

BEYOND INEQUALITIES 2005

Women
in Mozambique

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BEYOND INEQUALITIES 2005

Women in Mozambique

A profile of Women in Mozambique
produced by
Fórum Mulher
and the
Women in Development Southern Africa Awareness (WIDSAA) Programme
of the
Southern African Research and Documentation Centre (SARDC)

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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 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. This target has been surpassed in some countries, notably South Africa where 43 percent of the cabinet are women.¹

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



Fórum Mulher

The Women's Forum (Fórum Mulher) is a network of national and foreign organisations and institutions, governmental and non-governmental organisations, trade unions, women's sections of political parties, donor agencies and other bodies and groups that work on behalf of women. The forum is committed to implementing work plans that meet the growing needs of its members and the other groups of women and men who are marginalized and excluded from the society. The common denominator in the Forum's activities is respect for human rights and advancing the position of women in society. The Women's Forum also works through its network of organisations for just and equitable development in every sphere of society. It is independent, and has no ideological, political, or religious bias.

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 that 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 people living with HIV and AIDS in the SADC region, representing approximately 26 percent² 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 is a development challenge, the 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 com-

plexities 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 and their relationship 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 for 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.

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, preceded by an introduction. 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 provides references and a bibliography of materials used.

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.

National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women

Box 1

The government of Mozambique, in its efforts to promote equal rights and opportunities between men and women and to improve the status of women, has been focusing on the need to integrate gender issues in development plans and interventions against poverty. This has resulted in the formulation of the National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (PNAM).

The plan was drafted by inter-sectoral and multi-disciplinary groups using participatory consultations and interviews with relevant entities in planning and implementing the promotion of the status of women. This was done not only in the capital city, but in three other provinces and selected places in order to get a representative sample of the country.

The PNAM has five parts.

- ▢ Part 1 describes the current situation of women in Mozambique.
- ▢ Part 2 highlights institutional mechanisms for women's advancement and the efforts that are being made to promote women.
- ▢ Part 3 presents the objectives and priorities of the action plan for the period 2002-2006.
- ▢ Part 4 presents the co-ordination, implementation and monitoring mechanisms of the plan.
- ▢ Part 5 presents a series of operational matrixes of the plan.

Critical Areas of Concern included in the plan

- ▢ The persistent burden and continuous increase of poverty among women;
- ▢ The unequal and insufficient access to education and professional training;
- ▢ The unequal and insufficient access to health care and related services that translate into extremely high rates of maternity mortality;
- ▢ The violation and persistent discrimination against the rights of girls;
- ▢ The violence against women, including domestic violence;
- ▢ The disregard for and inadequate protection of women's rights;
- ▢ The inequality between men and women in sharing power and decision-making at all levels;
- ▢ The insufficient mechanisms to promote women's advancement at all levels;
- ▢ The stereotypical portrayal of women and inequality in access and participation in the media and communication systems, specially in the mass media;
- ▢ Gender inequality in the management of natural resources and safeguarding of the environment;
- ▢ The inequalities in economic structures in all types of productive activities and access to related resources;
- ▢ The effects of armed conflict on women, including those living in areas under foreign occupation.

The PNAM 2002-2006 has selected strategic issues from the critical areas of concern, including:

- ▢ Women, poverty and employment;
- ▢ Education and training of women and girls;
- ▢ Women, health and HIV and AIDS;
- ▢ Women's rights and violence;
- ▢ Women's empowerment in all decision-making bodies, including in the mass media;
- ▢ Women, environment and agriculture; and
- ▢ Institutional mechanisms for women's advancement.

SOURCE National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women, 2002-2006

CONTENTS

PREFACE	v
CONTENTS	ix
List of Tables and Boxes	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xii
ACRONYMS	xiii
MOZAMBIQUE DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS	xv
MAP of MOZAMBIQUE	xvi
 INTRODUCTION 1	
Objectives	1
Methodology	1
Theoretical perspectives	1
Outline	2
 PART I SITUATION ANALYSIS	3
Gender milestones	3
International instruments	3
Regional agreements	4
Macro and Socio Economic Situation	4
Women in the informal sector	5
Access to means of production	5
Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA)	8
Women in Politics and Decision-making	9
Women in top positions in companies and trade unions	9
Women in the National Assembly	10
Women in the Executive	11
Women in the Judiciary and Legal Profession	12
Women in the Public Service	12
Women in Civil Society, Trade Unions	13
Education and Technology	14
Education, women and wellbeing	14
Programmes for girls' education	16
Nutrition and welfare in schools	16
Literacy and adult education	17
Primary and secondary education	17
Higher education	20
Gender and the Media	22
Images of women in the media	22
Women entry into media career	24
Admission through journalism school	24
Who has a voice in the media?	24
Women in the electronic media	25
Women's TV/radio programmes	25
Food Security and Nutritional Status	25
Gender and Health	27
Reproductive health	27
Mother-to-child health programmes	28
Improvement and utilization of services	29
Government responses	29
Gendered impact of HIV and AIDS	30
Socialisation and vulnerability	33
Women's identity, HIV and AIDS	35



Abortion-related morbidity and mortality	36
Environment	39
Housing	39
Access to safe water	39
Electricity and other forms of energy	40
Impact of natural disasters	40
Community management and conservation of natural resources	42
Gender, Law and Legal Reform	43
Violence Against Women	45
Context	45
Institutional responses	46
Definition and root causes	50
Law and access to justice	52
The Elderly Population	53
Contributions of the elderly to families and communities	54
 PART II POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES	 55
Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women	55
Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action (MMCAS)	55
National Council for the Advancement of Women	56
Actions developed by GOAM and MMCAS	56
Gender focal points	58
Gender donor groups	58
Government efforts to strengthen capacity	58
Parliament	59
Civil society	60
Fórum Mulher	60
Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA)	61
Health policies and programmes	61
Food security and nutritional strategy	62
Education	62
Education, HIV and AIDS	64
ICT Policy	64
Social policy of the elderly	65
Adolescents and youth programmes	65
 PART III THE WAY FOWARD	 67
 PART IV REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY	 69
Endnotes	69
Bibliography	72
 APPENDIX	 77
1 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development	77
2 List of National Partners and Contacts in SADC Member States	78
3 List of participants to the validation seminar of the <i>Beyond Inequalities: Women in Mozambique 2005</i> draft report, 29 September 2004, Fórum Mulher offices, Maputo	79



List of Tables, Figures and Boxes

Tables

1	MPs per Bench and Gender in the 2 nd and 3 rd National Assembly, 1999-2004 & 2004 -2009	10
2	Composition of the Government between 1995 and 2005	11
3	Data on the Situation of Women at Judicial Level	12
4	Justice at the Supreme Court by Gender, 2005	12
5	Magistrates by Gender, 2005	12
6	Women in Politics and Decision-making Positions	13
7	Adult Illiteracy Rate by Gender (2000-2004)	17
8	Evolution of Gross School Attendance in EP1, by Gender Public and Private Education	18
9	Evolution of Gross School Attendance in EP2, by Gender Public and Private Education	19
10	Evolution of the Ratio of Girls in Public Schools, 2000 -2005 (%)	19
11	Evolution of the Ratio of Female Teachers in EP1, public schools, 2000 – 2005(%)	20
12	Percentage of Dropouts Rates in Primary and Secondary Schools, Per Year and Gender, 2000-2003	20
13	Enrolment in High Level Education by Gender	21
14	Students Graduated, by Gender and Area of Study in 2004	21
15	Data on the Attendance in ICS by Gender, 2005	24
16	Use of Electronic Media in Manhica and Namaacha Disticts, by Gender in 2002	25
17	Number of Children Under 3 Years Whose Weight by Age is 2 Standard Deviations of the Average, by Gender, 2000/01	26
18	Number of Children Under 3 Years Whose Height by Age is 2 Standard Deviations of the Average, by Gender, 2000/01	26
19	Infant Mortality Rate by Gender, 2000-2005	26
20	Maternal Component, Evolution in Percentage (2000-20004)	27
21	Key Impact Indicators	29
22	Violent Cases and Victim-perpetrator Relations, by Gender, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala Provinces, 2000-2003	47
23	General Profile of the Victim-perpetrator Relations-Female Victims, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala provinces, 2000-2003	48
24	General Profile of the Victim-perpetrator Relations – Male Victims, Maputo City, Maputoand Sofala provinces, 2000-2003	48
25	Type of Crime in the Domestic Area Where the Perpetrator is the Husband or Wife, 26 Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala Provinces, 2000-2003	49

Boxes

1	National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women	viii
2	Priority areas for Mozambique	9
3	Challenges for achieving gender equity and universal primary education	14
4	Constraints in accessing quality health services	30
5	Women's AIDS Education Organisation (OMES), Manica Province	36
6	APOSEMO (Association of the Retired of Mozambique)	54

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Fórum Mulher, Mozambique

May 2006

ACRONYMS

ADF	African Development Fund
AFCM	Households Headed by Women
AIDI	Attention to Childhood Diseases
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMMCJ	Mozambican Association of Women in the Legal Field
AMME	Mozambican Association of Women for Education
AMODEFA	Mozambican Association for Family Development
APOSEMO	Association of the Retired of Mozambique
AWEPA	Association of European Parliamentarians for Africa
BDPFA	Beijing Declaration and Platform For Action
CASGA	Commission for Social, Gender and Environmental Affairs
CEA	Centre for African Studies
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CFPPs	Training Centres for Primary Education Teachers
CI	Insufficient Growth Rate
CIUEM	Computer Centre in Eduardo Mondlane University
CMSJ	Higher Council of Judicial Magistrature
CNCS	National Aids Council
COMUTRA	Committees of the Woman Worker
CPLP	Community of Portuguese Speaking Countries
DHS	Demographic Health Survey
DNM	National Directorate of Women
DNP	National Directorate of Planning
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
EP1	Lower Primary Education (Grades 1 to 5)
EP2	Higher Primary Education (Grades 6 and 7)
ESAN	National Strategy for Food Security and Nutrition
ESG 1/2	First/ Second Cycle of Secondary Education
ESG 1	1st Cycle of Secondary Education
ESG2	2nd Cycle of General Secondary Education
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation
FAWEMO	African Forum of Women in Education/ Mozambique
GATV	Centres for Voluntary Counselling and Testing
GDG	Gender Donor Groups
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMBS	Gender and Media Baseline Study
GOAM	Operative Group for the Advancement of Women
GTG	Gender Thematic Group
GU	Gender Units
HCM	Maputo Central Hospital
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HIVOS	Humanist Institute for Cooperation with Developing Countries
IAF	Inquiry on Family Assistance
ICS	Institute of Social Communications
ICT	Information Communication Technologies
IDS	Demographic Health Inquiry
INE	National Institute of Statistics
ISRI	Higher Institute of International Relations
MADER	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MAE	Ministry for State Administration



MAP	Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MED	Women and Development Project
MESCT	Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology
MICAS	Ministry for Co-ordination of Social Action
MINED	Ministry of Education
MINT	Ministry of Industry and Tourism
MADER	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MIRME	Ministry of Transport and Communications
MISAU	Ministry of Health
MMCAS	Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action
MONASO	Mozambique Network of AIDS Service Organisations
MOPH	Ministry of Public Works and Housing
MPF	Ministry of Planning and Finance
MT	Metical
MTFF	Medium Term Fiscal Scenario
MULEIDE	Women, Law and Development Association
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NSJ	Southern Africa Media Training Trust
NUCODE	Centre for Co-ordination of Education
OMES	Women's AIDS Education Organisation
OMM	Organisation of Mozambican Women
PAIPG	Action Plan for the Integration of Gender Perspectives
PARPA	Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty
PEA	Economically Active Population
PEE	Strategic Plan of Education
PEN	National Strategic Plan
PES	Annual Economic and Social Plan
PNAM	National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women
PNUD	United Nations Development Programme
PRM	Mozambican Republic Police
PROAGRI	Integrated Agricultural Programme
QUIBB	Questionnaire of Well being Basic Indicators
SAAJ	Friends of Adolescents and Youth
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SARDC	Southern African Research and Documentation Centre
SEA	Programme for School Health and Adolescents
SIS	Health Information System
SSR	Reproductive Sexual Health
TCV	All Against Violence
TIA	Agricultural Inquiry Task
TMM	Maternal Mortality Rate
UEM	Eduardo Mondlane University
UNAC	National Union of Agriculturists and Cooperativists
UNESCO	United Nations Organisation for Education, Science and Culture
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WFP	United Nations World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WIDSAA	Women In Development Southern Africa Awareness
WLSA	Women and Law in Southern Africa

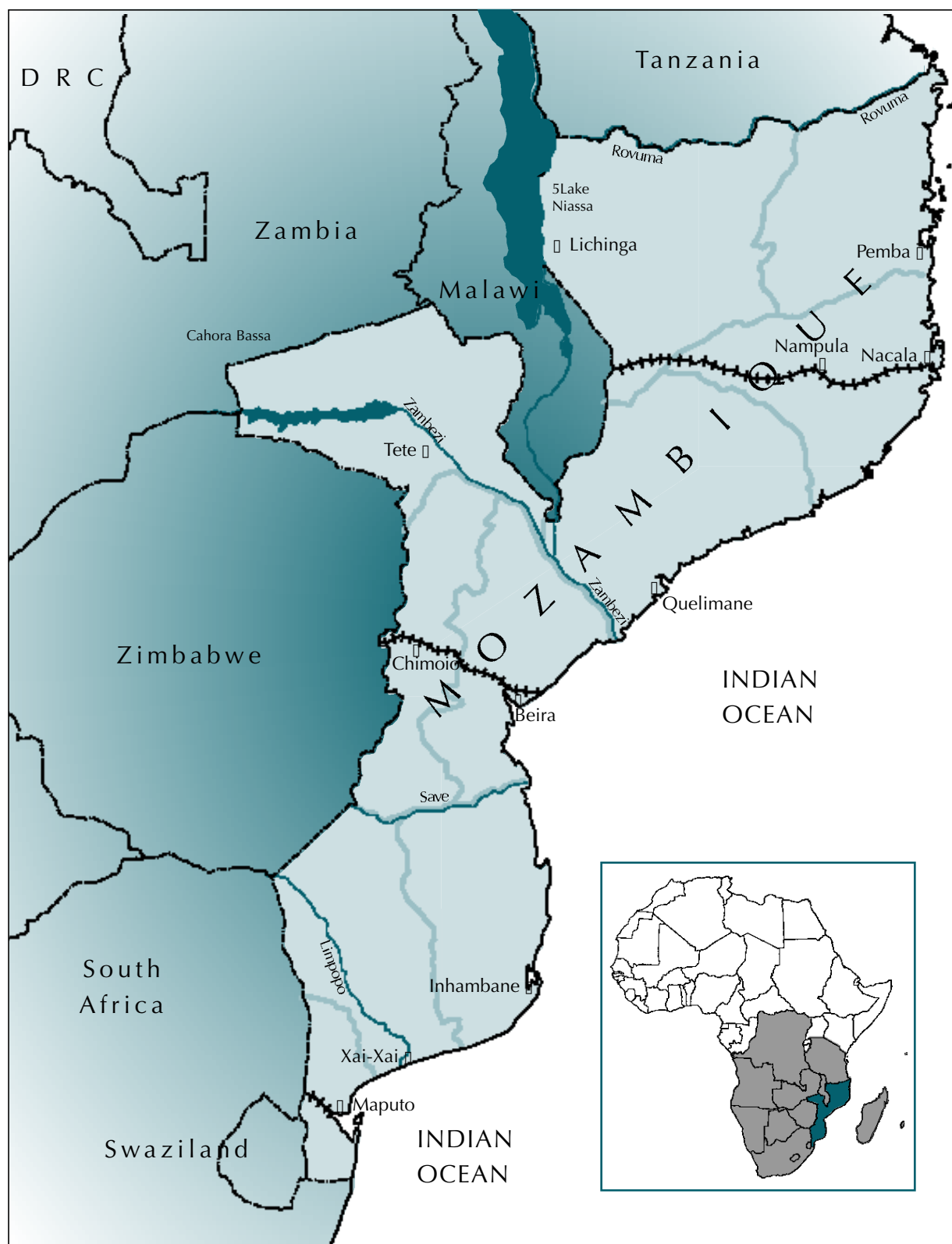
MOZAMBIQUE DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

Official Name	Republic of Mozambique
Capital City	Maputo
Independence Date	25 June 1975
Head of State and Government	Armando Emilio Guebuza
Last election held	1-2 December 2004
Ruling party	FRELIMO
Languages	Portuguese, English, Emakhuwa, Echuwabo, Cinyanja, Cisena, Shona, Xitsonga (Xichangana), Xironga, Ciyao, Shimakonde, Cinyungwe, Txitxop, Bitonga, Kiswahili Lolo, Ekoti, Cindau, Xitshwa, Cimanika, Ciwutewe, Elomwe, Xitwe.
Land Area	799,380 sq km
POPULATION	
Total	19.1 million women 51.7% men 48.3%
Population growth rate	2.4%
Birth rate	40.2/1000pop (2005)
Death rate	16.2/1000pop (2005)
HEALTH	
Life expectancy at birth	46.7 women 48.6 men 44.8
Total Fertility Rate	5.3 children born/women
Infant Mortality Rate	101/ 1000 live births
Maternal Mortality Rate	408/100,000 live births
Population with access to safe water	57.7 % (urban) 26.4 % (rural)
EDUCATION	
Adult literacy rate	47.2% women 33.8% men 65.6%
ECONOMY	
Gross Domestic Product	US\$5.5 billion
Gross Domestic Product (per capita)	US\$313
Gross Domestic Product (Composition by sector)	
agriculture	25.2%
industry	35.1%
services	39.7%
Average annual rate of inflation	9.1%
Foreign debt as % GDP	23% (2005)
Currency 1 Metical = 100 centavos	MT 23,234.61= US\$ 1 (2005)

Note All statistics are for 2004 unless otherwise specified.

SOURCES

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INTRODUCTION

Although equality has not yet been fully achieved, it can safely be stated that since the Beijing Conference in 1995, the government of Mozambique and civil society organisations have responded positively to some of the recommendations of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) as well as the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development (SADC Gender Declaration). The United Nations Fourth World Women Conference in Beijing was a historic event in the “fight” for gender equality, where governments and states made several commitments. These included increasing the participation of women in economic development and in decision-making processes at all levels.

This update analyses measures that have been taken to correct the gender imbalances and improve the situation of women in the public and private spheres in Mozambique.

Objectives

The main objective of this update is to review progress made in improving the status of women in Mozambique and to contribute towards their empowerment, not only in Mozambique, but in the whole region.

Methodology

In July 2003, WIDSAA organized a workshop in Maputo, involving members of the Gender Reference Group (GRG), researchers and delegates from the countries involved in the updating of the *Beyond Inequalities* series, in order to define the methodology, content and timeframes. The workshop clarified the objectives of the exercise, the essence of updating, and the methodology to be used. It was agreed that data would be gathered mainly through desk research.

The first draft report on the update in Mozambique was presented to a workshop attended by members of Fórum Mulher and other partners doing work in the thematic areas covered, and this culminated in a second draft. This report was presented to representatives of several ministries and NGOs who reviewed it, made recommendations towards improving it, and later approved this current report.

Data collection process

It's important to mention that lack of official publications with gender disaggregated macro-economic statistics was one major limitation to the study. Although this information can be obtained, its processing for public consumption is still not gender disaggregated. Data is not easily available and an official requisition has to be made in order to obtain it. Some studies do have such information, although it differs from one source to another. As such, researchers relied much on the official national source of information, that is, the National Institute of Statistics (INE), to which various sectors submit data, which is then processed and altered in accordance with conversion and adjustment factors for public consumption.

Theoretical perspectives

Gender is used as a tool in analysing the information obtained for the various thematic areas. As in the first profile published in 2000, the gender concept is perceived as a social construction, which constitutes a social system of relationships and does not solely consider the status of women.



These relationships between individuals and groups are constantly changing and can change a society even if it resists collectively and individually.

An attempt has been made to show the invisibility of women and their status and levels of participation in society, *vis a vis* men, and how these gender relationships are built into development policies and programmes in the country.

Outline

The study is divided into four main parts:

Part I presents a national context and a situation analysis, by providing an overview of the macroeconomic structure and other critical areas for the country.

Part II evaluates policies and programmes that are in place to advance the gender equality agenda.

Part III defines succinctly the challenges and priorities for action in shaping the way forward in order to achieve gender equality and development in the country.

Part IV presents references and a bibliography.

PART I

SITUATION ANALYSIS

The first profile on the status of women in Mozambique was produced in 2000,³ as part of the series of publications titled *Beyond Inequalities*, which documented the status of women in southern Africa, and the initiatives to mainstream gender and development processes in the region. The profile took stock of developments in Mozambique regarding the status of women prior to 2000.

This current profile updates the first one in the series *Beyond Inequalities*. It profiles the status of women in Mozambique from 2000 to 2004/5 and records the extent to which practical and adequate steps are being taken in all development sectors towards achieving this. The update examines how Mozambique as a state is fulfilling its commitments under the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BDPA), the SADC Gender Declaration,⁴ and its Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children, and the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Gender milestones

According to a government report on the progress made in implementing the Beijing recommendations, gender milestones achieved over the last three years include the development of strategic plans that have enabled Mozambique to address the challenges and meet some of the objectives outlined in the BDPFA.

For instance, in 2000, the Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action (MMCAS) was created to direct, execute and co-ordinate policies towards women's emancipation, development and social welfare throughout the country. In 2001, a National Directorate of Women was established within MMCAS and its role is to define and promote the implementation of sup-

port programmes for the development of women and the family, from a gender perspective.

In 2002, a National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women (PNAM) was drafted. The PNAM was envisaged to provide guidance and be a reference tool for government officials and other policy-makers at various levels, NGOs and the private sector, as well as international organisations in facilitating and developing the plans and programmes for women's advancement.

In addition, in 2003, a draft National Strategic Policy for Gender was developed to, among other things, provide knowledge and training to both men and women and raise awareness on gender inequality in dealing with social, economic, political and cultural issues.⁵

The establishment of gender focal points in some ministries was another important milestone in the gender mainstreaming process in Mozambique. Yet another key milestone has been the upward trend of women's representation in decision-making bodies; in government and parliament. Mozambique is one of the few countries to have surpassed the 30 percent target of women representation in parliament, which is a remarkable achievement in a country where, as in others in the region, the patriarchal system still prevails.

International instruments

In an effort to promote and protect women's rights, Mozambique adopted and ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and ratified the Additional Protocol to CEDAW, which has created an opportunity for enhancing access to justice systems by women in the country. In addition, Mozambique has continued to inten-



sify efforts to review and enact legislation and policies in accordance with the CEDAW provisions. One example is the enactment of a new Family Law in November 2003.

In line with the Millennium Declaration and the MDGs, some gender-related issues have been implemented within line ministries. Measures taken by the government include the enforcement of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy, which has increased the enrolment rates for both girls and boys in primary schools and resulted in the reduction of the gender gap between girls and boys in primary schools.

Regional agreements

Immediately after signing the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development in 1997, the country established various institutional mechanisms to implement this commitment. These include the Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action (MMCAS), Operative Group for the Advancement of Women (GOAM), and Forum Mulher. All these institutions have been working together towards the creation of an enabling environment for the promotion of gender equality.

Apart from this, Mozambique also embraces the principle of gender equality through the national constitution. The new constitution adopted in 1990 clearly states that women and men are equal before the law in all aspects of political, economic, social and cultural life.

The challenge is to ensure that women get skills and knowledge about these laws, to understand how the legal systems work, and be able to demand their rights when they are violated.

MACRO AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATION

Mozambique has had satisfactory economic growth, with an average growth rate of 9.2 percent between 2001 and 2004. The economic gains are mainly due to the development of projects linked to the mining and

manufacturing industries, namely, the aluminium smelter MOZAL, the Cahora Bassa hydroelectric power project, the gas from Pande, titanium heavy sands and others such as agriculture, which has contributed significantly to the country's GDP.

In addition to the significant economic growth, which is the highest in the SADC region, Mozambique has many natural resources yet to be exploited (both for internal consumption and for export) and has an adequate labour force. This shows great potential for its social and economic development.

However, despite this, Mozambique is still one of the least developed countries in Africa and the world, with a UNDP global human development index rank of 168 out of 177 countries.⁶ About 54 percent of its population lives below the poverty line.⁷ The MDGs report indicates that poverty is higher in rural areas (55.3 percent) where 70 percent of the population is concentrated, against 52 percent in the urban areas. In relation to the population distribution by gender, 68.9 percent of women live in rural areas and 31.1 percent in urban zones. While about 20 percent of men earn salaries in terms of money and/or goods, most women are family workers, without remuneration.

An analysis of other social indicators such as education shows that despite government efforts to reactivate literacy and adult education centres, the literacy rate amongst women has not increased significantly as compared to men, rising from 25.9 percent in 1997 to 32.0 percent in 2003, whilst that of men rose from 55.4 percent in 1997 to 63.3 percent in 2003.⁸ With respect to mortality rates, though still high, it has decreased due to the extended health and community education programmes, combined with the expansion of basic social and health services.

