased illness or children having to care for family members. Those who remain in class seeing friends and teachers affected by the pandemic are being traumatized and suffer a decreased ability to learn.

Households: The immediate impact of HIV and AIDS on households includes increased health expenditures and loss of income. It is estimated that this will eventually push at least five percent more households below the poverty line.

Orphans: Currently there are an estimated 78,000 orphans in Botswana and projections indicate that by 2010, more than 20 percent of all children will be orphaned. The capacity of the extended family to absorb these orphans will be stretched to the limit.

SOURCE NACA, Botswana National Strategic Framework for HIV and AIDS 2003-2009.

Thari ya Basadi An income-generating project for women living with HIV**Box 7**

Last year, Neo Chitombo became pregnant with her third child. Unemployed, she turned to *Thari ya Basadi* - an income-generating project for women, living with HIV in Botswana. Chitombo began meeting with other women, each stringing together small beads to make decorative pins and elaborate carrying cases for mobile phones.

'I would sit with the other ladies, and we talked about our experiences,' said the 29 year-old Chitombo. 'The other women talk openly about their status. They have the self-confidence to share their experiences.'

To make each pin, Chitombo strings about 200 beads to form a pattern of a red AIDS ribbon. Many include rows of light blue, white and black - representing the Botswana flag. The pins are sold both locally and internationally for about \$2.25. By making 10 pins a day, seven days a week, Chitombo can earn a weekly income of about \$110. 'The money helped me buy the baby's clothing, and it helped me put food on the table for the other two kids that I have,' she said.

In addition to providing much-needed income to participants, *Thari ya Basadi* also aims to dispel widespread shame about the virus. To do this, each of the women sells her own products along with cards that include their photograph and personal story. 'The mission is to break down stigma, so that the buyer can look at the photograph and then look at the seller and say, "Oh, this is you who made this pin",' said Michelle Schaan, founder and director of Health Promotion International, the non-governmental organisation that provides financial assistance to the group. 'It opens doors to speak more freely about HIV.'

Today, Chitombo spends most of her time as an educator at the HIV and AIDS Control Centre, a private company that offers counselling and information on HIV and AIDS to businesses in Botswana. 'I always tell people about *Thari ya Basadi*,' said Chitombo. 'I ask women if they want to have a day with us, and feel how it is to be in a group like that, where we give each other support.'

SOURCE Gretchen Wilson, eAfrica, Africa InfoServ Volume 3, 1 April 2005

issues of development, encompassing all sectors of the society.

Provision of health services

A lot has been achieved in the area of health care in Botswana through the Primary Health Care (PHC) approach. The numbers and distribution of health personnel (doctors and nurses) has improved over the years as well as the access to health facilities. While in 1987 they were 1.4 doctors and 16.7 nurses per 10,000 persons, in 1992 the ratio had increased to 2.3 doctors and 22.3 nurses per 10,000 people.¹⁰² Despite this improvement, however, Botswana is still experiencing a staffing deficit in the health sector. Through the PHC approach, the Ministry of Health has been able to bring health services closer to the people. Existing evidence shows that in 1991, over 85 percent of the population lived within a 15 km distance from a health facility while 76 percent resided within 8 km from the same. The number of health facilities and health personnel covering the period 1996

with the diversion of funds to combating HIV and AIDS, most plans for new health facilities have been suspended.

Youth

The majority of Botswana's population is young people. Approximately 70 percent of the population is under 29 years, and over one third is in the 12-29-age range.¹⁰³ Those aged 12-29 years constituted 43.6 percent of the total population during the 2001 census registering a 75 percent increase between 1991 and 2001, which translates to a population of 552,739 in 1991 increasing to 732,053 in 2001. There is not much difference between the total numbers of males (43.8 percent) and females (43.3 percent) among youth. The rapid increase of the number of youths has immediate implications in the distribution and accessing of the country's resources like education and health services. It is imperative that the youth have access to health services, which should include appropriate support and treatment.

Several initiatives have been put in place not only to deal with teenage fertility but with the sexual reproductive health of the youth. The Urban Youth Project (UYP), a Gaborone based project is one such initiative. This project is co-ordinated through the Ministry of Health under the Family Health Division and its main goal is the promotion of sexual and reproductive health among the youth through the reduction of the incidence of HIV, STDs and unwanted pregnancy. Young people aged between 10-24 years, particularly from economically disadvantaged communities, are the main targets of the project. These include street children, unemployed youth, orphans and young commercial sex workers. There are other

	1996	1998	2000	2002
General Hospitals	13	13	13	12
Referrals (special including mental)	3	3	3	4
Primary Hospitals (Health centres)	14	14	17	17
Clinics	210	222	232	245
Health Posts	316	330	324	340
Mobile Stops	720	740	712	810
Number of Health Personnel				
Doctors	408	424	465	465
Dentists	37	37	34	34
Nursing personnel	3 961	4 130	4 319	1 319
Number of In-patient Discharges				
Alive	132 894	n/a	131 237	119 269
Dead	5 336	n/a	8 665	9 383
Out-patients ('000)	2 976	n/a	3 699	815

SOURCE CSO, 1996, 1998 and 2002

efforts through the various ministries dealing with youth.

