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# CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREFACE</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART 1:</strong> TIPS FOR SUCCESSFUL GENDER TRAINING</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. TRAINING METHODOLOGIES</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. CREATING A POSITIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART 2:</strong> GENDER TRAINING MODULES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module 1: WHAT IS GENDER? AN EXPLANATION OF GENDER CONCEPTS</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Objectives of the module</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Target groups</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Gender concepts</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module 2: GENDER MAINSTREAMING</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Objective of the module</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Target groups</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 What is gender mainstreaming?</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Why is gender mainstreaming important?</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 National policy context</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Gender activity clock for the family</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Gender analysis</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Frameworks for gender analysis</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Developing a gender mainstreaming strategy</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10 Key challenges for gender mainstreaming</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11 Case studies</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12 Resources</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module 3: GENDER, POVERTY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Objective of the module</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Target groups</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 What is poverty?</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 Why is gender, poverty and rural development important?</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 The effects of poverty</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 What is rural development?</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 Gender dimensions of rural poverty</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8 Action on poverty and rural development</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.9 Resources</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Module 4: GENDER BALANCE IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING ........................................... 57
4.1 Objective of the module ........................................................................................................ 57
4.2 Target groups .......................................................................................................................... 57
4.3 What is gender balance in education and training? .............................................................. 57
4.4 Legal framework ..................................................................................................................... 58
4.5 Policy framework .................................................................................................................... 59
4.6 Gender balance in education – the facts .............................................................................. 60
4.7 Gender biased attitudes, practices and beliefs of society towards education ...................... 63
4.8 Sexuality education .................................................................................................................. 66
4.9 Strategies for gender balance in education .......................................................................... 67
4.10 Case study ................................................................................................................................ 68
4.11 Resources .............................................................................................................................. 70

Module 5: GENDER AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH .................................................. 73
5.1 Objective of the module ........................................................................................................ 73
5.2 Target groups .......................................................................................................................... 73
5.3 What is reproductive health? ................................................................................................. 73
5.4 Why is gender and reproductive health important? ............................................................ 74
5.5 Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and HIV/AIDS ...................................................... 79
5.6 Family planning (male and female) ....................................................................................... 84
5.7 Maternal health and fertility .................................................................................................. 93
5.8 Abortion .................................................................................................................................. 96
5.9 Gender and decision-making on sexual and reproductive health issues ......................... 98
5.10 Resources .............................................................................................................................. 99

Module 6: GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE ........................................................................ 103
6.1 Objective of the module ........................................................................................................ 103
6.2 Target groups .......................................................................................................................... 103
6.3 What is gender-based violence? ............................................................................................ 103
6.4 Why is gender-based violence important? ........................................................................... 107
6.5 Domestic violence ................................................................................................................ 108
6.6 Rape ....................................................................................................................................... 116
6.7 Child abuse ............................................................................................................................ 121
6.8 Closing story .......................................................................................................................... 122
6.9 Resources .............................................................................................................................. 123

Module 7: GENDER AND ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT ........................................ 127
7.1 Objective of the module ........................................................................................................ 127
7.2 Target groups .......................................................................................................................... 127
7.3 What is economic empowerment? ....................................................................................... 127
7.4 Why is gender and economic empowerment important? ................................................... 128
7.5 Legal framework ................................................................................................................... 129
7.6 Women’s economic activities ............................................................................................... 133
7.7 Women’s unpaid work ........................................................................................................... 136
7.8 The budget as a tool for change ......................................................................................... 139
7.9 Engendering microfinance as a means of economic empowerment .................................... 143
7.10 Proposal writing for women’s groups ................................................................................ 146
7.11 Resources .............................................................................................................................. 147

Module 8: GENDER BALANCE IN POWER AND DECISION-MAKING .................... 151
8.1 Objective of the module ........................................................................................................ 151
8.2 Target groups .......................................................................................................................... 151
8.3 Women I admire ...................................................................................................................... 151
8.4 Why should women be leaders? ........................................................................................... 152
8.5 Why is gender balance in power and decision-making important? ..................................... 152
8.6 Power relations ....................................................................................................................... 152
8.7 Legal framework ................................................................................................................... 155
8.8 Perceptions of political power sharing ............................................................................... 156
8.9 Statistics on women in decision-making ............................................................................ 158
8.10 Women in traditional authorities ....................................................................................... 161
8.11 Motivational talks by role models on leadership ................................................................. 162
8.12 Resources .............................................................................................................................. 162
Namibians will never be truly liberated in our beautiful land while gender inequality limits the capacity for development of over half of our population.

The Namibian Constitution enshrines gender equality, and many laws have been passed which give substantive meaning to this laudable concept.

The National Gender Policy 1997 and the National Gender Mainstreaming Plan have provided a clear and visionary framework for the transformation of gender relations. Some ministries have risen to the challenge and created gender mainstreaming policies and plans.

However women are still struggling for true liberation. Women are still the face of poverty in Namibia. Women are still struggling against discrimination in schools, workplaces and in the home. Women and girls are still exposed to and intimidated by the threat of sexual abuse and violence.

Gender equality is a pre-requisite for sustainable development. If men and women do not have equality in the social, economic and cultural spheres of life, development will be limited.

More practical strategies and resources are required to inform, educate, and train our communities and those working with them on how to empower girls and women.

This Gender Training and Resource Guide is a tool for empowerment. It combines facts, resources and action-orientated exercises designed to understand, challenge and address inequality in all aspects of life.

It is a truly Namibian Guide – speaking to us about our experience – and how we can transform our lives.

This Gender Training and Resource Guide would not have been possible without financial support from UNDP and Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES). We thank them for their generous assistance. The Legal Assistance Centre completed the first draft prepared by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare. We thank them for the professionalism and creativity they brought to bear in the task of producing this fundamental tool for our transformation process.

Marlene Mungunda
MINISTER OF GENDER EQUALITY AND CHILD WELFARE
INTRODUCTION

This Gender Training Manual and Resource Guide is intended to be used by personnel from the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare as well as by other relevant stakeholders to guide them in conducting gender sensitization and related workshops.

The manual will help the facilitators and participants to understand the concept of gender and to apply gender analysis to issues such as violence against women and children, sexual and reproductive health and environment among others.

The guide has two parts. **Part One** contains tips on training for workshop facilitators. This part of the guide explains different training techniques and gives advice on conducting successful training sessions. **Part Two** contains thirteen modules. Eleven modules reflect the main subject areas in the National Gender Policy. There is also one module on Gender Mainstreaming and one module on Monitoring and Evaluation. These modules can be used independently or in combination with each other, depending on the trainer’s knowledge and planned workshop. The modules in this manual are presented in the same order as the topics appear in the National Gender Policy, but they can be used for training sessions in any order.

Note that the “target groups” in each module are suggestions only. Each trainer should identify the key target groups for each topic in the relevant sector or community. For example, if “sugar daddies” are a destructive phenomenon in a particular community, the trainer may want to consider how to involve men from that community in a training workshop, and not just boys and girls, teachers, parents and leaders as suggested in the module on the girl child.

There is a list of resources at the end of each chapter. This list includes publications and organisations which are relevant to the topic discussed. These lists are not intended to be comprehensive. They are intended as starting points to assist trainers and participants who want to study a particular topic more deeply.
INTRODUCTION

Part 1

TIPS FOR SUCCESSFUL GENDER TRAINING
1. TRAINING METHODOLOGIES

This section discusses guidelines for training techniques. Each of the modules in Part Two of the manual includes training exercises, but as a facilitator you should feel free to adapt these or to create new ones based on your experience.

The materials in the modules are designed to avoid a lecturing presentation style. The training approach in this manual encourages interactive and participatory learning by participants. This is because adults remember:

- 30% of what they hear
- 40% of what they see
- 70% of what they find out for themselves.

Adults learn best:

- if they want and need to
- by linking learning to past, present or future experience
- by practicing what they have been taught
- with help and guidance
- in an informal and non-threatening environment.

If the facilitator appears open and succeeds in creating a friendly atmosphere, the participants will be more willing to actively engage with the issues, disclose their feelings, ask questions, and participate in the discussions.

The following are some of the different training methods that you can use:

Role plays

Role plays present participants with a situation to act out in front of the group. They are spontaneous and stem from the individual’s personal experience or perceptions of the topic or character. This is a technique that gives people an opportunity to assume the role of another person – to feel like, behave like, and sound like someone else. Role-playing has no set outcome, but is built on a set scenario. It allows participants to ‘try out’ a kind of behavior, express a feeling, or experience a point of view. Following the role play, the trainer should lead a guided discussion on relevant aspects of the role play. Discussions can consist of participants’ emotional responses, opinions, misconceptions, and comments on the ‘characters’ and the situation in the role play. You might want to do the same role play more than once and ask participants to take different parts, to sensitise them to the different points of view in a single situation.
Brainstorming

Brainstorming allows the facilitator to collect and assemble participants’ knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs in an informal and spontaneous manner. Often this assembly of information combines for a comprehensive whole. Brainstorming gets participants thinking at the same time about the same topic, setting a foundation for discussion. Following the brainstorming session, the facilitator must lead a guided discussion of relevant aspects of the topic, clarify misconceptions, complete and complement information, expound on the subject or develop the ideas, such as through prioritisation or by developing an action plan.

To facilitate brainstorming, the facilitator should remember the following tips:

1. Don’t criticise anyone’s suggestions during the brainstorming.
2. Don’t alter or edit the ideas. Take them just as they come.
3. Encourage far-fetched ideas. They may trigger more practical ones.
4. The more, the better. Don’t stop until the group runs out of ideas.
5. Record all ideas as they are presented on a flip chart or a chalkboard where everyone can read them.

Discussions

Through discussion, participants share facts and thoughts to clarify their own ideas and to better understand the feelings and values of others. A well-informed group makes for a more fruitful exchange. Stimulating questions add direction.

Lectures

A lecture is a structured and orderly presentation of information, opinion, theory, or fact delivered by an individual speaker. It is a fairly formal teaching technique. Lectures and talks should be used sparingly – they are particularly useful to introduce topics and to present more technical information. Despite the somewhat more formal style of lectures, they can involve participant interaction and contribution by allowing time for comments, questions and feedback. The creative use of visual aids can help capture audience attention.

Films

Films provide an alternative training medium. The use of films will depend on the availability of appropriate films, as well as electronic equipment, venue, and utilities. If the trainer has access to the necessary resources, films frequently provide a fine complement to the curriculum. Note that it is not necessary to show an entire film – an extract can be viewed and used as the basis for discussion.

Films can be used to introduce new topics, to supplement work in process, or to summarise a subject. They can dramatise an event by involving the viewer in the action, and by engaging the viewer’s emotions. Careful selection, review, and preparation are essential. In selecting a film, it is important to first view the film yourself, then consider:

1. Does the film fulfill a particular purpose?
2. Are the situations relevant?
3. Are the content and the required comprehension level appropriate for your audience?
4. Could the major points of the film be addressed more effectively through another medium (book, chart, etc.)?
5. What supplementary materials do you need to prepare for pre- and post-film discussion?
Story telling

Stories can be tools for teaching. They help bring ideas to life. Story telling is useful because it lets us put new ideas in a familiar yet adventurous setting. It allows people to see how new and old ideas fit together in specific situations. Also, stories are a traditional form of learning that most people have experienced since childhood. Some stories teach a lesson, or moral, which is stated at the end. These can be make-believe stories with animals, imaginary stories about people, or true stories. Some stories do not give any simple answers or morals, but instead point to existing problems.

Sample story

This story is fun yet provocative.

**WHAT DO WOMEN REALLY WANT?**

Young King Arthur was ambushed and imprisoned by the monarch of a neighbouring kingdom. The monarch could have killed him, but was moved by Arthur’s youthful happiness. So he offered him freedom, as long as he could answer a very difficult question. Arthur would have a year to figure out the answer; if, after a year, he still had no answer, he would be killed.

The question was: What do women really want?

Such a question would perplex even the most knowledgeable man, and, to young Arthur, it seemed an impossible query. Well, since it was better than death, he accepted the monarch’s proposition to have an answer by year’s end. He returned to his kingdom and began to poll everybody: the princess, the prostitutes, the priests, the wise men, the court jester.

In all, he spoke with everyone but no one could give him a satisfactory answer. What most people did tell him was to consult the old witch, as only she would know the answer. The price would be high, since the witch was famous throughout the kingdom for the exorbitant prices she charged. The last day of the year arrived, and Arthur had no alternative but to talk to the witch. She agreed to answer his question, but he’d have to accept her price first.

The old witch wanted to marry Gawain, the most noble of the Knights of the Round Table and Arthur’s closest friend! Young Arthur was horrified: she was hunchbacked and awfully hideous, had only one tooth, smelled like sewage water, often made obscene noises...

He had never run across such a repugnant creature. He refused to force his friend to marry her and have to endure such a burden.

Gawain, upon learning of the proposal, spoke with Arthur. He told him that nothing was too big a sacrifice compared to Arthur’s life and the preservation of the Round Table.

Hence, their wedding was proclaimed, and the witch answered Arthur’s question: What a woman really wants is to be able to be in charge of her own life.

Everyone instantly knew that the witch had uttered a great truth and that Arthur’s life would be spared. And so it went. The neighbouring monarch spared Arthur’s life and granted him total freedom.
What a wedding Gawain and the witch had! Arthur was torn between relief and anguish. Gawain was proper as always, gentle and courteous. The old witch put her worst manners on display. She ate with her hands, belched and farted, and made everyone uncomfortable.

The wedding night approached: Gawain, steeling himself for a horrific night, entered the bedroom. What a sight awaited! The most beautiful woman he’d ever seen lay before him! Gawain was astounded and asked what had happened.

The beauty replied that since he had been so kind to her (when she’d been a witch), half the time she would be her horrible, deformed self, and the other half, she would be her beautiful maiden self. Which would he want her to be during the day and which during the night?

What a cruel question? Gawain began to think of his predicament: During the day a beautiful woman to show off to his friend, but at night, in the privacy of his home, an old spooky witch? Or would he prefer having by day a hideous witch, but by night a beautiful woman to enjoy many intimate moments?

What would you do? What Gawain chose follows below, but don’t read his answer until you’ve made your own choice.

Noble Gawain replied that he would let her choose for herself.

Upon hearing this, she announced that she would be beautiful all the time, because he had respected her and had let her be in charge of her own life.

Case studies

Simply written, short, practical and realistic case studies will help thinking, analysis, “for and against” discussion and genuine efforts to find solutions to problems.

Sample case study

Here is a case study from Module 3 on Education and Training.

Cornelia is an 11-year-old San girl. Her parents did not go to school, and they say that education teaches the young to disrespect their elders. The family lives in a village many kilometers from the nearest school. The authorities have arranged for Cornelia to start school and live in the school hostel. The school and hostel fees will be waived because of the family’s poverty. Cornelia has now started Grade 1. Her young classmates tease her for being so much older and bigger than they are. Cornelia has no money – she cannot even buy sanitary towels. She is miserable. Her parents say if she leaves the school and comes home, they will arrange a marriage for her soon.

What can be done to help in this situation?

Group work

Divide people into small groups so they can discuss an issue in depth, create an action plan, design a role play – or any other activity. Make sure that the group’s activity and expected outcome are VERY clear before the group work begins.
Quizzes

Quizzes can be a way of checking what people already know about a subject, or testing what they have learned in the training. Asking people to do the quiz in pairs generates more discussion.

SAMPLE QUIZ: Is this domestic violence?

This quiz comes from Module 5 on Violence against Women and Children.

To check if participants have understood the types of domestic violence and the need for there to be a “domestic relationship”, ask the following questions under the heading: Is this domestic violence and if so, what kind of abuse is it?

1. A child has been naughty and his mother refuses to give him pocket money that week.  
   (Answer: No. This is not economic abuse – domestic violence is not about petty things or about parents reasonably punishing children.)

2. A teenage girl finishes a relationship with a boy. The ex-boyfriend follows her around, watching who she talks to and where she goes.  
   (Answer: Yes. This is harassment.)

3. A woman is living with a man. She says she doesn’t want to have sex with him because he has other girlfriends. He says unless she has sex with him he will have sex with her daughter.  
   (Answer: Yes. This is sexual abuse and intimidation.)

4. A boss says she will not promote her male assistant unless he has sex with her.  
   (Answer: No. These two people are not in a domestic relationship, but this would be sexual harassment under the new Labour Act, 2004 – not yet in force as of June 2006.)

Reviews

It is essential to check what participants have learned. If the training takes place over more than one day, split the group into small teams and ask different teams to present what happened yesterday morning or yesterday afternoon. A quicker method is to ask each individual “what did we do yesterday/earlier? What did you learn?”

2. CREATING A POSITIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

An essential step in an effective training learning session is to create an environment in which participants feel comfortable, safe and motivated to participate. You can do this in a number of ways:

- by arranging the room or area where you are training so that it is conducive to participation
- by conducting some warm-up activities to set the tone
- by listening carefully to participants, accepting the fact that they may experience some initial discomfort
- by answering participants’ questions honestly
- by talking about yourself as a person in appropriate ways
- by setting clear ground rules.
Room set-up

- Check that chairs are in an appropriate pattern. Rows of chairs are not good for training. The two best patterns are a “V” shape with the wide part of the “V” towards the trainer, or a horseshoe shape (if there are more than 12 participants).
- Check the temperature and noise levels – can you adjust them?
- Is drinking water available?

Warm-up activities

At their best, warm-up activities break the ice, decrease tension, help participants get to know one another, and increase energy for the upcoming program. Participants find out through experience that they will have fun while they learn. But at their worst, warm-ups can be embarrassing and inappropriate. Consider your audience carefully – especially noting if there are people with disabilities who might be excluded if you use certain warm-ups. If possible, make warm-up activities relate to the programme to come. Below are two suggestions for warm-ups.

**WARM-UP QUIZ**

Give the participants a list of questions. They must walk around the room and talk to everyone there to find the answers. This is a sample quiz for social workers for a workshop on domestic violence:

1. Who in this room has been a social worker for the longest time?
2. Who in this room has been a social worker for the shortest time?
3. Who had to travel the furthest distance to come here?
4. Who has the most children?
5. What are all the types of domestic violence listed in the Combating of Domestic Violence Act?

**WARM-UP QUESTIONS**

Each participant is asked to say his or her name and to think of 3 important questions they could be asked about their life. Then they should write the answers to these questions on a flip chart. The other participants experiment with different questions to find out what questions the words are answering.

For example the participant writes:
- 12 years
- Opuw
- mother.

Participants can ask (for example):
- How old is your oldest child?
- How long have you been married?
- Where were you born?
- Where are you working now?
- Who is the most important person in your life?
Ground rules

Equally important in setting the tone is the establishment of ground rules. Ground rules help participants behave in ways that are respectful of one another, feel safe to express their honest feelings or pose questions that they might be afraid to ask. They help you as the trainer, because if participants “misbehave”, other participants will often point this out – if not, you should!

SOME RECOMMENDED GROUND RULES

1. No insults or teasing.
2. Respect other people’s opinions.
3. There are no stupid questions.
5. Punctuality.
6. If someone doesn’t feel comfortable talking about a topic, they can pass.
7. No “mini meetings” (small groups chatting whilst in main session).

Evaluation

All workshops should be evaluated by both the participants and the trainer. The participants get the chance to evaluate what they have learned, and to give valuable feedback to the trainer about how the training could have been improved. The trainer gets the opportunity to find out how the participants experienced the training, and to gain insights into how to improve such workshops in the future. The trainer’s evaluation is also an opportunity to note interesting comments or stories which may be followed up in the future.

For some communities, a verbal evaluation may be best. Ask “what was good about the workshop?” and “what could have been improved?” and write the answers on a flipchart. Anonymous written evaluations may work best for the participants in other groups. Below are sample evaluation forms for participants and trainers.

EVALUATION FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Combating of Domestic Violence Act 2003  
Training for social workers  
Venue: Windhoek Country Club  
Date: 11th May 2006

1. Overall, did the training meet your expectations? □ Yes □ Partly □ Not at all
   Comments: ..................................................................................................................................................

2. Are any parts of the Combating of Domestic Violence Act still unclear? If yes, which parts?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................

3. How was the facilitator?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................

4. How could the training have been improved?
   ........................................................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................................................

Thank you for completing the form.
EVALUATION FORM FOR TRAINER

1. **Overall topic(s) of workshop**

2. **Facilitators and their specific topic** (eg topic they gave input on) or **role** (eg small group facilitator, interpreter):
   - Name: .......................................................  Topic/role: .......................................................
   - Name: .......................................................  Topic/role: .......................................................

3. **Location of workshop** (town and region):

4. **Information on participants**
   - Number of men: ........    Number of women: ........
   - Specific target group (if any) (eg police, social workers, traditional leaders):
   - Language(s) of workshop participants: .................................................................
   - Approximate age range of participants: .................................................................

5. **Length of workshop** (in hours or days): ............................................................

6. **Language(s) used in presentation of workshop**: .................................................

7. **Materials used** (type of material and language)

8. **Feedback on materials used**
   - a) What information should be added to the materials?
   - b) Was any information unclear?
   - c) How did the participants respond to the illustrations?
   - d) What other materials or languages were requested/needed?

9. **Issues raised by participants**
   - a) Summarise key questions asked by participants on any topic, regardless of whether these relate to the subject of the workshop or to some unrelated matter.
   - b) Summarise key problems and concerns expressed by participants on any topic.

10. **Requests from participants for other workshops?**

11. **Did you consider the workshop to be successful? Why or why not?**

---

Workshops CAN have an impact on people’s lives. At a community workshop on gender and domestic violence, one of the male participants said at the end: “Now that I understand how damaging my behaviour has been for the whole family, I am going to try to talk to my wife instead of being abusive.”
INTRODUCTION

GENDER TRAINING MODULES

Part 2
Module 1
WHAT IS GENDER?
AN EXPLANATION OF
GENDER CONCEPTS

1.1 Objectives of the module

- To assist the trainer to understand more complex gender concepts
- To help participants understand the difference between sex and gender
- To enhance the participants’ understanding of gender concepts.

1.2 Target group

- All the participants targeted by the other modules and for any gender sensitisisation training workshop.

1.3 Gender concepts

The following ice-breakers should be used to help participants understand the differences between sex and gender.

1.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Name game ice-breaker

Objective: To introduce participants to each other and to consider some gender stereotypes.

Time: Depends on number of participants – approx 3 minutes per participant, plus 15-30 minutes for discussion.

1. Ask participants to introduce themselves by the name they would like to be known by in the workshop. They should write their name on a small piece of paper.
2. Ask each participant to explain what their name means and why that name was chosen for them.
3. Ask participants to discuss the differences in names between men and women.

Note for facilitator: In most cultures female and male names are very different. Girls are often given names that relate to attractiveness, kindness and obedience. Boys are given the names of famous fighters, names that express strength and power, or names that describe the joy the boy brings to the family. These names can be a signal of expectations starting from birth about the way we will behave. “Patience” will be expected to behave differently from “Victor”. 
1.3.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Definition of sex and gender

Objective: To educate participants about the difference between sex and gender.

Time: 2 hours.

1. Ask 2 participants (male and female) to come and sit in front of the audience.
2. Give the participants in the audience cards and marker pens.
3. Ask them to write any differences which they see or know of between these two individuals in terms of their physical appearance, behaviours, attitudes etc.
4. Ask them to place the cards on the individual’s body on the area where they think that the difference lies.
5. Divide a flip chart into 4 sections: male permanent; female permanent; male changeable/not permanent; and female changeable/not permanent.
6. Ask the participants which attributes are solely related to the male and cannot apply to the female, and vice versa. For each attribute, ask whether it is permanent or changeable and then write it on the flip chart in the relevant section.
7. Explain what sex is and what gender is (see below) and point out that the participants have identified these concepts themselves.

DEFINITION OF SEX

Sex refers to the universal biological characteristics which are used as the basis for classifying humans as female or male.

DEFINITION OF GENDER

Gender refers to the behavioural norms and social roles associated with men and women in a particular community. These are not universal, but are learnt or acquired. They vary from one society to another and change over time.

These definitions are based on those used by the World Health Organisation, the International Labour Organisation and other United Nations agencies.

The term “gender” is used to describe those characteristics of women and men that are socially constructed, in contrast to those that are biologically determined. People are born female or male, but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men. They are taught what the appropriate behaviour and attitudes, roles and activities are for them, and how they should relate to other people. These learned attributes are what make up gender identity and determine gender roles.

World Health Organisation Gender Policy, 1998

Women and men are different biologically but all cultures interpret and elaborate on these innate biological differences into a set of social expectations about what behaviours and activities are appropriate, and what rights, resources, and power they possess.

World Bank, 2001

“Gender” refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialisation processes.

UN Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women, 2006
While biological attributes can sometimes be altered, biological sex is essentially fixed. In contrast, gender definitions are in a constant state of flux in response to changing social and economic conditions. For example, in situations of war, women may take on roles believed in some societies to be traditionally male, such as heads of households or soldiers. Because gender is constructed by society and not fixed, stereotypical constructed notions of male and female roles can be challenged and do change over time. When we say that men and women are not the same, we refer not only to their biological sex differences and functions, but also to their different roles that have been created by society. Women and men have different needs because of their sex and gender differences.

1.3.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender quiz – a follow up to exercise 1.3.2

Objective: To check that participants have grasped the difference between sex and gender.

Time: 1 hour.

The objective of this quiz is to find out how well the participants have grasped the definitions of sex and gender. The facilitator reads the following statements to the group. Participants should stand if a statement is about gender, and keep seated if it is about sex. If disagreement occurs, ask participants to justify their opinions, and make sure that you correct incorrect responses.

- Women give birth to babies, men don’t. (sex)
- Little girls are gentle and timid; boys are tough and adventurous. (gender)
- In many countries women earn 70% of what men earn. (gender)
- Women can breastfeed babies; men use a bottle to feed babies. (sex)
- Women play the major role in raising children. (gender)
- Men are decision-makers. (gender)
- In Ancient Egypt, men stayed at home and did weaving. Women handled the family business. Women inherited property; men did not. (gender)
- Boys’ voices break at puberty; girls’ voices don’t. (sex)
- Women are sometimes forbidden from working in dangerous jobs such as underground mining; men work at their own risk. (gender)
1.3.4 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender activity clock

Objective: To help participants understand the impact of gender on the lives of women and men.

Time: 2 hours.

Split the participants into groups. Give each group 2 pieces of flip chart paper and ask them to draw 1 large clock on each. The clocks should show the numbers. Give each group a topic (some groups can do the same topic), such as:

- A woman with children in a poor family based in a rural area, then the husband/father in the same family.
- A working woman with children in a rich family based in an urban area, then the husband/father in the same family.
- A grandmother in a rural area, then her husband (the grandfather).
- A teenage girl, whose mother has HIV/AIDS, then her teenage brother.

Ask the participants to agree what the family is like (number of children, what kind of house they live in, if they have livestock, a car, a washing machine, etc). Then ask them to agree on the roles, tasks and responsibilities of the females, writing them next to the time on the clock that they would normally start and finish each activity. Then they should do the same for the males.

Ask the groups to put up their clocks on the wall, and invite everyone to look at the results. Ask:

- What struck you most as you looked at the amount of time spent by women and men on each activity?
- What roles and responsibilities were common to both women and men?
- In what ways did money or lack of it contribute to the time women and men spent on each activity?

1.3.5 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender role play

Objective: To give participants a personal understanding of how gender impacts on daily life.

Time: 2 hours

This is another exercise that will help participants understand how gender impacts on daily life. Split the participants into groups of about 5 people (including both men and women). Ask each group to devise a role play based on a typical scene in the home. But all the male participants must play female roles (mother, daughter, sister etc) and all the female participants must play male roles (father, son, brother etc). Ask the participants to make sure they include a young boy and young girl.

After each role play, discuss the roles played in terms of “what was sex?”, “what was gender?” Ask those acting – “how did it feel?” Women will often say they felt powerful, men will often say they felt stupid. Discuss why this is. Make the point that female gender roles are not valued as much by society as those of men.

Finish off this exercise by asking each participant to name a women they admire (living or dead, famous or known only to them). Ask what qualities they admire in this person. At the end make the point that women make valuable contributions to society and, once the barriers are removed to their advancement, can achieve even more.

See the Glossary at the back of the manual for an extensive list of gender concepts.
Module 2

GENDER MAINSTREAMING

2.1 Objective of the module

- To enable participants to develop skills of gender analysis and gender mainstreaming.

2.2 Target groups

- Gender Liaison Officers, and others conducting training in the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare
- Gender Focal Points in ministries and institutions
- Traditional leaders.

2.3 What is gender mainstreaming?

Gender mainstreaming is a strategy for promoting the goal of gender equality and the empowerment of women. It is a process for reflecting on gender inequalities and not an end in itself.

Gender Mainstreaming: a definition

It is a process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action (including legislation, policies or programmes) in all areas and at all levels.

It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated.

The ultimate goal is gender equality.


In organisations, gender mainstreaming is a process of ensuring that gender equality is part of all activities. For example, gender mainstreaming ensures that ministries, government departments and other organisations take the concerns of their staff (men and women) as well as those of their partners...
in development and their beneficiaries (men and women) into consideration. This will ensure full participation of both men and women in development activities and initiatives, thus enabling organisations, programmes and projects to function effectively.

Gender mainstreaming needs a caring, challenging, flexible and empowering environment to flourish. Gender equality creates opportunities for both women and men. Each individual stands to benefit, and therefore each individual must share the responsibility of gender mainstreaming in any organisation or institution – even in the family.

2.4 Why is gender mainstreaming important?

The rationale of gender mainstreaming is the recognition that gender equality is integral to development goals.

Social structures recreate inequalities between women and men in terms of access to and control of resources, opportunities for participation in decision making, and participation in the mainstream economy by women as compared to men. The main problem therefore remains that of inequality between women and men.

Gender mainstreaming enables society and institutions to change their ideas, values and cultures, policies and practices in support of equal choices and opportunities for men and women. Equality of both men and women then becomes a central theme in all the activities of organisations and institutions.

EXAMPLE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING AND ITS IMPACT

Setting up a community garden

A community meeting, which includes all the adults in the village meets to discuss the problem of malnourishment in the village. This particularly affects vulnerable children and HIV positive adults, and the community wants to do something about it. They decide to set up a garden to grow fresh fruit and vegetables to benefit the whole community. A committee is elected, which includes an equal number of men and women (especially those with crop farming experience), to take the project forward.

The committee organises a further consultation to ensure that everyone is involved in the decision-making. Because the men and women may have different views based on their experience, and the women may be too shy to contradict the men, they ask men and women separately the following questions.

- Where should the garden be? At first the headman wants it to be near his homestead, but he is persuaded by the women, who are used to fetching water, that it would be better near the water point.

- What should be grown? Some of the men want to grow fruit and vegetables to sell; some of the women want the food to be only for community members, based on need. After discussion, they come to an agreement that one quarter of the produce will be sold and the money earned will be saved until there is enough money to buy a tractor for the whole village, which each family will be able to use to improve their own farming. The other produce will be given to the poorest members of the community; if there is surplus after that, it will be shared amongst the households.

- What are the tasks that need to be done, when do they need to be done, and who will do them? At first the discussion focuses on traditional roles in that community, with people saying the headman should consult with the Ministry of Agriculture Extension Office to
ask for training, the men should do the plowing and the women should do the planting, the watering and the weeding. After discussion however, it becomes clear that one of the women, who has farming experience, would be the best person to ask the Extension Office for assistance. The men will be busy plowing the mahangu fields when the garden needs plowing, therefore they will teach the women how to plow the garden. And they will all share the tasks of watering the produce, weeding and harvesting on a rotation basis.

- After 6 months, the committee calls a meeting to discuss how the project is going. The community is very pleased with the result, as lots of fruit and vegetables have been grown, although they decide to stop growing one of the vegetables because other vegetables grow better. But the women complain about the process – the men on the rota for watering and gardening are telling their wives and daughters to take on these tasks. They all agree that this has to change, and that one person will be in charge of ensuring that everyone does the tasks they have agreed to do. Best of all, the previously malnourished community members are all healthier – and they work the hardest to keep the gender-mainstreamed garden going!

2.5 National policy context

The Namibian Constitution guarantees gender equality and paves the way for interventions aimed at women's empowerment and those which can benefit both women and men. This is further strengthened by the commitments that Namibia has made at regional and international levels – such as the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, and the Beijing Platform for Action.

The Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare is charged with the responsibility to promote gender equality by empowering women through:

- the dissemination of information
- coordination and networking with stakeholders
- mainstreaming gender
- promotion of law and policy reform
- monitoring of progress to ensure that women and men can participate equally in the political, economic and social cultural development of the nation.

Namibia’s various commitments to gender equality have been consolidated in the National Gender Policy, which outlines a framework for action to promote gender equality in various sectors. The National Gender Policy lists the following “critical areas of concern” which are based on the areas of concern identified at the international level in the Beijing Platform for Action:

- gender, poverty and rural development
- gender balance in education and training
- gender and reproductive health
- violence against women and children
- gender and economic empowerment
- gender balance in power and decision-making
- information, education and communication
- gender and the management of the environment
- the girl-child
- gender and legal affairs
- monitoring mechanisms.
To facilitate the implementation of the National Gender Policy, a **Gender Mainstreaming Programme** has been developed. The Gender Mainstreaming Programme takes as its starting point a vision of “a nation where men and women are regarded and treated as equals in all matters pertaining to the management of the economy and society, having regard to the full development and effective utilisation of the potentials inherent in both sexes for sustainable development”. It lists the following strategic objectives:

- to create adequate capacity and mechanisms for the institutionalisation of gender mainstreaming
- to promote and ensure gender balance in all sectors of development
- to create capacity for generating and disseminating gender disaggregated data and information for gender responsive development planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation
- to influence changes in cultural perceptions, attitudes and values
- to enhance measures to improve women’s positive image and human rights as well as to ensure their full participation through building their economic and decision making capacity and their access to and control over resources.

An action plan for gender mainstreaming was developed. This action plan outlines issues, recommendations, specific actions, lead agencies, expected outcomes and timeframes for the period 1998–2003. As of June 2006, the plan was being revised for future time periods. Each institution (ideally both government and non-government) is supposed to identify a person to serve as a **“Gender Focal Point”** who will take responsibility for ensuring that gender mainstreaming is taking place within that institution. The role of Gender Focal Points is described in the National Gender Mainstreaming Programme as the following:

- to embark upon sensitisation and gender awareness campaigns in their institutions
- to review current policies and programmes of their institutions from a gender perspective
- to implement the national gender mainstreaming policy plan in their institutions
- to liaise with the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare and other stakeholders on relevant gender issues
- to attend meetings and workshops on gender-related issues organised by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare.

The Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare conducted a study which revealed that effective gender mainstreaming is possible only if the following steps are taken:

- formulation of a law to reinforce the implementation of the National Gender Policy
- establishment of a Gender Commission to strengthen the existing network of gender committees and gender focal points
- mainstreaming of critical areas of concern into sector mandates in the National Development Plan III, to ensure that sectors pay more attention to gender concerns
- more partnership and networking with parastatals and with civil society organisations to ensure broad implementation of the National Gender Mainstreaming Programme.

“…I therefore call on every Namibian citizen to make this policy a living document by working vigorously and tirelessly towards equality between men and women.”

President Sam Nujoma, Foreward to *The National Gender Policy*, 1997
2.6 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender activity clock for the family

Objective: To help participants understand the impact of gender on the lives of family members as an introduction to the concept of gender mainstreaming.

Time: 2 hours 30 minutes.

The facilitator should explain that gender mainstreaming needs to happen in all parts of society, including the family and the community.

Split the participants into groups. Give each group 2 pieces of flip chart paper and ask them to draw 1 large clock on each. The clocks should show the numbers. Give each group the following topic:

- A family living in the rural area. There is a husband and wife, 4 children (2 boys and 2 girls), and a grandmother and grandfather. The family has 50 cattle and grows mahangu. They have a donkey cart but no car, no fridge and no washing machine.

Ask participants to agree on the roles, tasks and responsibilities of the women and girls, writing next to the time on the clock the time that each one would normally start and finish each activity. Then do the same for the men and boys. It works well to use one colour to write up the females’ activities and another colour to write up the males’ activities, if possible.

Ask the groups to put up their clocks on the wall, and invite everyone to look at the results.

Ask:

- What struck you most as you looked at the amount of time spent by women and girls, and men and boys on each activity?
- If women and girls spend more time on activities such as housework, what are the implications (eg girls cannot spend as much time doing homework, women cannot go to meetings, women may be too tired to have sex with their husbands)?
- What roles and responsibilities were common to both females and males?
- Are males capable (even if it is not usual within the culture) of doing the tasks allocated to females?
- Are females capable (even if it is not usual within the culture) of doing the tasks allocated to males?
- Choose one of the groups’ activity clocks. Ask participants “what would you change to promote greater gender balance in the activities in this family?” Note that it is not necessary for each family member to do an equal share of every task, but there should be a reasonable overall balance in the amount of time each one spends on tasks, in accordance with their capacities and needs.
- Ask participants to consider how gender balance can be promoted in families (eg through the way children are brought up).
- Explain to participants that the strategies they identify constitute gender mainstreaming in the family. Ask participants to brainstorm how their own community could approach the gender mainstreaming of activities.

2.7 Gender analysis

Before embarking on a gender mainstreaming process, it is important to understand gender analysis.

Gender analysis is a process of collecting and analysing information regarding the different needs and concerns of women and men and addressing the barriers that have disadvantaged them.
What does gender analysis measure?

- Different needs of men and women (practical and strategic needs)
- Different capacities of men and women
- Different perspectives, roles and responsibilities of men and women
- Different impact of interventions on men and women
- Constraints on and opportunities for men and women

What questions does a gender analysis ask?

- Who controls what in the society?
- Who has access to what in the society?
- Who is responsible for what in the society?
- Who earns what in the society?
- Who does what in the society?
- Who inherits what in the society?

2.8 Frameworks for gender analysis

There are a number of different frameworks for gender analysis. The following exercises are based on some of the different approaches. Understanding some of the different approaches to gender analysis can enable people to choose an approach that seems best for the situation they want to assess.

2.8.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender Analysis

**Objective:** To enable participants to conduct a gender analysis.

**Time:** 3 hours

Participants should be split into small groups for this exercise.

**Note:** This can be done as an overall gender analysis, but if participants are only involved in one sector (e.g., poverty or education), then the analysis may be done only for that sector.

This exercise is based on the Harvard Analytical Framework. The Harvard Analytical Framework is useful because it identifies access to and control over resources and benefits in relation to women’s and men’s responsibilities. It is a good framework to use when you know the group in question (e.g., a village), but difficult if the group is in a large and diverse one (e.g., across 6 regions in Namibia).

**Exercise 1:** Ask participants “What do women do in the community? What do girls do? What do men do? What do boys do?” List productive, reproductive, community and political activities and roles of men and women, boys and girls.
Below is a brief, simple example. Note that this could be further disaggregated by age (such as girls, female adults, female elders and boys, male adults and male elders) or other relevant factors.

If you are running this exercise in relation to a real project, you should extend it by adding in the amount of time each spends on each activity (using the Activity Clock described in Training Exercise 2,6 above – noting daily activities as well as seasonal ones, such as ploughing and planting) and where each takes place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Women/girls</th>
<th>Men/boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Productive activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• planting, weeding and harvesting</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ploughing fields</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• large stock raising</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reproductive or household activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• cooking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• collecting firewood</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community management activities (social/political/religious)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• political activities</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• arranging for weddings/funerals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exercise 2:** Identify assets (human, natural, social and financial) and list them, then state who has (a) access to or (b) control over the same assets. This exercise assesses the relative power of community members.

This is a brief example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSETS</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive labour</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reproductive labour</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
<td>Access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/training</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Access/Control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that situations can differ from women to men and from women to women and men to men. For example, not all women have access to paid work, and when they do, they may not have control over their salaries. In the same way both women and men may have access to training through extension services but most of the extension staff (who are mainly male) may consult males and design support on that basis.

**Exercise 3:** The next step is to list the factors which influence the activities, access and control. These may be social, cultural or economic. Here are some examples:
- social acceptance of a certain gender division of labour (e.g. childcare is for women so they must stay in or near the home)
- social belief that men attend meetings – so they get education and training even if they are not doing the work
- cultural beliefs (e.g. that women must milk cows, or that women may not go near cattle)
- economic practice that only men apply for loans
- unemployment which leads to men becoming migrant workers.

**Exercise 4:** The next step is to develop an intervention. In setting project objectives, ensure that they relate to women’s needs as identified in the analysis and by themselves.

Review the above 3 exercises and assess your project in the light of the results. For example, a key block to women’s poverty may be their lack of access to cattle. If that cultural belief is seen to be changing, then the focus should be on giving women access to education and training on cattle rearing.

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### 2.8.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Problem Analysis Chart

**Objective:** To introduce participants to another technique for analysing gender-related problems.

**Time:** 1 hour

A **Problem Analysis Chart** can help participants to analyse the different components of a gender-related problem, which is helpful to identifying appropriate action to solve the problems. Here is a short example of how to use the chart:

**Problem Analysis Chart**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effects</th>
<th>Coping strategies</th>
<th>Recommended action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of access to credit opportunities, therefore women remain poor/disadvantaged</td>
<td>Banks refuse to give credit to women</td>
<td>Cannot open business No motivation to improve situation</td>
<td>Depend on husband or relatives to take care of children and meet personal needs</td>
<td>Establishment of women’s savings and credit union which can assemble capital and provide small loans to its members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants should divide up into small groups and identify a problem facing women in their own communities, and use the chart to analyse it. There may be more than one cause for the problem. Each cause which is identified should lead to a corresponding action. If the case cannot be addressed immediately, there may be an action which could minimise the effect of the problem in the meantime. Actions might also support women in their coping strategies.

Participants should discuss their results with the full group, which should make comments and recommendations.
2.8.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender Needs Assessment

**Objective:** To apply the concept of gender needs in assessing the actual and potential impact of projects.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Actions which address strategic as well as practical gender needs will have more impact on gender equality in the long term. The Moser Gender Needs Assessment is a useful tool for identifying the different kinds of gender needs.

Explain to participants what practical and strategic gender needs are:

- **Practical gender needs:** Practical gender needs are linked to the needs of women and men in respect of daily life, unsatisfactory living conditions and lack of resources. They address practical, immediate necessities such as water, shelter, food, income and health care.

- **Strategic gender needs:** Strategic gender needs are long-term needs that relate to improving the position or status of women and men. They are less visible and more ideological in that they are about changing power structures and influencing attitudes and behaviour. Examples of strategic gender needs are: the abolition of the sexual division of labour; the co-sharing of domestic work and child care; the removal of institutionalised forms of discrimination relating to rights to own land or property, or access to credit; and freedom of choice over childbearing.

Ask participants which of the following meet practical gender needs, and which meet strategic gender needs. (The answer is the “x” in the box.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of intervention</th>
<th>Practical gender need met</th>
<th>Strategic gender need met</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location of nursery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in community</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother’s workplace</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father’s workplace</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>The father will become more involved in child care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooking cakes</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dressmaking</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carpentry</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Challenges the gender division of labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to credit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allocated to household</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allocated to women</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Develops women’s economic independence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ask the participants to give examples of projects they have worked on. Discuss whether the interventions were designed to meet practical or strategic gender needs.

This exercise is based on the ILO’s OnLine Gender Learning & Information Module at http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/mdtmanila/training/unit1/exgneeds.htm

2.8.4 Another possible framework

Here is another framework that can be used to carry out gender analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General gender questions to ask</th>
<th>Aspects to consider</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Roles and Responsibilities:** | **Productive roles of men and women**  
- What do men and women do?  
- Where do men and women do what they do?  
- When do men and women do what they do? (Daily time use, seasonal time use)  
- Productive roles of men and women (paid work, self-employment, and subsistence production)  
- Reproductive roles of men and women (domestic work, child care and care of the sick and elderly)  
- Community participation/self-help activities of men and women (voluntary work for the benefit of the community as a whole such as organising weddings, funerals)  
- Community politics involvement of men and women (decision-making/representation on behalf of the community as a whole) |
| **Assets:** | **Human assets** – what services, health services, education etc do men and women have access to?  
- Natural assets – what natural resources do men and women have access to, or are able to contribute? Eg land, labour.  
- Social assets – what social support networks do men and women have access to?  
- Financial assets – what access and control do men and women have over capital, income, formal and informal sources of credit etc. |

- What livelihood assets/opportunities do men and women have access to?  
- What constraints do men and women face?
### Power and Decision-making:
- **What decision-making** do men and/or women participate in?
- **What decision-making** do men and/or women usually control (ie able to actively influence decisions)
- **What constraints** do men and women face?
- **Household level** - what level of control do men and women have in the decisions over household expenditure?
- **Community level** – what level of control over community wide decision-making do men and women have eg decisions on the management of community water supplies

### Needs, priorities and perspectives:
- **What are** women’s and men’s needs and priorities?
- **What perspectives** do they have on appropriate and sustainable ways of addressing their needs?
- What are the “practical” needs of women and men? These address practical, immediate necessities such as water, shelter, food, income and health care. For example, what needs do women have regarding water that differ from men?
- What are the “strategic” gender needs (ie those requiring changes to existing gender roles and resources to create greater equality of opportunity and benefit?). An example is accepting women being employed as road builders (abolition of part of the sexual division of labour).

### Perspectives
- What are the different perspectives of men and women on how projects are delivered – choice of technology, location, cost of services, systems of operation, management and maintenance?

This table is based on an exercise developed by the UK Department for International Development (DFID), quoted in *Gender Mainstreaming in Civil Society Organisations, NID, 2005*

### 2.9 Developing a Gender Mainstreaming Strategy

Once participants are comfortable with tools for gender analysis, they are ready to move to the exercises on gender mainstreaming.

Gender mainstreaming is a strategy for gender equality; therefore each institution or organisation should aim to have a gender mainstreaming strategy and action plan. Once an organisation takes a decision to mainstream gender into its organisational culture, structure, projects and programmes, the following points must be borne in mind:

- Gender analysis and mainstreaming challenges the status quo – the existing power relations within an organisation – and therefore there is bound to be resistance to it. How to deal with resistance can be worked out – the important thing is to be prepared to deal with it.
- Organisations should be willing to build a critical mass of gender advocates who will help the organisation in shaping a better future for women and men.
- Gender equality should be evident in an organisation’s mission and vision statements, and in its policies and regulations. The organisation must also allocate adequate resources to bring about changes.
- Gender mainstreaming should result in a transformed organisation with changes in attitudes and behaviour, including a changed management style which is open to criticism. The transformed organisation should provide platforms for non-stereotyped roles and choices for women and men.
2.9.1 What is included in a Gender Mainstreaming Strategy?

A gender mainstreaming strategy includes the following:

- an assessment of the issue of gender inequality in the context of the organisation and its work
- a mission statement on mainstreaming gender equality to ensure that the whole organisation is clear about what is to be achieved
- an action plan in which the strategy will be applied to different parts of the organisation
- clearly identified and quantifiable goals and targets
- strategies for capacity building and implementation
- clear allocation of resources to achieve the objectives
- a division of roles and responsibilities (including senior staff, management, gender focal points, etc) for effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

2.9.2 Activities to formulate a Gender Mainstreaming Strategy

Note: It is important that all staff and relevant stakeholders are involved in discussions about gender mainstreaming in your organisation. Consult them through various means such as workshops, and departmental or individual consultative meetings. Conduct debriefing meetings to inform management and all staff of progress, and involve them in making crucial decisions at each stage.

1. The first step is to carry out a GENDER SURVEY in your organisation. This will help establish the starting point for your gender mainstreaming.

**Carrying out a gender survey**

Find out from the personnel office how many women and men are in the organisation.
Find out if the organisation has gender-sensitive policies and procedures in place.
Find out about the roles and responsibilities of men and women in your organisation and what problems they experience.

Present the findings for discussion.
2. **Then conduct a SWOT analysis.** SWOT stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. This refers to the internal strengths and weaknesses of the organisation, and the external threats and opportunities available for the gender mainstreaming strategy to succeed.

**SWOT Analysis**

The objectives of a SWOT analysis are to highlight strengths and weaknesses and then devise strategies for making the most of the strengths/opportunities, whilst overcoming the weaknesses/threats.

Ask participants to consider gender mainstreaming.

What are the organisation’s internal strengths in relation to gender mainstreaming?
What are its weaknesses?
What are the external (outside of the organisation) threats?
What are the external opportunities?

This can be done in small groups and their comments merged, or in the whole group if not more than 15 people.

Discuss the results. Prioritise actions based on this discussion.

3. **Apply one or more of the TOOLS FOR GENDER ANALYSIS** explained in section 2.8 above to specific problems which are identified during the gender audit or the SWOT analysis.

4. **Use this information to develop a GENDER MAINSTREAMING POLICY.** The policy will identify the objectives which your organisation wants to achieve to promote gender equality.

**Example of a Gender Mainstreaming Policy**

The ................. organisation will:
- build capacity for institutionalisation of gender mainstreaming
- promote gender balance in all sectors
- ensure generation and dissemination of gender disaggregated data for gender responsive development planning
- influence changes in attitudes and behaviour to promote women’s image, rights and equal access to resources, services and opportunities.

adapted from the National Gender Mainstreaming Programme

**Example of a Gender Mainstreaming Policy**

**UNDP Corporate Gender Strategy**

- Develop capacities to integrate gender concerns in all practices and areas and in global, regional and country programmes
- Provide gender-responsive policy advisory services that promote gender equality and women’s empowerment
- Support specific interventions that benefit women and scale up and expand innovative models such as those developed by UNIFEM.

5. Develop an **Action Plan** for implementing the Gender Mainstreaming Policy. This last step is crucial, because it identifies **who** is going to do **what**. Without action, there can be no change. The Action Plan should answer specific questions:

- Who will be directly responsible for which outputs/results?
- Who will collaborate?
- What is the time period?
- What will be achieved at the end of the time period?
- What are the benchmarks along the way (pointers that show the project is going to plan)?
- Have adequate resources (time, staff, funds, equipment) been provided?

### Example of a Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan

**Taken from the Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan of the Directorate of Rural Water Supply (DRWS) October 2003**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>By whom</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>Indicators for measuring success</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Review &amp; approve Gender Strategy</td>
<td>National Task Force &amp; Director of DRWS</td>
<td>Before this financial year end</td>
<td>Gender Strategy approved with amendments &amp; revised pamphlets produced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Appoint Gender Coordinator at HQ &amp; Regional Gender Facilitators</td>
<td>DRWS</td>
<td>As above</td>
<td>Approved terms of reference &amp; appointments made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conduct gender analysis studies to assess the main problems faced by poor women and men in the rural water sector (pilot first, then nation wide)</td>
<td>National Task Force, Gender Coordinator and Regional Gender Facilitators</td>
<td>April-June 2004</td>
<td>Research plan drawn up including objectives, activities, sampling sites, training required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conduct sub-divisional gender sensitisation meetings to inform and upgrade the skills of staff</td>
<td>Divisional Heads and Gender Coordinator</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
<td>Plan drawn up to introduce the Gender Strategy &amp; agenda for further meetings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is also an example of a Gender Plan of Action by the Ministry of Defence/Namibian Defence Force in section 2.11.2 below.
2.9.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Action plan

**Objective:** To learn how to develop a clear plan of action, to focus activities and allow for effective evaluation.

**Time:** 2 hours 30 minutes.

Here is an example of a clear and specific action plan. It is important to include clear statements of who will do what, and to identify who will provide the resources for the action (funding, trainers, materials, etc).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Who?</th>
<th>When?</th>
<th>Resource Requirements</th>
<th>Indicators of success</th>
<th>End result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To empower women to take out loans</td>
<td>Training programme on how loans work, and on how to fill out loan applications</td>
<td>Name of person or institution</td>
<td>X workshops in X regions by X date</td>
<td>Funding for venue, materials, trainers, transport to workshop</td>
<td>Workshops valued highly by participants in evaluations. Trainer assessment that participants are competent to apply for loans.</td>
<td>Women empowered with information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>X months later, check how many of the targeted women had successfully applied for loans.</td>
<td>Name of person or institution</td>
<td>Date evaluation will begin and end.</td>
<td>Funding for evaluation, including evaluator.</td>
<td>A significant percentage of women successfully applied for loans.</td>
<td>Woman empowered to take out loans, improve their businesses and financial situation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants should divide up into small groups and make an action plan for an objective they want to achieve in their own communities. Participants should discuss their results with the full group, which should make comments and recommendations.
**Case study – Directorate of Rural Water Supply**

The Directorate of Rural Water Supply undertook the process of developing a gender mainstreaming strategy. They took the following steps:

- establishment of a Task Force on gender for planning and feedback
- understanding the National Gender Policy to find out what it says about rural water and rural women
- field visits to selected regional offices of rural water supply for consultation with officers, communities and water point committee members
- workshops on the relevant issues, and on the development of a strategy document
- finalisation of the strategy document and presentation to management for approval

The outcome of this process was a Gender Strategy and a Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan for the Directorate.

**Example:** With support from the Finnish Government the Directorate for Rural Water Supply developed a project to empower rural women because they are the primary users of water and natural resources. Many rural women prior to this project were not members of water point committees and were not part of the decision making processes. The Directorate wanted to find out what progress has been made since the project’s inception. They conducted an evaluation of the ongoing programme to assess the status of rural women in three regions, Omaheke, Karas and Oshana. This evaluation showed that, following sensitisation workshops/meetings with most water point committees where women were encouraged to take up decision-making positions, rural women accounted for 35% of Chairperson positions.

**CHECKLIST FOR INTEGRATING GENDER MAINSTREAMING**

1. Do you have a gender mainstreaming policy which covers the internal organisation and the projects, plans and activities of the organisation?
2. Have your organisation’s staff and volunteers been inducted and trained on the gender policy, including the use of inclusive and non-sexist language?
3. Does the way your organisation is managed give fair and equal space and time to women and men?
4. Does your organisation have an affirmative action policy?
5. Does the organisation keep and evaluate records that monitor gender issues, such as staff records which clearly contain gender-based statistics?
6. Do you encourage men and women to gain vacant positions in your organisation through:
   - the phrasing of adverts and the variety of media in which they are placed?
   - gender balanced interviewing panels?
   - a minimum quota for women in the short-listing process?
7. Does your organisation adopt family-friendly practices in the workplace and in projects?
8. Have the necessary resources been made available for genuine gender mainstreaming to take place?
9. Has a clear methodology been used for creating and applying a gender mainstreaming strategy?
10. Has a monitoring body or mechanism been created to track the progress of the strategy?

This checklist is adapted from Namibia Institute for Democracy (NID), Draft Gender Mainstreaming & Civil Society Organisations Educational and Training Booklet.
**Engendering the project cycle**

A project is a set of activities defined to address a particular problem, for example, training rural women to set up their own businesses, over a set period of time. The project cycle is made up of the following stages, and in each stage a number of questions should be raised to ensure that concerns of women and men are taken into consideration:

- **Project identification:** The problems that women and men face are identified. What are the differences and similarities?

- **Project design:** These problems are used to define objectives, indicators and activities. Does the project recognise the differences between women and men? Is the project addressing practical or strategic needs?

- **Project analysis:** The project document is analysed from various perspectives. Does it include women’s and men’s concerns and how? Will the project improve the productivity of women and men? Who will share in the project benefits? Whose access and control will be improved? Whose participation will be strengthened? Will the project empower women? Will it have impact on the workloads experienced by women?

- **Project approval:** The project is approved and financial commitments made. It is important to assess who sits on the review/approval committee and how much is allocated for women’s and men’s activities.

- **Project implementation and monitoring:** Who are the implementing agencies? Are women’s and men’s organisations involved or given responsibilities? How will the community members who are targeted by the project participate in monitoring? Are the indicators gender-sensitive?

- **Project evaluation:** Who evaluates the project? Are women/gender specialists involved in the evaluation mission and how?

**2.10 Key challenges for gender mainstreaming**

The following are some of key challenges which must be overcome for effective gender mainstreaming:

- Political commitment exists, but progress may be slowed down by negative attitudes (lack of gender awareness and lack of support for gender mainstreaming), often within top management.

- The job descriptions of the Gender Focal Points should be made official and institutionalised.

- Goodwill to improve the gender situation may be wasted without clear gender mainstreaming strategies.

- Appropriate action may not be identified because of the lack of gender analysis knowledge or skills.

- Gender analysis may be weak because of the lack of gender disaggregated data and planning capacity.

- Programme interventions can be hampered by lack of resources and inadequate attention being given to monitoring and impact evaluation.

- There may be resource constraints, such as lack of adequate finance for the desired actions or for the necessary capacity building, or a shortage of experts to back up the process.
The following are some potential pitfalls to be avoided:

- **The problem of “policy evaporation”**. All too often, gender mainstreaming policies “evaporate” before implementation, and remain paper commitments only. Policies **must include action plans** with clear procedures and targets as well as designated roles and responsibilities for promotion, implementation and monitoring. These must be based on a clear and realistic analysis and understanding of the organisation, including its decision-making structures, incentive systems, planning routines and history with respect to gender equality.

- **The process is as important as the product**. The value of a gender mainstreaming policy lies at least as much in its formulation as in its existence. The formulation of a mainstreaming policy is a golden opportunity to involve as many staff and (where appropriate) stakeholders external to the organisation as possible. This process promotes widespread “ownership” of the policy; enhances understanding and commitment to gender equality issues; ensures that the policy “fits” with the organisational culture, structures and procedures; and substantially increases the chance that the policy will be implemented. In this context:
  - Mainstreaming policies from other similar organisations can be used for ideas and inspiration, but should never be copied or used as blueprints
  - External consultants may have a useful role to play in facilitating a consultation and policy development process, but should never be recruited to write a mainstreaming policy.

- **Practice what you preach**. Gender equality in the workplace and gender equality in service delivery are inextricably linked. Agency credibility in presenting a gender equality policy relating to service delivery is assisted if the policy is reflected in or includes measures to promote gender equality in internal staffing and practice.