The increasing incidences of HIV and AIDS in many parts of the country have also contributed to the poor standards of living for the peo-

ple of Mozambique, with women and children in both rural and urban areas being the most affected. The extensive geographic proliferation of HIV and AIDS, particularly in the city centres, is one of the major development concerns.

While several programmes and initiatives have been developed to control and reduce these rates, more training is needed, especially on how to collect data on the affected population and to draft and implement activities that will benefit the infected as well as affected, and their families.

Women in the informal sector

Limited access to education, health and capital, lack of access to ownership and control over land, and unequal decision-making power put women in a seriously disadvantaged position politically, economically and socially. This situation forces women to engage in multiple strategies to generate income for survival. Several studies in Mozambique indicate that the main productive income-generating activities done by women are the production and sale of agricultural produce; *ganho-ganho* (*xitoco* in Maputo), animal rearing, production and sale of foodstuffs, charcoal, firewood, grass, straw mats and other products.⁹

Women also dominate in small business enterprises, operating between provinces and across borders. They produce local products such as handicrafts, sell them in other provinces or countries and bring back basic commodities, to meet the challenges of a high cost of living and unemployment.

However, women in this sector in Mozambique are the most disadvantaged because they have to sell products daily and still do work within the household. Although they have been active in the informal sector, they still lack support from financial institutions.

It is imperative for financial institutions to support women in this sector. Supporting programmes through provision of credit, child-care centres and equal division of

labour would stimulate increased women's participation in income generating activities, which would empower women and enable women to have enough time to concentrate on their businesses.

Access to means of production

Land

Land is one asset that can potentially meet the basic needs of the poor in Mozambique, where the majority of the poor are women. Unfortunately, it is not an asset women can easily access because of unequal gender relations rooted in culture and tradition. Generally, women's land rights are compromised in marital relationships where the husband is traditionally regarded as the head of the household and by virtue of that power owns the land.

Despite the fact that the constitution of the Republic of Mozambique guarantees equality between women and men in regard to the right to access and control land, in practice the majority of Mozambican women do not have control over land. Women's access to land varies from one region to the other. For example, in Ndixe, a village in Marracuene district in the province of Maputo, the *machongos*¹⁰ considered to have the most economic potential for food production continue to be a men's prerogative and women only access them through marriage.¹¹

In some other parts such as Matutu ne district, both men and women control the land they use.¹² In the northern province of Cabo Delgado, specifically in the Maconde society in the Mueda Plateau, women's access to *liteka* (fertile lowlands) is important for their daily sustenance strategies. For female-headed households, land is both an asset and key income production factor as most women have no other form of capital.

Women seek several alternatives to access land, some through the rights of matrilineal inheritance (from uncle to nephew, with no

Women's access to land varies from one region to the other.

direct rights for women), others through marriage, loans and direct purchase. However, they all risk losing their land if they divorce or become widows. Single women live off land loans and have to return the loaned land. Women have been concerned with the growing trend of selling of land, in a context where they have weak political status and limited economic power to negotiate.¹³

In Niassa, the matrilineal system and the *uxorilocalidade* (when the wife moves to the husband's area) give women the right to do certain activities generally attributed to men. Before a wedding, men have to perform several services for the bride's family, which are usually hoeing and cutting down trees. This system legitimises the authority of women in relation to land, securing their ownership, even in cases of the death of the husband or in divorce, and contributes to the economic security and social status of women.¹⁴

Generally, there is no agreed view as to what system of land ownership will best promote economic growth and gender equality. The position of Mozambique on land reform, in terms of liberalisation, depends on the political and economic context and on the strength and organisation of women and alliances that they can create.

Hope for women is thus centred on the new Land Law (Law 19/97 of 1 October), which is a legal instrument to safeguard the rights of women, especially widows, divorced and single mothers, regarding the use of land as small scale farmers who constitute over 90 percent of agricultural producers and are the mainstay of the economy.

This law establishes equal rights to land by women and men. In addition, it provides for testimonial powers to be represented by both women and men, for inheritance not to have gender differences and for women to have the right to possess individualized title deeds. It also bars traditional rules

and practices that contravene the rights guaranteed in the national constitution. This law is expected to contribute to higher food security in the households, particularly those headed by women.¹⁵

The new law is also a major breakthrough in that it acknowledges both formal and customary law. Not only does it recognize written documents in land use cases, but also customary tenure systems. Civil society groups managed to push for and secure a clause that entitles women to property rights. With that clause and Mozambique's progressive constitution, which enshrines equal rights for men and women, it is hoped that women will be more protected and have more access to and control over land.

However, one of the criticisms levelled against this law is ambiguity created by the recognition of customary law alongside formal law. Many have criticised the law for apparently legitimising "customary" alongside "formal" land tenure systems, which could in fact disadvantage women. Although the law states that women are equal to men, contrary to customary norms, some schools of thought believe that in practice, this provision will not significantly change women's lives for the better.

Some researchers and women advocates have argued that this provision has in fact created an unresolved contradiction, which can reverse the gains made by women in their efforts to have control over land. They argue that the law leaves open a conservative interpretation of customary norms, which can be abused by men to deny women access to and control over land.

Generally, only a few men and women have benefited from this land law because the administrative and judicial practices have been slow to incorporate the norms and dynamics that the law encourages. The other reason is that the innovative aspects of this law have not been publicized well enough among

those who are supposed to benefit from it. The challenge is to inform people (especially women in rural areas) about the law, and for the women to be empowered to use it.

The issue of women's access to and control over this economic resource must be given urgent attention and should not be separated from the issue of how rural people work and earn their livelihoods. Although legal reform has space to improve the position of women, this in itself is not sufficient to achieve the ambitious poverty reduction objectives that the Mozambican government has set in recent years.

Therefore, harmonising the traditional customary laws and supporting the local organisations that are lobbying for women's land rights, as both workers and custodians of land is a necessary step. Improving the economic position of poor rural women also means strengthening their power over production resources such as finance, labour and appropriate technology.

Irrigation

While irrigation is important for food security and poverty eradication, research carried out on irrigation schemes in some parts of the country has shown that it is very difficult for peasants in general and women in particular to fully enjoy the benefits of irrigation schemes and obtain incomes that cover the expenses they need to pay.¹⁶

Poor water management skills, insufficient funds to pay water rates and low levels of education among women farmers have been the major hindrances to irrigation development. For instance, studies conducted in the irrigation area of Massaca-Boane in Maputo province have shown that some women who previously benefited from irrigation schemes have since decided to sell their plots of land, and that the majority of those that bought them are men.¹⁷

The loss of these plots by women implies that they have also lost control over the type of crop to

be planted on those plots and this is a serious problem for food security, especially for a country that relies on women small-scale farmers for its food supply.

It is important to note that men and women have different priorities when selecting crops to be planted on their farms. While women prefer food crops for their families, experience shows that men usually prefer cash crops.

Therefore, in order to ensure food security at household and national levels, women need to have access to basic technology for production, such as irrigation. It is therefore important for NGOs and the government of Mozambique to engage in strategies that facilitate and enable women peasant farmers and other poor rural people to gain access to currently available irrigation schemes.

Rural credit

With the increased challenges of HIV and AIDS, and adoption of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the 1980s, women in Mozambique have had the added responsibility of ensuring that the family is provided and cared for, through informal or small businesses.

The informal sector is a major source of income for women, especially in the harsh economic climate where fewer women are in formal employment. Rural credit thus becomes important to women as they work for the survival of their families. However, gender has not been fully incorporated into credit programmes for rural women. In most cases it has been considered at the planning stage, but has often not been implemented.

This weakness is due to many factors including the traditional power relations between men and women and other socio-cultural factors, including lack of education, time limits, high rates of interests charged and taxes applied. These factors limit women's access to credit and leave them with fewer options.

The challenge is to inform people about the law.



*Men and women
have different
priorities when
selecting crops.*

Women in some provinces such as Maputo and Gaza use the semi-formal credit system as an alternative to their financial problems, since this system does not require for them to have property as security (collateral). This system has attracted many vulnerable women (single mothers, divorcees and widows).

There is also a significant number of better-off women, such as those with decision-making power in some religion and community duties using this system. In most cases the credit that is offered to women in Mozambique is for activities involving less risks and quicker returns. These include crop production, livestock rearing (mainly *caprinos*), small businesses and construction-related activities.

Studies have shown that women with access to credit have better access to goods and services than those without, although most women are still poorer and own less goods and property compared to men. This is due to the fact that in some communities, women cannot and do not manage the family income, as this is a prerogative of men (husband, older son or another male member of the family). All the goods and property that women acquire, even by inheritance from their own family, belong to men.

While studies show that women save more and that credit provides more income to families, the majority of women's enterprises are not well sponsored by both micro and macro-finance companies. Women usually source loans through friends, husbands and relatives. Some financial institutions discriminate against poor rural women because they do not have collateral and tend to avoid those areas where poor rural women are the majority or are in most need.¹⁸

Given the high levels of unemployment and inability to attain loans to start up formal businesses, financial institutions need to devise plans that target and support poor rural women.

Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA)

In the early 1990s, Mozambique joined other developing countries in adopting neo-liberal economic policies known as Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). These policies put a strong emphasis on the reform and restructuring of the economy according to market principles and allowing production and trade to proceed with as little government regulation and interference as possible. It was hoped that through this process, poverty would be reduced, thus giving Mozambicans control over their own lives and their development through engaging in business directly.

In line with SAPs, almost all public services such as health, education, water supply and virtually all stages of production were privatised to individuals or private companies. In recent years, Mozambique, like others, has realised that instead of combating poverty and lifting the standards of living of poor people, the policies have contributed in making people poorer and that the gap between the rich and the poor, particularly women, has widened.

In its efforts to reduce this gap and combat absolute poverty, the Government of Mozambique has developed an Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA). The core objective of PARPA is to substantially reduce poverty levels from 70 percent in 1997 to less than 60 percent in 2005 and to less than 50 percent by the end of 2010.¹⁹ There has been progress in this regard, as poverty levels currently stand at 54 percent.

The PARPA strategy includes policies and programmes in six priority areas of poverty reduction including:

- education;
- health;
- agriculture and rural development;
- basic infrastructure;
- good governance; and,
- macro-economic and fiscal management.

The document outlines the strategic vision of poverty reduction, the main objectives and the key activities to be pursued, and also guides the preparation of annual budgets, programmes and policies.

As women are the worst affected by poverty, one of the expectations is that national action plans such as the PARPA should address poverty among women. However, although women's issues and priorities have been articulated in the PARPA, this has not been translated into practice, hence a critical gender analysis of the policy is needed. This will be discussed further in Part II on policies and programmes.

WOMEN IN POLITICS AND DECISION-MAKING

The number of women in governance and leadership positions has increased gradually in the last few years in Mozambique, reflecting the acknowledgment by relevant institutions of the importance of ensuring equal opportunities from a gender perspective.

The appointment of a woman prime minister in 2003, and more recently, women having the responsibility to manage strategic portfolios such as foreign affairs and co-operation, justice and mineral resources in the new government is evidence of this. However, the overall representation of women as decision-makers and leaders in key structures is still low.

In the public service, there are about 105,722 people, of which 26.9 percent are women and 73.1 percent men. The percentage of women is higher in the higher ranks of public service among the most qualified positions.

There are ministries where female representation is less than 25 percent. These are:

- Ministry for State Administration (MAE), 12 percent;
- Ministry of Internal Affairs, 18 percent;

- Ministry of Mineral Resources and Energy (MIRME), 20 percent
- Ministry of Transport and Communications (MTC), 16 percent;
- Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, 17.3 percent.
- Ministry of Education and Culture, 24 percent; and,
- Ministry of Public Housing, 20.5 percent.

Women in top positions in companies and trade unions

Mozambican law does not discriminate on the basis of gender in job appointments, promotion or salary grading, although there are still challenges in practice.

Women's ability to access formal employment is generally limited due to their qualifications, which are on average lower than those of men. The working hours and some cultural and social factors are also barriers to women's participation in formal employment.²⁰ Other factors include the distances that women have to travel to the workplace and the nature of the jobs.

With regard to the work force in the country, the number of unemployed people registered by the Ministry of Labour was 15,212, an increase of 18 percent (of which 15 percent are women) in the last two years. In the same period, 12 percent of unemployed and registered women got employed and there were more job placements for women than for men.²¹

According to 2000-2001 data from the Questionnaire of Well-being Basic Indicators (QUIBB), women constituted 16 percent of the total 199,259 employees.

Only 31 percent of trade union leadership are women. In the management of 397 NGOs analysed (from a total of 574 local and international NGOs), women representation was only 23 percent. Most of the NGOs have male directors, except the organisations that focus on gender and women's issues.²²

Priority areas for Mozambique

Box 2

After a careful analysis of the 12 critical areas of concern under the BPFA, the Government of Mozambique decided to focus on the following thematic areas, which pose a major threat to development in the country:

- Women, poverty and employment
- Education and training of women and girls
- Women, health, HIV and AIDS
- Women's rights and violence
- Women in power, in decision-making institutions and in the media
- Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women
- Agriculture and sustainable development
- Women and law

The priority areas have been incorporated in the PNAM and the government together with NGOs, has developed programmes aimed at reducing the gender gaps in all social and economic sectors. The progress made in this regard will be discussed later in this profile.

SOURCE National Plan of Action for the Advancement of Women, 2002-2006

The number of women involved in politics in Mozambique, especially in decision-making positions, is gradually rising. The December 2004 elections increased women's representation in the legislature and cabinet.

This promising picture is, however, countered by other realities. For example, of the 31 political parties in the country, none has a woman as president. According to MAE and MMCAS, data prior to 2005 showed that at executive level there were 22 male ministers and only three female ministers. In the deputy minister category, there were 13 men and only four women. Traditionally, in terms of women's participation in positions of power, the situation is not different in local communities. A study by the MAE suggests that women may give opinions, but their acceptance is dependent on whether they fit in with the patriarchal decision-making systems.

Women in the National Assembly

In the 1999-2004 legislature, 31.2 percent of the 250 members of parliament were women. In the current legislature (2004-2009), the figure rose to 35.6 percent of the 250 members, implying an increase of 4.4 percent, as shown in Table 1.

Democratic Union;²³ the Renamo-Electoral Union (Renamo-EU).²⁴

At political party level there has been a gradual increase of women in decision-making positions, mainly in the ruling party, Frelimo, where women in parliament, prior to the December 2004 elections, represented 41.3 percent (55 of the 133 seats occupied by this party). After the recent elections, Frelimo now has 69 women (43.1 percent) out of the 250-seat National Assembly. In Renamo-EU, women occupied 23 of the 117 seats, corresponding to 19.6 percent. After the December 2004 elections Renamo contributes 20 (22.2 percent) women out of the 250-seat parliament.

Parliament is one area where there has been a noticeable increase of women representation. Tables 1 to 4 illustrate this point. Concerted effort and advocacy is required for the numbers to increase further and for a significant positive impact to be noted in relation to concrete changes in policies, strategies and other initiatives that promote gender equality. For example, in the debates and advocacy for changes in the land and family laws, civil society organisations urged for more interventions by women in decision-making positions, especially MPs.

MPs per Bench and Gender in the 2nd and 3rd National Assembly, 1999-2004 & 2004 -2009 Table 1

Description	1999/2004 Gender				Total	2004/9 Gender				Total
	Men	M%	Women	W%		Men	M%	Women	W%	
Frelimo	78	58.6	55	41.3	133	91	56.9	69	43.1	160
Renamo-União										
Eleitoral	94	80.3	23	19.6	117	70	77.8	20	22.2	90
Total	172	68.8	78	31.2	250	161	64.4	89	35.6	250

SOURCE Mozambique, MAE, 2005

It is important to mention that in the first legislature (1994-1999), three political parties had seats in Parliament. In the second, there were only two parties due to the coalition between Renamo and the

For this reason, the establishment of quotas is not enough as a strategy; women in decision-making positions have to contribute towards better quality interventions in gender issues.

A research report produced by Fórum Mulher in April 2000 entitled *Policies of Inequality? First Elements for an Evaluation of Government and NGOs' Gender Policies and Programmes after Beijing*,²⁵ recognises that the presence of women in decision-making positions is positive, though it contends that "...it is necessary to intensify the work with female MPs to give them capacity and instruments to increase the possibilities of intervention in that position of power."²⁶

In light of this, Fórum Mulher, WIDSAA and the Association of European Parliamentarians for Africa (AWEPA) have been developing training activities for parliamentarians to sensitise them on gender issues. This was motivated by the realisation that increasing quotas for women does not necessarily increase their decision-making power. Women parliamentarians have also been visiting other countries to gain exposure and experience in order to improve their performance in mainstreaming gender into their work.

Women in the Executive

The Mozambican government's policy position is that women's empowerment must be integrated into all development programmes. From a political party standpoint, the Frelimo party, before the 1994 elections, had a 30 percent quota for women on its list of candidates.²⁷ This policy began during the national liberation war and became better known after independence in June 1975 when the government drafted concrete strategies for women's empowerment. The illiteracy rate for women then was about 90 percent. Government therefore invested in education and adult literacy, and women's literacy was one of its priorities.

The government carried out sensitisation programmes to improve the situation of women and this had a positive impact on

women in decision-making positions, including leadership positions. Before then, for example, in 1975 at the executive level, there was only one woman in cabinet as the Minister of Education.

This situation improved slowly, and in 1994 after the first multi-party elections, more efforts were made to improve the participation of women, as indicated in Table 2.

Composition of the Government between 1995 and 2005 Table 2

Description	1995 – 1999			2000			2005		
	M	W	%W	M	W	%W	M	W	%W
President	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Prime Minister	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	100
Ministers	20	1	4.76	18	3	14.28	20	6	23.07
Deputy Ministers	13	4	23.5	4	5	55.5	13	4	23.5
Total	35	5	12.5	24	8	25	34	11	24.4

SOURCE INE, 1997; Mozambique, MAE, 2005

Interesting to note is the fact that from 2000 to 2005, the number of ministers increased by five as a direct consequence of the increase in ministries, thus, the number of female ministers increased from 14.28 percent in 2000 to 23.07 percent in 2005, which means that in this period there has been an increase of 8.8 percent. Among the deputy ministers during the same period, there was a significant increase in the number of men from four to 13 (nine more male ministers) while the number of women decreased from five to four, as shown in Table 2. In practice therefore, in spite of the increase in the number of ministries, the percentage of women in the Executive decreased from 25 percent to 24.4 percent, as shown also in Table 2.

Prior to the December 2004 elections and the appointment of a new cabinet in early 2005, the three women cabinet ministers were in the Ministries of Planning and Finance (MPF), Higher Education, Science and Technology (MESCT) and MMCAS. A woman was appointed Prime Minister in 2003. Luisa Diogo was reappointed Prime

Minister in 2005 and the new cabinet has four women in the ministries of Mineral Resources, Justice, MMCAS, and Foreign Affairs and Co-operation.

Data on the Situation of Women at Judicial Level Table 3

Position	Men	Women	Total	Women %
Judge advisors	7	0	7	0
Magistrates	137	30	167	17.96
President judges	93	7	100	7
Legal technicians	169	27	196	13.77
Lawyers	186	40	226	17.69
Deputy – attorneys	6	1	7	14.28
Provincial attorneys	35	7	42	16.66
District attorneys	101	18	119	15.12

SOURCE CMSJ, 2003

Women in the Judiciary and Legal Profession

Available data shows that women representation in judicial structures is still low as shown in Table 3. However, it is important to mention that the integration of gender issues in judicial structures has been getting special attention by some

organisations and institutions working in this area. This special attention has come in the form of awareness and capacity-building activities that have been carried out in the past two years especially in 2003. The objective of these activities is to create awareness among judicial power structures in order to improve their service and follow up on cases of violation of women's rights.

Fórum Mulher and the Centre for Legal and Judiciary Training (CFJJ) have been carrying out specific capacity-building and awareness activities for senior officials in the magistracy, public ministry and justice officials. In its institutional philosophy, CFJJ aims to integrate a module on gender issues and the judiciary in the curriculum of all courses offered by the institution. More recent information shows an increase in the number of magistrates, see Tables 4 and 5.

Women in the Public Service

The government, through MAE, has initiated a reform process in the public service aimed at reducing bureaucracy in its operating systems. There will be a reduction of staff in this sector, among other measures. However, it is still too early to know the result of this ini-

tiative *vis a vis* women's participation in decision-making positions in the sector. It is important to note that in previous such processes, women were more negatively affected as they were the first to be retrenched. Some activists have recommended that women's rights organisations create an institution to closely monitor the process. According to the principles guiding the creation of MMCAS, this proposed institution should monitor this process to avoid women being prejudiced. Overall, as discussed earlier, the government has made efforts to increase the participation of women in decision-making in this sector, as shown in Table 6.

A comparison of data in Table 6 of the years after 2002 and that from the years prior to 2002 shows a questionable increase in the number of heads of departments, divisions and sections, generally because of a simultaneous and significant increment of these structures in which men continue to have a predominant presence compared to women. The same table also shows that there were only six women in executive power, representing 23.07 percent.

The same table also shows that at ministerial level there were four women permanent secretaries, representing 23.52 percent. At local government level there were 26 women district administrators, corresponding to 20.3 percent. These numbers are considered low, taking into account the total number of district administrators (129). The representation of women mayors was 29.7 percent.

Despite this, the trend at local level shows a decrease in the number of women. In relation to external diplomatic representation, there were only three women ambassadors compared to 10 men. Table 6 shows the efforts that have been made to integrate more women in decision-making positions, even though the figures are still very low. This difference is even more distinct in local structures.

Justice at the Supreme Court by Gender, 2005 Table 4

Title	Men	Women	Total
Justice	7	1	8
Total	7	1	8

SOURCE CFJJ, 2005

Magistrates by Gender, 2005 Table 5

Title	Men	Women	Total
Judges	161	44	205
Prosecutors	119	37	156
Total	280	81	361

SOURCE CFJJ, 2005

Women in Politics and Decision-making Positions Table 6

Decision-making Positions	N° of Women		N° of Men		Total		% Women	
	1997	2005	1997	2005	1997	2005	1997	2005
Government								
Prime Minister	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	100
Ministers	1	6	22	20	23	26	4.3	23.07
Deputy Ministers	3	4	15	13	18	17	16.6	23.5
Parliament	71	89	179	161	250	250	28.4	35.6
Political Parties								
FRELIMO	-	69	-	91	-	160	-	43.1
RENAMO-EU	-	20	-	70	-	90	-	22.2
Provincial Governments								
Provincial Governors	0	2	10	9	10	11	0	18.1
Provincial Permanent Secretaries	0	4	0	7	0	11	0	36.3
Provincial Directors	12	33	130	130	142	163	8.4	20.2
Deputy Provincial Directors	3	3	11	11	14	14	21.4	21.4
Local Governments								
a) Elected								
Presidents of Municipal Councils	0	1	0	32	0	33	0	3.03
Mayors	-	235	-	555	-	790	-	29.7
b) Nominated								
District Administrators	3	26	125	113	128	139	2.34	18.7
Heads of Administrative Posts	-	10	-	288	-	298	-	3.35
Public Service								
Permanent Secretaries	2	4	15	13	17	17	11.7	23.5
National Directors	23	33	141	141	164	174	14.02	18.9
Deputy National Directors	12	12	59	59	71	71	16.9	16.9
Heads of Department	148	148	620	620	768	768	19.2	19.2
Heads of Division	157	157	-	399	-	556	-	28.2
Heads of Section	-	297	-	622	-	919	-	32.3
Ambassadors/High Commissioners								
Ambassadors	2	3	12	10	14	13	14.2	23.07
Judiciary								
Judges	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-
Attorney-General	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0
Deputy Attorney-General	0	1	-	3	-	4	0	25
Magistrates	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Army								
Officials	6	24	-	138	-	162	-	14.8

SOURCE Mozambique, MAE, December 2005, updated by MMCAS

Women in Civil Society, Trade Unions

According to the co-ordinator of the Committees of Working Women (COMUTRAS) in the national trade union, workers' rights in Mozambique, especially those of working women, are violated. Men head most of the trade unions. The COMUTRAS were established to effectively defend the rights of women workers. The question though is whether women's rights are being violated because trade

unions are headed by men or because of lack of knowledge of gender issues in general.

Women in trade unions face several obstacles to access leadership positions. Some of these obstacles include casting women with sexist biases, especially those women aspiring to take up leadership positions. The long working hours in most unions as well as their modes of operation are often not gender sensitive and not cognisant of the household responsibilities of

Challenges for achieving gender equity and universal primary education

Box 3

- ▣ Low value given to girls' education;
- ▣ Heavy workloads of girls due to domestic and seasonal labour;
- ▣ Tension between formal and traditional education systems (early marriage, bride-prices and alternative instruction);
- ▣ Small numbers of female teachers and managers of schools especially in rural areas;
- ▣ Poverty and resultant early marriage;
- ▣ Sexual harassment by male teachers and schoolmates;
- ▣ Distance between home and school due to lack of boarding facilities responding to the specific needs of the girls;
- ▣ Limited school network especially in deprived rural areas resulting in overcrowded classrooms;
- ▣ Lack of community-based support strategies for children with special needs, in particular children orphaned by AIDS;
- ▣ Lack of a literacy programme and a non-formal education system, especially for dropouts and out-of-school children;
- ▣ Lack of strategies to reduce the vulnerability of the education infrastructure to natural disasters;
- ▣ Cost of schooling, despite fee abolition;
- ▣ Limited participation of girls and women in vocational and technical education particularly in non-traditional and high demand employment areas (ITC, engineering, etc); and
- ▣ Unequal institutional support for the development and empowerment of women, particularly within the public sector, for example the lack of management policies promoting gender balance.

