

# Governance and Socio- Economic Development after the 2001 Elections

Problems and Prospects

Compiled by

*Jotham C. Momba*  
&  
*Darlington M. Kalabula*



Organisation for  
Social Science  
Research in  
Eastern and  
Southern Africa

National Workshop of OSSREA  
Zambia Chapter

# Governance and Socio-Economic Development after the 2001 Elections Problems and Prospects

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The Zambia Chapter of OSSREA held its fourth annual workshop on 15<sup>th</sup> - 16<sup>th</sup> August 2002 at Mulungushi International Conference Centre, Lusaka. The theme of the workshop was: *Governance and Socio-economic Development after the 2001 Elections: Problems and Prospects*. The workshop was attended by participants from four institutions of higher learning. The workshop was also attended by participants from two other colleges in Lusaka – an important departure from the previous workshops which were almost a University of Zambia affair. Participants also came from the Evelyn Hone College of Applied Arts and Commerce and from the National Institute of Public Administration. The workshop was attended by a total of 42 participants, of whom 16 came from the two colleges. The Acting Deputy Vice-Chancellor of the University of Zambia, Dr. John D. Chileshe, officially opened the workshop. The workshop was immediately followed by the business meeting of chapter members, during which a new liaison officer and a national executive committee were elected.

## 2. PAPERS PRESENTED

In all, seventeen papers were presented by thirteen lecturers from the University of Zambia, three from Copperbelt University and one from Zambia Insurance Business College-Trust.

The first three papers focus on issues of democracy and governance in Zambia. The first paper, *Zambia's Electoral System in Perspective* by Dr. Laurent C.W.Kaela, looks at the ways in which the electoral system has influenced presidential and parliamentary elections in Zambia since the advent of multi-party democracy in terms of process and outcome. It includes such areas as electoral administration, electoral laws, delimitation of constituencies, and



the first-past-the post system. It also discusses such issues as participation, representation, and electoral malpractices. The second paper, *Citizenship, Democracy and Politics of Exclusion in Zambia: Challenges Facing the Mwanawasa Government* by Dr. Neo R. Simutanyi, analyses the root causes of this political paranoia and discusses how the idea of citizenship in Zambia has been used as an important tool in conferring political rights in the political community. The third paper, *Rolling Stones: A Crisis for Democracy in Zambia* by Friday E. Mulenga, discusses the reasons for defections, resignations and expulsions of political party members from their political parties. The paper seeks to examine the implications of the defections, resignations and expulsions for democracy, good governance and conflict resolutions in Zambia.

The fourth, fifth and sixth papers focus on administrative issues. The paper by Dr. Njunga Mulikita, *Institutionalizing Good Governance in Zambia's Public Administration: A Challenge for the New Deal Government*, argues that the new government urgently needs to entrench the norms of good governance in Zambia's Public Administration if the Public Service is to be overhauled out of its current inert state. The fifth paper, *Enhancing Local Government: Lessons from Bi-lateral Cooperation* by Peter K. Lolojih, utilizes the experiences of the Cooperation for District Development (CDD) pilot project in Kaputa, Luwingu and Mbala Districts, in the country's Northern Province, to analyse the impacts of local government reforms on policy processes and outcomes in the administration of local government. The sixth paper by Moderate M. Momba, *Administrative Reforms and the Search for Efficient Delivery of the Public Service: The Challenges Facing Health and Educational Boards*, attempts to look at the successes or/and failures of education and health boards that were introduced under the MMD government as administrative reforms aimed at



improving the provision of public services. Among these changes were the radical changes made in the Health and Education sectors.

The seventh paper, *Zambia's Economic Development under the "New Deal" Administration* by Tiyaonse C. Kabwe, looks at Zambia's development prospects following the election of Levi Mwanawasa as Republican President. It evaluates the economic policies of Mwanawasa's "New Deal" Administration and how he proposes to implement them. The eighth paper, *Fraud and Corruption: Inhibitors to Economic Prosperity: A Comparative Study of Zambia and Ireland* by Nesson J. Ronan, compares a developing country with a developed country - Zambia and Ireland

from the perspective of fraud and corruption. The levels of fraud and corruption are examined through league tables and cases of fraud. The ninth paper, *The Importance of Information Management* by Ezickel Daka, is about the need to treat information as key management/governance resource, and to plan properly for its use. If managed properly and used effectively, organisations can turn information into major source of competitive advantage. To achieve this, some of the issues looked at are: the definition of information, its role in decision making, reasons for information management, types of information systems and developing an IT strategy.

The tenth paper, *Economic Development in Relation to Poverty and Social Service Delivery* by Mr. David Chilipamushi, attempts to identify among other things issues relating to poverty and interventions to reduce the high incidence of poverty in developing countries with specific reference to Zambia

The eleventh paper, *Capacity Building and Management Development in an HIV/AIDS Afflicted Society: Challenges for Zambia* by Mr Henry J. Msango, looks at the impact of HIV/AIDS

on the education system in the post-2001 Zambia tripartite elections. The paper tries to answer such questions as: What challenges does this human tragedy pose for future generations? How can Zambia move forward in this context?

The twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth papers by Dr. Robert T. Mushota, Mr Vesper H. Chisumpa and Mrs. Sophie Kasonde-Ngandu, respectively, focus on the impact of HIV/AIDS on the society. The twelfth paper, *Assessing the Impact of HIV/Aids on Sector Economies: Approaches, Problems and Possible Solutions* by Robert T. Mushota, highlights some of the leading issues and problems in assessing the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on sector economies of Zambia, using the rather limited experience of the agricultural sector as a case study. The paper provides suggestions on what could be done to improve impact assessment and interventions not only in the agricultural sector but also in other sectors of the economy. The thirteenth paper, *AIDS: The Challenge to Zambia's Development* by Vesper H. Chisumpa, analyses the multi-sectoral impact of HIV/AIDS as a challenge to Zambia's development. The fourteenth paper, *Gender Dimension of HIV/AIDS* by Sophie Kasonde-Ngandu, critically looks at the impact of HIV/AIDS with respect to gender. It shows that a substantial number of young girls have dropped out of school to remain at home to care of sick relatives. Available evidence also shows that some girl-children have been victims of HIV/AIDS from defilement by older relatives and /or male adults who are familiar to the victims.

The fifteenth paper, *Community Partnerships in the Care for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zambia* by Anne L. Sikwibele, focuses on children affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic and community responses to their problems. It seeks to investigate the various experiences and problems that orphans and vulnerable

children undergo and how they and their communities deal with such experiences.

The sixteenth paper, *Inclusive Education in Zambia: What Do the Teachers Say* by Darlington M. Kalahula and J. M. Mandyata, looks at the views of teachers on the inclusion of pupils with special needs in ordinary primary schools in Kasama District, Zambia. A triangulated research approach, using structured questionnaires, interview sessions and documentary analyses, was employed to collect the data for the study.