  *Source: Department for International Development, UK (DFID), Mainstreaming: Policy and Legislation, 1999.*

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**Considerations for Gender Mainstreaming in Government**

- **Fact finding missions**: Ensure that someone with gender knowledge and skills is part of the team.
- **Make terms of reference** for consultants or technical advisors gender-sensitive.
- **Training programmes**: Ensure that training budgets include some days for gender sensitisation and/or skills development in gender analysis.
- **Organisation meetings**: Put gender on the agenda. Share information on gender training, share insights in gender analysis, collect materials and discuss their usefulness to your work.
- **Interagency/ministerial meetings**: Share with colleagues what you have learnt in gender analysis workshops, facilitate joint project planning and information sharing programmes (e.g. arranging field trips to monitor and analyse gender issues together).
- **Remind management** of their regional and international commitments on gender equality in a non-confrontational manner and brief them regularly on progress of the gender mainstreaming process.
- **Mid-term review meetings with National Planning Commission and Government**: Ensure that gender concerns are included in the review indicators and insist on gender disaggregated data analysis. The process can be enhanced by providing or showcasing success stories of other government departments who have already gone through the mainstreaming process (e.g. the case study of the gender strategy for the rural water sector).
- **Use monitoring and evaluation** sessions to redefine project objectives, activities and outputs to be gender-sensitive.
2.11 Case studies

2.11.1 UNDP Namibia: beginning the gender mainstreaming project

“Gender becoming the country office buzz word”

“Conscious of the need to build capacities for gender mainstreaming, UNDP in April 2005 launched a corporate gender capacity-building project, inviting country offices to submit proposals for funding. UNDP Namibia was selected as one of the country offices to benefit from funds under the project. The proposal submitted by the country office focused on extensive training for all staff as well as UN and external partners. The proposal also highlighted the importance of formulating a country office gender mainstreaming strategy and action plan to provide the office with a framework for gender mainstreaming. Country office staff were involved already during the drafting of the proposal to ensure staff ownership of and interest in the process and that their needs were catered for to as great an extent as possible. It was also decided that gender equality would be integrated as a learning target for all staff and that staff completing training sessions should be awarded with certificates for their time and commitment.

Conscious of the limited timeframe for implementation, the country office then embarked on an intensive preparation and implementation process.

The first major activity, the gender sensitisation training, which took place in Windhoek on 18-26 July 2005, was successful. It was attended by most staff (programme and operations), gender focal points of other UN agencies and project staff from line ministries and civil society organisations. The two-day training for three separate groups included an introduction to gender concepts and tools and gave participants a good foundation for the process to come. Feedback from participants was very positive and gender issues became a topic discussed in the office corridors.

The sensitisation training was followed by a 6-day gender mainstreaming training. Again, all staff as well as partners were invited to the training which started with a one-day introduction to gender mainstreaming concepts after which operations and programme split into separate groups for the hands-on exercises including gender mainstreaming into all practical areas and the use of gender mainstreaming tools and frameworks appropriate for these.

Training staff of different working backgrounds and with different levels of knowledge of gender and gender mainstreaming was a challenge. The success of the training was ensured by careful planning and very practical, hands-on training sessions relevant to staff members’ work.

The capacity building project is time-bound but the country office’s commitment to gender mainstreaming isn’t. In order to make gender mainstreaming a priority also in the future, the country office is formulating a gender mainstreaming strategy and action plan covering all programmatic areas as well as internal aspects of the organisation. The on-going formulation of the strategy is a highly participatory process with input from all staff on their opinions about gender issues and the manner in which the office addresses them.

The need for knowledge in gender budgeting has been highlighted in the office due to the support provided to national counterparts in this area. The capacity building project will therefore include a gender budgeting training scheduled for November 2005. The training will include project partners from the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare as well as key partners from other line ministries.
The final activity under the capacity building project will be that of drafting a **guide summarising the experiences and lessons learned from the exercise**. The aim of the guide, which will be shared by partners both in-country and outside Namibia, is to share information with partners embarking on a similar exercise."

### 2.11.2 Ministry of Defence (MOD) and Namibian Defence Force (NDF)

**Gender Plan of Action 2001-2005**

The following is taken from the MOD/NDF Gender Plan of Action, 2001-2005. This is being reviewed as of June 2006.

The Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare, through the Act of Parliament adopted a National Gender Policy which requires all state departments and agencies to implement this policy. The MOD and NDF are under obligation to draw up a strategy on how to mainstream gender within their structure.

The MOD through its Gender Desk organised a series of workshops for MOD/NDF personnel for gender sensitisation and mainstreaming activities. A Plan of Action was produced which defined a set of strategic objectives designed to cut across all MOD Departments and NDF Formations and Units. Gender equality is a fundamental human right for all Namibian citizens and uniformed personnel are no exception.

The following Vision and Areas of Concern were identified:

**Vision** – eradicate Gender imbalances within the MOD/NDF. (The workshop participants strongly recommended a target date of 2010 be set to achieve at least 50% representation of women at Management Cadre level of both MOD and NDF.)

**Areas of Concern** –
1. Representation of Women at Decision-Making Bodies
2. Education and Training
3. Equal Opportunities
4. Women Empowerment

**Extract from Plan of Action**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Area</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Time frame</th>
<th>Cost &amp; Constraints</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Monitoring &amp; Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Representation of women at decision-making level.</em></td>
<td>By 2005 we achieve 20% of women at Management Cadre Level</td>
<td><em>Sensitise all policies and plans</em></td>
<td><em>Provision for the promotion of females to Management Cadre Level</em></td>
<td>Train about 25% female members in each unit by 2005</td>
<td><em>Budget provision for Gender Mainstreaming at the Ministerial Level</em></td>
<td><em>Vacancies available</em></td>
<td>Hon Min PS CDF SMC Unit Comdrs MOD Gender Focal Point</td>
<td><em>Commanders at all levels</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Empowerment</em></td>
<td>Eradicate self-inferior complex among service women by 50% by 2005</td>
<td><em>Capacity building</em></td>
<td><em>Organise gender awareness dialogue, direct consultation, workshops on empowerment, leadership, negotiations and advocacy.</em></td>
<td>Train women to build up their Management &amp; Leadership Skills. Increase awareness of cultural practices that stop women from taking up leadership positions.</td>
<td><em>Military Traditions and Cultural practices</em></td>
<td><em>Promotions and transfers.</em></td>
<td>Hon Min PS CDF Comders at all levels Gender Reps</td>
<td><em>All levels of command to produce yearly report on progress made on gender empowerment.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2001 – 2003

2005
2.12 RESOURCES

Publications:

- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, National Gender Policy, 1997. (See contact details below.)
- Namibia Institute for Democracy (NID), Gender Mainstreaming & Civil Society Organisations – Educational and Training Booklet, 2005. Available from:
  Namibia Institute for Democracy (NID)
  29 Feld Street, Windhoek
  PO Box 11956, Klein Windhoek
  Tel: 061 229 117 / Fax: 061 229 119
  Email: nid@nid.org.na
  Website: www.nid.org.na
- Oxfam Gender Training Manual. This manual contains a number of training modules on analytical frameworks, plus many other useful training modules. See www.oxfam.org.uk/publications.

Key organisations:

- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.
  Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare
  Juvenis Building, Independence Avenue
  Private Bag 13359 Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 3111 / Fax: 061 238 941
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na
- FAWENA (The Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia) is the Namibian chapter of regional NGO, FAWE. Its programmes focus on empowerment activities for the girl child. FAWENA also provides gender sensitisation training for teachers.
  FAWENA
  c/o Ministry of Education
  Government Office Park
  Luther Street
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 293 3143
  E-mail: fawena@mec.gov.na
- University of Namibia (UNAM) conducts research and provides training, education and information.
  UNAM
  Gender Training & Research Unit, Multi-Disciplinary Research Centre; and Faculty of Medical and Health Science – Gender Issues
  Windhoek Campus
  Mandume Ndemufayo Avenue
  Pionerspark
  Private Bag 13301 Windhoek
  Tel: 061 206 3111
UNDP is drafting a guide to its own gender mainstreaming process as of May 2006.

**UNDP**
Sanlam Centre
Independence Avenue
Private Bag 133290, Windhoek
Windhoek
Tel: 061 204 6111
Fax: 061 204 6203
E-mail: fo.nam@undp.org
3.1 **Objective of the module**

- To equip participants with knowledge and skills, and to enable them to address both strategic and practical needs in order to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development.

- **Practical gender needs:** Practical gender needs are linked to the needs of women and men in respect of daily life, unsatisfactory living conditions and lack of resources. They address practical, immediate necessities such as income, water, shelter, food and health care.

- **Strategic gender needs:** Strategic gender needs are long-term needs that relate to improving the position or status of women and men. They are less visible and more ideological, in that they are about changing power structures and influencing attitudes and behaviour. Examples include the abolition of the sexual division of labour and the removal of institutionalised forms of discrimination relating to rights to own land or property.

3.2 **Target groups**

- Farmers (men and women)
- Extension workers
- Committee members – conservancies, villages, water etc
- Gender Focal Points
- Youth
- Politicians
- Schools and other learning institutions.

3.3 **What is poverty?**

The National Planning Commission defines poverty based on food consumption – a household is defined as poor if 60% of its income is spent on food and extremely poor if it spends 80% of its income on food.

The conventional meaning of poverty has been seen to be largely “consumption and income poverty” – that is, a lack of income and thus a lack of means to consume goods and services. This approach restricts the gender analysis of
poverty because even if women and men have similar incomes, their experiences in terms of poverty can be vastly different, based on their different responsibilities and capabilities in the context of consumption patterns.

In recent years, the definition of poverty has been expanded and reshaped as “human poverty”. Human poverty refers to the denial of opportunities and choices or capabilities for living a tolerable life. This definition facilitates a better appreciation of the way in which gender affects poverty as it includes issues such as poverty of decision-making power, poverty of time, poverty of means of self-determination. All of these are influenced by one’s gender.

### 3.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: What is poverty?

**OBJECTIVE:** To give participants the opportunity to reflect on what poverty means for them.

**TIME:** 1 hour.

Ask participants to write down on a card “what poverty mean to me”. Stick the cards up on a flip chart and ask everyone to look at the responses. Are all the responses in terms of income and spending power, or did some participants identify other types of poverty? Are any of the responses gender-related, eg “poverty of decision-making in relation to when to have sex”? Remind participants about the concept of human poverty described above.

You may want to use some of the following quotes to show how different people perceive poverty:

- *Don’t ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside my house. Look at the holes and count the number of holes. Look at my utensils and the clothes that I am wearing. Look at everything and write what you see. What you see is poverty.* Kenya, 1997

- *Poverty is humiliation, the sense of being dependent and being forced to accept rudeness, and indifference when we seek help.* Latvia 1998

- *If you are hungry you will always be hungry, if you are poor you will always be poor.* Vietnam 1999

- *Poverty is inherited. If you were born poor to a poor father he cannot educate you and cannot give you land, or very little land of poor quality; every generation gets poorer.* Uganda 1998

- *We may be poor in material things, but we are rich in the eyes of God.* Kenya 1996

- *I think poverty is something that begins at birth. Some people are unlucky from the day they are born. They will go anywhere in the world.* Brazil 1995

### EXAMPLES

**Methods to explore how the poor perceive poverty**

There are several methods that have been used to explore how the poor perceive poverty. The World Bank conducted participatory assessments in Zambia and Burkina Faso using these methods which the facilitator can adopt to the local situation:

1. **Wealth-ranking technique:** Villagers in Zambia were asked to sort a stack of cards, each labeled with the name of a head of household, into piles according to the relative wealth of the households, using any criteria of wealth they wished.

   **Findings:** Participants identified wealthy households as those with the biggest fields, enough money to dress well and give to the poor. Those identified as being poor were mainly female-headed households, people living by themselves, or those dependent on relatives or neighbours for their daily needs.
Ranking exercises are good for facilitating frank group discussions on poverty, especially among groups for whom poverty as a topic is sensitive and difficult.

2. **Point-and-shoot technique**: This was carried out in Burkina Faso and it involved lending ‘point-and-shoot’ cameras to representatives of communities. The representatives comprised men, women and children who had never used a camera before.

The representatives then took pictures of what they thought constituted poverty in their communities. The films were then developed locally and the prints distributed for discussion by the communities involved. The prints were later shared with some of the country’s senior policymakers.

### 3.3.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Brainstorm on poverty

**Objective**: To understand the causes of poverty.

**Time**: 1 hour.

Ask the participants to brainstorm the causes of poverty in their own community. They may make some of the following points:

- **Outward migration to urban areas** has created many female-headed households. This leads to a shortage of adult labour.
- **Female-headed households** account for 42.9% of rural households. They support more dependants and are also more prone to malnutrition.
- **Rising unemployment** translates into reduced funds and cash income within households.
- **A declining natural resource base**, which is due to drought, erosion, deforestation and increasing population pressure in the country, limits productive capacity.
- **Unsustainable farming practices** are utilised, especially due a lack/absence of alternatives. Note that even in times when the agricultural production is good, it is still inadequate to meet the basic food needs for Namibians.
- **A lack or a low level of education and technical skills** limits many people’s possibility of being gainfully employed. Most persons in this category have to rely on casual employment in low status jobs. This means that their income is low and rarely sufficient to support them and their families.
- The **HIV/AIDS** pandemic has deprived many children of their parents, and impoverished communities through the loss of wage earners and labour.

### 3.4 Why is gender, poverty and rural development important?

According to the National Gender Policy, about two-thirds of all Namibians live in conditions of poverty, with women being disproportionately represented amongst the poor. The gender disparities in economic power-sharing between the different cultural groups and different sexes have contributed to the poverty of women. In order to eradicate poverty and achieve sustainable development, all women and men, regardless of their status, must participate fully and equally in the formulation of economic and social policies and strategic planning.

**Feminisation of poverty**: This term refers to the fact that women have a higher incidence of poverty, that women’s poverty is usually more severe than that of men and that greater poverty among women is particularly associated with the rising rates of female-headed households. Feminisation of poverty has been associated with the absence of economic opportunities for women and women’s lack of access to and control of economic resources.
The Beijing Platform for Action gives an international overview of the intersection of gender and poverty:

More than 1 billion people in the world today, the great majority of whom are women, live in unacceptable conditions of poverty, mostly in the developing countries. Poverty has various causes, including structural ones.

Poverty is a complex, multidimensional problem, with origins in both the national and international domains. The globalisation of the world’s economy and the deepening interdependence among nations present challenges and opportunities for sustained economic growth and development, as well as risks and uncertainties for the future of the world economy. The uncertain global economic climate has been accompanied by economic restructuring as well as, in a certain number of countries, persistent, unmanageable levels of external debt and structural adjustment programmes.

In addition, all types of conflict, displacement of people and environmental degradation have undermined the capacity of Governments to meet the basic needs of their populations.

Transformations in the world economy are profoundly changing the parameters of social development in all countries.

One significant trend has been the increased poverty of women, the extent of which varies from region to region. The gender disparities in economic power-sharing are also an important contributing factor to the poverty of women. Migration and consequent changes in family structures have placed additional burdens on women, especially those who provide for several dependants.

Macroeconomic policies need rethinking and reformulation to address such trends. These policies focus almost exclusively on the formal sector. They also tend to impede the initiatives of women and fail to consider the differential impact on women and men. The application of gender analysis to a wide range of policies and programmes is therefore critical to poverty reduction strategies. In order to eradicate poverty and achieve sustainable development, women and men must participate fully and equally in the formulation of macroeconomic and social policies and strategies for the eradication of poverty.

The eradication of poverty cannot be accomplished through anti-poverty programmes alone but will require democratic participation and changes in economic structures in order to ensure access for all women to resources, opportunities and public services.

ARE PEOPLE IN NAMIBIA GETTING RICHER OR POORER?

Research on household income and expenditure shows that during the ten years from 1993/94 to 2003/04, the number of poor households in Namibia has fallen, and the gap between rich and poor has closed. According to the preliminary data from the latest survey, the number of poor households in Namibia (those which spend more than 60% of their income on food) has dropped from 38% to 28%. The number of severely poor households (those which spend more than 80% of their income on food) has fallen from just under 9% to just under 4%.

The gap between rich and poor in a country is measured internationally by a number called the Gini coefficient. This is a scale that ranges from 0 (perfectly equal) to 1 (totally unequal), meaning that a low score is desirable. Namibia’s score was 0.7 in 1993/94, and appears to have now fallen to 0.6. This is extremely dramatic in international terms.

These changes have baffled local economists. Job creation in formal employment is stagnant at best, and the rate of unemployment has actually risen over the ten years in question. Government pensions have not risen sufficiently to account for the change. Some say that the earlier survey might have overestimated poverty to begin with, because people may have been reluctant to disclose their income fully to officials, especially so soon after independence. Others say that informal employment, which is hard to capture accurately in surveys, may be the hidden factor.
Another theory is that urban poverty in Namibia is not well captured by the international measures of poverty, because urban dwellers who have to spend money on rent, transport, water and electricity may go hungry even if the percentage of income that they spend on food does not fit the percentages used to describe poverty.

It may be that the poorest people in Namibia are simply, as the statistics suggest, less poor than in the past.


### 3.5 The effects of poverty

The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) includes the following statement about the effects of poverty: “Poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure a sustainable livelihood; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increasing morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterised by lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life… While poverty affects households as a whole, because of the gender division of labour and responsibilities for household welfare, women bear a disproportionate burden, attempting to manage household consumption and production under conditions of increasing scarcity. Poverty is particularly acute for women living in rural households.”

### 3.5.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: The impact of poverty on women and men

**Objective:** To understand the gender dimensions of poverty.

**Time:** 1 hour

Split the participants into groups. Give each group a sheet of paper. Ask the groups to think about ways that poverty affects men and women differently. They should list the ways in which poverty affects women in one column and the way poverty affects men in another column, then share their lists with the whole group. The facilitator can combine all the ideas into a large list on a flip chart. Give participants an opportunity to discuss the items in each column, and to debate whether or not they are true for Namibia. Here are a few examples of the many items which might be included on the lists:

- Sons may be favoured over daughters when there are limited family resources for things like food and school fees. This can affect girls’ health and opportunities for girls.
- Women are often expected to assume responsibility for “making ends meet” in situations of crisis, meaning that they must combine work in formal or informal sectors with an unequal division of household labour. This “time poverty” can in turn have consequences for their personal health and development.
- International research shows that women are more likely than men to spend money on children. Men are sometimes socialised to feel that it is their responsibility to ‘provide’ for the family. Poverty can cause them to feel less ‘masculine’ and disempowered. They may consequently seek affirmation of their masculinity in other ways, such as irresponsible sexual behaviour or domestic violence.

There have been reports of physical and financial abuse against elderly women in cases where large numbers of dependants rely on the old age pension. Elderly women are often more vulnerable to this kind of abuse than elderly men.
3.5.2 How do men and women respond to poverty?

Consider the survival strategies that women and men tend to adopt to deal with poverty:

**Women**
- Migration/urbanisation
- Employment in informal sector
- Prostitution/exchange of sex for financial security
- Early marriages and child bearing

**Men**
- Migration/urbanisation
- Employment, possibly casual or seasonal
- Violence, stemming from frustration or feelings of powerlessness

3.5.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Responses to poverty by women and men

**Objective:** To understand women’s and men’s coping strategies for poverty.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Ask participants to discuss the gender implications of the following article. What factors might make men turn to theft and women to prostitution?

**Theft, prostitution on rise as hunger bites**

HARARE – Theft, prostitution and child labour are some of the means hunger-stricken communities in Zimbabwe are using to cope with the effects of drought and food shortages, according to a recent United Nations report.

A humanitarian situation report published this week by the UN relief and recovery unit in Harare and the Famine Early Warning Systems Network cited a UN report which identified several ‘coping mechanisms’ that people are resorting to, to ensure personal survival.

“Stealing is one of the coping strategies by people in both rural and urban areas,” said the report, adding that the thieves’ main targets are grain and stock.

Hunger has also forced villagers to poach wild animals, particularly in newly resettled farms, while others take to prostitution.

“Prostitution has generally increased in urban areas and growth points (rural service centres),” said the report.

A drought, the worst in a decade in southern Africa, coupled with two years of controversial government-led land reforms, have plunged Zimbabwe into an increasingly dire humanitarian situation, experts say.

Young children who should be going to school are forced to work either as traders or in illegal gold-panning activities in rivers to try to make ends meet for their families.
3.5.4 TRAINING EXERCISE: Women’s practical and strategic needs

Objective: To enable participants to analyse women’s practical and strategic needs in terms of poverty.

Time: 1 hour.

Remind participants of the definitions of women’s practical and strategic needs. Ask participants to describe what women’s practical and strategic needs are in their community in relation to poverty. Write the responses up in two columns (one for practical need and one for strategic needs) and see if everyone agrees about the placement of the needs which have been identified. Encourage group discussion where there is disagreement.

3.5.5 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender dimensions of poverty reduction strategies

Objective: To assist participants to critically analyse proposals aimed at reducing poverty.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Ask participants to brainstorm some ways of reducing poverty. Split them into groups and ask them to discuss the following questions for each idea:

- How would this help female-headed households?
- How would this help a grandmother looking after grandchildren?
- How would this help an unemployed school dropout?
- What other gender implications could there be?

You can use the proposal for a Basic Income Grant (below) as one of the ideas.

Basic Income Grant (BIG)

There is a proposal under discussion in Namibia for a Basic Income Grant (BIG). (Be sure that participants understand that – as of June 2006 – this is just an idea being put forward by some groups in Namibia.) The BIG would be a monthly cash grant (eg N$100) that would be paid by the state to every Namibian citizen regardless of age or income. In the case of children under age 18, the child’s the care-giver would receive the grant on behalf of the child. In practice that means if there are 6 people living in a household and the level of grant is set at N$100, this household in total would receive N$600 per month from the state. Any money paid to people who are not really in need would be re-collected through the tax system. The main benefit of the grant is its ability to improve everyone’s life by reducing poverty and inequality. Everybody would at least get some money to support him/herself. In addition, a BIG should redistribute income from the rich to the poor people in Namibia and by doing so make Namibia a more just and equal society.

“The young children in both rural and urban areas are being used as part of the survival system. They are sent selling a variety of goods,” said the report.

The report said some Zimbabweans have been “seeking relief from food insecurity and economic stress beyond their borders”, with many leaving the country to do menial jobs in neighbouring countries or further afield.

“Remittances from relatives working outside the country form an important aspect of the survival strategies,” it said…

The Namibian, 12 July 2002
3.5.6 TRAINING EXERCISE: Budgeting

Optional additional exercise: If you are training participants from a poor community with little education, you can assist them with budgeting skills by carrying out the following additional exercise.

Objective: To give participants experience in managing a budget.

Time: 1 hour.

Refer to Training Exercise 3.5.4 above (on the gender dimensions of poverty reduction strategies). Split the participants into groups. They should imagine that they are a grandmother, Lucia, who earns a pension of N$370 pm. Lucia looks after 3 of her grandchildren. Her daughter sends her N$130 pm to help. Lucia’s monthly income is therefore N$500. Decide how she should budget for the following items:

- rent
- water and electricity
- food
- clothing
- school fees
- school uniforms
- health care.

Discuss the results.

3.6 What is rural development?

There are many urban women and men living in poverty. But poverty in rural areas requires special attention because of the stagnation of rural development in many countries.

Rural development refers to the process of improving the socio-economic and political aspects of rural communities. It is a development strategy that has a bias for improving agriculture and other informal occupations which are common in rural areas.

3.6.1 Why is poverty worse in rural areas?

Vision 2030 explains some of the reasons why poverty is worse in rural areas:

- Commercial farms occupying 44% of Namibia’s land are owned by just over 4000 farmers, while communal land – which is often of poorer quality and less developed – occupies 41% of Namibia’s land and supports 95% of the nation’s farming population.

- In rural areas, the main source of income is subsistence farming (51%), compared to cash wages as the source of 27% of income with business accounting for only 5%. In urban areas this pattern is reversed, with subsistence farming accounting for only 2% of income, compared to cash wages at 77% and business at 8%. Self-employment in rural areas is constrained by lack of access to credit, technical and management services. Private sector investment in rural areas is minimal.

- Rural populations are more disadvantaged in terms of income, education, health care, electricity provision, water and sanitation supply and employment opportunities. The gap in rural-urban income and living standards encourages rural-urban migration.

- Food insecurity is a situation where households cannot provide enough food to ensure that all of their members can stay healthy. It can be a temporary or a chronic problem. Rural households are particularly vulnerable to food insecurity as a result of variable
rainfall, cycles of drought, environmental degradation and lack of cash income which can be used to supplement subsistence agriculture. About 49% of rural households suffer from food insecurity, as opposed to about 16% of urban households.

### 3.7 Gender dimensions of rural poverty

Rural poverty has a disproportionate impact on women. For example, according to Vision 2030, 44% of female-headed households depend on subsistence agriculture and 28% rely on wage employment, while only 29% of male-headed households depend on subsistence farming and 50% rely on wage employment. Female-headed households are more vulnerable to food insecurity than male-headed households.

Lower living standards in rural areas can have a disproportionate impact on women. For example, according to Namibia’s 2000 Demographic and Health Survey, 95% of households in urban areas have access to safe drinking water within 15 minutes during the rainy season, as compared to 68% of rural households. During the dry season, the difference widens, with only 48% of rural households being able to get water within 15 minutes from home. This is just one example of a disparity which has a particular impact on women’s workloads.

Another example relates to the collection of wood by women for use as fuel. Only 37% of Namibian households had electricity in 2000 – 73% of households in urban areas as compared to only 13% of households in rural areas. The pace of electrification is more rapid in rural areas, in an attempt to narrow this gap, but 86% of rural households in 2000 still had to rely on wood as the main fuel for cooking.

#### 3.7.1 Division of labour by gender

The Food and Agricultural Organisation points out that rural labour falls disproportionately on women throughout Africa. While the gender division of labour in rural areas differs from country to country, and even within the same country, some generalisations can be made.

- Women are almost exclusively responsible for domestic tasks, including food processing, cooking, cleaning, child care, water and wood collection.
- Women are involved in both domestic and productive activities. This means that they frequently work longer hours than men.
- In many countries, women are generally responsible for the production of food crops, while men are responsible for cash crops or work in formal employment.
- Particular agricultural tasks tend to be dominated by women, including weeding, harvesting, transportation, processing and storage.
- In many countries women tend to be responsible for small stock, while men are responsible for larger animals such as cattle.
- In some countries where fishing is part of the rural economy, women are confined to processing and marketing, although there are countries where women take part in all aspects of fishing, or even dominate certain types of fishing.

Many of these gender-based divisions of labour affect women’s access to cash income, as well as their status within the family and the community.

#### 3.7.2 Rural women’s access to agricultural resources and services

One key factor in the position of rural women is their lack of equal access to agricultural resources and services.
Land:
The rights to households for crop production, grazing and access to common pasteurage is granted by traditional authorities in most communal areas. Women within these settings usually gain indirect access to land use through men as wives, daughters and sisters. The security of tenure they have over this land is vague in practice, due to the discriminatory marriage customs and inheritance systems in most communities. The *Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002* says that widows may continue to occupy the land allocated to their husbands, even if they re-marry after their husband’s death. But there are still social and cultural barriers to the implementation of this legal provision. For example, a woman who is perceived as receiving some financial benefit from her husband’s death may be accused of causing his death by witchcraft.

Livestock:
Female–headed households normally own fewer livestock and are more likely to own no cattle at all. They therefore have less access to food, income from the sale of animals, meat and by-products, dung for fertiliser, draught power and social and cultural status. In other households, decision-making power over cattle often lies with male members of the family. Women in some communities are beginning to brand livestock which belongs to them, to increase their ability to control this asset.

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**CASE STUDY/DISCUSSION ON A DEVELOPMENT PROJECT**

**Northern Regions Livestock Development Project (NOLIDEP)**

This project was set up with the objective of promoting economic advancement through development of semi-commercial range management schemes in targeted communities in the regions of Kunene, Okavango, Caprivi, Omusati, Oshana, Oshikoto and Ohangwena. The beneficiaries were households within these communities that were identified as most vulnerable to food security, water shortages and rangeland degradation.

The original objective was later refined, with the new objective being to improve the economic and social well-being of the rural population in the Northern Communal Areas by promoting increased livestock production and greater productivity and ensuring development of a sustainable range management system with more equitable distribution of assets and resources.

Ask participants to discuss the differences between the first and second objectives. Why do they think the objective was redefined and what can they learn from this?

Poor livestock performance has been blamed on the ineffectiveness of the technical extension system. This resulted from shortages of qualified field personnel, transport, support facilities and adequate extension packages. There was also a lack of resources for recruitment of professional staff that prevented the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development from operating effectively.

This project included several forms of capacity-building. Agricultural extension technicians participated in a study tour. Staff from the Directorate of Extension and Engineering were trained in financial control and use of computers. In-service training in farming systems and range resource management, community empowerment and gender awareness was provided to ministry staff. Staff training included a workshop on water point development, nursery management and poultry farming. There was also a study on animal traction in South Africa and Zimbabwe. Two of the staff were supported in first degree studies.

Farmer to farmer study tours were also organised with training in improved animal health and breeding, poultry farming, cattle selection, cattle grading, book-keeping and small business management. The farmer groups included women group members and members of farm unions.
Ask participants to identify constraints to the extension system and what can be done to improve it. What kind of training is important for extension workers? What kind of training is important for farmers?

By 1999, progress had been made in community institutional development, with farmers’ associations being formed in Kunene Region. The Kunene North Communal Farmers Union (KUNOCOFU) went on to involve the community in the construction of a 50 km road to improve the access to markets. It also took an interest in livestock marketing and the role of the Meat Corporation in local cattle sales. In the North Central Region a working group on community-based organisations (CBOs) was established in the Farming Systems Research and Extension Unit. In turn nine CBOs were formed. These CBOs purchased small livestock and distributed 241 goats to women and 10 donkeys to men. Finally, in Caprivi, community development committees were formed. The Likwaam farmers’ cooperative concentrated on feed lots, quarantine and water point development and purchased small livestock for 52 beneficiaries.

What were the achievements for the regions involved? How did men and women benefit? How does this project operate as a poverty reduction strategy? What are some of the lessons that participants can learn from the NOLIDEP project?

Credit:
Access to credit through banks and government institutions which require title deeds as security has been a major hindrance for most women in Namibia. Further, prior to the Married Persons Equality Act 1 of 1996, there were serious legal constraints for married women, who required the consent of their husbands to enter into contracts and loans. In practice women still find it difficult to access credit in the rural areas.

However other forms of collateral have been identified in order to benefit small farmers. For instance, since 1992 the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development has provided loans to small-scale farmers, mostly for purchase of livestock. But, because control of livestock is still a male province, the benefits of this programme accrue mainly to men. There have been some positive initiatives for women. For example, a credit union movement active in the southern communal areas and in the Owambo region, has 70-80% female participation.

The impact of training for women in numeracy and simple bookkeeping

The Food and Agricultural Organisation regional office for Africa has produced training packages in numeracy and simple bookkeeping that aim at enhancing women’s managerial skills for small-scale enterprises. The impact of the training includes increased skills and knowledge, greater trading skills, higher returns, and improved self-esteem and general well-being of the women. Women who participated in these trainings wanted to enrol or keep their children in schools and some were able to help their children with maths homework, thus leading to a desire for continuous learning that is crucial in the fight against poverty.

Extension services and agricultural training:
Few agricultural extension programmes and services take into account the activities and priorities of women farmers. Most agricultural extension workers are male, and women still comprise a smaller percentage of the enrolment at agricultural colleges (although their presence has increased in recent years).
GREEN SCHEME

The Green Scheme was established within the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development with the mission to enhance socio-economic development and upliftment of Namibia’s rural communities. The strategy entails the creation of an enabling, commercially viable environment through an effective public-private partnership to stimulate increasing private sector investment in the irrigation sub sector.

The guiding principles of the Green Scheme are as follows:

- promotion of the objectives of the National Development Plan.
- encouraging the use of cost-efficient irrigation methods that use low volumes of water to maximum effect, coupled with a water pricing policy based on the scarcity of water and long-term environmental sustainability.
- support for the development of a sustainable and competitive agricultural sector.
- social upliftment of the rural community through the development of an efficient economic environment.
- promotion of the small, medium and micro enterprise sector.
- promotion of irrigation development
- facilitating the empowerment of small-scale irrigation farmers.

There are a number of Green Scheme sites in Namibia.

3.7.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Appropriate technologies

Objective: To consider the use and promotion of appropriate technologies.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

The following case study is typical of the experiences of women in Kavango and illustrates how insufficient farm power and lack of appropriate technologies contribute towards low agricultural production and the resultant widespread poverty amongst farming households, characteristic of this region. The majority of farmers in Kavango use draught animal power to grow their staple crop, millet. Oxen are the most widely used draught animals, even though other animal power sources, such as donkeys and horses, are available. Women’s access to oxen is generally limited due to the costs of oxen and implements, and because women generally do not own cattle. Women also appear to be afraid to work with oxen; as a result, animal traction in Kavango tends to be a male dominated technology with men doing the plowing and women doing the planting and weeding mainly by hand:

Women farmers in Kavango

Kasiku’s husband is a farmer in Kavango, but she does most of the farm operations. Her husband does the plowing and she does the planting and weeding mostly by hand. Before the start of the rainy season she collects cattle manure. After a day of weeding crop fields, she collects firewood and water which is used for cooking. She transports baskets of cattle manure, bundles of firewood and containers of water on her head – a time consuming, physically exhausting and potentially dangerous task. For the past three years their production of millet has been very low, leaving very little to sell. They barely make enough money and this year they do not know where they will get the necessary money to pay towards their children’s education.
Her neighbour, Kudumo, also assists her own husband in the farm operations, but with the added burden that her husband works in Windhoek. To assist in her tasks, Kudumo now makes use of donkeys. The donkeys are used to plough the fields, as pack animals and to transport Kudumo’s sick children to the nearby clinic. Kudumo told Kasiku that the donkeys are not only ‘friendlier’ to work with, but are cheaper to acquire and require less maintenance. Kasiku too would like to assist her husband with the plowing but has always been scared of working with oxen and feels intimidated by their large horns. Kudumo’s crop last year was so plentiful that she has managed to buy the more improved, lighter weeding implements presently available on the market, allowing her to weed crop fields more efficiently. Kudumo has told Kasiku that if the rainfall is good this year, she will make enough money to send her eldest child to attend high school in Windhoek. As Kudumo has more time on her hands, she now participates in community development programmes, something that Kasiku would also like to do.

Kasiku says that, unlike Kudumo’s husband, her husband sees himself as a cattle-keeper and hesitates to purchase donkeys, as he is concerned that the neighbours may consider them poor. When she points out that the neighbours are doing well despite owning donkeys, he tells her: “One cannot get meat from donkeys.” Kasiku does not own any oxen, but says even if she were allowed to she would be too scared to plough the fields with the oxen. She hopes that her husband will change his mind and acquire donkeys to lessen her workload. “Donkeys are so much cheaper to buy”, she says.

Ask participants to discuss:

- How does your community farm? Does it use all the resources available?
- What were coping strategies in the past for farming (eg organised communal work)? Are they still used? If not, why not?
- What appropriate technologies are under-used in rural communities in Namibia?
- Why are they under-used?
- What actions can be taken to promote the use of appropriate technologies in rural communities, and in your community specifically?
- How can communities network and support each other better?

The facilitator can refer to Module 10, section 10.9 on Gender and the Environment for examples of alternative technologies.

### 3.8 Action on poverty and rural development

Addressing poverty and rural development are enormous tasks. But there are many small steps forward that can be taken one at a time. Both women and men in the affected communities should be consulted about planned interventions.

#### 3.8.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Review government action on poverty and rural women

**Objective:** To gain experience in reviewing standards and policies and their implementation, and take action.

**Time:** 2 hours.

1. Divide participants into two groups.
2. Using the hand-out below, distribute Article 14(2) of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) to one group and ask them to discuss it. Remind participants that the government has ratified CEDAW and therefore committed itself to promoting the rights of rural women. Ask this group to decide if rural women are currently enjoying the rights listed. If not, what could be done to make those rights a reality in Namibia?

3. Using the handout below, distribute section 3.7 of the National Gender Policy to the other group. This document relates to strategies to improve women’s access to savings and credit facilities. Ask this group to discuss whether these strategies have been implemented. If not, what should be the next steps?

4. Ask the participants of both groups to imagine that they are members of a monitoring committee for the document in question. Each group should report on their findings and make suggestions on what measures the government could introduce to implement its commitments.

5. The full group should consider the ‘reports’ of the two small groups and develop an action plan which can be submitted to the relevant ministries or other stakeholders for follow-up. The action plans can also be used as the basis for lobbying and advocacy campaigns.

**CEDAW, Article 14(2)**

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

(a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

(b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;

(c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;

(d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, inter alia, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

(e) To organise self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self employment;

(f) To participate in all community activities;

(g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

(h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

**Other relevant CEDAW articles**

**Article 13(b):** This guarantees women’s rights to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit.

**Article 16(h):** This promises women the same rights as men in respect of ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property.
National Gender Policy, section 3.7

Strategies to Provide Access to Savings and Credit Facilities

Women, particularly those from rural and urban remote areas have no access to credit facilities to establish small-scale business. The Government through its various organs shall:

- Enhance the access of women and men, including women entrepreneurs, in rural and remote urban areas to financial services by strengthening links between the formal banks and intermediary lending organisations and agencies to be established within reach of the rural communities.

- Engage in purposeful training for women and intermediary institutions with a view to mobilising capital for those institutions and increasing the availability of credit to women.

- Encourage all financial institutions to use methods that are effective in reaching men and women living in poverty, including developing innovations to reduce banking bureaucracy, and transaction costs.

- Request banks to simplify banking practices, for example reducing the minimum deposit and other such requirements, that have prevented disadvantaged groups, and in particular women from opening bank accounts.

- Encourage participation and joint ownership, and mainstreaming of women clients in the decision-making of institutions providing credit and other financial services.

- Develop through research, conceptual and practical methods for incorporating gender perspectives into all aspects of economic policy-making, including planning and programming.

- Establish a Gender Development Fund to ensure development of sustainable gender-sensitive activities aimed at eradicating poverty.

3.8.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Strategies to address rural poverty

Objective: To develop ideas on practical ways to address poverty in rural areas.

Time: 2 hours.

Split the participants into 3 groups. If there are both female and male participants, make sure at least one group is only women.

Ask participants to brainstorm what should be done to address issues of rural poverty at 3 levels – at the individual (eg education), community (eg stopping property grabbing) and policy levels. List these on a flip chart.

Take feedback from the groups and discuss. Ask each participant to decide on 3 priorities from the combined lists, and make a tick next to each. When the whole group has finished ticking their priorities, pick the top 3 priorities.

Give one priority to each group and ask them to draw up an action plan – see example below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Who?</th>
<th>When?</th>
<th>End result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To set up a basket making &amp; selling project</td>
<td>Invite trainer to advise on setting up project.</td>
<td>Suggestions on who from community</td>
<td>Next month</td>
<td>Community knows what is required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collect resources to make baskets, decide on designs and where they will be marketed. Decide who will be paid what from the proceeds and who will manage the finances.</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>One month</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make sample baskets and market them.</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>One month</td>
<td>Baskets in production</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.8.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Allies for fighting poverty

**Objective:** To identify stakeholders that can help address poverty and rural development.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Ask participants to brainstorm to identify stakeholders operating in their areas which are addressing poverty and rural development. What do these allies do? How can they help with the participants’ plans?

If some details are not known, ensure that named participants will follow up and get the missing information within a certain timeframe, and agree how they will communicate this information to the others.

You can read the following case study to participants at the end as an example of a positive initiative.

---

**Case study: Fighting poverty through milk production**

**4 June 2004, Rome** – Poor farmers in northern Namibia will benefit from a new project agreed by FAO and the Government of Namibia to help develop the country’s dairy industry, FAO said today.

Northern Namibia suffers from a high level of poverty and food insecurity. Agricultural productivity is low and unemployment is high. Appropriate farming methods as well as marketing infrastructure are needed.

The aim of the FAO project is to improve the income and livelihoods of livestock farmers in the northern region of Namibia. This will be done by training farmers and others in improved milk production and in the collection, processing and marketing of milk and value-added milk products.

FAO said experience shows that small farmers can improve their earnings from dairy products by up to 50 percent when they are directly involved in processing and marketing their own surplus milk.

**Improved food security**

Currently Namibia imports large quantities of food products. There is considerable potential for developing the dairy sector, and this would improve food security in the country, strengthen livelihoods and raise nutritional status, FAO said.

However, there is very little knowledge of proper milk handling among farmers, and with the milk still being processed in the traditional way, hygiene and safety measures are often not applied.
There is also widespread consumer perception that locally produced dairy products are unhygienic and unsafe, and so the public often chooses imported milk products even though they are more expensive.

**High potential for beneficiaries**

The project will demonstrate improved, low-cost, practical technologies for small-scale milk collection and on-farm processing and marketing of butter, buttermilk and fresh cheese.

A public awareness campaign will be launched to raise confidence in the safety of locally produced and processed milk and in its high nutritional value.

*Some of the main beneficiaries of the project will be women, who do most of the cattle milking in the region. Providing them with training in milk processing and marketing will help them increase and stabilise their incomes.*

Urban consumers including schoolchildren will indirectly benefit from safer and better quality products as more milk becomes available at affordable prices.

**3.9 RESOURCES**

**Publications:**

- V Katjiuanjo, E Ndauendapo and E Shipiki, *Demographic and Housing Characteristics of Agricultural Labourers in the Commercial Farming Districts of Namibia*, Legal Assistance Centre, 1997.
- Legal Assistance Centre, *One day we will all be equal: A Socio-Legal Perspective on the Namibian Land Reform and Resettlement Process*, 2002.


- Evangelical Lutheran Church in the Republic of Namibia (ELCRN), *The Basic Income Grant in Namibia Resource Book*, Windhoek 2005. ELCRN also has leaflets explaining the proposal for the Basic Income Grant in different languages.

**Key organisations:**

- **Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development** manages and utilises water and agricultural resources to achieve sound socio-economic development by facilitating the empowerment of communities to manage their agricultural resources in a sustainable way, ensuring progressive improvement in households food security and nutrition and access to reliable water supply for households and other economic uses. The Department of Agriculture and Rural Development is responsible for animal health, agricultural research and training, agricultural extension and engineering, planning and policy and administration.

  **Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development**
  Government Office Park
  Luther Street
  Private Bag 13184
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 208 7111
  Fax: 061 208 7787

- **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare** has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training. The Ministry also administers certain grants which can help to alleviate poverty.

  **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare**
  Juvenis Building
  Independence Avenue
  Private Bag 13359
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 3111
  Fax: 061 238 941
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na

- **Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS)** coordinates nutrition programmes.

  **Ministry of Health and Social Services**
  Ministerial Building
  Harvey Street
  Private Bag 13198
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 203 2000
  Fax: 061 203 2334
• Ministry of Mines and Energy facilitates and regulates the responsible development and sustainable utilisation of mineral, geological and energy resources. Its Solar Revolving Fund falls under the Namibia Renewable Energies Programme (NAMREP) of the Ministry of Mines and Energy and it provides loans to the public to buy solar home systems and solar water heaters.

Ministry of Mines and Energy
1 Aviation Road
Private Bag 13297
Windhoek
Tel: 061 284 8111
Fax: 238643/220386
E-mail: info@mme.gov.na
Website: http://mme.gov.na

• The Directorate of Youth, Ministry of Youth, National Service, Sport and Culture offers training in alternative methods of horticulture.

Directorate of Youth
Ministry of Youth, National Service, Sport and Culture
NDC Building, Goethe Street
Private Bag 13391
Windhoek
Tel: 061 270 6111
Fax: 061 245 939

• The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN (FAO) helps member countries in devising agricultural policy, supporting planning, drafting effective legislation and creating national strategies to achieve rural development and hunger alleviation goals. The FAO disseminates data to aid development on its website, publishes hundreds of newsletters, reports and books, distributes several magazines, creates CD-ROMS and host several electronic forums.

Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN (FAO)
Sanlam Building, 154 Independence Avenue
PO Box 24185
Windhoek
Tel: 061 229220
Fax: 061 225726
E-mail: FAO-NA@fao.org
Website: http://www.fao.org

• Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC) strives to improve the lives of rural people by diversifying the socio-economy in Namibia’s communal areas to include wildlife and other valuable natural resources.

Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC)
PO Box 24050
Windhoek
irndc@iafrica.com.na

• The Joint Consultative Committee – Promoting Small and Micro Enterprises is a non-profit, nationwide association of small and micro enterprises (SMEs). Core activities include networking between local financial and non-financial service providers; financial and other service provision to SMEs; research on issues related to the SME sector in Namibia; capacity enhancement of service providers; assisting in monitoring and evaluation of organisations; business advisory service; information collection, production, dissemination; and operation of the Small Business Information Centre.
NACOBTA’s central objective is to provide rural communities with a voice in the tourism industry. The services it provides to beneficiaries are training in tourism, business skills, and tour guiding; advice on business plans, product development, administrative financial systems, performance indicator data systems, and management structures; marketing; sourcing funding for tourism infrastructure and product development.

NACOBTA
3 Weber Street, Eros
PO Box 86099
Windhoek
Tel: 061 250558
Fax: 061 222647
E-mail: office.nacobta@iway.na
Website: http://www.nacobta.com.na

The Namibia Development Trust (NDT) supports the participation of local communities in land issues and provides assistance to established and emerging conservancies in southern Namibia. It is involved in environmental awareness, promotion and training programmes.

Namibia Development Trust
57 Pasteur Street, Windhoek West
PO Box 8226
Bachbrecht
Windhoek
Tel: 061 238 002/3
Fax: 061 233261
E-mail: info@ndt.org.na
Website: http://www.ndt.org.na

The aims of the Namibia Nature Foundation (NNF) are to promote sustainable development, the conservation of biological diversity and natural ecosystems, and the wise and ethical use of natural resources. Its services include project and programme co-ordination, facilitation and support, financial services and accountability in the management and administration of funds, knowledge of the Namibian environment, biodiversity conservation and sustainable development issues, experience in project and programme planning, development, management and administration.

Namibia Nature Foundation
4th Floor, Kenya House, Robert Mugabe Avenue
PO Box 245
Windhoek
Tel: 061 261778
Fax: 061 248344
E-mail: sw@nnf.org.na
Website: http://www.nnf.org.na
The Namibian National Farmers Union is a federation of regional farmers, particularly communal farmers. Its central role is to serve as a mouthpiece for communal land and emergent farmers. Its services include advocacy and lobbying, training and capacity building, institutional support, business advice, education, and other special projects relating to agriculture.

Namibian National Farmers Union
4 Asalidesab Street, Windhoek West
PO Box 3117
Windhoek
Telephone: 061 271117
Fax: 061 271155
E-mail: nnfu@mweb.com.na

Namibia Rural Development Project (NRDP) Namibia Rural Development Project (NRDP) works with rural households and community-based structures. Its key services are small business management training, mentoring of SMEs and capacity building of HIV and AIDS groups.

Namibia Rural Development Project (NRDP)
PO Box 24886
Windhoek
Tel: 061 23 7279
Fax: 061 23 4378
E-mail: nrdp@iafrica.com.na

PENDUKA is a non-profit making, non-governmental development project working with women’s groups in the rural, underdeveloped areas of Namibia. Over 500 women, working in 16 different groups all over Namibia, have been trained in different needlework skills and are paid a fair rate for the items that they make. Priority is given to disabled women and women suffering from tuberculosis (TB), or TB and HIV.

Penduka
PO Box 7635
Katutura
Windhoek
Tel/Fax: 061 257210 / 260142

Renewable Energy Information Network of Namibia (REINNAM) is a non profit organisation based at the Polytechnic of Namibia which provides education and technical assistance on renewable energy.

REINNAM
Polytechnic of Namibia
Private Bag 13388
Windhoek
Tel: 061 2072088
Website: http://www.polytechnic.edu.na/reinnam

Rural People’s Institute for Social Empowerment (RISE Namibia) is a non-governmental community development agency. Its mission is “to facilitate a process that develops sustainable organisational human resources capacity at grassroots level, through a series of tailor-made training and mentoring”. For the past few years it has organised rural household/small-scale farmers into savings and credit associations to access credit for household and agricultural inputs.
Small Business Credit Guarantee Trust (SBCGT) facilitates and assists small entrepreneurs to have access to commercial loans from formal financial institutions.

Small Business Credit Guarantee Trust (SBCGT)
Private Bag 13340
Windhoek
Tel: 061 24 3970
Fax: 061 243 5266
E-mail: info@sbcgt.org.na

Women’s Action for Development (WAD) is a self-help organisation which aims at uplifting the socio-economic and socio-political situation of primarily Namibian rural women. It is active in 8 regions of the country, namely Omusati, Kunene, Erongo, Otjozondjupa, Omaheke, Khomas, Karas and Hardap, and intends to expand eventually to all 13 regions. WAD assists small businesses to set up, eg a butchery and a sewing project supporting mosquito nets.

Women’s Action for Development
Swabou Building, 25 Schonlein Street, Windhoek West
PO Box 370
Windhoek
Tel: 061 22 7630
Fax: 061 23 6372
E-mail: wad@mweb.com.na
Module 4
GENDER BALANCE IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING

4.1 Objective of the module

- To sensitise participants on the importance of ensuring equal opportunity, access and retention in education of girls and women, boys and men.

4.2 Target groups

- Teachers/lecturers
- Learners/students
- Parents
- School boards
- Educational officers

4.3 What is gender balance in education and training?

Gender balance in education and training can be defined as follows:

“... girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and ... enjoy teaching methods and curricula free of stereotypes, and academic orientation and counseling unaffected by gender bias. Most fundamentally, it implies equality of outcomes in terms of length of schooling, learning achievement and academic qualifications and, more broadly, equal job opportunities and earnings for similar qualifications and experience.”

UNESCO Education For All Global Monitoring Report, 2003/4

As the National Gender Policy explains, education is a human right and an essential tool for achieving the goals of equity, development and peace. Non-discriminatory education benefits both girls and boys and thus ultimately contributes to more equal relationships between women and men. Equality of access to and attainment of qualifications is necessary if more women are to become agents of change. Women’s literacy is an important key to improving health, nutrition and education in the family and to empowering women to participate in decision-making in society. Investing in formal and non-formal education and training for girls and women, with its exceptionally high social and economic return, has proved to be one of the best means of achieving development and economic growth that is both sustained and sustainable.
Unfortunately, discrimination in girls' education still persists due to traditional attitudes, early marriages and pregnancies, gender-bias in teaching and curricula materials and sexual harassment.

In addition, girls are involved in heavy domestic work from a very early age. They are expected to manage both educational and domestic responsibilities, which often leads to poor academic performance and early drop-out. The importance of ensuring access for and retention of girls and women at all levels of education and in all academic areas needs to be emphasised.

4.4 Legal framework

Article 20 of the Constitution states:

(1) All persons shall have the right to education.
(2) Primary education shall be compulsory and … will be provided free of charge.
(3) Children shall not be allowed to leave school until they have completed their primary education or have attained the age of 16 years, whichever is the sooner…

The Constitution is reinforced by the Education Act 16 of 2001, which provides in section 53 that education is compulsory for every child from the beginning of the year in which the child turns 7 until the last school day of the year in which the child turns 16, or until the child has completed primary education (whichever comes first). Section 53(3) of this Act states that parents must make sure that their children are in school. If they do not, the Minister of Education is supposed to issue a written warning to them. Keeping a child home from school without cause or employing a child under age 16 during school hours is a criminal offence (section 77(1)(g)).

Section 38(1) of the Education Act states:

All tuition provided for primary and special education in state schools, including all school books, educational material and other related requisites, must be provided free of charge to learners until the seventh grade, or until the age of 16 years, whichever occurs first.

Section 25 of the Education Act allows schools to establish school development funds for the development of school facilities and for educational, sport and cultural activities at school. However, the school board is obliged to inform all school parents about the procedure for the full or partial exemption of those who are unable to pay the school development fund contribution.

The regulations issued under this Act say that a learner may not be denied enrolment at a state school solely on the ground that the parent has failed to pay the full annual contribution to the school development fund. They also say that a principal or teacher of a state school may not, in any way, prejudice a learner or discriminate against a learner because a parent has failed or refused to pay the school development fund contribution for that learner.

The school development fund contribution for each learner may not be more than N$500/year for secondary schools, or N$250/year for primary schools. If both biological parents of a learner are deceased, the learner is classified as an orphan and the school board must fully exempt the learner from payment of contribution to the school development fund if there is proof that there is no provision for the learner’s education.

The procedures for exemptions for orphans and poor children are not well-utilised, due to lack of awareness and schools’ reluctance to inform parents of the possibility of exemptions.
4.5 Policy framework

There are numerous policy frameworks that guide the planning and implementation of education in Namibia.


This policy was developed to ensure equal access and opportunity to education as outlined in the Constitution. It provides temporary policy options to achieve 100% enrolment in school for educationally marginalised children including:

- teenage mothers
- children of farm workers
- children in remote areas, eg San and Ovahimba
- street children
- children in informal settlement (squatter camps)
- children with impairments (physical or mental)
- children of families in extreme poverty.

4.5.2 Policy on Pregnancy Amongst Learners (Circular Formal Education 5/2001)

The alarming numbers of learners who are forced to terminate or suspend their education due to pregnancy highlights the need for a clear policy on this topic. The policy on pregnancy has been in draft form since 1997. In 2001, the Ministry sent out a circular called “Implementation of the Policy on Pregnancy Amongst Learners”, which set forth the following “temporary guidelines”:

- A pregnant girl should be allowed to attend regular classes at least until her pregnancy is visibly clear.
- Girls who fall pregnant should be allowed to return to normal schooling after spending at least a year with the baby.
- Pregnant school girls [should] be allowed to attend special afternoon/evening classes and they should also be allowed to sit for examinations.
- The same conditions should apply to the schoolboy who is held responsible for the pregnancy.

The application of these guidelines by different schools seems to be inconsistent, with some schools incorrectly believing that they are required to suspend pregnant learners as soon as the pregnancy begins to “show”, while others allow pregnant schoolgirls to attend classes until just prior to delivery.


This details the minimum standards that teachers must adhere to in relation to learners and includes this rule:

- [Teachers] may not become involved in any form of romance or sexual relations with a learner or sexual harassment or abuse of a learner”.

4.5.4 Namibia Student Financial Assistance Fund (NSFAF) (1997)

The NSFAF is a replacement of the public service bursary scheme. The policy of the NSFAF is to ensure and guarantee equal distribution of funds to students throughout all regions, and to increase the number of students who have access to financial support from the scheme. The supported fields of study are, in order of priority:

1. Teacher education (majoring in mathematics, science, English and computer science)
2. Medical and related sciences
3. Agriculture and veterinary science
4. Natural science, computer technology and information and technology
5. Engineering and related fields
6. Communication, conservation, tourism, hospitality and information science
7. Law
8. Economics, commerce and accounting
9. Police and strategic studies
10. Public administration and personnel management
11. Humanities, social work, nursing
12. Culture, sports and art.

What is the representation of males and females in the above fields? Research has shown that although girls and women are taking part in all disciplines, they are predominantly visible in fields that are traditionally considered to be “feminine”, such as nursing, teaching and social work. The implication of such unequal participation implies that fewer women would receive loans since such fields are lower on the priority list. It is imperative that females and males are given equal opportunity and access to all fields of studies.

4.6 Gender balance in education – the facts

4.6.1 Primary and secondary education

Namibia has made excellent progress since Independence in education. It spends approximately 1/3 of its Gross National Product on education. The number of children being enrolled in Namibian primary schools is amongst the highest in Africa. But marginalised children – those in the Himba and San communities, orphans and vulnerable children, and children living in extreme poverty – are most likely to miss out.

Some children are still not able to access free primary education due to poverty and so do not receive the formal education to which they are entitled. In 2002, the Ministry of Basic Education and UNICEF commissioned NEPRU to conduct a study on the costs of School Development Fund (SDF) exemptions for orphans and vulnerable children. Contributions to School Development Funds (SDFs) are not technically “school fees”, but the required “contributions” to these funds have excluded some children from receiving primary education. The NEPRU study found that SDF costs in state primary schools ranged from N$5 (in Caprivi) to N$1,380 (in Windhoek) per year.

Schools had different procedures for exemption from the School Development Funds. These procedures were found to be often informal and not clear to 37% of the parents interviewed in the report:

*The 27 community leaders/traditional leaders interviewed furthermore indicated that they knew of 642 cases of learners dropping out of school because they are unable to pay SDF. Community leaders in the rural areas knew of more cases than their urban counterparts with 96% of the reported cases.*

*Many of the organisations we spoke to provided many examples when schools indirectly exercise their power to select applicants and ration school places according to the potential ability to pay. This is despite declared government policy that no one can be turned away because of inability to pay SDF.*

Godana & Kalili, Study to Cost School Development Fund Exemption for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children, 2003

Overall school enrolment for girls is higher than that for boys – 75% of school-age girls are in school, compared with 72% of school-age boys. But this positive statistic obscures the fact that boys are more likely to move from junior secondary school to senior secondary school – 56% of boys move up, compared to 42% of girls.
For all Namibian schools, at all levels of learning, more females than male learners are promoted every year (87.1% as compared to 85.8%). Girls have higher promotion rates in the lower grades, figures which may be distorted due to the higher percentages of boys leaving school in those grades; while there is a lower promotion rate for girls in the higher grades (grade 7 through grade 11) which may be due to the higher number of girls who leave school due to pressures at home and teenage pregnancy.

4.6.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender disparities in higher grades

Objective: To consider actions to improve female performance in higher grades.

Time: 1 hour.

Consider the following table and the accompanying observation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Girl learners</th>
<th>Promotion (%)</th>
<th>Repetition (%)</th>
<th>Leavers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>80.9</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 5</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>95.1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MBESC 1998: 54-60; MBESC 2002a:56
In every grade, starting with grade 1 and 2, girls are more likely to be promoted than boys. At about grade 6 to 7 the promotion rate is approximately equal. Thereafter, male learners are more likely to be promoted than female learners.

Ask participants to discuss action plans to improve female performance in the higher grades. Each participant (or each small group of participants) should list five actions which could assist female learners to stay in school and move up through the higher grades. This list should say who would be responsible for each action.

4.6.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Regional disparities in gender and education

Objective: To understand the reasons for regional disparities in gender and education.

Time: 2 hours.

The overall statistics on males and female performance in primary and secondary school also hide regional disparities. The Rundu educational region has the largest gender gap between girls and boys. In 2001, girls accounted for 49.5% of primary school learners, 46.6% of junior secondary school learners and only 37.8% of senior secondary school learners. The Ministry of Basic Education and Culture and UNICEF commissioned field research in the Rundu Educational region in an effort to find out the reasons for this gender gap.