SOURCE Government of Mozambique, *Report on the Millennium Development Goals*, Mozambique, 2002 and 2005

women workers.²⁸ There is a huge discrepancy in favour of men regarding leadership in the trade unions' management positions.

Mozambique, compared to other southern African countries, has high percentages of women representation in some power structures. However, even in sectors or structures where the position of women is considered positive, the figures are still far from reaching the targets. The reasons include that women in decision-making positions are expected to improve their participation in both discussions and implementation of policies and programmes to eliminate gender inequalities and promote women's rights. Pervasive patriarchy, which still dominates and prevents the active participation of women, is also another reason.

The participation of women in decision-making positions and processes is not only based on gender discrimination, but also depends on social and cultural issues which contribute in discouraging women to take up leadership positions at these levels. More legal measures are required to accelerate change and ensure that more women participate in decision-making.

EDUCATION AND TECHNOLOGY

The education system in Mozambique is twofold: formal and informal. The former is designed to eradicate illiteracy and effectively contribute to a non-discriminatory education system. Since 1997, the gender gap in primary education in Mozambique has been gradually closing at lower primary education levels, although inequalities in education opportunities for boys and girls still persist.

According to the 2005 Mozambique report on the MDGs, 83 girls for every 100 boys were enrolled in 2003, up from 71 in 1997. In secondary education, the gap is higher and there was no

marked improvement in the same period, with a ratio of girls to boys of 76 percent. The discrepancies are higher in the northern and central provinces due to cultural reasons, which do not motivate girls to attend schools.

The gender gap in illiteracy is narrowing among the new generations since 2001, especially in the 15-19 year age group. This is attributed to the National Education Policy and Implementation Strategies produced in 1995, which recognised education as a fundamental instrument for economic growth and social development, in order to promote the wellbeing of individuals and the sustainable development of the country. However, the repetition rate in secondary schools is higher for girls than for boys (53 percent and 46 percent respectively).

In acknowledging the gender inequalities in the education sector, the government of Mozambique in its 1997-2003 Education Strategic Plan (PEE) committed to strengthen and promote girls' access to education. The integration of a gender perspective in the PEE was among the major goals to facilitate the achievement of gender equality as highlighted in the BPFA and the MDGs. Currently in its second phase, the 2004-2008 PEE aims to increase access to education, improve retention, and reduce the inequalities by region, age and gender.

Education, women and wellbeing

Education is considered one of the key determinants of the social and material wellbeing of households and a key factor in the reduction of poverty in Mozambique. Work done in the education sector has included an investment in this sector, addressing gender disparities at regional and national levels and also between rural and urban areas in relation to attendance levels, especially in the northern and central provinces of the country, where the level of development of human capital is significantly lower.

A sample of data gathered between 1996 and 1997 on 19,180 individuals aged between 18-65 years in the adult education system, in both rural and urban areas, revealed that in Mozambique, of the 32 percent literate population in rural areas, women represent 15.7 percent. In urban areas, women constituted 57.6 percent of the sample. About half of the population speaks Portuguese and this is double the figure for Portuguese speakers in rural areas. Of this figure, and of those who speak Portuguese, women are only 33 percent. The data also revealed that the percentage of women with some education is about 32 percent in rural areas, where only five percent completed primary education, compared to 68 percent of women who went to school in urban areas and 33 percent completed at least the primary level.²⁹

The study also revealed that literacy rates in the country vary depending on the level of poverty. The distinction between the poor and non-poor is higher in urban areas compared to rural areas and varies according to gender.

For children from seven to 17 years, the relationship between poverty and education is also stronger in urban areas than in rural areas for both sexes.

In rural areas, 68 percent of the population enrolled for primary school in their villages but only 17.4 percent completed school, that is, completed Grade 1-5. Of the 5,811 people surveyed, only 30 percent went to schools outside their villages, but had to walk more than one hour between home and school.

A mother's education level is closely linked to the health and nutritional status of her pre-school age children, especially in rural areas. Similarly, the parent's education level is the key influence in ensuring that the children go to school, in both rural and urban areas. While in urban areas the family income and age of children influence the decision to send the chil-

dren to school, in rural areas the sex of the children is the most important factor and girls are often disadvantaged in this regard.

With regard to the initiatives in the education sector to improve well being, the education of women plays a key role especially in rural areas. In urban areas, measures to reduce the cost of education, promote enrolment in schools, reduce dropout rates among children nine years or older, reduce school fees and the cost of school supplies (mainly to retain children nine years and older) and the introduction of school snacks, are seen as more important.

When analysing the determinant factors of consumption and poverty in rural areas, the survey revealed a positive relationship between adult education and the consumption per capita, with higher figures in the south and decreasing towards the north of Mozambique. The literacy levels of women have a larger impact in consumption per capita, with a literacy co-efficient three times higher than that of men in the South and two times higher in the centre.

Another important aspect noted is the positive effect that some level of education has on consumption per capita, when for instance, at least one member of the household has the second level (EP2) or more of primary education. From the analysis carried out on the urban area patterns, there are no significant differences between adult education and consumption per capita, but it is significant in terms of women's literacy levels and the level of AF members.³⁰

Other studies on the link between education and well being indicate that about 44 percent of the heads of households who subsist on agriculture are illiterate and only 0.6 percent of the household members from small and medium agricultural units received some formal training in agriculture.³¹ On the other hand, women's access to credit in rural areas is higher for the ones who went to school for longer. For exam-

A mother's education level is closely linked to the health and nutritional status of her children.

Nutrition and social welfare are key factors for the education sector because of the direct link between nutrition and school performance.

ple, 38 percent of women with semi-formal credit went to school, while 29 percent speak and read Portuguese compared to 32 percent of women without credit who went to school and 18 percent who know how to read and write.³²

Programmes for girls' education

As discussed earlier, the government of Mozambique developed an Education Strategic Plan, emphasising girls' education. Between 1997 and 2003, for example, the Action Plan for Integration of a Gender Perspective in the Education Strategic Plan provided the impetus for accelerating gender equality in education. Within the ministry of education, there are two working groups focusing on access to and the quality of education, and special attention is given to issues and challenges that compromise girls' education.³³

In terms of ongoing initiatives, the "education of the girls" project is an important one. The project aims to increase girls' enrolment and retention and to support girls in school in order to improve their pedagogic performance. This project, which has been running since 1994 with funding from UNICEF, has expanded to almost all provinces.

With the input of other programmes and NGOs, the "education for girls project" includes modules of non-formal education, including the creation of circles of interest for practical activities such as sewing, pottery and ploughing. The project provides literacy programmes for girls who dropped out of school due to early pregnancy and other adult women. The plan is to give scholarships to enable such girls to continue studying at the secondary school level. The project also has open sessions on sensitisation to educate parents on the need to reduce the number of female dropouts.

The results of the project can be evidenced by the marked improvement of girls' enrolment and reten-

tion in schools. There is a higher acceptance, involvement and empowerment of community leaders, teachers, parents and educators to improve regular school attendance and the academic performance of girls. Targets for enrolment of girls and for female teachers in schools are defined (currently the ratio of female-male teachers is very low). For example, Maputo targets to reach 70 percent of women as directors of schools. In Cabo Delgado and Nampula provinces, initiation ceremonies and traditional rituals are expected to take place only during school holidays.³⁴

Nutrition and welfare in schools

Nutrition and social welfare are considered by MINED as key factors for the education sector because of the direct link between nutrition and school performance. Thus government has introduced measures to improve food security in boarding schools and in those parts of the country that are most affected by hunger. The school snack programme, which aims to increase the retention of children, especially girls, in schools is one such measure which has been supported by the United Nations World Food Programme (WFP) through the supply of food to boarding schools. In its programme for Mozambique for 2002-2006, WFP defined education and training as key sectors to focus its main development activities, which will strongly contribute to the investment of human capital in the country, through support to Strategic Plan of Education (PEE) and to the poor households.

The "food for school" programme, which is one of the three basic activities of WFP, is complemented by construction of community schools, training and capacity building of staff for the efficient management of boarding schools. WFP guarantees the supply of food and non-foodstuffs to the following:

- ▣ boarding schools in the country, with three meals per day for students and staff;
- ▣ daytime primary schools, where the meals are prepared and distributed to the children once every morning shift (two meals per day for children who sleep in school during the week because their homes are too far from school);
- ▣ monthly rations given to girls and orphans in the schools, with a snack to take home;
- ▣ monthly rations given to children from schools located in zones of food and nutrition insecurity, high prevalence of HIV and AIDS, or that do not have a school snack.

This programme started in four provinces in July 2004 and, through the School Feeding Activities, the WFP provides food to 328,520 beneficiaries in ten provinces.³⁵ MINED, which manages the WFP programme, is supported by international agencies, NGOs, district and community authorities and directors, parents and teachers associations of the schools involved. It was calculated to have distributed foodstuffs to 269,000 people per month in 2003. This included 124,000 benefiting from school snacks; 41,000 benefiting in boarding schools; 18,000 girls and 24,000 orphans in schools with a school snack programme, as well as 62,000 children from schools without a school snack programme and located in the most vulnerable districts in terms of food and nutrition security³⁶

Literacy and adult education

Currently, there are 2,371 literacy centres (first and second years) for adult education in 133 of 148 districts in Mozambique, including municipalities and capital cities. Compared to the year 2002, the total number of literacy and adult education teachers increased in 2003 by 57 and 20 percent respectively, with Nampula and Zambézia with more literacy and adult education centres,

and more literacy and adult education teachers. The territorial coverage of Zambézia is only 41 percent, compared to other provinces.

In 2003, the national average literacy rate for women was 58 percent and 48 percent in adult education. Annual statistical data show that women are the main beneficiaries of literacy programmes in all provinces. In adult education, women represent between 53-83 percent of the total number of teachers in six provinces.

Although more women attend the literacy and adult education centres, the illiteracy rate continues to be high among women. The total rate in 2002/03 was 53.6 percent. The northern provinces had higher rates, between 61-64 percent, and the southern provinces lower rates of between 28.6 percent and 45 percent. Maputo city had the lowest illiteracy rate for women in the whole country (22 percent). The adult illiteracy rate was 52.8 percent, in 2004 with differences between rural and urban areas. The illiteracy rate among women however, has decreased over time, from 71.2 percent in 2000 to 66.2 percent in 2004, see Table 7.

Primary and secondary education

According to official statistics, about 60 percent of children of school-going age are in primary school, eight percent in secondary school and only 0.2 percent in higher education.³⁷ From the performance analysis done during the review of Phase 1 of PEE (1999 to 2003), it was noted that the enrolment rates of girls variably increased in all the provinces.

The participation of girls is still low, and the national average is 45 percent in primary education of First Level (EP1); 40 percent in Second Level (EP2); 41 percent in First Cycle of Secondary Education (ES1); and 38 in Second Cycle (ES2). Compared to 2002, the ratio was the same in EP1, increased only by 0.5 percent, 0.6 percent and one percent in other levels respectively. The province and city of Maputo had higher figures (up to 55 percent). It

Adult Illiteracy Rate by Gender (2000-2004) Table 7

Gender	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Female	71.2	69.9	68.7	68	66.2
Male	40.2	40.2	37.6	36.7	34.4
Total	55.7	55.6	53.2	52.3	50.3

SOURCE INE 2000 and 2004

was noted that in the provinces of Nampula, Tete, Gaza, and Maputo city, the ratio of girls increased in the General Secondary Schools (ESG2) compared to the previous level.

The participation of girls in schools in general is still of concern, taking into account the MDGs target set to eliminate the gender disparities in primary and secondary schools by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.³⁸

The number of female teachers increased by four percent between 1997 and 2005, from 23.5 to 28.7 percent and most of them are in the south. In EP1, the ratio of women teachers to men increased slightly, while it decreased in ES between 1999 and 2001. The number of girls quitting school is higher especially in the initial Grade of EP1 and the results of the girls' exams, especially in Grades 7 and 10, are lower than that for boys.

In literacy and adult education, efforts have been made to increase opportunities to access basic education for the young and adult population with particular emphasis on women and girls. The idea is to reduce illiteracy rates to at least 30 percent by the year 2015. The successes of improving education include the training of 1,310 women from 3,642 teachers through a long distance education course offered by IAP (1996-2002) and attended by 526 women out of 2,100 teachers in 2002.

An evaluation by the Ministry of Education of the implementation of PEE by gender and province in the period 1997-2003 indicates that in general there have been improvements in the national rates and in girls' rates in particular.

School performance rate

Indicators of the performance rates of students who successfully finished the last grades³⁹ show that there was an increase from 54 to 75 percent in EP1; 37 to 60 percent in EP2 and 33 to 55 percent in ES1. The percentage of girls in primary school (EP1 and EP2) in 2002 was

44.6 percent, and the targets for 2004, 2005 and 2006 are 45.6, 46.1 and 46.7 percent, respectively. The targets for 2004 and 2005 were not reached; the actual figures were 43.3 and 43.5 percent, respectively. In Grade 5, the national average of school performance rose from 60 percent in 1995 to 67.5 percent in 2002, in all provinces. The same trend was observed in the girls' performance rate, which rose from 59 to 66.8 percent. This rate does not show differences from the national average except in the provinces of Zambézia (55.2) and Niassa (59.4).

The performance rate for Grade 7 was 61 percent in 2002, of which 57 percent were girls. Though the target was achieved, the difference in performance between girls and boys is evident in this grade.

The lowest performance was observed in Grade 10. However, the trend for school performance at this level is positive, with a national average of 53.8 percent in 2002, an average that is higher than in 2001. The same trend was noted in relation to the girls' performance, even though this is lower than for boys. In 2002, about half of the provinces had performance figures below the national average, including the ones below 50 percent, such as Gaza (44.3) and Manica (47.5). As in the lower levels, the performance of girls in Grade 10 is lower than the boys in the same provinces, below the national average.⁴⁰

Gross School Attendance

The gross rate of schooling⁴¹ in EP1 rose from 92.1 percent in (2000) to 121.2 in (2004). Meanwhile, there still remains a gap between girls and boys in school attendance. In 2004, the school attendance rate for girls, in EP1 was 102.4 percent against 122.7 percent for boys in the same level.

The increase of this rate is the result of the expansion of school access opportunities, through construction of new educational spaces and inclusion of more teachers in the education system.

Evolution of Gross School Attendance in EP1, by Gender Public and Private Education

Year	Female	Male	FM
2000	79.7	104.5	92.1
2001	88.9	113.6	101.3
2002	95.1	117.8	106.5
2003	102.4	122.9	112.7
2004	111.8	130.5	121.2

Source: INE/MINED, 2004

In EP2 the gross school attendance rate is rising, but it is less than the EP1 rate. It can be attributable to dropouts in this level and lack of schools for this level in rural areas. Sometimes people have to emigrate to find an EP2 level school, and it is expensive for poor households. In 2000 the gross school attendance rate for EP2 was 25.3 and rose to 47 in 2004. An analysis from a gender perspective shows that there is a gap between boys and girls. In 2004 the gross school attendance rate was 38.5 percent, against 55.5 percent for boys, which shows a gender disparity.

Ratio of female enrolment

The enrolment indicator and girls' retention in primary and secondary schools⁴² at EP1 level shows a successive increase of girls enrolment as a result of the expansion of the school network mainly at rural area level and the resultant reduction of the distance between home and school.

The 2005 national average ratio for girls in EP1 was 46.3 percent and increased by 0.4 percent compared to the previous year (2004) and 3 percent in the 2000 school year. This increase in the participation of girls is strongly influenced by the enrolments in the four southern provinces whose ratios were between 46 and 52 percent. Except for Tete (45.1 percent), the remaining provinces were below the national average.

At EP2 level, the ratio of girls' enrolment, in the past six years, has ranged between 39 and 40.5 percent. In 2003, the index of 40 percent was influenced by the southern provinces average that is above the national average, with percentages between 46 and 51.8 percent. Seven provinces are below this average, with attendance rates between 30 and 37 percent.

Just as at EP2 level, at the ES1 level, the national average ratio of 40.3 percent in 2003 has been stable for the past six years. This average is strongly influenced by the southern provinces, where girls' enrolment

varies between 43.2 and 54.6 percent. The remaining provinces continue to have indexes below the national average.

The national average of girls' participation at EP2 and ES1 levels has been stable in the past seven years, since these education levels have been extended to rural areas where girls' participation is low. This participation in the rural areas is not only influenced by the lack of a school network, but also by girls quitting school.

Retention of girls

An analysis of the girls' retention indicator in primary and secondary education⁴³ at EP1 level shows that except for the 2001 school year, the average rates have been increasing substantially. The probability of attending Grade 5 was 405/1000 in 1997/98 and increased to 408/1000 in 2002/03. The rates for girls' retention were low compared to the national average, meaning that boys have a higher probability of continuing their studies to the next grades. Despite the generally positive retention rates, there are still high rates of repetition. This situation lowers the chance of open spaces for new students in schools and delays the completion of the education level/grade that the student is attending.

In EP2, the rates of retention since 1997/98 have been increasing systematically. The probability of children attending Grade 7 went from 727/1000 to 830/1000 and there was almost the same increment for girls. In ES1, the retention rates increased by the same ratio as in EP2, with a small decrease margin in the 2001/02 school year. Thus, the probability of a student attending Grade 10 went up from 627/1000 in 1997/1998 to 779/1000 in 2002/03. The retention of girls improved significantly compared to the base school year, although it still indicates noticeable differences compared to the national average. This means that boys have a higher probability of surviving at that level.

Evolution of Gross School Table 9 Attendance in EP2, by Gender Public and Private Education

Year	Female	Male	FM
2000	20.1	30.5	25.3
2001	23	35.5	29.3
2002	25.9	39.9	32.9
2003	29.6	44.4	37
2004	34.8	50.7	42.8
2005	38.5	55.5	47

SOURCE INE/MINED, 2005

Evolution of the Ratio Table 10 of Girls in Public Schools, 2000 -2005 (%)

Level	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
EP1	43.3	44	44.6	45.3	45.9	46.3
EP2	39.4	39.3	39.4	40	40.7	40.8
ES1	40.1	40.2	40.3	40.3	40.1	41.3

SOURCE Mozambique, MEC, EDUCSTAT 2005

A comparison of the results obtained by level of education indicates that the retention in EP1 is lower than the next levels of education and the same applies to ES1 in relation to ES2. This comparison indicates that the lower the level in terms of years of school, the higher the probability of students surviving in the education system. However, at all levels, there are still high rates of repetition, a constraint on the education system.⁴⁴

Teacher ratios

The national ratio of female to male teachers has increased, from 25.7 percent in 2000 to 28.7 percent in 2005. The same trend is noted in all provinces, although with differences. The City of Maputo with 62 percent and Maputo province with 50.2 percent are the only ones where the presence of female teachers is significant. Some provinces have lower ratios; Gaza (48.7 percent) and Inhambane (40.3 percent). In other provinces the ratios were below the national average, especially for Cabo Delgado (11.7 percent) and Zambézia (16.6 percent) with indices quite below the national average.

The main causes of the low numbers of female teachers include the lower school attendance by girls compared to boys, which affects their potential for professional training, the lack of conducive conditions for the teachers, lack of role models for girls, lack of incentives in the teaching profession and the criteria of recruiting and placement of female teachers.⁴⁵

Dropout rates

Data indicates that there are no significant differences between boys and girls in dropout rates in the primary education system. However, at the secondary level the girls' dropout rates are higher than that for boys.⁴⁶ Girls dropout more due to poverty in their AF, household chores, premar-

ture marriage and unwanted pregnancy. Other factors include long distances between home and school, limited numbers of available places in EP2, parents' lack of confidence in the school system because of the prevalence of male teachers, sexual abuse and harassment and the negative perceptions about girls' achievement in school.

Higher education

A 2000-2010 strategic plan for higher education in Mozambique was drafted in 2000. It was designed to extend and harmonise the opportunities of access to higher education with the job market and society's needs, improve the quality of education and research, promote social, regional and gender equity, respond to social and cultural needs as well as changes in the market economy, and guarantee sustainability and support competitiveness.⁴⁷ The Ministry for Higher Education, Science and Technology was created to promote the reform of higher education, development of policies and the strategic plan for higher education for the period 2000-2010.

Apart from the development of the existing higher education institutions, both private and public, new schools and higher institutions have been built, allowing greater access at this level of education. However, the greatest constraint is the limited number of open spaces in public institutions to cater for the increasing number of candidates. The public institutions' courses are in high demand due to the fee structures that are comparatively lower than the private institutions.

The ratio of women enrolled at higher education level is lower than at lower levels in the system, with a decrease in 2001-2002 compared to the previous year. The School for Higher Education for the Police (ACIPOL) has the lowest index (12-15 percent), and ISPU has the highest index (53.3) percent. The national ratio of women enrolled at higher education level was 32.7 percent in 2004.

Evolution of the Ratio of Female Teachers in EP1, Public Schools, 2000 - 2005 Table 11

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
National average	25.7	26.7	27.5	29	27.9	28.7

SOURCE Mozambique, MEC-EDUCSTAT 2005

Percentage of Dropouts Rates in Primary and Secondary Schools, Per Year and Gender, 2000-2003 Table 12

Level	Population	2000 %	2001 %	2002 %	2003 %
Primary school	Female	6.8	6.9	8.6	8.2
	Male	7.1	7.3	8.5	8.3
	Total	6.9	7.1	8.6	8.3
Secondary school	Female	3.3	8.9	6.3	9.6
	Male	0.9	5.3	4.1	6.1
	Total	2.1	7.1	5.2	7.9

SOURCE Mozambique, MINED, 2003

Enrolment in High Level Education by Gender Table 13

Enrolment in the Higher Level Education - Public Institutions 2000-2004										
Institutions	2000/01		2001/02		2002/03		2003/04		2004	
	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total
UEM	1 918	7 406	1 797	7 094	1 969	8 046	1 867	7 349	2 446	9 683
UP	605	2 225	724	2 136	751	3 072	751	3 072	816	3 634
ISRI	86	287	77	251	90	307	142	520	159	517
ACIPOL	10	124	20	163	35	230	45	294	57	356
E.Náutica									24	165
Sub Total 1	2 619	10 042	2 618	9 644	2 845	11 655	2 805	11 235	3 502	14 355
Enrolment in the Private Higher Level Education Institutions 2002-2003										
ISCTEM	403	791	575	1 030	516	999	672	1 327	798	1 533
ISPU	776	1 429	995	1 798	995	1 798	1 083	1 992	1 147	2 150
ISUTC	15	79	31	139	47	191	54	230	82	326
UCM	483	1 199	576	1 402	730	2 301	721	1 875	863	2 128
UMBB	5	52	40	156	112	453	130	386	357	563
UDM							73	180	368	683
Sub Total 2	1 682	3 550	2 217	4 525	2 400	5 742	2 733	5 990	3 615	7 383
Total	4 301	13 592	4 835	14 169	5 245	17 397	5 538	17 225	7 117	21 738

SOURCE Mozambique, MPF-PES, 2005

The percentage of women graduating from higher education institutions in 2002 ranged between 31 to 33 percent at the University of Eduardo Mondlane (UEM) and in the Pedagogic University (UP), reaching 53 and 56 percent at the Higher Institute of International Relations (ISRI) and at ISPU, respectively.

The number of graduates from UEM in 2003 was 65 Bachelors, 566 *Licenciados* and five Masters degrees, of which 40, 28 and 60 percent respectively are women. It can be observed that the percentage of women in the group of *licenciados* is very low and lower than the previous year.

In 2004, the percentage of women graduating ranged between 27.78 to 53.12 percent in public and private Universities, respectively. Women still seem to dominate the so-called "women's courses", such as those in the social sciences. In 2004 only 13.6 percent female students graduated in engineering, industry and construction, in public institutions. In the same year for private institutions there was no female graduate in these disciplines; in long term, therefore, we will continue to have under representation of women in these professions.

Students Graduated, by Gender and Area of Study in 2004 Table 14

University Area of Study	Students			
	Female	Male	Total	% Female
Public				
Education	31	120	151	20.53
Arts and Humanities	144	312	456	31.58
Social Sciences, Management, Law	197	525	722	27.29
Natural Science	81	245	326	24.85
Engineering, Industry and Construction	14	89	103	13.59
Agriculture	41	76	117	35.04
Health and Welfare	45	19	64	70.31
Services	6	67	73	8.22
Sub-total	559	1453	2012	27.78
Private				
Education	24	33	57	42.11
Arts and Humanities	22	23	45	48.89
Social Sciences, Management, Law	383	310	693	55.27
Natural Science	6	4	10	60.00
Engineering, Industry and Construction	...	2	2	0.00
Agriculture	12	31	43	27.91
Health and Welfare	13	3	16	81.25
Services
Sub-total	460	406	866	53.12
Total	1019	1859	2878	35.41

SOURCE INE, Annual Statistic, 2004

In the higher education institutions, the ratio of female to male teachers has been low in the past three years (13-38 percent in 2001/2002), with an increase noted only at the Higher Institute of Transport and Communication (ISUTC) and Catholic University of Mozambique (UCM) from 2001 to 2002. Statistics from MESCT

*“Women who wear
the pants in
the house.”*

(2004) reveal that more women enrol in courses related to social sciences, management and law.