The role of civil society

Civil society has always contributed to development efforts in Botswana and their role in society goes back to before independence. They have been involved in all aspects of society including the health sector. They have gone as far as providing health services where they were none or complementing government efforts where these existed. Currently, they are greatly involved in the fight against the HIV and AIDS. The advent of the pandemic has overtaken the government's ability to deliver health services and the civil society organisations fill in this gap by offering alternative mechanisms.

Notable organisations include Botswana Network of AIDS Service Organisations (BONASO), which facilitates and co-ordinates the work of its constituent organisations through information sharing, technical assistance, and advocacy and assisting with accessing resources. At local level communities they operate HBC programmes.

ENVIRONMENT AND LIVING CONDITIONS

The environment and living conditions are very significant to the well being of the population. Their status determines the people's health and productiveness. A healthy nation is productive. In most parts of the country, both rural and urban, government is trying its best to provide basic necessities such as piped water, electricity, telephone, road networks and so on. In most rural centres, people, especially women, still travel long distances to collect firewood and water for domestic use. This deprives them of time to rest, for self-development and other valuable tasks.

Despite government's effort to develop the rural areas by providing basic services, social amenities and introducing programmes that improve rural incomes and job opportunities, a high rural to urban migration was recorded during the 2001 Population and Housing Census.

This has put pressure on urban housing, health facilities, and other social services. In response to inadequate and expensive private housing, people live in overcrowded areas that are not fully serviced. This results in serious environmental problems and creates health hazards.

The type of traditional housing prominent in rural areas has shown a decline in popularity between 1991 and 2001. It declined from 87 percent to 44.51 percent. In urban centres, it moved from 32.3 percent to 5.99 percent. The shift from traditional type

Energy

The use of electricity for lighting in rural areas has increased from 1.2 percent in 1981 to 2.1 percent in 1991 to a tremendous 8.08 percent in 2001. This is because Botswana has embarked on a programme to electrify rural areas. In urban areas, it has almost doubled from 18 percent in 1991 to 36.97 percent in 2001. There was a very steep decline in the use of wood for lighting between 1981 and 2001. Wood remains the main source of fuel for cooking in rural and urban areas, but there is a slight decline in its use. This is mainly due to the fact that wood is scarce in Botswana due to deforestation caused by land clearing for construction, arable agriculture, human settlement, and unsustainable wood harvesting activities.

Although Botswana produces large quantities of coal, only a little percentage of households uses it as a source of energy for cook-

ing, lighting, and heating. This is mainly because there is very little being done to mobilize people on the domestic use of coal. Also, the little information that is often disseminated is generally done over the radio targeting no specific group of people. In addition, the coal depots are not widely distributed throughout the country.

The sustainable and healthy use of coal could be of value to the nation, as it could reduce the women's workload, which has been stretched by the fuel-wood crisis. Currently, most women travel long distances to collect just a head load of wood. Due to the wood crisis, some women have cut on the number of meals cooked in a day, while others have changed their households' dietary patterns by changing to food substances that do not take long to cook, therefore using less energy. All these have implications on the nutrition of the households and may lead to nutrition-related health issues. Other households have switched to the use of other substances for fuel that pollute the environment and affect their health too.

There is an increase in the use of gas for cooking in both rural and urban regions. The increase is even more rapid in the rural region where in the 1981 census, only 1.9 percent of households in the rural areas used gas for cooking and in 1991, the figure increased to 6.6 percent and further rose to 17.01 percent in 2001. This may not necessarily mean that the rural incomes have improved, but it may mainly be explained by the fact that there is a serious fuel-wood scarcity in Botswana.

According to data from the 2001 Population Census, it is indicated that 90 percent of households have access to safer piped water as compared to 80 percent in 1991. Mostly people in the urban

areas enjoy access to piped water inside the building and within the plot. In the rural region most of the piped water is collected from the communal taps and carried to the households. The handling, transporting and storing methods may interfere with its cleanliness and lead to an increase in the incidence of water borne diseases. In some cases women, who are mostly responsible for collection of water for domestic use, travel long distances for piped water. This puts a strain on their daily workloads to the extent that others may switch to the use of surface water when and where it is available, even though they are aware how unsafe it is.

Out of the 404,706 households enumerated for the 2001 Population and Housing Census, about 65 percent (262,822) of households have access to their own sanitation facility. Only 20.7 percent use flush toilets, 18.5 percent ventilated pit latrines, 25 percent use ordinary pit latrines, and 0.7 percent use the enviro-loo.

Flush toilets are commonly found in urban centres where there are sewer networks and piped water. Pit latrines are common in rural centres because there are no sewer tanks and there is only a small percentage of piped water inside buildings and within plots. The other factor is that building a flush toilet in a rural area is expensive as it requires the use of septic or conservancy tanks. In urban areas pit latrines are found in the high-density areas that are poorly developed. Pit latrines are a health risk as they cause both air and ground pollution and are always infested with flies, which spread some diseases and contaminate food and water. About 5.9 percent of the households use their neighbours' toilets, while 22.5 percent do not have access to a toilet facility. This leads to serious environmental and health issues.