Discuss the gender implications of the following statements and statistics from the study:

- Available data suggests that both boys and girls in Kavango region continue to be disadvantaged in educational terms, as evidenced by a high rate of unqualified teachers and unfavourable patterns of learner flow.

- The recent insecurity on the border area to Angola caused major disturbances to the operation of schools in affected areas during the year 2000. Fortunately the situation had largely stabilised during 2001... The increased presence of soldiers in the area however is an element relevant to girls’ education.

- Teachers and school managers attribute the lower performance of girls across all subjects mainly to girls themselves, as well as to parents’ lack of support. They perceive girls to have a lower self-esteem and assertiveness compared to boys. In addition, they opine that girls view education as a lower priority than what is commonly termed ‘social life’, as evidenced by the low attention they pay to class and homework, by absenteeism, and by the fact that they engage in sexual relationships from an early age.

- Female learners in grades 6 to 12 were also interviewed: Virtually all girls who participated in the focus groups professed that they valued education very highly indeed, stating that they aspired not just for completion of Grade 12 but for tertiary education... Factors cited as affecting girls more than boys were unsafe hostels in which girls are prone to sexual harassment by learners and adult men, teachers seeking relationships with girls, pregnancy as well as inadequate equipment in schools and hostels (lack of mattresses, lack of chairs). A high number of girls stated that the amount of domestic work they were compelled to do at home interfered with their schoolwork. Some also noted that parental poverty caused the termination of school careers, as households were unable or unwilling to pay school fees. In addition, parents’ inability to meet girls’ needs (clothes, cosmetics) was given as one of the reasons why girls aspired to relationships with adult men who could provide such items. They acknowledged, however that this ‘sponsor’ phenomenon has become a norm among peers, and that girls themselves actively sought out boyfriends that were in a position to treat girls to ‘social life’ and entertainment. The risk of falling pregnant as a result of
sexual relationships was mentioned almost fatalistically as a natural consequence, albeit a dire one. This contrasts with the apparent general awareness of contraception methods.

Felton and Haihambo-Muetudhana, Girls’ Education in Rundu Educational Region, MBESC and UNICEF, 2002

Then ask participants to identify factors affecting gender balance in education in their own regions or communities, and to create actions plans for addressing them.

4.6.4 Tertiary education

Women’s enrolment in tertiary educational institutions has shown a marked improvement over the last few years in colleges of education, vocational education and training, the University of Namibia and the Polytechnic of Namibia, as well as smaller institutions such as colleges of agriculture, national health training centres and the Namibian Institute of Mining and Technology. For example, in 2002, women constituted 62% of enrolments at UNAM. Although for some courses (such as science and agriculture) male enrolments outnumbered female by 61% to 39%, the numbers of women enrolling for these courses are increasing. Similarly, male enrolment is increasing in courses such as nursing which have traditional been seen as leading to ‘female’ professions. (Iipinge and LeBeau, Beyond Inequalities, 2005)

The lack of female role models can still be problematic:

Girls mentioned a number of professional career ambitions, including some not traditionally female ones (such as law, nature conservation, journalism, piloting besides nursing, teaching, clerks and secretaries). By contrast the role models that were generally mentioned did not reflect professional or education status, but were female family members (mothers or sisters). Teachers were one of the few non-family role models mentioned. (Felton and Haihambo-Muetudhana, Girls’ Education in Rundu Educational Region, MBESC and UNICEF, 2002)

4.6.5 National Literacy Programme

This programme, established by the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, caters for the education needs of adults and out-of-school youth. The majority of participants in this programme are women. It includes a 3-stage Adult Basic Education Programme which includes learning how to read and write in mother tongue and basic English, numeracy skills and knowledge and skills in various subjects such as agriculture, health, small-scale businesses and civics. Although male enrolment in these programmes has increased, figures still reflect that nationally, significantly more women enrol for these programmes than men. For example, in 2001, 69.5% of the 11 405 people tested in Stage 3 of the programme were women.

4.7 Gender biased attitudes, practices and beliefs of society towards education

Gender biased attitudes, practices and beliefs are played out in the home, in educational establishments, in the media and in society at large. There is no doubt that gender discrimination also exists in the educational system. This can be manifested in many ways including teaching methods, curricula, school books and career advice.

In particular, women and girls have been traditionally excluded from the disciplines of science and technology due to gender-based differences in roles, responsibilities and expectations. Today, it is evident that girls and women can equally undertake studies and work in fields related to science and technology. However, a lot still needs to be done to encourage girls and women to realise their untapped capabilities and potentials.
Traditionally, girls enrolled for subjects such as home economics, needlework, hotel management, catering, etc. To correct this trend, FAWENA (the Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia) in partnership with the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, coordinates with principals to identify girls who are facing challenges in mathematics and science subjects to offer tutoring sessions after school. These extra classes are conducted a few weeks before they sit for the final examination, after the May/August school holidays. Girls take these classes seriously, as the majority of those who signed up participated actively in the program. (Republic of Namibia, CEDAW 2nd & 3rd Country Report, 2004. See also 3.11 of this Module for a fuller case study of this initiative.)

4.7.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender stereotypes

OBJECTIVE: To understand the gender stereotypes relating to education and how to challenge them.

Time: 2 hours.

Ask participants to brainstorm and discuss the following questions:

1. **What are the gender biased attitudes, practices and beliefs of society towards education?**

Make sure the following stereotypes are covered:

- Girls will get married and stay at home to raise children, so they do not need as much education as boys.

  **Note:** More than half (54%) of women aged 15-49 in Namibia have never married. The idea that girls do not need to be prepared to support themselves because there will be someone else to “provide” for them is clearly a myth.

- Girls are most suited to do “caring jobs” – such as nursing or social work.
- Girls are not good at maths and science.

2. **How can these stereotypes be changed?**

Mention the following points:

- the importance of initiatives to build the confidence and self esteem of girls, through initiatives such as girls’ clubs. (See section 3.12 at the end of this chapter for details on the Namibian Girl-Child Organisation and FAWENA.)
- the need for gender-neutral advice on careers
- the need for girls to be brought into contact with successful women in the community as role models, including those working with science and technology (for example, inviting such women to be speakers at schools).

**Ideas for activities promoting science and technology for boys and girls:**

- Hold discussions with principals, teachers, school boards and educational officers on ways to promote science and technology – particularly for girls.
- Invite a speaker skilled in science and technology to give motivational talks to learners or students. Identify a woman for this role if possible.
- Younger children will enjoy “science fun days” where people involved in science such as pharmacists or agricultural extension officers give demonstrations of science at work in daily life.
4.7.2 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Case studies on portraying gender-biased attitudes, practices and beliefs of society towards education**

**OBJECTIVE:** To identify and challenge gender biases in education.

**TIME:** 1 hour 30 minutes.

The facilitator can read or give as a handout the case study below. Discuss with participants:

- What are the underlying gender biases?
- Do they have any basis in fact?
- What would you advise should be done in this situation?

**Case study 1:**

Ingrid is a girl in Grade 8 who lives in a rural area in the north. She enjoys mathematics at school and comes top of her class. Her mother has been a domestic worker since the age of 15, and her father is a truck driver who is away most of the week. The time has come to make a decision about what subjects to take in the future. Her mother wants Ingrid to take crafts and technology, which is in one package offered by the school – she knows she can help Ingrid with her homework in this subject. But Ingrid wants to take accounting, which is in a different package.

**Case study 2:**

Cornelia is an 11-year-old San girl. Her parents did not go to school, and they say that education teaches the young to disrespect their elders. The family lives in a village many kilometers from the nearest school. The authorities have arranged for Cornelia to start school and live in the school hostel. The school and hostel fees will be waived because of the family’s poverty. Cornelia has now started Grade 1. Her young classmates tease her for being so much older and bigger than they are. Cornelia has no money – she cannot even buy sanitary towels. She is miserable. Her parents say if she leaves the school and comes home, they will arrange a marriage for her soon.

4.7.3 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Role play depicting gender-biased attitudes in a family in the community**

**Objective:** To identify and challenge gender biases about education in the family.

**Time:** 2 hours.

Participants should brainstorm biases about education in the family. Some examples might be:

- Children should spend time on housework and looking after the cattle – even if that means they do not have enough time for homework.
- Girls do not need as much education as boys as they will get married and leave the family.

Ask participants to split into groups and give each group a topic to develop a role play around, based on the results of the brainstorm, showing attitudes and practices in a family setting in their own community. After each role play ask: “What are the problems here? What can be done?”
4.8  Sexuality education

4.8.1 Definition

Sexuality education (sometimes called sex education, relationship or family life education) is a process of acquiring information and forming attitudes and beliefs about sex, sexual identity, relationships and intimacy. Key influences on shaping learner’s attitudes, beliefs and behaviours on sexuality are peers, schools, the media, parents, churches and communities.

4.8.2 Components of sexuality education

Sexuality education includes a broad range of topics:

- Sexual development and sexuality: discussion of biological characteristics, sexual violence and gender roles
- Female and male reproductive system: structure and functioning of reproductive systems, hormones and the menstrual cycle
- Conception, pregnancy and birth, caring for a new born child
- Family planning and contraceptives
- Sexual transmitted infections, including HIV
- Inherited characteristic and genetic variation
- Human evolution.

Ministry of Basic Education, 1997

Development of general life skills such as communication, negotiation, decision-making, assertion and recognition of peer pressure from other people is also a crucial component of sexuality education.

4.8.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Dealing with disapproval of sex education

Objective: To consider how best to deal with disapproval of sex education.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Split the participants into groups of 4. Two people in each group are parents who are complaining that their children are being taught about topics which are taboo to discuss outside of the family. The other two are teachers who have to respond to the complaint. Act out the role plays.
Ask:

- What arguments might influence the parents most?
- How can the parents be involved in some way?

An alternative or additional session on this topic (which is short enough to fit into a school lesson – 45 minutes) is to organise a debate amongst learners on “Does sex education promote early sexual activity amongst young people?”

4.8.4 TRAINING EXERCISE: Sexual harassment in schools

Objective: To identify types of sexual harassment in schools and how to address the issue.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Ask participants (who will be school learners) to identify types of sexual harassment which take place in schools. These may include sexual remarks from boys, sexual approaches from teachers and gang rape (“tournaments”).

Ask participants to draw up a Sexual Harassment Policy for their school which should clarify what is unacceptable behaviour and what penalties may be imposed.

(Note: The Code of Conduct for the Teaching Service, 2004, from the Ministry of Education explicitly prohibits love affairs and exploitative acts between a teacher and a learner.)

4.9 Strategies for gender balance in education

The National Gender Policy sets forth the following goals for the elimination of gender disparities in education:

- Ensure access and maintain female and male participation rates in primary, secondary and tertiary education, in particular for the most disadvantaged groups.

- Eliminate gender disparities in access to all levels of education, from early years of schooling and continuously, so that both girls and women, boys and men have access to career
counseling, training, bursaries and by adopting purposeful positive action in favor of girls and women.

- Strive to provide opportunities to gender sensitize the communities at grassroots, schools and work-places through seminars, workshops and campaigns through the media for the purpose of stressing the need for support from parents, and the community at large, to understand the importance of girls’ and women’s access to education.

- Promote, in collaboration with all stakeholders, means to eliminate barriers that hinder the schooling of pregnant adolescents and young mothers by developing policies, establishing accessible and affordable child-care facilities within the community and putting in place parental counseling facilities.

The government’s Education For All (EFA) National Plan of Action 2002-2015 has the following goals (backed up by objectives and programmes):

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.
3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.
4. Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.
5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015 with focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
6. Improving every aspect of the quality of education and ensuring excellence so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

### 4.9.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Strategies for gender balance in education

**Objective:** To consider strategies for achieving gender balance in education.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Read the strategies from the National Gender Policy to the participants. Ask if these goals have been achieved in their communities. If not, each participant should list one concrete action which they could personally take to move towards each of the goals.

Ask each participant to explain why they chose that action. Consider all the actions together and discuss how the participants can work together to achieve their objectives.

### 4.10 Case study

**Kavango girls show maths and science are female**

Fifty-four girls, 6 teachers, 5 days, 3 subjects and lots of brain power – this was the first vacation school for the Kavango Girls Education Project. The project was set up in response to a field study into the difficulties faced by girls in the Kavango Region. Education statistics show the
Kavango has the lowest percentage of female learners in all mainstream secondary school phases in Namibia – falling to 38.8% in senior secondary school (EMIS 2001). The Kavango Girls Education Project is supported by UNICEF and covers a wide range of activities from community sensitisation to improving the hostel environment.

The Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia (FAWENA) has a proven track record in supporting initiatives to help girls in Windhoek with revision in Mathematics and Science, and was keen to extend this programme to the regions. The main purpose of the recent vacation school in Kavango Region was to provide focused revision in Mathematics, Physical Science and English for grade 12 girls. The plan was to put the girls into groups depending on their level of entry exam, and for them to work together with qualified teachers two hours on each subject each day. They would be given a pack of Maths and Physical Science Exam Papers, a Maths set, and writing implements. All they needed to bring was enthusiasm and brain power.

As there were only 74 girls in the whole region taking the Science subjects in Grade 12, all were invited. The time was fixed for Monday 2nd to Friday 6th September. The Maths and Physical Science teachers were in Namibia as volunteers with VSO, while the English teachers were from Rundu Senior Secondary School and St Boniface. The venue was Maria Mwengere Senior Secondary School, about 15 km outside of Rundu.

Information letters were sent out, lessons prepared, caterers chosen, and stationary bought. Then it was just a question of waiting. Registration was due to start on Monday from 11 am, but some girls already arrived on Sunday afternoon. Transport proved to be difficult. A government combi set off on Monday to collect the girls, and was not seen again! We resorted to driving around Rundu looking for girls carrying bedding and bags, and asking them if they were going to the Vacation School. Some girls headed for the Youth Centre instead of the school. Eventually we had 54 girls signed up, and on Tuesday morning we had a slightly delayed opening ceremony. Traditional leader Angelina Matumbo Ribebe and Mr Kantema, Director of Rundu Educational Directorate, gave words of encouragement, and we started officially with lessons.

Everyone we spoke to saw the need for the Project, and was enthusiastic about its success. However, it was not enough to give academic support while ignoring the social context that makes many young women vulnerable to teenage pregnancy, domestic violence and HIV/AIDS. In addition to the classes, there were sessions on these issues. A member of Lironga Eparu, an organisation for people living with HIV and AIDS, gave a moving talk, and Women’s Solidarity did sessions on relationships and domestic violence.

The evaluation forms were very positive, with many rating the standard of teaching and the materials as excellent. The greatest number of negative comments was for the venue, mainly due to mosquitoes, a lack of cleanliness and problems with the water supply. Areas for improvement included the length of the lessons – two hours is a long time to concentrate on one subject; the need to cover biology because it is compulsory in the Science Field; and the inclusion of the science subjects at the higher level (HIGCSE). Many comments mentioned the need to make this an annual event so that others girls could benefit.

The spirit of the school can be summarised by the comments from one girl. She said that she was pleased to find that she had a bed, and there was lots of food. She had anticipated that she would be sleeping on the floor and have nothing to eat. In spite of that, she came. With such determination and willingness to succeed in school, we owe the young women of the Kavango the opportunity to make the most of their abilities.

Sister Namibia magazine, March 2003
4.11 RESOURCES

Publications:

- Silke Felton and Cynthya Haihambo-Muetudhana, *Girls’ Education in Rundu Educational Region*, UNICEF: Windhoek, 2002 (See contact details for UNICEF below.) The paper is also available for free from the website http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/files/NMB_02-800.pdf
- Gerald Erich Tjipueja, Provision of equal access to boys and girls in formal schooling in Namibia, Journal 14, Article 4, 2002, available for free from this website: www.edsnet.na/Resources/Reform%20Forum/journal14/

Key organisations:

- The Ministry of Education is responsible for formal education for children as well as for adult education. It makes special efforts to reach educationally marginalised children, including children of farm workers, San children, Ovahimba children, street children and children in squatting areas. It also promotes equitable access to education for learners with disabilities.

Ministry of Education
Government Office Park
Luther Street
Windhoek
Tel: 061 293 3111
Fax: 061 22 4277
The National Institute for Educational Development (NIED) mobilises both human and physical resources in improving the quality and relevance of education in Namibia through innovative curriculum and materials development, research in education and training, and by linking the Ministry of Education to the local community and Namibia to the international community in these fields. It has Teacher Resource Centres throughout the nation.

**National Institute for Educational Development (NIED)**
Voortrekker Road
Private Bag 2034
Okahandja
Tel: 062 50 2446
Fax: 062 50 2613
E-mail: nrooi@nied.edu.na
Website: www.nied.edu.na/

The Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia (FAWENA) is the Namibian chapter of the regional NGO, Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE). Its programmes focus on empowerment activities for the girl child, including support for girls through the setting up of girls’ clubs and the provision of scholarships for girls from marginalised communities (400 girls are currently benefiting from FAWENA scholarships). FAWENA also provides gender sensitisation training for teachers.

**FAWENA**
c/o Ministry of Education
Government Office Park, Luther Street
Windhoek
Tel: 061 293 3143
E-mail: fawena@mec.gov.na

The Namibian Girl-Child Organisation (NGCO) aims to prepare girl children to take leadership positions, demonstrate that early motherhood is not a viable option, reduce drop-out rates for girls and work together to solve problems facing the girl child in order to educate, empower and liberate the girl child so she can take her rightful place in Namibian society. NGCO clubs exist in a number of schools.

**Namibian Girl-Child Organisation (NGCO)**
c/o Jakob Marengo Tutorial College, Mungunda Street
Khomasdal
Windhoek
Tel: 061 262 2021
E-mail: nagirlch@iway.na

UNICEF works with others to overcome the obstacles that poverty, violence, disease and discrimination place in a child’s path.

**UNICEF**
1st Floor, Sanlam Building, 154 Independence Avenue
PO Box 1706
Windhoek
Tel: 061 204 6111
Fax: 061 204 6206
E-mail: nmbregistry@unicef.org

UNESCO is collaborating with the Ministry of Education to ensure that the national “Education For All” plan of action is owned by all relevant stakeholders (non-governmental and civil society partners, institutions of higher education and the private sector) and that both technical and financial support is provided.
Working Group of Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa (WIMSA) has a student support programme which works with secondary schools and tertiary institutions to assist more young San to successfully complete higher education and further training.

WIMSA
8 Bach Street, Windhoek West
PO Box 80733
Windhoek
Tel: 061 244909
E-mail: wimsareg@iafrica.com.na
Module 5
GENDER AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH

5.1 Objectives of the module

- To develop an understanding of gender in relation to sexual and reproductive health.
- To identify strategies for promoting sexual and reproductive health issues and exercising sexual and reproductive health rights.

5.2 Target groups

- Health workers
- Girls and boys (in and out of schools)
- Traditional birth attendants
- Communities (especially women of child-bearing age)
- Church and traditional leaders

5.3 What is reproductive health?

Note to trainer: Do not use the following as an introduction if you are going to use Training Exercise 5.3.1 below – if you do, you will be giving participants the answers.

According to the World Health Organisation, reproductive health is a state of physical, mental, and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system at all stages of life. Reproductive health implies that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when, and how often to do so. Implicit in this are the rights of men and women to be informed about and to have access to safe, effective, affordable, and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice, and the right to appropriate health-care services that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and childbirth.

Reproductive health care is defined as the constellation of methods, techniques, and services that contribute to reproductive health and well-being by preventing and solving reproductive health problems. It also includes sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relations, and not merely counseling and care related to reproduction and sexually transmitted infections.
5.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Understanding the concepts

Objective: To enable participants to understand key issues of gender and reproductive health.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

For the following categories, split participants into groups and ask them what they understand by the following terms: health; sexuality; sexual health; and reproductive health. Then give the definitions below and discuss.

A. HEALTH

“Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.” (Constitution of World Health Organisation – WHO).

B. SEXUALITY

Sexuality is the reflection of the total sensory experience of who we are as human beings. It involves the whole mind and body and not just the functions of the reproductive organs. It involves giving and receiving sexual pleasure and enables reproduction.

- Sexuality starts before birth and lasts a lifetime.
- It is shaped by the ways in which we have been socialised, by our values, norms, beliefs, emotions, attitudes, physical appearance, personality, likes and dislikes and our spiritual selves.
- It is influenced by ethical, cultural, economic, religious, moral and social factors.

C. SEXUAL HEALTH

The World Health Organisation defines sexual health as the integration of the physical, emotional, intellectual and social aspects of sexual being in ways that are positively enriching and that enhance personality, communication and love. Every person has a right to receive sexual information and to consider sexual relationships for pleasure as well as for procreation.

Sexual health is:

- The ability to express one’s sexuality free from the risk of sexually transmitted infections, unwanted pregnancies, coercion, violence and discrimination.
- Having an informed, enjoyable and safe sex life, based on a positive approach to sexual expression and mutual respect in sexual relationships.

D. REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH

“Reproductive health is a state of physical, mental, and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system at all stages of life. Reproductive health implies that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when, and how often to do so.” (World Health Organisation)

5.4 Why is gender and reproductive health important?

As the National Gender Policy points out, Article 95 of the Constitution states that “the State shall actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by adopting policies aimed at … enactment of legislation to ensure that the health and strength of the workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused…”.

Both women and men have the right to good physical and mental health. People’s health involves emotional, social and physical well-being. People’s states of health are determined
in part by the social, political and economical context of their lives. The attainment of good health involves more than just physical health – it also requires equality, development and peace.

Women have different and unequal opportunities for the protection, promotion and maintenance of their health. Health programmes often perpetuate gender stereotypes, fail to consider socio-economic differences among women and fail to take account of the fact that some women and men lack autonomy on health-related issues.

There are many social and economic factors which have an adverse impact on women’s health, such as their unequal share of family responsibilities in the home, the prevalence of poverty and economic dependence amongst women, negative attitudes towards women and girls, racial and other forms of discrimination, the limited power that women and girls have over their sexual and reproductive lives and their limited influence in decision-making. Sexual and gender-based violence – including psychological and physical abuse, rape, sexual abuse and exploitation – also place the mental and physical health of girls and women at high risk.

Discrimination against girls in favour of boys in access to nutrition and health-care services endangers their current and future well-being. Conditions that force girls into early marriage, pregnancy and child-bearing and subject them to harmful practices such as sex work interfere with their health. The trend towards early sexual experiences, combined with a lack of health information and services, increases the risk of unwanted teenage pregnancies, unsafe abortions, HIV/AIDS infection and sexually transmitted infections.

Men and young boys must be trained to respect women and to share responsibility in matters of sexuality and reproduction. Girls and women must be educated to respect themselves, to understand their own sexuality and the working and development of their bodies – this can create an important source of empowerment.

Often women, including women with disabilities, have no control over their reproductive health. Men and women should have equal rights to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods for regulating fertility, and women must have access to appropriate health-care services that will guarantee safe child-bearing and safe motherhood.

In order to clearly understand gender in relation to reproductive health, the application of a gender analysis is important. This gives a better understanding of the roles of men and women in reproductive health issues; identifies who has access to and control over reproductive health; identifies the practical and strategic health needs of men and women and finally, shows how this access and control can be improved to enable equal access to and control over reproductive health issues. (See Training Exercise 6.4.)

Women and men also need to understand that equal relationships between them in matters of sexual relationships and reproduction, including full respect for the integrity of the person, require mutual respect. Sexual behaviour and the consequences that come with it should be a shared responsibility between both partners. Both partners, whether male or female, should be aware of their sexual and reproductive rights:

- the right to exercise control over their bodies, including their fertility
- the right to decide how, with whom and when to have sex
- the right to make choices about their sexuality
- the right to enjoy sex
- the right to protect themselves from STIs including HIV/AIDS
- the right to access user-friendly services that help them deal with their sexual health concerns.
5.4.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Relations between gender and reproductive health

Objective: To enable participants to develop an understanding of gender and reproductive health as integrated concepts.

Time: 2 hours.

The facilitator should present an overview of Gender and Reproductive Health, based on section 5.4 above.

Ask participants to brainstorm situations in reproductive health care where the needs of people have not been met. These will be used in the role plays. Examples could be:

- a 39-year-old woman, who works as a domestic workers, seeking ways to avoid having more children
- a 19-year-old man seeking treatment for HIV/AIDS-related symptoms
- a 16-year-old orphaned girl in grade 10, who is pregnant and seeks advice.

Split the participants into groups, which should ideally comprise both men and women. Each group is required to prepare a role play that demonstrates a situation in reproductive health care using one example from the brainstorm.

The groups should present the role plays in plenary, and then:

- Discuss the identities, attitudes, and characteristics – both positive and negative – demonstrated by each actor.
- Analyse the power relations between the actors. If the key actor was of the opposite gender, what might change?
- Discuss ways in which the positive aspects can be reinforced in order to improve services.
- Discuss what impedes improvements in reproductive health care and ways of changing or overcoming these factors.

5.4.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender analysis of sexual and reproductive health

Objective: To enable participants to analyse sexual and reproductive health issues from a gender viewpoint.

Time: 2 hours.

Work with the following table. Ask participants to consider the questions in the left-hand column in relation to sexual and reproductive health. The comments in italics in the right-hand column are some suggested answers.

After participants have completed this exercise, ask them to identify what needs to change in order for there to be gender equality in sexual and reproductive health.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER</th>
<th>ASPECTS TO CONSIDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Roles and Responsibilities:** | • Reproductive roles of men and women *(Men impregnate women; women bear and look after children.)*  
• Community participation/self-help activities of men and women *(Women care for children, including orphans and pregnant women in the community.)* |
| **Assets:** | • Both have access to health and education services, but women may find it more difficult to use the services because of lack of transport and money. |
| • What do men and women do? |  
• What assets/opportunities do men and women have access to?  
• What constraints do men and women face? |
| **Power and Decision-making:** | • Whether to have sex? Whether to use contraceptives and if so, which? Whether to have children and if so, when? What type of medical support they want for child-bearing?  
• Often it is the man who controls decision-making. However, this can depend on many factors – age of the men and women, relative equality in their relationship, access to finances, clinics and advice.  
• Gender-stereotyped roles where the man is seen as the decision-maker; lack of access to contraceptives (for financial or other reasons); lack of access to preferred medical advice and treatment. |
| • What decision-making do men and/or women participate in? |  
• What decision-making do men and/or women usually control *(i.e. consider their different abilities to actively influence decisions)*?  
• What constraints do men and women face? |
| **Needs, priorities and perspectives:** | • Some examples might be mobile clinics which do not require access to transport or money for transport; more women doctors whom women may feel more comfortable with; forms of contraception which women can use without men being aware of them.  
• For example, changes in gender stereotyping so that any woman can agree with her partner if and when to have sex, if and when to use condoms or other contraceptives, if and when to have children. |
| • What are the “practical” needs of women and men? Practical needs refer to the needs that exist within the context of existing gender roles, responsibilities, access and resources.  
• What are the “strategic” needs of women and men? Strategic needs refer to changes to existing gender roles and resources to create greater equality of opportunity and benefit. |
5.4.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: The promotion of sexual and reproductive rights in health care services

Objective: To consider the best ways to promote sexual and reproductive health in health care services.

Time: 2 hours.

Divide the participants into groups. Give one case study hand out to each group, and ask one person to read it to the group. The participants in each group should then discuss the following questions, before presenting at plenary:

- Was the provider able to recognise and respect the identity and needs of the user?
- Were the provider and the patient able to share information and knowledge?
- Did the provider help the patient to communicate?
- What should each provider have done or not done?

Case study 1

Kamiah is a 37 year old Herero woman, who works as a domestic worker for a family in Klein Windhoek. She is a mother of four children, who have to stay with Kamiah’s mother on the farm. Every end of the month, she travels to the farm to see them. Kamiah is separated from her husband because she could no longer put up with his promiscuous ways, and she had to drop out of school early as a result of an unwanted pregnancy. However, she has recently developed a relationship with John who works as a taxi-driver. They are sexually involved but Kamiah does not want to conceive, as she will not be able to maintain another child. She also believes that it would be unwise for her, at her age, to bear another child.

Kamiah decides to seek birth control advice from the clinic. She takes the day off and, dressed in her traditional outfit, goes to the hospital. When it is her turn to be attended, Kamiah is shocked to find that the doctor is a young man, probably eight years her junior. She wonders how she can discuss birth control with him. After listening to her, the doctor wonders why she is still interested in birth control. And if she is separated from her husband, who is she sleeping around with? He makes it clear that the fight against HIV/AIDS will continue to be an uphill task if women like her do not change their ways. He does however discuss the various forms of birth control available.

Kamiah makes a choice for using the pill. While examining her to, the doctor comments that her dress is too heavy and asks why she cannot dress normally, like other women. As she leaves, the hospital, Kamiah feels labeled as a ‘loose woman’. She also feels that the doctor disrespected her cultural background by suggesting she should dress ‘normally’. She is not sure whether to go ahead and use the pill.

Case study 2

Patricia is a 15 year old orphan. She never knew her father, and her mother died of cancer. The family discussed her situation and it was agreed that she should go and live with her 45-year-old uncle in Keetmanshoop.
She felt very isolated going to live in another part of Namibia, away from her friends and other relatives. Her uncle started sexually abusing her and she was too scared of him and of being destitute to seek help from anyone.

Her uncle had had many girlfriends during his life. He was concerned that he might be HIV positive, but did not want to take the test himself. He took Patricia to the Voluntary Testing Centre so that she could be tested – then, he told himself, he would find out if it was likely that he had the virus. Patricia did not want to be tested but she was too scared to say “no” to her uncle and he sat with her until it was Patricia’s turn to see the nurse. The nurse took Patricia into the counseling room and asked her why she thought she might have the virus. Patricia started crying and could not answer. The nurse said “if you are having sex then it is a good thing to be tested, but if you won’t talk to me there’s nothing I can do to counsel you”. Then Patricia was given the test.

Later she found out that she was HIV positive. Her uncle threw her out on the streets.

5.5 Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) and HIV/AIDS

HIV is sexually transmitted in the same way as STIs. Therefore, people who are at risk of STIs are also at risk of HIV because sores or discharges from the vagina or penis may facilitate the transmission of the HIV virus.

Reduction of STIs will also reduce HIV transmission. Therefore it is important to have an understanding of STIs in order to develop strategies to prevent STIs, including HIV.

HIV/AIDS

There is sometimes confusion about what HIV is, and what AIDS is.

**HIV:** Human Immunodeficiency Virus. This is the virus that leads to AIDS. HIV destroys a certain type of blood cells (known as T-cells or CD4 cells) that help the body fight off infection. A person can be infected with HIV for many years before any symptoms occur, and during this time, an infected person can unknowingly pass the infection on to others.

**AIDS:** Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. This is the stage when the body’s immune system fails as a final result of HIV infection. A person with AIDS is susceptible to all kinds of other infection and diseases, like tuberculosis and pneumonia. At present, there is no cure for AIDS, and most people with HIV infection will eventually die from an AIDS-related illness. However, with the advancements in HIV/AIDS treatments, people who are HIV positive can lead dramatically extended and fulfilling lives.

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) is now clearly known as being the terminal condition caused by HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus). Once someone is infected with the virus, it quickly attacks cells of the immune system, especially so-called CD4 cells. As a result, numbers of CD4 cells initially drop rapidly, but later increase once the body develops antibodies against HIV. This is the first stage of infection.

Antibody levels usually remain high during the second, long chronic phase of infection. This second stage typically lasts 8 to 10 years, but it can be shorter for people in poor health or longer for healthier people. The HIV virus gradually gains the upper hand as the numbers of CD4 cells steadily drop during the second, chronic phase.
The third and final stage is full-blown AIDS, which begins when the immune system fails. Few CD4 cells remain and sufferers are then very susceptible to any infection. Anyone with AIDS can expect to die within two years, the actual death being caused by infectious diseases such as pneumonia, tuberculosis, and gastroenteritis.

HIV is transmitted to people in different ways. The most common forms of transmission in Namibia are:

- transmission through sexual intercourse (having unprotected sex with an infected partner).
- mother to child transmission during pregnancy, delivery and breastfeeding. About 30 to 40% of babies born to infected mothers will be infected if the mother is not given medication to prevent this.

5.5.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: HIV Risk Game

**Objective:** To clarify facts and opinions on the transmission of HIV.

**Time:** 1 hour

Prepare three flip charts, labeled:

- High Risk Behaviour
- Low Risk Behaviour
- No Risk Behaviour

Distribute smaller cards to the participants, with the following behaviors (in **bold** – the points not in bold are the answers). Add other cards based on your experience of what the participants may believe which needs to be challenged.

1. **Having sex under the influence of alcohol or drugs**
   - High risk: When someone is under the influence, they may overlook safer sex practices such as using a condom.

2. **Donating blood**
   - No risk. Donating blood does not pose a risk of HIV transmission, as new disposable needles are used for each donation.

3. **Taking care of someone who has AIDS**
   - No risk, provided general precautions are observed.

4. **Having STIs**
   - High Risk if you are sexually active as the sores caused by STIs create a perfect entry way for HIV.

5. **Having unprotected sex with your spouse.**
   - High risk if you are not sure that your spouse is faithful.

Ask participants to form a large circle. Each of them then decides what risk behaviour is implied on their cards.

Ask them to pin them under the respective charts, explaining the reasons for their response.

Ask the group if they agree.

Clarify any wrong answers.
5.5.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Quiz on HIV/AIDS and other STIs

Objective: To check understanding of risks of HIV and STIs.

Time: 30 minutes.

Ask participants to discuss in pairs the following statements. They should say if they are true or false. Discuss and correct any wrong answers.

**Statements about STIs**

- Only sex workers and men/women sleeping around get STIs. (False)
- Having an STI means being HIV+. (False)
- You can share your STI treatment drugs with a friend who has an STI. (False)
- A traditional healer can cure an STI. (False)
- It’s caused when someone gives you the evil eye. (False)
- You always know when you have an STI. (False)
- If you only have sex with the person you love you will not get an STI. (False)
- If you have herpes but don’t have any sores, it is safe to have unprotected sex. (False)
- You can catch an STI through sexual touching, without penetration of the vagina by the penis. (True)

**Statements about HIV/AIDS**

- You can catch it in the toilet. (False)
- Sleeping with a virgin cures AIDS. (False)
- AIDS can be cured. (False)
- If someone looks healthy he/she cannot have AIDS. (False)
- Condoms are not safe. (Used properly, condoms provide a high level of protection but are not 100% safe.)
- The female condom is more expensive than the male condom, which affects women’s ability to control safer sex. (True)
- Anal sex is not safe. (True)
- Oral sex is not safe. (True)
- HIV/AIDS is a disease of the poor. (False)
- You can only get HIV through sex. (False)
- You can get HIV through mosquito bites. (False)
- You cannot get it the first time you have sex. (False)
- An estimated 40% of reported rapes in Namibia involve victims under age 18, which means they may have been exposed to HIV through the rape. (True)

5.5.3 Gender and HIV/AIDS

Women are more vulnerable to HIV infection than men, for both biological and gender-related reasons. There are also certain gender-related factors which can affect sexual risk-taking by men.

**Risks for women**

Nearly 60% of the people infected with HIV in Sub-Saharan Africa are women. Women and girls are biologically, socially and economically more vulnerable to HIV infection than men. It is estimated that women are from 2 to 5 times more likely to contract HIV from men than vice versa.
There are some of the biological reasons for women’s greater risk:

- There is a greater exposed surface area in the female genital tract than in the male genital tract.
- There are higher concentrations of HIV in semen than in vaginal fluids. There is a larger amount of semen exchanged during intercourse than vaginal fluids, vaginal tissue absorbs fluids more easily than the skin of the penis does, and semen may remain in the vagina for hours following intercourse.
- The soft tissue in the female reproductive tract tears easily, producing a transmission route for the virus.
- When a woman is raped, or pressured to have sexual intercourse which she does not want, this may lead to tiny injuries to the female genital tract that facilitate entry of the virus. This is because the vagina is less likely to be lubricated during unwanted sex, meaning that the vaginal tissue is likely to tear more easily. Forced sex may also involve violence which leads to vaginal injuries.
- Women often have STIs that are left untreated, which increases vulnerability to HIV. This is because STIs are more likely to occur in women without noticeable symptoms, and also because women may be too embarrassed or ashamed to visit a clinic for screening and treatment for STIs.
- Younger women are even more biologically vulnerable to HIV infection because they have less mature genital tissue. Their reproductive tracts contain fewer layers of a certain kind of cell which gives some protection against viral infection in the vaginas of adult women.

All over the world, social factors stemming from gender inequalities also make women particularly vulnerable to HIV infection. These factors arise from gender inequalities in societies:

- Worldwide, 80% of women newly infected with HIV are women who are practicing monogamy in a marriage or a long-term relationship (Newsweek, 5 June 2006). Women are often expected to remain monogamous, while multiple partners are tolerated or even encouraged for men.
- The threat of physical violence, the fear of abandonment, or the loss of economic support can act as significant barriers that prevent women from negotiating condom use, discussing fidelity with their partners, or leaving relationships they perceive to be risky.
- Cultural norms which make the discussion of sexual matters taboo in some communities often deny women knowledge of sexual health. In some communicates, women who discuss these issues freely would be seen to be of loose morals.
- When women possess knowledge of sexual health, it is often considered inappropriate for them to reveal this knowledge, which makes partner communication about risk and safety impossible.
- Women often have little control over their bodies and little decision making power; men make most decisions about when, where, and how to have sex.
- Social pressure to bear children may also affect women’s choice concerning the relative importance of pregnancy versus protection from disease.
- Women are at greater risk than men for rape, sexual coercion, or being forced into sex work.

Lack of economic power can also lead to vulnerability for several reasons, including:

- Some women are forced to enter into sex work or sexual partnerships in hopes of bartering sex for economic gain or survival. The “sugar daddy” syndrome is one manifestation of this.
Many women are at risk simply because they are economically dependent on their husbands for survival and support, which limits their decision-making and negotiating power.

Sex workers in general are at an extremely high risk for infection, particularly when they do not have the ability to negotiate with clients who refuse to wear a condom.

All of these factors increase women’s risk of being infected with HIV.

**Risks for men**

A variety of gender-related factors also put men at risk for infection. Socially ingrained concepts of masculinity and common attitudes and behaviors can translate into risk behaviors that threaten men’s health and the health of their partners.

For example, ideas of “masculinity” that expect men to be experienced and knowledgeable about sex may have the result that men – especially young men – fail to seek information about HIV for fear of admitting a lack of knowledge. Attitudes about masculinity encourage men to show their sexual prowess by having multiple partners, and by consuming alcohol or other substances that may contribute to risk-taking behavior. Men are often socialized to be self-reliant, not to show emotion, and not to seek assistance in times of need or stress. These stereotypes do not encourage men to access health information and services.

In many cultures, communities deny the existence of men who have sex with other men, or attach a strong stigma to gay relationships. Discrimination and stigmatisation against men who have sex with other men contribute to denial and secrecy, making it difficult to reach these men with HIV prevention interventions.

5.5.4 **ISSUE FOR DISCUSSION: The myth that sex with a virgin is a cure for HIV/AIDS**

In some African countries with a high prevalence of HIV, young girls who are assumed to be virgins risk being raped because of a belief that sex with a virgin can cleanse the HIV infection. **This is not true.** Ask participants to discuss the following questions:

1. Is this myth present in Namibia? If so, where does it come from?
2. If so, what can be done to inform people that it is not true? If not, consider what action you would suggest in other countries where this myth may be operating.

Participants should identify which actions should be taken by men, by women or by both.
5.6 Family planning (male and female)

You can use the following for a presentation on methods of family planning. According to the 2000 Demographic and Health Survey carried out by the Ministry of Health and Social Services, only 38% of the women who are using modern methods of contraception were informed about the potential side effects of the chosen method, and only 40% were informed about alternative methods. Therefore there is clearly a need for more complete information on this issue.

Importance of using contraception

It is important to use contraceptives because they prevent pregnancy and in the case of condoms also HIV/AIDS. Contraceptives also make it possible for families to space their children and also control how many children they are going to have (family planning). Being able to plan for the number of children one wants to have is important because children are a responsibility and it is important to have only those that one can provide for without compromising on their basic needs and rights to food, shelter, clothing, education and good health.

Both women and men need to understand the various contraceptives and how they work, regardless of who actually uses them. This is part of taking joint responsibility for contraception.

Note to facilitator: Women and men may be more comfortable splitting into groups by sex for the discussion of details concerning the different contraceptives. Both women and men should discuss contraceptives which are used by males and females.

Contraceptives that also protect against HIV/AIDS and other STIs

- Abstinence

Abstinence is about not engaging in any penis-vagina contact. This could be to avoid unwanted pregnancies and contracting of STIs. It could also be due to one’s socio-cultural or religious convictions that require one to abstain until marriage. This method is cost free and fool-proof against contraction of STIs and pregnancies. However it requires a high level of self-control and consistency which may be difficult especially when under the influence of alcohol or drugs. In Namibia’s context of violence against women and girls and unequal powers of decision-making about sexual health, abstinence is not always a course that women and girls are free to choose.

Advantages:
- Abstinence is cost-free and fool-proof against STIs and pregnancies if one is totally abstaining.
- It has no physical or hormonal side effects.
- It can be reversed immediately.

Disadvantages:
- Women and girls are not always free to choose this option.

- Male condoms

A male condom is also known as a sheath or a rubber and is usually 7 inches long. It covers most of the penis and protects the woman’s internal genitalia from coming into contact with semen during sexual intercourse.

If a condom is torn, brittle, stiff, or sticky, throw it away and use another.

The condom should be placed on the penis as soon as the penis is erect, before the penis is near the vagina. Men leak fluids from their penises before and after ejaculation. These
fluids can carry enough sperm to cause pregnancy and enough germs to pass sexually transmitted infections.

Place the unrolled condom on the tip of the penis. Roll the condom all the way to the base of the penis. Leave about one-half inch of empty space at the tip. Hold the tip of the condom when putting it on so that it does not fill with air and burst.

After intercourse, hold onto the condom at the base of the penis as the penis is withdrawn from the vagina. Remove the penis from the vagina soon after ejaculation, taking care not to spill semen near the opening of the vagina. If the man loses his erection before withdrawing the penis from the vagina, the condom may slip off. Discard the used condom in a waste basket. Do not use it again.

Some couples lubricate the outside of the condom to make it easier for the penis to enter the vagina. Many condoms are pre-lubricated. Lubrication helps prevent rips and tears, and it increases sensitivity. If you choose to lubricate a latex condom, do not use oil-based lubricants (such as petroleum jelly, cold cream, butter, or vegetable oil). These damage latex and can cause the condom to tear. Instead you may use contraceptive foam or jelly, saliva, or water-based lubricants.

Male condoms are inexpensive and offer the best protection against sexually transmitted diseases as well as pregnancy. However, they must be used every time a couple has sex. Some men say that condoms take the pleasure away from sex and are therefore reluctant to use them. It becomes difficult, then, for some women to bargain with their partners on the importance of using a condom, and they find themselves exposed to contracting HIV and other STIs and the possibility of an unplanned pregnancy.

Putting on a condom

- Pull back the foreskin, unless circumcised, before rolling on the condom.
- Place the rolled condom over the tip of the hard penis.
- Leave a small space at the tip to collect semen.
- Pinch the air out of the tip with one hand while placing it on the penis.
- Unroll the condom over the penis with the other hand.
- Roll it all the way down to the base of the penis.
- Smooth out any air bubbles. (Friction against air bubbles can cause condom breaks.)

Taking off a condom

- Pull out before the penis softens.
- Don’t spill the semen – hold the condom against the base of the penis while you pull out.
- Throw the condom away.
- Wash the penis with soap and water before embracing again.

If a condom breaks ...

... during intercourse, pull out quickly and replace it. Men should be able to tell if a condom breaks during intercourse. To learn what it feels like, men can break condoms on purpose while masturbating.

... and semen leaks out, wash the semen away with soap and water.

... and semen leaks into the vagina during a woman’s fertile period, ask a reproductive health clinician for information about starting emergency contraception within 120 hours.
Advantages:
- Condoms prevent STIs including HIV/AIDS and pregnancy, when used correctly.
- They can be used immediately after childbirth as they have no effect on breast milk, unlike oral contraceptives. They also offer protection against infection in the uterus which can occur easily after a woman has given birth.
- There are no hormonal side effects and usage can be stopped any time.
- They are easy to keep at hand in case sex occurs unexpectedly. They can also be used without having to consult a health care provider.
- Condoms are easy to obtain and are sold in many places.

Disadvantages:
- Latex condoms and some forms of lubricants may cause itching and allergic reactions in some people.
- There is the small possibility of the condom slipping off or breaking during sexual intercourse.
- Condoms can weaken if stored for too long or exposed to too much heat or humidity which may contribute to them breaking.
- Some people still associate condom use with loose sex while some are embarrassed to buy condoms or to ask that their partner uses them.
- A couple may not always have a condom at hand for them to engage in safe sex.
- Free condoms are not available everywhere and the cost factor may hinder some people from using them especially if they have little or no income.

Female condoms

A female condom is a strong, loose-fitting polyurethane sheath that is 17 cm long with a flexible ring at each end. Polyurethane is a soft, thin plastic that is stronger than latex, which is used to make most male condoms. Polyurethane conducts heat, so sex with the female condom can feel very sensitive and natural. Polyurethane has no smell. The inner ring slides in place behind the pubic bone. The outer ring is soft and remains on the outside of the vagina during sexual intercourse. It covers the area around the opening of the vagina (the vulva). It can prove pleasurable for men as well as women. It protects the vagina, cervix and external genitalia, affording extensive barrier protection.

Advantages:
- Use of the female condom is controlled by the woman.
- It is designed to prevent both STIs and pregnancy.
- Usage of the female condom is not inhibited by any prevailing medical condition unlike other forms of contraceptives.
- There are no allergic reactions that come with its usage.

Disadvantages:
- The female condom is expensive and its cost may put it out of reach for many women.
- They are not as readily available as the male condoms,
- They are only effective if they are used every time a woman engages in sex.
- Some men are not comfortable with the idea of a female condom and may resist its usage.

Demonstration of the female condom

The facilitator should demonstrate the correct insertion of the female condom. Ask volunteers to re-demonstrate the correct use of the female condom.
1. **OPEN END** (Outer Ring)
   The open end covers the area around the opening of the vagina. The inner ring is used for insertion and to help hold the sheath in place.

2. **HOW TO HOLD THE SHEATH**
   a. Hold inner ring between thumb and middle finger. Put index finger on pouch between other two fingers,
   (or)
   b. Just squeeze.

3. **HOW TO INSERT THE CONDOM**
   Squeeze the inner ring. Insert the sheath as far as it will go. It’s in the right place when you can’t feel it. Don’t worry – it can’t go too far, and IT WON’T HURT!

4. **MAKE SURE PLACEMENT IS CORRECT**
   Make sure the sheath is not twisted. The outer ring should be outside the vagina.

5. **REMOVAL**
   Remove before standing up. Squeeze and twist the outer ring. Pull out gently. Dispose with trash, not in toilet.
5.6.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Alternative or additional activity on the use of the female condom

Objective: To enable participants to understand the step-by-step use of the female condom.

Time: 45 minutes.

Give the talk on the female condom in section 5.6 above. Have cards with the following instructions and give one to each participant (if there are 13 participants) or a pair of participants, or a mix of single and paired participants.

1. Check expiry date.
2. Discuss condom use with your partner.
3. Have condom with you.
4. Hold the sheath with the open end hanging down.
5. Squeeze inner ring for insertion and make sure the inner ring is at the closed end.
6. Find a comfortable position to insert the sheath, eg squat, sit with knees apart or stand with one foot on a chair.
7. Insert in vagina.
8. Push inner ring as far up into the vagina as it will go.
9. Outer ring stays outside the opening of the vagina.
10. Outer ring covers opening of vagina during sex.
11. After intercourse, remove condom by twisting outer ring one full turn to stop the contents from spilling.
12. Gently pull out the condom.
13. Wrap the condom in a paper and throw it away. Do not flush it down the toilet.

Ask participants to form a line in the correct order that describes the step-by-step use of a female condom.

Contraceptives that do NOT protect against HIV/AIDS and other STIs

The male and female condoms have the advantage of protecting against both pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections, including HIV. There are other contraceptives for women which can protect against pregnancy – but these contraceptives do NOT protect against HIV and other sexually transmitted infections.

Before deciding on what form of contraception to use, women should consult with a health care provider and explain their medical history, preferences and lifestyle.

- **Diaphragm**

  This is a shallow, dome shaped rubber cap with a flexible rim, covered with spermicide. It is fitted within the vagina and covers the cervix so sperm cannot reach the uterus. The diaphragm blocks the cervix and prevents sperm from entering the uterus. The spermicide immobilises and kills the sperm, making it unable to fertilise an egg.

  How to use the diaphragm:
  - Hold the diaphragm with the dome down like a cup.
  - Squeeze about a tablespoon of spermicide into the cup of the diaphragm and around the rim.
  - Press the opposite sides of the rim together and with the dome side toward the palm of the hand, push it into the vagina as far as it goes.
  - Use a finger to make sure the diaphragm covers the cervix.
• For each additional act of intercourse a woman should not remove the diaphragm but instead use an applicator to add spermicide.
• After sex, the diaphragm should be left in place for at least 6 hours but never for more than 24 hours as this might increase the risk of toxic shock syndrome.

Advantages:
• A diaphragm protects against pregnancy and some forms of STIs like gonorrhea and chlamydia, but not against HIV and herpes.
• It can be inserted two hours before sex.
• No hormonal side effects or effect on future fertility.
• It can usually not be felt by either partner during intercourse.

Disadvantages:
• A diaphragm does not give protection against HIV and herpes.
• It must be fitted in a clinic or by a doctor, and it may require refitting from time to time.
• Use of a diaphragm may increase the risk of bladder infections.
• Some women may have allergic reactions to the rubber of the diaphragm or the spermicide used.
• The diaphragm must be inserted every time a woman has sex. It should not be used during menstruation and some women may find it difficult to insert.
• It can be accidentally pushed out of place during some sexual positions.
• It can be messy.

• Intra-uterine device (IUD)

An IUD is a small, flexible plastic device that often has copper wire or a nylon tail. It is inserted into a woman’s uterus through her vagina by a physician or trained nurse. The IUD remains in the woman’s uterus for as long as she wants protection against pregnancy. The IUD works by preventing the sperm from moving into a woman’s reproductive tract. It irritates the lining of the uterus slightly, making it unable to accept the implantation of a fertilised egg. IUDs have a string attached that hangs down through the cervix into the vagina. A woman can make sure the IUD is in place by feeling for the string in her vagina. A clinician uses the string to remove the IUD. Some people refer to an IUD as “the loop”.

Advantages:
• An IUD provides long lasting continuous protection against pregnancy. It does not have to be inserted before each act of intercourse but remains in place.
• On average, an IUD lasts 10 years.
• A woman needs only to have her IUD removed to restore her ability to become pregnant.
• The ability to become pregnant returns quickly when the IUD is removed.

Disadvantages:
• Not all women have uteruses that adjust well to the use of an IUD and it may be expelled or cause discomfort.
• Women using IUDs have a slightly higher risk of pelvic infections, which could lead to permanent infertility or even death if untreated. The IUD is not recommended for teenage girls whose uteruses are more likely to get infected.
• It is possible for the IUD to slip out of the uterus totally or partially without the woman’s knowledge, thus making her vulnerable to pregnancy. If pregnancy occurs, a doctor must see if the IUD can be removed to avoid any risk of complications during the pregnancy.
• It does not protect against STIs and is not recommended for women with recent STIs or multiple sex partners.
• A woman cannot stop the use of an IUD on her own, once it is inserted. She must go to a trained health care provider to have it removed.
• It can cause heavier menstrual bleeding or spotting between menstrual periods.
Norplant (implant)

This method of family planning is relatively new. As of June 2006, it is only available from private hospitals in Namibia. The Norplant is also known as an implant and is made up of capsules shaped like small matchsticks, which contain the hormone progesterone. These are put under the skin of a woman’s upper arm. The progesterone is diffused into the blood stream through the walls of the capsules over an effective five years, if left in place. Norplant stops ovulation in about half of all the cycles, and it keeps the cervical mucus too thick for sperm to penetrate even when an egg might have been released.

**Advantages:**
- This method is very convenient and reliable.
- It is easily reversible because the implant can be removed even before the five year period has expired.

**Disadvantages:**
- Irregular bleeding and spotting are common, especially in the first three months after insertion.

Pill (oral contraceptive)

This consists of a prescription for a month-long series of pills that are taken every day to:

1. Prevent ovulation, i.e. the monthly release of an egg from the ovaries
2. Thicken the cervical mucus to make it harder for the sperm and egg to meet
3. Hinder egg implantation in the uterus if egg fertilisation occurs.

There are different kinds of pills which can be used, each with somewhat different risks and benefits.

**Advantages:**
- This method is very reliable if the pills are taken every day.
- Many women find it convenient.
- It can lead to lighter periods and fewer menstrual cramps.
- Some types of pill help give protection against some diseases, such as cancer of the ovaries and ovarian cysts.

**Disadvantages:**
- Many women find the pill-taking schedule a nuisance. The reliability of the pill is reduced if pills are missed. Vomiting can interfere with the pill’s protection.
- Some women may experience side effects such as headaches, tender breasts, nausea, bleeding between periods, loss of sexual desire or depression.
- There are a number of health risks, such as possible high blood pressure, gall bladder problems, circulatory problems and liver problems.
- It can take up to six months for normal menstrual periods and fertility to return after discontinuing the pill.

Injections

There are several types of injections which can be obtained at clinics in Namibia:

1. Depo Provera is given every three months.
2. Nuristerate is given every two months.

**Advantages:**
- This method is very convenient and reliable. It provides continuous protection, and is mistake-proof and effort-free other than the periodic visits to the doctor or clinic.

**Disadvantages:**
- It is necessary to return to the doctor of clinic regularly for the injections.
- Injectable contraceptives can cause light and irregular periods and some women actually stop menstruating all together.
• Users of injectables are also at a higher risk of developing certain forms of cancer.
• It can be difficult to conceive immediately after one discontinues this method.

• **Spermicides**
  Spermicides come in the form of jellies, foams, suppositories or a thin square film like a piece of paper. They can usually be purchased without a prescription at any chemist. They kill sperms. However, they are not very effective unless used with one of the barrier methods, such as condoms.

• **Withdrawal method**
  This is when a man ejaculates outside the vagina during intercourse so that sperm is not deposited in the woman’s vagina. It is normally used by couples who are not using any other form of contraception method, for health or religious reasons. This method is not very reliable because it requires perfect timing and self control on the part of both partners and it is possible for some of the sperm and semen to be released into the vagina before ejaculation.

• **Rhythm method**
  This is also known as the “fertility awareness” or “natural child spacing” or the “safe period”. It involves a woman monitoring her own fertility and identifying the days in each cycle when an egg is likely to be ready for fertilisation and timing sex accordingly. It involves keeping records of the dates of menstruation, day to day changes in cervical mucus and/or body temperature, mid-cycle cramps (if the woman gets them) and any other physical clues that can help pinpoint the time of egg release.

  A disadvantage of this method is that women have to keep records for several months before they can rely on it. It can also be unreliable, because various kinds of stress can throw the regular cycle off course. Women with irregular cycles should not use this method.

• **Male sterilisation**
  Male sterilisation is also referred to as a vasectomy. This method of male contraception is permanent and is therefore ideal for men who decide not to have any more children. Male sterilisation/vasectomy involves cutting and tying off the tubes through which sperm travel to enter the semen released during sexual intercourse. The procedure is safe, quick and simple. Note that vasectomy is not castration and does not affect the man’s testes or sexual ability.

  **Advantages:**
  • It is highly effective.
  • It does not interfere with a man’s ability to have sex and there are no apparent health risks.

  **Disadvantages:**
  • This method is rarely reversible and men should be absolutely sure they do not want any children in the future before going for the procedure.

• **Female sterilisation**
  Female sterilisation is also referred to as tubal ligation or “tying the tubes”. It is a safe and simple operation for women where the fallopian tubes are cut and tied off to prevent an egg from reaching the uterus or being reached by sperm. After this, a woman continues to ovulate but her body simply absorbs the egg cells. Tubal ligation does not affect hormone production in women and therefore has no effect on femininity or sexual desire.

  **Advantages:**
  • It is very effective.
  • It does not interfere with a woman’s ability to have sex.
It has no effect on breast milk and no known long term side effects.

Disadvantages:
- It can rarely be undone, and women must be sure about not wanting any children in the future before going for this operation.

Emergency contraception ("morning-after pill")

The morning after pill is a form of emergency contraceptive that is intended to help people prevent unintended and unwanted pregnancies after unprotected sex has already taken place. Emergency contraceptives refer to a variety of oral pills that must be taken shortly after the unprotected sex. The first dose should be taken within 72 hours and the second dose 12 hours after the first dose. They work as follows:

1. They inhibit ovulation in cases where the woman is due to ovulate within the next few days after intercourse.
2. The progestin in the pills slows the speed at which the egg passes through the fallopian tube to the uterus.
3. The pills also make the uterus less receptive to implanting the egg.

Emergency contraceptives should not be used as a method of family planning, but as a backup in cases of contraceptive failure (e.g. a condom that breaks).

In Namibia, emergency contraceptives are available only at the Women and Child Protection Units for provision to survivors of rape. State clinics that offer family planning services do not provide emergency contraceptives.

5.6.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Control over contraception

Objective: To explore how forms of contraception interact with control over sexual and reproductive choices.

Time: 1 hour

Divide participants into small groups and ask them to consider the different forms of contraception discussed above:
- abstinence
- male condoms
- female condoms
- diaphragms
- IUDs or loops
- Norplant
- oral contraceptive pills
- injections
- spermicides
- withdrawal method
- rhythm method
- female sterilisation
- male sterilisation
- emergency contraception.

Ask participants to discuss the following questions:
1. Which contraceptive method do women usually prefer and why?
2. Which ones do men prefer and why?
3. Which contraceptive methods involve physical side effects or potential health risks for women?
4. Which contraceptive methods involve physical side effects or potential health risks for men?
5. Which methods can men use without their partner’s knowledge?
6. Which methods can women use without their partner’s knowledge?
7. Is it equally important for women and for men to be able to use contraception without their partner’s knowledge?
8. Can women protect themselves against HIV without their partner’s knowledge?
9. Can men protect themselves against HIV without their partner’s knowledge?
10. Is it equally important for women and for men to be able to use contraception that protects against HIV without their partner’s knowledge?
11. List some ways that women and men can be encouraged to take joint responsibility for family planning and protecting themselves against HIV transmission.