Higher Institute of Sciences and Technologies (ISCTEM)

The Higher Institute of Sciences and Technologies (ISCTEM) has plans for a two-year programme that assures the development of theoretical and methodological knowledge, fundamental capacities of training in social sciences, followed by two years of training directed to the *licenciatura*.⁴⁸ Within ISCTEM's perspective, the students enrolled in the first year (common branch) have to choose in the second school semester which *licenciatura* field they want to pursue. The common branch includes basic subjects of the social sciences. However, only in the third year will the students pursue their chosen subject of specialisation. Some of the special subjects that are branches of the common branch include social communication, public management and administration and social politics and sociology.

With this course, ISCTEM hopes that the *Licenciado* in Social Communication is ready to get qualified jobs in the related professional fields –linked to information, publicity, marketing and organisational communication.

On the other hand, the Institute for Higher Education and Polytechnic (ISPU) – another higher education institution, has a specific course called Communication Sciences, where social communication is a priority subject. Ten students interviewed said that this course was their first choice.

Interesting to note is that some classes have more women than men. For example, the third-year class has nine women and seven men. Most of the students are already professionals in that field. Some of the female students mentioned that their interest in doing the higher education course is linked to improving their conditions at work, namely their salaries and professional category.

GENDER AND THE MEDIA Images of women in the media

All research studies done to date on women in the media show that images full of stereotypes, where women are always playing traditional roles (spouse, housewife and mother), dominate the media. According to the *Gender and Media Baseline Study* (GMBS) research (*Estudo de Base sobre Género e Mídias em Moçambique*)⁴⁹ carried out by MISA⁵⁰ and GL,⁵¹ women in the media are often identified by their private identities as compared to men. The research revealed that in Mozambique, women are more frequently identified as spouses, daughters and mothers compared to men, and that seven percent of women interviewed in the sample were identified by their family relationships compared to only three percent of men.

During a workshop on gender and the media, organized in Sofala by Fórum Mulher in 2003,⁵² participants shared that besides this portrayal of women as housewives, the media also showed negative images of women as victims or as sex objects for commercial purposes. This situation becomes more critical in male dominated societies where the “world” is predominantly interpreted from a male point of view and where women are placed as inferior and subordinate to men. Women are viewed as having roles and responsibilities related to reproduction and family care within the household, while men always appear as the heads, the thinkers and superior.

This portrayal stereotypes women who work in the public sector, mainly in the economic and politic fields, as “space invaders”, invading a space that does not belong to them, and that they are playing a role not very proper for them. Such women are often called names such as “Iron lady” and “Women who wear the pants in the house.”

The media need to seriously consider the division of labour in the newsrooms; who writes the news, what sources are consulted, in which columns, on what pages or radio and television stations are they written or broadcast, and who decides on their edition or publication. Research done so far indicates that there are very few female journalists, chief editors and/or editors in the media in Mozambique, and this is a cause for concern.

Since Beijing in 1995, both the Mozambican Government and civil society committed to institute measures to improve the portrayal and the situation of women in the media. As a response to the BPFA recommendations, the following activities have been and are being carried out by government and civil society organisations and institutions in this regard. Since 1994, Fórum Mulher, SNJ⁵³ and NSJ⁵⁴ have run gender courses for media professionals. However, in order to realise the goals, there is need to identify more concrete strategies that link policies (at government and civil society level) and practice (at media level).

Several lobbying and advocacy initiatives are being carried out in the country by civil society organisations towards balanced gender relations and the recognition and value of women's work. However, the media continue to frustrate these efforts through the distorted images and negative portrayal of women. A good example is the media coverage of the then proposed Family Law, as it was tabled in parliament. Some of the media headlines included: "Family Law: is the marriage revolution arriving?" "Proposal on Family Law divides men and women" and an analysis of the reports showed language full of stereotypes and distorted information, ignoring the objectives, positive aspects, and advantages of the proposed law. Another example is the media coverage of the launch of the "All Against Violence" campaign where the media conveyed the idea that

women were going to be giving orders to men, including subjecting them to physical violence.

The stereotypical images of women in the media are not just the result of male, macho and sexist attitudes, but also because there are a few women practitioners in the media. However, it is not enough to just increase the number of women in the media without building their capacity and training both women and men in the media in gender. According to some media professionals, women in decision-making positions in the media often assume macho behaviour to get accepted by their male colleagues.

There are several reasons for the low numbers of female media professionals, and these include the fact that:

- ▣ Journalism is considered a liberal and independent profession and thus, appropriate for men;
- ▣ It is a profession very much exposed to the public and therefore not fit for women;
- ▣ It is a profession with flexible timetables and work is done any hour of the day, even early morning and late evening;
- ▣ It is a profession that often requires travelling (makes family responsibilities hard when the family does not offer support) and, many times in the company of men, and thus is a reason for spouses to suspect infidelity.

Several studies reveal that most of the women working in the media do jobs like secretarial and office work. Very few women reporters have the same opportunities as men and their supervisors often give them tasks generally linked to the "soft" social field and hardly any "hard" political or economic fields.

Women are often assigned reports on health and education and when they are responsible for a page or programme, they generally do it in specific spaces that cover women's issues, such as "Página da Mulher" (Women's

*“Is the marriage
revolution
arriving?”*

Page) of the “Not cias” newspaper, “Quadrante da Mulher” (Women’s Corner) from Radio Mozambique, “De Mulher para Mulher” (Women to Women”) from Radio and Television Mira Mar and “Magazine da Mulher” (Women’s Magazine) from Television of Mozambique.

Women in the media are generally paid less than their male colleagues. Some journalists with more than 20 years of media experience intimated that salaries and professional rankings are discriminatory and that this is more to do with the higher number of opportunities given to men to do big reports on politics and economics giving them more access to scholarships and other related benefits. According to the MISA and GL study, in 2003 in southern Africa, Mozambique was one of the countries with a low proportion of women in the media.

Women entry into media career

Civil society organisations, government and donor organisations are undertaking projects to increase the number of women in the media. For example, the Women and Development (MED) project implemented in the last years of the 90s decade trained 30 women from different provinces. The objective was to integrate more women in the media. The project had very positive results; some of the women trained during this project are doing media jobs in state and community radio stations in the different provinces of the country.

Admission through journalism school

In Mozambique, there is only one school of journalism offering a three-year course. The school is located in the capital Maputo, and available information shows that the choice to enrol for journalism is therefore limited for many, including women. The enrolment rates of women at such institutions as the Institute of Social Communication (ICS) which has done work in the

area of communication and owns 20 community radios operating in different regions of the country, is still low, at only 26.3 percent as illustrated in Table 15.

Some take up journalism to occupy themselves whilst they wait to enter the higher education system. Of the 10 students interviewed in the School of Journalism, eight said that this course was their second or third option. They had taken it up because:

- They did not manage to attend their desired course;
- They did not get a place in other schools to proceed with their studies at higher education level and study journalism as a past time while they wait for that opportunity to proceed to higher education; and /or
- They just wanted a profession to guarantee a job.

It is important to mention that although they may successfully complete their course in journalism, there is no guarantee that they will get into the job market.

Who has a voice in the media?

The BDPFA commits to increasing women’s participation in expression and decision-making through social communication; to give women voice – and this is far from being achieved in Mozambique. For example, according to MISA and GL research, in Mozambique women constitute only 15 percent of sources of news compared to 85 percent men. The question becomes who is speaking on behalf of women and why? This is important because women and men have different needs and interests. Thus, women’s needs are not being fully represented in the media due to this lack of their own voices as sources of news; moreover, most of the news on gender issues is produced by men (59 percent). In addition, 71 percent of the voices on issues of gender violence are of men, with women constituting only 29 percent of the interviewed sources.

Data on the Attendance in ICS by Gender, 2005 Table 15

Province	Men	Women	Total
Maputo	11	8	19
Gaza	33	4	37
Inhambane	28	4	32
Sofala	16	2	18
Manica	8	10	18
Zambézia	13	10	23
Tete	10	6	16
Nampula	11	6	17
Niassa	20	8	28
Cabo Delgado	15	2	17
Headquarters	14	4	18
Total	179	64 (26.3)	243

SOURCE ICS, 2006

Age and the rural-urban factors are also key to media coverage patterns, according to the MISA and GL study. People in rural areas, the majority of whom are women, have limited access to the media compared to people in urban areas. When consulted to explain details of a very problematic situation they rarely express their opinions in relation to the problem's solution.⁵⁵ In relation to age, children, youth and the elderly (above 65 years old) are considered passive in giving opinions or as sources of information in Mozambique and in most of the southern African countries.

Women in the electronic media

Women's participation in electronic media is only three percent of the consulted sources in the category 20-34 year-old, compared to nine percent of men consulted, in the same age category. In the 35-49 year-old category, women were consulted nine percent of the time and men 31 percent while zero percent of women from 65 years old onwards compared to two percent of men were consulted.⁵⁶ This is because women generally do not have access to information and communication technology.

In Mozambique, specifically in the city of Maputo, a capacity-building initiative for women is in progress, focusing on women in the rural areas. The initiative builds their capacity on the use of new information technologies. The Computer Centre in the Eduardo Mondlane University (CIUEM), the Ministry of Education and Fórum Mulher are some of the organisations involved in this process, through the "Acacia Project", which has already trained 50 women. The second phase of the project started in 2005, but there are already signs of positive results as illustrated.

This figure illustrates the results of implementation of phase I The Council of Ministers in Mozambique approved the ICT Policy, which provides for the integration of a gender perspective in

Use of Electronic Media in Manhica and Namaacha Districts, by Gender in 2002

Table 16

Sex	Age Group				TOTAL %	
	Up to 16 years	17 – 25 years	17 – 25 years	Above 40 years		
Men	9	48	24	11	92	74
Women	3	21	6	2	32	26

SOURCE: Gaster, Polly et al, 2003, The Use of ICT by Women in Manhica and Namaacha districts, Maputo, CIUEM

the new information technologies as a way to fight poverty, according to the 2002 Implementing Strategy of the Gender Policy. The integration of a gender perspective in this policy is envisaged to increase and improve women's access to information, since one of the main constraints to the development and empowerment of women, especially those in the rural areas, is the lack of information.

Women's TV/radio programmes

Since the media publishes information that generally portrays interests and opinions from a male perspective, women journalists often choose to do programmes for women in order to express their opinions and concerns. In Mozambique, there is a community radio station – Rádio Muthiana – that is managed by the Association of Women in the Media. In the press, some publications have been produced, but these have "disappeared" due to lack of financial stability.

Meanwhile, because it is generally accepted that the woman's place is in the home to carry out household duties, these programmes are often scheduled during off peak hours; during mornings and afternoons they contain themes such as culinary, household chores, fashion and beauty which are stereotypically women's issues.

FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITIONAL STATUS

In Mozambique, over 70 percent of the population live in rural areas and their main economic activity is subsistence agriculture and the sup-

Number of Children Under 3 Years Whose Weight by Age is 2 Standard Deviations of the Average, by Gender, 2000/01 Table 17

	Number	Percentage
Female	434,284	48.8
Male	455,861	51.2
Total	890,145	100

SOURCE QUIBB, 2000/2001

Number of Children Under 3 Years Whose Height by Age is 2 Standard Deviations of the Average, by Gender, 2000/01 Table 18

Number	Percentage
266116,2 (Male)	49.9
267121,4 (Female)	50.1
533 237,6	100

SOURCE QUIBB, 2000/01

Infant Mortality Rate by Gender, 2000-2005 Table 19

Years	Total	Male	Female
2000	130.4	136.9	123.7
2001	125.5	131.7	119.1
2002	120.7	126.5	114.6
2003	115.9	121.4	110.2
2004	111.9	117.3	106.3
2005	107.9	113.2	102.4

SOURCE INE, Updated Projections, 1997-2020

ply of food to other sectors, mainly in urban areas.⁵⁷ The level of technology used is rudimentary, making the work of producing food hard and manual. As such, the health of the rural population deserves special attention.

A big portion of the Mozambican population does not have access to adequate food, both in quantity and quality. Data shows that more than 62 percent of the urban population and 71 percent of the rural population live in absolute poverty and suffer from food shortage for most part of the year. The government report on MDGs which analysed the nutrition status indicated that protein and energy malnutrition, iron-deficiency anaemia, goitre and other iodine deficiency disorders, vitamin A deficiency, and cassava intoxication constitute serious public health problems in the country.⁵⁸

Similarly, data available from 2001 QUIBB indicates 43.8 percent chronic malnutrition and 5.5 percent of acute malnutrition. Malnutrition is the cause of 50 percent of all child deaths. The problems of malnutrition are further aggravated by the high dependence on a few staple foods, which do not offer adequate nutrients. It is thus important to provide information and knowledge to people on the need to diversify their diet. A balanced nutritious diet can also improve health and ability to keep the body under control and to fight against infections and diseases including HIV and AIDS.

There is an urgent need to develop strategies to encourage people to plant vegetables and fruits for their own consumption. Homegrown gardens with vegetables and fruit would provide food security and improve people's diets.

Tables 17 and 18 show the situation of child nutrition, considered an important indicator of the state of health of the population and in evaluating poverty. Two indices are taken into consideration, according to QUIBB 2000-2001:

▣ **Height by Age (A/I)** – indicator that reflects the situation of past malnutrition. Indicates that the child is shorter for its age and thus is chronically undernourished. The index A/I measures the effects of a prolonged malnutrition.

▣ **Weight by Age (P/I)** – shows the relation of weight-age, i.e. whether the child is underweight or not. It is a useful indicator for the monitoring of clinical interventions in case of malnutrition and in nutritional rehabilitation.

The figures presented in Tables 17 and 18 do not show any evidence of acute differences between male and female children in relation to chronic malnutrition. The lack of micronutrients is a serious problem and there is 68.8 percent deficiency of vitamin A in children and 10.9 percent in mothers. In relation to anaemia, there is 74.7 percent prevalence in children and 48.2 percent in mothers. In children less than five years old, the progressive increase of chronic malnutrition with age, suggests that their vulnerability increases with weaning, when they start to eat according to the family habits.

As we can see in table 19, the infant mortality rate is on the decrease. In 2000 the rate was 130.4/1000 live births, and decreased to 107.9/1000 live births in 2005. The reduction of this index is the result of many campaigns to sensitise mothers to take their children to vaccination. The figure shows too, that there are differences between male and female children in relation to death; a male child has a higher probability of dying than a female.

Another study carried out shows that for children between zero to two years old, the most important determinant factor in health was mother's level of acquired education and for children 2-5 years old, was the income and consumption of the household.⁵⁹

A study of women who were not pregnant (15-45 years old) car-

ried out in the province of Tete in May 2003, revealed a high prevalence of acute malnutrition among them; 22.4 percent of women suffer from malnutrition and the average value of IMC decreased from 20.9 to 20.3.⁶⁰ The insufficient growth rate (CI) is one of childrens' nutritional indicators. According to data from SIS/MISAU, the growth rate for 2001 was 8.2 percent, lower than in 1992 (13.2 percent), meaning that there was an improvement in the children's nutritional state, despite the drought in some regions of the country.

GENDER AND HEALTH

Reproductive health

In response to the Cairo Conference that was held in 1994 on population and development, Mozambique made changes in their reproductive health programmes as the Programme of Action endorsed a new strategy that focused on meeting the needs of individual women and men as well as improving the quality of life for everyone. Reproductive health programmes began to have a multi-sectoral approach which include:

- ▢ The strategy on the prevention of HIV vertical transmission;
- ▢ The treatment of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV and AIDS; and
- ▢ Post-partum care.

The services of prevention of vertical transmission in selected areas include counselling and testing pregnant women, prophylactic administration of Nevirapine and other ARV medicines to women in labour and ARVs to women and their partners, as necessary.

The national programme for the reduction of maternal morbidity and mortality, aims to prevent pregnancy and labour problems as well as to solve the complications that come with pregnancies which cause women's death. Labour complications cannot be completely prevented but can be treated and timely dealt with and the community should be equipped with knowledge

to deal with the early signs of labour. Research shows that communities have limited appreciation of the need and urgency of taking pregnant women to the closest health care unit once complications are observed.

Management of reproductive health programmes

A majority of the women in Mozambique experience difficulties in accessing proper reproductive health service. This is partly due to the impact of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, which is exacerbating the already vulnerable situation of women's health, and lack of financial resources from government to support this sector. Although the national reproductive health programme exists, it has not yet benefited all women, especially poor women in the rural areas.

There is a need for the management of reproductive health programmes to assess their effectiveness. The activities of this programme are routinely carried out and monitored through the Health Information System (SIS).

Maternal Component, Evolution in Percentage (2000-20004)

Table 20

Component	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
	Real %	Real %	Real %	Real %	Target %	Real %
Antenatal Care	104.90	105.30	106.60	109.50	99.50	119.00
Hospital Deliveries	39.70	41.20	43.00	45.10	47.00	49.00
Post Partum Care	49.50	50.50	53.80	57.40	54.00	65.00
Family Planning (first visit)	7.00	7.60	15.3	16.70	18.00	15.80
1st Care Children's (0-11 months)	154.2	151.90	148.70	145.30	98.00	163.00
1st Care Children's (0-4 years)	58	48.00	56.1	65.20	-	60.00

SOURCE Mozambique, MPF-PES, 2005

Coverage rate of ante natal care, hospital deliveries, post-partum care

Table 20 above shows that a maximum coverage rate of antenatal care (first visits) reached its maximum achievement in 2004 and has since stabilised. This can be attributed to educational programmes that are in place to raise awareness amongst women of the importance

of visiting health facilities during pregnancy. The coverage of hospital deliveries and Post-partum Care has been increasing slowly, and is more significant in the post-partum visits to clinics.

Estimated national coverage of family planning

The family planning programme has spread to the most remote areas as government is trying to provide more choices to women through access to health services. Some NGOs, such as AMODEFA have developed activities aimed at promoting the practice of sexual and reproductive rights for youth, women and men, through information, education and quality of services rendered in the appropriate places and/or in partnership with the public sector and civil society. AMODEFA identified five priorities in its Action Plan for 2003. These are to:

- ▣ Expand community-based sexual and reproductive health – through the increased use of contraceptive methods in 12 districts in Zambézia, Gaza and Maputo provinces;
- ▣ Promote education on sexual and reproductive health for adolescents and youth and render quality sexual and reproductive health care services – through the distribution of male and female contraceptives as a way of preventing STIs/HIV and AIDS and pregnancy, and offering specialized services in the clinic for AMODEFA youth;
- ▣ Promote activities of Information, Education and Communication (IEC) in sexual and reproductive health – through the production of current manuals for the ones who render care in Reproductive sexual Health (SSR) and IEC support material for other SSR from other organisations;
- ▣ Develop institutional capacity; and
- ▣ Promote activities of prevention and home-based care for people living with HIV and AIDS,

extended to the provinces of Maputo and Gaza. This expansion results from the implementation of the Kuhluvuka project, with funding from USAID, in partnership with the HOPE project.⁶¹

Mother-to-child health programmes

The right to survive through a pregnancy and deliveries is central to the fundamental human right to life. Women may enjoy this right depending on their capacity to exercise three other basic human rights: the right to health care, non-discrimination and reproductive choice.

In Mozambique, according to the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) 2003 the maternal mortality rate (TMM) is 408 per 100,000 live births. The child mortality rate is 124 per 1,000 live births, the mortality rate in children under five years of age is 178 per 1,000 live births and the neonatal mortality is 48 per 1,000 live births. In 1999, the average life expectancy was 41 years, 47.5 years for women and 44.5 years for men. The health life expectancy at birth has generally decreased to about 37.6 years due to the effects of HIV and AIDS.⁶²

The quality of reproductive health care service is crucial in the efforts to reduce maternal mortality and it is an internationally protected human right. Experts on health issues have identified several aspects of health care that contribute to the reduction of maternal mortality, including assuring access to:

- ▣ Pre- and post-natal care;
- ▣ Trained midwives;
- ▣ Emergency obstetric care; and
- ▣ Family planning.

In 1997, the Mother to Child Health Care Programme defined women and children as vulnerable groups, i.e., of high risk to diseases and mortality. These two groups represent 40 percent of the country's total population (17 percent are children between 0-4 years old and 23 percent are women in the

reproductive age), corresponding to about 6,296,000 people.

The Demographic and Health Inquiry (IDS) carried out in 2003 revealed that the Global Fertility rate is 5.5 percent per woman. In relation to contraception, 90.8 percent of women know about modern contraception methods and about 80 percent of all women know about the pill, injections and condoms. The percentage of women whose labour was managed by trained staff was 47 percent, of which 81 percent was in urban areas and 34 percent in rural areas.

According to the report of the joint evaluation of the health sector in 2003, there was evidence of improvement in health care services such as the consistent increase of health indicators; external medical appointments per inhabitant per year, percentage of labour assisted in health institutions, vaccine coverage, the introduction of a new malaria therapy and the improvement in data collection. However, there are no improvements in equity; the indices of inequity in the utilisation of health care services expressed in units of attendance per inhabitant has been dropping at national level and Table 21 illustrates this.

Improvement and utilization of services

According to the Inquiry on Family Assistance (IAF) of 2003, the level of satisfaction with health facilities increased from more than 55 percent in 2001 to about 64 percent in 2003. Other key impact indicators are illustrated in Table 21.

On the other hand, there are still huge differences between rural and urban areas. For example, according to IDS 2003 data, the mortality in children less than five years old is 40 percent higher in rural areas than in urban areas, representing 135 per 1,000 and 95 per 1,000, respectively. The provincial differences are also significant. For example, child mortality rates of 108 per 1,000 have been observed in the province of Maputo and the rates are about two

Key Impact Indicators		Table 21	
Indicator	1997	2003	
Child Mortality rate per 1000 live births	147	124	
Mortality Rate in Children less than 5 years old per 1000 live births	200.9	178	
Neonatal Mortality Rate per 1000 live births	59.3	48	
SOURCE IDS (1997 and 2003)			

times higher in the provinces of Nampula and Cabo Delgado have been observed.

The main causes of child mortality are malaria, respiratory acute infections, diarrhoea, malnutrition and HIV and AIDS. Malaria is the major cause of morbidity and mortality in the country, and is responsible for 40 percent of all outpatient visits, with a lethality rate of 3.9 and 6.2 percent, for children and adults, respectively.⁶³

In response to the high mortality rates of children from zero to five years of age, the Ministry of Health in 1998 adopted the strategy of Integrated Attention to Childhood Diseases (AIDI), a global model of providing primary health care services in countries with child mortality higher than 40 per 1,000 live births. The objective of this strategy is to improve the quality, efficiency and efficacy of health care services, in the family and in the community and reduce the mortality of children less than five years old due to diseases prevalent in developing countries. This approach gives attention not just to prevention but also treatment of diseases, emphasizing immunization, supplementation with vitamin A and improvement of child nutrition (including exclusive breastfeeding).

The AIDI strategy is a global initiative, oriented towards putting into practice the articles of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, concerning the right to health care and attention to health problems in the world's children.

Government responses

The government has started to respond to some of these problems

Constraints in accessing quality health services Box 4

Despite government efforts, public health facilities are still very few and are located very far apart in Mozambique. More than 70 percent of the population, and about 75 percent of those in the rural areas travel more than an hour to get to the nearest health unit, according to QUIBB 2001. Approximately 95 percent of the 1,134 health centres in the country only offer primary health care. Most of these facilities have no capacity to offer adequate obstetric services to difficult births; less than 50 percent deal with ante-natal and family planning services and only 20 percent of the facilities offer treatment for sexual transmitted infections and syphilis (UNFPA: 2002).

SOURCE Extracts from the Beijing +10 report, summarized version.

and some policies and services have been developed which aim to address the gaps and challenges in the life cycle. These include:

- ▣ Reproductive and sexual health strategies and policies for youth;
- ▣ An HIV and AIDS strategic plan;
- ▣ A strategy for reduction of maternal deaths;
- ▣ Teenager and youth-friendly health services; and
- ▣ HIV voluntary counselling and testing centres.

Despite these efforts, the Beijing +10 report identified a number of problems that the health sector still faces.

Gendered impact of HIV and AIDS

HIV and AIDS continue to be the greatest health and development challenges in Mozambique. They have become real threats to economic development. A World Bank report in 2002 projected that the 12.4 million economically active people envisaged in 2010 will instead be reduced to 10.8 million consisting mostly of old or young workers.⁶⁴ This will significantly impact on Mozambique's plans to address poverty reduction and human development.

Some of the causes of the high incidence of HIV and AIDS include widespread poverty and malnutrition, limited access to safe water, inadequate hygiene standards and risky lifestyles.⁶⁵ Studies have also shown, however, that women's biological make up and inequality in gender relations, particularly their subordinate status, exacerbates the problem. Thus HIV and AIDS have had a more serious impact in the most vulnerable groups, including the poor, women and children.

The prevalence rate has increased drastically over the years and currently over 57 percent of people living with HIV are women.⁶⁶ The national HIV prevalence rate among the adult population (15-49 years old) in 1998 was estimated at 8.2 percent and had risen to 13.6 percent in 2002, and estimated at 16.2

percent in 2004.⁶⁷ It is higher in the Central (20.4 percent) and South (18.1 percent) regions compared to the northern region (9.3 percent).