The final paper, *Women Prisoners in Zambia: A Study of Factors that Influence Some Zambian Women into Committing Imprisonable Offences (1988-1999)* by Musheke Kakuwa, examines factors that lead some Zambian women into committing imprisonable offences, the common offences that they commit and how children who are confined together with their mothers are treated while in prison.

### 3. BUSINESS MEETING

At the business meeting, which took place towards the end of the day, a new Liaison Officer, Prof. Jotham C. Momba, was elected. Also, a National Executive Committee was elected to assist the Liaison Officer as per the Chapter by-laws. The members of the Committee were Dr. Darlington M. Kalahula and Ms. Wilma Nchito from the University of Zambia; Dr. Wise Matnga from the Copperbelt University (CBU); Mr. Fidelis Cheelo from Evelyn Hone College; Mrs. Mwiya from National Institute of Public Administration; and Mrs. Moderate M. Momba from Zambia Insurance Business College-Frust (ZIBC-T).

## 4. SUMMARY OF PAPERS PRESENTED

### 4.1 *Zambia's Electoral System in Perspective*

(Laurent C.W. Kaela)

#### **Introduction**

Elections are generally conducted in a framework of rules and procedures in the form of laws and regulations and are managed by authorities or structures assigned with this task. These form part of electoral institutions. After voting is over, the valid votes must be converted into seats or elective positions. The method used to do this is what is generally referred to as the electoral system.

Mindful that electoral outcomes are conditioned as much by the actions of key players as by the institutional framework within which they take place, among other things, this paper focuses primarily on analysing the ways in which the electoral system in Zambia has influenced the outcomes of presidential and parliamentary elections since the advent of multi-party democracy in 1991. Other aspects of the electoral process it covers include registration of voters, delimitation of constituencies, electoral laws and electoral administration.

#### **The Franchise and Registration of Voters**

Under Zambia's electoral laws, registered voters are issued with voters' cards, which they must produce together with the green National Registration Card each time they want to vote in an election. For the purpose of registration and voting, the country is divided into polling districts and each district has one polling-



station-cum-registration-centre. Registration of voters is normally done before holding general elections.

### **Delimitation of Constituencies**

The last delimitation of National Assembly constituencies was done in the run-up to the 1991 elections, when the number was increased from 125 to 150. The Constitution gives the Electoral Commission a lot of discretion for delimiting constituencies. As a result of exercising this discretion, the current distribution of constituencies among the nine provinces is not fair.

Applying the eligible voters quota will favour areas with large numbers of eligible voters, and vice versa. The same applies to the registered voters' quota. The Constitution recognizes the province as the primary unit for allocating seats when it provides for the minimum number of constituencies.

### **The Electoral System**

In Africa, two types of electoral system are commonly used. These are the proportional representation and the plurality or first-past-the-post systems. Zambia uses the latter. The unfair distribution of parliamentary system can be highlighted by the results of the 2001 elections. The MMD won 69 seats (46%) with 28% of the valid votes. In second place was the UPND with 49 seats (32.67%) secured with 23% of the valid votes. Third came UNIP with 13 seats (8.67%) secured with 10.59% of the valid votes.

### **Electoral Laws**

Elections in Zambia are governed by relevant provisions in the constitution, the Electoral Act of 1991, the Local Government

Elections Act, and various regulations. Amendments to the Constitution and the Electoral Act in 1996 changed certain aspects of the election of the president.

### **Electoral Administration**

The body charged with the responsibility of conducting elections and carrying out the registration of voters is the Electoral Commission of Zambia (ECZ). Experience has shown that the registration of voters and the conduct of elections in Zambia have been fraught with problems, threatening the integrity of the electoral process. In this regard, the conduct of the 1996 and 2001 elections and registration of voters stands out. Based on their assessments of pre-election, election and post-election observations, the election monitors concluded that the elections were neither free nor fair.

### **Conclusion**

The registration process leaves out a large number of potential voters. Mobile registration for the voters may help. The current method of distributing constituencies has left provinces with large populations and registered voters, such as Lusaka and the Copperbelt, with disproportionately low numbers of constituencies, while favouring some sparsely populated ones. The Commission should be obligated by law to undertake regular reviews of boundaries of constituencies. The plurality system may also need to be revised since it contributes to a disproportionate distribution of seats relative to the votes received by political parties.



#### *4.2 Citizenship, Democracy and Politics of Exclusion: The Challenges Facing Mwanawasa's "New Deal" Government in Zambia*

(Neo R. Simutanyi)

##### **Introduction**

Issues of democratic participation and human rights have emerged as fundamental aspects of African politics in the 1990s and beyond. The struggle for democracy was aimed at more than the introduction of social rights. However, democratisation has not resolved the issue of the enjoyment of human rights, especially the right of citizenship. It is also observed that though democratisation involves a struggle for broad human rights of all peoples, many African countries still deny immigrants and refugees civil and political rights.

In Zambia, the citizenship question has been variously addressed by successive governments since independence. At the heart of the problem is an ambiguity in the meaning of citizenship, different criteria for citizenship and different statuses. This ambiguity has been used at different times to victimize some individuals and groups in the enjoyment of their citizenship rights. For example, the Chiluba government (1991-2002) not only ensured the deportation of key political opponents on grounds that they were non-citizens but also amended the Constitution to include a clause to the effect that presidential candidates should have both their parents born in Zambia. This particular constitutional provision was not only blatantly discriminatory but also introduced into discourse the notion that citizens have unequal status and therefore unequal enjoyment of human rights.

### **Citizenship, Democracy and Politics of Exclusion: A Conceptual and Theoretical Discussion**

In the context of a democracy, citizenship implies political equality of all members of the political community. Schumpeter and Dahl define democracy as an inclusive political system where all adult individuals have a right to elect and be elected in periodic elections in an environment they also enjoy fundamental human liberties and rights.

#### **Citizenship and Democracy in Zambia's Third Republic**

Mamdani (1995) has noted the dilemma of citizenship in Africa and treatment of individuals of foreign origin. The state can use its power to withdraw citizenship rights from any individual who is viewed to pursue interests inimical to its survival. Governments pursue this strategy by political and constitutional amendments.

While most constitutions recognized persons born of immigrant parents as citizens, there is ambiguity as to their qualification to contest elective positions such as that of parliamentary or presidency positions. Political opponents who are either born in Zambia of immigrant parents or are citizens by naturalization have also been targeted for discrimination by the state.

Perhaps, the most visible mechanism by which the government has restricted the citizenship rights of inhabitants has been through constitutional amendments. Implication of the amendment was that citizens did not enjoy equal treatment and enjoyment of rights; citizens of foreign descent are discriminated against. But in the application of the law, it was clear that the amendment was a political strategy of exclusion, as Chiluba was not sure of winning the election should Kaunda have contested. This can be

demonstrated by the widespread jubilation and relief when the MMD members of parliament passed the amendment into law.