PART II

POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

The development initiatives by the government are based on the premise that policies and programmes should benefit all members of the population equally and no one should be disadvantaged. This has been clearly stated in all policies and programmes. Access to economic opportunities for all Botswana citizens in all sectors of development is an overall goal clearly stated in the various National Development Plans, Vision 2016, and Policy on Women in Development as well as in the National Population Policy.

The government has recognised women's roles in economic development and efforts have been made to integrate women in the development processes. According to the Policy on Women in Development, one of the principles "is to achieve effective integration and empowerment of women in order to improve their status, enhance participation in decision-making and role in development."¹⁰⁴ The National Population Policy, in recognition of the fact that female-headed households are more vulnerable to poverty, has come up with several strategies to improve the status of women.¹⁰⁵ Despite such policy efforts, unequal gender relations persist in the different sectors of the economy.

Inequalities between women and men are pronounced as far as access to income and resources are concerned, varying in degrees between urban and rural areas. Income distribution remains skewed in terms of gender. Women, who constitute more than half of the population in Botswana, make up the majority of the unemployed

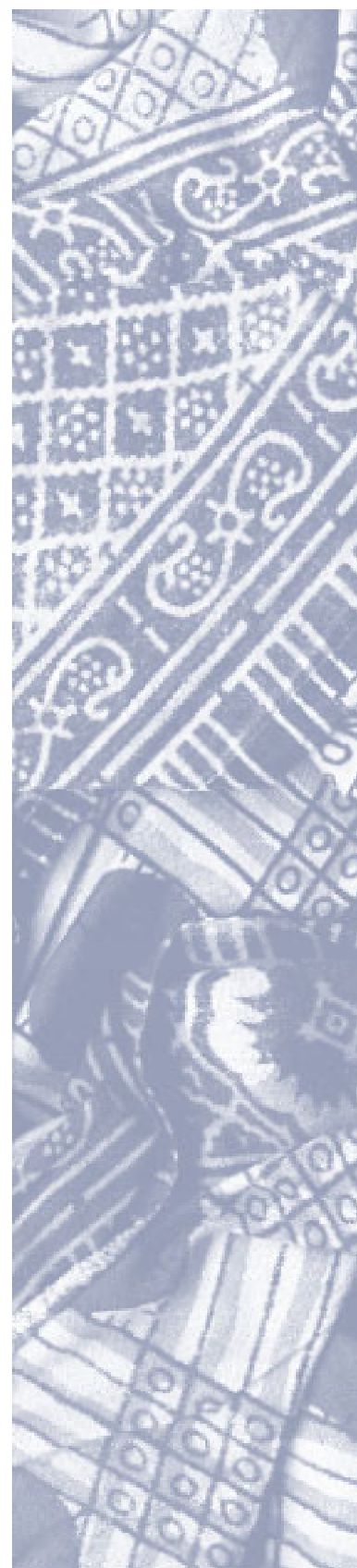
in both rural and urban areas.¹⁰⁶ The government's policies have not been successful in creating employment and income opportunities. The gender inequalities persist.

In this section, an analytical overview of the government programmes and policies as well as those of the NGOs is presented. The analysis is from a gender perspective. The key areas analysed are the economy, political participation, law and human rights, social structures, education, health and natural resources.

Economy

Efforts have been made in terms of amendments of national laws affecting women's economic life, such as the Public Service (Amendment) Act of 2000, which protects women as workers in the Public Service, by declaring sexual harassment as a misconduct, which can attract penalties under the Public Service Act. The shortfall of this Amendment is that it only applies to the public sector and excludes the private and informal sectors. The University of Botswana adopted a policy on sexual harassment in 1999 and the Bank of Botswana has recently adopted its own policy on the same.¹⁰⁷

Deeds Registry (Amendment) Act, 1996, attempts to improve the property rights and status of women married in community of property. This is limited because it deals only with immovable property. It leaves the husband's marital power intact with respect to movable property such as livestock, cash, and others, which may be the only valuable property the couple owns. A married woman's capacity is still limited, for instance



financial institutions continue to demand the consent of the husband (in those areas where marital power has not been excluded) for married women desiring to access credit. Access to credit is necessary to executing¹⁰⁸ deeds and other documents required to be registered in the Deeds Registry.¹⁰⁹ In 2005, parliament adopted a bill to abolish marital power.

The Employment (Amendment) Act, 1996, now allows females to work underground in mines if they choose to and to be employed in any industry of their choice. As indicated under the employment section, women are still missing in the mining sector.