In 2003 there were 1.5 million Mozambicans living with HIV and the majority, as pointed out earlier, were women (58 percent). Among those infected 5.8 percent are children under five years of age.⁶⁸ The gender difference is higher among the age group 15-19 years and 20-24 years, where prevalence among women is three times higher than men.

These high prevalence rates in some regions and provinces are linked to cross-boundary movement due to migratory work, commerce, movement of long distance truck drivers along the development corridors and poverty. The country's strategy in relation to HIV and AIDS includes the creation of an integrated network, incorporating the Centres for Volunteer Counselling and Testing (GATV), home care, prevention of vertical transmission (PTCT) and anti-retroviral treatment.

There are 500 new HIV infections occurring daily, and life expectancy in 2010 is expected to drop from 50.3 to 36.5 years, if strategic intervention does not occur to reverse the trend.⁶⁹ If the trend continues, it is projected that 1.9 million will be infected, and the death toll from AIDS will reach 167,000, including 19,000 children under 15 years of age.

The vertical transmission of AIDS (parent-to-child transmission) poses a threat to the survival of children, due to the high number of children infected this way. A 2002 UNAIDS report indicated that 30 to 40 percent of children born of HIV positive parents will become infected with HIV.⁷⁰ According to information from health guard posts, of the 1.2 million infected with HIV in 2002, 70,000 were children and 670,000 women. It is also estimated that in 2003, 1.5 million Mozambicans of all ages were living with HIV/AIDS, of whom around six

percent were children infected through vertical transmission (parent-to-child transmission).⁷¹

There is an increase in illness and death among young adults, and amongst these, girls are the most physically vulnerable to HIV and AIDS, especially girls younger than 19 years old. Practices such as premature sexual initiation, pregnancy in adolescence and the existence of male sexual violence in general, puts young women at higher risk of HIV infection at an age that they are physically more vulnerable to lesions and sexually transmitted diseases. It has been noted that women and girls' ability to negotiate safer sex is minimal, if not absent.

Policy, planning and legal framework for health and HIV and AIDS
HIV and AIDS initially did not have much prominence on the health, economic or human development agenda, as it was competing with equally deadly communicable diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis, diarrhoea, and tuberculosis. Other socio economic and political conditions affected priority setting.

Mozambique emerged from a devastating 16-year civil war in 1992, and embarked on an extensive reconstruction exercise to regain some of the post-independence successes scored in areas such as education and health, which were substantially destroyed during the civil war.

The Mozambican government's focus on rebuilding the health network juxtaposed raising awareness of the existence of deadly diseases, with addressing primary health care needs, including developing a series of initiatives aimed at mother-and-child health for example, addressing prenatal care and vaccination campaigns, amongst other initiatives.

Initially there was inadequate knowledge on the transmission of HIV and subsequent illness from AIDS, including its prevention and treatment. Additionally, for some time the disease was associated with homosexuality, considered socially

non-existent in Mozambique as elsewhere in most of Africa.

Until the late 90s, HIV and AIDS were regarded as a health issue, and not a broader development challenge. Earlier in 1988 a National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) was established within the Ministry of Health (MISAU).⁷² The following year (1999) saw the finalisation of the National Strategic Plan (PEN I), which laid emphasis on a multisectoral approach as an effective response to the challenge of HIV and AIDS. Implementation of the plan began in 2000. The approval of PEN I, by the Council of Ministers, led to the creation of the National AIDS Council (NAC), which is chaired by the Prime Minister, Luisa Diogo.

Meanwhile, the PEN I ended in 2002, and now there is the National Strategic Plan II, (2005-2009), which aims to support the continuity of the planning cycle⁷³. The plan (PEN II), prioritises the following areas: prevention, advocacy, stigma and discrimination, treatment, mitigation, research and investigation and coordination of the national response.⁷⁴

The NACP gained prominence and now it has a multifaceted focus. It aims at providing essential preventive services targeted at the youth, particularly girls, individuals with a high mobility and sex workers. The essential services are also aimed at reducing the impact of HIV and AIDS, such as orphans and people living with AIDS and the improvement of the quality of programmes for educating the youth, diagnosis of sexually transmitted infections as well as treatment of opportunistic infections.⁷⁵

The NACP, which plays the lead role in the national health response to HIV and AIDS, also has the responsibility to guide development and training in this regard. These include developing new protocols related to malaria, tuberculosis and HIV, improving home-based care, as well as co-ordinating collection and analysis of data on prevalence rates and improved approaches in doing the exercise. The NACP also sup-

Focus on rebuilding the health networks includes raising awareness.

*HIV and AIDS
is a
multi-sectoral
challenge.*

ports the HIV and AIDS information hotline managed by the Mozambique Network of AIDS Service Organisations (MONASO).

The NACP is currently co-ordinated by the National Aids Council (NAC), which was established in 2000 by Decree 10/2000 of the Council of Ministers. It is responsible for managing and being a catalyst in implementing the strategy to fight HIV and AIDS. It also plays a central role in the policy-making process. Institutionally, the NAC has a board and executive secretariat comprising a cross-section of ministries including health, education and foreign affairs, as well as civil society representation. There is a decentralised structure comprising provincial structures chaired by co-ordinators, including provincial directorates and civil society representation, amongst others. Each province has a technical group tasked with selecting and approving projects and activities. These projects are funded through the general state budget allocated to the NAC.

Parallel to these government initiatives, more than 50 NGOs have also been developing information and education activities for target groups such as adolescents and youth, truck drivers and sex workers considered to be at higher risk. In the government programme for 2000-2004, combating HIV and AIDS is part of a strategy to reduce the levels of absolute poverty and to fight the transmissible and endemic diseases.⁷⁶

In spite of the understanding that HIV and AIDS is a multisectoral challenge, the health sector is the only one in the government's current programme that identifies specific measures to effectively respond to the pandemic. The major interventions by the health sector include community education, improvement of public health care in treatment and prevention of the disease, capacity building at trade union level for "education on STIs/AIDS in the workplace" programme and the need to "defend the rights of women affected by the AIDS pandemic."⁷⁷ In

relation to other social sectors such as labour,⁷⁸ housing, environment, culture and sports, their strategic plans do not articulate how they will deal with HIV and AIDS. Due to this situation the prevalence rate of HIV and AIDS is still high.

The government guidelines emphasise in general and vague terms the promotion of women's rights, combating violence against women, and increasing women's access to decision-making institutions in the country. However, in the MMCAS strategic plan there is no clear expression of activities in this regard and their link to the social development of the country, namely, the measures referring to the claim of sexual and reproductive rights of women, particularly the HIV and AIDS dimension.

Mozambique's legal system offers little protection for people with HIV and AIDS. For example, there is no punishment for persons who knowingly infect others. However, there are some developments in this regard. At the end of 2001, a law was approved by parliament preventing employers from using the HIV status of employees as a just cause to lay off workers.

Diagnostic and prevalence trends

Health Guard Posts, centres that assist and diagnose HIV and AIDS among pregnant women, created in 1998, have facilitated systematic diagnosis of HIV and AIDS in Mozambique. Data shows that the HIV/AIDS prevalence rose from 5.7 percent to 9.3 percent in the North, from 16.5 percent to 20.4 percent in the Centre and from 13.2 percent to 18.1 percent in South. Thus, despite all efforts to sensitise people, the figures on HIV/AIDS incidence are still rising.

In 2000, about 45,000 people died of AIDS, of which 25,000 were women and about 74 percent of the deaths occurred in the central region of the country. In 2001, 57,000 people died, 68 percent of whom were from the central region. Despite all efforts to fight against HIV and AIDS the

figure continues to rise; in 2004 it estimated that 100,000 people died of AIDS. The projections are that by the end of 2008, one million people will have died of AIDS.

The death of women due to AIDS, which is about 58 percent of the total of deaths, resulted in about 60,000 children becoming orphans in 2000, and figure rose to 273,000 in 2004. It is estimated that the figure will rise in 2010 to 900,000 orphans, if the limited availability of anti retroviral for infected mothers remains the same. The seriousness of the situation is aggravated by the fact that the national monitoring system does not apparently capture about 92 percent of the AIDS cases in the country.⁷⁹

Research has established that the main form of transmission is through heterosexual sex, highlighting the fact that non-protected or occasional sexual relationships are a determinant factor in the increase of the pandemic.

Socialisation and vulnerability

Mozambique's social and economic situation continues to limit the effectiveness of measures to combat HIV and AIDS. More than a third of the population was displaced in the first half of the 90s decade during the civil war, and 1,7 million Mozambican refugees started to return home to a situation of anguish, poverty and a disorganised social system. The destruction of the then existing social structure and relations, and its reorganisation post the civil war, has had implications from an HIV and AIDS and gender perspective. Thus, the challenge of developing frameworks that address the multifaceted and complex impact of social reorganisation remains. Policies that have failed to take these issues into account have continued to be limited in their effectiveness in combating the impact of HIV and AIDS.

Social anthropologists have conducted research on the various dimensions of the impact of HIV and AIDS with the aim of establish-

ing how the presence of forms of traditional socialisation may or may not positively influence the change in sexual behaviour, and on the other hand, seeking to understand how gender social relations in different age groups react to the information.

Findings reveal that certain rites and traditional practices impact on the construction of female and male identities and their relation to the sexual representation and practices, particularly the male identity. Practices such as initiation rites have lost their centrality in terms of influence in the last two decades; they have lost a lot of their spiritual and educational nature. For example, despite the fact the rites are still considered a moment of passage to adult age, the respect for elders and roles of fathers and uncles, for example, no longer has the same value anymore.

For most of the initiated youth, teaching of their biological, sexual and social superiority is expressed, for example, in the fact that sexuality is a form of exercise of power. The issue of power is central in the persistence of a model that naturalises, as a necessity, multiple partners for boys, and "acceptance and culpability" of girls who propose a more negotiated sexual behaviour.

Male urban youths are usually literate and disconnected from initiation rites and tend to continue with the negative representation of female sexuality. This is revealed in boys stereotyping girls who carry a condom or want to negotiate sexual relationships. There is evidence that this situation exists in large urban centres such as Maputo and in rural areas too.⁸⁰ The rupture of the rules on gender social relations in the case of girls that seek new sexual behaviour is used as justification for asserting that women are primarily responsible for infecting men with HIV.

Research on female identity and the vulnerability of the young girl to HIV and AIDS has focused on initiation rituals and other forms of sexual education as a factor in the orientation of women's

*A law approved
by parliament
in 2001 prevents
dismissal from
work due to
HIV status.*

social roles and the construction of representations and practices regarding the exercise of sexuality and reproduction.

As with male initiation rites, the girls' initiation rites have also been simplified, though this has not had an impact on the social gender relations. The girls' sexual education in or outside the ritual context emphasises the learning of sexuality to please the other, that is, the woman's sexuality is exercised only in a reproductive role to please the man and bear him children, and in many provinces this is still perceived as a passive role.⁸¹

Lack of control over her own body makes the girl particularly vulnerable to STIs and HIV and AIDS. Although there have been changes in the exercise of sexuality among young female students in urban areas, the construction of sexuality remains mostly defined by a model that does not allow the girls to make decisions about the sexual relationship. This has resulted in the continuation of premature pregnancies among young female students, who may have sufficient information about reproduction and sexuality, but are still not able to negotiate the use of condoms. A study done in the city of Maputo on youth in and outside the school shows evidence of sexual coercion of girls even in more permanent relationships, suggesting that the boys considered having sex with a girl their right.⁸²

Research by Osório and Arthur in 2002 shows the emergence of new types of violence related to social instability such as sexual abuse of minors in both public and private spaces and the rape of virgin children fuelled by the myth that this prevents HIV and AIDS. The prostitution of young girls, in and outside schools, mainly along borders between countries and economic corridors is another big challenge in the battle to combat HIV and AIDS.

Male control over the woman's body is supported by the social representation of male sexuality as a

manifestation of a man's identity. This has affected the impact of initiatives to support safer sexual relations. The main observation, therefore, is that whatever the age group or social context, women have very little room to control a sexual relationship.

On the other hand, it is apparent that the older generation lacks a progressive outlook to issues of sexuality in that they have not developed education strategies that keep up with the dynamic changes taking place in society. Thus, parents and educators continue to insist on making the issue a moral one, and often react negatively to sensitisation campaigns on the use of condoms. They consider the campaigns for prevention of sexually transmitted diseases as key in encouraging premature sexual relations.

The attitude of other social agents such as churches is often ambiguous, since on the one hand they participate in the campaigns against the pandemic, and on the other they believe in a model where sexuality emphasises reproduction, thereby perpetuating the lack of capacity by women to have control over their bodies.

A study by Andrew in 1998 revealed that 97 percent of the Mozambican population knew of AIDS as a sexually transmitted disease and 85.3 percent know at least two methods of prevention. Many other studies show that the majority cannot distinguish between AIDS and HIV and do not accept that a person can carry the virus but not have any physical external manifestations. Stigma is still a big factor in addressing the social impact of HIV and AIDS.

Research has also shown that publicity campaigns on the use of condoms has had some impact as people know that one of the safer ways to protect themselves is to use the condom, with the exception of a few pockets in rural areas. However, there remains a big gap between knowledge and use.

Women's identity, HIV and AIDS

As discussed earlier, a model that projects male superiority over women's bodies influences female sexuality. This is echoed in the pervasive inequality in gender relations between men and women, with men wielding more power than women in several spheres of human life. Thus, in the context of socio-economic relations, male status and power impacts on women's ability to access and control resources, for example, both material and/or symbolic.

In Mozambique, as in other regions of the continent, women continue to be socialised as mothers and wives. Education is ordinarily seen as just a passing phase. Most women's professional activities are seen more as a need to foster collective survival, and less as a need for personal fulfilment. This denial of women to be subjects of their own destiny has, from a reproductive and sexual health point of view, serious consequences.

In the rural and more traditional societies in particular, girls learn to look after their bodies for the "other"; to take fidelity and denial of sexual desire as fundamentals of their identity. In cities and places with more contact and more exposure to a cosmopolitan culture and wider access to information (school, hospital, media, etc), the expectations and motivations of the girls change very little.

Men's resistance to using the condom has primarily to do with fear of diminishing their power and manhood. Youth's resistance to safer sex is linked to several myths ranging from the absence of pleasure, to the contraction of diseases (if the sperm is not deposited in the woman's body), or the idea that the condom causes infertility and it carries diseases. These myths continue to play a decisive role in sexual behaviour and are manifested in the form of a power exercise to control the woman's body and exercise sexuality as a manifestation of masculinity.

There are several issues that arise in Mozambique as regards to access to and use of contraception. It has been noted that in all age groups, women and men do not see the use of condoms as a preventive measure against contracting HIV and AIDS. Among the girls, the non-use of condoms is often used as emotional blackmail by their partners who accuse them of not trusting or loving them enough to have sex with them without condoms. Among married women, the issue is incapacity to negotiate safer sex. Their husbands accuse them of disrespect and lack of trust if they propose use of condoms, if not for the objective of preventing pregnancy.

On the other hand, even in cases where the youth used the condom, it is rarely used in the first sexual encounter or in relations considered permanent, which increases the risk of infection. An inquiry done in 2001 by the Central Statistics Office (INE) shows that although 69 percent of women and 85 percent of men between 15 and 24 years know how to use condoms, only seven percent of boys and eight percent of girls used a condom during their first sexual encounter.

Research by Mahomed and Pacca in 2000 among risk groups emphasised the vulnerability of sex workers, which is due to lack of legal protection and other rights suffered by women in general.

The challenges of behaviour change, that is, transforming HIV and AIDS information into action, are also related to the low levels of youth expectations. With an education rate that is still low and without prospects for employment, many youths have low self-esteem and deal with death from a fatalistic point of view.

With a breakdown of the traditional mechanisms for social regulation, the increased risk of contracting the infection can be articulated from the perspective of the breakdown of rules that allow premature sexual relations. The fact

Women's AIDS Education Organisation (OMES), Manica Province

Box 5

In 2004, OMES celebrated its tenth anniversary – 10 years of difficulty, but also 10 years of steady achievement. Back in 1994, AIDS seemed like a remote threat in Chimoio, the capital of Manica province. But people had begun to die, and the townsfolk knew of AIDS through their frequent contacts with neighbouring Zimbabwe.

A group of far-sighted women decided that it was time to act by forming a women's AIDS education organisation, OMES. Initially, their inspiration came from Mutare, just across the Zimbabwean border. After a visit there, they modelled OMES on a sex worker peer education programme run by FACT (Family AIDS Caring Trust). OMES has come a long way; beginning as a small peer educator programme. The initial group in Chimoio has expanded and now has 26 activists, among them a group of teenage sex workers. In 2002, this group distributed over 40,000 male condoms and began using the female condom. OMES does not just work in the bars; activists also provide community education through theatre and debates in the markets and other public places.

Their counselling centre provides space where women and men can drop in for advice and also watch AIDS educational videos. In recent years, four new OMES groups have opened in the towns and truck-tops along the main roads in the province. However, it has not all been plain sailing. OMES has expanded against the backdrop of a worsening HIV and AIDS pandemic in Manica province and some activists have died of the disease. Although HIV testing has been available in Chimoio since 2002, activists are reluctant to go for testing because of stigma and discrimination. They still do not have access to anti-retroviral treatment. And the socio-economic conditions that have led to a thriving sex trade in Chimoio city and along the main roads show no sign of abating. OMES will, however, still be celebrating its tenth anniversary – with justifiable pride in the achievements of a small group of determined women.

SOURCE Dr. Julie Cliff.⁸⁴

that on average a person's sexual life starts at 15.09 years (in the group 15-19 years), shows the decrease of influence from older generations in youth education.⁸³

If the social dynamics have changed the transmission of knowledge between generations as well as the social rules, the change in practice does not necessarily mean the replacement of the dominant cultural model. This means that even with alterations of the previous components of sexual education, there has been little change in the unequal power and social gender relations.

Essentially therefore, it is this model, emphasising the social subjugation of women, that explains today's higher prevalence of HIV and AIDS among women. This means that the vulnerability of people to the disease, although dependent on a series of factors such as lack of information and poverty, is underpinned by a social model that reproduces and reinforces gender inequality. In light of this, it is important to deepen research, especially on the content and efficacy of campaigns to fight sexually transmitted infections among different target groups.

Abortion-related morbidity and mortality⁸⁵

Africa has the highest abortion-related mortality ratio in the world; it is estimated that roughly 13 percent of maternal deaths are due to abortion complications. In addition, each year millions of women end up suffering from acute and chronic complications, such as pelvic pain, secondary infertility and other long-term consequences as a result of unsafe abortions. World-wide, various studies have previously estimated that "illegal" or "clandestine" abortions have accounted for 25 percent of maternal deaths,⁸⁶ resulting in 115,000-205,000 such deaths per year (300-550 a day).⁸⁷ More recently, complications arising from "unsafe abortion" are cal-

culated to be responsible for 78,000 deaths a year.⁸⁸ In Africa, it has been estimated that over five million women undergo unsafe abortions and that a significant proportion of them die from abortion-related causes.

In industrialized countries, where parent-adolescent communication about sexuality has increased substantially,⁸⁹ and where contraceptive counselling and abortion are readily available, the problem of unwanted adolescent pregnancies is less common, and fertility rates have reached an all-time low.⁹⁰ The situation in low-income countries and in Africa in particular is, however, very different. On the one hand, traditional society and its values and controls are being undermined, especially in urban areas, and adolescents are increasingly adopting "western" culture, including involvement in freer sexual relations.⁹¹ On the other hand, sexual education in schools is poor or non-existent, and since sexuality is still a taboo subject, parents do not discuss it with their teenage children.

In addition, knowledge about contraception is very limited, and even when there is a degree of awareness, many adolescents nevertheless engage in unprotected sexual relations.⁹² Sometimes they do not use family planning services because they may fear the judgmental attitude of the health staff, or may be afraid of being recognized and identified as having started to have sex. Consequently, unwanted adolescent pregnancy is frequent and many adolescent girls end up resorting to abortion.⁹³

Throughout history, women with unintended and undesired pregnancies have taken steps to solve the problem, at the risk of their health, future fertility, social standing or even their lives.⁹⁴ In many low-income countries, where prevailing legislation prohibits the termination of a pregnancy, women are obliged to seek illegal abortionists for this purpose and to undergo the

procedure under unsafe conditions. A study in Tanzania has shown that over half the patients who had had an unsafe abortion were below the age of 20.⁹⁵ Elsewhere it has been shown that the 15-20 age group accounts for as much as 68 percent of abortion complications treated in selected hospitals.⁹⁶ Young, single or separated, young women tend to be most at risk of severe complications of unsafe abortions.⁹⁷

Unsafe abortion, although an easily preventable cause of maternal death, is one of the most neglected health and human rights problems in the world today. It was not even acknowledged as an issue until 1994, when the Cairo [International Conference on Population and Development] ICPD first emphasised gender equality and women's reproductive and sexual rights⁹⁸ and recognised that abortion was a health problem that needed to be addressed in all its aspects. It was thus concluded that women who have unwanted pregnancies should have ready access to reliable information and compassionate counselling. In circumstances where abortion is not against the law, such abortion should be safe. In all cases, women should have access to quality services for the management of complications arising from abortion.⁹⁹

In Mozambique, the current legislation contained in the Penal Code still reflects the values of a conservative, authoritarian Roman Catholic influenced colonial power in the late nineteenth century. It stipulates that abortion under any circumstances is forbidden, and penalizes both the patient and the abortionist. The circumstances after independence in the late twentieth century, however, are very different; with a secular state that promotes women's rights and gives priority to the welfare and well being of the ordinary citizen. One manifestation of these concerns was the growing acceptance that abortion should be allowed under certain circumstances, with particu-

lar emphasis on the safety of the procedure.

Consequently, in 1985 the Ministry of Health issued guidelines stating that women could apply for the termination of a pregnancy in the Maputo Central Hospital if this was due to failed contraceptive measures. Subsequently, in light of growing evidence of the high rates of maternal morbidity and mortality related to unsafe abortions, interpretation of the guidelines became more liberal. Pregnancy termination on demand was provided also on socio-economic grounds. As a result today, virtually any pregnancy up to the twelfth week of gestation can be terminated (but only in three hospitals in Maputo city, and in a few settings outside the capital), if there is a written request by the woman or the couple. Unmarried adolescents aged 18 or less must have the consent of an adult. To some extent, this significant change in attitude reflects findings elsewhere, that the greater insight into the problem of unwanted pregnancies provided by quantitative and qualitative research helps weaken the tendency to condemn actions to solve this problem without loss of women's lives. In Maputo, even before the ICPD, women had started to have access to safe abortion, although hospital fees still constitute an obstacle to access.

Some hospital-based studies on maternal mortality have shown that eight to 11 percent of the maternal deaths during the period 1990-1999¹⁰⁰ were due to abortion complications. In 2001 and 2002, the contribution of abortion on the maternal mortality was 6.6 percent and 4.6 percent respectively, showing that women are still dying of abortion even in Maputo, where safe abortion facilities are available.

However, these figures are merely the tip of the iceberg, as they do not include women who did not suffer immediately recognizable complications, or those who did but

did not seek hospital treatment, many of whom eventually died. Out of 148 women treated for severe abortion complications over the period 1990-1999, 26 percent died two to 24 hours after admission. This may be due to the fact that women who undergo an unsafe abortion, initially often tend to conceal abortion complications and seek medical care only as a last resort.

The most common immediate complications of unsafe abortions identified in various African studies include incomplete abortion, tears in the cervix, haemorrhage, sepsis, uterine perforation and peritonitis.¹⁰¹ The medium and long-term consequences include chronic pelvic pain, ectopic pregnancy, and infertility.¹⁰² Although less studied, in many instances the social consequences – such as family disruption and various forms of ostracism – may be at least as important,¹⁰³ not to mention the woman's vulnerability to legal proceedings.

Haemorrhage and sepsis are the most common abortion complications and all the women admitted to the emergency gynaecology ward in the Maputo Central Hospital [HCM], with severe haemorrhage and signs of sepsis die shortly after hospital admission. Shortage of blood is the main cause of death among the cases. Peritonitis, the most serious complication, is often the main reason for surgical intervention. These findings point to the need for adequate blood and antibiotic supplies in the HCM. As a major contributor to hospital-based maternal mortality and morbidity and their management, unsafe abortion ends up creating an extra burden for the already inadequate public expenditure on health.

It is predominantly young, poor and uneducated women who have unsafe abortions, adding yet another violation to their long list of unmet rights, and one that can have serious consequences for their health and even life. Among this group of women in particular, the unwanted pregnancies themselves

reflect yet another unfulfilled right, the right to contraception.

Adolescents today reach puberty at a younger age than previous generations and they also marry later. They are thus more likely to start having sexual relations before marriage,¹⁰⁴ thereby running a greater risk of unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases. Surveys in six African countries report that between a quarter and half of first births to women aged 15 to 19 were unintended.¹⁰⁵ In these settings, an unintended pregnancy often ends in an abortion. Hospital-based studies carried out in Zaire¹⁰⁶ and Cameroon¹⁰⁷ also showed that adolescents accounted for a very high proportion of all abortion-related complications.