### **The Future of the Citizenship Question: Challenges Facing Mwanawasa's Government**

Mwanawasa's "new deal" government faces a number of political challenges. First, his election as President of Zambia has been petitioned in the Supreme Court of Zambia by three losing candidates, Anderson Mazoka, Christon Tembo and Godfrey Miyanda. Second, internal factional fighting within the MMD has preoccupied Mwanawasa since he assumed office. Third, Mwanawasa faces a formidable challenge in confronting the issue of transparency and the respect for the rule of law.

What has been the Mwanawasa's government attitude to the enjoyment of fundamental rights of the individual in general and citizenship in particular? His government adopted a different attitude to the question of citizenship. For example, people deported by the previous government have been informed of their right to return to Zambia. These include William Banda and Majid Ticklay.

### **Conclusion**

In conclusion, it is recommended that a thorough review of the criteria for citizenship and qualification for contesting in elective political office be considered in a review of the Constitution of Zambia. Second, the vexing problem of immigrants and refugees or displaced persons who are denied political, civil and social rights needs to be addressed. In advanced democracies, immigrants who come to work and refugees have the right to vote and may engage in civic activities. Third, discriminatory provisions in the constitution



that provide unequal treatment of citizens need to be repealed and the constitution should reflect democratic imperatives.

### *4.3 Rolling Stones: A Crisis for Democracy in Zambia*

(Friday E. Mulenga)

#### **Introduction**

The aim of the paper is to examine the implications for democracy in Zambia of defections, resignations and expulsions of members from political parties. The paper covers the period from 1991 to 2002 although it is a fact that in Zambia there have been defections, resignations and expulsions from political parties since the 1950s.

It can be said that the reasons for defections and resignations have not changed much from the 1950s. They are the search for economic benefits, the quest for political power and the personality of the leader. The expulsions are caused by the vicious struggle for scarce economic resources that have increased the levels of intolerance.

These reasons have remained constant over the years. What does change is what is emphasised at a particular time in history. In this regard, when the people who defected from ANC did so in 1958, it was because they had concluded ANC under Nkumbula was not the vehicle that would lead them to power and economic prosperity. In 1971, when Kapwepwe and his supporters defected from UNIP, it was because it was felt that under UNIP their ethnic group was not benefiting economically as it should. In today's defections, it might be interesting to look at who is defecting and why they are defecting in terms of how they are doing financially at the time of defection. This would explain why most of the people defecting are moving to the ruling MMD.

In terms of conflict resolution, political parties do not seem to have mechanisms for dealing with internal dissent. In this regard, when there are differences in a party, the end result is almost always inevitably expulsions of dissidents or resignations and defections of the dissidents.

The paper tries to show that political behaviour in Zambia is rooted in Zambia's colonial and post-colonial history. In this regard, colonial rule in Zambia, as elsewhere in Africa, did not help to develop a good political culture. In fact, nationalist leaders learned the tactics to oppress opponents from the colonial rulers. The main argument in this paper, however, is that Zambia has so far failed to develop a clear political culture. This would be defined as a culture in which opposition parties are recognised as being essential to the political system. This is a culture in which election results are respected and losing an election is not considered a shame and a reason for defecting from a party on whose ticket one lost an election.

One of the reasons why Zambia's democracy is not working well is that the dwindling economic resources have meant that the fight for political power that gives those with the power an advantage over the control and distribution of the resources has become very vicious. This had led to very high levels of intolerance in political parties. It has also meant that those who have ambitions of one day controlling the resources form their own parties once they leave or are forced to leave a party.

The dwindling economic resources have also meant that corruption has become widespread in the Zambian political system. Many people defecting from a party give corruption as their reason for doing so. Perhaps they need to add lack of access to economic resources because those in charge of distributing the resources give

them to relatives and friends. What all this means is that merely re-introducing the multi-party system in Zambia has not made Zambia a democracy. There is need for developing institutions that will guard against democracy being undermined. Unless there is socio-economic development and equal distribution of resources, defections, resignations and expulsions will continue and democracy will continue to be threatened. It is not party ideology that will keep members in them forever; it is equal sharing of resources. A system should be put in place that will ensure that members of the opposition do not feel economically deprived for belonging to opposition parties.

It is also taking too long to change the one-party mentality of looking up to a very strong leader. This can be attested to by the increasing number of people who going over to the MMD because it now has a "great leader" with good leadership qualities to lead Zambia to prosperity. This "great leader" factor caused two political parties only last month to disband and "merge" with the MMD. Since the defections are mainly from the opposition parties to the ruling party for reasons that include lack of vision in opposition party leaderships, the implications of such defections for Zambia's democracy is that opposition parties cannot develop into ruling parties. If this is the situation, it means people will always perceive opposition parties as being incapable of one day winning elections and forming government. In addition, since poor leadership in opposition parties is often cited as the reason for defecting or resigning from them, the implications for Zambia's democracy is that opposition parties have no capacity to develop leadership that can rule the country. This sort of perception undermines democracy in the country in that once a party comes to power it will ensure that it stays in power forever claiming no other party can rule.



#### 4.4 *Institutionalising Good Governance in Zambia's Public Administration: A Challenge for the New Deal Government*

(Michael Njunga Mulikita)

##### **Introduction**

The primary role of the public administration in any country is to ensure that the government can provide an enabling environment for sustainable socio-economic development. Such an environment if made available may not only lead to increased inflows of foreign investments but also generate economic growth, which would in turn facilitate the provision of basic goods and services to the general population.

However, the performance of the public administration in promoting sustainable human development in Africa has been pathetic to say the least. The main reason for this sorry state of affairs has been the all-pervasive scourge of corruption, which has plagued public management on the continent. It is therefore no wonder that whereas, the Asian Tiger economies like Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, South Korea despite not enjoying the natural resources of most Sub-Saharan African countries have registered phenomenal growth statistics.

##### **Good Governance: Conceptual Origins**

The World Bank in its Report, entitled *Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth*, took the unprecedented step of linking aid flows to what it called "Governance", which it defined as the *exercise of political power to manage a nation's affairs*. Western politicians and academics likewise pointed out that "*Good or Democratic Governance*" involves much more than elections

regardless of how free and fair they might be perceived; *Good Governance* was recognized to be an integral part of peace building and conflict resolution. The United Nations Development Program has broadened the World Bank's definition of good governance by characterizing it as the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels. In this definition, governance includes but goes beyond the state. It encompasses the private sector and civil society.

Any government that fails to take adequate cognisance of any of these three sectors will find the realization of good governance difficult. In the ultimate analysis, good governance is the pivot around which other factors of development revolve, particularly as development is no longer being measured solely in terms of per capita income or GDP growth rates.

### **1991-2001: Public Administration Governed on the Basis of the "Merit Principle" or Political Patronage?**

Zambia is a constitutional republic and the latest Zambian constitution, Zambia's third, became the fundamental law in 1996, preserving for the most part a balance of power between the executive, the legislature, and the judiciary. The president has executive powers, must seek re-election after a five-year period, and can serve only two terms. The presidency is a powerful post in Zambia, giving the incumbent wide discretionary powers and considerable scope for patronage. For all the achievements of democratic reforms in Zambia, presidential power and patronage continue to be concentrated and centralized. The 1996 constitution has also strengthened the powers of the legislature - the National Assembly, a 158-seat body in which the ruling MMD currently holds 77 seats. Before September 2001, when the ruling party had a comfortable two-thirds majority in parliament, parliamentarians

rarely challenged the government or gave much critical scrutiny to legislation.