The extent to which these laws are being effectively translated into action remains to be seen.¹¹⁰ Some ministries have not yet taken these policies on board. All the efforts seem to be left to the Women's Affairs Department to mainstream gender for all the ministries. There are also efforts to mainstream gender into macro-economic policies, particularly the national policies and programmes and the budget facilitated by the Women's Affairs Department. A pilot exercise was undertaken to mainstream gender in four Ministries: Labour and Home Affairs, Finance and Development Planning, Local Government, and Trade. It is intended that the remaining ministries will be mainstreamed in the 2005 financial year.

Political participation

Although the Constitution guarantees equality between women and men, there are no clear policies that promote or provide affirmative action strategies to enhance the promotion of women into positions of power. There is lack of a clear policy position as well as the traditional and structural barriers that inhibit the participation of women in politics.

The National Policy on Women in Development is also not clear on affirmative action or quota policies thus there is no national policy framework to guide organisations. It is imperative that government clarifies its policy position as a national directive that all organisations could adhere to. Future strategies need to incorporate affirmative action policies. WAD is planning to revise the current WID policy; this is an opportunity to incorporate gender mainstreaming policy strategies.

Education

In 1992, a Presidential Commission was appointed to review the education system in Botswana with emphasis on universal access to basic education, vocational education training, and preparation and orientation to the world of work. The Commission's report was adopted by government and formed the basis of the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE).

The RNPE spells out strategies for educational development, focusing on the next 20 years, on the following main issues:

- Access and equity;
- Effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and the world of work;
- Improvement and maintenance of quality of the education system;
- Enhancement of the performance and status of the teaching profession;
- Effective management of the education system; and
- Cost effectiveness and cost sharing in the financing of education.

As a result of the investment in education, there is almost 100 per cent access from primary to junior secondary level. The improvement in education is in line with the first pillar of another government doc-

ument, Vision 2016, a long-term vision for Botswana, which states that by the year 2016, Botswana will be an educated and informed nation.

It also aims to ensure that Botswana will have a system of quality education that is able to adapt to the changing needs of the country, which will empower citizens to become innovators capable of producing the best products and services.

Apart from the RNPE, the National Population Policy (1997) recognises the important role played by education. To address changing needs of the educational system, the government established the Tertiary Education Council in 2003 to guide the development of tertiary education in the country.

Health

The basis of the PHC strategy is equity, inter-sectoral collaboration, and community involvement.

It emphasises community participation in identifying health problems, planning, organising, and managing health care. Participation is mobilised through the health, education and community resources. The strategy also emphasises that the services provided must be appropriate, affordable both by people and the state, and accessible.¹¹¹

The provision of adequate food, adequate housing, and safe water for domestic consumption and basic sanitation, among others, which are all essential for the attainment of a well-rounded health care, has become an integral part of the PHC strategy in Botswana.

The PHC strategy has also recognised the importance of occupational health for workers in industry and agriculture a key element in achieving and maintaining health. It is hoped that the different

elements of PHC can be achieved through community participation, joint decision-making, and identification of problems.

The National HIV and AIDS Policy was first put in place in 1992, seven years after the first HIV case was diagnosed in Botswana. The policy was revised in 1998 as some issues emerged that had not been covered in 1992. The 1998 National Policy is currently being reviewed following an extensive consultative review with stakeholders. HIV and AIDS are very complicated and dynamic issues and regular reflections and reviews are necessary.

The new policy, which is still in draft form, will cover programmes and issues such as the Anti-Retroviral Therapy (ARV), the Prevention of Parent-to-Child-Transmission (PMTCT), HBC, Post-Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP), Orphan Care, testing for employment and routine, voluntary HIV and AIDS counselling and testing.¹¹²

Other policies that guide the PMTCT programme are the Botswana Family Planning General Guidelines of 1994, the National Health Policy of 1995, and the Botswana National Strategic Plan.

There are policies, programmes and activities aimed at strengthening women's access to health services and improving their health status. These include the Health Education programme and the Maternal and Child Health/Family Planning programme. A notable achievement of PHC is the Maternal and Child Health/Family Planning Programme (MCH/FP).

In response to the HIV and AIDS pandemic a year after the first HIV infected person was identified, in collaboration with the World Health Organization (WHO), the MoH established the Botswana National AIDS/STD

Programme. An emergency plan of action was drafted, which resulted in the formation of a number of advisory bodies and the development of some initiatives.

In a move to improve child survival through the reduction of HIV related morbidity and mortality, the PMTCT programme was launched in April 1999. Nurses recruited women during antenatal care who agreed to be voluntarily tested for HIV. They are provided with pre-and post-counselling. If the woman tests HIV positive she is given AZT tablets while babies get AZT syrup and infant formula.

Natural resources

Wildlife resources

A number of policies and regulations have been put in place for conservation and institutions such as the Department of Wildlife and National Parks have been established mainly for wildlife conservation and management. The wildlife resources contribute to the national economy as many tourists come to Botswana to see them.

Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM)

The main aim of the CBNRM is to devolve management and decision-making processes to men and women in rural areas who live with the natural resources and depend on them for their livelihoods. It is intended to create linkages between conservation and productive activities that could lead to sustainable utilization and equitable distribution of benefits derived out of resource utilization at local level.