The higher teenage risk of pregnancy-related death is not only due to their age, but also to the fact that such births tend to be their first, which are more risky than subsequent ones. A hospital-based study in Maputo Central Hospital revealed that the majority of women who die from unsafe abortion were significantly younger and less likely to have a stable relationship. They were also at a disadvantage as far as schooling, housing and household size are concerned, and earned lower wages. The percentage of teenage women undergoing an unsafe abortion was close to 38 percent¹⁰⁸ and in a similar study in Nigeria this proportion was 50 percent.¹⁰⁹ Several other studies on unsafe abortion in Africa show the same age profile. For instance, in Nigeria,¹¹⁰ it was found that one third of secondary school girls had abortions and more than half the women having unsafe abortions were under 20 years of age.

The fact that education is a significant factor in knowledge and use of contraceptives was clearly reflected in Maputo, where it was seen that women who have unsafe abortions belonged to the low socio-economic stratum and consequently were the ones who got severe complications. The low socio-economic status among women who get

severe complications from illegal abortion has been demonstrated also in Nigeria, where lack of education and information on contraceptives were also significant.¹¹¹

Since women who perform unsafe abortion tend to be younger, their limited schooling is in part a reflection of their age but it probably also reflects a social heritage of high illiteracy rates, particularly among women. This may aggravate ignorance of the biological issues surrounding sexuality, with parents in the least informed category.

Another dimension of the problem is the effect of unwanted and undesired pregnancies of girls and women who are unable to obtain the abortion they desire. At the very least, this situation implies that young girls are forced to dropout of school with long-term consequences for the country's gender equity efforts, as well as for the well being of the children of unmarried and/or uneducated mothers. Data from the country's 1997 Demographic and Health Survey indicate that 17 percent of adolescent girls aged 15-19 years already have one child and each year they account for approximately 17 percent of all births in the capital city of Maputo.

A major but unquantifiable indirect cost of an unsafe abortion resulting in death is the serious effect of the loss of a mother in a female-headed household, or older sister can have on the surviving family members. In rural areas it is the woman who does most of the agricultural work, and among the urban poor it is the women who are most likely to undertake the informal street trade that guarantees the family's day-to-day survival. The mother tends to give more priority to the educational, nutritional and health care needs of children and the loss of such a key individual can have major adverse effects on the well being of the next generation. Older sisters also invariably have important production and childcare responsibilities.

Abortion legislation should be reviewed in order to make available a safe termination of unwanted pregnancies to women who need it. The existence of abortion services should be disseminated through health education campaigns that target the women most at risk of unwanted pregnancy. The fee charged for a safe pregnancy termination should not be an obstacle to seeking such a service. Furthermore, appropriate services for treating cases of severe morbidity should be organized in order to reduce both maternal mortality and the permanent ill effects of unsafe abortions in women surviving such abortions.

ENVIRONMENT

Housing

There are no significant differences between men and women in relation to housing and access to basic services.¹¹² However, these differences are notable between rural and urban populations. In rural areas, about 89 percent of people live in grass thatched houses while only nine percent of people have asbestos cover and four percent have walls made of blocks against 45 percent with asbestos cover and 37 percent with walls of blocks in urban areas. The houses have on average two bedrooms.

Access to safe water

Halving the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water by 2015 is one of the ambitious targets set by the United Nations Millennium Declaration and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and which the Mozambique government adopted at the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000. To date, five years after the UN Millennium Summit, Mozambican women, especially in the rural areas, travel several kilometres away to fetch water. A lot of productive time is being spent in this activity. As noted by the government 2002 report on Millennium Development Goals, about 71 per-

cent and 64 percent of rural and urban populations respectively do not have access to safer water. According to more recent data from IAF (2002/3), in 2004 about 57.7 percent and 26.4 percent of urban and rural population respectively have access to safer water, showing an increase in the number of urban people with access to safer water, and a further decline in the rural areas.

As a result, the populations from rural areas are being forced to use more unprotected boreholes (51 percent), and water directly from the river, lake or lagoon (22 percent). This has resulted in the increase in incidences of water borne diseases, and also this impacts on the performance of other responsibilities such as women's participation in public issues.

The issue of access to clean water is worth noting as women and men bear it disproportionately as in most societies; the power imbalances between men and women have ensured that it is women who bear the large proportion of existing water burdens. It is therefore, imperative that the government should take steps to address this gender concern.

Electricity and other forms of energy

Mozambique is recognized as one of the largest power producers in the SADC region. Most studies have revealed that Mozambique possesses enormous resources for the production of energy. These include hydro resources, coal, natural gas, and high levels of solar radiation.¹¹³ Despite this, in terms of utilisation, Mozambique uses the least energy in the region. It is estimated that only six percent of the population has access to electricity, the rest remain dependent on firewood and biogas. In addition, gas is also widely used by both the rural and urban population.

This is a challenge towards women's empowerment as they bear the burden of poor energy

supply. In most cases, women have to walk several kilometres looking for firewood. However, the government of Mozambique is committed to addressing the problem through rural electrification projects. Key partnerships are being developed in order to provide resources to this initiative; for example, a loan of US\$14 million was secured from the African Development Fund (ADF) to finance Mozambique's rural electrification project.¹¹⁴ The project is vital as it targets the most marginalized groups (rural communities who are mostly women) and will enable rural women to increase their economic activity and improve their standard of living through the provision of electrical power.

Impact of natural disasters

The natural disasters that devastated Mozambique in the past years, especially the 2000 floods in the south and those in 2001 in the central and northern regions of the country, strongly affected the life of the communities in the affected areas, causing the destruction of agricultural land, death of animals and damage to industrial units. It is estimated that in 2000-2001, about 33 percent of the Mozambican population was affected by a disaster, 34 percent by floods, 20 percent by cyclones and eight percent by drought.

These natural disasters have aggravated the situation of chronic and temporary food insecurity, existent in certain areas of the country. Many families left their homes to live in new residential areas, specially created for the survivors of the natural disasters and started producing in new fields located in areas with less risk of flooding. However, the people affected in general kept their original fields and continue to produce in them, mainly in the dry season, since the fields are located in lower areas on river and lagoon banks.

An analysis of vulnerability has been done using the food economy approach, which allows, through

base studies, for an understanding of the degree of vulnerability of the households to potential disasters and identifies where the threatened populations are located in order to manage risk situations and to help define more appropriate actions for each situation. The 39 zones of food economies currently defined surround areas with similar characteristics in terms of food and income source.¹¹⁵ In the last years, the most vulnerable districts have been located in the central and southern regions of the country. There are pockets with vulnerable populations in the north, even though these are considered areas of good agricultural production.

The members and composition of Households (AF) have a great influence on the size of the areas and the crops cultivated, whose variations depend on their geographic location. According to the results of the Agricultural Inquiry Work on the family sector in Mozambique (TIA), in 1996, the average in the country is of 6.4 members per household and it may be bigger or smaller in specific areas as indicated in studies carried out in certain communities and at district level.

In terms of AF composition, the main ones are the Households Headed by Women (AFCM) and their relation with the female population at provincial level. Thus, the national average is 22 percent of AFCM in a population with 53 percent of women. For example, the province of Maputo has 29 percent of AFCM in a female population of 53 percent. Previous data indicated that there is no direct relationship between the female population that presents little variation between provinces (51-55 percent) and the percentage of households headed by women. However, in Punguine-Chókwe-Gaza, most of the population is female and 76 percent of the AF is headed by women, of which 76 percent are *de jure* and 44 percent are *de facto*.¹¹⁶

Another important indicator is the incidence of poverty at various

levels. Based on the data from the 1996/97 AF Inquiry form, during the 1997 population census and on the vulnerability analysis of 1998, a mapping exercise of poverty patterns at different levels was produced. The incidence of poverty was observed to vary with the disaggregation of estimates at provincial level and administrative post adopted. This way, the provinces of Sofala, Inhambane and Tete have greater incidence of poverty at provincial level.¹¹⁷

NGOs contribution to mitigate impact of natural disasters

NGOs have participated in general and specific activities in the re-establishment and development of the Mozambican economy especially at local level in the context of agriculture and environment; supporting peasants to increase agricultural and cattle rearing production and in the application of new production and cattle raising techniques, promotion of associations and co-operatives, training of staff, dissemination and application of the current legislation, rural credit programmes, delimitation of community areas, promotion of food security and nutrition, promotion of markets for raw materials and agricultural products, as well as community handling and management of natural resources. However, various factors including bureaucracy, poor road conditions, lack of markets and infrastructures to store products, illiteracy index, high cost of raw materials, lack of credit, low buying power from the peasants, uncontrolled fires and others make rural development difficult.

In addition, there are no policies or regulations that can direct the revitalization of the agricultural sector and provide incentives for producers and commercial dealers, for instance, with regards to the genetically modified organisms, import and export of products, credit and the application of measures that guarantee the conservation of natural resources.¹¹⁸

In the context of the Agricultural Development

Division of labour in the use of natural resources

Programme (PROAGRI), training courses have been carried out for extension workers, association members and community leaders to pass on, for capacity-building in improved techniques of agricultural and animal production and in the area of conserving forestry and wildlife. Although these are limited, they have helped the population to make better use of resources and opportunities. There is need and interest in expanding the training activities to include more producers.

Community management and conservation of natural resources

Communities have implemented some projects to provide incentives for the management of natural resources, with particular attention to gender integration in their activities, which are promoted and developed by the population of the respective areas. Examples include the:

- ▣ Tchuma-Tchato in Tete;
 - ▣ Moribane Forest Reserve in Manica;
 - ▣ Multiple use of marine resources in the Bazaruto Archipelago in the province of Inhambane;
 - ▣ Transboundary Conservation Areas in the provinces of Manica, Inhambane, Gaza and Maputo, for the management of wildlife;
 - ▣ Supply of wood for charcoal production, managed by the community in Santaca, Maputo province;
 - ▣ Forest and wildlife resources in the provinces of Sofala, Manica and Cabo Delgado;
 - ▣ Inhaca Island project in the province of Maputo;
 - ▣ Management of coastal resources in Inhassoro and Xai-Xai in the provinces of Inhambane and Gaza;
 - ▣ Coastal management of Mecúfi in Cabo Delgado; and
 - ▣ Support to community management of forests and wildlife in Goba and Nampula.
- The projects have shown that

communities have great interest and commitment to natural resources management activities when they see the benefits that result from the activities. However, the benefits are not immediate but medium and long-term, especially in the recovering of areas with heavy degradation of natural resources. Because of this, the funds of some projects are used up during the implementation period, and some of the foreseen objectives are not achieved. For the success of activities to promote the community management of natural resources, it is important to guarantee gender integration and use gender sensitisation in all activities, taking into account that in reality, there is a division of powers, responsibilities and duties between men and women, with specific values and rules, which are interlinked in the day to day life of the communities.

Through a project of community management of natural resources supported by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Programme (FAO) and by the government of Holland since 1998, a strategy of gender integration has been developed in interventions that contribute to improving the community management of forest and wildlife resources in Goba – PA Changalane – province of Maputo. As a result of this project, communities can already distinguish the forest species and have to learn to use only some of them for the production of firewood and charcoal. The practice of uncontrolled fires is decreasing and there is more control in the cutting of trees and in the hunting methods practised by coalman that come from other areas and poachers.

Men and boys migrate to the neighbouring countries and the ones that remain practice hunting, herding and charcoal production, while women and girls do household chores and agricultural work. Women are more involved in the management of the project, in the leadership and as members of the groups of promoters of community

conservation, in training activities for communities to provide incentives for the utilization of new techniques and activities (such as beekeeping, production of new charcoal ovens), in order to improve the management of resources by the community and collaborating better in the maintenance of the area. However, men still have more access, control and benefit from natural resources and work more in activities that bring higher income and take less time.¹¹⁹

In a study done in three villages in the district of Matutone in Maputo province, it was also observed that there is division of labour between men and women in the use and utilization of natural resources. Women are more involved with collection and transportation of water, agricultural production, cutting of grass and extraction of *sura* (fermented palm juice). Men have the responsibility of hunting, cutting trees, reeds, grasses, firewood and fishing. Women participate commercially by selling *sura*, fish and farm animals (main income activity for women with no male relatives). Men sell the meat from hunting, grass, fish and *sura*. Women spend their money mainly on food and men keep their money for emergency situations and for cigarettes and drinks.¹²⁰

The gender relations and division of duties and responsibilities at household level have an impact on the choice and adoption of practices of soil conservation, as indicated by the study done in Nhambonda in Manica province. It is common, for example, to find live *cebos*¹²¹ in men's fields, because they are responsible for clearing the land, and to find mulching¹²² in the women's fields because they spend more time ploughing and hoeing. Men that dominate the resources adopt income crops in their fields and use new techniques transmitted by extension workers and because they receive technical assistance, credits and raw materials, while women cultivate food crops, with conservation practices that save time and resources, but adjusted to the local

characteristics and benefit very little from technical and financial assistance from organisations. Nevertheless, women are now participating in associations through which they obtain support and have started to have more decision-making power.¹²³

GENDER, LAW AND LEGAL REFORM

Mozambique has a complex legal system comprising statutes, customary and religious norms and practices. Several norms and practices are unwritten but still applicable in everyday life, whereas the state only recognizes written law. Since independence, the recognized written law has integrated various normative systems, including customary norms, although achieving a balance to address the realities of men and women, including promoting human rights has remained a challenge.

In the context of gender equality, the current law is enacted within the framework of the Mozambique constitution, which guarantees equality between men and women and outlaws discrimination on the basis of personal circumstances or social, political, economic and cultural life. Mozambique also ratified or adopted international and regional instruments such as CEDAW (in 1993), and the 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development by Heads of State and Government, guaranteeing gender equality.

Mozambican law has been strongly influenced by its colonial past. For example, until recently rights to and within families were enshrined in the 1967 Portuguese Civil Code, parts of which were subsequently amended in legislative developments since independence, such as Law No. 8/92, which introduced the issue of non-litigious divorce.

There has been concerted advocacy for the amendment of gender discriminatory laws and the enactment of gender sensitive legislation in line with the vision to enable

Laws are still influenced by colonial legacy.

women to participate more fully in development efforts. It has been established that the law plays a key role in assigning rights and responsibilities and women's subordinate status in Mozambique has hindered development efforts in all sectors.

Legal developments in the past few years have focused on the role of family law in the development and the achievement of gender equality. Until recently, the position of women relative to men was one of profound inequality, in spite of constitutional guarantees of equality. Articles 55-57 of the Mozambican constitution focuses on the importance of protecting the family in society, the role of women and the commitment to promoting and supporting the emancipation of women and providing incentives to increase the role of women in society.

In contrast to these constitutional guarantees the position of women has been compromised, until recently, by legal provisions that provided for the supremacy of a husband in a marriage, including women's inability to administer property, as well as loss of rights on dissolution of the marriage. Further, a male parent has had more rights than a female parent with regard to custody of children.

Some critical changes have occurred in the family law arena in the past two years. The Family law was approved in November 2003,¹²⁴ and came into force in May 2005. This law has had a major impact on rights of men, women, boys and girls within the family, and for spouses, it has profoundly affected both personal and property rights.

Important provisions in the Family Law include the following:

- ▣ The recognition of customary unions, allowing women married under customary law to claim property and custody rights;
- ▣ The recognition of informal unions, thus women who have lived with their partners for more than a year are entitled to inherit from their partners;

- ▣ The minimum age of marriage has been increased from 14 for girls and 16 for boys to 18 years for both boys and girls;
- ▣ The timeframe between one marriage and another (the interuptial period) is six months for both men and women;
- ▣ The principle of male supremacy in relation to women was eliminated and equal status between spouses was introduced, resulting in effective joint administration of property. This includes choosing the residence/home, as well as family representation, and determination of the family surname. In essence, therefore both spouses are on an equal footing, enjoying significant household, patrimonial, financial and professional autonomy.

Overall, the Family Law has also opened new opportunities for women to manage and devolve property in their own right. Joint property, depending on the type of marriage chosen, can now be utilized and even devolved by women in their own right, including the transfer of ownership, with consent from the male spouse.

Regarding the dissolution of marriage through divorce, the Law 8/92 of 6 May, which provides for divorce by mutual consent, is still in force. The rights of both spouses are safeguarded, in a relationship cemented by equality, love and respect. The law is reflective of serious moves to cement equality between men and women, with a special emphasis in areas where women had hitherto suffered a contravention of their rights, namely:

- ▣ regulation of parental power;
- ▣ sharing the couple's property;
- ▣ supplying food to the needy spouse; and
- ▣ rights with respect to the conjugal house or residence.

A single mother also has her rights protected, through all the elements that have to be supplied

by the father of the child from the beginning of the pregnancy to the end of the first year of the child's life, as a way to protect, not only the mother's health (by right), but also of the child to be born. The father of the child also has the responsibility to provide material support even if the relationship with the mother comes to an end.

Some rights are also extended to women in polygamous unions, taking into account the constitutional principles of equality and non-discrimination. The right to food by women who were once part of a polygamous union and were subsequently widowed, is safeguarded. They enjoy the right to food through the income left by the deceased husband, to which they also contributed, as long as they were living together at the time of death, and had lived with the deceased for at least five years.

Meanwhile, the rights of women in a *de facto* union suffered some drawbacks in relation to the law from 1997. There is judicial protection, but only for effects of property, paternity or maternity. This means that if the *de facto* union is recognized, the women, just like the men, may benefit from the division of common property, in case of separation.

If the man and woman in a *de facto* union had joint finances, the woman can keep part of it and will have the legal mechanisms that the law offers to obtain the recognition of paternity for the children born from the union, and all parental rights and duties. But the ongoing problem is the lack of knowledge by women of the rights to assist and protect them.

The law of succession, discussed extensively in the last Beyond Inequalities Mozambique (2000),¹²⁵ is still of priority concern as regards its implementation and practice. As pointed out previously, the statute law provides for equality of rights in inheritance between men and women. Thus, either surviving spouse has a right

to their own property and half of the joint property, and any property left by virtue of a will.

The fundamental problem lies in the application of the law of succession. This is compounded by the existence of dual succession systems, influenced by either the matrilineal or patrilineal roots of the particular family. In the patrilineal system, on the death of the husband the surviving spouse has usufruct property rights, and ownership is conferred to the first-born child.¹²⁶ There are some patrilineal systems, however, where both sons and daughter inherit, but the lion's share goes to the first-born child.

In the matrilineal system, on the husband's death, the surviving spouse inherits the hut and implements for domestic use, and the first-born nephew (son of the elder sister or cousin sister of the husband) inherits the property. The existence of the written law and the minimal protection provided under these customary systems have not afforded women with adequate protection, and widows continue to be disposed of property, particularly if it is valuable.

This reality severely compromises the livelihood of widows and rights of children, particularly those that are still dependent on the mother for their livelihoods. There is thus a need to ensure that legal measures are holistic to cover not only gender sensitive provisions, but also their administration and practice, otherwise the existence of these laws will not bring women any closer to realizing their rights.

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Context

Central to violence against women is unequal gender relations. This is further supported by a model of domination that, like any other, is legitimated by a symbolic system and by relations of power that maintain and reproduce them. These are ideologies and structures that impact negatively on the human rights of women.

*The family law
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new opportunities
for women.*

*Unequal gender
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Violence against women is an old phenomenon. In contemporary times it has crossed the walls of family homes, is spoken about in the newspapers and is recognized as a social problem by the State and by several civil society organisations. There has thus been a shift from viewing violence against women as a private matter, to a public issue. This change became visible in the 90s, both at national and international level.

The international women's movement has played a key role in making the issue visible in the public sphere, through the creation of an international public space; the principle of non-discrimination on the basis of gender was enshrined, as well as the acknowledgement of the existence of violence purely on the basis of being a woman. This formed the basis of international legal instruments recognizing and protecting the rights of women against this violation. The catalytic moments included Vienna Conference (1993) and the Beijing Conference (1995). In Mozambique, the State included violence as a problem to be managed through its various institutions as a result of post-Beijing policies, but also greatly influenced by the work of women organisations at national level.

In the Mozambique context, several issues are important to the analysis of the responses to violence against women, both from the state and civil society perspectives. These include the definition of "violence against women", as well as its symbolic and material dimensions, and the way it is accepted and operationalised. Further, it is necessary to trace the paths that led to the visibility of violence against women in Mozambique, as the strategies thus far adopted depend on these different dimensions.

Institutional responses

Since 1996, women's organisations in the country were mobilized to combat domestic violence. Through the programme "All Against

Violence" (TCV), Kulaya, MULEIDE, the Association of Mozambican Women Legal Practitioners, AMME, OMM, WLSA Moçambique (through the UEM Centre for African Studies), and Fórum Mulher, took part in this campaign. Through their joint efforts, they contributed to making this problem visible and turned it into a legitimate objective for research and intervention. Through central co-ordination, the capacities of each organisation were identified, and activists from several sectors were sensitised to join the advocacy. Activities included working with the media, research, training and sensitisation of police agents in Police Stations, clinical, psychological and legal care of the victims of violence.

In 2000, an evaluation of TCV's operations since 1997 indicated that the main areas of work were: the care/help of victims of domestic violence (including extensive counselling to the perpetrator and members of the family), training and capacity-building of police agents, journalists and others, civic education through campaigns, talks, and dissemination through the press, as well as studies and researches to identify the main dimensions of the phenomenon.

As one of the direct results of TCV, the Association of Women Victims of Violence was formed in 2000. This association's membership is made up of women that suffered domestic violence and came together to support each other and create spaces for debate and help others that suffer from the same problem.

The coalition of TCV also represented a positive experience of collaboration between civil society and state institutions, namely the Ministry of Interior, Ministry for the Co-ordination of Social Action and Ministry of Health. Each of these organisations included actions to fight and restrict violence against women, specifically domestic violence, in their sectoral plans. Apart from the coalition, other ministries also consider

activities that directly or indirectly aim to fight the “social problem” of domestic violence in their plans.

The Ministry of Interior particularly, was responsible for the development of a series of actions aimed at integrating a gender perspective, curriculum training in human rights and women’s human rights, increasing the number of policewomen, and Offices to Assist Women and Children in Police Stations. They started operations in 1999, and there are currently 16 offices in operation, covering the whole country, except for the provinces of Inhambane and Zambézia.

Despite the TCV programme lacking funds and closing in 2001, its organisations carry on the work, though not as well co-ordinated as before, with programmes to fight violence against women. The government in power since the 1999 legislative and presidential elections has integrated this issue as part of its strategic and operational plans.

However, despite all these efforts, very little change has occurred. Some of the plans were not fulfilled, and at government institutional level, not enough resources were allocated. Further, the strategies drafted have not succeeded in attacking the root cause of the problem, and are not capable of producing meaningful changes. Activists have noted that “...the current situation in Mozambique is frustrating, to say the least. There is a great distance between intention and action, which means that the political speeches do not correspond to the political practices, and the practices from the State institutions. The problems are not placed at speech level but at practice level.”¹²⁷

One of the aspects that makes it difficult to put pressure to ensure urgent measures to stop violence against women are taken, is the lack of precise data that allows for a determination of the extent of this phenomenon. The report of a study carried out by WLSA Mozambique between November

2003 and February 2004, in the Offices to Assist Women and Children in Police Stations in the city of Maputo and provinces of Maputo and Sofala, presents some results of the data collected between January 2000 and November 2003.

It must be noted, however, that the commencement dates were not the same for all offices. For example, the Office to Assist Women and Children in the eighteenth police station had only been open for two months when the pilot study took place. In the analysis of this data, there was need to take into account the conditions under which the capturing of cases is done, since the offices lack material, including the registration form produced centrally by the Programme to Assist Women and Children. Other gaps include lack of consensus on the type of crimes so that their classification follows the same criteria in all Offices at national level.

Table 22 presents information on the total number of cases registered in all Offices where the pilot study was carried out, showing the relationship between victim and perpetrator, according to gender.

Violent Cases and Victim-perpetrator Relations, by Gender, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala provinces, 2000-2003

Table 22

Place of Police Station	N° of cases	N° of victims/Gender			N° perpetrators/Gender		
		F	M	Under aged (no gender)	F	M	Gender not known
2 ^a Esq.- Maputo	89	78	11	-	19	63	7
7 ^a Esq.- Maputo	191	149	42	-	39	151	1
12 ^a Esq.- Maputo	100	79	18	3	26	70	4
14 ^a Esq.- Maputo	32	23	9	-	10	20	2
15 ^a Esq.- Maputo	1	1	-	-	-	1	-
18 ^a Esq.- Maputo	11	8	3	-	4	6	1
1 ^a Esq.- Matola	103	83	20	-	23	78	2
Comando D. Boane	59	40	19	-	16	39	4
4 ^a Esq.- Beira	2851	2034	715	102	609	2123	119
Com. D. Dondo	40	33	7	-	4	35	1
Com. D. Nhamatanda	13	10	2	1	2	10	1
Com. D. Gorongosa	3	3	-	-	-	3	-
Total	3493	2541	846	106	752	2599	142
Percentage	100	72.7	24.2	3.1	21.5	74.4	4.1

SOURCE WLSA, 2004

As can be noted, the cases of violence where women were the victims are the majority (72.7 percent). On the other hand, Table 23 shows the kinship of the perpetrator in relation to the female victims. Analysing the part of the profile that corresponds to female victims (72.7 percent of the total), it can be seen that 33 percent of the total of perpe-

trators are the husbands, though with differences between each Office. In the first Police Station in Matola, 77 percent of the perpetrators are husbands and in Beira, it is 28 percent. This difference can be explained by the fact that in many cases where the perpetrators are male, the registration form does not mention the level of kinship. Because of this, in the category "Kinship not shown (M)" and 31.1 percent of the total, it is possible that most of them could be husbands. The Office of the first Police Station is the one with lower percentage of cases (3.6 percent) in which the kinship of the male perpetrator to the female victim does not show, and the office in Beira has the highest percentage (35.5 percent).