Read the information in the box below to participants.

**Microbicides**

These are experimental contraceptives for women which could also prevent the sexual transmission of HIV and other STIs. A microbicide is a colourless, odourless cream or gel that a woman could apply to her vagina – even without her partner’s knowledge. **This kind of contraceptive is being tested, but it is not yet available** (as of June 2006). This kind of contraceptive could empower women to protect themselves against HIV even if they are not in a position to negotiate condom use with their partners.

Microbicides could also be important for men. The protection of most microbicides which are currently being tested will be bi-directional – meaning that they will reduce the risk of infection for both sexual partners. Some men may also welcome a method of protection against HIV other than condoms, as some men perceive condoms as a barrier to intimacy and sexual pleasure.

It is unlikely that microbicides will match the efficacy of male and female condoms for HIV prevention. Logically, it is safer to keep a virus from coming into contact with the body than to try and disable it once it is there. But, for men and women who do not use condoms consistently, microbicides could offer an important alternative for reducing the risk of HIV transmission.

Then ask participants to discuss what impact this development might have on women’s sexual health, on men’s sexual health and on sexual and gender relations between men and women.

### 5.7 Maternal health and fertility

#### Maternal health

Measures that can prevent and reduce health risks to expectant mothers and their children are known as maternal and child care. Maternal and child care are inter-related. Aside from a mother’s anguish at having an ill child or losing a child through death, having healthier children who survive will probably mean that women will end up giving birth fewer times and thus reducing their own health risks.

**According to Health in Namibia** (published by the Ministry of Health and Social Services), the following steps can be taken to improve the health of mother and child: A mother can have her condition checked and monitored during pregnancy by attending antenatal care clinics, and she can deliver her baby with the assistance of trained health workers. Once the
baby is born, a mother can have the child weighed regularly to monitor its nutritional status and development, and the child can be immunised against various childhood illnesses. The mother can also breastfeeding her child to pass on antibodies that will help protect the child against infections. These are examples of the ways in which risks associated with bearing children can be reduced and prevented.

The incidence of maternal deaths in Namibia (deaths from pregnancy or its complications) was somewhere between 271 and 300 per 100 000 live births as of 2005. Another way of looking at this is that maternal deaths account for approximately 10% of all deaths to women age 15-49 in Namibia, according to the Namibia Demographic and Health Survey 2000. The main risk factors for women are lack of access to antenatal care and medical assistance at delivery.

The majority of pregnant women in Namibia do receive antenatal care. A national survey of women in Namibia in 2000 found that 91% had antenatal care during their most recent pregnancy. Better-educated women and women living in urban areas were most likely to have had antenatal care. By contrast, rural women living far from any health facility were unlikely to benefit from antenatal services. About 10% of all pregnant women tested during antenatal visits suffer from anaemia, largely as a result of poor nutrition and illnesses such as malaria. Addressing this can improve the health of both mother and child.

Medical assistance at delivery can reduce the chance of problems from complications. According to the USAID Country Health Statistical Report, Namibia, 2005, 75.5% of deliveries were assisted by a health professional. Of these, 10.7% deliveries were carried out by doctors.

Teenage mothers are more likely than older mothers to suffer complications during delivery that can affect their health and the health of their babies. Another consequence of teenage pregnancy is that young mothers are less likely to complete their basic schooling. Also, care given by very young and less educated mothers tends to expose their children to higher risks.

Looking at the nation as a whole, the 2000 Demographic and Health Survey found that the typical age for first birth was 21, and that 85% of the girls between ages 15-19 in the survey had not yet given birth. However, this overall data can hide the fact that there are significant numbers of girls who give birth at a very young age – particularly in certain regions. According to Health in Namibia, the greatest percentages of very young mothers (under the age of 15) are in eastern Kavango, in north-eastern Otjozondjupa, and at a few other locations in the north. There are also high proportions of mothers aged 15-19 in Ohangwena, Caprivi and in parts of Kunene.

Postnatal care services are important for treating any complications that arise from pregnancies or deliveries, and also for the health of the newborn baby. Although the utilisation of post-natal care in Namibia is rising, the 2000 survey found that most mothers (52%) still do not seek post-natal care.

Birth spacing also affects maternal health. Short intervals between births are bad for maternal health and also reduce the children’s chances of survival. Average birth intervals are quite long in Namibia. It is typical for children to be born almost 4 years apart, and only 14% of births occur within two years of the previous birth. Urban women tend to have longer birth intervals than rural women.

Violence against women is another factor affecting maternal health. A World Health Organisation study in Windhoek found that 1 in 3 women experience physical or sexual violence or both from intimate partners. Of the women in the study who had ever been pregnant, 6% reported being beaten whilst pregnant (and 89% of these women said the abuser was the father of the unborn child).
Fertility rates and preferences

According to the 2000 Demographic and Health Survey by the Ministry of Health and Social Services, the total fertility rate in Namibia in 2000 was 4.2 births per woman overall – but an average rural woman will give birth to two more children than an average urban woman.

The total fertility rate for Namibia is going down. In 1992, it was 6.1 children per woman, and in 2000 it had dropped to 4.2 children per woman.

Fertility preferences refer to how many children men and women would ideally like to have. The 2000 survey asked women and men whether they would like to have another child or would prefer not to have any more children at all. Almost half of the women surveyed said that they wanted no more children or that they had already been sterilised (48%), while only 27% of the men gave this answer.

The survey report states: “It is clear from these observations that family size norms are declining in Namibia and there is an increased desire to control fertility, especially among the younger age groups and those without children or with only one or two children. The challenge will be to ensure the availability of cost-effective family planning services so as to enable women to achieve their fertility preferences.”

5.7.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Role plays exploring the gender dimensions of fertility and family planning

Objective: To examine some of the information given in section 5.7 from a gender perspective.

Time: 1 hour.

Ask participants to explore the following questions in relation to the material in section 5.7. It may be more interesting if the men play the roles of the women and vice versa in at least some of the role plays.

1. What role should men play in improving maternal health?

Ask two participants to stage a role play as a husband and a pregnant wife. Let the husband first act out a supportive role with respect to maternal health. Then give two other participants a chance to do the same role play, but this time let the husband act in an unsupportive way.

Ask participants to discuss the following questions:

- What person in the family usually makes decisions about antenatal care and postnatal care? Why?
- Are resources for food in a household divided equally between men and women? Are pregnant and breastfeeding women usually given extra food for good nutrition?
- Do male or female family members assist pregnant and breastfeeding women with their chores to give them more of a chance to rest?

2. Why do you think that more women than men want to limit family size?

Ask two participants to stage a role play as husband and wife with three children. The husband wants more children but the wife does not. Both husband and wife should give reasons for their wishes. Then give two other participants a chance to do the same role play, but this time let the wife be the one who wants more children while the husband does not.

Ask participants to discuss the following questions:

- What usually happens if a husband wants more children but his wife does not?
- What effect would it have on fertility preferences if household chores and child-rearing responsibilities were shared 50/50 between mothers and fathers?
- Who usually bears the financial costs of additional children: the mother or the father?
5.8 Abortion

Abortion is regulated in Namibia by the Abortion and Sterilization Act 2 of 1975, which allows abortion only in certain narrowly-defined situations -- serious threat to the woman’s life or health, serious threat of permanent damage to the woman’s mental health, a serious risk that the child will suffer from a mental or physical defect that will result in serious and irreparable handicaps; or cases where the pregnancy is the result of rape, incest or intercourse with a woman who has a severe mental disorder.

If a woman wants to have an abortion for one of these reasons, she needs to see a doctor. In all these circumstances, two other doctors have to write a letter to confirm that the factors warranting a legal abortion are present. If the woman’s mental health is involved, one of these doctors must be a state psychiatrist.

Where the pregnancy has resulted from a crime a certificate from a magistrate is also required. But it is not necessary to lay a criminal charge with the police before getting a legal abortion – if the woman can provide a good reason why she has not done this.

The complicated procedure for obtaining permission for a legal abortion has the result that legal abortion is in practice readily available only to educated, privileged women, thus perpetuating race and class discrimination. Rural women without easy access to multiple doctors or a psychiatrist are particularly disadvantaged by the existing procedural requirements.

If an abortion is performed without the proper legal permission, both the doctor and the woman can be found guilty of a crime. Any person who assists a woman to get an illegal abortion can also be found guilty of a crime.

The situations in which a woman can have a legal abortion in Namibia are very limited. Some people try to perform abortions on themselves by – for example – taking mixtures varying from battery acid to hair relaxer, taking tablets such a cockroach poison, putting various substances into the vagina or throwing heavy items repeatedly on the stomach. Such methods can be very dangerous and even fatal. People who perform illegal abortions on pregnant women do not have to comply with medical standards and health requirements. They may lack sufficient medical training or be unable to provide a safe and healthy environment in which to perform an abortion.

Women who do not get permission for an abortion in Namibia can go to other countries where the laws are different. For example, in South Africa abortion is the free choice of the mother in the early stages of pregnancy. But this safe option is available only to women with resources to travel.

A draft law which would have allowed abortion for any reason during the early stages of pregnancy was proposed by the Ministry of Health of Social Services in 1996, and then withdrawn by the Minister in 1999 on the grounds that a majority of the Namibian population would not favour this law.

A study published by the Ministry of Health and Social Services in 2002 indicated that illegal abortions are a significant problem for women in Namibia, although it is not possible to say from this research how often illegal abortions take place. The Minister stated at the launch of the study that its findings were “only the first step in addressing the situation of unwanted pregnancy and its consequences”, adding that she hoped “they will convince the majority of the general public in supporting the government to make appropriate decisions so that we can protect women in Namibia against the consequences of unsafe termination of pregnancy, including death.”

Some countries where the laws provide for a broader right to abortions have been successful in discouraging abortions without making them illegal. For example, they provide family life
education in schools, make family planning methods more accessible, provide counseling about options to abortion and make it possible for young mothers to continue with their education.

After the presentation of Namibia’s first report in terms of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1997, the committee which monitors this Convention expressed concern about “the current law on abortion in Namibia and the high incidence of illegal abortions”.

**CASE STUDY: Getting a legal abortion after a rape**

Ilda was going home from school late one afternoon when she encountered two brothers whose reputation was not very good in the village. She knew them by face but they had never spoke to each other so when they beckoned that she should stop and wait for them, she was surprised. She continued to walk as if she had not seen them but when she realised they were following her, she broke into a run. The young men were too fast for her and they soon caught up with Ilda and proceeded to rape her repeatedly. A month later, Ilda discovered that she was pregnant and told her mother about the rape. The young men were arrested and charged with the rape. But Ilda was not willing to bear the pregnancy to its full-term. In fact, she was so upset about the rape and pregnancy that she considered committing suicide. What were her options?

Under the law, Ilda is entitled to procuring an abortion because she conceived as a result of rape. Ilda was made aware of this provision by the police officer at the Women and Child Protection Unit where she reported the case, and she then went to a magistrate for consent. The magistrate initially claimed not to be aware of such a legal provision. After making some enquiries, the magistrate then told Ilda that he could not proceed without a doctor’s certificate. When Ilda and her mother went to the state hospital to get the doctor’s certificate, the doctor told them that he could not help without first having a magistrate’s certificate. It was only after seeking assistance from the Legal Assistance Centre that Ilda was able to get the permission to procure an abortion. What kinds of support would have helped Ilda during this difficult time?

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5.8.1 **TRAINING EXERCISE: The right to bodily integrity – issues for discussion**

Abortion is a controversial subject. The point of this discussion should not be to explore participants’ personal views on abortion, but rather to explore a range of gender issues pertaining to bodily integrity. These issues may help participants to explore their private views on when abortion should be prohibited by law.

The right to bodily integrity (protection against arbitrary violations of the body) is one of the fundamental human rights under international law. For example, article 4 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights says: “Human beings are inviolable. Every human being shall be entitled to respect for his life and the integrity of his person. No one may be arbitrarily deprived of this right.”

Lead participants in a discussion of the following questions:

1. Should it be allowed for someone to force a woman to become pregnant against her will?
2. Should it be allowed for a person to force a pregnant woman to take vitamins? to stop smoking? to refrain from eating or drinking things that might harm the foetus?
3. Who should have a say over whether or not a woman can be forced to continue a pregnancy against her will: the law? her parents? the man who impregnated her?
4. Should it be allowed to force a woman to breastfeed a baby against her will?
5. Should it be allowed to force a man to provide sperm for use in fertility treatments against his will?
6. If a man has already fathered more children than he can support, should the law be allowed to force him to be sterilised? Would your answer be different for a woman?
7. Should the law be able to force a parent to donate a kidney to the parent’s child for a kidney transplant that will save the child’s life? Would your answer be different if it is the parent who needs the kidney from the child? a sibling who needs a kidney from a sister? a sister who needs a kidney from a brother?
8. Should the law be able to force you to donate blood for the use of a stranger who will die without a blood transfusion?

5.9 TRAINING EXERCISE:
Gender and decision-making on sexual and reproductive health issues

Objective: To explore some of the barriers to women’s power to make decisions about sexual and reproductive health.

Time: 45 minutes.

Present the following case studies to participants for discussion.

Case study 1

Goaseb is a thirty year old man who works for a fishing company in Walvis Bay. His wife Martha lives in Khorixas, together with their two children. Goaseb does not want his family to join him at the coast because his job contract will soon be coming to an end and the company has informed him and his colleagues that their contracts will not be extended. Furthermore, his wife is employed as a cashier at one of the supermarkets in her town and it would be difficult for her to get a job at the coast.

Goaseb visits his family twice a month. Sometimes Martha visits him too. It is during one of those visits that Martha found another woman’s clothing in her husband’s house. She was very upset and confronted him about this. Martha is aware of the dangers of having multiple partners and she fears she might contract HIV. Her husband promised to end the affair but will not agree to go for HIV testing. Martha has asked that they use a condom during sexual intercourse until when they are sure about their status but Goaseb will not hear anything about it. Condoms are to be used on “loose women” not on wives, he reckons, and he says his girlfriend “was a good woman who did not have other partners, besides him”.

Martha is adamant that she will not have unprotected sex before they go for testing. Goaseb has threatened to find another woman to meet his needs. The last time he paid his family a visit, he forced Martha to have unprotected sex with him.

1. Is Goaseb’s attitude a typical one? Why do some men in Namibia take this attitude?
2. What advice would you give Martha about her options?
3. What can be done to increase gender equality in sexual decision-making?
### Case study 2

Amon has set a condition for his fiancée, Elizabeth, before marrying her. She must conceive and bear a child before he can commit to the marriage. Elizabeth is confused because she fears having a child outside wedlock. And if she fails to conceive, where does that leave her relationship?

1. Why would Amon set such a condition? Is it cultural?
2. What are the choices for Elizabeth?
3. What kind of information would assist Elizabeth to make a wise decision?
4. What advice would you give to Amon, and what advice to Elizabeth?

### 5.10 RESOURCES

**Publications:**

These publications may be useful for training purposes:


- Estelle Coetzee in *Sister Namibia*: Vol. 11, No. 1. (May-June 1999), “We call them messing with women’s bodies, They call them immuno-contraceptives”.


- Legal Assistance Centre, *All you need to know about the HIV/AIDS Charter of Rights*, available in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Rukwangali and Silozi.


- Legal Assistance Centre, *Training Manual for Trainers on Will Writing and Inheritance in Namibia*, available in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Rukwangali and Silozi.

- Legal Assistance Centre, *Your Guide on how to write a Valid Will*, available in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Rukwangali and Silozi.


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These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module:

- Pandu Hailonga, Adolescent Sexuality and Reproductive Behaviour – a social historical analysis in Namibia, Shaker Publishers, 2005. Due to be reprinted. Copies are lodged with the National Archive, UNAM library and UNFPA.
- Red Cross, Namibia’s HIV Action NOW, booklet is available in six languages: English, Afrikaans, Khoekhoegowab, Oshiwambo, Rukwangali, Silozi, English and Afrikaans. Red Cross, Windhoek.

These publications should be available at the National Library in Windhoek or from the publishers.

- Keulder & LeBeau: Ships, Trucks and Clubs: The Dynamics of HIV Risk Behaviour in Walvis Bay (PDF).

This paper summarises the main findings for the Walvis Bay section of a much larger study which looked at the dynamics of HIV risk among fishermen, truck drivers and sex workers. It identifies the reasons why each of the groups is vulnerable, points to efforts to reduce their risk and the challenges faced by those who design and implement these programmes. Available at http://www.ippr.org.na/Briefing%20Papers/BP36.pdf
Videos:

  Available from:
  **Home Brewed Productions**
  PO Box 60995
  Katutura
  Tel: 061 249 883


- Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *The days are so long*. Relates the story of a young girl infected by HIV, longing for help and support. Luckily, a school mate will react and give her hope and love. (9 minutes)

- Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *I can’t understand*. Relates the true story of Mrs Shipanga, teacher at Alpha Combined School, organising training sessions on HIV/AIDS and condom use with her learners, for rural Ovahimba communities. (11 minutes)

- Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *Amanda*. The story of three wonderful girls from Sesfontein, who adopt respectively abstinence, faithfulness and condom use as a lifestyle. (7 minutes)

- Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *It is me and you*. Relates the story and struggle of two orphans in Otji, whose friends organise a large AIDS Awareness Campaign as a symbol of their love and care. (8 minutes)

See contact details for Ombetja Yehinga Organisation below

- Take Control/UNICEF, *Lydia’s Room*. A tale of two young women and how they struggle to come to terms with their sister’s HIV infection.

- Take Control/UNICEF: *Hans and Ulrike*. A turbulent love story in which Ulrike finds out that she is HIV positive while Hans is in prison.

- Take Control/UNICEF: *Koffie*. A former fisherman in Walvis Bay is living positively with HIV with the help of his girlfriend, Pamela.

- Take Control/UNICEF: *Nelao*. A student at Onguti Secondary School near Ondangwa continues with her life after finding out she and her baby are HIV positive.

  Available from:
  **Take Control Secretariat**
  Ministry of Information & Broadcasting
  Private Bag 13344, Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 9111


- Steps for the Future, *Mother to Child* (2001). Looks at the experience of an HIV positive mother finding out how to have an HIV negative child in South Africa. (45 minutes)

  Available from:
  **Steps for the Future**
  Film Resource Unit
  PO Box 11065, Johannesburg, 2000
  No. 2 President Street, Joburg Building, Newtown, Johannesburg
  South Africa
  Tel: 0027 11 838 4280/1
  Fax: 0027 11 838 4451
  E-mail: zweli@fru.co.za
Key organisations:

- The **Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS)** has produced training and resource guides on human sexuality and reproductive health that facilitators can refer to during training sessions.

  **Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS)**
  Primary Health Care Directorate
  Family Health Division
  Private Bag 13198
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 203 2710
  Fax: 061 203 2334
  E-mail: hauala@mhss.gov.na

- The **Take Control Secretariat of the Ministry of Information & Broadcasting**, organises campaigns and produces resources on HIV/AIDS:

  **Take Control Secretariat**
  **Ministry of Information & Broadcasting**
  Private Bag 13344
  Windhoek
  Government Building, Robert Mugabe Ave
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 9111

- The **Namibia Planned Parenthood Association (NAPPA)** compliments the work of the MoHSS by providing sexual and reproductive health education and services to underserved groups.

  **Namibia Planned Parenthood Association (NAPPA)**
  PO Box 10936
  Khomasdal
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 23 0250
  Fax: 061 23 0251
  E-mail: nappa@africaonline.com.na

- The **Ombetja Yehinga Organisation (OYO)** aims to decrease the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic and related social issues amongst young people in the Kunene, Erongo and Khomas regions. Young people in these regions publish a monthly magazine which often raises issues of reproductive health.

  **Ombetja Yehinga Organisation (OYO)**
  PO Box 97217
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 254915
  Fax: 061 254894
  E-mail: Philippe Talavera – philippe@ombetja.org

- **Sister Namibia** is a non-governmental human rights organisation which engages in the fields of media, education, research, advocacy and cultural activities in order to promote gender equality.

  **Sister Namibia**
  163 Nelson Mandela Avenue, Eros
  PO Box 40092
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 230 618
Module 6

GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

6.1 Objective of the module

- To sensitise participants and equip them with knowledge and insights to enable them to understand their rights and responsibilities to challenge gender-based violence in society.

6.2 Target groups

- Boys and girls from age 12 (in and out of school)
- Law enforcement officers
- Teachers
- Political leaders/traditional leaders/church leaders
- Community members.

6.3 What is gender-based violence?

Note for trainer: During training on gender-based violence, it sometimes happens that participants who have experienced or are experiencing gender-based violence themselves become very upset by discussion of this issue. Be prepared for this. You will need to be supportive without getting emotionally involved. If a participant looks upset, do not ignore the situation but try to speak to her privately. Ask her if she would like to take a break from the training. Tell her you can speak to her about her experience at the tea break or lunch time. It would be very helpful to be able to refer her to an organisation which can help her. (See section 6.9 Resources below.)

Gender-based violence is violence that is directed against a person on the basis of gender or sex.

The term gender-based violence is most commonly used to refer to violence against women that stems from the unequal power relations between women and men. But not all violent acts committed against women are gender-based violence, and not all victims of gender-based violence are female. Men, women and children can all suffer from gendered forms of violence. For example, violence may be committed against men who do not conform to the view of masculinity which is accepted by their society. Gender-based
violence is different from other types of violence because it is rooted in the behaviours, norms and attitudes that society assigns to people on the basis of their sex. Another side of gender-based violence is that it is mostly men who commit acts of violence against women, children, other men, and themselves.

Gender-based violence plagues every society in every region of the world. It includes physical, sexual, economic and emotional violence. It can be violence in the family, including battering, sexual abuse, marital rape, traditional practices harmful to women and violence-related exploitation. It can be violence within the community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work and in educational institutions, trafficking in women and forced prostitution.

**INTERNATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

In 1993, the United Nations adopted the first international definition of violence against women in its Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women:

> any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. (Article 1)

By using the term “gender-based”, this definition highlights the need to understand violence within the context of women’s and girl’s subordinate status in society. Article 2 of this Declaration listed some of the most common forms of gender-based violence:

> Violence against women shall be understood to encompass, but not be limited to, the following:

(a) **Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation**;

(b) **Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution**;

(c) **Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetuated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs**.

The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action adopted the United Nations definition of violence against women, highlighting some additional forms of gender-based violence not explicitly mentioned there, including violations of the rights of women in situations of armed conflict (such as murder, systematic rape, sexual slavery and forced pregnancy), forced sterilisation and forced abortion, coercive or forced use of contraceptives, female infanticide and pre-natal sex-selection.
GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN THE AFRICAN UNION

Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa

This Protocol, which Namibia has agreed to, defines “violence against women” in Article 1 as

all acts perpetrated against women which cause or could cause them physical, sexual, psychological, and economic harm, including the threat to take such acts; or to undertake the imposition of arbitrary restrictions on or deprivation of fundamental freedoms in private or public life in peace time and during situations of armed conflicts or of war.

The Protocol promises that states will treat sexual abuse and violence against women in times of conflict or war as war crimes or crimes against humanity (Article 11.3), and devotes one article entirely to the topic of violence against women:

**Article 4: The Rights to Life, Integrity and Security of Person**

1. Every woman shall be entitled to respect for her life and the integrity and security of her person. All forms of exploitation, cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment and treatment shall be prohibited.

2. State Parties shall take appropriate and effective measures to:
   a) enact and enforce laws to prohibit all forms of violence against women including unwanted or forced sex whether the violence takes place in private or public;
   b) adopt such other legislative, administrative, social and economic measures as may be necessary to ensure the prevention, punishment and eradication of all forms of violence against women;
   c) identify the causes and consequences of violence against women and take appropriate measures to prevent and eliminate such violence;
   d) actively promote peace education through curricula and social communication in order to eradicate elements in traditional and cultural beliefs, practices and stereotypes which legitimise and exacerbate the persistence and tolerance of violence against women;
   e) punish the perpetrators of violence against women and implement programmes for the rehabilitation of women victims;
   f) establish mechanisms and accessible services for effective information, rehabilitation and reparation for victims of violence against women;
   g) prevent and condemn trafficking in women, prosecute the perpetrators of such trafficking and protect those women most at risk;
   h) prohibit all medical or scientific experiments on women without their informed consent;
   i) provide adequate budgetary and other resources for the implementation and monitoring of actions aimed at preventing and eradicating violence against women;
   j) ensure that, in those countries where the death penalty still exists, not to carry out death sentences on pregnant or nursing women;
   k) ensure that women and men enjoy equal rights in terms of access to refugee status determination procedures and that women refugees are accorded the full protection and benefits guaranteed under international refugee law, including their own identity and other documents.
GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE IN THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC)

Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children

All SADC Heads of State and Government have signed an Addendum to the 1997 Declaration on Gender and Development on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children. This Addendum defines violence as including physical and sexual violence, as well as economic, psychological and emotional abuse occurring in the family, in such forms as threats, intimidation, battery, sexual abuse of children, economic deprivation, marital rape, femicide, female genital mutilation, and traditional practices harmful to women;

(a) occurring in the community, in such forms as threats, rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation, trafficking in women and children, forced prostitution, violence against women in armed conflict; and that

(b) perpetrated or condoned by the agents of the state...

It recommends the adoption of various measures to respond to and to prevent violence, including:

- the enactment of adequate laws to protect victims and to punish offenders
- the eradication of gender bias in the legal system
- access to counselling, restitution and reparation
- the eradication of elements of traditional norms, religious beliefs and stereotypes which legitimise violence against women and children
- adequate legal, educational, health, social welfare, counselling and other services
- gender sensitisation of service providers
- research on the causes, incidence and consequences of violence against women and children.

This Addendum stresses the need for an integrated approach to these measures, and for the allocation of adequate resources to ensure the implementation and sustainability of the programmes.

6.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Identifying gender-based violence

Objective: To encourage participants to apply gender analysis to different forms of violence.

Time: Flexible, at least 15 minutes.

As an introduction to the topic of gender-based violence, give the participants some of the examples of violence from the list below and ask them to say whether or not the example is a form of gender-based violence.

- Two women and one man are killed in a car hijacking incident. (This is not gender-based violence.)
- A man rapes a woman. (This is gender-based violence. About 95% of all rapes in Namibia are committed against women and girls. Rape often involves ideas about women as objects for the purposes of sexual gratification. Rape is also usually an exercise of power by a man.)
- A man rapes a young boy. (This is also gender-based violence, as the young boy is powerless to stop the perpetrator in the same way as most women who are raped. The perpetrator is using sex as a weapon against someone who is weaker than him.)
A husband beats his wife when she refuses to have sex with him. (This is gender-based violence. It comes from ideas about wives as property, and the refusal to accept that women have a right to autonomy over their sexuality.)

A father refuses to provide school fees for his 15-year-old daughter. (This is economic abuse, which is a form of violence. It is probably gender-based violence because it may stem from ideas about the importance of educating boys versus girls, or from the idea that the girl is old enough to find a man to take care of her.)

A man who is distraught over being unemployed walks into a shop and shoots the three women and two men who happen to be inside before killing himself. (This is not gender-based violence, although the man may be particularly despondent over his unemployment because of the gender stereotype which expects a man to be the breadwinner in the family.)

6.4 Why is gender-based violence important?

According to the National Gender Policy on Violence Against Women and Children, gender-based violence against women and children is a violation of Article 8(2)(b) of the Constitution which states that “No person shall be subject to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment”.

Gender-based violence is an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace. Gender-based violence against women and children impairs or nullifies their ability to exercise their human rights and fundamental freedoms.

Gender-based violence originates from cultural, traditional and religious attitudes and practices that perpetuate the lower status accorded to women in the family, workplace, the community and society at large. Violence against women and children is made worse by social pressures; women’s lack of access to legal information, aid or protection; inadequate steps to enforce existing laws; and the absence of educational programmes to address violence at all levels.

Gender-based violence is dealt with specifically in two laws in Namibia: the Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003 and the Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000.

6.4.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender-based violence in the community

Objective: To enable participants to consider the types of gender-based violence that take place in their community and why they take place, and to propose solutions.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Ask the participants to list the types of gender-based violence that take place in their community. Prompt them to include psychological violence (eg excessive jealousy) and economic violence (eg depriving someone of enough to eat) as well as physical violence.

Split the participants into groups and ask each group to perform a role play on one of the types of gender-based violence they identified in the initial brainstorm.

Ask “what are the root causes that lead to this violence?” Ask participants to propose ways of addressing the root causes.

Ensure that participants understand that patriarchy is a social system in which the father is the head of the family and men have authority over women and children. Note that in a patriarchal
society women often behave in a passive way – they avoid conflict, do not express their needs or express their needs in an apologetic manner. This is in contrast to assertive behaviour, which involves standing up for one’s rights, being open and direct, and being able to say “no”.

**Patriarchy:** This literally means “rule by the father”, but more generally refers to a social situation where men are dominant over women in wealth, status and power.

### 6.5 Domestic violence

#### 6.5.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: The Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003

**Objective:** To enable participants to understand the law on domestic violence.

**Time:** 3 hours

**Introduction:** Domestic violence is violence towards a family member or someone who is in a relationship with the abuser. Although women can be abusers, it is women and children who are most often victims of domestic violence at the hands of men. When children are the victims, the violence is often referred to as “child abuse”. Domestic violence is particularly disturbing because the home and the family should be the place where people can feel the most safe and secure.

Domestic violence is condemned by Namibian leaders. For example, on February 2003, then-President Sam Nujoma said:

“I would particularly like to express my concern about the recent spate of violent crimes directed against women and children. These crimes represent a gross violation of the fundamental rights of our citizens... These despicable acts of barbarism must therefore be roundly condemned and completely uprooted.”

However, domestic violence continues to be widespread.

**Domestic violence figures ‘shocking’**

They are figures that were yesterday described as “frightening”: one in five women is in an abusive relationship, and more than a third of women report having suffered physical or sexual abuse at the hands of an intimate partner. .... More than six out of every ten women who find themselves in such violent relationships do not seek help. Further, more than one in every five women in an abusive relationship does not speak to anyone about her situation.

*The Namibian, 26 November 2003, reporting on the results of a World Health Organisation and Ministry of Health and Social Services study entitled An assessment of the nature and consequences of intimate male-partner violence in Windhoek, Namibia*

**Brainstorm:** Ask participants what they understand are acts of domestic violence. Make sure they cover all of the types of domestic violence which are included in the law (see below). Write these up on a flip chart if available, or make a handout of the types of domestic violence.
Role play: Alternatively, split the participants into 8 groups and give each group one piece of paper with one type of abuse written on it (e.g., “physical abuse”, “economic abuse”). Ask participants to act out a role play which describes this type of abuse. Discuss the role plays – adding in anything that has been missed, or correcting anything that was not domestic violence under the law.

Types of domestic violence:

1. Physical abuse, including beating, kicking, burning, choking. This also includes detaining someone by force, or depriving them of food, water, clothes or shelter.
2. Sexual abuse, which is rape or forcing someone to engage in any form of sexual contact, or making someone look at sexual material (such as pornographic magazines).
3. Economic abuse, including depriving someone of things or money they need to live or should expect to have (such as food or their own wages).
4. Intimidation, which is intentionally making someone afraid – by threats or other sorts of behaviour.
5. Harassment, which is repeatedly following or communicating with someone in an unwelcome way.
6. Trespass, which is entering the home or property of someone without their consent (when they do not share the same home).
7. Emotional, verbal or psychological abuse, which requires a pattern of serious degrading or humiliating behaviour, such as repeated insults or obsessively jealous behaviour, to be domestic violence under the law.

Threats or attempts to carry out any of these acts are also domestic violence.

It is also domestic violence if a child is allowed to see physical, sexual or psychological abuse against a family member.
What is a domestic relationship? People who are in the following relationships are in what is called “domestic relationships” in terms of the Combating of Domestic Violence Act:

- people who are married (civil or customary marriage) or engaged to be married
- people who are cohabitating (living together as husband and wife)
- two people who are the parents of a child – whether or not they have ever lived together
- parents and their children
- other family members related by blood, marriage or adoption, if they live in the same house or have some other connection between them, such as financial dependency (e.g. an uncle paying his niece’s school fees)
- girlfriend and boyfriend.

The domestic relationship continues for at least one year after separation (divorce, moving out, etc) – but if two people have a child together they have a domestic relationship as long as that child is alive or for at least one year after the child’s death.

Quiz: Is this domestic violence?

To check if participants have understood the types of domestic violence and the need for there to be a “domestic relationship”. for each example ask them if this is domestic violence and if so, what kind?

1. A child has been naughty and his mother refuses to give him pocket money that week.  
   (Answer: No. This is not economic abuse – domestic violence is not about petty things or about parents reasonably punishing children.)

2. A teenage girl finishes a relationship with a boy. The ex-boyfriend follows her around, watching who she talks to and where she goes. (Answer: Yes. This is harassment.)

3. A woman is living with a man. She says she doesn’t want to have sex with him because he has other girlfriends. He says unless she has sex with him he will have sex with her daughter.  
   (Answer: Yes. This is sexual abuse and intimidation.)

4. A boss says she will not promote her male assistant unless he has sex with her. (Answer: No. These two people are not in a domestic relationship, but this would be sexual harassment under the new Labour Act 15 of 2004 – not yet in force as at June 2006.)

5. A step-father constantly shouts at his step-daughter, swearing at her and telling her she is stupid.  
   (Answer: Yes. This is psychological abuse.)

Ask participants for other examples to discuss.

What can you do if you are experiencing domestic violence?

Under the law, someone who is experiencing domestic violence can:

- Make an application for a protection order at a magistrate’s court (see below for more details).
- If the abuse amounts to a crime (such as hitting which is assault, or stabbing which may be attempted murder, or rape), you can lay a charge with the police OR ask the police to give the abuser a formal warning.

You can do both of these things at the same time.

Protection orders:

Who can apply for a protection order? Anyone who is experiencing domestic violence. If the person being abused is a minor (under age 21) anyone can ask for a protection order for them. If someone older than 21 is unable to apply for a protection order themselves (for example because they are unconscious or under the influence of alcohol or drugs), someone else can apply on their behalf.
How do you apply for a protection order? Go to the magistrate’s court. You do not need a lawyer, and the clerk of the court will help you to fill in the forms. You should take any witnesses or evidence (such as medical records) to the court. You may first get an interim (immediate but temporary) protection order and then be called for an enquiry at which the magistrate will listen to both sides of the story and may then grant a final protection order.

Terms of a protection order: All protection orders will order the abuser to stop committing domestic violence. A protection order can be adapted to fit the problem. It may include the following provisions:

1. **no weapons** – an order to give a gun or other weapon to the police
2. **no-contact provisions** – ordering the abuser not to come near the abused person or their home or work, or communicate with them
3. **move out of joint household** – if there has been physical violence the abuser can be ordered to move out of the joint household, even if the house is owned by the abuser (in that case it would be only for a period of 6 months)
4. **alternative accommodation** – an order to the abuser to pay rent or arrange another place to stay for the abused person
5. **possession and protection of property** – an order to give the abused person possession of certain property (eg ID card, chequebook, clothes, children’s toys) and not to sell or damage any property in which the abused person has an interest
6. **protection of children and maintenance** – the protection order can also include temporary orders for maintenance, or custody of children (day to day responsibility for their care) and access to them (visiting them).

Different parts of the protection order remain in force for different time periods. For example some provisions such as no-contact, can remain in force for up to 3 years, while others, such as maintenance are for only 6 months.

Some abusers will ignore formal warnings, but the warnings may be helpful in some cases. The complainant is probably in the best position to judge how the abuser will react.

For a full description of this Act, see Guide to the Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003 – available in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero and Khoekhoegowab from the Legal Assistance Centre. (See section 6.9 Resources below.)
**Group work: What should they do?**

Divide the participants into groups of about 5 or 6 people. During your discussions, examples of domestic violence are likely to have been raised. Use these examples for discussion, or the ones below, or use a mix of both. After the group work, participants should report back and then there should be group discussion of the responses.

Ask participants to discuss in groups for each example the question “What should they do?”

1. Martha is living with Rudolph and they have 3 children together. Martha works as a domestic worker 2 days a week and Rudolph is a taxi driver. They live in Rudolph’s house. When Rudolph gets drunk he beats her. The violence is getting worse and more frequent. She is afraid he will kill her. But she is scared to leave because she has very little money and is worried the children will suffer. What should Martha do?

   During the follow-up discussion:
   - Remind the participants that Martha can ask for a protection order which orders Rudolph to leave the home while she makes alternative arrangements for accommodation.
   - Martha should ask for a maintenance order to be made with the protection order.

2. Petrus is a teacher and is worried about one of his pupils, 7-year-old John. John lives with his uncle while his mother works in Windhoek. John is obviously not fed properly, and comes to school covered in bruises. Petrus has seen the uncle beating John. What should Petrus do?

   During the follow-up discussion:
   - Remind participants that anyone can apply for a protection order for a minor child or lay a charge with the police in respect of violence against the child.
   - Point out that a social worker should be informed.
   - John’s parents are responsible for providing maintenance for him and failure to do so is a crime in terms of the Children’s Act 33 of 1960. (See section 6.7 below on child abuse.)

3. Amalia is married to a pastor. She is 50 years old. Her husband beats her, locks her in the house when he goes out, and gives her hardly any money for food for the household. Her husband and her children – all of whom are over age 18 – urge her not to tell anyone because it will bring disgrace on the family.

   During the follow-up discussion:
   - Remind participants that this is both physical and economic abuse.
   - Amalia could apply for a protection order, but in this case perhaps a written warning from the police would be more effective.
   - Amalia could also lay a charge of assault, and when this case comes to court the proceedings will be in private.

**Conclude by explaining or handing out the following three charts:**

- The **Violence Wheel** shows how physical and sexual abuse are related to other forms of power and control in personal relationships.
- The **Cycle of Violence** shows that as the cycle of violence is repeated, it usually increases in frequency and severity – the “honeymoon” is a short-term phase.
- There is an alternative! The **Non-Violence Wheel** shows behaviours based on equality rather than power. It provides ideas for setting goals and boundaries in personal relationships.
The Violence Wheel shows how physical and sexual abuse are related to other forms of power and control in personal relationships. The more subtle forms of control may lead to physical violence, or alternate with outbreaks of physical violence.
The cycle of violence is a recurring pattern where the offender swings between affectionate, remorseful and calm behaviour to periods of tension that grow into physical, sexual or emotional violence.
The Non-Violence Wheel shows behaviours based on equality rather than power. It provides ideas for setting goals and boundaries in personal relationships.
6.6 Rape

6.6.1 PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION: Legal definition of rape

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Training points: Explain to participants that you will use the legal and technical terms for parts of the body and sexual acts. Although some participants may feel a little embarrassed, this will make the law clear.

Introduction:

The definition of rape in the Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000 is the “intentional commission of a sexual act under coercive circumstances”. The definition needs further explanation of the meaning of “sexual act” and “coercive circumstances”.

“Sexual act” covers the most intimate kinds of sexual contact, namely:

- the insertion (to even the slightest degree) of the penis into the vagina or anus of another person (with the term “vagina” including the external female genitalia)
- the insertion of the penis into the mouth of another person
- the insertion of any other part of the body into the vagina or anus
- the insertion of any object into the vagina or anus (excluding the insertion of objects as part of normal medical procedures)
- cunnilingus, which is oral stimulation of the genitals
- any other form of genital stimulation.

“Coercive circumstances” includes force, threats of force, and other situations which enable one person to take unfair advantage of another. It includes all the following circumstances listed below, but it can also include other forms of coercion, which are not mentioned in the law.

- physical force against the complainant (victim/survivor) or another person
- threats of physical force against the complainant or another person
- threats to cause harm other than bodily harm to the complainant or another person, in circumstances where it is not reasonable for the complainant to disregard the threats
- the complainant is unlawfully detained
- the complainant is –
  - physically or mentally disabled
  - drunk or drugged
  - asleep
  - and cannot understand what is happening or is unable to communicate unwillingness
- the perpetrator pretends to be another person
- the presence of more than one person is used to intimidate the complainant (gang rape)
- the complainant is under the age of 14 and the perpetrator is more than 3 years older

Note also that the Combating of Immoral Practices Amendment Act 7 of 2000 has given additional protection to boys and girls under the age of 16, where there is sexual contact with someone more than 3 years older. This is a lesser crime than rape, but it covers any “indecent or immoral act” as well as “sexual acts” (which are defined above).

Emphasise that there are four key differences between the old definition of rape and the new one:

- The new Act treats males and females equally – it is “gender-neutral”. Now it is possible for men and boys to lay a charge of rape under the Act
- The new Act makes it an offence for a husband to rape his wife.
The new Act focuses on “coercion”. Under the old law, the focus was on “consent” and in court rape survivors were often asked humiliating questions about their past sexual history, or what they were wearing when they were raped, in an attempt to prove that they consented to this sexual act. Now the focus is on coercion – proving the complainant was subjected to violence, threats, or was taken advantage of.

The new Act covers a variety of sexual acts. Previously, rape was said to have occurred only when the penis was inserted into the vagina. Sexual assaults on young girls could not be prosecuted as rape if penetration could not be proved. The new Act covers other types of sexual acts, including attempting to penetrate young girls.

Discussion:

- Ask participants if they have any questions or comments. Discuss.
- To test participants’ understanding, you can ask “Is this rape?”
  - A girl is taken to the riverbed by her boyfriend and when they get there his friends are waiting to have sex with her. She is too scared to say anything and she lets them have sex with her. (Yes)
  - The uncle of a small girl fondles her private parts (Yes)
  - A married woman who is HIV+ has an agreement with her HIV+ husband that they will use condoms so they do not increase their infection level. He comes home drunk and forces her to have sex without a condom. (Yes)

For a full description of this Act, see Guide to the Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000 – available in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero and Khoekhoegowab – from the Legal Assistance Centre. (See section 6.9 Resources below.)
6.6.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Statistics on rape and attempted rape

Objective: To inform participants about the prevalence of rape and consider actions to encourage reporting of rape in communities.

Time: 2 hours.

Explain that the number of reported rapes is increasing. Give participants the statistics on rape and attempted rape from Table 1 and Table 2 for their region. Give the statistics of two other regions – the one that has the highest number of rapes, and the one that has the lowest.

Table 1: Reports of rape and attempted rape by region, 2000-2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
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<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caprivi</td>
<td>43</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>10%</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardap</td>
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<td>9%</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>76</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
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<td>8%</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khomas</td>
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<td>144</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kunene</td>
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<td>79</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>61</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>7%</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>79</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>901</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>975</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calculations rounded to the nearest percentage.

Table 2: Comparison between regional share of reported rape and attempted rape cases & regional share of population, 2000-2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>Average percentage of total rape and attempted rape cases, 2000-2005</th>
<th>Percentage of total national population in 2001 census</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caprivi</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>+1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erongo</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardap</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karas</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khomas</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kunene</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohangwena</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omaheke</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omusati</td>
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<td>13%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshana</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshikoto</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otjozondjupa</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Population figures are based on Republic of Namibia, 2001 Population and Housing Census: National Report, Basic Analysis with Highlights, July 2003, Table 1.2.1, rounded to the nearest percentage.
**Discussion:** Ask participants why there are these differences. Discuss.

**You should make the following points:**

- **Tradition:** This can work in two ways. In the cities, more rape may take place because traditional values are more likely to be ignored. However, in some traditions rape is seen as very shameful for the victim and their family, or a normal part of life, and is thus less likely to be reported in the rural areas where traditional values are strong.

- **Blaming women:** Some people say that women get raped because they wear revealing clothes and go out late at night. But young babies and old women are also raped. And most people are not raped by strangers but by family members or friends. Rape is not a crime motivated by sexual desire, but motivated by anger and a desire to have power over somebody.

Experts believe that most rapes go unreported. Some people believe that the actual number of rapes in Namibia is increasing, whilst others believe more rapes are being reported because Namibia now has improved laws on rape and because people are becoming more educated about this kind of violence. There is no clear evidence to prove either theory is correct. However, compared to other countries, Namibia has a high number of reported rapes relative to its population. About one third of reported rapes in Namibia involve children as the victims/survivors.

**Discussion:** Ask participants what stops people from reporting rape. How can people be encouraged to report rape? Discuss.

**You should make the following points:**

- If rapes are not reported, the rapist is free to rape again.

- The new Act makes it a crime for the media to identify rape victims/survivors, and at the court hearing the rape case will be closed to any outsiders, so victims/survivors should not be afraid of publicity if they report the rape.

- Communities must take a stand and say rape is not acceptable. Families of suspected rapists must not threaten the rape victim/survivor.

**Action plan:** Ask participants to draw up an action plan in groups to encourage victims/survivors of rape to report the rape to the authorities. Action plans should include: who, what, when and how. They should also have a strong component of evaluation built in.

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**6.6.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: What to do if you have been raped**

**Objective:** To ensure participants understand what to do if someone has been raped.

**Time:** 2 hours.

Ask participants what they believe someone who has been raped should do.

Check that the following points have been covered:

1. Do not wash or change your clothes or tidy the place where the rape took place.
2. Report the rape at the nearest Women & Child Protection Unit or police station. Take a friend or relative with you for support if possible.
3. Have a medical examination as soon as possible. This can provide importance evidence for the court. The police should arrange the medical examination.
4. Ask the doctor or nurse for PEP (post-exposure prophylaxis). See box below. Ask the doctor for the morning-after pills. These will protect you against pregnancy if taken within 72 hours of the rape occurring. (See Module 5 for more information on this emergency contraceptive.)
Post-Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP)

PEP is a course of antiretroviral drugs which can give significant protection against HIV infection if it begins within 24-72 hours of the rape – the sooner the better.

PEP treatment for rape survivors is available at all district hospitals, and is offered at no cost. If PEP is not available at the medical centre (such as a clinic) where the survivor seeks help, the medical personnel and the police have a responsibility to make arrangements for the survivor to access it elsewhere.

It is very important for survivors to finish the month-long treatment of PEP, even if they test HIV negative after the assault.

5. Get counseling to help you to deal with the after-effects of the rape. Someone who has been raped will experience many different after-effects, such as crying, shaking, vomiting, loss of memory, feeling fear, guilt, shame, anger, being “frozen” and feeling suicidal. These can continue for many years. Counseling can help a rape survivor deal with these after-effects.

Example: What should Mary do?

Read the following story to the participants. Ask what they would do.

“Mary, a married woman friend of yours arrives at your home late at night. She is crying and very upset. She and her husband had an agreement to use condoms. Today he lost his job and came home drunk and angry. He tore her clothes off and put his penis in her anus, without using a condom. She has never heard of this kind of sex. She is torn and bleeding and doesn’t know what to do. She does not want to report her husband to the police.”

Ask participants to discuss what advice they would give to Mary.

You should make the following points:

- Explain to Mary that what happened was rape.
- Be very gentle with Mary, and keep calm yourself.
- If Mary does not want to report the rape, you should not try to force her to go to the police.
- Go with her to a hospital or clinic as she is injured. If Mary knows she is HIV- or if she does not know her HIV status, ask the doctor to give her PEP.
- Encourage her to talk to someone she trusts about the problem, such as a family member who could talk to the husband about his behaviour.
- Arrange counseling for Mary if possible.
- Be supportive, don’t tell anyone else about this situation, and continue to show that you are her friend.
6.7 Child abuse

Definition: Child abuse

The Children’s Act 33 of 1960 defines “ill-treatment or neglect of children” to be: “the neglect, ill-treatment or abandoning of a child if the child is likely to suffer unnecessarily or be injured or detrimentally affected”.

- This includes abuse by the child’s parent, custodian or guardian, or abuse which the parent, custodian or guardian allows to take place.
- It is an offence under the Children’s Act for any person legally liable to maintain a child who, while able to do so, fails to provide that child with adequate food, clothing, lodging and medical aid.
- It is also an offence for a person with responsibility for a child who is unable to provide the child with adequate food, clothing, housing or medical aid, to fail to take reasonable steps to obtain assistance for the child from any other person legally liable to maintain the child, or from any available authority or organisation.

All of the forms of domestic violence defined above can be committed against children. Section 2(2) of the Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003 says that it is also psychological abuse of a child where a person repeatedly –

(a) causes or allows the child to see or hear the physical, sexual, or psychological abuse of a person with whom that child has a domestic relationship; or
(b) puts that child, or allows that child to be put, at risk of seeing or hearing such abuse.

Child abuse, like domestic violence against adults, can also involve crimes such as attempted murder, rape, indecent assault or assault.

Some broader definitions of child abuse are contained in the Convention of the Rights of the Child which Namibia has ratified. In terms of Article 19(1), governments have a duty to protect children from “… all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child.”

This Convention also has separate articles on the protection of children from economic exploitation, drug abuse, sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, abduction, trafficking, torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, involvement in armed conflicts and “all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child’s welfare”.

6.7.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Understanding child abuse and the laws against it

Objective: To make sure that participants fully understand the concept of child abuse and the protection children have under the law.

Time: 2 hours.

Legislation to protect children:

The Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003 is dealt with above.

The Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000 is dealt with above.

The Combating of Immoral Practices Act 21 of 1980, as amended by the Combating of Immoral Practices Amendment Act 7 of 2000, provides for penalties of either imprisonment or a heavy fine for any person who commits or attempts to commit a sexual act with a child under the age of sixteen years and who is more than three years older than such a child.
The **Criminal Procedure Amendment Act 24 of 2003** makes special arrangements for children and other vulnerable witnesses who must testify in court. These include:

- use of child-friendly courts
- letting the child give testimony outside of the court, eg in the magistrate’s office
- re-arranging court room furniture
- allowing the child close contact with a support person (social worker, parent or friend who is not a witness)
- putting questions to the child through the presiding officer or some other intermediary, such as a social worker or psychologist trained in working with children.

The **Maintenance Act 9 of 2003** rules that parents have a legal duty to maintain their children who are unable to support themselves. Both parents have the responsibility for the support of their children regardless of whether the children are born inside or outside of a marriage and whether or not the parents are subject to any system of customary law.

The **Children’s Status Bill** is currently before parliament (as of June 2006). This bill is designed to provide for equal treatment for children born outside of marriage.

The **Child Care and Protection Bill** is likely to be passed in 2006/7 and will replace the Children’s Act 33 of 1960. This bill is primarily concerned with children in need of care and protection – particularly abused children. No draft is currently available.

**Brainstorm:** Ask participants to brainstorm the likely effects of child abuse.

You should make sure that the following effects are noted:

- Child behavioural problems – violence, withdrawal, lack of concentration (affecting school work)
- Children who grow up in violent homes are more likely to turn to crime, drop out of school, and form violent families when they grow up.

**Note:** Corporal (physical) punishment has been banned in Namibian schools. However it is still legal for parents to use “reasonable chastisement” (punishment) against their children. This issue may be debated as part of the Child Care and Protection Bill.

**Action plan:** Ask the participants to draw up action plans in groups, on “How we can stop child abuse in our community”. Action plans should include: who, what, when and how. They should also have a strong component of evaluation built in. Participants may want to discuss methods of disciplining children other than corporal punishment.

### 6.8 Closing story

Read this story to the participants as an illustration of how knowledge of the law can transform the lives of vulnerable women and children.

“Elizabeth was a 29 year-old unemployed mother of 3. Although Elizabeth passed grade 12, her husband, Augustine, did not want her to work. He was very jealous and did not want her to talk to men. If he thought she had looked at another man, he beat her. The violence started getting worse. Elizabeth asked the advice of her husband’s uncle, and her own father. These men both told Elizabeth that being beaten was part of being married. But Elizabeth was worried about the children, who saw her being beaten repeatedly. Ten-year-old Victor was having problems at school. He was always getting into fights with other children. His 8-year-old sister, Erica, was very withdrawn and shy, and cried when she had to go to school. The youngest boy Joel, aged 7, was still wetting his bed and having nightmares – especially on those nights when his father beat his mother.”
One Sunday at church, Elizabeth was approached by a neighbour, Linda. Linda had heard screams coming from Elizabeth and Augustine’s house. She had also seen Elizabeth bruised and limping after fights with Augustine. Linda told Elizabeth how to apply for a protection order. She went to the court with Elizabeth and made a statement saying she had heard the abuse.

Elizabeth was very scared, but the magistrate told her that he would give her a protection order to help her. Augustine was ordered to move out of the house for 6 months, and to pay maintenance for the children.

Although at first Elizabeth’s parents were unhappy about the arrangement, they soon changed their mind. Elizabeth got a job and changed from a timid and frightened woman into a smiling, confident young lady. After some months, it was obvious how happy the children were – they all started doing better at school and playing happily with their friends.

Although it had taken a lot of courage for Elizabeth to take this step, she realised it was the best thing for herself and her children.”

6.9 RESOURCES

Publications:

These publications are useful for training purposes:

- Legal Assistance Centre, *Guide to the Combating of Rape Act, 2001* (English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Silosi)
- Legal Assistance Centre, *Guide to the Combating of Domestic Violence Act, 2005* (English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab)

The publications above are available from:

**Legal Assistance Centre**  
4 Korners Street  
PO 604  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 223 356  
Fax: 061 234 953  
E-mail: info@lac.org.na  
Website: www.lac.org.na.

- Desert Soul, *Stop the abuse against women*, comic-book style magazine. Due to be published in August 06 in English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero and Silozi. Will be available from Namibia Red Cross Society (see address next page).
These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module:


These publications should be available at the National Library in Windhoek or from the publishers.

**Videos:**

These videos are useful for training sessions, as ways to spark discussion and debate.


- Legal Assistance Centre, *Love and Respect* (2001). A drama about rape and domestic violence available in English, Afrikaans, Otjiherero, Oshiwambo and Khoekhoegowab, particularly suitable for rural audiences. (approximately 1 hour)


- Legal Assistance Centre, *This is Child Abuse* (2003). Five short “cartoon” spots on subtle forms of child abuse collected in one video which can be useful to spark discussion on different forms of child abuse. (about 10 minutes)

Copies of all of these videos are available from the Legal Assistance Centre (contact details above).

- Namibian Police/UNICEF: *The Roles and Functions of the Woman and Child Protection Unit: A documentary on the work of the WACPU in Namibia*, 2005 (26 minutes)

  Available from:
  D/C Inspector Shatilweh
  Namibian Police
  Tel: 061 209 4395
**Key organisations:**

- **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare** has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.

  **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare**  
  Juvenis Building, Independence Avenue  
  Private Bag 13359  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 283 3111  
  Fax: 061 238 941  
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na

- **Women & Child Protection Units (WACPU)** were established by NAMPOL to provide sensitised and integrated services to victims of violence and abuse. There is a WACPU in every region. The local police will have details of the nearest WACPU.

- **Legal Assistance Centre** can provide advice and training.

  **Legal Assistance Centre**  
  4 Korner Street  
  PO 604  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 223 356  
  Fax: 061 234 953  
  E-mail: info@lac.org.na  
  Website: www.lac.org.na

- **LifeLine/Childline Namibia** provides a confidential telephone counselling service, face-to-face counselling by appointment and a number of programmes including the Childline Lifeskills Schools Programme Focusing on the Prevention and Awareness of Sexual Abuse, Molestation, Domestic Violence and HIV/AIDS. LifeLine also has an outreach centre in Rundu (tel: 066 255 354) and offices in Ondangwa (tel: 0652 46252) and Eenhana (tel: 081 127 8272).

  **LifeLine/Childline Namibia**  
  45 Bismarck Street  
  PO Box 5477  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 22 6889 (office)  
  061 23 2221 (crisis)  
  Fax: 061 22 6894

- **The PEACE Centre** (People’s Education, Assistance and Counselling for Empowerment Centre) provides counselling for traumatised victims of violence.

  **The PEACE Centre**  
  26 Rhino Street  
  PO Box 50617  
  Bachbrecht  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 37 1550  
  Fax: 061 37 1555  
  E-mail: info@peace.org.na
- Philippi Trust provides counselling based on Christian principles, and training in counselling.

Philippi Trust
John Meinert Street
PO Box 4447
Windhoek
Tel: 051 259 291
Fax: 061 259 210
E-mail: philippi@mweb.com.na
7.1 Objective of the module

- To raise awareness on the importance of women’s economic empowerment through equal access and control over resources and land.

7.2 Target groups

- Traditional, church and community leaders
- Agriculture extension workers
- Persons active in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)
- Financial institutions
- Women employed in informal sectors.

7.3 What is economic empowerment?

Empowerment contains the word “power”, which refers to control over material assets, intellectual resources and ideology. The material assets over which control can be exercised may be physical (such as land, water, forests), human (such as people’s bodies and labour) or financial (such as money and access to credit). Intellectual resources include knowledge, information and ideas. Control over ideology signifies the ability to generate, propagate, sustain and institutionalise specific sets of beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviour. The process of challenging existing power relations and of gaining greater control over sources of power may be termed as empowerment. Economic empowerment means empowerment in the economic sphere.

WAYS TO ADVANCE THE ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

According to an analysis of three years of grant making for economic opportunity done by the Global Fund worldwide, the following interventions have been found to be the most effective in contributing to women’s economic empowerment:

1. Provision of access to information on rights, accompanied by building self-esteem. This helps to reverse women’s lack of power and economic dependence in the home.
2. Creating access to credit, skills training and economic literacy to enable women to successfully run their monetary affairs.
3. Linking women to local providers of technical assistance and business expertise to ensure the long-term sustainability of their economic ventures.

4. Educating men about the value of improving the status of women and girls in the family and society, which can engage men’s support for the advancement of female family members.

5. Supporting women’s labour rights and policy advocacy helps challenge the harmful effects of the rapid expansion of free markets.

6. Supporting related programs in the following areas recognizes the complexity of women’s lives and yields more effective outcomes:
   - Property and inheritance rights
   - Domestic violence prevention and treatment
   - Childcare and girls education
   - Family planning and maternal healthcare
   - Disaster prevention
   - Community/business/grant awareness of women’s rights

### 7.4 Why is gender and economic empowerment important?

According to the National Gender Policy, there are distinctive differences in women’s and men’s access to, and opportunities to control, economic structures and resources in Namibia. Men and women in Namibia spend different amounts of time on paid and unpaid work. This has resulted in inequality in economic power between men and women at individual and family levels as well as in the society as a whole.