The constitution circumscribes the power of the judiciary to pronounce legislation as unconstitutional and also empowers the president to remove high court judges if he decides they have committed gross misconduct. The 1996 constitution was passed despite hostility from opposition parties, human rights groups, churches, trade unions, the independent press, lawyers' associations, and many international bodies. The close identification of the constitution with the ruling party mirrors the fact that the constitutional review exercises of 1973, 1991 and 1996 and the divisive bid by former President Chiluba to introduce an amendment to enable him to run for a third term may have been leading Zambia towards internalising a culture of politicised constitutions, which not only lack universal consensus but are also susceptible to political manipulation. The spirited defence of the constitution by a cross-section of Zambian society in 2001 could therefore be cautiously viewed as signalling a broad national consensus in favour of an emergent culture of "good" and "accountable" governance.

### **The Scourge of Bad Governance during the Lost Decade (1991-2001)**

Reports of widespread corruption during the ten-year reign of President Chiluba have been publicised in both the state and non-state media since the "New Deal" government of President Mwanawasa came into office late in 2001. The 2001 global corruption survey of the Berlin based non-governmental organization, Transparency International (TI), which ranks countries on both bribe payers and Corruption Perception Index (CPI), and is based on several independently conducted surveys, rates Zambia as the second most corrupt country in Southern Africa. This ranking



confirms that Zambia is regarded as a place where corruption in public and business life is widespread. There is therefore an urgent need to develop strategies that de-link private resource accumulation through corruption from access to public office through politics. Bad Governance severely undermines the efficacy of public administration and governance in Africa.

### **Entrenching Good Governance in Zambia's Public Administration in the New Deal Era**

#### *A. Empowering the Secretary to the Cabinet and the Public Service Commission*

As a first step towards institutionalising norms of good governance in Zambia's post 2001 elections public administration, President Mwanawasa has delegated full authority to the Public Service Commission and the Office of the Secretary to the Cabinet to effectively and efficiently manage the Civil Service. By ensuring that communications between State House and the Civil Service are exclusively channelled through the Office of the Secretary to the Cabinet, it will be possible for the Secretary to the Cabinet to hold Permanent Secretaries accountable in terms of meeting government targets and objectives as opposed to the previous scenario wherein certain controlling officers with connections to the Presidential Palace felt they were not answerable to the Secretary to the Cabinet.

An accompanying measure intended to improve management capacity in the Civil Service has been to strengthen the role of the Public Service Commission (PSC) in effecting promotions, demotions and other movements in the civil service.

By refocusing the Public Service Commission in terms of applying merit based criteria in evaluating the performance of career civil

servants, a critically important first step in restoring morale in the public administration will have been fulfilled.

### *B. A Leaner and More Manageable Public Administration*

A major dimension of the Public Service Reform Program (PSRP), launched in 1993, envisages the establishment of a leaner and more effective public service. It is accordingly argued that smaller public service will not only be more efficient in terms carrying out core public service operations, but the savings arising out of downsizing the service will lead to a corps of better remunerated and motivated public servants.

### *C. Zambia's Elusive Decentralisation Policy*

It is important that the government of Zambia subject its draft policy on decentralisation to public discussion as quickly as practicable. This policy ought not to be another decorative showpiece but should offer a viable policy framework within which poverty reduction capacity, finance and overall service delivery can be addressed. The current financial position of all local authorities in Zambia is so weak that they have generally proved to be ill equipped to undertake their assigned responsibilities.

### *D. An Overloaded Legal/Regulatory Framework*

In some respects, Zambia manifests the symptoms of a failed state. The judicial system lacks the capacity to cope competently with the proliferation of litigation and cases, which tend to drag on for years before they are disposed of. The judicial sector is further constrained by a diminishing physical capacity in terms of courtroom space and a critical shortage of judges and magistrates to expeditiously dispense justice. This appalling state of affairs repels

foreign investment due to fear on the part of investors that the judicial system is so badly run down that it cannot offer adequate legal protection for investment.

#### The "New Deal" Era: Appraisal and Forward Look

In conclusion, it would be instructive to draw the following inferences on the appraisal and forward look regarding the "New Deal" era:

- i) For Good Governance to be entrenched in Zambia and other African countries, it is important that a strong parliamentary democracy be installed. The practice of 'Presidentialism', which centralizes excessive power in the Office of the President, inherently encourages corruption on the part of the individual who occupies this high office.
- ii) For Good Governance to be entrenched in Zambia and other African countries, it is important that a strong parliamentary democracy be installed. The practice of 'Presidentialism', which centralizes excessive power in the Office of the President, inherently encourages corruption on the part of the individual who occupies this high office.
- iii) Public Service Commissions must be made answerable to Parliament and not to the President. Parliamentary Public Service Committees ought to be mandated to select individuals of demonstrable professional competence and high ethical integrity to serve on Public Service Commissions.
- iv) It is extremely important that governance institutions such as the Office of the Investigator-General of Police (IGP),



Ombudsman, Director of Public Prosecution and Anti-Corruption Commission are given the necessary institutional, financial and logistical means they require to effectively clamp down on corrupt politicians and bureaucrats.

#### **4.5 *Enhancing Local Government Administration: Lessons from Bilateral Cooperation***

(Peter K. Lolojih)

##### **Introduction**

Since Zambia attained its independence from the British rule in October 1964, a number of reforms intended to improve the operations of the Local Government system have been instituted. These reforms can be divided into three phases: 1965 to 1980; 1981 to late 1991; and 1991 to date (current).

The paper argues that the reforms adopted thus far have exacerbated the ineffectiveness of the local councils vis-à-vis service delivery and have, in fact, not helped to create an atmosphere conducive to community participation in the affairs of the local authorities. The local government system has virtually collapsed and local authorities are held in very low esteem by the communities.

##### **Local Government Reforms**

The local government system that operated in Zambia between 1965 and 1980 was based on the Local Government Act of 1965 that came into operation on 1<sup>st</sup> November of that year. The Act provided for three types of local authorities: two urban (municipalities/cities and townships) and one rural. For each municipal and city council,

there was a mayor and deputy mayor; and for each rural and township council, there was a chairman and a vice chairman elected annually by councillors from among themselves.

In January 1981, the Local Administration Act of 1980 replaced the Local Government Act of 1965. Officially, the 1980 Act had three principal objectives. The first reflected government and the ruling party's (UNIP) desire to decentralize power to the people. The second was to "ensure an effective integration of the primary organs of local administration in the district" (Zambia 1980, 127). The third was to enable district councils to play a more direct and substantial role in the development process than they had been expected to undertake in the past (Mukwena 1999a).