CBNRM was introduced in 1989 and efforts were directed into the Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) that focus on wildlife. In these CBOs more men than women are actively involved.

This may be explained by the fact that traditionally men have managed wildlife resources.

The exploitation of veld products in Botswana is not viewed as a land use in its own right. There are inadequate policy measures to protect and guide exploitation of the veld products considering the fact that the contribution of veld products in the rural economy is not appreciated. As a result, although there is an Agricultural Resource Conservation Act that aims to protect veld products in the communal lands, it fails to do so adequately as it clashes with the Tribal Land Act. The Tribal Land Act allows the Land Board authorities to allocate land for agriculture, development projects, commercial and residential purposes in the communal lands.

The national Vision 2016¹¹³ emphasizes that the local communities should participate in the environmental management and control of the natural resources. This is to enable the people to benefit from the resources in their areas. The document goes further to explain that this principle must be applied to the preservation and exploitation of wildlife.

The policy measures that are in place for the protection of the natural resources contradict each other and fail the rural people, who depend on the natural resources and the environment. The principal victims of this environmental degradation are the most underprivileged people and the majority of these are women. Their problems and those of the environment are very much inter-related. Existing development policies marginalize both.

Due to the complex cycles of poverty, inappropriate development, and environmental policies, poor people have been forced into ways of living, which induce further destruction.

PART III

THE WAY FORWARD

Political participation

Botswana has not done very well in the area of power sharing and political participation of women and men. Even though modest achievements are visible after the last two elections, representation of women in high level decision-making political positions is still minimal.

There has been an increase of women in decision-making in the public sector, especially at middle management levels, since 1995, which is commendable.

The chief executive positions in private sector and board membership are predominantly a male domain.

If equality in political decision is minimal, it works against the goal of gender equality and mainstreaming of gender concerns at the highest level. Equal participation in decision making brings added value to development policies and programmes as both women and men have an equal opportunity of shaping the future destiny of their country.

Challenges

The main challenges in the political arena are the traditional stereotypical attitudes of members within the parties as well as the general society. Most women and men still believe that leadership positions are for men. There is a need to sensitise and educate the general and party leadership to understand the importance of gender equality in a democracy.

Other challenges are:

- Most women have low education levels and lack political skills to challenge the *status quo*. They also accept and entrench male dominance.

- Most women have limited assertiveness skills and lack confidence to take up leadership positions.

- Women and men have limited understanding of the importance of gender equality and therefore prefer to nominate men as candidates and they vote for men rather than women;

- To some extent, party structures are still gender insensitive and nominate and support men for positions in the party;

- Party policies are male biased and do not incorporate the challenges that women face given their multiple roles;

- Most women are not economically independent to be able to financially afford political campaigns.

Future strategies

Civil society organisations should continue to advocate for the transformation of gender relations in political and decision-making structures, as it is crucial for the enhancement of gender equity and equality.

The public at large, politicians and the party structures should be educated as regards the fact that patriarchal attitudes and practices influence women's and men's behaviour and action as it is embedded in the system and it is taken as part of the organisational culture.

Party structures, the public and private sector should be sensitised to recognize that there must be a radical transformation of decision-making structures if genuine equality and participatory democracy has to be realized. The transformation agenda goes beyond numbers as gender stereo-



types and discrimination is systemic and structural.

Women politicians should be trained in assertiveness skills to increase their level of confidence to contest for positions of power as research has also shown that women need training to build their confidence, assertiveness and self esteem as well as know the rules in order to understand how the system works, for them to be effective parliamentarians and change agents.

Gender activists should continue to educate and sensitise women, men, and the community at large in order to transform the nature of gender relations in decision-making and party structures, and at the community level. A more equitable sharing of power in the political and economic structures will contribute positively to sustainable economic growth and development generally.

Social structures

A number of conditions that were taken for granted in the past have changed. These were that the chief is a paramount chief and is expected to be a male, head of households are males, and marriage is universal.

There is need for Botswana to put in place responsive social structures, including the co-existence of the customary law whose highest decision body is the customary court of appeal and the common law governed by the constitution. There is need to harmonise the two. Most of the laws that were perceived to be discriminatory against women have been amended. There is need to have public sensitisation programmes on these amended laws for smooth implementation.

Education

While there is near equal enrolment rates at all levels, the main

difference is in the subjects chosen by males and females. Females tend to go more for non-technical courses as compared to males. In a situation where the government is opting to fully sponsor technical programmes and partially sponsor non-technical ones, females are likely to be more at a disadvantage. There is need to encourage girls to participate in technical and science subjects.

There is need to reduce further teenage pregnancy with a view of eliminating it altogether.

Law and Human Rights

The government needs to action the suggestions made in 1998 during the review of laws that discriminate against women, regarding changes in the legal structures, procedures and enforcement agencies so as to improve the reporting, processing, gender sensitivity and enforcement of the laws. This report should be considered by the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs and tabled before Cabinet and Parliament for urgent action.