In Namibia more women than men continue to work in subsistence farming, which is the backbone of the rural economy. Lack of access to productive resources and inadequate sharing of family responsibilities, combined with a lack of or insufficient services such as maternal and child care and security continue to restrict women’s mobility and their access to formal employment, and to economic, professional and other opportunities.

The gender disparities in access to formal employment between women and men in Namibia are clearly visible. The formal employment sector (public and private) employs more men than women. Women also tend to be confined to the lower levels of employment sectors, and in positions based on gender stereotypes. For example, women dominate domestic work, nursing, social work and teaching (especially at the primary school level).

Most Namibian farm land belongs to either the state or to men. Women cannot therefore use land as collateral to access credit that would enable them to obtain loans and generate their own incomes.

Rural to urban migration of male family members has also increased the financial responsibilities of rural women who are left behind to support the children. The impact of HIV/AIDS has also eroded the economic position of women in Namibia, as they bear the primary responsibility for providing care for the infected and the affected, including orphans and vulnerable children.

In developing countries undergoing fundamental political, economic and social transformation like Namibia, the skills of women are indispensable, and if well utilised could constitute a major contribution to the economic development and life improvement of women, and the country in general.
7.5 Legal framework

The Namibian Constitution provides for affirmative action for women, as well as including some specific statements on gender equality in the economic sphere.

**NAMIBIAN CONSTITUTION**

**Article 95 – Promotion of the Welfare of the People**

The State shall actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by adopting, inter alia, policies aimed at the following:

a) enactment of legislation to ensure **equality of opportunity for women**, to enable them to participate fully in all spheres of Namibian society; in particular, the Government shall ensure the implementation of the **principle of non-discrimination in remuneration of men and women**; further, the Government shall seek, through appropriate legislation, to provide **maternity and related benefits for women**;

b) enactment of legislation to ensure that the **health and strength of the workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused** and that **citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter vocations unsuited to their age and strength**;

c) active encouragement of the formation of independent trade unions to protect workers’ rights and interests, and to promote sound labour relations and fair employment practices;

d) membership of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and, where possible, adherence to and action in accordance with the international Conventions and Recommendations of the ILO;

e) **ensurance that every citizen has a right to fair and reasonable access to public facilities and services in accordance with the law**;

f) **ensurance that senior citizens are entitled to and do receive a regular pension adequate for the maintenance of a decent standard of living and the enjoyment of social and cultural opportunities**;

g) enactment of legislation to ensure that **the unemployed, the incapacitated, the indigent and the disadvantaged are accorded such social benefits and amenities as are determined by Parliament to be just and affordable** with due regard to the resources of the State;

h) a legal system seeking to promote justice on the basis of equal opportunity by providing free legal aid in defined cases with due regard to the resources of the State;

i) **ensurance that workers are paid a living wage adequate for the maintenance of a decent standard of living and the enjoyment of social and cultural opportunities**;

j) consistent **planning to raise and maintain an acceptable level of nutrition and standard of living of the Namibian people and to improve public health**…

The **Married Persons Equality Act 1 of 1996** removed the barriers that prevented women in civil marriages from exercising full control over their financial assets.

Post-independence law reforms in the field of labour have been aimed at removing discrimination and ensuring that women are not disadvantaged in the formal labour market by their role in child-bearing. The **Labour Act 6 of 1992** prohibited discrimination in any aspect of employment on the basis of sex, marital status or family responsibilities, as well
as forbade harassment on the same grounds. It also provided for three months of maternity leave. The Social Security Act 34 of 1994 made the right to maternity leave more practical by providing maternity benefits of 80% of full pay up to a ceiling of N$3000 through a mandatory combined scheme for sickness, maternity and death benefits financed by matching employer and employee contributions. Self-employed persons (such as those in the informal sector) can also join this scheme if they wish.

The revised Labour Act 15 of 2004 has strengthened the provisions on maternity leave, with employers now being required under the Act to provide full pay for women on maternity leave (note: this provision is not yet in operation as at June 2006). There are also new provisions for extended maternity leave on health grounds. The revised law has also added pregnancy and HIV status to the list of grounds for which discrimination is prohibited, and expanded the protection against sexual harassment. Women, who are often the caretakers of ill family members, will also benefit from new provisions for up to 5 days of compassionate leave each year in the case of serious illness or death of a family member.

The Affirmative Action (Employment) Act 29 of 1998 is intended to improve the representation of blacks, women and disabled persons in the formal workforce, by requiring employers with more than 50 employees to prepare affirmative action plans. The Employment Equity Commission which will monitor the implementation of these plans is made up in part of persons from each of the designated groups. There must be two persons out of the total of 14 members who represent the interests of women, although only one of these two persons must actually be a woman.

One arena in which affirmative action has been applied to women who work outside the formal workforce is through the Co-operatives Act 23 of 1996. Any co-operative which has a substantial number of women members (more than five women amongst its members, or with women numbering more than one-third of its members) must ensure that there is at least one woman on its board, as a means to increase the representation of women in management positions. The Co-operatives Act also allows for women-only co-operatives, as a forum where women can learn to be more comfortable with business management, and there have already been some very successful co-operative initiatives from women.

Working women with incomes high enough to qualify as taxpayers have been further benefited by the removal of discrimination against married women in the income tax laws, through a series of amendments to the Income Tax Act 24 of 1981.

### 7.5.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Sexual harassment in the workplace

**Objective:** To teach participants about the right not to be sexually harassed in the workplace.

**Time:** 1 hour 30 minutes.

Read the details about sexual harassment in the new Labour Act in the box below to participants.

#### SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE NEW LABOUR ACT

“Sexual harassment” in the new Labour Act 15 of 2004 is defined as “any unwarranted conduct of a sexual nature which violates the dignity of an employee and constitutes a barrier to equality in employment where –

(i) the victim has made it known to the perpetrator that he or she finds the conduct offensive or
(ii) the perpetrator should have reasonably realised that the conduct is regarded as unacceptable, taking into account the respective positions of the parties in the place of employment, the nature of their employment relationships and in the nature of the place of employment.

Sexual harassment is treated as a form of discrimination in employment. The Labour Act specifies that “A person must not, in any employment practice or in the course of an employee’s employment, directly or indirectly sexually harass an employee.”

Ask participants to discuss how the provision on sexual harassment will contribute to women’s economic empowerment.

Ask participants to split into 2 groups. One group should enact a scene of sexual harassment where a woman is not assertive and does not know her rights. The other group should enact a scene in which an assertive woman is sexually harassed and knows her rights. Ask the participants playing each of these women how they felt. Ask the participants playing the harassers how they felt. Discuss the reactions.

Follow this with this short quiz: Is this sexual harassment?

- A colleague says “your new hairstyle looks good.” (No.)
- A colleague says “I like to watch the way your bottom moves in those trousers”. (Probably yes, since most people would find a comment like this to have unacceptable sexual connotations.)
- A colleague asks you to go out with him. You say “no”. Then he asks you again. (No, but if he keeps asking you out once you have made it clear that you are not interested, it would be.)
- A colleague is always touching you on the arm when she talks. (No.)
- A colleague pinches your bottom every time you walk by his desk. (Yes.)
- Your boss is always putting his arm around you. (Yes, if you have explained to him/her that you do not want him or her to do this.)
- Your boss says “I’m thinking of promoting you, come and have dinner with me tonight” (Maybe not on its own since he might just be suggesting an innocent opportunity to discuss your career, but if he makes it clear that the promotion will only happen if you have dates or sex with him – then yes.)

Now what do you ladies want in our company sexual harassment policy? How do you most like to be harassed?
Namibia has agreed to the following conventions of the International Labour Organisation:

- ILO Convention 29 concerning Forced Labour, 1930
- ILO Convention 87: Freedom of Association and the Right to Organise, 1948
- ILO Convention 98: Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining, 1949
- ILO Convention 105 on the Abolition of Forced Labour, 1957
- ILO Convention 111: Convention concerning Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), 1958
- ILO Convention 138 concerning Minimum Age, 1973
- ILO Convention 144: Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards), 1976
- ILO Convention 150: Labour Administration, 1978
- ILO Convention 158: Termination of Employment, 1982
- ILO Convention 182 on the Prohibition and Immediate Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour, 1999

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) contains a number of provisions which are relevant to women’s economic empowerment. But the provisions of the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa are even more appropriate for African women:

### Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa

#### Article 13

**Economic and Social Welfare Rights**

States Parties shall adopt and enforce legislative and other measures to guarantee women equal opportunities in work and career advancement and other economic opportunities. In this respect, they shall:

a) promote equality of access to employment;

b) promote the right to equal remuneration for jobs of equal value for women and men;

c) ensure transparency in recruitment, promotion and dismissal of women and combat and punish sexual harassment in the workplace;

d) guarantee women the freedom to choose their occupation, and protect them from exploitation by their employers violating and exploiting their fundamental rights as recognised and guaranteed by conventions, laws and regulations in force;

e) create conditions to promote and support the occupations and economic activities of women, in particular, within the informal sector;

f) establish a system of protection and social insurance for women working in the informal sector and sensitise them to adhere to it;

g) introduce a minimum age for work and prohibit the employment of children below that age, and prohibit, combat and punish all forms of exploitation of children, especially the girl-child;

h) take the necessary measures to recognise the economic value of the work of women in the home;

i) guarantee adequate and paid pre- and post-natal maternity leave in both the private and public sectors;

j) ensure the equal application of taxation laws to women and men;

k) recognise and enforce the right of salaried women to the same allowances and entitlements as those granted to salaried men for their spouses and children;
l) recognise that both parents bear the primary responsibility for the upbringing and development of children and that this is a social function for which the State and the private sector have secondary responsibility;

m) take effective legislative and administrative measures to prevent the exploitation and abuse of women in advertising and pornography.

7.5.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Reporting on Namibia’s progress

Objective: To assess Namibia’s progress on economic and social welfare rights.

Time: 2 hours.

Divide participants into groups. Ask them to rate Namibia’s progress on each of the points in Article 13 of the Protocol to the African Charter on a scale of 1 to 10 (with 10 being perfect). The group should present justifications for their ratings. Then each group should identify what they think are the top three priorities for action in Namibia on Article 13, and who should take responsibility for action on each priority.

7.6 Women’s economic activities

In 2006 it was estimated that more than 56% of men in Namibia were employed, compared to only some 41% of women. Many women, particularly in developing countries, increase their economic empowerment through the informal economy. This term has been used to describe economic activities that take place outside the recognised institutional framework. Enterprises in the informal economy are generally small in terms of output and employment. They are labour intensive, use little capital and skills, and often operate without proper business premises. Actors in the informal economy include those who are self-employed, operating their own businesses (sometimes with assistance from family members), and employers in small business with few employees.

Table 7A: Status of employed men and women in Namibia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsistence/communal farmer (with paid employees)</td>
<td>8 641</td>
<td>2 425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsistence/communal farmer (without paid employees)</td>
<td>21 515</td>
<td>11 547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other employer (with paid employees)</td>
<td>14 924</td>
<td>5 670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other own account worker (without paid employees)</td>
<td>20 362</td>
<td>11 344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee (Government/parastatal)</td>
<td>76 941</td>
<td>34 634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee (private)</td>
<td>174 972</td>
<td>64 493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid family worker (subsistence/communal farmer)</td>
<td>50 671</td>
<td>28 819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other unpaid family worker</td>
<td>18 440</td>
<td>10 919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1 896</td>
<td>941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not stated</td>
<td>21 229</td>
<td>9 667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>409 591</td>
<td>180 459</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2001 Population and Housing Census, Table 6.4

“Unpaid family worker” refers to someone who works in an enterprise operated by the household, without receiving wages. It does not cover housework.
Table 7B: Employed men and women in Namibia by occupation

“Elementary occupations” includes labourers and other unskilled workers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armed forces</td>
<td>4 380</td>
<td>691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials and managers</td>
<td>11 670</td>
<td>3 956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>30 749</td>
<td>16 658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>20 809</td>
<td>10 606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerks</td>
<td>22 207</td>
<td>15 583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service workers and shop and market sales workers</td>
<td>65 472</td>
<td>35 804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled agricultural and fishery workers</td>
<td>68 882</td>
<td>29 300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related trades workers</td>
<td>57 477</td>
<td>11 115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators and assemblers</td>
<td>15 346</td>
<td>1 126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>107 998</td>
<td>53 413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not stated</td>
<td>4 601</td>
<td>2 207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>409 591</td>
<td>180 459</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2001 Population and Housing Census, Table 6.5.

Table 7C: Men and women employees in Namibia by industry

The few sectors dominated by female employees are shown in bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government, water and related services</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and welfare</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private security, legal and correctional services</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education, training &amp; development</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and hospitality</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing industry</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial intermediation (eg chartered banks, insurance companies, investors, pension funds)</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public service</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All industries</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7D: Employment to population ratio by region, area and sex

This table shows what percentage of the total available population is employed, then what percentage of the available female and male population is employed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region/area</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caprivi</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erongo</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>58.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardap</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karas</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komas</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kunene</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohangwena</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omahek</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>63.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omusati</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshana</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshikoto</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otjozondjupa</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Namibia**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


7.6.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender analysis of economic activities

Objective: To analyse economic activities in terms of gender.

Time: 2 hours.

Divide participants into three groups and ask each group to discuss one of the tables above. Each group should come up with a list of (a) three conclusions about women and economic activities that they can make from the table (b) three issues that they would like to have more information about in order to understand the gender implications of the table more fully and (c) three concerns raised by the data. The groups should share and discuss their findings. Some of the points that participants should identify are discussed below.

The tables illustrate the point that women are dominant in sectors which are consistent with gender stereotypes, such as health and education. What these tables do not show is that the employment of women is confined to the lower levels of some sectors. It is interesting to note (in Table 7A) that women dominate subsistence agriculture and communal farming where this is so small-scale as to involve no paid employees, while men dominate the same sector when there are paid employees. The challenge is to ensure that women are active.
in particular sectors not just as contributors of cheap labour, but that they also serve as the primary owners and beneficiaries of the means of production, in this case, land.

7.7 Women’s unpaid work

Sometimes the contributions that women make to a nation’s economic position go unrecognised. This is because most societies have certain assumptions about what constitutes “work”. For example:

- Work is something that you are paid to do.
- Work happens outside the home.
- Work is what happens during “normal working hours”.
- Work is unpleasant drudgery and not something you do because you want to.

Many of these assumptions about work do not fit with the reality of women’s lives. Much of the work that women do is unpaid, such as housework, cooking, fetching water and firewood and caring for children, the elderly, the sick or the disabled. Much of women’s work happens inside the home instead of in a separate “workplace”, and is intermingled with other activities throughout their waking hours instead of being structured into workdays with regular working hours. Many women do many things simultaneously and sometimes have trouble naming which is work and which is not. Some work, such as playing with children or breastfeeding a baby can also be enjoyable.

In Namibia, women’s unpaid workload is being increased by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. For example, in home-based care programmes, household members are encouraged to care for those who are ill rather than relying on clinics and hospitals.

The lack of payment for much of women’s work has a direct relationship to women’s economic security. When women are spending their time on unpaid work, they are not doing paid work. This means that their earning potential decreases dramatically, which can increase their level
of poverty or increase their dependence on male family members. Many women must also fit unpaid work around paid work, which can lead to less time for rest, leisure and enriching pursuits. This can lead to missed opportunities, stress, poor health or exhaustion.

Consider the following findings made by the United Nations Development Programme, based on surveys in a number of countries about how men and women spend their time (similar to Training Exercise 2.6 with gender clocks in Module 2: Gender Mainstreaming):

- Women spend more hours in unpaid and fewer hours in paid work than men.
- The total workday is longer for women than for men. As a result, women have less leisure than men.
- Although women do more total work, they have less access to money, measured in terms of either own income or assets, have less wealth, and less control over the economic processes they have contributed to.
- In developed (as opposed to developing countries), men now do more housework than they used to, but still less than women.

If unpaid work is not recognised and measured, pictures of a country’s economic situation are inaccurate. The result is a gender bias which ignores or underestimates the role of women in economic development. For example, the care and pre-school education of children assists in providing new workers to enter the labour force. The feeding and care of family members who are in paid employment improves the quality and productivity of the labour force. The ‘cost’ of this work in terms of time and effort is largely borne by women. The benefit is derived by the society more generally. Because society does not pay for this work, policy-makers often assume that it is in unlimited supply.

How can you tell if something should be counted as “work” or not? One approach is to ask if another person could in theory be paid to do the job. Under this test, cooking, child care and gardening are all work – because you could pay another person to perform these tasks for you, and you would be the one who benefited from their labour. But watching television or eating dinner would not be work – because if you paid someone else to do these activities, they (and not you) would enjoy the benefits.

The Beijing Platform for Action agreed to by world governments (including Namibia) in 1995 recommended that governments should try to measure unpaid work, particularly work in caring for dependants and unpaid work done for family farms or businesses. It also suggested that governments should try to find ways to assess the value of such unpaid work as one strategy for promoting women’s economic rights.
7.7.1 TRAINING EXERCISE:
The consequences of failing to count women’s unpaid work

Objective: To apply general information about women’s unpaid work to a Namibian example.

Time: 1 hour.

Ask participants to consider the following excerpt from the report on Namibia’s 2001 Population and Housing Census and then to discuss the questions below, in small groups or in one larger group, depending on the number of participants:

The Census asked all persons aged 8 years and above about their activity during the seven days prior to the Census night... a person was regarded as having worked, if he or she had worked even for one hour for pay, profit or family gain during that period... People who had worked for at least one hour... were economically active according to this definition.... Persons regarded as being economically inactive, ie outside the labour force, are grouped into seven categories. These are students, homemakers, retired, old age, income recipient and severely disabled. These persons were not in any paid or self-employment during the past seven days prior to the Census reference night.

“Homemakers” were defined as “all persons, male or female, who were wholly engaged in household duties and were neither engaged in any paid or self-employment nor available for work”.

2001 Housing and Population Census, National Report: Basic Analysis with Highlights

- Are most “homemakers” in Namibia men or women?
- How do you feel about the fact that “homemakers” are grouped together with retired persons, elderly persons and the severely disabled?
- List some of the political consequences of failing to measure the economic impact of women’s unpaid work in the home.

After completing this exercise, you should draw the participants’ attention to the information below.

Namibia should not be blamed for failing to count women’s unpaid work in the census. There are international rules about censuses and economic measurements which are used by most countries in the world, so that information from different countries can be meaningfully compared.

For example, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) makes rules about how countries must measure ‘work’ in its censuses and surveys. Work is defined as any activity which would be counted as work when calculating the nation’s Gross Domestic Product. It includes work for a wage or salary, work done by self-employed people, work as an employer, work in subsistence farming, and work (including unpaid work) in a family business. Namibia’s census followed these international rules.

There are many reasons why unpaid work in the home is not included in national measurements of economic activity. For example, such work is hard to count and value accurately. However, it is internationally recommended that unpaid work should be taken into account separately, and considered as a crucial contribution to a country’s economy. Namibia has not yet done this. Proper valuation of unpaid work could prevent what has been called “one-eyed decision-making” based on incomplete data. It might support those who perform unpaid work in claiming an entitlement to a share of income of that generated by the paid work of those in the same household. If we look at the number of hours worked rather than money earned, women might well emerge as the main “breadwinners” in society.
7.8 The budget as a tool for change

A budget is a financial plan of action. The national budget is the most important economic instrument of the government. It reflects the country’s socio-economic policy priorities, by translating policies and political commitments into dollars and cents. This determines the amount of resources that go toward the provision of basic services like water, education, health and security.

Women form the majority of the population in Namibia and act as the primary caretakers for most of the nation’s children. They need to be involved in the budget making process to encourage favourable allocations to sectors that are core to their well-being.

Advocacy during the drafting stage of the budget: Note that the opportunity to contribute at this stage is very limited. However, well-timed research or an advocacy strategy to draw attention of the government to a particular problem and the need to allocate more resources could have impact. Statements could be published in the national newspapers and also presented to relevant government ministries during this period, to draw the attention of those responsible to the concerns in question.

The various ministries are intensely involved in drafting their own portions of the budget and questions could be directed to them, especially on the implementation of the current budget. For instance:

- What problems are occurring in the implementation of health services?
- Is delivery of services taking place, as planned?
- Is it reaching the intended persons/groups?

Try and work with the appropriate government personnel and provide as much information as possible based on your experiences of how government money is spent in your region.

Advocacy at the legislative stage: Take advantage of the shortage of research capacity in the legislature by providing concrete information on the sector that is of interest to you. Do you have examples of waste of government resources in this sector? Do you have suggestions on measures which could be used to provide services in a more cost-effective way? Do you know of any useful examples based on other sectors, other regions or other countries?

Internationally, there is a move to encourage governments to produce more gender-sensitive budgets, or to mainstream gender perspectives into national budgets. This has been an initiative which has involved both governments and civil society.

One way to do this is to require ministries to prepare an annual report on the implications of specific expenditures for women and men respectively. Another technique is to require all ministries to allocate a certain percentage of their budgets to programmes aimed at enhancing gender equality.

A third approach is to make sure that all strategies identified by the government for advancing gender equality are matched by appropriate budget allocations – making sure that government “puts its money where its mouth is”. For example, if a new law is passed which could benefit women, ask the responsible ministry what resources have been allocated for implementation of this law.
There are five basic steps in a full gender budget analysis:

**Step 1:** Describe the situation of women and men, girls and boys in the sector (e.g., education). If possible, draw on statistics so that you can measure the situation.

**Step 2:** Check whether the policy to be implemented is gender-sensitive, i.e., whether it addresses the situation described in Step 1. Check whether the policy will make the gender and other gaps bigger, smaller or leave them the same.

**Step 3:** Check that budget allocated is adequate to implement the gender-sensitive policy. Check that the policy is not just a paper document with no teeth.

**Step 4:** Check whether the expenditure is spent as planned. Was the planned amount of money spent? Where did the money go— to citizens, to staff, or into someone’s back pocket? Who benefited from the money in terms of services delivered— girls or boys, women or men, urban or rural, rich or poor? Again, use numbers wherever possible.

**Step 5:** Examine the impact of the policy and expenditure, i.e., did it promote gender equity as intended by changing the situation described in Step 1? Are the statistics you used in Step 1 now different?

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One strategy for helping women lobby more effectively around the national budgets is training in how to understand budgets and their impact.

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7.8.1 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Understanding strategies for influencing budget priorities**

**Objective:** To use an analysis of household budgets to explore ways to influence the national budget.

**Time:** 1 hour

Ask participants for ideas on what a household can do if it needs to spend more on certain goods, or to buy new goods. What are the consequences of each choice? As participants share ideas, write them up in two columns with suggestions for reprioritisation in the first column, and the consequences of each strategy in the second column. When there are no more ideas, give each participant a copy of the handout on household budget strategies below, which gives some ideas of what a household can do to change financial priorities. Read through the handout with participants.

Then ask participants for ideas on what government can do if it needs or wants to spend more in priority areas. Ask what the consequences of each choice are. As before, write up ideas in two columns with suggestions for reprioritisation in the first column and the consequences of each strategy in the second column. Then give each participant a copy of the hand-out on government budget strategies below. Read through the handout with participants. As you read, point out the similarities to the discussion about household reprioritisation and choices that the group had earlier.

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Household budget strategies

Reprioritisation means changing priorities, or changing around what you now think is most important. If a household decides it has a new expenditure, or something that it wants to spend more money on, it must find a way to finance this. It needs to develop a reprioritisation strategy. Each of these strategies has a consequence.

- **Your household can decide not to pay back loans.** The consequence is that the sheriff of the court can take your belongings to sell to pay back the loan. You will then get a bad credit rating and have to borrow at high interest rates, or maybe you will not be allowed to borrow again at all. This will be a problem for most households, as most people cannot afford to pay cash for big household needs like houses, fridges, stoves, TVs and cars.

- **Your household can borrow money from a bank, money lenders, neighbours, or other family members.** The consequence is that you must pay the money back, so you will have to allow for this in future budgets. How serious the consequence is depends on what you use the money for, and whether you can repay the amount plus the interest that will be charged. For example, if you borrow to buy a car or house, you will still have an asset (the car or house) when you are repaying. But if you borrow to go on holiday or buy luxury food items, you will be paying off for something that you no longer have.

- **The household can stop buying certain things such as cigarettes, alcohol or chocolates.** The consequence is that the household members who like these things may be angry. This can be especially serious if the person who likes them is the one who brings in the money.

- **The household can stop paying for services such as electricity or water.** The consequence is that the services will get cut.

- **The household can buy cheaper products.** The consequence is that the products may be of inferior quality or less liked by members. For example, the household may have to eat less meat and more beans.

- **Household members can take extra jobs to increase income.** The problem here is that jobs might not be available. Or the person may not have enough time to do extra work if they already have a job, or if they are responsible for many household tasks and looking after other household members.

- **Household members can use the money that the household has more effectively.** For example, they can buy seeds and grow their own vegetables instead of buying them; they can reuse bath water to water the garden; and they can switch off radios and TVs if no-one is listening or watching to save on the electricity account. The consequence here is that people must remember and be committed to doing these things. They must see the added benefit of the reprioritisation, and feel it is important enough to do these things.

adapted from *Money Matters Workshop Materials 2002 – Botswana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe*, produced by CASE, GETNET and UNIFEM
Government budget strategies

**Government can break its legal obligations**

- It can reduce debt service payments by deciding not to pay back loans in full. Governments borrow from each other, from commercial banks, or from multilateral financial institutions like the World Bank. Breaking these contracts by not paying, or paying back too slowly, creates the same consequences for government as it does for the individual. They get a bad credit rating. This means they must borrow at a higher interest rate in future. A bad credit rating also makes investors unwilling to invest in the country. That, in turn, affects the number of jobs that can be created in the economy.
- It can reduce the pay of public servants. The consequence could be strikes in the public service. This affects the quantity and quality of public services provided, especially at schools, clinics and hospitals. The unions may also take the government to court.

**Government can borrow**

The consequence here depends on what the government uses the money for, and whether it can repay the amount plus the interest that will be charged. Generally governments borrow for capital investment (building schools, clinics, roads, dams, sewage systems, water systems, electricity provision, installing telephones, and so on) rather than for consumption expenditure (to pay public servants more). They would rather borrow for things they will still have when they are repaying rather than things that get “eaten up”.

**Government can redirect expenditure away from less important services towards priority areas**

The consequence here is it is usually not possible to cut back even less important services completely. For example, sometimes the government can take money away from the defence budget and put it into the education, health and welfare budgets. But there is eventually a limit to how much the government can take away, as the defence force needs some money to be able to protect the country properly.

**Government can provide cheaper services**

Cheaper services mean that more people can benefit from the same amount of money spent. But the consequence is people may not be happy with the quality of the services. For example, how happy will the public be if the government supplies cheaper homes, but the walls start to crack after a month; or if the government builds roads and potholes appear after a month; or the government supplies cheaper text books for schools and the pages soon fall out?

**Government can increase revenue**

It can increase revenue by:

- Increasing personal income tax. The consequence is that some households will have less money to spend. On the other hand, they may have access to more government services because of the extra money government has.
- Increasing company tax. The consequence is that companies may pass this on by charging higher prices for their products.
- Increasing value added tax (VAT). The consequence is that poor people will be especially hard hit as everyone pays the same VAT, no matter what their income is. If VAT on an item is ten rand, dollars or pula, then everyone pays the ten rand, dollars or pula, whether they earn eight thousand or eight hundred a month.
- Charging for government services, especially charging people who earn more than a certain income. There can be problems if people lie about their income to get the services for free. The consequence is that more public servants must be employed to check that this does not happen. Employing more people may cost more than the fees paid.
Government can find more effective and efficient ways of using the available money.

- It can take steps against corruption. For example, it can make sure only the people who are entitled to old age pensions and other state grants get them. It can also make sure consultants and contractors who deliver services are not paid excessive amounts.
- It can improve the quality of services. For example, it can increase pass rates in schools and cut down on children repeating grades.
- It can focus on prevention rather than cure. For example, it can provide money to provide safe water and sanitation rather than spend money curing illnesses which result from inadequate water and sanitation.
- It can get departments to work together more. For example, an effective programme to prevent violence against women requires that the police, social workers, nurses and doctors, magistrates, prosecutors, teachers and others work together.

adapted from Money Matters Workshop Materials 2002 – Botswana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe, produced by CASE, GETNET and UNIFEM

7.9 Engendering micro-finance for economic empowerment

Microfinance refers to the provision of a broad range of financial services such as deposits, loans and payment services. The aim of microfinance is to help poor people and low income clients to meet their basic needs and invest for the future. It enables them to build their income and assets, and manage household expenses. Access to credit and savings enables poor households to invest in housing, healthcare and education for their children.

These are some strategies that would increase women’s participation in microfinance:

1. Make sure that savings and credit groups are accessible to women.
2. Establish women’s savings and loan groups.
3. Consider policy and legal changes to facilitate women’s participation in the savings and credit groups.
4. Help women acquire relevant skills, through training in Information and Communication Technologies, financial terms and budgeting.
5. Train women in skills needed for setting up a business, such as feasibility studies, product development, business management and marketing.
6. Assign female mobilisers, trainers and loan officers to work with women.
7. Provide leadership training for women, to equip them for greater involvement in financial and business decision-making.

7.9.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Empowerment from small resources

Objective: To inspire participants to get involved in empowerment schemes.

Time: 1 hour.

Hand out or read the following case study:
CASE STUDY

People Square Savings Schemes
(a member of the Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia)

The People Square Saving Scheme was started in 1989 by a group of poor women, who mostly worked as domestic workers. They had monthly incomes of about N$400, half of which normally went into rent payments. This was an obvious strain on their meagre income and they decided to save together in order to acquire their own land. The group negotiated with the municipality to buy a block of land for them, and they in turn would service it. In 1992, they acquired the land. The group members then applied for house loans from the government’s Build Together Program, and by March 1994 they had completed the first batch of 21 houses. The last batch of 24 houses was completed in 1997.

The group members were also involved in the provision of skills for the construction of the houses. The women and their sons were trained by the building technician, and they even had one semi-skilled woman builder. They also received support from a volunteer architect from the Ministry of Regional, Local Government and Housing, while the Directorate of Housing helped the group to draw up the municipal approval plans.

The Federation of Shack Dwellers has expanded its original aim of enabling its members to own a house, and is now working to improve other aspects of their lives as well. It now includes 110 saving schemes that involve about 3,500 households.

Ask participants:

- What were the resources the women had? (small amounts of money, time, organisational skills, persuasive skills – and hope!)
- If you wanted to set up a similar scheme, what would be your concerns? How would you address the concerns?

Making microfinance work

The mere introduction of microfinance activities targeting women is not sufficient in itself to empower women economically. Women face constraints in different areas of their lives which interfere with their ability to make use of microfinance:

1. **Social and cultural barriers**: Generally, women’s participation in all spheres of life, economic or otherwise, is restrained by social norms. Targeted women may not be literate or educated. There is also the limited role that women play in making decisions at household level. The fact that many banks and financial institutions do not view women as potential markets for credit is a major limitation.

2. **Economic barriers**: Because of limited opportunities, women mostly undertake activities which produce low returns. Their heavy domestic workload also restricts their capacity for involvement in income-generating activities. Women also tend to be underpaid for their work and locked in low-paying jobs.

3. **Financial barriers**: Women may not be able to access financial services and credit in their own right because of male control of assets. Men usually control most of the household income, and their expenditure pattern differs from that of women, who normally spend more money on children and self-improvement activities.
It is important to introduce a gender perspective in microfinance activities to address these constraints.

7.9.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Barriers to utilising microfinance

Objective: To enable participants to analyse problems and propose solutions.

Time: 2 hours.

Divide the participants into 2 groups. Give a case study to each group. Ask them to identify the causes of the problems (socio-economic, political and cultural), the consequences and the solutions – or the factors which made the woman in the story able to succeed.

CASE STUDY 1: Juliana

Juliana married Petrus in 2002. They are married in community of property. The few goats and sheep that they own are their main source of income. Recently, Petrus has taken up employment in town as they were struggling to make enough money to support themselves. In 2004 they had marital problems and Juliana left Petrus. She wanted to take some of the livestock with her but Petrus said that all the livestock belonged to him.

Juliana went to live with her parents, who are old and sickly, but soon realised that with no income she would have difficulty supporting herself and their three children. It was then that she approached the Traditional Leader to see if she could acquire a communal farm in her own right. “I had some money saved and thought I could buy a few goats with which to start afresh.” But he refused to grant her a customary land right. In the end she went back to Petrus.

She says that she and Petrus still fight a lot but for now she will stay with him until she has saved enough money to start her own business. Since their marriage in 2002, Juliana has saved bits of spare cash in a little glass jar that she keeps hidden in one of the kitchen cupboards. She has considered opening a savings account at the bank, as Petrus, who has a drinking problem, will sometimes take some of the money to buy alcohol. The bank, however, is far away and she is scared that she will not be able to travel so far should the need arise, especially with the children who are still small. Perhaps if she earned a salary, like Petrus, it would be so much easier to open a bank account, she says.

Since taking up employment, Petrus has very little interest in the farming operations. The extra money that Petrus now earns he spends on alcohol. Previously he would have bought livestock. Petrus hardly gives her money with the result that she has had to sell most of their livestock. She has approached the bank to obtain a loan so they could acquire more livestock. The bank refused and she was told that she has insufficient security. “I was told that the only form of security they will take is land, but our land belongs to the state.”

The local shop allows her to buy essential goods such as flour on credit. She is scared that once she has no livestock left she will be unable to settle her account. She has heard that in other parts of the country people tend to other farmers’ cattle in exchange for any calves born. She hopes to do the same in the hope of replenishing their stock, but this practice is uncommon in their region. Recently, she heard that there are mini-loan schemes aimed at small-scale communal farmers operative in their region. “It is mainly men who go there. I do not think they will give me a loan.”
Case Study 2 – Hilma

In 2000, Hilma and her three children moved from Oshakati to Windhoek in the hope of finding better employment. She hardly knew anybody when she first arrived in Windhoek and finding proper lodgings became a daily struggle. Soon she found herself moving from one backyard shack to the other. “People do not always understand if you do not pay your rent on time and all I wanted was a place my children and I can call home.” As much as Hilma wanted to save money to allow her to buy a house, she was unable to do so on her salary of N$600 per month. “I approached a bank once to see if I could obtain a loan, but they turned me down.”

In 2001 she heard of the Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia. She learned that the Federation’s main aim is not only to encourage savings, but the collection and dissemination of information, loan allocation and the building of houses. “I immediately started saving whatever little money I had left each month.” Hilma became actively involved in the Federation’s activities and participated in income-generating activities. In 2003 she was granted a short term loan, repayable over a period of one year. “Once I repaid that loan they saw that I was a reliable person. I was granted another loan which I have to repay over a period of 15 years.”

The Federation helped her with everything. They drew up the plans of the house, and provided building training. As a member of the Federation, Hilma participated in the modelling of her house in order to visualise the structure she wanted to build. “Today I am the proud owner of a beautiful home. My children no longer feel insecure.”

7.10 Proposal writing for women’s groups

While many women’s groups have the determination to improve their economic status, they sometimes find it difficult to raise sufficient funds to initiate or sustain group activities that are meant to generate income. Some resort to seeking support from donors. The most common way to solicit for this support is to present a proposal to the donors asking them to fund the intended project or programme.

Most people have problems with drafting proposals. The most important thing to remember is that a good proposal should be simple and clearly written. It should not exceed 10 pages in length.

A good proposal is comprised of the following:

1. A title which should be simple and informative.
2. Aim of the project: This is a summary of the background to the project, what form it will take and what it hopes to achieve. It should be brief and to the point.
3. Beneficiaries: Who are the beneficiaries and how will they benefit from the project? Be specific and give as much relevant information as possible.
4. Project activities: This is a more detailed look at what you are actually going to do to achieve your stated objectives. If your project will involve different phases, explain each stage and its timing.
5. Inputs required for the project, including skilled personnel.
6. **Achievements**: A detailed list of how you are going to measure success, with verifiable indicators.

7. **Monitoring and evaluation**: This explains the methods you will use to check that the planned achievements are being obtained along the way.

8. **Budget**: Exactly how much money do you need to obtain the results specified? How will the money be spent?

9. **Appendices**: Use these for local details, additional information and other facts too bulky to be incorporated into the main report.

### 7.10.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Proposal writing

**Objective**: To give participants experience in drafting proposals.

**Time**: 3 hours.

Explain the points in section 7.10 above to the participants. Ask for suggestions of projects they would like to get funding for. Pick a simple project. Split the participants into groups and ask them to draft the proposal. At least 2 hours will be needed for this. Collect the proposals and read through them – the participants can have a tea break while you do this. Pick out some common problems and some excellent points in the proposals and give the participants feedback on these.

### 7.11 RESOURCES

**Publications**:

These publications may be useful for training purposes:

- There are three training booklets about co-operatives published by the Division of Co-operative Development, Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development:
  - *Book 1: Introduction to Co-operatives in Namibia*
  - *Book 2: Guide to the Namibian Co-operatives Act*


These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module or find more statistics on women and the Namibian economy:


**Key organisations:**

- The primary role of the **Ministry of Trade and Industry** is to spearhead trade and industrial development in the country, as well as promote and attract local and foreign investment. The Ministry oversees and coordinates the growth and development of SMEs. The Ministry’s SME development programme covers facilitating access to finance, construction of sites and premises, technology transfer, purchasing of raw materials, marketing and entrepreneurial training.
The role of the Ministry of Labour is to oversee the implementation of the Labour Act, the Social Security Act, the Affirmative Action Act and the Employees Compensation Amendment Act. Its services include registering unemployed people with a view to find employment opportunities for them, carrying out labour and factory inspections, and collecting statistical information on labour matters.

The UNAM Small Business Development Centre is located at the UNAM North Campus and provides services in business development, microfinance and business plan development. The Centre focuses especially on training emerging and existing SMEs, providing capacity building to business service providers, developing materials and systems to support SMEs and microfinance institutions, supporting CBOs and NGOs on management and income-generating activities and carrying out socio-economic feasibility studies.

Women’s Action for Development (WAD) is a self-help organisation which aims at uplifting the socio-economic and socio-political situation of primarily Namibian rural women. It is active in 8 regions of the country: Omusati, Kunene, Erongo, Otjozondjupa, Omaheke, Khomas, Karas and Hardap, and intends to expand eventually to all 13 regions. WAD assists small businesses to set up, eg a butchery and a sewing project producing mosquito nets.

The Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia (SDFN) aims to improve the living conditions of low-income people (particularly women) living in shacks, rented rooms and without any accommodation. They organise saving schemes, provide access to funds for the poor, and help with house construction.
The **Namibia Housing Action Group (NHAG)** works to support the processes of the Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia by ensuring equal distribution of resources, documenting the experiences of the saving groups and administering the Twahangana Fund.

**NHAG**  
Enke Haus, 11 Mozart Street  
PO Box 21010  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 239 398  
Fax: 061 239 397  
E-mail: nhag@iway.na

**RISE Namibia** is a non-governmental development agency which acts as an intermediary body to serve the interest of rural Community Based Organisations. Their work includes initiating and implementing rural saving and credit schemes for communal farmers and rural entrepreneurs. They have also supported conservancies in the Kunene and Erongo regions to help communities derive employment, food and infrastructure through active participation in wildlife management, biodiversity conservation and tourism.

**RISE Namibia**  
18 Axali Doeseb Street  
Windhoek West  
PO Box 50155  
Bachbrecht  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 236029  
Fax: 061 232597  
E-mail: rise-ww@africaonline.com.na
Module 8
GENDER BALANCE IN POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

8.1 Objective of the module

- To examine factors that promote, advocate and facilitate equal representation of women and men at all levels of decision-making.

8.2 Target groups

- Political parties
- Elected women and men
- Women and men in leadership positions and potential leaders
- Community members.

8.3 WARM-UP EXERCISE: Women I admire

Objective: To help participants explore the idea of women as role models.

Time: 1 hour (based on 15 participants – increase time for more)

Give the participants a piece of card or paper. Ask them to write on it the name of a woman they admire. This might be someone living or deceased, famous or not famous (eg their mother). The participants should then walk round and introduce their character to other participants, explaining why they admire that person. Write up a list on a flip chart of the qualities that the women who were identified have.

a) Discuss the qualities identified – how do these qualities relate to stereotypes of women?
b) Did most people choose women in positions of leadership? Why or why not?
c) Of those women chosen who are not in positions of leadership, what other types of power do they have?
d) What if participants had been asked to choose a woman in their community they admire (deceased or alive)? Who would they choose and why?
8.4 TRAINING EXERCISE: Why should women be leaders?

Objective: To explore the different facets of the topic of women in power and decision-making.

Time: 1 hour.

Invite participants to brainstorm on the following questions:

a) Why are there fewer women than men in leadership positions at all levels – village, local authority, regional and national?

b) Why should women be represented in leadership and decision-making positions?

Write up the points made on a flip chart, if available.

Trainer notes: Make sure the following points are made:

- Decision-makers in a democratic society should be representative of the population, and women are 52% of the population in Namibia.
- Women’s human rights are being violated if they do not have an equal opportunity to become leaders.
- Women bring issues such as assisting the most vulnerable in society, to political agendas.
- Effective social and economic development cannot take place in the country unless women’s views are taken into account.

Ask the participants if they think there are any reasons why women should NOT be represented in leadership and decision-making positions. Issues such as “women should stay at home and look after the children” and “men are better at making decisions” may arise. If you think the participants are likely to hold such views, it is best to deal with them right at the beginning of the training. You can use some exercises from Module 1: “What is Gender?” to make the point about women’s capabilities.

8.5 Why is gender balance in power and decision-making important?

As the National Gender Policy states, the empowerment of women and the improvement of women’s social, economic and political status are essential for the achievement of transparent, accountable government and sustainable development in all areas of life.

Currently women are under-represented at most levels of government, especially in ministerial and other executive bodies, and boards as well as in Parliament. Where women are present in political and decision-making positions, they help to redefine political and economic priorities, placing on the political agenda items that reflect and address women’s gender-specific concerns, values and experiences.

Without equality in political decision-making, it is unlikely that gender dimensions will be meaningfully integrated into government policy. Women’s equal participation in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy, but also a necessary condition for women’s interests to be taken into account and for full social and economic development.

The low proportion of woman amongst economic and political decision makers in Namibia at community, regional and national levels reflects structural and attitude barriers that need to be addressed through affirmative action, as encouraged by Article 23(3) of the Constitution:

“...it shall be permissible to have regard to the fact that women in Namibia have suffered special discrimination and that they need to be encouraged and enabled to play a full, equal and effective role in the political, social, economic and cultural life of the nation.”
The Beijing Platform for Action, supported by Namibia, contains this statement on the importance of gender equality in power and decision-making:

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that everyone has the right to take part in the Government of his/her country. The empowerment and autonomy of women and the improvement of women’s social, economic and political status is essential for the achievement of both transparent and accountable government and administration and sustainable development in all areas of life. The power relations that impede women’s attainment of fulfilling lives operate at many levels of society, from the most personal to the highly public.

Achieving the goal of equal participation of women and men in decision-making will provide a balance that more accurately reflects the composition of society and is needed in order to strengthen democracy and promote its proper functioning. Equality in political decision-making performs a leverage function without which it is highly unlikely that a real integration of the equality dimension in government policy-making is feasible. In this respect, women’s equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women.

Women’s equal participation in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women’s interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women’s perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

8.6 TRAINING EXERCISE: Power relations

Objective: To identify different sources of power and how they are used.

Time: 2 hours 30 minutes.

1. Introduce this session by asking each individual to reflect on a time when s/he felt powerful.
2. Form groups of three and discuss, “What were the sources of power that you used?” Some examples may be:
- the power to make your own decisions, such as what to buy with your income, or to say “no” to unsafe sex
- the power to influence others through education, preaching, advocacy
- the power to make decisions for others, such as in the household
- individual power, such as the power of thought, the power of knowledge and the power of resistance.

3. Develop a list of sources of power from the group. Identify other sources of power.

4. Use the list developed by the group. A joint definition of power may be developed as illustrated below. It is important to include both personal and collective power in the definition.

**Power – a definition**

Power is the ability to articulate personal goals and influence others to achieve those goals. It is the ability to get what we want, to hold on to what we get, and to shape events the way we want to shape them.

At the collective level, power is the ability to combine different sources of individual power to bring about desired change that benefits groups rather than individuals.

5. Note the different types of power (explained below): “power to”, “power with”, “power over”, and “power within”. “Power over” is the most common way of thinking about power. The assumption is that power is a limited quantity, and any power gained by one is lost by another. As the predominant view of power is “power over” it is essential that we transform our understanding of power and expand the use of “power to”, “power with,” and “power within”.

**Classification of power**

The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) has developed a classification of power that is helpful from a gender perspective. The four categories of power are “power over”, “power to”, “power with” and “power within”.

**Power over**
Most attempts to increase women’s power assume that power is a limited quantity. Thus when one individual group gets more, the others get less.

**Power to**
This type of power refers to the individual aspect of empowerment. It enables the individual to control or manage a situation to her/his benefit.

**Power with**
Collective power is represented in “power with” and is experienced when a group tackles problems together and creates energy that is greater than the sum of its parts.

**Power within**
This type of power resides within the individual and represents internal strength. It is based on self-acceptance and self respect, which in turn extends to respect for others and acceptance of others as equals.
6. Return to the list of sources of power and ask groups to take 10 minutes to identify which type of power is involved. Which other types of power may come from that source?

7. Present a continuum of power (see chart below) by drawing a horizontal line. Note that “power” refers to the ability to go beyond access to services as beneficiaries (somewhere on the left end of the horizontal line), to taking part in decision-making through access (somewhere in the middle), to creating decision-making processes that influence existing social, political and economic systems and norms (on the far right).

**Power continuum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low power</th>
<th>Medium Power</th>
<th>High Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access to services, to benefit directly</td>
<td>Individual access to decision-making processes that were designed by others</td>
<td>Ability to initiate action and to create decision-making processes that influence social, economic and political systems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Close by noting that if we are to achieve the power that is needed to create decision-making processes for ourselves or the people we work with, we need to concentrate on supporting them in developing some of these sources of power.

### 8.7 Legal framework

The *Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992* applies affirmative action to local government elections, with the result that women’s representation at the local level is far higher than at the other levels of government where there is no legal mechanism for enforcing affirmative action – as the statistics in section 8.9 below indicate. The Namibian Women’s Manifesto Network spearheaded a lobbying effort aimed at promoting a “50/50 Bill” which would amend the electoral laws to bring about similar gender balance at all three levels of government, but this has to date been unsuccessful.

The *Traditional Authorities Act 25 of 2000* places a duty on traditional authorities to “promote affirmative action amongst the members of that community”, particularly “by promoting women to positions of leadership”. Although the Act contains no specific monitoring or enforcement mechanisms, it provides a basis for encouraging greater participation by women in traditional leadership positions.

Individual affirmative action provisions have also been made applicable to a number of statutory bodies and boards. For example, the *Social Security Act 34 of 1994* requires female representation from government, trade unions and employers’ organisations on the Social Security Commission. The *Namibia Sports Act 7 of 1995* requires that at least three of the 14 members of the National Sports Commission be women. Other examples of such affirmative action are the *National Vocational Training Act 14 of 1994*, which requires a cross-section of female representation on the Vocational Training Board; the *Polytechnic of Namibia Act 33 of 1994*, which requires that the Council of the Polytechnic must include one person appointed by the Minister to represent the interests of women; and the *Namibia Film Commission Act 6 of 2000*, which requires that one-third of the eight members of the board be women. However, reserving seats for women on public bodies is not standard practice. There are still probably more boards and bodies without such affirmative action provisions than vice versa.

One particularly significant change in decision-making power for rural women is contained in the *Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002*. The good news for women is that the Act provides for affirmative action for women on the Communal Land Boards which supervise...
the allocation of communal land. Each board is made of at least 10 members and possibly more (depending on number of regions covered by the communal area and the number of conservancies affected). The Act mandates that each board must have at least four women – two who farm in the area and two who have some expertise relevant to the functions of board. This is a strong entry point for women in an area of decision-making traditionally dominated by man.

Namibia is a signatory to the SADC Gender and Development Declaration of 1997 which sets a target of at least 30% women in political and decision-making structures by 2005.

8.8 Perceptions of political power sharing

Do both women and men in Namibia understand the importance of gender equality in power and decision-making? Local research indicates that most Namibians support women’s participation in political decision-making. In a study carried out in 2002, about 75% of the women and 60% of the men surveyed said that Namibia needs more women in positions of power.

Women and men were found to have similar levels of political interest and participation, contradicting the stereotype that men are more interested in politics than women. For example, the research found that men and women are equally likely to attend political meetings and rallies, and to have contact with elected representatives.

The only difference which emerged between the sexes was that men were slightly more likely than women to regularly discuss issues of politics. Those surveyed also thought that male and female politicians would have different areas of focus, based on stereotyped perceptions of men’s interests and women’s interests – such as male politicians being perceived as more expert on defence issues and women politicians on children’s issues.

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**PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF WOMEN IN POLITICS**

Analysis of data from the IPPR Gender and Politics Survey leads to three main conclusions:

- The majority of Namibians support increasing opportunities for women to participate in politics and think that it is important to have more women representatives at all levels of government. Despite this, a sizeable minority of respondents still think that politics is a man’s world.

- There is virtually no difference between the levels of political participation of men and women, nor their desire to participate in representative politics.

- Namibians tend to think that male MPs are better at dealing with certain policy areas (defence; policing; foreign policy; economic development; agriculture; and land reform) while female MPs are better at dealing with others (children’s rights and welfare; health; and human rights). Despite this, gender activists should find it encouraging that the majority of respondents thought that it does not matter whether male or female MPs deal with specific policy areas.

Data from this survey indicates that there are few cultural barriers among the general population to increasing female participation in representative politics. It is not clear, however, whether or not this high level of support extends beyond the attitudinal level. If cultural factors are excluded, one has to look elsewhere for explanations for the remaining disparities between the levels of representation of men and women at different levels of government. Such explanations could include structural factors (such as the electoral system at regional level) and elite attitudes. This should be the focus of future research and action.

*Hermann Thiel, “Men For War; Women For Children – Popular Perceptions on Female Representation and Public Policy”, IPPR Briefing Paper No. 18, June 2003*
Interestingly, Namibians may be more willing to accept women’s involvement in decision-making in the public sphere than in the private sphere. Consider the contrast between the research discussed above and the opinions described in the box below.

**Discussion Activity**

**WOMEN’S POWER AND DECISION-MAKING IN THE PRIVATE SPHERE**

The most controversial provision in the Married Persons Equality Act 1 of 1996 proved to be one which initially stated that men would no longer be recognised by law as being the “head of the household”. This was amended to say that the new law should not be interpreted “to prevent a husband and wife from agreeing between themselves to assign to one of them, or both, any particular role or responsibility within the family”. During the Parliamentary debate, some male MPs cited everything from Adam and Eve to bulls and heifers in support of male authority.

A study of public attitudes about the new law found that many men object to its content. The following statement was typical:

“This Act says a man and a woman in a family should be equal. They share things equally in their marriage. This Act, to me, seems as if it is there to make men feel inferior to women. This Act is more for women than men. I feel that we men are no longer valued as we were in the past. They say it is equality in marriage but this Act is more one-sided.”

What concept of power is illustrated in this quote?

Do men have different concepts of power in the public and private sphere?

Why might men feel less threatened by female power and decision-making in public than in private?

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**8.8.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Encouraging women’s political participation**

**Objective:** To consider gender aspects of involving women in meetings.

**Time:** 2 hours.

Pass out the following as a handout, or read it to participants.

A newspaper article advertises the following meeting. No women attend. What could the organisers have done differently?

**Why don’t we have many women leaders?**

A presentation will be made at the Elephant Lodge, 10 kms out of town on the Oshakati road, at 8 pm on Tuesday 12 June by Mr Josea Hifikandjo of the ..................... political party. Mr Hifikandjo will analyse the reasons that women do not become leaders very often. Women are asked to come and listen.

Refreshments will be served at a cost of N$30.

Split the participants into small groups and ask them what should have been done differently. Make sure they make the following points:
The venue was not accessible to those without transport.
- The time of the meeting might not be best for women, most of whom have childcare responsibilities.
- No women were included on the panel.
- The advertising of the meeting might not reach women. Radio and posters could have been more effective.
- The tone of the article was negative and patronising.
- The cost of the refreshments would be too much for many women.

Ask participants to write their own advertisement for a meeting or other event to encourage women to attend. Discuss the announcements the participants have written.

Ask participants to brainstorm about the training and support women need to take up leadership roles. Discuss, and, if appropriate, draw up an action plan to take the issue forward.

Examples of training might be:
- negotiation skills
- management skills
- budget construction and analysis
- constituency-building and mass mobilisation
- use of media.

8.9 Statistics on women in decision-making

The trainer should refer to the tables below with local, regional and national statistics on women in decision-making.

Namibia has achieved about 27% representation of women overall in Parliament and in senior management positions in the public service.

Note the differences between the percentages of women in local authority councils, where affirmative action requirements applied, in contrast to the significantly lower percentages of women on regional councils and in Parliament, where no legal mechanisms to advance women were in place. However, even without legal requirements at these levels, the proportion of women has been increasing over the years since independence.

Women hold the majority of management positions in the Ministries of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, and Health and Social Services, as well as in the National Assembly, the National Council and the Office of the Auditor General. The representation of women is particularly poor in the Ministries of Defence and Safety and Security.

It should also be noted that that only the Congress of Democrats introduced 50% women candidates on “zebra” party lists in the last elections (listing candidates alternating man, woman, man woman – or vice versa), as many women’s groups have encouraged. The other major political parties did not have “zebra” party lists.

Before using these statistics, facilitators should check with the organisations which produced them to see if updated statistics are available.
### Table 8A: Women in Cabinet and Parliament

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Portfolio</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prime Minister</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Prime Minister</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministers</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Ministers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Members of the National Assembly</strong></td>
<td><strong>78</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>26.9%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker of the National Assembly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Speaker of National Assembly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Members of the National Council</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>27%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chairperson of the National Council</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Chairperson National Council</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of MPs</strong></td>
<td><strong>104</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>26.9%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *The Namibian, National Assembly and National Council, 2005.*

### Table 8B: Proportion of seats held by women in Parliament 1996-2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Minutes and proceedings of the National Assembly*

### Table 8C: Women in Regional and Local Authority Councils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional Councillors</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Governors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Authority Councillors</strong></td>
<td><strong>299</strong></td>
<td><strong>165</strong></td>
<td><strong>134</strong></td>
<td><strong>45%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayors</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy – Mayors</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *ARC, ALAN 2004.*
### Table 8D: Percentage of women in management positions in the public service, 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offices/Agencies/Ministries</th>
<th>Total #</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>% Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Gender Equality and Child Welfare</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 National Assembly</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Health and Social Services</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 National Council</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Auditor General</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Fisheries and Marine Resources</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
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<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 National Planning Commission</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 Information and Broadcasting</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 Office of the Prime Minister</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>41</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Justice</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td>11 Finance</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Labour and Social Welfare</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 Trade and Industry</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Education</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Office of the President</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 Agriculture, Water and Forestry</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Home Affairs and Immigration</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Works, Transport and Communication</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Foreign Affairs</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 Mines and Energy</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Environment and Tourism</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Youth, National Service, Sport and Culture</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Lands and Resettlement</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>25 Central Intelligence</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 Safety and Security</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 Defence</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total public servants in management cadre</strong></td>
<td><strong>763</strong></td>
<td><strong>554</strong></td>
<td><strong>209</strong></td>
<td><strong>27%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, Statistics on men and women in management positions in the Public Service of Namibia, 2006, Volume 1*

### Table 8E: Women managing directors of parastatals, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parastatal</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NamPower</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NamPost</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NamWater</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Namdeb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecom Namibia</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agribank</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia Development Corporation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Security Commission</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia Broadcasting Corporation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Namibia</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Housing Enterprise</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TransNamib Holdings</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Human Resource Divisions of Parastatals, 2004*
8.10 Women in traditional authorities

As noted above, the Traditional Authorities Act 25 of 2000 includes a provision for affirmative action. Yet, to date there have been no systematic efforts to promote gender equality in positions of leadership in traditional authorities. In a number of traditional authorities, customary law dictates that the Chief must be succeeded by his eldest son.

As of June 2006, there are only 3 women out of 41 Chiefs of recognised traditional authorities. In addition there are a few headwomen and female traditional councilors in some communities. With these few exceptions, traditional authorities and courts continue to be dominated by men.

8.10.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Women in traditional authorities

**Objective:** To consider ways to improve gender aspects of traditional authorities.

**Time:** 2 hours.

Ask participants:
- Are there any women represented in the traditional authority in your area?
- If no, why not?
- If yes, how many women? How much influence do they have?

(Note: in some traditional authorities women do not speak – this may be because it is not considered culturally acceptable for women to speak in the presence of men in authority.)

- How can the number of women in traditional authorities be increased?
- How can women in traditional authorities become more vocal and influential?

Discuss these questions and develop an action plan.

Suggestions for inclusion in the action plan:
- Arrange a workshop for women in your community on assertiveness training.
- Arrange a meeting between a neighbouring traditional authority (which includes influential women) and your own traditional authority to discuss the role of women in traditional authorities.
- Arrange a workshop with the community and/or traditional leaders on gender and decision-making.
- Arrange a meeting in the community to discuss gender and decision-making.
- Ask a member of the National Assembly or National or Regional Council to discuss gender and decision-making with your traditional authority.

8.10.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Overcoming difficulties faced by women in leadership positions

**Objective:** To consider difficulties women face in leadership positions and ways of overcoming them.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Ask the participants to brainstorm what difficulties they think women face when they have been elected or appointed to leadership positions. (These may include hesitancy to assert their own opinions, not being taken seriously, sexual harassment and organising childcare.)
Split the participants into groups and ask them to come up with solutions for each of the problems.

Ask if some participants can think of a leadership position in their community that they would like a woman to fill. They should then write up a “job benefit package” which would encourage women to consider themselves or apply for the position. This could include items such as:

- Assertiveness training will be provided.
- The organisation has a childcare scheme for employees.

### 8.11 Motivational talks by role models on leadership

The facilitator can invite a role model within the specific community, or a professional skilled person to speak to the participants on leadership.