In December 1990, Zambia returned to a multiparty political system and upon taking over the reins of power in 1991, the new government under the Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD) enacted a new local government Act (the Local Government Act of 1991) in December 1991 to replace the 1980 Act.

Notable changes brought about by the 1991 Act included the clear institutional divorce of party structures from the council, the abandonment of the integrative role of the district councils and the reintroduction of representative local governments based on universal adult suffrage. Basically, the 1991 Act brought back the first system of local government.

### **The Cooperation for District Development (CDD) Project**

The CDD, sponsored by the government of Zambia and the Norwegian government through its agency NORAD, targeted three districts – Mbala, Luwingu and Kaputa – in Zambia's Northern

Province from mid 1997 to mid 2000. The project's development objective was to contribute towards the setting up of a framework that will raise levels of district administration and management and enhance local democracy with a view to stimulating more active participation of people in the affairs of their communities in the districts of Mbala, Luwingu and Káputa.

### **Impact Assessment of the CDD – 1999/2001**

In November 1999 and May 2001, the research team conducted their final fieldwork of the pilot districts found out that in spite of the various constraints, the CDD project succeeded in making a positive impact on the pilot councils, especially in Luwingu and Mbala.

### **Conclusion**

The CDD experience and the efforts being made by other cooperating partners clearly show that the local government system can be salvaged from the imminent total collapse if the government committed itself to the task. The government can do well to seriously analyse the various "experiments" that have been conducted by its cooperating partners with a view of ensuring that the successful elements of these programmes are implemented countrywide. This exercise is expensive but any government committed to ideals of good governance should be willing to pay the price. More importantly, there is need for reviewing the local government legislation to ensure an environment that can support an efficient and effective local government system.

#### 4.6 *Administrative Reforms and the Search for Efficient Delivery of Public Service: The Challenges Facing Health and Educational Boards*

(Moderate M. Momba)

##### **Introduction**

The establishment of the Health and Education Boards is an integral part of the comprehensive reform package of the public service sector that the government has introduced to make the public service delivery system effective and efficient. The workshop gave rise to a comprehensive plan for reforming the public service, giving birth to the Public Service Reform Programme. The Public Service Reform Programme is a strategy aimed at transforming the public service in order to improve the quality, delivery, efficiency, and cost effectiveness of public services to the people.

##### **The Nature and Operation of the Health and Education Boards**

The vision of the Health Reforms is the development of a health care system which can provide Zambians with equity of access to health services, cost-effective quality care and health care that is close to the family as much as possible. In order to facilitate the attainment of this vision, the government adopted the Primary Health Care strategy which is being implemented through the creation of District Health Boards. The District Health Boards are supposed to be fully *autonomous* in their methods of operation. Their main duty is to manage and provide health services in all districts of Zambia. Through area-specific health management boards, it is hoped that popular representation and technical/professional interest can combine to give Zambia a health



care system that is responsive to local and national interests and needs.

The boards are also responsible for the procurement, transfer from the public services and secondment to another management board of staff. In line with this responsibility, on 4th June 1997, statutory instrument no. 76 was issued. This statutory instrument provides the basis for an orderly transfer of staff in the health service from civil service to board employment. The education boards are being established by statutory instruments in exercise of the powers contained in section 19 of the Education Act. In principle, education boards are not different from health boards. They entail a new decentralised system of education, where individual education boards are the focal points for the delivery of education.

### **The Performance and Problems of Health and Education Boards in Public Service Delivery**

This section attempts an assessment of the performance of the Health and Education Boards. There seems to be a general agreement on the fact that the creation of health and education boards as a strategy for effective delivery of public services is in itself a good idea. For example, Bwalya Nondo's article entitled Education Boards Rekindling Crumbled Standards urges that the devolution of authority to the districts will disband the red tape that characterised the centralised education system thereby achieving the net benefit of quick decision-making and faster response to problems/opportunities.

Among the key stakeholders who the Ministries of Education and Health seem not to have had full support and commitment from are the parents/service users and teachers/health workers. As a result of that the teachers through the Zambia National Union of teachers



(ZNUT) have been very critical of the education boards. ZNUT officials pointed out that as much as the objective of the boards might be to grant autonomy to the schools and thereby help improve conditions, as teachers they stood to lose much from the resulting breakaway from the civil service. Furthermore, ZNUT feels that by setting up the boards, the government was not only privatising schools but also ridding itself of responsibility for Zambia's educational system.

The second problem pertaining to the implementation of health and education boards is associated with the introduction of user fees. In this respect, one may be tempted to argue that the user fees were adopted as a major component of both education and health boards without first carefully evaluating their feasibility. As a result, health services and education have become very difficult (even impossible) for most users. Similarly, the levels of charges in the name of user fees have prevented a large number of poor people from gaining access to health services, especially women and children. Education school boards started abusing the concept of greater community participation in the education sector by making a lot of demands from pupils for things that are not directly related to the children's lessons, such as brooms, cobra, empty bottles, candles, and tissues. The situation has, however changed with the introduction of free education by the New Deal Government. In the health boards, abuse of authority took a form of alleged victimisation of workers. In March 1998, the Zambia National Union of Health and Allied Workers (ZNUHAW) sued Kitwe Hospital Management Board and the Nursing Council of Zambia (NCZ) for dismissal of 42 workers alleging that the workers were victimised.

Inadequate funding, though not directly linked to the aspect of decentralisation and the creation of boards, is another problem

affecting effective performance of both Education and Health Boards.

### **Conclusion**

It is to a large extent clear from the discussion that almost all of the stakeholders of the education and health Reforms agree that decentralisation and the creation of health and education boards can lead to effective delivery of public services. Decentralisation entails community participation, which promotes community influence in decision-making thereby instilling a sense of ownership and commitment in implementing community projects. Moreover, education and health boards in Zambia have recorded physical improvements. The implementation of education and health reforms has, however, not been easy due to several reasons. For example, user fees have become more of a hindrance against accessing public services than a means of improving access to public services.

### **4.7 Zambia's Economic Development under the "New Deal" Administration**

(Tiyaonse Chisanga Kabwe)

#### **Introduction**

This paper examines prospects for Zambia's economic development in view of the "New Deal" economic strategy announced by President Levi Patrick Mwanawasa when he assumed the Republican Presidency.

The paper will review the "New Deal" economic package. Emphasis will be on whether there has been a significant departure from

policies that the previous administration pursued in the past ten years.

### **The New Deal**

The "New Deal" economic strategy purports to place development at the apex of the government's priority list; that is, to strive for a more human-centred development process in which the Zambian citizen is both the end and means of development. The main objective is the achievement of a society in which every citizen will live a decent life, free from all hardships, poverty, crime and ill health. Opportunities will be created for all, to participate in accordance with every person's means and abilities.