Challenges

There are major challenges that should be urgently addressed in order to decrease the number of gender-based violence cases as well as human rights abuses and gender discrimination. The following are some of the challenges;

- The notion of equal rights is not fully recognized within national policies and domestic laws. The laws are still not clear on the human rights of women as there are many laws that still discriminate against women;
- International conventions are not adequately translated into domestic law, thus Botswana's legal system is still conservative and reflects male dominance and superiority;

- Gender-based violence is still a major concern and legislation to protect women and girls is limited and inadequate;
- Enforcement of the existing laws is a major problem as most enforcement institutions are gender insensitive;
- Most judges and magistrates do not have adequate gender awareness and training, thus judgements do not mainstream gender as critical issues of concern;
- Most judges, magistrates, and senior police officers are male and are traditional in their outlook; and
- There is limited political will to promote legal reform, thus changes to existing laws take a very long time.
- Public education programmes should be strengthened to educate the public at large, women and men, girls and boys, leaders, teachers etc to sensitise them to understand that domestic violence is a serious criminal offence and a violation of women and children's human rights;
- Government and private sector organisations should support NGOs to establish well-equipped crisis centres to adequately address gender-based violence cases. A one stop-centre based on the integrated approach where the police, medical staff, NGOs services are all located to deal timely and effectively with cases of violence against women and girls ;

Future strategies

The following are selected strategies that need to be urgently addressed.

- A co-ordinated and integrated approach should be put in place to adequately address gender-based violence;
- Legal provisions should be made to specifically define domestic violence as a crime. The current Draft Domestic Violence Bill submitted by the NGOs should be processed immediately;
- Laws should be amended to give magistrates jurisdiction to deal with these cases as a matter of urgency and to issue restraining orders in domestic violence cases;
- The statutes should provide for stiffer penalties and enforcement procedures and agencies should be strengthened;
- NGOs should be supported by government and the private sector in order to provide effective legal services to victims of gender-based violence;
- Families (parents) should be held accountable and brought to book in cases where they condone the sexual abuse of children under 16 years;
- Legislation and measures should be put in place to hold teachers and community leaders accountable for the violation of the human rights of young girls under 18 years in school and out of school;
- All law enforcement officers, national and local, should be given gender awareness and sensitivity training so as to respond to gender-based violence cases urgently and professionally;
- The laws on rape, incest and defilement should be urgently reviewed and strengthened in order to reduce the legal loopholes and gender disparities;
- People with disabilities should be given special legal protection when they are sexually, emotionally, and physically abused;
- Traditional leaders and customary courts should address and consult the public on the escalat-

ing incidence of gender-based violence and address the cultural values and norms that condone practices that lead to the violation of women and girls rights and the abuse of children.

Health

In order to fight HIV and AIDS, a lot more still needs to be done:

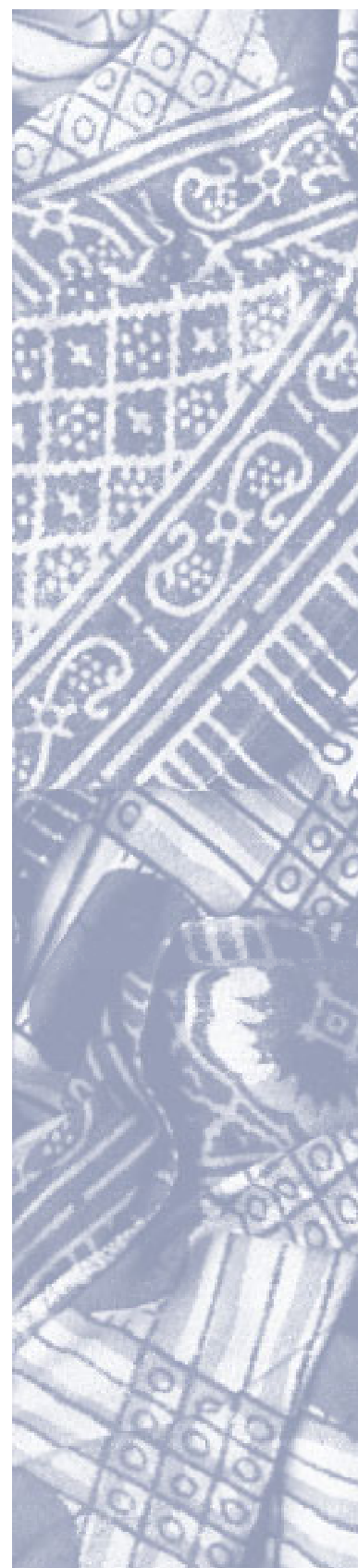
- In the area of reproductive health it is important that health information, care and other services that are provided are culturally appropriate and gender-sensitive. Women must be able to discuss their reproductive and sexual health concerns and needs and have access to the information and services needed to protect themselves. In addition, programmes should be put in place which encourage men to utilise reproductive health services. Currently these services are perceived as a woman's domain.
- Relevant gender considerations must be integrated into prevention efforts. In terms of reproductive choices, women who are at risk in terms of unwanted pregnancies and getting infected have limited contraceptive choices and prevention technologies available to them. There is a pressing need to begin to integrate gender considerations; the roles and responsibilities of men must not be overlooked or diminished in reproductive health.
- Reproductive health services should also address other aspects of women's health such as breast and cervical cancer screening.
- Other health areas such as the nutrition of children below the age of five should not be neglected considering the fact that Botswana is a drought endemic country.