### 8.12 Resources

**Publications:**

These publications are useful for training purposes:


  Available from:
  
  **Sister Namibia**
  
  Nelson Mandela Avenue
  
  Windhoek
  
  Tel: 230 618
  
  Email sister@iafrica.com.na

  
  Available from:  
  Legal Assistance Centre  
  4 Korner Street  
  PO 604  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 223 356  
  Fax: 061 234 953  
  Email: info@lac.org.na  
  Website: www.lac.org.na

These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module:


- The Sister Namibia Resource Centre (contact details above) has the following publications:

**Key organisations:**

- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.

  Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare  
  Juvenis Building, Independence Avenue  
  Private Bag 13359  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 283 3111  
  Fax: 061 238 941  
  Email: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na
Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES) aims to empower those previously disadvantaged and marginalised, support a democratic society and its institutions and enhance equal participation of women and men. FES has embarked upon a comprehensive gender mainstreaming programme to run concurrently with the existing women empowerment programme. These programmes are mainly aimed at equal participation of women in all spheres and to introduce gender integration in all activities of the foundation with the Local Authorities, the Namibia Elected Women Forum (NEWF), Namibia Economic Society (NES), Joint Consultative Council (JCC) and the women in Trade Unions.

Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES)
95 John Meinert Street
PO Box 23652
Windhoek
Tel: 061 237438
Fax: 061 237441
E-mail: fes@fesnam.org.na

Namibia Institute for Democracy, works to promote and protect the values and principles of multi-party democracy through education (including advocacy training) and nurture political tolerance and national reconciliation in Namibia.

Namibia Institute for Democracy
29 Feld Street
Central Windhoek
PO Box 11956
Klein Windhoek
Tel: 061 229 117
Fax: 061 229 119
Website: www.nid.org.na

Legal Assistance Centre can provide advice and training on advocacy.

Legal Assistance Centre
4 Korner Street
PO 604
Windhoek
Tel: 061 223 356
Fax: 061 234 953
Email: info@lac.org.na
Website: www.lac.org.na
9.1 Objectives of the module

- To raise awareness of stereotyped portrayals of gender roles in the media.
- To help participants identify and understand barriers to the participation of women in the media and in Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

9.2 Target groups

- Media practitioners (both print and electronic)
- Media educators
- Community and church leaders
- Traditional leaders
- Decision-makers and policy-makers.

9.3 Why is Information, Education and Communication important?

As the National Gender Policy explains, the media has great potential to perpetuate cultural, social, political, and economic stereotypical attitudes and practices. The continued projection of negative and degrading images of women in media communications – including television, radio, music, internet, print media and visual media (such as posters and billboards) – must be changed. Women should be empowered to strengthen their ability to fight negative portrayals of women nationally and internationally.

The media cannot be held solely responsible for the attitudes of individuals, but the fact that it helps to shape public opinion cannot be refuted. Policy-makers should therefore seek to mainstream gender within the media so as to promote positive coverage of gender issues. However, this must be done through encouragement rather than control, as it would be unconstitutional to interfere with freedom of expression and the media.

Namibian Constitution, Article 21

(1) All persons shall have the right to:
   a) freedom of speech and expression, which shall include freedom of the press and other media...
According to the National Gender Policy, a number of women are involved in careers in the communications sector, but few hold positions at the decision-making level or serve on governing boards and bodies that influence media policy. Women need to be involved in decision-making regarding the development of the media and technology industries in order to participate fully in their development and to help direct their impact on women and on society as a whole.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) refers to the hardware and software used to store, retrieve, exchange and manipulate information. ICT offers effective tools to overcome obstacles faced by women and girls, and can be used to open new opportunities in education, political participation, health care and income generation. For example, ICT bridges communication barriers by allowing women to access information and opportunities through the Internet without leaving their homes, villages or communities.

If women have access to information and communication technologies, their awareness of what is going on in economic, social and political spheres will improve, and they will be able to provide more meaningful input into decision-making. Ultimately, this will facilitate a more equitable socio-economic development process in the country.

It must be noted that a large percentage of African women do not understand the importance and potential impact of the information revolution, and this needs to be clearly explained. This is linked to the fact that a high number of women in Africa are illiterate or have limited literacy, and yet still need to document their own information and experiences.

**THE DIGITAL DIVIDE**

The number of people who use the Internet in Africa is estimated at about 1 user in every 250-400 people, compared to a world average of about 1 user in every 15 people, and a North American and European average of about 1 user in every 2 people.

Africa women’s Internet access and usage lag behind those of African men. In Uganda, women account for about 31.5 percent of Internet users and in Senegal, they account for only 12 percent of Internet users. In South Africa, 19 percent of Internet users are women. In most parts of Africa, women who use the Internet are part of a small, educated urban elite. There is much that still needs to done to make ICTs accessible to women in rural Africa.

Low levels of education and illiteracy, reinforced by poverty, account in large measure for the problems African women face in accessing and using ICTs. About two-thirds of the world’s illiterate people are women, and a large percentage of illiterate women are on the African continent. The low ratios of girls in science and technology courses in Africa also reinforce the negative dynamics that limit women’s access to decision-making positions in the fields of science and technology.

The United Nations places lack of access to information as the third most important issue facing women globally, after poverty and violence against women.

Excerpts and statistics from Radloff, Primo and Munyua, “The Role of Information and Communication Technologies in the Development of African Women”, Association for Progressive Communications, 2004

### 9.4 Portrayals of gender in media

Women should speak out against negative and discriminatory representations of women, and the treatment of women as commodities on the Internet and in advertisements.
9.4.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Identifying stereotypes and negative treatment of women in the media

Objective: To learn to analyse portrayals of women in local media.

Time: 45 minutes.

Provide participants with a few copies of old newspapers and magazines. Ask them to look through these materials and point out pictures or articles which include gender stereotypes or negative treatment of women or men. Each participant should share one item with the group and explain why it is negative or stereotypical. Ask participants to describe similar examples from radio, television or billboards. Then ask participants to discuss ways to discourage negative media portrayals of women.

Here are some examples of gender stereotypes to discuss and consider:
Victim identified
The woman whose beheaded body was discovered next to the Western Bypass road in Windhoek on Sunday morning has been identified as Windhoek resident Juanitha Mabula… On a still picture that was taken from CCTV footage recorded at the Engen service station shop on the corner of Independence Avenue and Uhland Street, Mabula – dressed in a low-cut pink top and dark-coloured jeans – is seen in the company of two well-built men. …

The Namibian, 27 September 2005

9.4.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Case study on taking action against negative media portrayals

Objective: To give participants the opportunity to consider a negative gender portrayal in advertising, and how the advertising industry can be challenged.

Time: 1 hour

The following advertisement appeared in magazines which circulated in South Africa and Namibia in 2000:

Complaints were made to the South African Advertising Standards Authority by members of the public; the Namibian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Information and Broadcasting; and various women's and human rights' groups. Despite Land Rover’s claim that the advertisement was simply meant to be funny, the Advertising Standards Authority ruled that the ad must be withdrawn. All the magazines that had carried the advertisement were obliged to print a statement from the Advertising Standards Authority explaining the retraction of the advertisement, at Land Rover’s expense.

“THE NEW MORE POWERFUL FREELANDER: …
The only thing tougher will be deciding on which one you prefer.”

Facilitators can collect other examples to distribute to participants, and then ask them to spot the gender stereotyping.
Example of letter of complaint sent to the company being advertised:

The November 27 edition of *Time* and the December edition of *Getaway* magazine both feature a Land Rover advertisement which centres around the bare breasts of a woman in the traditional clothing of the Himba, a people indigenous to Namibia. In the advert, the woman’s pendulous breasts are being pulled sideways by the “power” of the vehicle driving away from her. This smacks of the same kind of exploitation that occurred during colonial times. Would a white woman in a bathing costume have been given the same treatment? I think not. Are you encouraging people to buy your new Freelander so that they can gawk salaciously at Namibian women in rural areas? Show a little more respect for indigenous women and withdraw this extremely offensive advertisement.

Dianne Hubbard  
Co-ordinator, Gender Research Project  
Legal Assistance Centre  
Windhoek, Namibia

The Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa

The Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa (ASA) is an independent body set up and paid for by the marketing communications industry to regulate advertising in the public interest through a system of self-regulation. The ASA works closely with government, statutory bodies, consumer organisations and the industry to ensure that the content of advertising meets the requirements of the Code of Advertising Practice.

If someone complains to an advertiser about an advertisement they find offensive, but do not get a satisfactory response, they may complain to the ASA. The ASA will assess the advertisement and if it is found offensive, they will ask the advertiser to withdraw it. If the advertiser does not co-operate with the ASA an Ad-Alert is issued to the media. As the media support the Code of Advertising Practice, they will not accept advertising for which an Ad-Alert has been issued.

Ask participants to discuss the following questions:

1. Do you find this advertisement offensive? Why or why not?
2. Should Namibia have an authority like the South African Advertising Standards Board or some other media monitoring body which could take action on gender stereotypes? Why or why not?
3. In the absence of a regulatory body, what actions could you take in Namibia against an advertisement which included a negative portrayal of women?

After the discussion, you can explain to participants that the Advertising Standards Authority found the advertisement to be offensive on four grounds:

- It does not contribute towards the work of gender and racial healing essential to the building of a new society.
- The manner in which the female figure is depicted is exploitative and constitutes racial stereotyping.
- It is not the nudity in the advertisement which is offensive, but the misuse, abuse and distortion of the woman’s nudity that violates human dignity.

The insensitive portrayal of the Himba woman is discriminatory and makes a mockery of African culture, thereby perpetuating gender and cultural inequality.
The media is also an important tool for raising awareness of gender issues, and for promoting women’s rights. Here are some examples:

- Regular and sensitive reporting of violence against women and children raises awareness of this issue and encourages action to stop it.
- Media is an important source of information about various topics. For example, in 2004, NBC aired a series of programmes produced by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare on the Combating of Domestic Violence Act. The magazine *Sister Namibia* regularly publishes clear and simple information about different forms of contraception in various indigenous languages.
- Media coverage of women in positions of leadership or in non-traditional professions helps to provide positive female role models.
- Radio, with its broad coverage and its indigenous languages services, is a major source of information about politics and current events for women and men. This can be very beneficial to women because it allows them to have access to information without leaving the home, and while busy with other tasks.

**Code of Ethics for Namibian Media**

MISA (the Media Institute of Southern Africa) facilitated the production of a Code of Ethics for Namibian Media. This Code includes the following statement:

The media should strive to represent social reality in all its diversity, complexity and plurality, and shall strive to redress imbalances when reporting on women, children, minorities, the under-privileged and disabled persons.

**9.4.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender audit of media coverage**

**Objective:** To give participants experience in carrying out a gender audit of a newspaper.

**Time:** 3 hours.

Split participants into groups and give each group one newspaper. Ask them to make two columns – one headed men, the other women. They should then list the topics of each article that mention men and women (such as sport, different crimes – rape, assault, murder – local politics, national politics, corruption, music, fashion). Some articles will mention both – some will mention only men and some only women.

Ask participants to feedback on the topics that mentioned only men, and those that mentioned only women. Discuss possible reasons for the differences. For example do women not play sport? Are there women musicians? Are male or female politicians reported more frequently?

If you have more time (another hour or two), participants can also measure each article with a ruler vertically and horizontally, and say how many columns of how many centimetres were devoted to articles mentioning men, and articles mentioning women.
CASE STUDY: Katutura Community Radio – KCR 106.2 FM

Katutura Community Radio – KCR 106.2 FM – was the first community radio station in Namibia. Established in 1995, it soon became one of the favoured radio stations for the residents of Katutura and Khomasdal. Unfortunately it had to close down in 2001, but in 2003 a different group of NGOs decided to re-launch KCR mainly to give marginalised voices a platform to express themselves.

One of the fundamental principals of community media is to be the ‘voice of the voiceless’. In Namibia ‘the voiceless’ can include women, children, the elderly, sexual minorities, the unemployed, the poor, those living with HIV & AIDS and rural dwellers. These people are the great majority of this nation but their voices are not heard because they are ignored by the country’s mainstream media.

We therefore had to develop a broadcast schedule that reflected the residents we serve. Most of the marginalised groups mentioned above have programmes that specifically cater for them on KCR.

The main challenges in the re-launch of the station were the lack of funding and capacity. Thanks to generous technical and financial support from Sister Namibia, the new KCR could take its first steps. We had to put a team together who could start producing and broadcasting programmes. The College of the Arts’ Media Arts and Technology Studies fortunately had senior students who became our first group of volunteers. A number of NGOs were approached to develop programmes that would contribute towards social, political and economic empowerment. These were the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC), Sister Namibia, the Desert Research Foundation of Namibia (DRFN) and Namibia Planned Parenthood Association (NAPPA).

We began broadcasting for one hour per day, but later increased that – we are now broadcasting for 24 hours per day. We expanded only when we felt that we would be able to cope with the responsibilities that came with expansion and add more programmes and NGO partners.

Volunteers in KCR are essentially the backbone of the station as they are responsible for producing and presenting the bulk of the programmes. The majority are unemployed youth with a strong interest in broadcasting.

Community radio gives ordinary people, who thought radio was a medium for the educated and well-spoken, the opportunity to learn how to produce radio programmes, do interviews, write scripts and use the internet.

If given the opportunity and the support to establish a sustainable community radio station, communities can – through the broadcasting of quality educational programming that are socially, politically and economically relevant – be encouraged to make informed decisions about their lives as individuals and as citizens of this country.

Community radio allows communities to debate issues that affect them and collectively come to a consensus on what actions should be taken.

Community radio gives people the opportunity to celebrate their own cultures, affirm their own dignity and identity and promote social responsibility and critical thinking.

Most importantly, community radio gives people the platform to express themselves freely without fear of victimisation and gives them the pride and dignity that comes from a sense of ownership. Now if that is not participatory democracy and nation building, I don’t know what is!

Compared to other southern African countries, community radio is a relatively new concept in Namibia. We have six community radio stations, all of which are located in urban areas. There
are currently five community radio initiatives: Ocean Wave (Swakop); Omaheke Community Radio (Gobabis); and more in Oshakati, Keetmanshoop and Otjiwarongo.

Most of the above initiatives are community initiated and are members of the Namibia Community Radio Network (NCRN), which is an autonomous body with its own board of directors consisting of members from community radio stations and initiatives.

Community media around the world is largely funded by donor agencies. The problem with this scenario is that donors’ funding interests change as their political interests change and it is short term. This is why the emphasis should be put on the state being the main partner in the establishment and strengthening of community media. For example, the South African government established a fund through which community radio stations receive equipment, training and infrastructure.

The Draft Communications Bill suggests that a Universal Access Fund be established where a percentage of the license fees paid by commercial radio stations is made available for community radio initiatives. This would provide community radio initiatives with at least the basics and give them the tools to become sustainable.

The reason why we have so few initiatives is because people lack equipment, which is all one needs to apply for a license at the Namibian Communications Commission (NCC). Most initiatives have been struggling for years to acquire the expensive equipment and funds necessary to sustain a radio station.

In developing countries and in particular southern Africa, community media or community radio is increasingly becoming the preferred medium. Countries such as Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia have proved that people do not only want to listen to the latest music hits but also want to be educated, informed and – lastly – entertained. KCR, although off-air for a number of years, is slowly but surely becoming the preferred radio station among those living in Katutura and Khomasdal again.

Natasha Tibinyane, Former Station Manager, KCR

9.4.4 TRAINING EXERCISE: Images of women with disabilities

Objective: To consider how images of women with disabilities can be improved.

Time: 1 hour.

The following is one of the strategies in the section of the National Gender Policy on Information, Education and Communication:

Improve the image of women with disabilities through active participation in all aspects of public education campaigns designed to educate the public on gender issues.

Ask participants to brainstorm ideas on how to improve the public image of women with disabilities.

Beata Shihepo of the National Namibian Association of the Deaf signs her question at an advocacy workshop.
9.5 Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

Vision 2030 explains the importance of ICT in the modern world:

The modern world is moving from heavy industry to a knowledge-based economy based on specialist services, specialised industries, communications and information technologies... Advanced micro-electronics-based Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are at the heart of recent social and economic transformations in the industrialised and much of the developing world. These technologies are now being applied to all sectors of the economy and society.

Among the targets identified in Vision 2030 are developing and implementing a national ICT policy; providing ICT training from pre-primary level; providing free Internet access for the public; supporting the development of Internet access centres in rural areas and investing in government ICT infrastructure and services.

Rural access to ICT is a particular challenge, as a result of the absence of telecommunications lines and electricity in rural areas, rural poverty, literacy and language barriers, and limited access to computers and other equipment capable of accessing the Internet.

The Ministry of Education recently unveiled its ICT policy in education which is geared at promoting greater ICT usage in schools, particularly in the rural areas. The Namibian NGO SchoolNet helps schools get internet access, and had already provided 300 Namibian schools with computers for Internet use by 2006, as well as providing lesson plans and activity worksheets online as resources for Namibian students and teachers.

What is the internet, and what do you need to use it?

What is the internet?

The internet is a communications system which connects computers together into thousands of networks, which are then joined together into one big network. Individual computers are connected to a local network, which is then connected to the internet. No one owns or supervises the internet.

I often hear people talking about using the internet to get information from websites. What does that mean?

Using your computer to get access to the internet so that you can look at a website is like taking a taxi to the library to get information from a book. You use a “search engine” to find the information you want, in the same way that you would look up a subject in a card catalogue at the library to see what books on that subject are available.
Key internet terms

- internet – a global network of computers
- world wide web (sometimes called ‘the web’) – a global database of information accessible through the internet
- website – a specific piece of information made available on the world wide web
- search engine – a tool that helps you locate information from the internet on particular topics
- E-mail – electronic mail which goes from computer to computer

What do you need to use the Internet?

1. **You need access to a computer and a mechanism for connecting the computer to a telephone line.** This mechanism is called a “modem”. Some computers have external modems attached to them. Many computers have internal modems built into them.

2. **Your computer must have some “software” in it which includes a “web browser” and an E-mail programme.** A computer is just a box of electronic equipment unless it has “software” to make it work. The software for your computer is a bit like the SIM card for a cell phone. It is the ingredient that you need to make the machine functional. A “web browser” is a tool that lets you read information from the internet. An E-mail programme is a tool which gives you an electronic mailbox for sending and receiving E-mail. Most computers in Namibia are set up with a programme called Microsoft Windows which usually includes a web browser called “Internet Explorer” and an E-mail programme called “Outlook Express”. Many people also use a different web browser called “Netscape”.

3. **You need to open an account with an internet service provider.** This serves as your door into the internet. In Namibia, some service providers are called “iafrica”, “mweb” and “iway”. You can pay a small monthly fee to these service providers to connect your computer to the internet. Some government offices, NGOs and companies have set up their own mechanisms for connecting to the internet.

If you want to use a telephone for making and receiving telephone calls, you must pay a monthly fee to Telecom for this service. In the same way, you need to make an arrangement with a service provider if you want to use your computer to connect to the internet.

*Advocacy in Action manual, Legal Assistance Centre, 2004*

### 9.5.1 Encouraging women to use information and communication technologies for political participation

Women can use Information and Communication Technology as a tool to increase their access to relevant information. For example, the Internet has enabled millions of women in Africa to get access to information on topics such as the protection of their rights, health, childcare, education, agriculture and environmental issues, as well as world issues in the area of international relations and world politics. Various forms of information and communication technology can also be used to increase women’s political participation. For example, the Internet and e-mail provide women with forums to exchange ideas and experiences with other women all over the world. Here are some concrete examples:

**CASE STUDY: Radio listening clubs, Zambia**

In Zambia’s Chipata province, Panos Southern Africa is using HIV/AIDS radio listening clubs to empower rural women to communicate their views directly to policymakers:
“Our radio listening clubs bring together a range of participants who discuss issues relating to HIV/AIDS. The discussion is recorded, and this material is taken to a recording studio and played to a panel of experts, policymakers or other key public figures who make their own comments. An edited version of the whole programme is then broadcast on national radio. The clubs listen to the programmes and discuss them at their weekly meetings. In this way disenfranchised groups can be brought into dialogue with those in power or those with expert knowledge. At the same time interpersonal spoken communication is married with radio mass media.”

www.panosaids.org/method/listeningclubs.htm

CASE STUDY: Using video for empowerment, Kenya

A Women’s Information and Communication Technology (WICT) project initiated by the Intermediate Technology Development Group was used to empower women in urban Kenya.

The objective of this project was to develop a methodology for enabling the poorest members of the community to participate in decision-making at the policy level through the use of the ICTs. The project was undertaken in some of the informal settlements for the poor in Nairobi. Living conditions in these settlements are characterised by overcrowding, poverty, disease, and a lack of access to modern amenities such as electricity and running water. Although women form half the population living in these slums, and, in addition to their maternal responsibilities, many of them are also heads of households, policymakers in the past had completely ignored them. This was despite the fact that in these settlements, women often played a key role in community development activities such as neighbourhood improvement, waste management, and self-help groups.

To correct this situation and give women a voice, the WICT pilot project focused on the participation of these women in policymaking with the help of ICTs and used interactive video as a tool for women’s empowerment. Two settlements were selected for the pilot project, and two women’s groups identified. Twenty women received training. Many of them were over 50 years of age; several were illiterate; and the majority were the sole breadwinners in their families. Some were responsible for looking after grandchildren who had lost their parents to AIDS. Some women operated grocery stores, kiosks, and second-hand garment sales.

The women were given extensive training in using a video camera and other related skills such as script preparation. Armed with these skills, the two women’s groups made two videos of 15 minutes each that captured the problems and aspirations of women in these settlements. Titled “Telling our story” and made in Swahili, these videos depicted their everyday struggles and challenges. The videos also captured favourable features, such as women’s income-generating activities and community service initiatives (including a saving scheme in one of the settlements to acquire land for permanent housing). The videos were shown at an assembly of policymakers and planners, representatives from NGOs, the private sector, and local functionaries.

The experience gave the women a feeling of empowerment. Today, if there is civic unrest, these groups of trained women are often invited to cover the happenings and to offer their suggestions and advice. They have entered into arrangements with a leading Kenyan broadcasting company to supply development videos. They often shoot and supply clippings of newsworthy stories. In addition, they have been documenting activities of several NGOs in these settlements. The women are respected for their objective and authentic coverage and enjoy far greater confidence of the community than many local media agencies. Their productions command high credibility. Their newly acquired skills also bring them an income. At the same time, they provide valuable feedback to policymakers about the problems and improvements taking place in these settlements. The project received an international award in 2001 in recognition of its contribution to social justice through ICTs.

http://web.worldbank.org/website/external/topics/extgender/exticttoolkit/
**CASE STUDY: Using ICTs to preserve cultural identity**

In some remote villages where there is electricity connection, the use of the Internet has helped indigenous women preserve their cultural identity. Once they are trained in Internet and video production, they can capture community stories in video and market them to the rest of the world via the Internet. When made in their own language and culture, these videos have proved to be an effective way of preserving the community’s cultural identity in the era of globalisation that is storming the world.

*Gender digital gap in Africa – How to expand women’s access to ICTs, Africa ICT Policy Monitor, 9/22/2003, http://africa.rights.apc.org/*

**CASE STUDY: Women’sNet, South Africa**

Women’sNet is a networking support program designed to enable South African women to use the Internet to find the people, issues, resources and tools needed for women’s social activism. For example, it has a website which contains practical information for women on issues such as how to access social welfare grants, what your rights are in a violent domestic situation and what to do if you have been raped.

*http://womensnet.org.za/*

**CASE STUDY: “Taking Parliament to the People”, Namibia**

This programme was initiated within the National Assembly. It entails annual regional visits based on civic education through technology. In partnership with the National Democratic Institute for International Affairs, computer training was provided for Governors, regional councillors and community members. Communities in Khorixas, Gam, Gochas, Okakarara, Ruacana also received computers, to enable them communicate with their elected leaders.

*Based on information in Legal Assistance Centre, Advocacy in Action, 2004*

It must be noted that while the Internet can be an important tool for positive social change, it is also utilised as a vehicle for the exploitation of women and children, evidenced by the proliferation of pornographic sites. Fortunately, systems are available for screening and blocking Internet sites with objectionable content.

**9.5.2 ICTs and women’s economic empowerment**

Information and communication technologies can be used to broaden the opportunities of women in Namibia who want to start up small business or get involved in other economic opportunities. ICTs can help women access information about what is happening in other communities, share their experiences, adopt good practices and lobby decision-makers for policies which will support their efforts. ICTs can also give women quick access to information about prices, supplies, processing, transport, and marketing opportunities. Goods which are produced can be marketed more widely inside and outside Namibia with ICTs.
Using ICT for agricultural development

The lack of reliable and comprehensive information for rural female farmers is a major hindrance to agricultural development. They require information on agricultural inputs; market prices; transportation systems; product potential; new environmentally sound production techniques and practices; new agricultural technologies; new markets; food processing and preservation; decision-making processes; the resource base; trade laws; and trends in food production, demand, and processing. Women also need to exchange indigenous knowledge... Information should be accessible to female farmers... with various ICTs to facilitate easy access to relevant information and information exchange.


9.5.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Using ICT to get information on business opportunities

Objective: To assist participants to understand how ICT can be used to get information on business opportunities.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Divide participants into small groups and ask each group to think of a business opportunity for women in a rural area in Namibia. Each group should pretend that they are going to set up a business in this field and answer the following questions:

- What information do you need to help you set up a successful business enterprise?
- What means can you use to get this information?
- Which information is needed but not easily accessible?
- What should be done to address this information need?
- Could ICT help you to obtain the necessary information?
- Can any member of the group share an experience where he or she used ICT to get information on any topic?

9.6 Access to computers and computer training in Namibia

In an effort to make computers more widely accessible to the public, some Namibian organisations are providing free or inexpensive access to computers and the Internet while others are providing affordable computer training.

1. Namibian Open Learning Network (NolNet): provides computers with internet connections to community libraries for public access. It has also provided computers with internet connections to some Teachers Resource Centres, which are also available for public use.

2. National Institute for Educational Development (NIED): NIED provides public access to computer and other services for members of the public at its regional Teacher’s Resource Centres. Members of the public can also use NIED libraries for research and study purposes.
3. **SchoolNet**: SchoolNet is an NGO that helps schools to get internet access. By 2006, 300 schools had benefited from this project. Each school decides whether or not to make the computers available for public use.

The **Legal Assistance Centre’s Manual on Advocacy in Action** provides a detailed chapter on using computers and other technology. It also provides a list of centres and institutions complete with contact details, which provide public access to computers and internet, nationwide. Copies of the manual are available at the LAC offices, free of charge.

### 9.7 Resources

**Publications:**
- *Hai Ti!*, a comic book series produced by SchoolNet to popularise ICT, featuring a central female figure who teaches mathematics in an entertaining way. (See contact details for SchoolNet below.)

**Key organisations:**
- **Ministry of Information and Broadcasting’s** role is to produce, disseminate and facilitate the free flow of information.

  **Ministry of Information and Broadcasting**
  2nd Floor, Government Building
  Robert Mugabe Avenue
  Private Bag 13344
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 9111
  Fax: 061 222 343

- **UNESCO** is collaborating with the Ministries of Education to ensure that the national Education For All plan of action is owned by all relevant stakeholders (non-governmental and civil society partners, institutions of higher education and the private sector) and that both technical and financial support is provided.

  **UNESCO**
  Oppenheimer House
  5 Brahms Street
  Windhoek West
  Tel: 061 291 7000
  Fax: 061 291 7220
  E-mail: windhoek@unesco.org
GEMSA-Namibia (Gender and Media Southern Africa – Namibia) conducts research and monitoring, training and capacity building and advocacy campaigns.

GEMSA-Namibia
139 Johann Albrecht Street
Windhoek North
PO Box 50429
Windhoek
Tel: 061 288 911/288 2639
E-mail: sxoaguseises@yahoo.com

MISA (Media Institute of Southern Africa) works in the following areas: monitoring standards of professionalism and ethics among Namibia’s media and monitoring the activities of that media; advocacy around policy and law issues; decentralisation of the media; increasing sensitivity around gender issues; training journalists to improve skills and encouraging new journalists.

MISA
Rossini Street
PO Box 97475
Maerua Mall
Windhoek
Tel: 061 236 069
Fax: 061 236 054
E-mail: misanam@mweb.com.na

SchoolNet Namibia is a local hands-on ICT deployment, training and support organisation. It helps schools get internet access, and provides lesson plans and activity worksheets online as resources for Namibian students and teachers. It has a technical centre which re-furbishes old computers, with the assistance of unemployed youth, for deployment at schools in Namibia. It also provides training and technical support services. SchoolNet’s multi-media educational comic ‘Hai Ti!’ popularises ICT and ICT skills training.

SchoolNet Namibia
Katutura Community Arts Centre
Leonard Auala Street
PO Box 7102
Katutura
Toll free tel: 0800 00 57 93
Tel: 061 212 973
Fax: 061 213 655
E-mail: info@schoolnet.na
Website: www.schoolnet.na
Module 10

GENDER AND THE MANAGEMENT OF THE ENVIRONMENT

10.1 Objective of the module

- To increase understanding of gender issues in the implementation of sustainable development programmes and in the effective management of our environment.

10.2 Key target groups

- Farmers
- Members of conservancies
- Agricultural extension workers
- Traditional leaders
- Tourist industry workers
- Community members.

10.3 What is the environment and why is gender and the management of the environment important?

Note to trainer: if you are going to use exercise 10.4 below after your introduction, do not give participants this definition beforehand.

Definition

Environment refers to our surroundings. It includes both living and non-living things, such as water, trees, animals and land.

The environment has three components:

- the physical component, comprising air, soil, water and minerals
- the biological component, comprising human beings, plants, animals and micro-organisms
- the socio-cultural component, comprising culture, art, music, literature and technology

All three components are interlinked and the protection of each one is essential for the existence of the others. This Module will focus on the first two, as they are emphasised by the National Gender Policy.
According to the National Gender Policy, resource depletion, the degradation of natural systems and the dangers brought about by polluting substances have greatly increased in the past decade. These worsening conditions are destroying delicate ecosystems and are an increasing threat to a safe and healthy environment.

Degradation of the environment and pollution have severe effects on human health. Cases of cancer, eye damage and weakened bodily immune systems have, to some extent, been attributed to environmental pollution. Environmental hazards in the home and work-place have a bigger impact on women’s health than men’s health because of the degree of women’s exposure to toxic effects of various substances.

The deterioration of natural resources displaces communities, especially those living in poverty, the majority of whom are women. Poverty and environmental degradation are very closely related. Depletion of natural resources greatly adds to women’s poverty and increases the burden of work for women and girls. Women in many communities provide the most needed labour force for subsistence production, and therefore their role in the provision of food and the preservation of the environment is indispensable.

Women have an important role to play in the development of sustainable and ecologically viable approaches to natural resource management. They also play an important role in promoting sustainable development through their concern for the quality and sustainability of life for present and future generations.

Yet women continue to be under-represented at policy and decision-making fora on the utilisation of natural resources, environmental development, conservation, forestry and water management.

10.4 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Managing the environment**

*Objective:* To understand what the environment is, and to identify its gender dimensions.

*Time:* 2 hours.

1. Ask participants to define what the environment is (see 10.3 above)
2. In groups, they should identify all the resources that comprise their environment. To help them with this list, they should go outside and identify the natural resources that they can see. A list of resources should then be presented by each group.
3. Discuss the uses of each of the resources identified, and who controls their use. Identify who, between men and women, has more involvement with the resource, based on the participants’ experiences.

Explain that women and men play different roles in relation to the environment. The skills and needs of men and women vary when it comes to conserving and using the resources in the environment. But in most countries, including Namibia, women’s role in environmental use and management is underestimated.

10.5 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Survey of the local environment**

*Objective:* To help participants to look critically at their own environment and identify environmental issues and health threats.

*Time:* 1½ days.
The first day is for the survey teams to collect the information, then half a day to analyse this in the whole group.

1. Give each participant the hand-out below containing the survey questions. Discuss the survey questions, to allow for any clarifications that may be needed.

2. Participants should then form survey groups, ideally composed of people from the same or similar areas. Alternatively divide participants into one urban group and one rural group.

3. Participants should come together again to present a summary of their findings. Ask participants to identify the gender issues relevant to each environmental problem identified and to potential solutions to each problem. The issues raised can be used to identify areas for action or advocacy.

**HANDOUT: ENVIRONMENTAL SURVEY**

1. **Land:**
   - Does the land use lead to any health hazards, such as dangerous roads or exposure to toxic waste?
   - Are any chemical fertilisers being used?

2. **Water**
   - Where does the drinking water in the area come from? Is it pure or polluted?
   - Are there pools or swampy areas where mosquitoes or other insects breed?
   - Is human or animal waste washed into the water?
   - Are there any factories or industrial plants dumping chemicals and toxic wastes into the water and poisoning fish?

3. **Trees**
   - Are there enough trees to provide shade and adequate firewood?
   - Have too many trees been cut down causing soil erosion, floods and drought?
   - Are trees being used as a building material? What alternative building materials are used?

4. **Air**
   - Does the air seem fresh or polluted?
   - Who or what is responsible for any air pollution that is detected? For example, traffic, factories, fires, spraying or pesticides?

5. **Food**
   - Is it possible for most people in the area to obtain a good balanced diet?
   - If not, what factors prevent production of adequate food (such as lack of land, lack of water, exhausted soil, lack of seeds, lack of tools, lack of knowledge)?

6. **Waste:**
   - How is human and animal excrement dealt with in your area? Are there adequate sewage systems?
   - How is domestic waste dealt with? Is there adequate garbage collection in urban areas? Where is it dumped? What happens to domestic waste in rural areas?
   - How do local factories and industrial plants deal with their waste?

7. **Population**
   - What are the health hazards caused by overcrowding (such as in informal housing or informal settlements)?
   - How much space per person do you think is needed for a healthy life, both physically and psychologically?
10.6 Legal framework

Namibia has one of the few constitutions in the world which includes a specific provision on environmental protection and sustainable development:

**NAMIBIAN CONSTITUTION**

**Article 95: Promotion of the Welfare of the People**

The State shall actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by adopting, inter alia, policies aimed at the following:

(I) maintenance of ecosystems, essential ecological processes and biological diversity of Namibia and utilisation of living natural resources on a sustainable basis for the benefit of all Namibians, both present and future; in particular, the Government shall provide measures against the dumping or recycling of foreign nuclear and toxic waste on Namibian territory.

To understand this provision in the Constitution, it is necessary to understand the key terms:

- **“Ecosystem”**: An ecosystem is a particular interconnected community of living organisms and their physical environment. For example, a desert ecosystem would include the plants, animals, insects and micro-organisms that thrive in the desert, along with the desert’s physical features such as low rainfall, a fog belt and particular kinds of sand and rocks.

- **“Essential ecological processes”**: Ecology is the relationships between organisms and their environment in a particular ecosystem. Essential ecological processes are those which result in the nurturing and development of organisms – for example enough rainfall to grow mahangu. The breakdown of essential ecological processes can be caused by a number of factors, such as overgrazing, lack of rainfall and deforestation. If essential ecological processes break down, results can include movement of animals, deforestation and desertification.

- **“Biological diversity”**: This means the variety of living organisms on land and on water, and the variety of ecological systems where they live. There is diversity within species (such as different varieties of a particular kind of thorn tree), diversity between species (such as the many different kinds of birds in Namibia) and diversity between ecosystems (such as the difference between a river habitat and a desert habitat).

- **“Sustainable use”**: This means using natural resources in a way and at a rate that does not lead to a long-term decline, so that the environment will be able to meet the needs of future generations. Putting it another way, the natural resources of the earth must be shared fairly between present and future generations. The principle of sustainable use applies to both renewable resources (things which can be reproduced, such as plants and animals) and non-renewable resources (things which cannot be reproduced, such as oil and minerals).
As of 2006, there is a great deal of Namibian legislation relating to the environment and sustainable use, but much of this legislation is outdated and in need of reform. The following laws are relevant, and there are others which could be added to this list:

- **Fertilisers, Farm Feeds, Agricultural Remedies and Stock Remedies Act 36 of 1947**: This Act governs the registration, importation, sale and use of fertilisers, farm feeds, agricultural remedies and stock remedies.

- **Weeds Ordinance 19 of 1957**: This Ordinance provides for the eradication of plants that are identified as “weeds”.

- **Soil Conservation Act 76 of 1969**: This Act covers the prevention and combating of soil erosion; the conservation, improvement and manner of use of the soil and vegetation; and the protection of water sources.

- **Mountain Catchment Areas Act 63 of 1970**: This Act provides for the management and conservation of land in designated mountain water catchment areas.

- **Agricultural Pests Act 3 of 1973**: This Act covers the registration of nurseries and the control and destruction of certain plants, insects and animals. It also regulates the importation of plants, insects, honey, honey bees and exotic animals.

- **Hazardous Substances Ordinance 14 of 1974**: This ordinance provides for the control of toxic substances. It covers manufacture, sale, use, disposal and dumping as well as import and export.

- **Nature Conservation Ordinance 4 of 1975**: This Ordinance covers game parks and nature reserves, the hunting and protection of wild animals (including game birds), problem animals, fish, and the protection of indigenous plants. It also establishes a Nature Conservation Board. Recent amendments to this law cover conservancies.

- **Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Ordinance 11 of 1976**: This Ordinance provides for the prevention of air pollution.

- **Prevention and Combating of Pollution of the Sea by Oil Act 6 of 1981**: This Act prohibits the discharge of oil from ships, tankers or off-shore installations and gives the state certain powers to prevent such pollution and to deal with the removal of oil spills.

- **Territorial Sea and Exclusive Economic Zone of Namibia Act 3 of 1990**: This Act determines and defines the territorial sea, internal waters, exclusive economic zone and continental shelf of Namibia.

- **Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act 6 of 1995**: This Act provides for the acquisition of agricultural land by the Namibian government for the purposes of land reform and for its redistribution to Namibian citizens “who do not own or otherwise have the use of agricultural land or adequate agricultural land, and foremost to those Namibian citizens who have been socially, economically or educationally disadvantaged by past discriminatory laws or practices”. It also establishes a Land Reform Advisory Commission and a Lands Tribunal.

- **Game Products Trust Fund Act 7 of 1997**: This Act establishes a Game Products Trust Fund to support the conservation and management of wildlife resources and rural development.

- **Marine Resources Act 27 of 2000**: This Act provides for the conservation of the marine ecosystem; for the responsible utilisation, conservation, protection and promotion of marine resources on a sustainable basis; and for the control of marine resources for these purposes.

- **Forest Act 12 of 2001**: This Act consolidates the laws relating to the use and management of forests and forest produce, provides for the control of forest fires and creates a Forestry Council.
Environment Investment Fund of Namibia Act 13 of 2001: This Act establishes an Environmental Investment Fund of Namibia.

Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002: This Act provides for the allocation of rights in respect of communal land. It establishes Communal Land Boards and provides for the rights and powers of traditional leaders and Communal Land Boards in relation to communal land.

Aquaculture Act 18 of 2002: This Act regulates and controls aquaculture activities and provides for the sustainable development of aquaculture resources.

Inland Fisheries Resources Act 1 of 2003: This Act provides for the conservation and protection of aquatic ecosystems and the sustainable development of inland fisheries resources.

Water Resources Management Act 24 of 2004: This Act concerns the management, development, protection, conservation and use of water resources. It establishes a Water Advisory Council, a Water Regulatory Board and a Water Tribunal.

A number of new laws have been proposed but have not yet reached the legislative agenda. These include:

- Access to Genetic Resources Bill
- Environmental Management Bill
- Parks and Wildlife Management Bill
- Pollution Control and Waste Management Bill.

Namibia has also joined a number of international conventions on the environment, including the following:

- International Convention on Civil Liability for Oil Pollution Damage, 1969
- Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, especially as Waterfowl Habitat, 1971 (Ramsar Convention)
- Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, 1972
- World Heritage Convention, 1975
- International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships, 1973, as modified by the Protocol of 1978 relating thereto
- Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer, 1985
- Agreement for the Establishment of Southern African Centre for Ivory Marketing (SACIM), 1991
- Convention on Biological Diversity, 1992
- United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertization, Particularly in Africa, 1994
- Protocol on the Privileges and Immunities of the International Seabed Authority, 1998
10.7 TRAINING EXERCISE: Regulating the environment

Objective: To consider the diversity of the environment and its relevance to all sectors.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Participants should discuss the following questions:

- What do these lists of laws and international conventions tell you about the environment?
- Which government ministries are involved in protecting Namibia’s environment. (See if participants disagree on which ministries should be in the list, and ask participants to motivate their choices.)
- You are planning a workshop to discuss the environment. Who should you invite?

10.8 Gender dimensions of some specific environmental issues

Resource depletion:
Depletion of natural resources adds greatly to women’s poverty. For example, rural women who generate incomes from handicrafts are affected when plants and trees become scarce due to deforestation and loss of vegetation. Soil erosion, water shortage and repeated crop failure reduce harvest yields and lead to food shortages. Women and children are particularly vulnerable to the resulting food insecurity and are sometimes forced to migrate in search of food or work.

Women and land:
Worldwide, subsistence food production is mostly in the hands of women. In Africa, women are responsible for about 80% of subsistence food production. Unfortunately a range of factors prevent women from benefiting from land as a resource on an equal basis as men. These factors include cultural inhibitions that limit land ownership for women, less information about modern agricultural techniques, lack of appropriate technology and lack of time due to other domestic responsibilities.

Women and water:
Worldwide, the demand for water is growing rapidly, while increased water pollution is worsening the imbalance between water supply and demand. Women search for water to satisfy their family’s needs, for domestic animals and for agriculture, especially in the rural areas. In some parts of Africa, women spend eight hours each day carrying water.

- SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement, 1999
- International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture, 2001
- Convention on the Conservation and Management of Fishery Resources in the South East Atlantic Ocean, 2001
- SADC Protocol on Fisheries, 2001
In Botswana, donors assisted with the establishment of water points in rural areas throughout the 1980s, and by the early 1990s more than 80% of the country’s rural population had reasonable access to safe water. However, an evaluation study showed that household-use patterns had changed relatively little. Water-related hygiene practices in rural households were still poor, and households still fetched water, on average, seven times daily. In retrospect, it was recognised that the project had failed to take into account the traditional roles assigned to men and women in Botswana.

First, women were not involved in the original planning of the Botswana water projects. The projects were seen as community-based ones and it was assumed that women’s input would come through the community, but in reality the cultural practice was for men to make decisions on behalf of the community.

Second, once the water-supply systems were in place, women became involved as operators, rather than as more highly paid managers or professionals (these positions were reserved for men).

Third, few women were given the opportunity to seek professional training. They were kept in the clerical pools. The evaluation found that prevailing cultural roles made it highly unlikely that women would seek technical training and that the women themselves had low confidence in their ability to perform well in technical jobs.

The overall effect of these combined factors was to marginalise female participation in the water projects, despite the fact that women were considered as having strong interests at stake in the establishment of rural water systems. Women were expected to contribute labour, but they had little real power or input into decision-making.

In contrast, the South Coast Handpump Project in Kenya emphasised female participation in pump repair and maintenance from the beginning. This undoubtedly was a critical factor in the project’s success. Initially, the project had been intended exclusively to train women for pump repair and maintenance, but the female participants themselves requested male participation, arguing that young women would get married and move to other communities. Interestingly, both men and women preferred to have women serve as treasurers for water committees – both sexes believed that women were more trustworthy with money.

The success of this project underscores the importance of flexibility and responsiveness to local cultural patterns as an element of development planning and implementation.

Women and forests:
Forests play a vital role in global food security, providing food, fuel, building materials, medicine and resources for income generation. In many countries, forests are a major source of paid employment for rural women, who process and market forest resources to bring in supplementary cash. But when large areas of communal forest land are cleared for agriculture or for commercial forestry, this widespread deforestation reduces access to forest products. Women lose a source of income, and must also spend more time in search of much-needed fuel and other forest products.
Women often have particular knowledge of forest resources and are well-positioned to serve as the caretakers of forests. So efforts to conserve forest and utilise forest products sustainably suffer if women are not included in decision-making in forestry management programmes. Namibia’s Forestry Development Policy 2001 notes the need to encourage the participation of rural communities, and especially women, in all forestry and conservation activities.

**CASE STUDY**

**FAO project helps improve use of wild fruit trees to supplement diets and incomes in rural communities**

30 June 2004, Katima Mulilo, Namibia – Green, fertile floodplains and perennial wetlands mark much of the Caprivi.

The region comprises 500 kilometres of grass and forests, irrigated by the Okavango and Zambezi Rivers whose seasonal flooding forces people to evacuate their homes and lands each year.

The northeastern communities cultivate sorghum, millet and maize on the fertile ground, but the nearby bush and forests have always been an important source of nutritious wild fruits. In the regions of Caprivi and Kavango, about 66 wild fruit tree species have been identified that contribute daily to the diets and income of the local communities, mostly during the rainy season when the crops are not ready for harvest.

“The Kavango and Caprivians have beyond a doubt accumulated sound traditional knowledge and understanding on the utilization of their indigenous fruit tree species,” recognises Syaka Sadio, an FAO forestry expert, who initiated and supported a two-year community-based project to assist the Namibian Government in enhancing the contribution of indigenous fruit trees to food security.

The project, “Domestication, post-harvest handling and marketing of selected indigenous fruit tree species,” aimed to provide local communities and national institutions with improved technologies for wild fruit tree domestication and processing for sustainable livelihoods.

“One of the major objectives of the project was to identify three preferred fruit tree species to be propagated throughout the region. Therefore, first it was essential to assess the potential of the
According to Mr Sadio, project activities included transfer of technology and capacity building through exchange of knowledge and training for professional staff and communities in the selection and domestication of fruit tree species and in harvesting, storage, processing and marketing of fruit products.

Through training, the project enhanced the skills of local women in harvesting and processing the fruit. “We used to only eat them fresh and throw the seeds away,” recalls Dorothee Manyemomala, a women’s group leader in Kasheshe. “Now, with the training here and a study tour I made last year in Malawi, where I learnt from other women, I can make juice, jam, jelly or drinks from marula,” she says. “I can even bake an eembe-marula cake for my children.” Dorothee sells pots of eembe jam to her neighbours for N$10 each.

John Sitwala, Senior Forestry Officer at the Katima Regional Office of the Directorate of Forestry, says that it will take some time before women’s groups become independent of the Directorate of Forestry and rent their own location for fruit processing and marketing activities. “We appeal to all local stakeholders to invest in indigenous fruit tree species for the benefit of local communities, domestic trade and environment protection through the preservation of the plant biodiversity,” he adds.

According to Esther Lusepani-Kamwi, Deputy Director of Forestry, Namibian Ministry of Environment and Tourism, who is also the project coordinator, the participation of small communities and farmers in fruit tree propagation activities should be intensified, as well as the involvement of more non-governmental organisations (NGOs). “The Indigenous Fruit Tree Task Force, at the national level, helps us to develop expansion strategies,” she notes. The task force was established by the government to allow members from various sectors dealing with indigenous fruit tree species to share their experiences and coordinate their activities.


**Women and health:**

An unhealthy environment can affect health in a wide variety of ways. Due to the complexity of the productive and reproductive roles that women play, they are more vulnerable to exposure to certain environmental health hazards in their daily activities.

For example, women’s health can be affected by the effort required to collect wood and water, particularly when deforestation and water shortages or water contamination lead to increases in distances which must be covered. The World Health Organisation estimates that the energy required by a woman to carry water may use up to one third of her daily calorie intake and pregnant women who must lift heavy loads of wood and water can be at greater risk of miscarriage.

Of the 3 million people who die annually from air pollution, more than two thirds die as a result of indoor air pollution – which usually results from the burning of solid fuels for cooking and heating. Biomass (plant or animal materials such as wood or dung) is still the main source of energy for 60-90% of households in developing countries. It is usually mothers and children in rural areas who are exposed to the effects of biomass fuel in poorly-ventilated houses, which can lead to respiratory infections, lung disease, low birth weight babies and premature death.
It is important for women to look critically at their environments, at home and at the workplace, and identify any issues that pose a threat to their health.

10.8.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender issues in environmental planning

Objective: To identify gender issues in environmental planning.

Time: 3 hours.

1. Show the film on Epupa Dam (see video resources in section 10.11 below) and ask participants (a) to list the pros and cons of building such a dam and (b) to identify gender issues relevant to each item. If the film is not available, read or hand out the following case study:

Case study: Epupa Dam

In the late 1980s, motivated by forecasts about Namibia’s increasing need for power, NamPower began to advocate the construction of a hydropower scheme in the Epupa area.

After preliminary studies that looked at different locations for the dam, technical and economic factors and environmental and social impacts, a Feasibility Study Report was published in draft in 1997. This report considered two possible dam sites: the Epupa Site and the Baynes Site.

Should the Epupa Dam be built on the Kunene River, the consequences for the Himba pastoralists living in and around the area would be severe. The losses would include: 160 ancestral graves (the Himba in the area frequently name this as their major objection to the proposed dam); 6000 palm trees, a source of “omarunga nuts” which are a key food resource in times of drought; and grazing land which could require 87,500 hectares to replace.

The Baynes Site would be reliant on water regulation at Gove Dame in Angola. According to the Feasibility Study, the Baynes Site is more expensive, but the international NGO International Rivers Network and the Namibian NGO Earthlife believe that many cost aspects of the Epupa site, including the human costs, have not been adequately considered. At the Baynes Site, 15 ancestral graves would be flooded and only a few palm trees lost.

The Feasibility Study Report is incomplete. The social investigation was suspended after the Deputy Minister of Mines and Energy gave a strong impression that the decision to build the dam had already been taken. As a result, members of the most directly affected Himba communities felt that their input was irrelevant and refused to continue with the social surveys.

Although the debate was shelved for some years, there is talk (as of 2006) of the project being revived.

based on Legal Assistance Centre, The Epupa Debate: A summary of some of the key issues around the proposed hydropower scheme on the lower Kunene River, 1998
2. Alternative energy sources and energy-saving devices can reduce resource depletion. Divide participants into groups and ask them to imagine that they are in charge of a project which aims to promote solar cooking stoves in a rural community. Ask them to make an action plan that includes three stages: (1) planning the project (2) implementing the project and (3) monitoring the project. Ask each group to list gender issues which should be taken into account at each stage. Below are some ideas:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community consultation &amp; needs assessment</th>
<th>Hold meetings at convenient times; ensure women are included and listened to.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project design</td>
<td>Ensure women are on the design team; involve local women in pilot projects; consider how local women and men can be directly involved in the project, eg providing labour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project implementation</td>
<td>Make sure trainers include some women; keep communication open, especially with local women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review and evaluate</td>
<td>Ensure local women’s voices are heard in the evaluation. What works for them? What doesn’t work? How can the project be improved?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.8.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Advocacy campaign against pollution

Objective: To design an effective campaign against pollution.

Time: 2 hours.

Read the following case study to participants.

**Case study: Factory rejects residents’ petition**

RAMATEX’s management has refused to receive a petition from Otjomuise residents and from civil society groups appealing for a pleasant solution to the issue of a noxious stench from the textile factories. Residents of Otjomuise and certain parts of Khomasdal have expressed their dissatisfaction, saying noxious fumes produced from Ramatex are becoming unbearable… Concerns raised in the petition relate to the current rate of pollution that presents potential health hazards to residents of Otjomuise, Oponganda, and Khomasdal… Residents are experiencing respiratory diseases and allergies. “People in the neighbourhood cannot open their windows. Instead of letting in fresh air they have to endure the rotten stink”…


Ask: Was this a successful advocacy campaign? If not, why not?

Split participants into groups and ask them to design a campaign on this issue, making sure that each aspect of the campaign is gender-sensitive:

Suggestions for inclusion are:
• **Set a clear objective** for the campaign (what you want to achieve), for example “to end pollution of the ...... (water, air, ground) by ........ factory within 3 months.” (Make sure that local women are involved in stating the objective.)

• **Gather some factual information.** Identify the relevant Act applicable to the type of pollution. (See Section 10.6 for Acts and international protocols, conventions etc.) These may be used to show that laws have been contravened. Give specific examples of the problem that you have identified if possible. For example, in this case you might want to say how many people have consulted a doctor or clinic about respiratory problems and allergies in the last three months. (Do any of the concerns have a particular impact on women or men? For example, in this case are there any special health consequences for pregnant women?)

• **Identify relevant stakeholders** who should be informed of your concerns and intentions. This way, you strengthen the networks and support for your identified goal. Some stakeholders in such a case could be the local hospital and schools.

• **Agree on the decision-makers that you need to target** in order to further your agenda against pollution, for instance the regional council who should be in possession of an Environment Impact Assessment report (see below). Include Members of Parliament and the relevant Ministries.

• **Consider what actions are most likely to influence the identified decision-makers.** Should you organise a personal meeting with the persons in question? Arrange a public demonstration? How can you involve the media to spread an understanding of the issue and increase pressure? (Are women amongst the spokespersons for the stakeholders?)

• **After taking action, evaluate how successful your strategy has been.** What worked and why? What did not work and why not? If it was not successful, do not give up. Instead, look into other ways of strengthening your campaign. (Your evaluation should collect opinions from both female and male stakeholders.)

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**Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA)**

While factories such as Ramatex may be viewed as important sources of employment, such initiatives are supposed to be preceded by an Environmental Impact Assessment. An Environmental Impact Assessment refers to the procedure of ensuring that the environmental implications of development activities are taken into account before decisions are made.

An Environmental Impact Assessment investigates the biological, physical, social and other environmental impacts from proposed projects. It should include predictions about the risks and consequences of projects, their alternatives, steps which can be taken to minimise or off-set any negative environmental impacts and steps to increase positive environmental impacts.

Public consultation is a fundamental component of most environmental impact assessments. Depending on the proposed project, there may be public hearings or meetings to solicit input from all relevant stakeholders. It is important for women to be aware of these processes, and to ensure that their concerns are raised and addressed.

The Namibian Cabinet adopted an Environmental Assessment Policy in 1994, but this policy had not yet been confirmed by legislation as of 2006.
10.9 Conservancies in Namibia

Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) is an initiative that grew out of concern over the dwindling natural resources in many communal areas. CBNRM creates incentives for communities to manage natural resources sustainably, by providing opportunities for rural residents to boost their livelihoods by generating income from natural resources such as wildlife and through enterprises such as tourism, trophy hunting and the sustainable harvesting of meat. Conservancies can also create employment such as game guards, field officers and tour guides.

Conservancies are part of the CBNRM approach. A conservancy is an area in which rural communities gain rights to use, manage and benefit from wildlife within specific, legally-defined areas. In this way, residents of communal areas gain the same rights to benefit economically from the wildlife as the people living in freehold areas. In 2006, more than seven million hectares of land in Namibia were being managed as communal-area conservancies, with 31 conservancies registered and more in the process of being established.

Conservancy members must elect a representative committee to manage the conservancy’s natural resources and distribute the income from these resources equitably, and there is a strong emphasis on the election of women leaders onto these conservancy management committees.

The conservancy movement in Namibia has benefited women considerably, and there has been a concerted effort to ensure that the movement is gender-sensitive. As of 2004, women constituted 50% of conservancy members. They held 30% of conservancy management committee positions and chaired three conservancies. Women also held the majority of new jobs generated by conservancies, boosting both their income and social status. Recognising that most conservancy game guards were men, many conservancies have employed female “Conservancy Resource Monitors” to monitor the use of non-wildlife resources (such as palm for basketry, thatching grass and veld foods), disseminate information to women and channel women’s views to decision-makers.

10.10 Sustainable exploitation of natural resources in Namibia

Namibia is rich in many resources, such as minerals, water, diverse animals, fish, trees and plants. All cultures exploit the environment, but this needs to be done in a sustainable way to leave a heritage for our children. Women have an important role to play in natural resource use and sustainability.

10.10.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Sustainable exploitation of natural resources

Objective: To give participants experience in analysing gender aspects of sustainable exploitation of natural resources.

Time: 1 hour

Read or hand out the following case studies.

For each ask –
- How will this benefit women?
- What could be some unexpected, undesirable outcomes?
- How could these be avoided?
Case Study 1: Hoodia – traditional knowledge rewarded

Hoodia is a group of succulent plants widely used traditionally by the San people of Southern Africa as an appetite suppressant, thirst quencher and as a cure for severe abdominal cramps, haemorrhoids, tuberculosis, indigestion, hypertension and diabetes.

The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) in South Africa isolated an active compound (P57) for appetite suppression from the plant. The CSIR licensed the rights for further development of P57 and the setting up of a sustainable production system to Phytopharm in the UK. Phytopharm in turn sub-licensed the rights to Pfizer for development and global commercialisation.

In terms of a benefit-sharing agreement with the CSIR, the relevant San communities in Southern Africa will benefit from the development of P57 – which is based on their traditional knowledge.

Case Study 2: Biogas – a technology with many benefits

Under the Namibia Renewable Energies Programme (NAMREP) the government intends to set up an institute for renewable energies, among them biogas. Biogas technology in Namibia has vast potential due to our large livestock wealth.

Biogas is a combination of methane and carbon dioxide that results from the decomposition of organic matter, mostly animal waste. Biogas provides a clean smoke-free fuel for cooking and home lighting and, as a by-product, a nutrient-rich fertiliser for crops.

In terms of social benefits, the use of biogas reduces the burden on women of collecting wood for fuel, prevents the depletion of forests and could lead to income generation through activities supported by its use.

Case Study 3: Poverty alleviation through hunting

Members of the San Khwe community will soon start benefitting from proceeds from the sale of trophy animals from the nearby Bwabwata National Park. Among the animals targeted for trophy hunting are elephant, buffalo, kudu, lion, leopard and crocodile.

The income generated through trophy hunting will go directly into a trust, on which ten representatives of the tribe serve. The trust’s members will decide which development projects – such as boreholes, schools, clinics, ploughs and seeds – the money will be used for.

Professional hunters will put in bids for the trophy animals and the community will decide which is the most beneficial in terms of prices and employment and training opportunities for locals. The community hopes its people will be employed as camp staff, skinners and trackers.

adapted from New Era, 15 June 2006
10.10.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Labour-saving devices which assist women to utilise environmental resources more effectively

Objective: To consider appropriate, environmentally-sound labour-saving devices which can benefit women.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

Explain that saving on time from women’s traditional work can transform women’s lives. It can enable women to engage in activities that generate income for their households, free up time to participate in community decision-making, make more time available for family and leisure activities and contribute to women’s improved health and energy. Many labour-saving devices are harmful to or deplete the environment, eg aeroplanes, cars and electrical kitchen equipment. New labour-saving devices are being developed which are also environmentally sound. Note that it is important that any technology aimed at being labour-saving be evaluated before it is implemented because some of the forms of technology may displace women from employment.