The President's "new" strategy of realizing this vision is basically to continue with the liberal economic policies of the previous administration. In keeping with the spirit of Neo-liberalism known also as the Washington consensus, born out of the collapse of communism in the late 1980s, the MMD in 1991 made new interpretation of the country's mounting economic problems. The major culprit was found to be the existence of a command economy coupled with the so-called dictatorial tendencies of Kaunda's one party state. Solutions were believed to lie in the adoption of liberal democracy and the implementation of unlimited economic liberalism. The new economic strategy included wholesale privatisation of all state companies. The 1990/91 MMD economic manifesto stressed that all state companies would be privatised and the state will have nothing to do with business beyond facilitating private sector activities. National development planning was abandoned. There was instead advocacy for unregulated private decision-making in all spheres of the country's economic life, cuts in public expenditure and unregulated international commerce and trade.



### **Misplaced Perception**

The paper argues that President Mwanawasa has not presented a correct picture of the real effects of the liberal policies pursued by the MMD government in the last ten years when he says Zambia, as a result of such policies, has made momentous achievements in various sectors of the country's economic development.

Government statistics show that the last ten years have been a total waste in terms of real development. All sectors of the economy have either stagnated or declined. There have been enormous job losses. Inflation has worsened. The agricultural sector was damaged beyond recognition. Smallholder farms were abandoned. Production of all major crops plummeted. Production of all major crops plummeted. Medical facilities dwindled. There had been no significant improvement in primary, secondary school, college and university enrolment in the MMD's decade of rule. The number of teachers in both primary and secondary schools was diminishing. An increasing number of citizens found themselves without decent accommodation.

### **Role of the Private Sector in the "New Deal"**

In his "New Deal" pronouncements, Mwanawasa has stated that the thrust of his economic policies will be to achieve his development objectives through market-oriented policies led by the private sector. Monetary policies will remain market-oriented. Bank of Zambia's intervention will be limited to meeting internal reserve objectives and stabilizing short-term fluctuations in the interest and exchange rates. As with the previous administration, the government's role will remain that of providing the private sector with an enabling environment. The State will be preoccupied with implementing appropriate fiscal and monetary policies.



strengthening structural reforms and re-orienting government expenditure towards poverty reduction and investments in the productive sector.

### **Justification for the “New Deal”**

To justify the assignment of the “New Deal” label to the old classical liberal economic doctrine, Mwanawasa has proposed to make certain policy alterations. These changes, which he said are aimed at benefiting the economy and enhancing national interests, appear to be centred on the need to make the State relatively strong. He stated that the government will continue to provide an enabling environment but that one cannot expect to have a vibrant private sector if the government is weak. In his earlier speech to parliament, Mwanawasa had implied that a relatively strong state was a necessary stopgap in the achievement of a private sector driven economy.

Privatisation of all state companies will entail stripping the state of any meaningful resource base. It will also mean the state losing even the little capacity it has to influence the course of economic development in the country.

National planning by itself is meaningless in the context of Mwanawasa’s vision of an economy entirely driven by the private sector. National planning or the lack of it was one of the major features used for drawing lines of demarcation between the so-called command economies and liberal economies. Even if planning was not necessarily confined to socialist economies, it nevertheless worked well only in economies where the State chose to participate by means of both ownership and control of means of production. The State can only effectively identify areas of need, mobilize and allocate resources and set targets for completion of identified

projects if it intends to participate in them. It is not possible to plan for the private sector because the guiding principle of the private sector is profit making. The private sector cannot be compelled to engage in any economic activities it does not consider profitable.

Replacing the mining sector with the agricultural sector as an engine of development and source of both employment and poverty reduction in the context of neo-liberalist policies is yet another pipe dream. The Zambian nation was founded on copper and copper mining. Henceforth all national economic activities proceeded on the basis of this single most important preoccupation. All other sectors including agriculture were developed only as service sectors. Significant changes in agriculture require radical changes, which neo-liberalism cannot accommodate. Resource mobilization for investment in the agricultural sector is hard to achieve in an economy where the State does not own banks and other financial institutions.

Scholars in the post neo-liberalist phase have established that the total withdrawal of the State from national economic activities and its relegation to the position of a neutral watchman are not only undesirable but impossible to attain.

### **Conclusion**

It can be concluded that Mwanawas's "New Deal" economic strategy is not likely to change anything beyond the performance of the Chiluba Administration in the past ten years. In fact, things are likely to become worse because it is within the "New Deal" administration period that the privatisation process will be completed and it's full negative impacts felt. This conclusion stems from the fact the "New Deal" economic strategy is in large measure, a continuation of the policies MMD implemented in the past ten

years. The minor variations the President wishes to introduce are too mild to change anything.

#### *4.8 Financial Fraud and Corruption: Inhibitors to Economic Prosperity - A Comparative Study of Zambia and Ireland*

(Nessan J. Ronan)

##### **Introduction**

Financial fraud is now a worldwide phenomenon. Both in the developed and developing countries, we are confronted on a regular basis with incidences of fraud that involve considerable sums of money and that adversely affect the economy. Shareholders, management, employees, suppliers, tax authorities, other stakeholders and citizens suffer when fraud occurs. The main elements in the fight against fraud are good national and corporate governance and a strong code of professional ethics together with adequate protection for those who inform on illegal activities. This paper explores the phenomenon of financial fraud and corruption from a comparative perspective. Two countries are selected for consideration: Ireland, a developed country and Zambia, a lesser developed country. Some instances of financial fraud in both countries are discussed and explanations are offered why financial fraud occurs. The role of the accountant in combating fraud is also explored and recommendations are made on how national accountancy bodies can support their members in the fight against financial fraud.

##### **Nature of Fraud and Corruption**

While there is widespread discussion about fraud and corruption, the terms are rarely defined and explained. In this paper we consider

two definitions of fraud. Michael Comer in his book *Corporate Fraud* defines fraud as any behaviour by which one person intends to gain a dishonest advantage over another.

The major financial frauds include embezzlement, kiting, lapping, conflicts of interests, false claims, financial statement misrepresentation, credit card abuses, money laundering, counterfeiting, and education frauds. Corruption is sometimes used interchangeably with the term fraud but strictly it has its own specific meaning.

According to Holloway, corruption has broadly been defined as the abuse of public power for private gain. It involves a monopoly of resources and the abuse of discretion. Other writers make no distinction between the two terms. Some examples of acts of corruption include bribery, illegal gratuity, and extortion.

### **Analysis and Explanation**

Notwithstanding the fact that Ireland and Zambia are significantly different in terms of geographical location, language, ethnicity, economic and social development, there are a number of similarities with regard to fraud and corruption.

#### *A. High Tolerance for Financial Fraud*

Rarely does one find a person receiving a jail sentence for fraudulent crimes. In Ireland, tax evasion is in some quarters looked upon as a "clever thing" to do. It would appear in the last decade that when fraud was rampant in Ireland, the Tax Authorities adopted a binary system of tax collection. They hounded the small taxpayer for the last penny while adopting a "kid glove" approach to wealthy taxpayers, especially those with political clout.