PART IV

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- 2 Meena, 1992
- 3 Moser, 1993
- 4 Report on the Review of the Rural Development Policy, Vol. 2 Analysis and Recommendations, 2001.
- 5 BIDPA, 2001
- 6 BIDPA, 1997
- 7 WNGOC, An Audit of Women's Economic Opportunities in Botswana, 1999.
- 8 WNGOC, 1999
- 9 All other trade negotiations or agreements with third parties must be acceptable to other SACU members.
- 10 BoB Annual Report, 2002
- 11 BoB, 2002, p93
- 12 BoB, 2002, p88
- 13 Refer to policies and programmes on FAP.
- 14 BoB, 2002
- 15 BoB, 2002; p74
- 16 Non-domestic financial asserts acquired through external transactions by government.
- 17 Bob 2002
- 18 MFDP, 2002
- 19 BoB 2002
- 20 MFDP, 2003c
- 21 BIDPA 2001: p63
- 22 Ibid: 67
- 23 CSO, 1998
- 24 MFDP, 2003c
- 25 BIDPA, 1997
- 26 BIDPA 1997
- 27 There are structures (the *Kgotla* and Village Development Committees) in place right up to local villages that are geared towards allowing every Motswana to participate effectively in policy formulation and implementation. *Kgotla* is used to discuss publicly and gather views on matters affecting communities before government makes policy decisions.
- 28 MFDP, 2003c
- 29 Refer to AGOA discussion in this document.
- 30 WNGOC 1999
- 31 Deeds Registry (Amendment Act, 1996), which allows them ownership of immovable property.
- 32 Machacha and Dintoe, 2001
- 33 Magembe, 2001
- 34 CSO, 2001
- 35 CSO, 2001: p27
- 36 Ibid, p80
- 37 NDP 9, 2003
- 38 Ibid
- 39 CSO, 1998: p71
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- 42 CSO, 1998: p2-3
- 43 WNGOC, 1999
- 44 BIDPA, 2001: p68
- 45 CSO, 1998: p6
- 46 Refer to Deeds Registry (Amendment) Act, discussion in this document.
- 47 MFDP, 2003c
- 48 UNDP 1997, Molutsi & Holm 1989
- 49 UNDP 2000
- 50 Botswana had elections in October 2004 and the number of constituencies had increased to 54, which means that the number of MP's increased.
- 51 Research has indicated that Botswana has a one party dominant State even-though a multi-party democracy exists.
- 52 WLSA, 1992
- 53 IEC 2003
- 54 IEC 2003
- 55 SADC 1999
- 56 Census 2001, SADC 1999, Emang Basadi, 1998.
- 57 Adopted from Botswana Press Agency (BOPA), available at www.ipu.org
- 58 Selolwane, 2000
- 59 SADC 1999, WiLDAF 2000, Selolwane 2000.
- 60 Emang Basadi 1999, SADC 1999, WiLDAF 2000.
- 61 Ibid
- 62 Ibid
- 63 Ditshwanelo and SARDC-WIDSAA 1998
- 64 ibid
- 65 CSO 2004
- 66 Gender and Media Audience Study (GMAS), Gender Links, 2004.
- 67 The major constraint is that legal reform is done on a piecemeal basis as there is still a limited understanding on the overall impact of existing discriminatory laws on the goal of gender equality.
- 68 WAD 2002, MLHA 1998
- 69 Civil society organisations such as WLSA and Emang Basadi played a critical role and advocated for the amendment of the Citizenship law. This challenged the patriarchal nature of Setswana society.
- 70 MLHA 1998
- 71 WAD 2000
- 72 WLSA 2002
- 73 WLSA 1992, 1994, 1997, 2002, WAD 2003, Emang Basadi 1998
- 74 MLHA 1998
- 75 The customary law is inherently discriminatory and treat women, whether married or single as minors. There are also many versions of customary law across the country, which promotes inequality inconsistent with the Constitution and general laws of the country. This is a major challenge and gap that must be addressed.



- 76 MLHA, 1995, Emang Basadi 1999, MLHA 1998, WAD 2002, WAD 2004
77 MHLA, 1998
78 Ibid
79 There are some ethnic groups in Botswana that still practice polygamy which compromises the legal status of women affected by this practice.
80 WLSA 1994, MLHA 1998
81 Molokomme 1991, WLSA 1992, 1994, 1997.
82 Most rural communities are still very conservative as they live their lives informed by customary laws and practices. There is need for consistent legal education to raise the level of legal awareness.
83 MLGL, 2003
84 MLHA, 1998, WLSA 1997
85 WLSA, 2002
86 WLSA, 2002
87 WAD, 1999, Emang Basadi 1998, Botswana Police Services 1999
88 WLSA 1999, WAD 2000
89 MLHA/WAD 1999, WLSA 2002
90 Mogwe 1998
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104 Ministry of Home Affairs, 1995: 19
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GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

A Declaration by Heads of State or Government of the Southern African Development Community (SADC)

PREAMBLE

WE, the Heads of State or Government of the Southern African Development Community,

A. NOTING THAT:

- i) Member States undertook in the SADC Treaty and in the Declaration to the Treaty, and in the Protocol on Immunities and Privileges, SADC not to discriminate against any person on the grounds of gender, among others;
- ii) All SADC member states have signed and ratified or acceded to the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), or are in the final stages of doing so.