Split the participants into groups. Ask them to consider (a) what labour-saving devices are used in their community, (b) what labour-saving devices they know of which are not used in their community but could be, why they are not and how they could be introduced, and (c) imagine what devices could be invented which would help the workload of women (you may inspire a budding inventor with this one!).

Below is a list of some labour-saving technologies available in Namibia:

1. **Rural Electrification Programme**: This programme has currently reached the Ovamboland and Okavango rural areas. Rural electrification in these areas will enhance small scale manufacturing and agricultural processing.

2. Bearing in mind the high costs involved in electrification which may be beyond the reach for many households, the government has introduced the Solar Revolving Fund. The Fund aims at providing loans to members of the public to buy solar home systems and solar water heaters. Solar power is very workable in Namibia, given our abundance of sunshine. Solar systems can be installed in rural homes by village technicians, thus contributing to sustainable job creation in the process. Use of solar energy is recommended for schools and clinics in remote parts of the country, where connection to the national power grid could take some time.

3. **Alternative food processing and drying techniques**: Only a small proportion of women in Namibia have access to food processing machines. Mills are especially recommended for the processing of grains given that women and girls spend an average of fifty hours a month processing millet.

4. **Alternative energy sources** like the use of biogas, locally made charcoal bricks, energy-saving ovens and solar energy could be utilised to reduce the amount of wood that is used as fuel. The Rural Development Centre in Oshana is piloting programmes to assess the effectiveness of these technologies.

5. For transport, donkey carts can be designed in a way that improves water and crop transportation. This is another project of the Rural Development Centre in Oshana.

6. Improved water collection is necessary within most households. Use of rain gutters to trap water into tanks and water harvesting in the fields should be encouraged. One particular innovation that stands out in the improvement of water collection.
collection is the **aquaroller**. The aquaroller is a water barrel that can be pushed. It was first tested during the 1992 drought in Namibia. It was introduced to female-headed households by the Household Food Security Programme, and it halved the number of trips and amount of time spent to fetch water. This in turn translated into more water for households, increased involvement of men in water collection, easing the labour burden on women, and an overall improvement in hygiene standards.

7. Marula wine is very popular in northern Namibia. It reportedly has a high vitamin C content and a relatively high alcohol content (15% volume). The extraction of marula wine is regarded as women’s work. To make the wine, the juice is squeezed out of the marula fruits, fermented for a few days and cleaned by sieving the liquid. CRIAA (see section 10.11 below) has developed a **press to process marula oil** which easily extracts the juice from fresh marula fruits, being at least twice as quick and with nearly twice the yield as the traditional method.

8. The Marula seed comprises a hard cover and kernel. It is a woman’s task to remove nuts, which requires the use of an axe. Recently, a **manually operated decorticator (removing the inner part or nut from the hard outer shell)** for both marula and manketti nuts has been developed, making the process quicker, easier and safer.

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**CASE STUDY: Eudafano Women Co-operative**

Sam Nujoma:

*The Eudafano Women Co-operative is one of those Co-operatives that have become successful in their business ventures. Founded by women in 1999, the Eudafano Women Co-operative strives to promote the economic and social interests of its members by providing effective services and build the capacity of various informal women’s businesses to become profitable and contribute to economic growth. During the past three years, the Eudafano Women Co-operative co-ordinated the collection and sorting of marula kernels, melon seeds and traditional baskets from member associations and marketed the items on behalf of its members. In addition, they have also started a production venture to process marula kernels and melon seeds into oils, cosmetics and soaps for the domestic market and export.*

This initiative was started by CRIAA SADC, with five rural women’s groups. The Eudafano Women’s Cooperative uses a business model that brings together rural communities with leading business partners such as The Body Shop International (which has over 2000 shops in more than 52 countries). Today, close to 6000 women deliver kernels and seeds to the EWC processing factory, where oil and juice is extracted and prepared for local customers and international buyers. The broad aims of the cooperative are to market the oil, build the economy of the country, help women to earn a fair wage and protect and develop the natural environment. The net result of this smart partnership is that Namibia’s natural resources will not only lift this generation out of poverty, but could do so for generations to come. The women own and run the cooperative and are involved in the complete processing of their product. Rural women producers are now earning additional cash income from an intensified traditional activity they can carry out at home in their spare time. They report that they earn much more than money; gaining a sense of independence, competence and confidence from their efforts, as well as creating a lifeline not only for today, but for tomorrow, as many use the money to educate their children.

*Eudafeno is an Oshiwambo word for “collaborative effort”*
*More information is available from the Centre for Research Information Action in Africa (CRIAA SADC), Namibia. See section 10.11 below.*
10.11 RESOURCES

Publications:

These publications may be useful for training purposes:


These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module:


Videos:

- *River of Memory*, 1999. SA Directors Craig Matthew & Joëlle Chesselet. Documents Himba leaders’ moving and eloquent protests against the building of a hydropower dam on their land along the Kunene River. (26 minutes)

Key organisations:

- The goal of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism is to maintain and rehabilitate essential ecological processes and life-support systems, to conserve biological diversity and to ensure that the utilisation of natural resources is sustainable.

  **Ministry of Environment and Tourism**  
  **Department of Natural Resource Management**  
  FGI Building, Post Street Arcade  
  Private Bag 13346  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 2812111  
  Fax: 061 229936

- The Ministry of Mines and Energy promotes investment in and regulation of the mineral and energy sectors, and works to minimise the impact of exploitation of mineral and energy resources on the environment.

  **Ministry of Mines and Energy**  
  Mines and Energy Building, 1 Aviation Road  
  Private Bag 13297  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 284 8111  
  Fax: 061 238 643  
  E-mail: info@mme.gov.na  
  Website: [http://www.mme.gov.na/default.htm](http://www.mme.gov.na/default.htm)
The objectives of the **Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry** are to facilitate the empowerment of communities to manage their agricultural resources in a sustainable way and improve agricultural incomes; to ensure improvement in households’ food security; to ensure access to reliable water supply for households and other economic uses; and to assist and advise on the land reform process.

**Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry**  
Government Office Park, Luther Street  
Private Bag 13184  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 208 7111  
Fax: 061 229961  
Website: http://www.grnnet.gov.na/Nav_frames/Gov_launch.htm

The Centre for Research Information Action in Africa (CRIAA SA-DC) develops projects for sustainable development and marketing of indigenous natural resources, such as Ximenia oil, Devil’s Claw, Marula products and wild silk, to contribute to the capacity of marginalised communities.

**CRIAA SA-DC**  
22 Johann Albrecht Street  
PO Box 23778  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 23 2293  
E­mail: criaawhk@iafrica.com.na  
Website: www.criaasadc.org

The **Desert Research Foundation of Namibia (DRFN)** is dedicated to creating and furthering awareness and understanding of arid environments and developing the capacity, skills and knowledge to manage arid environments appropriately.

**DRFN**  
7 Rossini Street, Windhoek West  
PO Box 20232  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 377 500  
Fax: 061 230 172  
E­mail: info@drfn.org.na  
Website: www.drfn.org.na

**Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC)** seeks to link conservation and the sustainable use of wildlife and other natural resources to the social and economic development of rural communities. It operates as a field-based implementing agency in the Kunene and Caprivi regions.

**IRDNC**  
2nd Floor, Kenya House, Robert Mugabe Avenue  
PO Box 24050  
Windhoek  
Tel: 061 228 506  
Fax: 061 228 530  
E­mail: irdnc@iafrica.com.na  
Website: www.irdnc.org.na

**NACOBTA**’s central objective is to provide rural communities with a voice in the tourism industry. The services it provides to beneficiaries are training in tourism, business skills, and tour guiding; advice on business plans, product development, administrative financial systems, performance indicator data systems, and management structures; marketing; sourcing funding for tourism infrastructure and product development.
The aims of the Namibia Nature Foundation (NNF) are to promote sustainable development, the conservation of biological diversity and natural ecosystems, and the wise and ethical use of natural resources. Its services include project and programme co-ordination, facilitation and support, financial services and accountability in the management and administration of funds, knowledge of the Namibian environment, biodiversity conservation and sustainable development issues, experience in project and programme planning, development, management and administration.

Namibia Nature Foundation
4th Floor, Kenya House, Robert Mugabe Avenue
PO Box 245
Windhoek
Tel: 061 261778
Fax: 061 248344
E-mail: sw@nnf.org.na
Website: http://www.nnf.org.na

The Rural Development Centre, Oshana, falls under the Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development.

Rural Development Centre, Oshana
Ongwediva Main Road (near Ongwediva College of Education)
Private Bag 5543
Oshakati
Tel: 065 220 441

Namibia Environment Education Network (NEEN) works to strengthen environmental educational processes for equitable and sustainable environmental management choices through strengthened education policy, networking, resource materials and training.

NEEN
Rössing Foundation, Rand Street
Khomásdal
PO Box 20746
Windhoek
Tel: 061 211 721

The Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment is a non-profit Environmental Trust, whose mission is to support sustainable development in Southern Africa through promoting the effective and efficient use of Environmental Assessment as a planning tool. It has a number of training resources on environmental assessments, including resources on how to encourage public participation in these assessments.

SAIEA Head Office
PO Box 6322
Ausspannplatz
Windhoek
Tel: +264 61 220579
Fax: +264 61 259183
Executive Director: Dr Peter Tarr, Peter.Tarr@saiea.com
Website: www.saiea.com/
11.1 **Objective of the module**

- To raise awareness of the need to eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl child, in order to ensure the girl child’s protection and equality in all spheres of life.

11.2 **Target groups**

- Girls and boys
- Teachers
- Parents
- Traditional leaders and church leaders

11.3 **Why focus on the girl child?**

According to the National Gender Policy, there are ample indicators that the girl child is discriminated against from the earliest stages of life, through her childhood and into adulthood. This occurs in Namibia, throughout Africa and in the rest of the world – to a greater or lesser degree. Girls are often treated as inferior and are culturally and socially conditioned to put their needs last, thus undermining their integrity and self-esteem.

Gender-biased media portrayals, formal and informal educational processes – including curricula, educational materials and practices, teachers’ attitudes, such as the abuse of girl-learners by male teachers, and classroom interaction -continue to contribute and reinforce gender inequalities.

Although the enrolment of girls at the primary and secondary school level in Namibia is approximately the same as that for boys, boys have continued to do better in all aspects of education. Girls have continued to enrol in stereotyped “female” subjects. Other factors which have affected girls’ school life are cultural attitudes, child labour, early marriages and teenage pregnancies,

Namibia should eliminate all obstacles which prevent girls and children who are marginalised (eg children with disabilities and street children) from developing their full potential and skills through equal access to education and training, nutrition and physical and mental health care.
11.4 Legal framework

The Namibian Constitution protects children’s rights specifically, as well as dealing with non-discrimination, compulsory education and child labour. Here is the key provision on children’s rights:

**Article 15 Children’s Rights**

1. Children shall have the right from birth to a name, the right to acquire a nationality and, subject to legislation enacted in the best interests of children, as far as possible the right to know and be cared for by their parents.

2. Children are entitled to be protected from economic exploitation and shall not be employed in or required to perform work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with their education, or to be harmful to their health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral, or social development. For the purposes of this paragraph children shall be under the age of sixteen (16) years.

3. No children under the age of fourteen (14) years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine, save under conditions and circumstances regulated by Act of Parliament. Nothing in this paragraph shall be construed as derogating in any way from Paragraph (2).

4. Any arrangement or scheme employed on any farm or other undertaking, the object or effect of which is to compel the minor children of an employee to work for or in the interest of the employer of such employee, shall for the purposes of Article 9 be deemed to constitute an arrangement or scheme to compel the performance of forced labour.

5. No law authorising preventive detention shall permit children under the age of sixteen (16) years to be detained.

Namibia is also a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, as well as to several other international agreements specifically pertaining to children including the following:

- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict

Namibia is in a state of transition with respect to laws pertaining to children. The key piece of Namibian legislation on children is the Children’s Act 33 of 1960 which Namibia inherited from South Africa at independence. The Children’s Act provides procedures for removing children from their homes when they are suffering from abuse or neglect, or are otherwise in need of care. Social workers report that some 400-500 children are removed from their homes each year by the courts because of various forms of abuse and neglect. Such children are placed in foster homes, often with extended family members, or in children’s homes. The Act also deals with adoption, and makes it a criminal offence to ill-treat or neglect a child or to contribute to the corruption of children (such as through child prostitution).

A forthcoming Child Care and Protection Bill will upgrade this framework, to give greater protection to children. The new law is expected to provide greater emphasis on preventative services to families, stressing the goal of family reunification and providing for greater monitoring and follow-up of placements to make sure that children do not remain in limbo.

As of 2006, Parliament is also in the process of considering a Children’s Status Bill that is expected to remove discrimination against children born outside of marriage and provide procedures for the appointment of a guardian for children who do not have a responsible adult to care for them.
Another forthcoming piece of legislation is a Child Justice Bill that will provide for screening of young offenders and opportunities to divert first-time offenders out of the criminal justice system and into programmes that can help them to turn their lives around. Such a screening and diversion programme is already being implemented by the Child Justice Project of the Legal Assistance Centre in partnership with government.

Children have been afforded new protection against violence and abuse by the Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000, the Combating of Immoral Practices Amendment Act 7 of 2000 and the Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003. Special procedures for children who must testify in court in criminal cases are contained in the Criminal Procedure Amendment Act 24 of 2003, which is expected to be replaced by similar provisions in the Criminal Procedure Act 25 of 2004 once it comes into force.

11.5 Exploring the obstacles faced by the girl child

11.5.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Negative stereotypes

Objective: To raise awareness of and challenge negative stereotypes about the girl child.

Time: 1 hour.

Ask participants to brainstorm what the negative cultural stereotypes, practices and attitudes that discriminate against the girl child are. Make sure the following are included:

- Girls are brought up to obey men and boys.
- Girls are not told about sex and contraception and may not discuss these with boys – “only prostitutes talk about condoms”.
- Girls are brought up not to question their elders.
- Girls should do housework and childcare at home (and boys need not).
- Girls should do “caring jobs” – such as nursing and social work.
- Girls are not good at maths and science
- Good girls do not go out at night
- Girls who wear sexy clothes are “asking” to be raped.

Discuss the answers. If there is one key issue that strikes a chord with participants, use this for the action planning (see section 11.6 below).

11.5.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Activity clock

Objective: To raise awareness of the demands the girl child faces and the impact of those demands.

Time: 2 hours.

Split the participants into groups. Give each group 2 pieces of flip chart paper and ask them to draw 1 large clock on each. The clocks should show the numbers. Give each group a topic (some groups can do the same topic), such as:

- an 8-year-old girl in a rich family based in a rural area on a school day, then an 8-year-old boy in a similar family
- a 14-year-old girl in a poor family in an urban area in the holidays, then a 14-year-old boy in a similar family
- a 12-year-old girl in a poor family in a rural area whose mother is sick with HIV/AIDS, then a 12-year-old boy in a similar family
Ask them to agree what the family of the child is like (parents, older or younger brothers and sisters, where they live, if they have livestock, a car, a washing machine, etc). Then ask them to agree on the roles, tasks and responsibilities of that child, writing them next to the time on the clock that the child would normally start and finish each activity (30 mins).

Ask the groups to put up their clocks on the wall, and invite everyone to look at the results.

Ask:
- What struck you most as you looked at the amount of time spent by boys and girls on each activity?
- What roles and responsibilities were common to both girls and boys?
- In what ways did money or lack of it contribute to the time girls and boys spent on each activity?
- What is the impact of any differences on girls? (eg if girls have less time they may not be able to do so much homework)

11.6 Discussion of specific problems facing girl children

Educating girls is the key single factor that most promotes a country’s development:
- Educated girls are more likely to be able to contribute to the economics of the household and the community.
- Educated girls are more likely to access and use information about family planning.
- Educated girls are more able to protect themselves against HIV/AIDS.
- Educated girls are less likely to be subjected to domestic violence.

Although girls and boys register in schools in equal numbers at primary level, there are factors which affect the girl child’s ability to continue her education. Some of these factors were explored in Module 3. Participants should discuss the issues below.

11.6.1 Teenage pregnancy

The Policy on Pregnancy among Learners in Schools is discussed in Module 3.

Review the contents of that policy and consider the following points:
- Teenage pregnancy has detrimental socio-economic and health consequences. Teenage mothers are more likely to suffer from severe complications during delivery of babies, leading to higher death rates for themselves and their children.
- The Ministry of Education’s Code of Conduct for the Teaching Service, circulated in March 2004, explicitly prohibits love affairs and exploitative acts (such as gift-giving) between a teacher and a learner.
- Researchers found that pregnant teenagers had generally given up on school before they became pregnant. This was due to alcohol abuse in the family, poverty, being expelled and fatalism regarding employment opportunities (quoted in The Namibian, 18 October 2005).
11.6.1.1  **TRAINING EXERCISE: Teenage pregnancy**

**Objective:** To consider the policy on teenage mothers attending school and its implications.

**Time:** 30 minutes.

Discuss the following case. What do participants think is the best outcome in such a situation for:

- Utjiua?
- Seuaa, Utjiua’s mother?
- the father of the child?
- the child?

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**Teen pregnancy dilemma**

Earlier this year the High Court dismissed an urgent application by Seuaa Karuaihe-Samupofu, whose 18-year-old daughter, Utjiua Karuaihe, had been denied re-admission to Windhoek High School because she had given birth to a baby in December 2004.

Karuaihe-Samupofu argued that denying her daughter access to school was illegal, as it undermined Utjiua’s constitutional right to education.

Government countered that the policy should be seen as an attempt to balance Utjiua’s right to education with the fundamental rights of her child […] “Children shall have the right from birth to a name; the right to acquire a nationality; and, subject to legislation enacted in the best interests of children, as far as possible, the right to know and be cared for by their parents.” […]

The policy regarding pregnant students has been criticised for being discriminatory, because the schoolboys – or teachers – who impregnate the girls seldom face any consequences, and very few schools take action against them. […]

“Namibia is living in the past,” said gender activist Eva Maria Bernhard. “Why does a child need only a mother’s love and not the father’s love … [shouldn’t] both parents of the child stay home?”

*The Namibian,*
31 October 2005

Note that Utjiua’s mother was able and willing to look after Utjiua’s child while she was at school.
11.6.2 Violence against girls

Violence includes physical, sexual, verbal, emotional, psychological, and economic abuse. See Module 8 for more information. Ask participants to take note of the following points:

- One in three women interviewed in a Windhoek study reported having had their first sexual experience before the age of 17. Of these, one-third reported that this was forced or coerced sex. (Ministry of Health and Social Services, An assessment of the nature and consequences of intimate male-partner violence in Windhoek, Namibia, 2004)
- Girls are more vulnerable to HIV transmission because of their lack of power to negotiate safer sex, as well as biological considerations.

11.6.2.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Killing of Himba learner

Objective: To consider the impact of culture on the development of the girl child.
Time: 1 hour.

Ask participants to discuss the gender implications of the following case:

Teen killer gets 15 years

THE Outapi Regional Court has sentenced a man to 15 years in prison for murdering a Himba girl because she wore modern clothes, not traditional attire, to school. […]

Vaarakana Muundjwa from Omitjokakane village near Ruacana was convicted of fatally beating Poketeki Tjindunda (14) with sticks on February 20 last year.

The case was also heard in the traditional court at the village. Muundjwa was ordered to pay the victim’s family 90 head of cattle.

The Outapi Regional Court heard that Muundjwa, who is related to the victim, was enraged when he heard that she was not wearing her traditional attire when she went to school.

She had enrolled at the Otjimukaka Mobile School shortly before the murder, in response to a campaign by teachers to get all children in the area into the education system.

On February 20 2003, Muundjwa, accompanied by a friend, Mukavango Tjaore, went to the school to investigate reports that the girl was not wearing her traditional Himba dress. He found her in civilian clothes.

He tied the child’s arms together and forced her to walk home. Along the way, he cut a branch from a mopane tree and beat her all over her body.

Tjaore testified in court that Muundjwa broke five mopane branches on the girl, cutting a new one each time and beating her continuously until she collapsed and died. He testified that Tjindunda had pleaded with Muundjwa to let her rest and drink some water, but he had refused.

Dr Jury Vasin, who conducted the post-mortem, testified that Tjindunda had died of head injuries. Bruises and abrasions on her neck were clearly visible on photographs submitted to the court.

Muundjwa did not deny the charges, but said he had not realised that she would die of the beating.

Magistrate Noa rejected this, saying that the crime was “horrifying”.

“The deceased died a most painful and brutal death. You repeatedly beat her for a long time before she eventually succumbed to death,” the Magistrate said when he sentenced Muundjwa.

He pointed out that the victim was an innocent young girl whom Muundjwa was supposed to give care, love and comfort as a guardian.

The Magistrate also took into account that Muundjwa was a first-time offender that he had shown remorse and had compensated the victim’s family by paying them 90 head of cattle.

The Namibian, 18 October 2004
11.6.3 Sugar daddies

Young schoolgirls may expect gifts from their boyfriends in exchange for sexual favours, especially if the boyfriends are older with more financial security. The “sugar daddy” phenomenon perpetuates gender stereotypes amongst both boys and girls, and leads to negative ideas about both masculinity and femininity:

- Girls look to men to provide financial security instead of looking for ways to provide for their own needs independently. This can undermine girls’ self-esteem.
- Boys and men learn to view girls as sexual objects which can be purchased and therefore controlled.
- Girls learn to compete with other girls for men, and to measure their own value by the wealth of their boyfriend.
- Boys and men believe that they are being valued for their wealth and their material possessions, instead of for themselves. This can undermine boys’ self-esteem.

11.6.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Discouraging “sugar daddies”

Objective: To consider the implications of “sugar daddy” relationships.

Time: 2 hours.

The following incident prompted much discussion of the “sugar daddy” phenomenon during 2004. Give the press clipping to a group of 4 participants to prepare a role play. The characters are:

- Ndeshihafela Sadrach, 17-year-old girl
- Deputy Inspector General Fritz Nghiishililwa, 45-year-old police officer
- Veronica Naidila, Ndeshihafela’s aunt
- Aune Sadrach, Ndeshihafela’s 21-year-old sister.

After the role play, ask:

- What are the gender issues involved?
- What could each of the different people involved have done which may have avoided this tragedy?
- Discuss the different ideas
- If this issue is a priority for the participants, develop an action plan (See section 11.8.)

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I wasn’t wrong – she liked it, says top cop

GRADE 10 PUPIL Ndeshihafela hung herself on June 5 in a Windhoek home, leaving a note in which she said the cause of her action could be established from her boyfriend, top police officer Nghiishililwa.

The suicide sparked angry reaction among family members of the young woman, who blamed the officer for her death, saying that she was still a 17-year-old school pupil.

Yesterday Nghiishililwa, who says he is 45, finally broke his silence, saying he was not to blame for Ndeshi’s death. He charged that the allegations against him were “blatant lies” and claimed the girl was 20 years old and not 17 as reported by the family.

“There is no case against me to answer. She had the capacity to give consent,” he said. He claimed it was a “matter of jealousy” on the part of those who he accused of contributing to her death by opposing their relationship.

Meanwhile, the dispute over Ndeshi’s age continues. The family have provided a birth certificate, authenticated by the Ministry of Home Affairs, that gives her birth date as March 3 1986. In turn Nghiishililwa has provided the media
“Sugar mommies” – could this happen in Namibia?

There are some reports of sugar mommies in Namibia. In other countries the phenomenon is linked to tourism:

**Gambia retraining 'bumsters' to shake sex tourism tag**

The young Gambian man … calls out to a European woman walking along a wide golden beach… “Hey nice lady! Nice lady, I want to talk to you” he yells. She keeps walking…. The young man is one of Gambia’s “bumsters”, youths who offer to walk with tourists as they visit markets and beaches… and who fend off the attentions of rivals for a small fee.

What is left unsaid but understood is the possibility of a more intimate relationship that could be a ticket, however temporary, out of poverty. A week-long relationship could mean three hot meals a day for the Gambian man and a luxury hotel bed to sleep in, plus money for beer or cigarettes….

A lasting relationship can mean continued financial support – invaluable in a country ranked as the 25 poorest in the world – and, if all goes well, a visa to live in Europe.

The article goes on to say that a British hotel owner has selected a group of these young men and sent them to train as tourist guides. Part of their training involves learning how to recognise and report sex tourism involving an underage person.

Ask participants – could this happen in Namibia? What are the gender issues involved?
11.6.4 Stereotyping in subjects taken at school

Traditionally girls have enrolled for subjects such as home economics, needlework, hotel management and catering. This can lead to a concentration of women in lower-paid employment opportunities. Steps can be taken to encourage both boys and girls to consider a full range of career options:

- Guidance teachers and parents can be encouraged to counsel girls about career choices which are non-stereotypical.
- Girls need contact with female role models from a range of different careers.
- One local newspaper features regular profiles of women in fields which are not traditionally thought of as being “female”, such as auto mechanics and engineering.

Ask participants to suggest other steps that could be taken.

11.6.5 Child labour

The Constitution of Namibia states that “Children are entitled to be protected from economic exploitation and shall not be employed in or required to perform work that is likely to be hazardous or interfere with their education...” Article 15(2).

The Namibia Child Activities Survey conducted by the Ministry of Labour in 1999 found:

- Of children aged 6 to 18 years, 16% were found to be working – of these working children, 95.4% were in the rural areas.
- 79.9% of working children were still attending school or a training institution, although 6.9% of working children never attended school.
- A quarter of all working children (40% of girls and 34% of boys) work every day of the week. Girls tend to do domestic work more than boys “and for domestic work, there is no closing time except when the master goes to bed”.

Ask participants:

- When does helping in the house or the fields become child labour? (The following definitions may help.)
- What are the implications of child labour?
INTERNATIONAL DEFINITION OF “WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR”

The term the worst forms of child labour comprises:

(a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;
(b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;
(c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;
(d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

ILO Convention 182, ratified by Namibia in 2000

RESTRICTIONS ON CHILD LABOUR IN NAMIBIA

(1) A person must not employ, or require or permit, a child to work in any circumstances prohibited in terms of this section.

(2) A person must not employ a child under the age of 14 years.

(3) In respect of a child who is at least aged 14, but under the age of 16 years, a person –

(a) must not employ that child in any circumstances contemplated in Article 15 (2) of the Namibian Constitution [Children are entitled to be protected from economic exploitation and shall not be employed in or required to perform work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with their education, or to be harmful to their health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. For the purposes of this Sub-Article children shall be persons under the age of sixteen (16) years.] – ...

(c) must not employ that child in respect of any work between the hours of 20h00 and 07h00; or [unless permitted by the Minister] ... on any premises where –

(i) work is done underground or in a mine;
(ii) construction or demolition takes place;
(iii) goods are manufactured;
(iv) electricity is generated, transformed or distributed;
(v) machinery is installed or dismantled; or
(vi) any work-related activities take place that may place the child’s health, safety, or physical, mental spiritual, moral or social development at risk.

Section 3, Labour Act 15 of 2004

11.6.6 Early marriages

The age for consent to civil marriage in Namibia is 18. There is no statute setting a minimum age for customary marriage, and reports have been heard of girls as young as 13 being married in customary marriages. In the age group 15-19, 1.7% of girls are married compared to 0.1% of boys (Ministry of Health and Social Services, Namibia Demographic and Health Survey, 2000). Early marriage is a contributing factor to girls dropping out of school and can encourage teenage pregnancy, which has health, emotional and educational consequences for the young mother.
11.6.6.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Early marriage

Objective: To consider the negative implications of early marriage and preventative action.

Time: 1 hour.

Ask participants to discuss the following case study and list actions that can discourage or prevent early marriage.

Mary is an 18-year-old Herero speaking female. In terms of her culture, it is acceptable for a girl as young as 13 years old to get married. She herself was 16 years old when she got married. “We had a traditional marriage.” She left school at the age of 14 years, shortly after she became pregnant with her first child. “My husband drank a lot and used to beat me.” When she became pregnant with her second child, she decided to sell kapana in order to supplement their income. “In the beginning all went well, but when I refused to give him money to support his drinking habit, he would come to the place where I was selling the kapana and cause a scene. It got so bad that my regular customers no longer wanted to buy from me.” Shortly after the birth of their second child she left him. Her husband does not pay maintenance towards the upbringing of their two children. She has difficulty finding employment as she has no proper education, and has to continue selling kapana. “I do not make enough money to support myself and my children. I will never get married again.”

11.7 Girl children with disabilities

The Convention on the Rights of the Child states that “a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life, in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child’s active participation in the community” (Article 23 (1)). Namibia’s National Disability Council Act 26 of 2004 identifies children with disabilities as one of the special target groups and aims to:

- provide parents of children with disabilities with information about available services so that they can make informed decisions about the needs of their children in cases where these children cannot do so themselves
- provide early stimulation and education to prevent developmental disabilities
- ensure that children with disabilities have equal opportunities and equal access to education, sports, recreation and health care.

In the rural areas of Namibia, people with disabilities are sometimes still tied to trees, or tied up in the house. This treatment often takes place because the care-givers do not know how to help or where to get support.

Girls with disabilities are subjected to multiple discrimination and stigma. Girls who are unable to contribute to household chores and have less likelihood of marriage are seen as an embarrassment and burden to the family. Girls with disabilities – particularly those who are visually impaired, physically impaired and mentally impaired – are also highly vulnerable to rape and sexual abuse.
11.7.1  **TRAINING EXERCISE: Case study on disability**

**Objective:** To consider discrimination against people with disabilities and how to combat such discrimination.

**Time:** 1 hour.

Give out the following case study, or read it to the group. Ask:

- Why did the villagers abuse Sam?
- What are the problems experienced by people with disabilities? (Make sure that participants include poverty and vulnerability to sexual abuse.)
- What needs to be done to stop discrimination against people with disabilities in Namibia?
- What actions can communities take to protect people with disabilities?
- Why might a disability be a greater problem for a girl child than a boy child?

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**Mentally disabled find an open heart**

As a young boy, Sam spent his days wandering around his village in the north of Namibia, scratching for leftovers in pots and rubbish bins for food. Abandoned by his family, the nine-year-old mentally disabled boy often fought with village dogs for their bones – and to this day once he gets hold of a bone, he refuses to give it up. The villagers constantly abused and swore at him, and chased him away whenever he came near to them.

But now, five years later, Sam has finally found a safe haven, a place where he is loved and cared for and no longer has to scrounge for food. His new home is called Hephata – ‘Open your Heart’ – in the heart of Katutura where 12 mentally challenged people of all ages, races and cultures live in peace and harmony.

The home was established 14 years ago by Regina Katambolo, who previously worked as an assistant nurse in the psychiatric ward at the Windhoek’s old State Hospital. A single mother of two children, Regina soon began building close relationships with her patients, many of whom had been abandoned at the hospital by their families who were unable – or unwilling – to care for them or deal with the stigma. The same, she says, applies to many of her charges at Hephata. “Most of these people have families out there, but they don’t care. They are too busy carrying on with their own lives rather than to have to worry about their handicapped family member. They are a forgotten people,” said Regina.…..

Today patients from across the country are referred to the centre. Regina is passionate about her charges and constantly fights against the stigma and physical and mental abuse that many people with mental illnesses face on a day-to-day basis.

One such person is Erica, whose family kept her chained to a tree to stop her wandering when she was left alone on the farm where she lived. Social welfare officers who investigated Erica’s plight brought her to Windhoek, where she joined Regina’s close-knit “family”.

But a year later her family arrived and took her home. Now, says Regina, “I fear for her safety. I am sure things have gone back to what they were with her once again chained to a tree and not being properly fed”....

Regina, who wears a smile constantly, says she would not want to be doing anything else. “They are my children and even though the world has forgotten them I will never throw them away. All they need is love and of that I have much to give”.

from an article in *The Namibian*, 17 October 2003
11.8 Street children

The number of orphans and other vulnerable children (OVCs) in Namibia, including AIDS orphans, was estimated by UNESCO in 2004 to be 114,000. An OVC is a child under the age of 18 whose mother, father, both parents, or a primary caregiver has died, and who is in need of care or protection. Not all OVCs are street children, but as the HIV/AIDS pandemic decimates families, they are less able to absorb children from the extended family.

There is no official number of street children in Namibia, but the Big Issue estimated in 2005 that there were 1,000 street children in Windhoek alone. Street children, as well as not receiving adequate food, education, health care, and emotional support are extremely vulnerable to sexual abuse. Children on the street may turn to sex work to survive or to barter for shelter or protection.

11.8.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Street children

Objective: To understand the reasons street children turn to sex work.

Time: 1 hour 30 minutes.

“THE NIGHT SHIFT”

Magdalena (15) ran away from home at the age of 10, with just a Grade 3 to her name. She hails from Karasburg. She came to Windhoek because she had heard “what a nice place it is”. On the streets she made friends with other young girls and when she was 13 they showed her how to make “fast money” by sleeping with men… “I can’t make money any other way, because people tell me I am too young to work…”

Paulus (15) comes from the Oshakati area and has never been to school. He came to Windhoek when he was 11 and hooked up with other Oshiwambo-speaking boys who live in the Eros riverbed. Paulus was 12 when he began sleeping with the “boere”…. “I don’t think it’s a good thing to do because a man shouldn’t sleep with another man but if money is involved, and big money, then it is a good idea because there is no other way out for us, and no other work.

Maria is one of many young teenage girls working on the streets of Windhoek. She is 14 years old and has been selling her body for the past year. … “I don’t think it is a bad idea [doing this work] because there is no other way to survive and there is also no work … I don’t always use a condom, only if the client insists, so every two to three months I go to the clinic for an AIDS test just to make sure I’m not sick…. I hope that one day I’ll get a good job so I can look to the future. If God can help me then I can change my life so that I can help myself and I can leave this bad work”.


Distribute the article and discuss with participants:

- Why do children run away, or come to the city at a young age?
- What other opportunities are there for them to earn money?
- What services can be put in place to assist street children?
11.9 **Action planning**

At the end of the discussion, if appropriate for the group, ask participants to work in small groups to produce an action plan for how to address one or more of the issues they discussed. This is an example:

**Preventing teenage pregnancy in ….. school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Who?</th>
<th>When?</th>
<th>End result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To ensure girls and boys receive sex education, including information on contraception (from grade 5)</td>
<td>1 class per term from grade 3</td>
<td>Life skills teacher or nurse or NGO</td>
<td>1 class per term (minimum)</td>
<td>Girls and boys know the facts about sex and contraception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To provide interesting and informative inputs on sex-related topics</td>
<td>• Invite local HIV/AIDS group to perform drama.</td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
<td>At least 3 times per year</td>
<td>Girls and boys receive information in interesting formats on the same theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Show films. (See film resources in section 11.10 below.)</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Invite speakers (such as a teenage mother).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set up a girl’s club as a forum for girls to discuss sexual and reproductive health issues, career choices, relationships and building self-esteem</td>
<td>Invite person from an organisation such as the Namibian Girl Child Organisation (contact details below) to give advice on setting up a club.</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
<td>Next week</td>
<td>Girls have an opportunity to discuss relevant issues in a safe setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make sure that all teachers know about the Code of Conduct for the Teaching Service</td>
<td>Give each teacher a copy. Make a big copy and stick it on a school wall.</td>
<td>Teacher D</td>
<td>This week</td>
<td>Teachers and learners know the rules of conduct which govern teacher/learner contact.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alert parents to factors leading to teenage pregnancy</td>
<td>Arrange a meeting between parents and teachers to discuss this topic.</td>
<td>Teacher E</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>Parents learn how to support teenage girls and help prevent teenage pregnancy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure that girls know where they can go for help with <strong>any</strong> issue</td>
<td>Publicise details of individual teachers and social workers who can advise girls and boys, and the existence of the Namibian Girl-Child Organisation and FAWENA (See section 11.10 below for more details.</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>At least once a year</td>
<td>Girls (and boys) know who they can turn to for independent advice on problems they are facing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11.10 RESOURCES

Publications:

These publications may be useful for training purposes:

- **Sara, life skills resources for today’s young people:** This is a series of comic books, videos, posters and teaching aids focusing on Sara, a young girl who refuses to be a victim and asserts her rights in a respectful way. In “The Trap”, Sara exposes the local sugar daddy and avoids sexual exploitation. Produced by UNICEF and local partners in southern and eastern Africa.

  These resources are available from:
  **Longman Namibia, Publishers & Booksellers**
  19 Joule Street
  PO Box 9251
  Eros
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 23 1214
  Fax: 061 22 4 019

  These publications are useful if you want to read more about the issues discussed in this module or find more statistics on women and the Namibian economy:


- Panduleni (Pandu) Hallonga, *A Study to Identify Adolescents’ Knowledge, Attitudes and Beliefs towards Teenage Pregnancy*, Ministry of Health & Social Services, 1993


- Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare, *3rd National Conference on Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children: “Are we meeting the needs of our OVC?”, 2005*


Videos:

- **Home Brewed Productions, *Kauna’s Way* (1999).** Sexual pressure from school teacher on young girl in a scholarship competition, her choices and their consequences. (45 minutes)

  Available from:
  **Home Brewed Productions**
  PO Box 60995
  Katutura
  Tel: 061 249 883

- **Legal Assistance Centre, *Whispers in the Wind* (2002).** A drama about domestic violence in Namibia, dealing with child abuse and HIV/AIDS, available in English only. (74 minutes)

- **Legal Assistance Centre, *This is Child Abuse* (2003).** Five short “cartoon” spots on subtle forms of child abuse collected in one video which can be useful to spark discussion on different forms of child abuse. (about 10 minutes)

  Available from:
  **Legal Assistance Centre**
  4 Korner Street
  PO 604
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 223 356
  Fax: 061 234 953
  E-mail: info@lac.org.na
  Website: www.lac.org.na.

- **Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *Hostel monologues 1 – The virgin pumpkin* (2006).** Fly is a young boy coming from the farm and starting high school. Bullied, isolated, staying on his own at the school hostel, he starts regretting his former life. Until he meets with the hip-hop gangsters. (25 minutes)

- **Ombetja Yehinga Organisation, *Hostel monologues 2 – The Lucy Bum Bum group* (2006).** Zelda is a young woman coming from a middle class, Christian family. She is sent to complete her studies to the best school in town. In the hostel, she meets with Lucy Bum Bum and her friends. (25 minutes)

  See Ombetja Yehinga Organisation contact details below.

Key organisations:

- **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare** has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.

  **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare**
  Juvenis Building
  Independence Avenue
  Private Bag 13359
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 3111
  Fax: 061 238 941
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na
FAWENA (Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia) is the Namibian chapter of the regional NGO, Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE). Its programmes focus on empowerment activities for the girl child, including support for girls through the setting up of girls’ clubs and the provision of scholarships for girls from marginalised communities (400 girls are currently benefiting from FAWENA scholarships). FAWENA also provides gender sensitisation training for teachers.

FAWENA
c/o Ministry of Education
Government Office Park
Luther Street
Windhoek
Tel: 061 293 3143
E-mail: fawena@mec.gov.na

The Namibian Girl-Child Organisation (NGCO) aims to prepare girl children to take leadership positions, demonstrate that early motherhood is not a viable option, reduce drop-out rates for girls and work together to solve problems facing the girl child in order to educate, empower and liberate the girl child so she can take her rightful place in Namibian society. NGCO clubs exist in a number of schools.

Namibian Girl-Child Organisation (NGCO)
Jakob Marengo Tutorial College
Mungunda Street
Khomasdal
Tel: 061 262 021
E-mail: nagirlch@iway.na

LifeLine/Childline Namibia provides a confidential telephone counselling service, face-to-face counselling by appointment and a number of programmes including the Childline Lifeskills Schools Programme Focusing on the Prevention and Awareness of Sexual Abuse, Molestation, Domestic Violence and HIV/AIDS. LifeLine also has an outreach centre in Rundu (tel: 066 255 354) and offices in Ondangwa (tel: 0652 46252) and Eenhana (tel: 081 127 8272).

LifeLine/Childline Namibia
45 Bismarck Street
PO Box 5477
Windhoek
Tel: 061 22 6889 (office)
061 23 2221 (crisis)
Fax: 061 22 6894
E-mail: llinenam@mweb.com.na

UNICEF works with others to overcome the obstacles that poverty, violence, disease and discrimination place in a child’s path.

UNICEF
First floor, Sanlam Building
154 Independence Avenue
PO Box 1706
Windhoek
Tel: 061 204 6111
Fax: 061 204 6206
E-mail: nmbregistry@unicef.org
Ombetja Yehinga Organisation (OYO) aims to decrease the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic and related social issues amongst young people in the Kunene, Erongo and Khomas regions. Young people in these regions publish a monthly magazine which often raises issues of reproductive health.

Ombetja Yehinga Organisation (OYO)
PO Box 97217
Windhoek
Tel: 061 254915
Fax: 061 254894
E-mail: philippe@ombetja.org
12.1 Objectives

- To educate and enhance the knowledge of persons at all levels about existing laws and how laws are made, so that they can understand their rights and obligations.

12.2 Target groups

- Law enforcement officers
- Learners
- Teachers
- Traditional and community leaders
- Social workers
- Community members, including the unemployed

12.3 Why is gender and legal affairs important?

As the National Gender Policy points out, the Constitution of Namibia gives strong protection to gender equality:

**Article 10**

(1) All persons shall be equal before the law.

(2) No persons may be discriminated against on the grounds of sex, race, colour, ethnic origin, religion, creed or social or economic status.

The Constitution also endorses affirmative action to guarantee women’s full participation in the social, economic and political life of our country.

Namibia is signatory to a number of international conventions on the rights of women and has made a number of international pledges on gender equality (see section 12.8 below). The Namibian Parliament has also enacted many national laws aimed at advancing gender equality in concrete practical ways, but some Namibian laws still lag behind the goals and promises of the Constitution and many discriminatory practices remain in place under both general and customary laws.

Thus, there is still a need for law reform – and both women and men need to be given an opportunity to make inputs into the law reform process, to ensure that new laws will be truly gender-sensitive.
However, just enacting good laws is not sufficient. Legal literacy is an important prerequisite for equality and the full enjoyment of human rights by all Namibian citizens. There is a need for all Namibian citizens to be educated on what existing laws say and how to use them.

12.4 **What is “law”?**

**Definition:** Law is the whole system of rules that everyone in a country or society must obey (Oxford English Dictionary).

There are four main kinds of law in Namibia, which are listed below.

1. statutes
2. common law
3. international law
4. customary law.

Note that there are different customary laws for different communities, while the other types of law apply to everyone in Namibia.

The **Constitution** is the supreme law of Namibia. All other laws must be in line with it.

**Statutes** are laws that are passed by Parliament. At Independence, Namibia also inherited some statutes that were passed by other legislative bodies before Independence. Other words for statutes are “legislation” and “Acts of Parliament”.

**Common law** is the rules which are developed in individual court cases over the years. Most of our common law is Roman-Dutch law brought to South Africa from Europe by the colonisers, and then inherited by Namibia from South Africa. This law is now being developed by the Namibian courts. The Namibian Constitution recognises the common law as it presently exists in Namibia, provided it is not in conflict with the Constitution. The common law can be found in written form in reported court cases and in textbooks on law. Parliament can change the common law by passing a statute which says something different to the existing common law.

**Customary law** is the law that has developed over the years in different indigenous communities in Namibia. Questions involving customary law are usually decided by chiefs, headmen or other traditional leaders. Customary law is not usually written down. Parliament can change customary law by passing a statute that applies to all communities in Namibia.

**International law** is the law in international agreements that Namibia has entered into with other countries. All international agreements that are entered into are binding provided that they are in line with the Constitution. Article 144 of the Constitution says that “international agreements binding on Namibia under this Constitution form part of the law of Namibia”.

12.5 **Constitution and constitutional law**

The objective of this section is to acquaint participants with the concept of the Constitution and constitutional law and to ensure they know their basic rights and obligations as entrenched in Chapter 3 of the Namibian Constitution.

12.5.1 **Constitutional law**

**Definition:** Constitutional law is the body of law that interprets and applies the Constitution. Constitutional law defines the relationship between the different organs of the state – such as the judiciary (the courts), the legislature (Parliament) and the executive (the President and Cabinet). It also defines the relationship between the organs of the state and individuals.
The Constitution is the “Supreme Law” of Namibia. This means that all other laws must be tested against the Constitution. Any law that is in conflict with the Constitution is *unconstitutional*. In other words, it is not valid – it is not really a law and does not have to be obeyed. It is the job of the courts to decide whether a law is unconstitutional.

**Example:** Some statutes in Namibia say that if someone is convicted of a crime, that person can be punished by being struck with a cane (known as corporal punishment). But the Constitution says every organ of the state must have respect for human dignity. It also says that no one may be punished in any way that is cruel, inhuman or degrading. So the Namibian Supreme Court has said that the statutes which allow corporal punishment are unconstitutional. This means that these statutes are not valid laws and must no longer be followed.

Both common and customary law can be tested against the Constitution, but our courts have decided very few cases involving customary law since independence. It is not the responsibility of the courts to look around and see if any laws are unconstitutional. They must wait until someone comes to them with a specific problem.

### 12.5.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender in the Constitution

**Objective:** To familiarise participants with gender equality principles in the Constitution.

**Time:** 45 minutes (if reading has been done in advance)

Ask participants to read Chapter 3 and Chapter 11 of the Constitution and mark the Articles which are relevant to gender equality. They should identify:

- Article 10 (Equality and Freedom from Discrimination)
- Article 14 (Family)
- Article 21 (Fundamental Freedoms)
- Article 23 (Apartheid and Affirmative Action)
- Article 95 (a) (Promotion of the Welfare of the People).

**Note for trainer:** This is best done either by sending the participants the relevant chapters of the Constitution in advance, to mark up and bring to the workshop, or giving the exercise as homework during a training that lasts a few days. Otherwise, split the participants into groups and allocate each group some different portions of the Constitution.

### 12.6 Statutes

Remember that statutes are laws made by Parliament, referred to as Acts of Parliament.

### 12.6.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Statutes that promote gender equality

**Objective:** To give participants an overview of key Acts.

**Time:** 2 hours

Split participants into groups. Ask each group to discuss what Acts they have heard of which relate to gender equality and what they know about the contents. Add to the feedback of the participants, making sure the following is covered:
i) **Local Authorities Act 6 of 1992**

This law contains an affirmative action provision which requires that all party lists must include a specified number of women candidates, depending on the size of the council (three women for a council of 10 or fewer members, and five women for larger councils). As a result, the proportion of women in local government is higher than at the regional or national levels, where no affirmative action provisions apply.

ii) **Labour Act 6 of 1992 and Labour Act 15 of 2004**

These Acts protect employees from unfair labour practices, govern labour relations and regulate basic terms and conditions of employment. As of June 2006, the 1992 Act is in the process of being replaced by the 2004 Act. The new Act makes more generous provision for maternity benefits than the old Act, and outlaws discrimination in the workplace on the basis of pregnancy and HIV status for the first time. The new Act also prohibits sexual harassment.

iii) **Married Persons Equality Act 1 of 1996**

This Act abolishes marital power, which previously gave husbands in civil marriages all the decision-making powers. It specifically states that the husband is not the head of the household in the eyes of the law, although couples may decide between themselves how they handle family decision-making in private. Both spouses now have equal legal powers. Where a civil marriage is in community of property, the Act says that the spouses must agree on all important financial transactions involving their joint property. It also says that all husbands and wives have equal guardianship over the minor children of the marriage.

iv) **Affirmative Action Act 28 of 1998**

The purpose of this Act is to achieve equal opportunity in employment in accordance with Article 10 and Article 23 of the Namibian Constitution. The Act aims to redress the disadvantages arising from past discriminatory laws and practices through appropriate affirmative action plans for three designated groups: persons from racially disadvantaged groups, women and persons with disabilities. The Act provides for the establishment of an Employment Equity Commission to monitor its implementation.

v) **Combating of Rape Act 8 of 2000**

This Act provides an extensive definition of rape that focuses on acts of coercion (force) used by the accused. The Act prescribes stiff minimum sentences for rape. It also gives the complainant in a rape case (the rape victim/survivor) the right to participate in bail proceedings, and imposes bail conditions that will help to protect rape complainants. To protect the privacy of the complainant, the Act requires that rape cases must be heard in closed court and prohibits the publication of information which could reveal the identity of the complainant. See Module 8 for more information on this Act.

vi) **Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002**

This Act governs the allocation of communal land. It provides that widows have a right to remain on communal land allocated to their husbands, even if they re-marry. Women must be represented on the Communal Land Boards set up to monitor implementation of this Act.

vii) **Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003**

This Act gives an extensive definition of domestic violence, including physical, sexual, economic, verbal, emotional and psychological, intimidation and harassment. It also defines who is in a domestic relationship. It provides for the issuing of protection orders and police warnings in domestic violence matters. It also has provisions which should give added protection to complainants who lay criminal charges against their abusers. The Act gives police specific duties in domestic violence incidents, including the duty to help complainants get access to medical treatment and collect their personal belongings. See Module 8 for more information on this Act.
viii) Maintenance Act 9 of 2003

This Act says that all parents have a legal duty to maintain their children. Both parents share responsibility for the support of their children, regardless of whether the children are born inside or outside of a marriage and regardless of any contradictory rules under customary law. The Act sets out procedures for holding maintenance enquiries and for enforcing maintenance orders.

12.7 Common law

These are rules which come from the decisions in court cases over the years. They normally apply in the absence of statutes, or to complement and increase understanding of statutes.

Here are two examples:

Example 1:

Example 2:

Two 13-year-old girls went out together. They met two 17-year-old boys who were friends of the brother of one of the girls. The boys took the girls back to their home where they mixed strong drinks for them. The girls became very drunk. They did not resist when the boys insisted on having sex with them – and both boys had sex with each girl. One of the girls said “we did not want to have sex, but it just happened”. Because the boys acted together in drugging the girls and then raping them, they can each be charged with four counts of rape even if each boy only engaged in one sexual act with each girl.

The question of how many charges of rape can arise from such a situation was decided in the case S v Gaseb & Others 2000 NR 139 (SC) when Acting Justice O’Linn stated: “In my respectful view, the concept of fairness will be prostituted, if an accused is allowed to escape conviction and punishment for a series of voluntary, deliberate and separate criminal acts, on the pretext of ‘fairness to the accused’”. He concluded that it would be proper to charge participants in a gang rape with one count of rape for each sexual act with the victim and additional counts of rape for each time the accused participated in a series of rapes or allowed or assisted in their continuation.

12.8 International law

International law comes from international agreements that Namibia has entered into. The following are some examples of international law that are relevant to women and children:
12.9 Customary law

For many people, customary law is the most important law in their lives, controlling such aspects as marriage and inheritance. Customary law is the customs and traditions that have developed over the years to govern different indigenous communities. Customary laws differ from community to community. Because customary law is rarely written down, it can be understood in different ways even by people from the same ethnic group.

The Constitution recognises and regulates customary law. It states that “both the customary law and the common law of Namibia in force on the date of Independence shall remain valid to the extent to which such customary or common law does not conflict with this Constitution or any other statutory law.” (Article 66(1)). Thus, the Constitution validates the importance of customary law in indigenous communities, but does not condone those aspects of customary law which are discriminatory.

Customary laws are seldom challenged, despite the fact that the courts have the power to rule on whether or not they comply with the Constitution. For example, customary law gives different treatment to family members depending on their status in the family and their gender. It also protects the social position of men. These rules of customary law can be measured against the rights of women to equality and dignity, to see if they are constitutional. Government may also decide to pass laws or statutes which deal with specific aspects of customary law in an attempt to reform customary laws so as to conform with the Constitution. The following are examples of such statutes:

i) Traditional Authorities Act 25 of 2000  
ii) Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002  

It is not always clear in which instances customary or civil/common law may be applied to a dispute. Our Constitution states that customary law will only be applicable as long as it is not in conflict with the Constitution or any statutory law.

Example 1:
Example 2:

In 2004, the uncle of a Himba girl killed her when he found out she was not wearing traditional dress at school. The family took the case to the traditional court and the uncle was ordered to pay 90 head of cattle. The uncle was also taken to the civil court, where he was sentenced to 15 years imprisonment. The judge said that this sentence was lighter than it could have been because the uncle showed remorse and had already paid 90 head of cattle.

12.9.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Customary law or general law?

Objective: To assess the relative merits of each legal system.

Time: 2 hours.

Ask the participants to discuss customary law in their community:

- What sort of cases are taken to the traditional courts?
- What kind of punishments are given?
- Are men and women treated differently by the traditional court? (eg Can a woman take a case to a traditional court without the consent of her guardian? Can a woman speak in the court?)
- What are the principles behind judgements given in traditional courts? (Note: The main principle is compensation which is intended to lead to reconciliation between the two families – not just the two individuals in, say, a case of rape, or theft).

Ask participants to answer the same questions in relation to the general law courts, such as the magistrate’s courts. (Note: the main principle is punishment of the guilty party, to deter others from committing similar crimes and ideally to rehabilitate the criminal.)

Ask participants which court they would rather report the following cases to, and why?

- a case of theft
- a case of assault
- a case of rape.

Discuss the results and ask: Are there any ways that traditional courts can be made more accessible for women? How would you go about trying to change discriminatory aspects of the traditional courts? What aspects of customary law could be incorporated into civil law to makes it more responsive to the needs of the affected parties?

12.10 Criminal cases and civil cases

There are two kinds of cases:
1) criminal cases
2) civil cases.

A criminal case is a case between the state and someone who has broken a law. If a crime such as rape or assault is committed, someone – usually the crime victim – lays a charge with the police. A lawyer who represents the state, called a prosecutor, will take the case to court if there is enough evidence. The prosecutor tries to prove that the person in court is really guilty of committing a crime. The accused person will have a chance to present evidence to show that he or she is innocent. The magistrate or judge will then make a decision about whether the accused person is guilty or innocent. If the person who is brought before the court is found guilty of committing the crime, then the court will decide on the punishment – usually time in prison or a fine.
A **civil case** is a case between two persons where one person is claiming something from the other, usually money, to pay for some kind of harm that one person caused to the other. Individuals can bring civil cases against other individuals, companies, organisations or state organs such as ministries. Any of these bodies can also bring civil cases against individuals.

Sometimes a single problem can lead to both a criminal case and a civil case. The complainant in a criminal case may want to get compensation from the accused person for the damage caused by the crime (such as money for the property stolen in a theft or money for medical expenses to treat an injury from an assault). The compensation is usually discussed in a separate court case, which is a civil case. The new Criminal Procedure Act 25 of 2004, which is expected to come into force in 2006, will make it easier to combine the criminal prosecution with compensation for the injured party, in a single court case.

**Example:**

A boyfriend assaults his girlfriend with a panga and she receives severe head injuries. He is arrested and brought to court on a charge of assault. This would be a criminal case. If he is found guilty, he might have to spend some time in prison. The victim, or her guardian, could also bring a civil case against him to pay for the cost of the woman's medical treatment including long-term nursing, loss of income she incurs because she will not be able to work for a year, and the distress she has been caused.

A traditional or community court may hear any claim for compensation or any other claim recognised by customary law if the case falls under the customary law of that community. This kind of claim can follow a criminal trial, just as a civil court claim follows a criminal trial. It is not “double punishment”, but aimed at compensating the victim and the victim’s family and reconciling the two families involved.

### 12.11 Government structure and the law-making process

This section will cover the main branches of government, types of laws, legal systems, the process of law making and how citizens can take part.

#### 12.11.1 Three main branches of government

The Constitution sets up 3 branches of government:

a) the executive (the President and Cabinet)

b) the legislature (Parliament)

d) the judiciary (the courts)

a) **Executive**

   The executive consists of the President, Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Minister and all other Ministers who are appointed by the President. It puts laws into action.

b) **Legislature**

   The legislature is also referred to as Parliament. It consists of two “houses”, the National Assembly and the National Council. The National Assembly has the power to make laws for Namibia, with advice and assistance from the National Council.

c) **Judiciary**

   The judiciary includes all the courts of Namibia – the Supreme Court, the High Court, and the Lower Courts (magistrates’ courts and community courts). The judiciary is responsible for the interpretation and enforcement of the law. These courts can decide criminal cases (when someone has been arrested for committing a crime) and civil cases (disputes between two individuals, such as a divorce or an argument about who should pay for a car accident). They also interpret the law, by saying how to apply the law and the Constitution to everyday life.
12.11.2 The law-making process

The following stages are followed when law is made:

Stage 1: Proposing a Bill

The first step in the law-making process is to prepare a Bill, which is a proposal for a law. The idea for a Bill can be suggested by the President, by Cabinet, by a Minister, by any Member of Parliament (MP), by the Law Reform and Development Commission, or even by a non-governmental organisation or an interested member of the public (working through a Minister or an MP). In practice, the law-making process usually starts when a Minister, working in consultation with staff at the Ministry, decides that a new law is needed.

Some ministries circulate an early “layperson’s draft” for public comment. Some ministries arrange meetings to get public input from interested parties. But this practice differs from ministry to ministry. The degree of consultation depends in part on the subject matter of the proposed law. The layperson’s draft will then go to legal drafters at the Ministry of Justice, who will fine-tune the Bill’s details before it goes to Cabinet.

Stage 2: Cabinet

All Bills must be approved by Cabinet before they go to Parliament. The Ministry proposing the Bill will normally prepare an Explanatory Memorandum on the Bill which will accompany the Bill to Cabinet.

The Ministry first sends the Bill and the Explanatory Memorandum to the Cabinet Committee on Legislation (CCL). The CCL is a subcommittee of Cabinet that screens bills before they go to the full Cabinet. The Minister who is proposing the Bill will meet with the CCL to discuss the Bill. The CCL will sometimes decide that the issues need further legal advice or that additional consultations are necessary.
Once the CCL is happy with the Bill, it goes to the full Cabinet for approval. Any changes requested by Cabinet are incorporated into the Bill by the legal drafters at the Ministry of Justice. The Attorney General must also certify that the Bill is consistent with the Constitution.