Another important aspect in the relationship between perpetrator and victim is the high percentage (seven percent of women who attacked other women, presented by the victim as "rival," indicating that many women in polygamous relationships, whether stable or casual, seek the help of the Offices. However, the high percentage (87 percent) of male perpetrators reinforces the position that the main victims of violence registered at the Offices are women.

Table 24 analyses the kinship of the perpetrator in relation to the male victims. As regards these cases (24.2 percent of the total), the higher percentage of the cases is represented by male perpetrators, of which 24 percent are relatives or neighbours and 21 percent by male perpetrators whose kinship to the victim is unknown. This means that in the Offices for Assistance of Women and Children, a significant number of male victims are helped in the types of crimes outside the domestic sphere, and that could be solved directly in the police station. Only when the victim is an underage male does the case fall under the responsibility of the Office.

The wives, who are not a predominant category as perpetrators, are a high percentage (20.7 percent), although in lower proportion than

General profile of the Relation Victim-perpetrator, Female Victims, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala provinces, 2000-2003 Table 23

Perpetrator's kinship level	Nº Victims (F)	Perpetrator's gender	% According to kinship
Husband	836	M	33.0
Ex-husband	170	M	6.7
Boyfriend	145	M	5.5
Ex-boyfriend	39	M	1.5
Lover (M)	30	M	1.2
Rival (F)	173	F	7.0
Others (M)	203	M	8.0
Others (F)	50	F	1.8
Kinship not shown (M)	789	M	31.1
Kinship not shown (F)	92	F	3.6
Kinship not shown (no gender)	14	NG	0.6
Total female victims	2541		100
Total perpetrators (M)	2212	M	87
Total perpetrators (F)	315	F	12.4
Total perpetrators with no identification of gender	14	NG	0.6

SOURCE WLSA, 2003

General profile of the Victim-perpetrator Relations – Male Victims, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala provinces, 2000-2003 Table 24

Perpetrator's kinship level	Nº Victims (M)	Perpetrator's gender	% According to kinship
Wife	175	F	20.7
Ex-wife	36	F	4.3
Girlfriend	2	F	0.2
Ex-girlfriend	3	F	0.4
Lover (F)	35	F	4.1
Others (M)	209	M	24.7
Others (F)	107	F	12.6
Kinship not shown (M)	179	M	21.2
Kinship not shown (F)	95	F	11.2
Kinship not shown (no gender)	5	NG	0.6
Total Male victims	846		
Total perpetrators (M)	423	M	50
Total perpetrators (F)	418	F	49.4
Total perpetrators with no identification of gender	5	NG	0.6

SOURCE WLSA, 2003

other male perpetrators (24.7 percent). Very often the female perpetrator and, in particular, the wife, perpetrates the violence after a complex relationship where she suffered continuous violence from the husband, or acts in self-defence. The Offices have to take this into account, since the women, besides being victims, would also be guilty. Table 25 shows the type of crime in the domestic arena where the perpetrators are the husband or the wife.

The traditional belief is that the "head of the family" has attributes that justify his behaviour, and the woman does not have the same rights adds to this problem. And there seems to be collusion as regards this value system by the people who analyse the cases in the Offices. Consequently, these aggressions (if there is no blood) are classified as a "social case" or simply as "domestic violence", without specifying the type of crime. This represents 16 percent in the cases where the husband is the perpetrator and 25 percent in the cases where the wife is deemed to be the perpetrator. The lack of specific legislation makes the assistance at the offices difficult to be fair in some cases.

In the 17-25 year age group, the female victims suffer more aggression. From this age group onwards the aggression decreases. The dynamic of frequency in male victims is different, since it increases as the age increases too. However, the percentage of aggression of female victims older than 35 years is higher (14 percent) than the male victims in the same age group (9.2 percent), even if this is the age group where they suffer a higher number of aggressions. This is only logical given the fact that the female victims represent 75 percent of the total.

The male victims between 17 to 25 years complain of physical aggression, and the perpetrators are male, identified as relatives, friends or with no reference to the kinship level or the type of relationship between them. These situations do not seem to be priorities for the Offices, especially when the

Type of crime in the Domestic Area where the perpetrator is the Husband or Wife, Maputo City, Maputo and Sofala provinces, 2000-2003

Table 25

Type of crime	Perpetrator	%	%
	Husbands	N=819	N=994
OCVS	188	22.9	19.0
OCVS/rape	1	0.1	0.1
	135	16.4	14
	29	3.5	2.9
OCVQ	1	0.1	0.1
Homicide	5	0.6	0.5
Death threat	128	15.6	12.8
Economic violence	144	17.5	14.5
Home abandonment	28	3.4	2.8
Divorce/separation	11	1.3	1.1
Social case/domestic violence	134	16.3	13.4
Without classification	15	1.8	1.5
Total husbands	819	100	82.7
OCVS	26	15	2.5
OCVQ	9	5	0.9
Frustrated homicide	1	0.6	0.1
Death threat	1	0.6	0.1
Polyandry	3	1.7	0.3
Adultery	5	3	0.5
Separation	5	3	0.5
Home abandonment	18	10.4	1.8
Abandonment of a minor	10	5.7	1.0
Moral offence/ psychological violence	21	12	2.1
Economic violence	23	13	2.3
Abuse of confidence	2	1	0.2
Social case	44	25	4.3
Witchcraft	1	0.6	0.1
Without classification	6	3.4	0.6
Total wives	175	100	17.3
Total general	994		100

SOURCE WLSA, 2003

wife or children are not involved in the case and the cases should be filed at the police stations.

The wives committed 14 percent of corporal aggression crimes, although the aggressions were considered minor. In the remaining types of aggression, they appear as the main perpetrators in issues of "domestic violence", which are still a very low percentage, in home abandonment and separation.

From the victims' general profile it can be observed that the forms of violence and perpetrators are different in each age group, and this is even more evident with women. This data though limited and not portraying the national reality on violence against women, allows us to conclude that the main victims of this type of violence are women,

and this reveals the gendered nature of the crimes.

Definition and root causes

The idea that women are subordinate to men is deeply rooted in the society and has implications on the customs and rules that regulate gender relations. Violence against women cannot be analysed outside this social and cultural standard value system. It is a structural issue, because it is anchored and comes from the system itself, which is patriarchal.

In addition, violence against women is characterized by intimidation and is a form of control to keep women limited to the subordinate roles and places allocated to them. Due to this, many perpetrators explain their behaviour as such; “she did not prepare the bath or dinner” or “she was disrespectful.” And the men justify themselves: “It is for her to learn,” “I beat her up so she can learn how she should behave.” In light of this, violence against women is deemed by some of the perpetrators to have an educational objective, because, in their view, it defines parameters and limits and controls excesses. This is clearly expressed in a testimony collected in the 90s in the city of Chimoio, where an interviewee explained domestic violence as follows: “we should beat up a woman every time she does not follow her duties, but beat with manners. Even if during one year or two the woman does not make any mistakes, she has to be beaten at least once so she does not forget. Otherwise, when there are true motives, she, who is now accustomed to not getting beaten, will rebel.”¹²⁸

Since this type of violence is rooted in gendered social relations between men and women, it is socially accepted, which in turn leads to tolerance in relation to men that attack their wives, for example. By extension it translates to tolerance in police stations, in court, and at family and community level. In a society where men head the main institutions and structures for conflict resolution, the sentences and

sanctions for violent acts against women are practically non-existent, or are very limited.

A study by Osório et al in 2001 on homicide and femicide in Mozambique noted that besides the problematic aspects related to coordination between the relevant ministry and the prisons, the defence of the accused, and the production of proof and sentences, most of the conflicts involving women are domestic, and justified by the existence of social relations determined by inequality of rights and power between men and women.

Apart from this, through the comparative analysis of homicide crimes, it was concluded that women, victims or perpetrators, have a long history of being violated by their partners and this is rarely considered an extenuating factor. On the contrary, there is a tendency to forgive men that commit the crimes against their partners since they are part of the “natural” process of marriage relations. Evidence shows that “the rule, when the man is the perpetrator, is the transformation of the crime of qualified homicide into volunteer homicide.”¹²⁹

Since violence against women in gender relations is seen as “natural”, these types of cases are not surprising at all. As D’Atri noted, “usually, any situation of violence (theft, murder, etc) gives rise to compassion for the victim, although, when a woman suffers the violence, she is generally the suspect: ‘What was she doing at that place and time? Why was she dressed like that? Did she not deserve this punishment for some reason? Maybe she was cheating on her husband? Was she not a prostitute?’ as if any of these things were enough reason for her to deserve violence!”¹³⁰

However, in spite of results of research and evidence in various cases of violence against women that have been published, the structural character of this type of violence is still denied. As a result, the policies to fight this phenomenon still aim at addressing its manifestations without tackling the root of the

problem, i.e., the inequality present in the power relations between men and women on which the patriarchal system is based.

In practical terms, it means that the actions are directed at criminalizing the perpetrator (supporting women victims of violence at the same time), but not doing anything to the societal institutions that tolerate violence against women and consider it a "normal" form of conflict resolution in marriage and other intimate relationships. In patriarchal societies such as Mozambique, the hierarchy that determines the respective places of men and women in the family leaves no doubts: the head of the family, a man, must make decisions, and the woman has to be taught to respect his decisions and remain discreet, useful, but submissive.

This strategy of focusing attention almost exclusively on criminalizing the actions of the perpetrator, which is incoherent given the nature of the phenomenon, is justified in the way violence against women became visible. In this process, two aspects are important to emphasize:

- ▢ First, as a matter of strategy, because there were no conditions to work on a multi-pronged process, women NGOs focused their information and sensitisation campaigns on domestic violence.
- ▢ Second, the cases published by the press are the ones that make "news", that is, extreme cases of domestic violence that result in serious physical harm or even death.

This way of highlighting violence against women created serious distortions, consciously or not, in the way the phenomenon is understood.

Domestic violence is understood only as "those horrible cases" of extreme violence, ignoring the incidents of humiliation, the physical assaults that do not leave any marks, the threats and intimidation, and all the small domestic incidents that mark the

everyday life of a great amount of families. The image of the perpetrator disseminated in the press and education campaigns is so grotesque that even the man that regularly beat up his wife feels consoled and can securely say, "that one is not me."

Women perpetrators are presented as insignificant individuals or psychopaths, and this does not help to find solutions to the problem, because in reality they hide inside the patriarchal model of the society in which they live. That is why violence against women is almost an invisible phenomenon, because it is considered "normal" and is not noticed. Under these conditions, the efficacy of messages from campaigns against domestic violence becomes questionable.

Apart from this, an idea exists and has been consolidated in peoples' minds that if women suffer quietly with so many violent acts at home, it is because deep down they like it or do not care. It is also said that if they reacted by fighting the injustice, possibly this phenomenon would not reach the levels registered currently.

Consent, passivity and acceptance in the end translate into complicity. The capacity of response by women has to be analysed in the context of the power relations within the family and the society. Many times, accepting an aggression quietly avoids a chain of violence, and not to report an aggression is a protective measure. The dimensions of women's resistance to the phenomenon of violence have to be studied more and understood better, or women will be made responsible for the violent situation in which they live, as if saying: "as long as you want, you will solve the problem".

A one dimensional focus on violence against women, namely domestic violence, makes it difficult to address it as a structural phenomenon, resulting from unequal power relations between men and women in our patriarchal societies. There is no talk of sexual harassment in

schools and work places, of sexual and work exploitation of women in times of war, the humiliations, thefts, rapes that women are subject to daily in the streets and other public places. All these are manifestations of violence against women and seriously limit their life options and the free exercise of their citizenship.

There is need to work on the problem of violence against women at representation level, without which it would not be possible to draw up efficient advocacy strategies to eradicate the problem. It is expecting too much to hope that just reporting and penalizing the perpetrators, even though this is the most important and priority measure, will solve the problem. Women's organisations that intend to transform the society have to make sure their approach and advocacy is not half understood or distorted by the power structures. The "recycled speeches" and the "decafinated practices" simulate intentions, give the illusion that the violence against women is a priority in national policies, but are not enough to contribute to a change.¹³¹

Law and access to justice

Since the beginning of its work, TCV faced a great obstacle, namely the lack of legal support to ensure that their work is effective. Other obstacles included the existence of practices at institutional level, that reproduce stereotyped positioning of men and women in society so as to maintain the basis for the production and reproduction of violence against women.

There are gaps in the laws and public policies and biases against women in the programmes and practices of institutions. There is bias against women that the police, attorneys, and justice administrative staff seek to work against.

With regard to violence against women, the new Family Law was seen by women's organisations, particularly those affiliated with Fórum Mulher as essential for two reasons. Firstly, it established a basis of equality between men and women

within the family, thereby contributing towards women having more autonomy in decision-making in marriage. Secondly, conditions would be created to proceed with the reform of the Penal Code, where, among others, it is intended to include the criminal sanctions for sexual harassment and marital rape.

Domestic violence is addressed in the Family Law, and is a valid ground for seeking a divorce. The fixing of the minimum marriage age at 18 years for both genders, on the other hand, prevents other forms of violence against girls, such as in premature marriages, with all the consequences arising from it.

In terms of priorities for law reform, a number of areas were identified for action. This includes drafting of a proposed law against acts of domestic violence. In the year 2000, and under the process of evaluating progress after Beijing +5, it was decided at the level of Fórum Mulher, to propose a law to focus specifically on domestic violence, which would address the absence of a specific piece of legislation responding to this phenomenon. The proposal has been finalized and is being discussed. The other priority identified is participation in the work to reform the Penal Code to make it an efficient instrument to fight violence against women in its various forms, including rape in and outside marriage, sexual harassment at the work place and in schools among others. It is intended to also introduce the term "femicide" in the law, understood as the murder of women for reasons associated with their gender; the final part of a chain of violence that ends in death. Evidence has shown that patriarchal societies have used femicide as a form of punishment and social control by men over women.

Besides the law, evidence has also shown differential access by men and women to the justice system, where women suffer several constraints. First, when it comes to domestic and marriage problems, there is a strong social sanction against the ones that opt out of this

environment. The police, whose job is to direct the complaints to court, have frequently discouraged complaints by women. There is also evidence that in some cases the police agents go against the women presenting a complaint for violence against their partner/husband.¹³² In regard to this a court worker had this to say: "At the police station, when there are cases that place women against men, men are always at an advantage."¹³³

Although the legal response is not enough to guarantee a change in the current situation, it is an essential prerequisite that will enable the development of other forms of interventions. The priority for women's NGOs involved in this advocacy is to guarantee the review of existing legal instruments and the drafting of specific laws to combat violence against women in its various dimensions.

At the level of civil society organisations, there is a growing awareness that there has to be a commitment to making serious changes that guarantee the same dignity and treatment in society for men and women, as pointed out by B. Pintos and C. Sol s in 2002, "Abuse can only be understood when the rights to integrity and freedom are recognized." Violence against women is not just one more manifestation of a patriarchal system, but it also represents the greatest lack of respect for women's human rights: it limits, controls and sometimes kills.

A change in the traditional system and rules implies a change in the social acceptance of the restriction of women's rights and a movement towards social vindication for the equality of rights, which is a different and more complex process. Equality of rights on its own, guaranteed by the law, might not be realised if not strengthened by a well-designed and resolute strategy for the change.

THE ELDERLY POPULATION

Studies conducted by competent institutions have recorded a rapid

growth of the elderly population, both in developed and developing countries, due to factors such as reduction of morbidity and mortality and the improvement of health care, among others.¹³⁴ At the African region level, an increase of between seven and 14 percent in this group of population is expected in the next 15 years. The socio-economic changes at sub-Saharan region level, accelerated by the structural adjustment policies, wars, internal migrations and the AIDS pandemic have affected the traditional systems of social security and the mechanisms of family support, leading to a marginalisation of the elderly and the decrease of family obligations towards the elderly.¹³⁵

On the other hand, the economic changes and the subsequent move from a formal market economy to an informal market and the AIDS pandemic have given a new dimension to the role of elderly. They are now responsible for caring for the grandchildren, while their parents are in the informal sector or migrate to urban areas, or have died of AIDS. This new role of the elderly has not been accompanied by an increase of resources to meet this responsibility.¹³⁶

Data from the last census shows that the population of Mozambique was 16, 99 million in 1999 and the elderly population (aged over 65 years) constitute 37 percent of the total of the sub-Saharan Africa. Mozambique has the fourth highest population of elderly in the region. On the other hand, Mozambique is a young country with 70 percent of the population being less than 17 years. Seventy-one percent of the population lives in rural areas, without adequate access to clean water, sanitation and electricity. Only 40 percent of the population has access to health care services and 33 percent to sanitary facilities, and the majority uses traditional medicine. Considering that only 1.4 million Mozambicans are in formal employment (with possibilities of access to a retirement package) and in the absence of a universal system of social security, very few of the elderly have a systematic

and permanent source of income.¹³⁷ The elderly mostly live alone and have deeply suffered the humiliating and physical effects of colonialism, obliged to work with no remuneration and under slave conditions, in the compulsory cotton and sisal fields, with no rights to basic necessities such as health, education and sanitation.¹³⁸

Contributions of the elderly to families and communities

Of the few existing studies done in Mozambique on this issue, the contributions of the elderly to their families and communities can be highlighted as follows;

- ▢ Contributions to their families;
- ▢ Care for the children;
- ▢ Traditional leaders;
- ▢ Home and traditional medicine provision;
- ▢ Agricultural fields and producing crafts;
- ▢ Teaching traditional beliefs and practices.

Relative to the community, the elderly have contributed to;

- ▢ National reconciliation;
- ▢ Support to sick and vulnerable people;
- ▢ Management and resolution of conflicts such as land and political issues;
- ▢ Teaching of cultural and traditional practices;
- ▢ Support to churches and mosques;
- ▢ Support for neighbours; and
- ▢ Involvement in the informal sector to support their families.¹³⁹

Despite this situation, recent studies revealed that the elderly face various situations that violate their basic human rights, and the main ones include:

- ▢ Lack of respect in the form of insults, intimidation, humiliation, verbal aggression, isolation;
- ▢ Lack of recognition and appreciation of their active role in the family and in the society;
- ▢ Accusations of witchcraft, especially among elderly women, resulting in expulsion

from the home or murder and dispossession of their goods/property;

- ▢ Physical violence, including as theft of their property and physical attacks;
- ▢ Violation of basic rights such as lack of access to health, precarious housing, lack of clean water and lack of familiar support;
- ▢ Material deprivation (material violence); and
- ▢ Sexual violence, including rape.

These abuses of human rights occur mainly at family level, in public spaces and in hospitals.¹⁴⁰

In one study nearly half of the interviewees indicated that half of the abuses take place within the home and is perpetrated by family members, neighbours or in-laws. This implies that women bear the brunt of this situation since they are principal care and health providers within the family. Longevity and health in Africa clearly has consequences for female workloads and work opportunities if care for the elderly is to take place within the family.¹⁴¹ It is important also to highlight the percentage of abuse occurring in hospitals, where the elderly spend hours queuing up for services.

The Third Age Forum, created in March 2002, integrating nine organisations of support to the elderly, has been developing activities with the beneficiaries in the fields of health, education, protection and housing, in order to improve the well-being of the aged. In 2002, the Programme of food subsidies, financed by the Government, with a minimum subsidy of 32,000,00 Metric Tonnes (MT) covered a total of 68,883 elderly, of which 66 percent were men and 34 percent women, both living alone and in extended families.¹⁴²

In 2003, the number of beneficiaries decreased from 80,177 to 70,083 as a consequence of subsidies revision. The minimum subsidy, however, increased from 32,000,00MT to 70,000,00MT.¹⁴³

APOSEMO (Association of the Retired of Mozambique)

Box 6

One of organisations which deal with the elderly is APOSEMO (Association of the Retired of Mozambique). APOSEMO was created in 1991 with the goal of helping the retired to get their old age pension. Now, this organisation has spread its activities to all provinces and districts and works also to provide advice to widows to get pensions as surviving spouses, training single mothers and divorced women in management of micro business, as well as cutting and sewing, and breeding of chickens amongst other activities.

APOSEMO does advocacy and lobbying within the society to raise the consciousness of the population the need to respect the old people because they add value to Mozambique society, particularly where the old have to care for the children orphaned as a the consequence of HIV and AIDS.

SOURCE Fórum Mulher, 2003

PART II

POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women

One of the critical areas included in the Beijing Platform for Action is the establishment of institutional mechanisms for promoting, monitoring, advocating for and mobilising support for policies for the advancement of the status of women.

This section analyses institutional frameworks to promote gender equality and equity established in Mozambique in the period (2000-2004). It also analyses the States' commitment to honouring instruments it has signed at both national, regional and international levels. This period under review coincides with the implementation of the 2000-2004 government's, five-year plan, which defines the need to introduce a gender perspective in the conception and analysis of policies and programmes for national development, among other different intervention strategies.

As a result of this political will and the commitment to equality between men and women, government transformed the Ministry for Co-ordination of Social Action (MICAS), created in 1994, into the Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action (MMCAS), by the Presidential Decree n°1/2000 of 17 January, with a mandate defined by the Presidential Decree n°8/2000 of 16 May.¹⁴⁴

MMCAS was tasked with leadership for co-ordination and execution of policies on women's empowerment in all areas and ensuring that the needs and interests of women become part of the country's development agenda. In order to achieve this, MMCAS established the National Directorate of Women (DNM) within the ministry and created an Operative Group for the Advancement of Women (GOAM). This precedes the

Operative Group (GO) created in 1995 as an inter-sectoral co-ordination mechanism to monitor the government's plan of action after Beijing, which preceded the 2002-2006 National Plan for the Advancement of Women.

Other mechanisms put in place to co-ordinate gender equality include the Commission of Social, Gender and Environmental Affairs (CASGA), the Office of Women Parliamentarians (both of which are from the Assembly of the Republic), the Council of Ministers, Network of Minister and Parliamentarian Women (which is still being created). Fórum Mulher is the key mechanism of co-ordination for gender equality among civil society organisations.

Mozambique also has other mechanisms for gender equality co-ordination, including donor agencies and international institutions: the latter is called the Group of Gender Donors (GDG). This group comprises gender advisers from the agencies and national observers such as Fórum Mulher and DNM. At the United Nations level, there is the Gender Thematic Group (GTG), and both groups hold regular meetings to co-ordinate activities related to gender issues.

Despite these efforts and initiatives, there are still challenges in implementation. All stakeholders, including the government, politicians and civil society need to work together to ensure the participation of women and men and to develop a common and more gender-sensitive agenda for development.

Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action

The Ministry of Women and Co-ordination of Social Action (MMCAS) was established as a national mechanism for gender equality and is led



by a Minister who is a woman, with a deputy-Minister and a national director. The structure of the ministry was defined to facilitate flexibility and co-ordination of activities at all levels within the sector at national, provincial and district levels as well as between the Ministry and other governmental and non-governmental institutions working in the area of women's rights. The National Directorate of Women and the Operative Group for the Advancement of Women (GOAM) facilitate the execution of MMCAS's mandate.

National Council for the Advancement of Women

At national level, the National Council for the Advancement of Women, which was created in 2004, integrates members of the Council of Ministers and representatives of State institutions, organisations and public and private institutions. It also extends to the provinces. The Council has 42 members at national level, and 30-35 members at provincial level.¹⁴⁵

Actions developed by GOAM and MMCAS

GOAM, being the national mechanism of co-ordination of implementation efforts, fosters the creation of Gender Units and Focal Points in all institutions, with the objective of securing the implementation of sectoral programmes from a gender perspective. Between 2000 and 2003, with the re-activation of GOAM, the process progressively included several ministries and their respective provincial directorates.

The expansion of GOAM's representation at various levels and in different sectors has been accompanied by sensitisation and capacity-building efforts. In 2001, Fórum Mulher trained more than half of GOAM members in policy analysis skills from a gender perspective. In 2003, they were trained in gender-sensitive budgeting. Another major achievement was

the production of the National Plan for the Advancement of Women (PNAM) and the impact of this process in the lobbying for a national gender policy.

MMCAS, through the National Directorate of Studies and Planning, participated actively in the technical team for the production and review of the Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty – 2001/2005 (PARPA).

The National Directorate of Women (DNM), created in 2000 heads the production of the report on the implementation of CEDAW in Mozambique and submits the reports to the United Nations. The DNM has also been involved in filling in forms to collect and update data on the situation of women and gender at national level and submits these to SADC, the Commonwealth, the Community of Portuguese Speaking Countries (CPLP), the United Nations and others; this activity has improved since the creation of the DNM. There is an ongoing process of installing a data bank, which will collect data at the provincial directorate level.¹⁴⁶

This sector has also developed efforts to facilitate the creation of the Network of Minister and Parliamentary Women.