In Zambia, where fraud tends to be concentrated on stealing state funds, it is looked upon as part of the reward of public office. In a perverse sense, fraud and corruption are seen by many as the necessary price to pay for a government. As a result, the citizen is quite philosophical about this activity believing that even if the government changes with an election, fraud and corruption will continue.

### *B. Fraud Based on Greed*

There is no evidence to suggest that fraud and corruption are committed out of need. On the contrary, the large frauds are invariably committed by people who have significant amounts of wealth. Perpetrators have relied on the notion that they are unlikely to be detected or if they are unlucky enough to get caught, they will rarely be given a prison sentence.

### *C. Former British Colonies*

It is fashionable to blame colonialism for all ills of a country. Still, it appears that colonialism has infused into national culture a certain disrespect for the rule of law. This is particularly strong when it comes to state funds. In the colonial days, these funds were seen as belonging to an oppressor. There may still be a residue of this sentiment left although one hopes in time that it will be rejected.

### *D. Government as Chieftdom*

Ostensibly, both countries are Republics with multi-party democracy. The reality is sometimes different. As stated previously, Zambia is in reality a dictatorship as the opposition is small, weak and ineffective. Power is concentrated by the President, who acts

more in the style of a village chief. He dispenses privileges and positions to his faithful followers as a feudal king would.

In Ireland, the leadership style of Charles Haughey as Prime Minister resembled that of an African Chief. He developed and promoted a culture of financial dishonesty and fraud based on naked greed. This culture was imbibed not only by politicians but also by successful businessmen.

### *E. Christian Countries*

Both countries are considered highly Christian. Ireland's population is about 99 percent Christian and Zambia has even gone so far as to declare the country a Christian nation. Ethical philosophers can be forgiven for being puzzled by the fact that two highly Christian countries can have such a poor record concerning financial fraud and corruption. It would appear that religion plays no part in informing them when it comes to fraud. In the scheme of things, these types of offences are not considered to have major ethical implications. On the other hand, Christianity can be used as a smoke screen to hide these illegal activities.

### **Combating Fraud and Corruption**

When forwarding proposals for combating fraud and corruption, it must be realised that it is not feasible to eliminate them completely. Similar to other types of crime, the aim should be to reduce them to manageable levels. The paper offers a five-step approach in the strategy to reduce fraud and corruption: Education; Prevention; Detection; Prosecution; and Conviction.

## Conclusion

Fraud and corruption are a cancer eating away at the soul of a nation. Not only do they attack the social fabric of a country but they have the potential to hinder economic progress. Foreign direct investment desires an economic environment with minimal fraud and corruption. We have seen in this paper how two countries, one developed and the other developing, have slipped into the mire of fraud and corruption. While accountants and other professionals can contribute to an honest society, it is vital that the political leaders are imbued with the sense of public service and integrity we expect from our elected representatives. Transparency and good government are the keys to a corruption free society. When cases of fraud and corruption are discovered the law should be allowed to take its course. Those found guilty should be given the appropriate sentence including custodial sentences. Finally, it is only when most of the citizens decide that they will not tolerate fraud and corruption that we can expect a reasonably fraud and corrupt free society.

## 4.9 *The Importance of Information Management*

(Ezekiel Daka)

### Introduction

Management is the process of organizing activities to achieve goals. Its functions may be classified as, Planning, Organizing, Staffing and Directing.

Systems are composed of the same basic elements, inputs, processes, and outputs. All systems have interrelated parts, a boundary and a surrounding environment. An open system is a dynamic system that responds to any change in its environment,

whereas a closed system does not respond to any change in its environment.

Information is defined as processed raw data. Information is major input resource in business systems, without which a business cannot plan or make decisions. The clarity of decision-making is determined by the clarity of information at the operational level. Criteria needed to make information useful for decision-making are: Accuracy, Form, Frequency, Breadth, Origin, Time Horizon, Relevance, Completeness and Timeliness.

### **Management Information Systems**

Management Information System (MIS) is an integrated system for providing information to support the planning, control, and operations of an organization. A MIS involves people, procedures, equipment, models and data.

The term "computer-based information systems" is used collectively to refer to both management information systems (MIS) and decision support systems (DSS). A decision support system (DSS) can be defined as a "computer based system that supports decision-makers". The system is geared towards decision-making rather than basic information processing.

### **The Activities of the Organisation**

The activities of an organisation are of three kinds; operational, tactical, and strategic planning. Different components within multiple levels of management are represented by activities ranging from operations to planning and different degrees of structure in decision making and problem solving. Operational level transactions drive the entire organisation.



Operational management systems deal with the day to day activities that involve acquiring and consuming resources. The day to day transactions produce data that are the basis for operational systems.

Tactical management systems deal with tactical planning for the organisation. The time frame for these activities may be month-to-month, quarter-to-quarter or year-to-year.

Strategic management systems set the organisation's long range goals, often requiring months or years to resolve.

Personal information systems are the kind when individuals use their own computer systems to enhance their effectiveness. Work-team information systems consist of a number of individuals sharing data and communication using networks. Corporate information systems consist of the integration of personal, work-group, and global information systems. These systems facilitate communication and information sharing between departments and different organisations, using networks and Intranets.

#### ***4.10 Economic Development in Relation to Poverty and Social Services Delivery***

(Davidson Chilpanushi)

##### **Introduction**

In this paper, economic development is interpreted to mean the translation of benefits of economic growth into tangible improvement in the standard of living of the people. Economic development therefore should be seen not as a static phenomenon but rather as a dynamic process that ultimately ensures that people's standards of living are continuously being improved upon. Where this does not happen for one reason or another, there is bound to be corrosion in the living conditions of the people who are supposed to

benefit from the gains of economic growth. In extreme cases, a state of deprivation commonly referred to as poverty, will result. This condition, once prevalent in a country, has the consequential effect of denying a larger section of the population accessibility to necessities of life such as food, appropriate housing and sanitation, education, and health. Additionally, these situations make people vulnerable and weak to fight off such diseases as HIV/AIDS, malaria, and malnutrition to mention a few.

In Africa, more predominantly in sub-Saharan Africa, where the state of deprivation is particularly very high, the situation is further compounded by natural causes such as drought and floods which have made the situation even worse. This has contributed to the food insecurity that is experienced in most parts of the continent. Civil wars, regional conflicts, and high population growth rates have all contributed to this calamitous state of affairs. In fact, despair, vulnerability and a sense of helplessness is created as a consequence of poverty. Some analysts have in fact gone to the extent of linking poverty to bad governance, that is to say bad governance leads to poverty and that poverty leads to bad governance. This phenomenon it seems is apparent in most poverty stricken countries of Africa today. Bad governance, it is suggested, manifests itself in the following ways:

- The high indebtedness facing most of the poor countries;
- Poor economic policies; and
- High prevalence of kleptocracy, misapplication of economic resources.

### **High Indebtedness**

Over the years, Zambia's debt stock has been rising. This however does not say much in terms of interpreting the effect debt has had on the country's abilities to effectively tackle the problem of poverty.