B. CONVINCED THAT:

- i) Gender equality is a fundamental human right;
- ii) Gender is an area in which considerable agreement already exists and where there are substantial benefits to be gained from closer regional co-operation and collective action;
- iii) The integration and mainstreaming of gender issues into the SADC Programme of Action and Community Building Initiative is key to the sustainable development of the SADC region.

C. DEEPLY CONCERNED THAT:

- i) While some SADC member states have made some progress towards gender equality and gender mainstreaming, disparities between women and men still exist in the areas of legal rights, power-sharing and decision-making, access to and control over productive resources, education and health among others;
- ii) Women constitute the majority of the poor;
- iii) Efforts to integrate gender considerations in SADC sectoral programmes and projects have not sufficiently mainstreamed gender in a co-ordinated and comprehensive manner.

D. RECOGNISING THAT:

- i) The SADC Council of Ministers in 1990 mandated the SADC Secretariat to explore the best ways to incorporate gender issues in the SADC Programme of Work, and approved in 1996 gender issues at the regional level to be co-ordinated by the Secretariat;
- ii) In execution of this mandate, the SADC Secretariat has developed and maintained working relations with key stakeholders in the area of gender, which resulted in the approval and adoption of the SADC Gender Programme by the SADC Council of Ministers in February 1997.

WE THEREFORE:

E. REAFFIRM our commitment to the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies, the Africa Platform of Action and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

F. ENDORSE the decision of Council on:

- i) The establishment of a policy framework for mainstreaming gender in all SADC activities, and in strengthening the efforts by member countries to achieve gender equality;
- ii) Putting into place an institutional framework for advancing gender equality consistent with that established for other areas of co-operation, but which ensures that gender is routinely taken into account in all sectors;

iii) The establishment of a Standing Committee of Ministers responsible for Gender Affairs in the region;

iv) The adoption of the existing Advisory Committee consisting of one representative from Government and one member from the Non-Governmental Organisations in each member state whose task is to advise the Standing Committee of Ministers and other Sectoral Committees of Ministers on gender issues;

v) The establishment of Gender Focal points whose task would be to ensure that gender is taken into account in all sectoral initiatives, and is placed on the agenda of all ministerial meetings;

vi) The establishment of a Gender Unit in the SADC Secretariat consisting of at least two officers at a senior level.

G. RESOLVE THAT:

As leaders, we should spearhead the implementation of these undertakings and ensure the eradication of all gender inequalities in the region;

AND

H. COMMIT ourselves and our respective countries to, inter alia,

i) Placing gender firmly on the agenda of the SADC Programme of Action and Community Building Initiative;

ii) Ensuring the equal representation of women and men in the decision-making of member states and SADC structures at all levels, and the achievement of at least 30 percent target of women in political and decision-making structures by year 2005;

iii) Promoting women's full access to, and control over productive resources such as land, livestock, markets, credit, modern technology, formal employment, and a good quality of life in order to reduce the level of poverty among women;

iv) Repealing and reforming all laws, amending constitutions and changing social practices which still subject women to discrimination, and enacting empowering gender-sensitive laws;

v) Enhancing access to quality education by women and men, and removing gender stereotyping in the curriculum, career choices and professions;

vi) Making quality reproductive and other health services more accessible to women and men;

vii) Protecting and promoting the human rights of women and children;

viii) Recognising, protecting and promoting the reproductive and sexual rights of women and the girl child;

ix) Taking urgent measures to prevent and deal with the increasing levels of violence against women and children;

x) Encouraging the mass media to disseminate information and materials in respect of the human rights of women and children.

Mrs. Christobel Chakwana, Ministry of Gender, Child Welfare and Community Services

APPENDIX 1

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, We, the Heads of State or Government of the Southern African Development Community, HAVE SIGNED THIS DECLARATION.

DONE at Blantyre on this 8th day of September 1997, in two original texts, in the English and Portuguese languages, both texts being equality authentic.

Republic of Angola
Republic of Botswana
Kingdom of Lesotho
Republic of Malawi
Republic of Mauritius
Republic of Mozambique
Republic of Namibia
Republic of South Africa
Kingdom of Swaziland
United Republic of Tanzania
Republic of Zambia
Republic of Zimbabwe

APPENDIX 2

LIST OF NATIONAL PARTNERS AND CONTACTS IN 12 SADC COUNTRIES

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