The working group made an exchange visit to Angola and is working on a proposal for statutes for the network. Discussions are underway among the potential members of the network to elaborate on regulations to make the network a legally binding entity, including negotiations on whether the network should include individuals from civil society.

MMCAS, in partnership with other organisations has promoted sessions of sensitisation on gender issues, lobbying and advocacy, leadership for parliamentary women and women from political parties.

Constraints

- Lack of an effective system of information and internal training to capitalize on and

value the existing knowledge and experiences of gender equality;

- ▣ Absence of an integrated philosophy of gender institutionalisation;
- ▣ Limited decision-making authority among the members of the operative group before it was transformed into the National Council for the Advancement of Women;
- ▣ Limited financial and material resources; and
- ▣ Patriarchal culture and implicit or explicit resistance from men.

Challenges

- ▣ Elaboration of the MMCAS strategic plan, based on general guidelines already drafted;
- ▣ Elaboration of the gender policy;
- ▣ Establishment of the Network of Ministers and Parliamentary Women and identification of activities to be conducted by the members.

The gender units created in the ministries and subordinate institutions have undertaken actions that contribute to gradually increasing the gender-sensitiveness of employees at all levels, and to promote the inclusion of gender perspectives and analyses in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their activities. For example, in the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and under the Agriculture Development Programme (PROAGRI), efforts by the gender units and focal points in some national directorates of the Ministry and provincial directorates of agriculture and rural development, institutes and other subordinate structures, a gender perspective and gender disaggregated data have been taken into account in planning. For instance, the Annual Plans of Activities and Budgeting (PAAOs) – implementation, monitoring and evaluation of actions of the five thematic components of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MADER), namely the support to production, rural

extension, cattle-rearing, and management of agricultural land, forests and wildlife, at different levels all have a gender perspective.

This has resulted in increased efforts to prepare and adopt the use of specific gender indicators for the collection, processing and analysis of gender disaggregated data, as well as for the analysis of information obtained on gender relations and equity, not just for the activities of MADER, but also for those developed by rural communities.

The PROAGRI 1 basic document does not clearly articulate a gender perspective. The integration of gender in the programme and in MADER is mentioned, but its goals and objectives, activities towards these goals and indicators of success are not clearly stated.

It is important and necessary to increase the gender-sensitiveness and interest among the sectoral leaders so that gender activities are prioritised and receive more technical and financial support. This will ensure that the objectives are achieved. Besides the gender units, some directorates and projects have produced material for training and dissemination of information on gender issues and its integration in the different areas of agriculture and rural development.¹⁴⁷

Based on the experiences of the Ministry of Public Construction and Housing, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Ministry of Education and Ministry of Health, where gender units already exist, GOAM initiated a process of assessment from which an orientation document for gender units was produced. The document recommends a mechanism for the ministries consisting of a co-ordinator and the focal points from each directorate or department in each ministry.

According to Leontina dos Muchangos¹⁴⁸ in an interview, the roles, responsibilities and positioning of the gender unit in the decision structure at the sectoral level are not yet officially institution-

alised, but the ideal situation would be for the gender units to play an active role in issues of gender, i.e., gender mainstreaming in policies, programmes, and plans; in the development of strategies, including in issues of gender-budgeting, at all levels. Sensitisation, training and sharing of information should also be included.

Gender Focal Points

Ideally, Gender Focal Points should have experience, and also be sensitive to gender issues in the various sectors, both at national and provincial levels. They should play the role of influencing the planning processes and be catalysts in the gender equality agenda in sectoral programmes. They should be key in gender mainstreaming within their respective ministry departments. However, one of the constraints, as with the gender units, is that they are currently not institutionalised, although efforts towards their formalisation have begun and will be submitted to the relevant authorities, that is, the Ministry of State Administration and the Superior Council of Public Function.

However, the process of reforming the public sector is an opportunity to effect the institutionalisation of the GOAM, Gender Units and Focal Points in the organic frame of government sectors. Another factor that could influence the work is the contracting of people with high profiles to undertake this exercise.

Constraints

"There is no specific budget for the Gender Units in the various sectors to operate, counting only on the State Budget, which is shared by all departments/sectors. However, in the allocation of budgetary funds, the Gender Units receive the least share, probably because they have been created recently or because they are not considered important enough for the respective sectors. This creates situations where these mechanisms do not have even min-

imal conditions for operation, often lacking basic resources and materials such as paper."¹⁴⁹

Gender Donor Groups

Another mechanism that, although not Mozambican, plays an important role in the advancement of women and in gender mainstreaming in the country is the Thematic and Gender Donor Group. There is a growing number of gender advisors and focal points which are organized in thematic working groups in various embassies, to which MMCAS, Fórum Mulher and other gender institutions/organisations participate. The objective of these groups is to increase the efficiency of donor agencies in supporting the implementation of policies that promote gender equality. Another objective is to encourage gender mainstreaming in planning and implementation of policies.

Government efforts to strengthen staff capacity

The government, through the various sectors, has started to sensitise staff in decision-making positions on gender issues. In 2001 and 2002 MAE, being the institution responsible for state administration and public training, developed a kit on gender sensitisation in the labour sector, at national and provincial levels. This was directed at the Councils of the various sectors including the Ministry of Industry and Tourism (MINT), Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MADER), MMCAS and Ministry of Public Works and Housing (MOPH) and Provincial Governments. It also created a working group called Nucleus of Women in the Public Service, which focuses on issues that affect women in the public sector.

Within the sectors, there has been internally designed awareness training and capacity building for gender focal points. Examples include the work done by the Ministries of Agriculture and Rural Development, Mineral

Resources and Energy, Education and Higher Education, Women and Social Action, Planning and Finance, Public Works and Housing, including the National Administration of Roads and Electricity of Mozambique.

Parliament

The Assembly of the Republic recognizes that gender equality and equity are important strategic objectives of its work. The Assembly works to influence the approval of laws, supervises the Executive, introduces gender-perspectives in parliamentary debates and discussions and meets the needs of the electorate, most of whom are women.

To facilitate this, the Assembly created internal mechanisms in the form of working Commissions such as the Commission on Social, Gender and Environmental Affairs, and the Commission on Legal Affairs, Human Rights and Legality.¹⁵⁰ These mechanisms are responsible for the integration of environmental protection and gender equity issues, defence of human rights in general and of women in particular, in all legislation, policies, and programmes approved by the Parliament. It is important to note that a Commission on Petitions has been established to respond to the “need in accelerating the proceedings of petitions or complaints presented by the citizens, with the aim to regain their violated rights and to defend the public interest.”¹⁵¹

A lot of effort has been made by these commissions in support of the Labour Law, a law that protects the rights of workers with HIV and AIDS in the workplace. They have also supported the 2002 Children’s Parliament and the Family Law in 2003, despite some resistance from some parliamentarians who also sit on these commissions.

Sensitisation sessions and exchange visits among parliamentarians have been used as strategies towards gender analysis skills acquisition. This strategy has facili-

tated the sharing of “good practices” in gender analysis.

The Office of Parliamentary Women is still being established and is being supported by the SADC Parliamentary Forum. Its activities have not yet been concretised beyond exchange visits to other parliaments.¹⁵² Once consolidated, the office will create space for women ministers and parliamentarians to establish linkage mechanisms with women’s organisations, in order to place gender on the agenda of the Assembly of the Republic. The participation of MPs in regional training of trainers seminars and strategies for women’s empowerment in politics, organized by the SADC Gender Unit, has facilitated the interchange of experiences and good practices among women parliamentarians in the region.

However, despite the acknowledgement of gender equality and equity as crosscutting principles in development, inequalities still persist. Information collected from members of CASGA and Office of Parliamentary Women indicates that the main challenges are the lack of practical instruments to deal with gender issues, and resistance to change by some parliamentarians.

Challenges

Considering the potential role of parliament in demanding gender equality in policies and in decision-making, challenges can be viewed at three levels:

- At political party level; the parliamentarians are the authorities who should directly influence the policies, systems and procedures of candidate selection. They should assure the adoption of special measures such as quotas, as well as the use of more transparent and inclusive electoral systems.
- At parliamentary level where the laws are approved; parliamentarians should ensure the identification and amendment of discriminatory legislation, as well as the

approval of laws sensitive to gender and the empowerment of women.

- ▣ At electoral level; they should play an important role in the sensitisation of the electorate on the fact that gender equality is a human right and a democratic necessity. As respected leaders, parliamentarians are well positioned to draw the public's attention to the fact that women are capable leaders who can and should participate in decision-making processes.¹⁵³

Municipal, legislative and Presidential elections should provide activists and other parties committed to gender equality opportunities to actively affirm gender equality and promote women's rights.

Civil society

The institutional environment in which civil society organisations operate favours the promotion of gender equality through the expression of their commitment to observe and promote commitments made by the Mozambican government at regional and international levels. It is inspired by the principles of the Constitution of the Republic and in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, reaffirmed in the UN Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and in the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights.

Fórum Mulher

Fórum Mulher is one of the network organisations bringing together organisations and institutions that work for women, namely, local and international NGOs, government and research institutions, organisations of women from political parties and national and international donors.

Fórum has done several activities in partnership with various national and international organisations and institutions in and outside the country. It contributes

technical assistance, human resources, material and financial support, dissemination of information and skills and exchange of experiences in several areas.

The production and dissemination of information has been one of their key activities; from producing two bulletins, to the production of the first profile on the status of women in Mozambique *Beyond Inequalities*, and also repackaging and disseminating research data, as well as petitions related to lobby activities. One major achievement in this regard is the work done with rural women in the field of new information technologies through facilitating their access to information through telecentres.

Fórum has trained its members and professionals from different public institutions, including MMCAS and the Council of Ministers and professionals from the Formal Administration of Justice, in order to build their capacity. At the grass root levels, the organisation has the support from members and partners in various regions of the country, where they undertake sensitisation and capacity-building activities.

Fórum Mulher has acquired experience in capacity-building programmes on gender issues from working with different groups such as Ministries, the Operative Group for the Advancement of Women, Council of Ministers, Social Communication and others, and this has facilitated the formation and strengthening of partnerships.

Constraints

- ▣ Institutional weakness among NGOs; and
- ▣ Lack of sustainability programmes.

Challenges

- ▣ Re-evaluating the intervention strategies in the areas of information and communication, lobbying and advocacy, training and

institutional development, in order to establish a monitoring and evaluation system and improve the interventions;

- Developing some collaborative mechanisms with the private sector where there are some difficulties; and
- Monitoring and evaluation are practically non-existent.

Generally, the institutional mechanisms are still weak, worsened by the almost non-existent budget to support them. International agencies and civil society organisations are financing most of the social and training programmes in this area.

Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA)

PARPA can be considered as the first development plan of Mozambique, given the size of its target group – the majority of the Mozambican population.¹⁵⁴ It is a multi-sectoral plan that places emphasis on social sectors including macro-economic aspects. Its analysis is extremely important because of its institutional framework, which is a planning instrument in the medium-term towards a focus on poverty reduction through the Medium-Term Fiscal Scenario (CFMP). PARPA is referenced in the Social and Economic Plan and in the State Budget.

Despite the good intentions by the government to reduce poverty and attain gender equality, some weaknesses have been observed in the PARPA, particularly regarding gender and vulnerability issues. The six priority areas advanced in the PARPA are only analysed in terms of their macro-level effects on demographic and economic growth. Although the poor in Mozambique suffer from a high degree of vulnerability to natural disasters and economic shocks, there is little mention of natural disasters, food security, nor HIV and AIDS and the relation of these issues to gender in the action plan.

The question of “who the poor are” is not adequately addressed, yet poverty affects women and men differently. PARPA’s model of poverty assessment does not provide sufficient gendered information to ensure that the Plan was based on a thorough understanding of what drives poverty. Overall, the content of the PARPA is weak on gender, with comments limited to only certain sectors without an understanding of how gender is relevant to all others. The last “Poverty Observatory” (a consultative forum, which includes the Government, Civil Society, NGO’s and International Partners), working on accompanying PARPA’s goals and actions, recommended the introduction of cross cutting issues, such as HIV and AIDS and gender. Meanwhile, gender specialists have participated in debates to review PARPA, in order to ensure gender is effectively mainstreamed.

Follow-up activities such as poverty reduction strategies aimed at implementing the Beijing Platform For Action, a comprehensive framework for gender equality and the empowerment of women, with particular reference to poverty reduction, are also essential. There is generally a need to promote gender equality as an MDG goal in its own right and use it to link the PARPA and budgets to international commitments on gender. The collection, use and analysis of sex-disaggregated data needs to be prioritised.

Health policies and programmes

A number of initiatives aimed at providing accessible health services to the population have been put in place. The government’s emphasis has been mainly on primary health care, focusing on combating major epidemics, improving the network of basic health facilities, developing human resources and improving planning and management for the sector.

Other initiatives in the health sector include the establishment of a gender nucleus, an advisor in

the office of the minister, the evaluation of the health Strategic Plan from a gender perspective, and the adoption of a gender mainstreaming strategy to integrate gender as a category in policies and programmes.¹⁵⁵ In addition, the development of the National Strategy against STI/HIV and AIDS is also an indication that special attention has been given to the HIV and AIDS pandemic.

Training of health professionals, mainly the training of health trainers is also a policy priority area and a number of training sessions have already taken place at various levels. However, at planning level, the data is still not disaggregated to allow for an accurate analysis, except in the area of mother-child health, and recently in the area of HIV and AIDS.

Food security and nutritional strategy

The Food Security and Nutrition Strategy (ESAN) was established in 1998 to promote food availability and improve access and utilisation of food by families. At the World Food Summit in 1996, Mozambique committed to reduce malnutrition to 50 percent by 2015. Malnutrition, anaemia, goitre, *avitaminosis A* and pellagra are the most common public problems associated with the community food and nutritional situation, worsened by malaria and other parasitic diseases. It is estimated that 27 percent of children in Mozambique suffer from malnutrition, of which 55 percent suffer from chronic malnutrition.

The strategy aims to establish activities to co-ordinate government policies in this regard. It has three dimensions, namely the maximisation of economic growth and food security in the long-term, the allocation of resources to secure the immediate solution to problems, and the utilisation of scarce resources.

Education

Law n° 6/92 establishes the political framework of the National Education System (SNE) for all,

without gender discrimination at all levels. The National Education Policy and Implementation Strategies produced in 1995 acknowledge education as a fundamental instrument for economic growth and social development, which in turn promotes the well being of individuals and contributes to poverty reduction.

Recognizing the inequalities in educational opportunities between girls and boys, the National Education Policy and Implementation Strategies identified access to education especially by the girl-child, and gender equality as fundamental guidelines to be observed by all sub-sectors of the MINED.¹⁵⁶

The Education Strategic Plan (PEE) is Government's programme platform for the education sector and focuses on human resources, infrastructure, and curricula development. The first PEE was introduced in 1998 for the period 1999-2003. The second PEE, designed for the period 2004-2008, was prepared and analysed under widely agreed common objectives, both at the global level (Millennium Development Goals – MDGs)¹⁵⁷ and at the national level (Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty–PARPA), Annual Economic and Social Plan (PES) and the Framework for Performance Evaluation (PAF) of PARPA.¹⁵⁸

Mozambique is still committed to the goal of universal primary education, reaffirmed in 1990, which aims to integrate all children in the education system. Important also is that the goal of universal education is to increase female enrolment at all levels.¹⁵⁹ PEE II (2004-2008) aims to increase access to education and improve retention, with particular attention to the reduction of age and gender regional inequalities. The proposal of the PEE review was guided by the government's policy commitments in three main areas, namely:

- To reduce absolute poverty;
- To secure justice and gender equity; and

▣ To fight against HIV and AIDS. MINED created Gender Units (GU), at national, provincial and district level, to co-ordinate the sector's activities in this area in a bid to promote justice and gender equity. Among the Working Groups created for eight thematic areas of MINED, there is the Working Group (GT) for Access and Gender. The Action Plan for the Integration of the Gender Perspective (PAIPG) was created in PEE 1999-2003.¹⁶⁰ MINED's GU, monitors the implementation process of the strategic programmes aimed at promoting access, retention and improvement of school performance of girls in particular, in the different areas of education. MINED intends to secure the training of members from the GU, so that gender is reflected in all components of PEE. The findings of the evaluation of the gender and education programme in Mozambique are incorporated in the PEE review process. The need to revitalize the GU at all levels was considered so that they are capable of implementing programmes to promote the access and participation of girls in school. These include:

- ▣ To identify objectives and quantitative goals for gender;
- ▣ To identify successful experiences of the integration of girls and disseminate them to all;
- ▣ To urgently undertake the integration of a gender perspective in PEE;
- ▣ To identify someone to assume the responsibility of implementing the recommendations on gender, on a full-time basis; and
- ▣ To include a gender perspective in the strategic plan to fight and prevent HIV and AIDS, taking into consideration the higher vulnerability of girls at all levels of education.

The impact of GU's work became noticeable through the change of attitudes and behaviour

in the education system. Capacity-building seminars were done for teachers of Basic, Technical and Secondary Education, in subjects of Gender, Education and Development, and orientation and counselling in order to create conducive conditions for teaching and learning about gender. These seminars took place simultaneously with sensitisation programmes on the prevention and fight against STDs and HIV and AIDS. The strategy for gender equity in the education sector defines as some of its goals the need to reach gender equity in education in terms of access, quality, and institutional capacity.¹⁶¹

Through the Strategic Plan for Education (PEE II), the government will proceed with a series of diversified initiatives, in order to support the enrolment and retention of girls in schools. The main strategies include financial support to women for their enrolment to teachers' training. In addition, the new curricula will sensitise both students and teachers on gender issues, and the new school buildings or schools' rehabilitation will be designed in such a way to ensure the needed comfort and security of women, teachers and other staff.

Apart from these initiatives, the government has committed to take strict measures to secure increased numbers of female teachers in the basic education system. This commitment applies to the whole educational system. The main challenges in terms of access include the strengthening of initiatives for education of girls in EP2 and ESG and in some districts. Under the revitalisation of the Zones of Pedagogical Interference (ZIPs), orientation and counselling modules have been produced for ZIPs and IMAPs co-ordinators and gender and education modules for Basic Education teachers. MINED is concerned about the gap in intermediate grades in primary education, because the percentage of girls is lower than that of boys.

In relation to the ongoing strategic options to increase the number of female teachers in rural areas, some work has been done to improve the living and working conditions of teachers, including the construction of houses for female teachers. Apart from that, effort has also been by the education structures to sensitise and mobilise EP2 and Secondary Education graduates to take up teaching as a career and receive placement in their zones of origin. Quotas were also established to promote the enrolment of girls in the Training Centres for Primary Education Teachers (CFPPs) and Institutes of Primary Teaching (IMAPs). Mechanisms have been implemented to improve the living conditions in the CFPPs.¹⁶²

The policies defined in 1995 and strengthened in 2002 through the development of a strategic plan have resulted in great success in this sector. However, there are still several gaps not addressed in the policies, including:

- ▣ Sexual harassment of female students by teachers;
- ▣ Rape of female students by teachers and resultant pregnancy, with no punishment for the rapist;
- ▣ Lack of mechanisms to strictly enforce the law to ensure punishment for those who sexually harass and molest minors, especially in schools; and
- ▣ Lack of gender balance among the teaching staff.

Apart from the government, international organisations and governments, academia, NGOs, churches, associations and individuals continue to participate and contribute to activities to keep girls in schools. These include specific extra-curricular activities aimed at educating the girls, sensitising the teachers and parents, distribution of snacks at schools and some groceries for the girls to take home, as well as offering scholarships for girls. Institutions also collaborate

in the provision and promotion of literacy and adult education programmes, professional training and technical capacity building. As a result, the expansion of the school and literacy network to the rural areas and long distance education have contributed to higher levels of education among the population, with more participation of women and girls.¹⁶³

Education, HIV and AIDS

The MINED 2004 programme of action makes reference to plans to support and improve schools, through guaranteeing the expansion of access, improving the quality of education, and developing institutional capacity at all levels. This support will establish centres for counselling and fight against HIV and AIDS, in collaboration with health centres in schools.¹⁶⁴

ICT Policy

This policy document includes a chapter entitled "Women and Youth," with references to the following aspects:

- ▣ Inclusion of a gender perspective in projects on ICTs;
- ▣ Promotion of the use of ICTs as tools to reduce and eliminate inequalities between men and women in access to education, land, employment opportunities, and other social benefits;
- ▣ Provision of incentives for the integration of women and youth in the structures and processes of planning and decision on the use of ICTs;
- ▣ Establishment of special training and qualification programmes for girls and youth in the area of ICTs; and
- ▣ Promotion of the creation of electronic networks and websites of organisations focusing on the advancement of women and youth.

In partnership with the UEM, Fórum Mulher has developed training activities for women and youth in the areas where the tele-

centres are, with very encouraging and positive results on literacy and information on agricultural prices. The main difficulties in the implementation of this policy include the costs of telecommunications for the operation of electronic mail and internet which has largely been financed to date by international agencies who support the integration of women in the use of ICTs.

Social policy of the elderly

The objective of this policy is to promote and defend the fulfilment of the rights of the elderly. Aging is a multidimensional phenomenon, demanding a multidisciplinary and intersectorial approach so as to fully understand and integrate the physiological and psychological needs of the elderly. Aging also has a critical socio-economic dimension. Approved in 2002, the policy identifies the following as key issues of concern for the elderly:

- ▢ Preparation for retirement;
- ▢ Health and nutrition;
- ▢ Education and training;
- ▢ Protection of the elderly;
- ▢ Social action;
- ▢ Economic security;
- ▢ Housing;
- ▢ Foreign affairs and co-operation;
- ▢ Transport; and
- ▢ Culture.

Strategies proposed to deal with the challenges faced by the elderly include the protection of elderly women in prison, the reform of legislation so that it protects the

them from abuse, access to justice, citizen education especially for youth to respect the elderly, the inter-generation link and defence of the economic security of the elderly and protecting their right to land through the Land Law.

Adolescents and youth programmes

The programme of School Health for Youth and Adolescents (SEA) was established in 1996 as a component of the Integrated National Plan of the Department of Community Health, and its target group is the six-24 years old population, i.e. children of school age (six-nine years), adolescents (10-19 years) and youth (15-24 years).

The programme aims to reduce morbidity and mortality in this group, promoting necessary practices for a healthy life through integrated, preventive, and curative activities from the community up to the referral levels of health services.

Within SEA, the component dealing with adolescents uses a multi-sectoral approach to articulate its activities. The programme produced a Health Policy document on the adolescent. This document provides guidelines for activities that support health and the reproductive rights of the adolescents and youth, and it was produced in response to recommendations from several international conferences, including in Africa.

PART III

THE WAY FORWARD

From the situation analysis in Part I and the analysis of the policies adopted to date in Part II, it can be concluded that there have been significant developments in all sectors in the recognition of the role of women in society and their increased integration in several spheres such as education, commerce, communication and others.

However, a lot still needs to be done to realise full gender equality, given the rights and principles established in the various laws.

The gender policies developed and adopted in government and non-governmental institutions have not translated to measurable results. Cultural stereotypes, sexual discrimination and subordination of women still exist. Challenging gender inequalities is a delicate process, which threatens power relations that are rooted in traditions, customs and cultural beliefs and cannot be changed overnight. The debates ensuing from the enactment of the Family Law in the media and in parliament illustrate this.

The challenges and priorities presented for the future refer essentially to the following areas:

- ▣ Creation of conditions for the existence of gender disaggregated data in all sectors;
- ▣ The need for professional and intellectual training in gender issues, mainly for politicians and decision-makers in public administration and organisations. This is especially because decision-makers do not seem to appreciate the importance of gender equality, although they have made commitments towards it. Social movements should build strategies for the production and dissemination of information

and sensitisation of institutional agents on gender.

- ▣ Women's sexual and reproductive health: the need to decriminalize abortion and for the Government to provide better health care, in general, and reproductive care in particular.
- ▣ HIV and AIDS deserves particular attention to counter the current situation of feminisation of this pandemic, in the following aspects:
 - ▣ the current process of judicial reform should be done from a gender perspective with emphasis on penalising gender discrimination, particularly in the penal area.
 - ▣ The Family Law should be widely disseminated in the whole country.
- ▣ Particular attention should be given to enacting the Law Against Acts of Domestic Violence, and the issue of sexual abuse of minors and sexual harassment in the work place.
- ▣ Social movements in the country should reflect and act on global trade developments and their implications on gendered participation in trade, particularly for women. This will prove beneficial for peasant women, who comprise 85 percent of all peasants, to enable them to exercise their rights and ensure their access to resources.
- ▣ The Poverty Observatory, recently created in Mozambique, and incorporating various government and non-government bodies, should provide space to secure the effective allocation of financial resources to the sectors that contribute to poverty eradication.



PART IV

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- 162 Idem, 2002; 2003
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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.

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 equally 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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TANZANIA GENDER NETWORKING
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**List of participants to the validation seminar of the
Beyond Inequalities: Women in Mozambique draft report,
29 September 2004, Fórum Mulher offices, Maputo**

Table 26

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APPENDIX 3