**Stage 3: National Assembly**

At Parliament the Bill is first tabled in the National Assembly, where it goes through three stages known as “readings”.

i) **First reading:** The responsible Minister introduces (“tables”) the Bill in the house for the first time. At this stage each Member of Parliament receives a copy of the Bill. No debate takes place on this day. The Bill becomes a public document at this stage.

ii) **Second reading:** The Minister will usually give a speech summarising the Bill and explaining why it is needed. The National Assembly will then discuss the main ideas in the Bill. Two things may happen at this stage. If more than half of the National Assembly agrees with the main ideas of the Bill, it is forwarded to the Committee Stage. This is where the fuller discussion of the Bill starts.

OR

The Bill can be taken “off the table”, meaning that the principle of the Bill was not approved by the National Assembly. If this happens the responsible Minister can introduce the Bill again, but only after thirty working days have passed.

iii) **Committee Stage:** The Bill is now being discussed in detail. It could be discussed by the “Committee of the Whole” (which means all of the members of the National Assembly), or it could be sent to a relevant committee of the National Assembly. These committees go through the document section by section. Any member can propose changes to the Bill. Members of the public or interest groups can also ask members of the National Assembly to propose changes to the Bill. If the Bill goes to one of the committees established by the National Assembly (instead of the Committee of the Whole), that committee can hold public hearings so that members of the public have a chance to make an input. Any amendments approved by the committee are summarised in a report to the National Assembly, which must consider the committee’s recommendations. This is the last chance for any members of the National Assembly to propose changes or to oppose the Bill.

iv) **Third Reading:** The title of the Bill is read and no further debate can take place. After this stage the Bill has been “passed” by the National Assembly. A vote is taken only if one of the members requests this.

**Stage 4: National Council**

After approval by the National Assembly, the Bill is forwarded to the National Council for review. Here the Bill goes through a similar procedure as in the National Assembly. Sometimes the National Council holds hearing in regions if they feel they need to consult the grassroots. There are three possible actions that the National Council can take:

1. They can confirm the Bill by approving it.
2. They can suggest changes to the Bill and send it back to the National Assembly. The National Assembly does not have to agree to all the changes that the National Council suggests, but it must vote on the Bill again after it has heard the suggestions from the National Council.
3. They can object to the principle of the Bill and send it back to the National Assembly. If that happens, the National Assembly votes again on the Bill and it can move forward only if it is approved by a two-thirds majority of the members of the National Assembly.

**Stage 5: President**

The Bill is sent to the President for his signature. If the President agrees with the Bill, he or she signs the Bill. If the President does not agree with the Bill, it is sent back to the National Assembly. But if a two-thirds majority of the members of the National Assembly vote for the Bill, then the President has to sign it.
Stage 6: Courts (in some cases)

In instances where the President refuses to sign the Bill because he or she believes that it is not in line with the Constitution, the courts may be asked to decide. If the courts decide that the Bill is in line with the Constitution, the President will then sign the Bill. If the courts decide otherwise, the Bill cannot become a law.

If a Bill becomes a law and someone affected by the law believes that the law is not in line with the Constitution, this person can approach the courts. If the courts agree, then the law or the relevant parts of it are no longer valid. Only the High Court or the Supreme Court can take such a decision.

Stage 7: Government Gazette

Once the President signs the Bill, it is published in the Government Gazette. The Bill must be published before it can come into action, because everyone has a right to know about the laws of the country. The Bill is now referred to as an Act of Parliament. It is no longer a Bill, but a valid law.

12.11.2.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: How laws are made

Objective: To understand how laws are made.
Time: 2 hours.

This is an exercise based on how a sample law may be passed. Give the text in the boxes to the participants. (Note: This sample law is a joke and not really being considered!)

50/50 Housework Bill

The 50/50 Housework Bill is to provide for men and women sharing housework – cooking, cleaning, washing and other tasks – equally.

Ask the participants to each take on the different roles highlighted in bold below and conduct a role play. You can print the roles in big letters on cards to give to participants. The roles are:

1. Member of the public
2. Minister of Gender Equality & Child Welfare
3. Legal drafter at the Ministry of Justice
4. Cabinet Committee on Legislation
5. Cabinet
6. National Assembly
7. National Assembly Committee
8. National Council
9. President
10. Government Gazette office

Don’t worry if you don’t have too many participants – one person can play a group of people such as the Cabinet, one person can play both the member of the public and the President, etc. (Just make sure that anyone playing 2 roles is not playing roles that connect directly to each other.) At the end the trainer should point out any parts that were not correct.

You can also use this exercise to ask questions, such as:

- How many members are there in the National Assembly? (72 elected, plus 6 appointed by the President)
MAKING A LAW

1. A member of the public has an idea for a new law on men and women sharing housework 50/50.
2. S/he goes to talk to the Minister of Gender Equality & Child Welfare.
3. The Minister thinks this is a good idea and asks her legal staff to prepare a draft bill.
4. The draft bill is sent to a legal drafter at the Ministry of Justice to fine-tune the bill, which then goes back to the Minister of Gender Equality & Child Welfare.
5. The Minister of Gender Equality & Child Welfare sends the bill to the Cabinet Committee on Legislation (CCL).
6. The CCL approves the Bill and sends it to Cabinet for agreement.
7. Cabinet agrees with the general idea of the Bill, but passes the Bill back to the legal drafter at the Ministry of Justice for some changes.
8. The legal drafter incorporates the changes requested by Cabinet and gives the Bill to the Minister of Gender Equality & Child Welfare.
10. The National Assembly decides to send the Bill to a National Assembly Committee to look at the issue more closely. This Committee decides to hold public hearings in all the regions.
11. The National Assembly Committee reports back to the National Assembly. The National Assembly votes to approve the Bill with the amendments recommended by the Committee.
12. The National Assembly sends the Bill to the National Council. The National Council might decide to send the Bill to a National Council Committee.
13. The National Council makes some changes and sends the Bill back to the National Assembly.
14. The National Assembly votes to accept the changed Bill. Then they give it to the President.
15. The President signs the Bill. It is then sent to the Government Gazette office.

12.11.3 Public involvement in law-making

Lobbying (for or against)

Each citizen can take part in the law-making process by lobbying law makers. An interested person can put her/his argument in writing to the responsible Minister or any Member of Parliament. The Minister or Members of Parliament can be invited to a meeting where people
give their input. Other ways to lobby include petitions, demonstrations or through the media – by means of local phone-in programmes to radios and television programmes, sending out press releases or writing letters to the editors of newspapers.

12.11.3.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: Lobbying

Objective: To understand how to lobby.

Time: 2 hours.

Use an example of a Bill that is relevant at the time. (If there is none, make one up – and tell participants it is not true! For example, you could pretend that the government is proposing a Bill to ban the making of biltong, or to reduce the speed limit to 50 km everywhere.) Split participants into groups and ask them to decide how they will lobby for or against this Bill. They should then present a role play to the other participants. Discuss how effective each lobbying campaign was.

If I try to influence the decision of the council, won’t people say that I am getting involved in things that are none of my business?

If a decision affects you, it is your right to express your opinion. Hearing different views from the community helps people in power to make better decisions.

“People’s participation in the affairs of their nation is a precondition for a democratic government. Throughout the struggle for national independence our goal has been to provide our people with the opportunity to participate in national decision-making, especially those decisions which affect their lives.”

President Sam Nujoma, 1993

See the Legal Assistance Centre’s comprehensive manual Advocacy in Action – a guide to influencing decision-making in Namibia for more information and examples on advocacy, plus chapters on how laws are made, the parliamentary process and much more. (See section 12.13 Resources below.)

12.12 Family law

Family law is the branch of law which regulates legal relationships between spouses (husband and wife), as well as the legal relationships between parents/guardians and children. It includes issues such as marriage, divorce, maintenance and inheritance.

Family law questions can raise complex gender issues. Here are some examples to think about:

- Inheritance disputes can involve the competing interest of multiple wives in a polygamous marriage. There may also be family conflicts where someone such as a nephew has inherited family property under customary law with a corresponding duty to maintain certain male and female relatives, but fails to do so.
What is the best way to balance the interests of a man’s wife in the rural area with the interests of the woman he lives with in the urban area when he is away from home for work?

A man’s wife and children may resent the fact that he uses some of his income for maintenance of his children from another woman.

Stepchildren may not receive the same resources and treatment as their half-brothers and sisters. The situation can become even more complicated when children from several different mothers or fathers are living in the same household.

There have been cases where grandmothers and grandfathers who are receiving old-age pensions have been exploited and abused by other family members, as well as cases where they carry an unfair burden of responsibility for their grandchildren.

Some households are headed by children because the adults in the family have died of AIDS or other causes. What is the best way to support such child-headed households?

This manual will not provide material for training people about specific family laws. Other booklets and manuals, such as those listed at the end of this module, are better for that purpose. (See section 12.13 Resources below.)

This manual will instead give you a few examples from the field of family law which will help you apply gender analysis to legal issues.

12.12.1 **TRAINING EXERCISE: Legal literacy and marital property regimes**

**Objective:** To explore an example of laws that affect people in their daily lives, the consequences of not understanding these laws and obstacles that prevent people women (or men) from using their legal knowledge in practice.

**Time:** 2 hours.

**Introduction:** There are two different types of marriage: civil marriage and customary marriage. Civil marriage is marriage before a legal marriage officer – a pastor or priest in a church, or a magistrate at the magistrate’s court. A marriage certificate is issued after a civil marriage, and it
is registered with the government. Customary marriage is entered into according to the customs and traditions of a certain community. As of June 2006, customary marriage is not registered and there is no marriage certificate to prove that it has taken place.

Find out which participants are married, and how many are married under civil law or customary law. At the time of the 2001 national census, about 19% of people aged 15 and above were married in civil marriages and about 9% were married in customary marriages. About 7% were living with a partner without being formally married. About 3% were divorced or separated and about 4% were widowed. Over 56% had never married and were not cohabiting (living together as husband and wife) at the time of the census. (You can draw the illustration below in large size on a flip chart or write the percentages up for everyone to see.)

**Marriage status of people aged 15 and above in Namibia, 2001**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married in a civil marriage</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married in a customary marriage</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohabiting – not formally married</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/separated</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married and not cohabiting</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ask:
- Does anything about these results surprise you?
- Do they tell you anything about legal issues which need attention?

Participants should see that legal protection for cohabiting partners is almost as important as improved legal protection for wives in customary marriages. They might also say that law reform on civil marriages should take priority over law reform on customary marriages because this involves more people. On the other hand, participants may point out that some people get married in church (making it a civil marriage) but follow customary norms in their personal lives, meaning that the statistics do not tell the whole story.

Ask married participants if they know what property system applies to their marriage. Ask unmarried participants if they know what property system would apply to their marriage if they were to get married tomorrow.

Explain that that civil marriages may be in community of property, out of community of property, or based on the accrual system. As of June 2006, the default system (the system that you get if you don’t make another arrangement) is different for different people in different parts of the country. The rules which determine which systems apply to which couples are based on race and on the place where you live.

Explain that none of these three basic systems accurately describe the property arrangements in customary marriage. There are different approaches for different communities, and even sometimes within the same community. The question is complicated by polygamy and by the payment of bridewealth (lobola) in some communities. In some communicates there may be different approaches to different types of property, such as cattle versus kitchen or household goods.
**Marriage IN community of property:** A marriage in community of property means what you acquire before and after marriage becomes part of the joint estate. This means both spouses are entitled to 50% of the joint estate on divorce or death. Debts are also shared by both spouses. This is the default position for most couples in Namibia. These couples can change to another marital property system by making an ante-nuptial contract. An ante-nuptial contract is a special written agreement which is finalised before the marriage takes place and registered at the office of the Registrar of Deeds. It is not possible to make an ante-nuptial contract after the marriage, and it is usually not possible to make any changes to an ante-nuptial contract after the marriage. An ante-nuptial contract made before the marriage could apply “out of community of property” or the accrual system.

**Marriage OUT of community of property:** In this system of marital property, whatever was acquired before marriage and after marriage does not belong to both spouses. Each spouse has only ownership/control of what they acquired. They each keep their own earnings. In terms of the Native Administration Proclamation 15 of 1928, which is still in force in post-independence Namibia as of June 2006, this system is the default position for all civil marriages between blacks north of the old “Police Zone” (in the areas then known as Owamboland, Kavango and Caprivi) which take place on or after 1 August 1950. This default system can be changed only if a declaration choosing another property system is made to the marriage officer within one month before the marriage takes place. Once the marriage has taken place, it is too late to change.

**The accrual system:** The only way to get this system is to make a written agreement before the marriage takes place. Both spouses make lists of what they acquired before marriage, and the belongings listed do not form part of matrimonial estate. If the marriage comes to an end, all of the property and money that was added to the husband’s and wife’s belongings during the marriage are divided equally between them. Debts are not shared.

**Role plays:**

Use the following role plays to see if the participants understand the different marital property regimes. Cut about 10 pictures out of magazines that show property (or draw your own pictures, or use children’s toys). Examples could be:

- houses
- cattle, goats, chickens
- cars
- different kinds of furniture
- money
- clothing
- jewellery.

Ask two participants to stand up and pretend to be the married couple.

For marriages “in community of property”, draw a big pot on a flip chart (or use an actual pot). Give the “wife” some of the pictures and the “husband” some others. Keep some pictures. Ask man and wife to stick (with prestick or cellotape) “their” property in the pot, saying that this was the property they each had before marriage. Explain that the two people are now married and since the marriage they have got new property (hand it to them). Ask them what they think happens and where it goes. Explain “in community of property”.
For “out of community of property”, do the same exercise, but draw (or use) two pots. (Husband and wife keep their property separate in their own pots.)

For the accrual system draw (or use) two small pots and one big pot. (The property acquired before marriage stays in the husband’s and wife’s separate pots, but the items acquired during marriage go into the big pot to be shared equally when the marriage comes to an end.)

Ask participants what would happen to the property if they got divorced? (In “in community of property”, the spouses share the whole pot equally. In “out of community of property”, the spouses keep their own property. In the accrual system the spouses keep what they brought in to the marriage and share equally everything that either of them earned or bought during the marriage.)

**Exploring legal literacy and the constraints to applying legal information:** Now ask participants married in civil marriages if they knew they had a choice about which property regime they would like to have for their marriage. If they knew about the options, did they have clear and full information?

Ask participants married in customary marriages if they had a choice about whether to marry under civil or customary law. Did they understand the different possibilities? Was there pressure from the intended spouse, the family or the church to choose a particular form of marriage or a particular property regime?

Discuss the problems that a woman or a man might experience from lack of knowledge about the different kinds of marriage and the different property regimes. Ask participants to think of problems which could arise during the marriage, upon divorce or upon the death of one spouse.

Then ask participants to divide up into small groups and prepare action plans for increasing knowledge of marital property systems. The plan should say who (eg government, civil society, churches, marriage officers, community groups, traditional leaders) should do what (eg training, hand-outs in indigenous languages, radio programmes, television programmes, pre-marital counselling). For each action, say whether it should be aimed at women, men, couples who plan to marry or the general public.

Either in small groups or all together, ask participants to discuss obstacles that might prevent women from exercising a free right to choose even if they had full legal knowledge of all the marital property options. List the obstacles identified and ask participants to think of ways to remove them. (Examples: fear of domestic violence might be addressed with better implementation of the laws providing for protection orders; fear of not finding a man to marry might be addressed by better job opportunities for women to give them greater economic independence).

## 12.12.2 Law reform on family law issues

There are many aspects of family law that need to be changed because they are not adequate to meet the needs of women or men or both. Here are some examples:

- providing for full recognition and registration of customary marriages
- revising the choices of marital property systems to make them more suitable for Namibian circumstances
- providing for one default marital property system for everyone, or removing the idea of a default system so that every couple must think about the options and choose
- making customary law on marital property and inheritance consistent with the constitutional promises of sexual equality
- updating the laws on divorce for civil marriage, to make the process less traumatic and to provide better protection for the children involved
- providing greater protection for women in customary marriages upon divorce
- establishing clear legal rights and responsibilities between parents and step-children who share the same household
establishing clear legal rights and responsibilities between people who live together as husband and wife without being married.

12.12.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Gender-sensitive law reform

Objective: To explore ways of ensuring that law reform on family law issues is gender-sensitive.

Time: 45 minutes

After reading the examples above, discuss whether women and men will be equally eager for law reform on topics such as these. Why or why not?

Suppose that the Law Reform and Development Commission or Parliament wants to get public input on one of the topics above. Ask participants to advise them on how to make sure that they get opinions from both men and women of various ages, in both rural and urban areas. This can be done in small groups or in one large group, depending on the number of participants. Participants should consider the following questions:

- Are public hearings an effective way to get public input from men? from women?
- Is there a way to organise public hearings to make them more gender-sensitive?
- Should there be separate public hearings for women and men?
- What kind of advance preparation would empower women and men to make their views known at public hearings?
- What other methods could be used to collect information from different parts of the country?
- What obstacles might prevent women from speaking out on proposed law reforms?
- How could these obstacles be overcome?

12.12.4 Testing your knowledge

Here is an example of a legal change which took place in Namibia in 2005 in the area of family law. This example involves all three branches of government (the executive, Parliament and the judiciary) and several of the different kinds of law discussed in this module (statute law, customary law, Constitutional law applied to a statute by the courts, and a new statute passed by Parliament). If participants feel that they understand what happened in this example, then they have probably mastered many of the concepts in this module.

NAMIBIA’S FIRST LAW REFORM ON INHERITANCE

The Berendt case & the Estates and Succession Amendment Act 15 of 2005

In 2003, Magrietha and Aron Berendt brought a court case challenging certain provisions in the Native Administration Proclamation 15 of 1928 (a statute passed before independence) on the grounds that they were unconstitutional.

Magrietha, Aron and Naftalie Berendt were the children and heirs of Martha Berendt, who died unmarried on 20 March 1999 without leaving a will. Martha was from the Bondelswart community. She owned a house in Windhoek, where she had lived before her death with her three children.

Upon her death the heirs had a meeting and thereafter went to the Windhoek Magistrates Court to arrange for the administration of their mother’s estate. The Magistrate appointed Naftalie Berendt as the executor of his mother’s estate in agreement with the family. (The executor is the person who supervises the distribution of the property.)
In terms of the Native Administration Proclamation 15 of 1928, the estate was supposed to be administered and distributed according to the customary law of the Bondelswart community. However, Naftalie proceeded to sell the house without consulting Magrietha and Aron.

Magrietha and Aron brought a case in the High Court challenging Naftalie’s appointment as the executor of their mother’s estate. They also argued that the relevant sections of the Native Administration Proclamation were unconstitutional, because they discriminated between people on the ground of race. The basis for this argument was the fact that the Native Administration Proclamation subjects the estates of black people to different sets of rules than the estates of white people or coloured people. Another problem was that the estates of white and coloured people are administered by the specialised Office of the Master of the High Court, whilst the estates of black people were administered by magistrates who have less expertise in this area.

The High Court applied the Constitution to the Native Administration Proclamation and ruled that several of its provisions were indeed unconstitutional. This included the complicated provisions that treated the estates of deceased blacks as if they were “Europeans” in some circumstances, while requiring in other circumstances that they should be distributed according to customary law. The High Court also said that it was unconstitutional to give magistrates power to administer “black estates” while the estates of people of other races go to the Master of the High Court.

In making this ruling, the High Court also referred to international law, pointing out that Namibia has also signed the United Nations International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination.

Parliament was given a deadline of 30 June 2005 to pass a new statute that would replace the unconstitutional section of the old law with a new system. The Court directed that Parliament should “review the whole field of succession and the administration of deceased estates in a harmonious and effective manner”.

The government requested an extension of the deadline to 30 December 2005, saying that it needed more time to complete its task.

During 2005, the Law Reform and Development Commission and the Ministry of Justice considered several drafts of statutes which might comply with the court order in question. They asked a few organisations for comment, but the proposals under consideration were never circulated widely for general public input.

Then, just before the deadline, Parliament passed a Bill introduced by the Minister of Justice which technically complied with the court order, but fell far short of what many had expected. The Estates and Succession Amendment Act 15 of 2005 came into effect on 29 December 2005, just in the nick of time.

But this new statute is a very strange one. It essentially says that all of the unconstitutional portions of the Native Administration Proclamation are repealed (meaning that they are no longer in force), but will continue to apply to the same people as before, by race, just as if they had not been repealed. So, in other words, the racially discriminatory laws are repealed – but then brought back in all over again through the backdoor.

On the question of procedure, the new statute says that the estates of people of all races will be administered by the Master of the High Court in future – but since the Master does not have offices throughout the country, magistrates will be delegated to help.

So Namibia’s systems of inheritance will continue to work almost exactly as they did before the Berendt case applied the Constitution to the old statute.

Meaningful change to difficult questions about inheritance is still a matter for future court cases or future law reforms.
12.13 RESOURCES

Publications:
- Legal Assistance Centre, *Training Manual for Trainers on Will Writing and Inheritance in Namibia* (English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Rukwangali and Silozi).
- Legal Assistance Centre, *Your Guide on How to Write a Valid Will* (English, Afrikaans, Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Khoekhoegowab, Rukwangali and Silozi).

All of the above documents are available from the Legal Assistance Centre:

**Legal Assistance Centre**
4 Korner Street
PO Box 604
Windhoek
Tel: 061 223 356
Fax: 061 234 953
E-mail: info@lac.org.na
Website: www.lac.org.na


**ELCRN**
6 Church Street
PO Box 5069
Windhoek
Tel: 061 22 4531
Fax: 061 22 6775

**Key organisations:**
- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.
  **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare**
  Juvenis Building, Independence Avenue
  Private Bag 13359
  Windhoek
  Tel: 061 283 3111
  Fax: 061 238 941
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na
Legal Assistance Centre can provide advice and training on laws and will writing.

**Legal Assistance Centre**
4 Korner Street
PO 604
Windhoek
Tel: 061 223 356
Fax: 061 234 953
E-mail: info@lac.org.na
Website: www.lac.org.na

Directorate: Law Reform and Development can provide information on law reform which is underway.

**Directorate: Law Reform and Development**
Justitia Building, Independence Avenue
Private Bag 13302
Windhoek
Tel: 061 280 5111
Fax: 061 24 0064
E-mail: lawreform@moj.gov.na

The Table Offices of the National Assembly and National Council can provide information on bills being considered by Parliament.

**Table Office**
**National Assembly**
Parliament Buildings, Robert Mugabe Avenue
Private Bag 13323
Windhoek
Tel: 061 288 9111
Fax: 061 226 899
E-mail: parliament@parliament.gov.na

**Table Office**
**National Council**
Parliament Buildings, Robert Mugabe Avenue
Private Bag 13371
Windhoek
Tel: 061 280 3111
Fax: 061 226 121
E-mail: nationalcouncil@parliament.gov.na
Module 13
MONITORING
AND EVALUATION

13.1 Objective of the module

- To equip the user with skills and information that enables them to effectively monitor and evaluate gender projects, including gender mainstreaming.

13.2 Target groups

- Gender Liaison Officers
- Gender Focal Points
- Monitoring and Evaluation officers
- Training Officers.

13.3 Why are monitoring and evaluation important?

Monitoring and evaluation are crucial in the management of activities because they are used to assess the effectiveness of programmes/projects to ascertain that they are working.

Monitoring and evaluation identify the strengths and weaknesses encountered so that implementers can tell what needs to be improved or changed in future programmes.

Monitoring and evaluation enable planners to have a regular overview of service performance, to identify any problem which needs attention and to take timely action.

13.4 What is involved in monitoring and evaluation?

Note to trainer: If you are going to use exercise 13.4.1 below after your introduction, do not give participants this definition beforehand.

**DEFINITION**

Monitoring is the **continuous assessment** of project/programme implementation, aimed at identifying as early as possible, actual or potential successes and/or problems, so as to make timely adjustments.

Evaluation is the **periodic assessment** of a programme’s relevance, performance and impact (both expected and unexpected) in relation to stated objectives. It takes on board the continuous monitoring.
13.4.1 TRAINING EXERCISE: What is monitoring and evaluation?

Objective: To give participants a clear understanding of what is involved in monitoring and evaluation.

Time: 2 hours.

- Ask participants to give their definitions/understanding of the terms “monitoring” and “evaluation”. Encourage them to give elaborative examples.
- Participants should write their suggestions on small cards and stick them under the two columns, on a board.
- Distribute copies of the handout opposite. While going through it, participants should look out for terms which apply to both concepts, and terms which apply only to one or the other.
- Discuss in plenary the definitions given and any misconceptions that were raised by participants.
- Pick out the shared terms, and those specific to only one of the two concepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monitoring (Specific)</th>
<th>Evaluation (Specific)</th>
<th>Monitoring and Evaluation (Shared)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuous assessment</td>
<td>Periodic assessment</td>
<td>Collection of data from and about men and women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of project</td>
<td>Relevance of project</td>
<td>Use of gender-sensitive indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification of actual/potential successes/problems</td>
<td>Impact (expected and unexpected) in relation to the objectives</td>
<td>Use of gender-sensitive indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitates timely adjustments to programme design and functioning</td>
<td>Informs the design of future programs</td>
<td>Provides lessons for future</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.4.2 TRAINING EXERCISE: Developing indicators for monitoring that are gender sensitive

Objective: To give participants practical experience in developing gender sensitive indicators for monitoring projects.

Time: 2 hours.

Explain that indicators for monitoring provide an effective mechanism to ensure that programmes and projects are on track and give due consideration to the different roles and responsibilities of women and men. They assess progress in achieving the objectives of the project and measure the impact of the project on the lives of men and women.

Indicators may be:
- measurements/numbers (usually over a period of time)
- facts
- opinions (especially those of the affected community).

Indicators should be developed according to each project which answer the following questions:
- What is the best thing to monitor, in order to see if your project is working?
- How often should you monitor it to find out if you are on track?
- Does the information you are collecting answer your questions?
- Is your monitoring providing information that may be useful to other groups?
**HANDOUT: Monitoring and Evaluation**

**Monitoring** is continuous assessment of project/programme implementation aimed at identifying as early as possible actual or potential successes and/or problems, so as to make timely adjustments. There are three aspects of monitoring:

- Two levels of monitoring: progress and process
- Gender sensitive monitoring plans
- Gender sensitive targets and indicators.

Monitoring should take place at two different levels: monitoring **progress** towards fulfilling goals and objectives, and monitoring the implementation **process**.

**Monitoring progress** requires target indicators to be developed to track the delivery of specified activities and impact. For example:

- Did the initial consultation take place?
- Were women involved in this consultation as planned?
- Was the project plan amended to take on board comments from the consultation?
- Did the next steps take place within the timeframe allocated?
- What problems were encountered? Why? How can they be dealt with?

Monitoring the implementation **process**, on the other hand, requires the development of targets and indicators to track the extent to which the process is gender-sensitive, such as:

- Are men and women are participating equally in project decision-making?
- Are they are treated with equal respect as decision makers, implementers and participants?
- Are those involved in project implementation motivated to maintain a gender perspective?

There should be plans for monitoring progress and implementation processes that specify:

- the persons responsible for monitoring tasks
- participation of other stakeholders in the process
- the time when monitoring will take place
- the tools that will be used to record observations
- the mechanisms that exist to review the progress.

Targets make project goals concrete and therefore increase the possibility that they will be attainable. Effective targets need to be progressive but realistic, time-bound and measurable. They also need to consider the situation and needs of both women and men. It is therefore important that in programmes and policies that have been gender mainstreamed all indicators should be disaggregated by sex wherever possible. This helps identify the gender differentiated impact of the interventions.

**Evaluation** is periodic assessment of a programme’s relevance, performance and impact (both expected and unexpected), in relation to stated objectives. It aims at informing the design of future programmes.

Evaluation is the culmination of the monitoring process. It enables the establishment of good practices and lessons learnt during the implementation. Evaluation also enables accountability for the resources used by the programme/project. These could be financial and human resources.

There are three levels of evaluation:

- Evaluation of outputs – have the objectives been met?
- Evaluation of outcomes – to what extent has the development goal been achieved?
- Evaluation of process – how were the outputs and outcomes delivered?

**Indicators**: An indicator is a pointer, number or fact that measures changes in a specific condition over time. Indicators are key in monitoring and evaluation.

*Monitoring and evaluation are mutually supportive in the sense that monitoring provides both qualitative and quantitative data that can serve as input in evaluation exercises. Evaluation provides invaluable lessons that can be applied in future monitoring efforts.*
Hand out the cartoon. Ask participants to imagine that they are consultants who are assessing the building of a new road. They have been asked to identify gender-sensitive indicators BEFORE the project begins.

Split the participants into groups to identify gender-sensitive indicators under the following headings (some suggested answers are in italics):

| Consultation including environmental impact | men and women’s views (eg impact on water and firewood collection, wildlife and plant preservation, access to villages, schools, markets, clinics, employment) taken on board about how the project will affect their lives |
| Employment opportunities | affirmative action policy to include women and men in road construction, catering services etc – set percentage for number of women to be employed |

Discuss the results. Can you make any of the indicators more quantitative? Can you make any of indicators more qualitative?

Ask if any of the participants are in the process of developing a project. If so, use one of their projects as an example and get the whole group to develop relevant gender sensitive indicators.

13.4.3 TRAINING EXERCISE: Evaluating a project – case study

Objective: To give participants practical experience in evaluating a project

Time: 2 hours.

Ask if any of the participants are currently proposing or working on a project. If so, ask one participant to give a summary of this. (If no one offers, use the sample project below.) Split the participants into groups and ask them to produce questions that will enable the project to be evaluated at the end of a year. Discuss feedback from the groups and suggest improvements.

Sample project

The Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry has gazetted a Community Forest in the Kavango region. This gives the poor community living there the right to control the sustainable use and protection of the forest resources.

The community is planning to earn income from selling firewood, wood carvings, thatching grass, poles for homestead construction, jam and other products from forest fruits, and woven baskets.

The community has been advised to set objectives and develop a monitoring process to make sure that everything is on course. The community set an objective to raise N$8,000 in the first year. They decided to monitor the following things:
both women and men are involved in the process
amount of firewood, carvings, jam, etc sold per month
money raised per month
general condition of all forest resources.

**Suggested questions:**

- Has the objective been met?
- What are the results of monitoring of this project over the period?
- What information is missing from the monitoring? (For example, how exactly have women and men been involved?) How can this missing information be collected?
- How has the project affected the daily lives of women and men generally or within groups defined by age, disability, etc? (For example, young women may have had an increased workload as in addition to their household roles and farming they are now making jam and baskets; men may be drinking alcohol more as they have access to a cash income.)
- Rights and access – do women and men have the same rights and access to forest resources? (Or do men deal with the ones that generate more income? Are women wood carvers disapproved of and discouraged?)
- Project benefits: These include the financial benefits from the project, as well as time, education and information. Have the benefits been shared equitably? Have women benefited directly, or only through money given to the household, which men may control? If there has been any education or training, have women benefited as well as men?
- Participation, representation and decision making power: Who has been making decisions about the project? Have men and women been involved as equals and without gender-stereotyped roles?

**13.4.4 Key questions to consider during evaluation in terms of gender**

- Who determines the evaluation criteria?
- What level of importance is afforded to gender equality considerations?
- Are all stakeholders involved in the evaluation process?
- Will the opinions of both men and women be considered?
- Will participatory methods be used?
- How and to whom will results of the evaluation be disseminated?
- Will both men and women stakeholders be given the opportunity to formally comment on or state their reservations about the evaluation results?

**13.4.5 TRAINING EXERCISE: Checklist for evaluating a gender mainstreaming strategy**

**Objective:** To evaluate how far each participant’s organisation has got in mainstreaming gender.

**Time:** 1 hour 30 minutes.

Ask participants to tick yes or no in the following table.

Ask them to produce action plans for the next step required in their organisation. Discuss and suggest improvements.
### Checklist for Evaluation of a Gender Mainstreaming Strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policies, Plans and Programmes Engendered</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there a gender policy and gender mainstreaming plan in place?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have all programmes been gender mainstreamed?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is gender-disaggregated data being collected?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Administrative Procedures are Revised**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have human resources policies and regulations been reviewed and amended so as to eliminate sex discrimination?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the Ministry/institution have a decision-maker in charge of gender mainstreaming?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does a system for the collection of gender-disaggregated data exist?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is there sufficient budgetary allocation for the data collection?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the staff trained in the gender approach applied in the collection of gender-disaggregated data?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the Ministry have a M&amp;E programme for gender mainstreaming?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If so, does it produce M&amp;E reports within the stipulated time periods?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 13.5 Indicators for Capacity Building in Gender Mainstreaming

Concrete indicators are crucial in assessing if a project, programme or process is on track. These must include an assessment of the financial and human resources allocated for implementation and the structure and quality of training programmes established to provide the necessary skills. This table gives an example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results Intended</th>
<th>Results Indicator</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Frequency of Observation</th>
<th>Monitoring Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formulating and strengthening gender mainstreaming capacity building programmes for all government ministries/sector staff</td>
<td>Number of government ministries with capacity building programmes for staff members</td>
<td>• Gender Network Coordinating Committee/Ministerial reports • Percentage annual budgetary allocation to capacity building programmes • Number of adequately skilled staff deployed in the capacity building programmes</td>
<td>Annual</td>
<td>M&amp;E Officer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Planning and execution of training programmes in gender analysis, planning and programming for policy makers and high level managers in all government ministries as well as for Parliamentarians | • Existence of a training programme for all policy makers, high level managers in all government ministries and Parliamentarians • Number of policy makers who have undertaken the training programme • Annual budgetary allocation to the training programmes • Number of workshops conducted by each sector | • Gender Network Coordinating Committee/Ministerial reports • Sectoral monitoring reports | Annual and half yearly | M&E Officer |

13.6 Guidelines for producing reports on monitoring and evaluation of gender mainstreaming and the National Gender Policy

Monitoring

The information collected after monitoring must be communicated in the right form to the right persons at the right time. Collecting information by itself is not enough.

Objectives of a monitoring report should be:

1. To provide information on progress made in the implementation of the National Gender Policy (NGP) and gender mainstreaming in the ministry/institution concerned.
2. To identify early signs of success and/or problems encountered in the implementation process.
3. To recommend timely adjustments to programme designs and implementation.

Introduction: The introduction to the report should give an overview of the main components of the report and explain precisely what has been monitored.

Progress made in implementation of the NGP:

The report should contain:

1. The results of the findings on the progress that has been made. The findings should be closely related to the strategic objectives, actions, results and indicators in the institution's action plan for implementing the NGP.
2. A discussion of the obstacles and constraints experienced in implementation in each of the areas.

Conclusions and recommendations:

1. A summary of the work done that states how well the goals and objectives were attained.
2. Recommendations on actions to be taken which might improve the next phases of implementation.

Appendices: These should include statistical information, lists of persons or organisations involved in the accountability and coordinating mechanisms, a list of any legislation passed, a list of ministries and organisations contributing to the information collected and a copy of the relevant portion of the NGP.

Evaluation

The evaluation aims at assessing the extent to which the strategic objectives for gender mainstreaming in line with the NGP have been realised and led to changes in policies, plans and programmes. The focus should therefore be on the impacts of the interventions on those directly and indirectly affected by them, and on the effectiveness of institutional arrangements to implement the policies.

The objectives of an evaluation report:

1. Evaluate the progress made in the implementation of the NGP and demonstrate the concrete achievements in meeting strategic objectives for the relevant areas of focus.
2. Identify the obstacles and constraints to realising the strategic objectives.
3. Recommend strategic actions to be taken in light of the evaluation findings.

Executive summary: This should give a brief overview of the main components of the report: what was evaluated, major evaluation findings and conclusions, recommendations and lessons learned.
Introduction:
- The relevant context for the implementation of the National Gender Policy (NGP)
- The background leading to the development of the ministry/institution’s action plan to implement the principles of the NGP
- The strategic objectives and action plan developed by the ministry/institution, in line with the NGP.

Findings
1. Findings on the progress that has been made in each of the areas in the action plan, incorporating findings from the monitoring report
2. A discussion of obstacles and constraints experienced in the implementation of the action plan in each of its areas
3. Any other findings
4. Lessons learnt about programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation in terms of the NGP.

Conclusions and recommendations: This section should contain recommendations on future strategic actions to be taken in line with the evaluation findings, so as to realise the goal of gender equality.

Appendices: The appendices can present information and statistical data collected.


13.7 Key international monitoring measures

13.7.1 Human Development Index (HDI)

The Human Development Index (HDI), published annually by the United Nations, ranks nations according to their citizens’ quality of life rather than strictly by a nation’s traditional economic figures. The human development index (HDI) focuses on three measurable dimensions of human development: (1) living a long and healthy life, (2) being educated, and (3) having a decent standard of living. Thus it combines measures of life expectancy, school enrolment, literacy and income to allow a broader view of a country’s development than income alone.

Although the HDI is a useful starting point, it is important to remember that the concept of human development is much broader and more complex than any summary measure can capture, even when supplemented by other indices. The HDI is not a comprehensive measure. It does not include important aspects of human development, notably the ability to participate in the decisions that affect one’s life and to enjoy the respect of others in the community.
Namibia’s rank in the 2005 HDI Report was 125th, with an HDI value of 0.627, an improvement on 2004 when Namibia was ranked 126th with a value of 0.607. In 2005 in Africa, Seychelles ranked first, with a value of 0.821.

13.7.2 Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) measures the same variables as the HDI except that the GDI adjusts for gender inequalities in the three aspects of human development, in terms of life expectancy, literacy and gross educational enrolment, and income.

The higher the GDI score, the higher the level of gender-related development. In 2002, Namibia’s score on the GDI was 0.60, and in 2004 0.62. In 2004, Mauritius scored 0.78, and Norway scored 0.96.

13.7.3 Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) reveals whether women take an active part in economic and political life. It focuses on gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It tracks the share of seats in Parliament held by women; female legislators, senior officials and managers; and female professional and technical workers. It also measures the gender disparity in earned income, reflecting economic independence.

In 2003 Namibia was 124th in the world on this index, South Africa was 111th and Norway was first.

13.7.4 African Gender and Development Index (AGDI)

The African Gender and Development Index (AGDI) is a tool that has been recently introduced by the Economic Commission for Africa to facilitate an effective monitoring mechanism on gender equality. It is specifically an African index and it emphasises major African charters and documents related to gender relations and women’s empowerment, by comparing the status of women to men in the social, economic and political spheres. Ultimately the AGDI should stimulate the process of community participation and enhancement of the political awareness of gender issues.

Current position of the AGDI: The AGDI was piloted in 12 African countries (Namibia not included) with the results of the trial being published in the African Women’s Report in December 2005. The AGDI will be introduced to the other African countries in two phases – 25 countries in 2006-2007, and the remaining 16 countries in 2008-2009.

The AGDI is very useful for gender mainstreaming, because the process requires baseline sex-disaggregated data and indicators of outputs, outcomes and impacts on government performance in achieving equality.

Specifically the broad objectives of the AGDI are:

- to provide a tool to measure gender equality and equity and women’s empowerment and advancement
- to monitor the progress made in implementing conventions that African countries have ratified
- to democratise statistics and qualitative monitoring tools that are easy to use and are effective
- to stimulate interdepartmental co-operation within the Ministries in which it is applied.

Pilot studies for the AGDI give some idea of the types of progress that it will track. These pilot studies measured whether governments had taken the necessary steps to remove rules of inheritance and other practices which prevent women having the same access to and control over land as other family members. This was in the context of the rights of women.
to inheritance and ownership of land and property as stressed in various instruments such as the Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

13.8 Gender Audit

A gender audit is a self-assessment tool which focuses on improving performance with respect to gender equality and women’s empowerment.

How is a gender audit different from a gender-sensitive evaluation? The different terms are not always used consistently, but the basic distinction can be described in this way. Gender evaluations have traditionally measured outcomes by asking if gender concerns have been integrated into programmes, and by measuring the outputs with reference to women (e.g. how many women were trained or employed?).

A gender audit combines these quantitative types of indicators with more qualitative assessments of gender impact. It examines personal and institutional biases in the culture of organisations and societies that may prevent gender equality objectives from being taken forward. A gender audit attempts to assess not only the outputs of an intervention, but the impact of those outputs. The intervention may have reached women, but did it succeed in advancing gender equality and women’s empowerment?

For example, the impact of gender interventions can be hampered by the following factors:

- evaporation: when good intentions are simply not followed through in practice.
- invisibility: when monitoring and evaluation procedures fail to document what is actually occurring ‘on the ground’.
- resistance: when the desired impact is blocked by opposition based on existing gender power relations.

For example, a project which employs women would fail to empower them if it took place in a context where male family members used threats of violence to gain control over women’s wages. As another example, an evaluation of women’s performance in regional elections might measure the numbers of men and women elected, while a gender audit might also attempt to look at whether any barriers prevented women from being able to operate effectively in their elected positions, at women’s and men’s perceptions of their performance as elected representatives and at whether the presence of women in elected bodies had any effect on decision which were taken.

A gender audit will attempt to examine the end result of women’s empowerment, taking into account possible obstacles such as these.

The broad objectives of a gender audit are:

- to assess the quality of programme performance in advancing women’s empowerment
- to consider qualitative as well as quantitative objectives and results
- to formulate proposals for improvement that can be taken up in future policy planning processes
- to promote a sense of enthusiasm for working on gender equality and women’s empowerment.

**CASE STUDY: Gender audit of Lesotho Rural Access Program**

The following is a gender audit of the Lesotho Rural Access Program funded by Ireland Aid. This project involved the rehabilitation of rural footbridges, rural roads and civil works. The gender audit
Sometimes a gender SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis is a useful tool in a gender audit:

- **Strengths:** identify the aspects of the project itself that have proved effective in addressing gender issues.
- **Weaknesses:** aspects of the project itself that have not proved effective in addressing gender issues
- **Opportunities:** factors outside of the project that may assist in building on strengths and overcoming weaknesses
- **Threats:** external constraints that restrict the range of opportunities for change, such as inadequate funding, lack of institutional support.

Donor and government description of expected outcomes

- create employment opportunities for men and women
- improve access to schools, health centres and markets in remote areas
- promote development of the private sector in implementation of the program
- mainstream environmental, gender and HIV issues in rural access projects
- create a user-friendly, small scale infrastructure for rural women
- impart skills to local families and empower them to use local resources.

Program impacts as experienced by men and women

Questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions were used to find out about the impact of the project on men and women in the community.

The positive outcomes revolved around how communities lives have changed, how communities use the new facilities and what major transport problems have been solved. The construction of roads created employment in areas of abject poverty. Largely as a result of the roads and footbridges, the people in the affected communities now have greater freedom of movement and more opportunities.

But there were some interesting gender differences in impact. Both rural men and women participated in identifying their transport needs as part of the project, which enhanced their sense of commitment and ownership.

Women cited key benefits as being better access to churches, schools and clinics, and no longer having to carry such heavy loads on their heads. Women also indicated that the projects have enabled them to network with other villages and that they feel empowered since their community contacts have now widened.

Men cited being able to use wheelbarrows to transport things, more opportunities to earn wages to feed their families and the ability to transport the sick to health centres and corpses to mortuaries more easily. Men also cited the ability to travel more easily as a benefit in itself.

The unexpected problems that emerged following implementation of the project were high travel costs, incidences of accidents due to non-roadworthy vehicles, incidences of increased crime and loss of customers to big businesses in towns. Some women also expressed their inability to use the new footbridges due to their fear of heights, meaning that they continue to be exposed to the risk of drowning.
Example:

Northern Regions Livestock Development Project in Namibia (NOLIDEP)

The NOLIDEP project was started in 1995 with a main objective of promoting economic advancement through the development of semi-commercial range management schemes in targeted communities. The objective was later redefined to improve the economic and social well-being of the rural population in Northern Communal Areas by promoting increased livestock production and ensuring development of a sustainable range management system with more equitable distribution of assets and resources.

A mid-term evaluation recommended that there be a more participative approach and a greater emphasis on gender issues. The gender SWOT analysis was carried out after this mid-term evaluation.

Strengths:
- Availability of gender focal points in the region
- Some field staff trained in gender concepts and methods
- Gender officer in the Ministry of Agriculture
- Small livestock credit fund targeting men, women-headed households without livestock or regular off-farm incomes
- Presence of micro-projects like milling machines, tailoring, bakery, wood carving, small irrigation units, women’s training centre, kindergartens and threshing services
- Community needs established through participatory rural appraisals
- National gender policy in place.

Weaknesses:
- Project design originally biased towards rich farmers and men because oriented towards livestock
- Neither beneficiaries nor project staff adequately trained in gender concepts
- Project limited to certain areas of the country.

Opportunities
- Awareness created and many women’s groups coming up with proposals for funding
- Further training of gender focal points
- Further training of beneficiaries
- Introduce participatory impact assessment
- Use gender-specific indicators during M&E
- Capacity building, empowerment and leadership training for field staff and beneficiaries.

Threats:
- The contribution of beneficiaries to project activities is slow
- Droughts threaten livestock programme
- Impact of HIV/AIDS
- Limited funds.

A SWOT analysis should always be followed by the development of an action plan: Who will do what? With whom? When? How? With what resources?
13.9 RESOURCES

Publications:

- UNDP Handbook on Monitoring and Evaluating for Results, UNDP, 2002. This Handbook is primarily meant for UNDP staff but is useful for anybody who seeks to understand what monitoring and evaluation is about. The UNDP has an evaluation office with a website containing M&E tools and publications: http://www.undp/evaluation.

Key organisations:

- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has offices in all regions. Staff can provide advice and training.

  **Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare**  
  Juvenis Building, Independence Avenue  
  Private Bag 13359  
  Windhoek  
  Tel: 061 283 3111  
  Fax: 061 238 941  
  E-mail: genderequality@mgecw.gov.na
The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) is one of the regional commissions of the United Nations in Africa, mandated to support the economic and social development of its 53 member States. The African Centre for Gender and Development (ACGD) is a Division within the ECA which was responsible for introducing the African Gender and Development Index Tool.

**Economic Commission for Africa**  
**African Centre for Gender and Development**  
PO Box 3001  
Addis Ababa  
ETHIOPIA  
Tel: +251-1-44 33 00/01  
Fax: +251-1-512785/514416  
E-mail: acw@un.org  
Website: http://www.uneca.org/acgd
Empowerment

- Empowerment is about people – both women and men – taking control over their own lives. Empowered people set their own agendas, gain skills, build self-confidence, solve problems and develop self-reliance. Empowerment also entails rights, access, ownership and control over decisions and resources. For example, a woman is empowered when she has equal rights to own and use property and resources and make her own decisions about her life, such as when to have sex and when to have children.

Feminism

- A movement toward the full social, political, and economic equality of all people – particularly women. It further involves taking concrete action to remedy social inequalities. If you believe that society should be transformed to eliminate gender inequalities, then you are a feminist.

Gender

- Gender refers to the behavioural norms and social roles associated with men and women in a particular community. These are not universal, but are learnt or acquired. They vary from one society to another and change over time.

Gender analysis

- Gender analysis refers to the methods used to understand the relationships between men and women, their access to and control over resources, their activities, and the constraints they face relative to each other and their community. It provides information that recognises the differences gender makes relative to race, ethnicity, culture, class, age, disability and any other status. There should be a gender analysis before a development project begins. This will identify gender based differences in access to resources (such as land, farming equipment, livestock, water etc) and help predict how different members of households, groups, and societies will participate in and be affected by planned development interventions. For example, men may not prioritise having access to potable water, but a gender analysis will bring on board the perspective of the women who actually collect the water.
Gender audit
- This is a management and planning tool for assessing how effectively an organisation is responding to gender needs and integrating gender-sensitive approaches into its work. A gender audit will also produce recommendations to assist the organisation to become more responsive to gender needs.

Gender awareness
- This is the recognition that women and men perform different roles in society and therefore have different needs which must be recognised.

Gender balance
- This is an ideal situation where women and men, boys and girls live harmoniously, enjoying equal opportunities and showing mutual respect for each other.

Gender bias
- Gender bias refers to different treatment given to people on the basis of their sex. In the home, school, workplace and society at large, boys and men, girls and women are assigned different roles. These usually discriminate against females. For example, if a young girl grows up in a home where women do most of the cooking and housework, she is likely to believe as an adult that this division of labour is normal and correct.

Gender blind
- This is a conscious or unconscious way of doing or saying things without recognising or considering differences in the positions, needs and feelings of women and men. Interventions that are gender blind may appear neutral – but because most societies in the world have favoured men in the past, gender blind ways of doing things are usually biased in favour of males. For example, the school curricula may be gender-blind in that boys or girls may choose to do any subject, but this ignores the fact that girls are traditionally – and often subconsciously – encouraged to take certain “feminine” subjects, rather than maths and science.

Gender disaggregated data v sex disaggregated data
There is a role for both sex-disaggregated data and gender-disaggregated data.
- Gender disaggregated data: This is information collected with all aspects of gender roles in mind. It looks at women and men in relation to all aspects of their functions in life – including age, ethnicity, class, whether they live in rural or urban areas, the characteristics of their household and the tasks and decisions of each person. For example, if you are researching households, you should ask what decisions are made by different family members instead of assuming that the eldest male member of the family is the “head of the household”.
- Sex disaggregated data: This is information collected and separated by sex in order to measure the difference between men and women, boys and girls. This data provides important indicators of gender needs. For example, keeping separate data on the HIV infection rates of male and females can point to biological and social factors that make girls and women more vulnerable to HIV infection than men.

Gender discrimination
- Gender discrimination means an unfair difference in the treatment of people based entirely on whether they are male or female. Gender discrimination contributes to structural inequality in society.

Gender division of labour
- The gender division of labour refers to the different work that women and men generally do within the community or inside the home. For example, women traditionally cook,
clean, look after the children and work in the fields while men traditionally look after cattle. Factors such as education, technology, economic change and sudden crises like war or famine cause gender roles and the gender division of labour to change. By examining the gender division of labour it becomes evident that women and men’s tasks are interdependent and that women generally carry the greater burden of unpaid work in the home and the community.

**Gender equality**

- Gender equality means that women and men have equal rights, opportunities and conditions for realising their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from economic, social, cultural and political development.
- Gender equality is therefore the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences of men and women and the roles they play.
- Gender equality is based on women and men being full partners in their home, their community and their society. Gender equality starts with equal valuing of girls and boys.
- If there were true gender equality, society would value work in the home such as cooking, cleaning and childcare as highly as paid employment outside of the home and neither men nor women would say “she’s just a housewife – she doesn’t work”.

**Gender equity**

- Gender equity means just treatment, balanced recognition and appreciation of the potential of both women and men, in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities.
- To ensure fairness, measures must often be put in place to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level (equal) playing field – such as affirmative action for women.
- Gender equity sometimes means taking into account the sex differences between men and women instead of treating them identically. For example, it would not be sex discrimination for an employer to give female employees in strenuous jobs extra rest breaks during the late stages of their pregnancy even though male employees would not be eligible for this.

**Gender Focal Points**

- Gender Focal Points are people appointed in different governmental, para-statal, non-governmental and private institutions to ensure that all policies, projects and programmes that are developed and implemented in these institutions are gender-sensitive.

**Gender framework**

- This is a tool for analysing the needs and issues of men, women, girls and boys (especially their relationships in society).
- It is also a methodology for gender analysis of the policies of an organisation.

**Gender lens**

- This a term for a tool which enables one to view the participation, needs and realities of women along side the participation, needs and realities of men. A gender lens can be a checklist, a survey or a problem-solving drama. It can also take on many other forms. The origin of the term “gender lens” is a comparison with eyesight; just as we need two healthy eyes to see clearly and fully, we need to see the distinctive realities of both men and women, boys and girls to get a full picture.
Gender mainstreaming
- A process of taking account of gender concerns in all policy, programme, administrative and financial activities and in organisational procedures, so that men and women benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.

Gender needs
- **Practical gender needs:** Practical gender needs are linked to the needs of women and men in respect of daily life, unsatisfactory living conditions and lack of resources. They address practical, immediate necessities such as water, shelter, food, income and health care.
- **Strategic gender needs:** Strategic gender needs are long-term needs that relate to improving the position or status of women and men. They are less visible and more ideological, in that they are about changing power structures and influencing attitudes and behaviour. Strategic gender needs may include all or some of the following: the abolition of the sexual division of labour; the co-sharing of domestic work and child care; the removal of institutionalised forms of discrimination relating to rights to own land or property or access to credit; and freedom of choice over childbearing.

Gender neutral
- Gender neutral means planning for women, men, boys and girls as if they are homogenous, without taking into consideration their different needs and roles. Experience has shown that gender neutral planning is not really “neutral”, but in reality addresses the needs of the dominant group. For example, it is useless to say that a meeting is open to both men and women if the meeting is scheduled after dark in a venue where women are likely to feel unsafe walking at night. Compare the definitions of “gender specific” and “gender transformation” below.

Gender planning
- Gender planning refers to the process of planning developmental programmes and projects that are gender sensitive and which take into account the impact of differing gender roles and gender needs of women and men in the target community or sector.

Gender relations
- Gender relations describe the way men and women relate to each other in individual relationships and in groups. Gender relations are dynamic – they change over time. They are also affected by other factors, such as race, class, ethnicity and disability. Gender relations can be examined to see if either men or women have more power and authority, and if so, whether this creates inequality in the relationship so that one sex benefits more than the other.

Gender responsive budgeting
- Gender responsive budgeting is a methodology and framework for integrating a gender perspective into government, company and organisational budgets to ensure fair and equitable distribution of resources between the sexes. Effective implementation requires a thorough examination of the impact of budget allocations on women and men’s economic and social opportunities and testing whether the benefits of the budget allocations are distributed equitably.

Gender roles
- These are the different tasks, responsibilities and expectations defined by society and allocated to men and women, girls and boys. Gender roles are not determined by biology – they are learnt, they change with time, and vary between and within cultures.
**Gender-sensitive**
- Being gender-sensitive means putting the understanding of the socially-constructed differences between men and women and their needs into practice, by identifying and understanding the problems arising from gender roles and taking action in accordance with the real problems and needs of men and women.
- Gender-sensitive indicators are statistics which can be used to compare the situation of women and men. They measure changes in the situation of women in important sectors over a given period of time, as well as their status in comparison to men. These indicators can be constructed in different ways. For example:
  - Female (or male) share of a total. 50% indicates gender equality, such as when 50% of all MPs are women.
  - Ratio between a female and male characteristic. For example, think of the ratio between the wages of women and men. Women in Namibia have annual incomes almost half that of men: N$29,000 to men’s N$57,000 (UNDP Report 2001/2002). When women and men earn comparable wages in all sectors, then the ratio will be N$1:N$1.
  - Difference between a female and a male. For example, when there is no difference in the average number of hours spent on housework by women and by men equals 0, then there will be full gender equality in the division of labour in the household.

**Gender specific**
- Gender specific means taking into account the needs of a specific gender. For example, a gender-specific policy might entail placing women doctors in clinics so women will feel comfortable to discuss reproductive health issues freely.

**Gender stereotypes**
- A stereotype is a preconceived and over-simplified idea of the characteristics of a person or thing.
- Gender stereotypes are socially constructed beliefs about men and women. They are constructed through sayings, songs, proverbs, the media, religion, culture, customs, education, drama, etc. They include assigning roles, tasks and responsibilities to a particular sex on the bias of preconceived prejudices. Some common gender stereotypes are that women are bad drivers or that men cannot cook.

**Gender transformation**
- Gender transformation means recognising the existence of gender-specific needs and constraints, and seeking to transform the existing gender relations in a more equitable direction through the redistribution of resources and responsibilities. This type of policy intervention is the most challenging because it does not simply seek to channel resources to women within the existing social framework, but questions the existing status quo.

**Patriarchy**
- This literally means “rule by the father”, but more generally refers to a social situation where men are dominant over women in wealth, status and power.

**Sex**
- Sex refers to the universal biological characteristics which are used as the basis for classifying humans as female or male.

**Socialisation**
- This is a life-long process through which an individual’s values, norms and beliefs are shaped or influenced by various agents. The family is the primary socialisation agent. Others include schools, churches, peers, neighbors, workplace, media, etc.
**WID, WAD & GAD**

These are commonly-used acronyms for different approaches to development.

**Women In Development (WID)**
- A WID approach seeks to integrate women into the existing development process, but without transforming unequal gender relationships. It does not question the relation of gender inequality and therefore tends to address the symptoms rather than the causes of gender inequality.
- Early WID projects tended to view women as passive beneficiaries, and often focused on isolated women-only projects or peripheral activities. No gender analysis was done to ensure that WID activities would meet the real needs of women involved, or that the activities would be accepted by men who were not consulted.

**Women And Development (WAD)**
- A WAD approach focuses on achieving more efficient and effective development through the integration of women into existing development processes. It recognises that women have always been economic actors and emphasises structural change of the global political economy, but it does not address the linkage between patriarchy and economic exploitation.
- WAD strategies usually added women’s projects or project components to complement mainstream development programmes. Such projects were geared towards increasing women’s income and productivity, such as through income-generating projects.

**Gender And Development (GAD)**
- The GAD approach to development looks at the unequal relations between the rich and the poor, the advantaged and the disadvantaged and the additional inequities that women face in these contexts. It recognises that women, poor people and other disadvantaged groups are the victims of social structures that prevent equitable development. The ultimate goal of a GAD approach is to create equitable and sustainable development with women and men as equal decision makers. A GAD approach takes into account the different practical and strategic needs of women and men at all stages of a project cycle.
- “Gender And Development” has replaced the “Women in Development” approach in most recent development literature, but has yet to be broadly implemented.

**Work**

There are several different categories of work, all of them with gender implications.
- **Productive work:** Productive work produces goods and services for home consumption and/or sale. It includes employment and self-employment in both the formal and informal sectors. Both women and men can be involved in productive work but their professions, activities and responsibilities often vary according to the gender division of labour.
- **Reproductive work:** Reproductive work involves the care and maintenance of the household and its members. Women tend to be most active in reproductive work such as preparing food, collecting water and firewood, bearing and caring for children, caring for other household members and maintaining the household. Men may be responsible for constructing the home, household security and decision making. Reproductive work is often undervalued, even though it is just as necessary as productive work to a functioning society.
- **Community work:** Community work involves the contribution of time by women and men to community activities. The division of tasks between women and men often reflects their household responsibilities. Women tend to participate in community health care, water supply and cooking for community meetings on a voluntary basis. In contrast, men tend to participate in meetings, discussions and politics in return for power, status and money.
Each module has listed some resources which are relevant to the topic under discussion. This list of resources contains general publications on women in Namibia which cover a range of topics.


- Ministry of Health and Social Services, *2000 Demographic and Health Survey*.


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