There is a relatively high debt service ratio in the earlier years followed by a steady decline in subsequent years. The debt cancellations and the easing up of conditional ties with the advent of the Highly Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC) explain the decline. It should be emphasized that the decline in the ratios are largely explained by the relief due to HIPC. It is obvious from this scenario that the country has no capacity to service its debt.

### **Poor Economic Policies**

For a long time till 1991, Zambia's economic policies were brewed in a socialist pot. Since 1991, and with the influence of western institutions particularly the World Bank and IMF and also due to the global changes that were taking place in the 1990s after the collapse of the Soviet Union, it became apparent that any country seeking assistance from outside particularly the World Bank and its affiliate institutions, the IMF and from other bilateral donors particularly members of the Paris Club or the group of 8 (G-8) consisting of the most developed countries in the world, must first ensure that socialist structures were dismantled and secondly it must be seen to be implementing market inspired economic policies.

For the next ten years, Zambia did just that, and it succeeded in dismantling almost all the structures that were mainly built on a socialist foundation. The results of the programme have been a mixed bag. In the last ten years, the country registered no growth at all, in spite of the fact that during the same period population grew at a rate of 2.9% per annum. There is also deterioration in the social indicators of the well being of the people. The percentage of Zambians living on less than US\$1 per day is as high as 85%. Life expectancy has also gone down to 43 years from 51 years in 1982. Infant mortality, maternal mortality and mortality of children under 5 years have also risen in the recent past. Access to sanitation and safe water has actually declined from 47% and 48% in 1990 to 23%



and 43%, respectively, between 1993 and 1997. Likewise expenditure on health as percentage of GDP also declined over the years. Total expenditure as a percentage of GDP on the health sector was only 3.3% between 1990 and 1997 while total expenditure per capita was only US\$ 16. Worse still, in terms of health care in 1981 the number of people per doctor was 7913 while the ratio increased to 11,104 people per doctor between 1990 and 1998. In the educational sector, public expenditure as a percentage of total expenditure has shown some steady decline though because of HIPC this is showing a steady increase.

### **High Prevalence of Kleptocracy and Misapplication of Resources**

One often-underplayed fact in Africa is the high prevalence of kleptocracy and the misapplication of economic resources. Kleptocracy is a phenomenon that arises due to failure by the government to provide social services more efficiently. As a consequence of this failure or inefficiency, government workers and politicians engage in corrupt practices.

Consequently, the government employees appropriate the difference with the market price known simply as the rent. High levels of Kleptocracy or corruption in most African countries have led to millions of dollars obtained either as loans or grants being diverted to personal use of individuals. This results in the diversion of the resource away from the developmental needs and the needs of those who require the delivery of social service.

How then could developing countries such as Zambia proceed with their development efforts? Various approaches of course have been tried out and in all instances there has been very little success registered. At one time, just after independence, it was thought that in the absence of adequate domestic savings required to help increase the pace of economic development, the only sure way of



doing that was to involve the State in taking the leading role. Consequently, the State nationalised most of the foreign-owned industries; the nationalisation took place in almost all the sectors of the economy. In the early 1980s right through the late 1990s, an attempt was made to move away from an economy that was largely dominated by the State to one in which the private sector was to be the leading force. This was done through a rigorous privatisation process that in the ten years of its implementation the State's participation had been reduced to less than ten percent. The social costs were immense.

### **The Way Forward**

With the apparent lack of capacity to pay back the debt, the way forward is of course to find a lasting solution to the debt problem. The solution is not in debt cancellation but in creating capacity to pay back the debt. It is in this light that it is suggested that the thousands of Africans in the Diaspora should be encouraged to come back and be able use their resources in their respective countries.

Secondly, there is unquestionable need for improving economic development of most countries by adopting poverty reduction programmes that help increase the participation of all able-bodied people in productive economic activities so that individuals can look after themselves. Public expenditure should also be directed at increasing access to education, health facilities as well as decent housing and sanitation.

Thirdly, corruption also has to be nipped in the bud. The extent and severity of this problem has been underplayed in the development efforts of most developing countries.

Forth, social issues such as the need for combating HIV/AIDS are non-negotiable. Serious efforts therefore should be made to reduce

this incidence. The same goes in combating other fatal endemic diseases such as malaria.

### **Conclusion**

It is clear from the foregoing that unless Africa begins to think more clearly in terms of its development efforts, very little development will be achieved. It is therefore imperative that programmes that are designed in the realm of poverty alleviation should be about involving the local people in the production process. As things stand, most people are marginalized from participation in the development process. They only get involved when they are recipients of donated food, health facilities, etc. This has to change for meaningful and sustainable economic development to become a reality.

#### **4.11 *Capacity Building and Management Development in an HIV/AIDS Afflicted Society: Challenges for Zambia***

(Henry J. Msango)

### **Introduction**

The HIV/AIDS pandemic has had a big impact on Zambia's development efforts. The epidemic poses the greatest risk to Ministries of Education by not allowing them to properly dispense their services because HIV/AIDS. Teacher loss and other AIDS related factors will almost certainly have negative effects on the quality of education. In terms of human capital and management development, HIV/AIDS impacts heavily on economic development by reducing productivity, increasing costs, diverting productive resources and affecting the market for business products. The various consequences of these include increased absenteeism, reduced performance levels of affected and infected workers, additional burdens on healthy and health workers, inexperience of

substitute workers, increased medical and insurance costs, extensive recruitment and training costs, increased size of the workforce to cover for possible sickness, absenteeism and death, payment of funeral, etc.

### **Human Capacities and Learning**

In confronting the many challenges that the future hold in store in light of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, humankind must see education as an indispensable asset in its attempt to build human capital and to attain the ideals of peace, freedom and social justice. Education must be treated as one of the principal means available to foster a deeper and more harmonious form of human development and thereby reduce poverty, exclusion, ignorance, oppression and war.

For education to build capacities in people to manage their own lives in the light of the HIV/AIDS afflicted society, it must be based on four pillars: *Learning to know*, *Learning to do*, *Learning to live together* and *Learning to be*.

However, all this "*Learning*" cannot achieve the intended goals because of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. There are various consequences of this pandemic: delayed or reversed development; increased sickness; absenteeism and death among the most productive workers; household and national budgets under pressure; subsistence and commercial agriculture both at risk; erosion of profits; increased number of orphans and vulnerable children; and sluggish national responses. All these are hindering the building of potential in humankind. They are preventing the emergence of a capable working force backed by a qualitative management system. If so, what is the way forward in terms of developing capacities and creating a core reservoir of human resources? How can we move



forward in order to respond to the HIV/AIDS challenges facing us in this new political dispensation?

### **Management Development**

There is an increasing need for re-looking at the Management Development concept in the new century and in the new political dispensation. There is a need for improving organisational effectiveness by re-looking at and re-thinking about the future structure of society in light of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Management development should increasingly analyse the future strategic features in terms of: command of basic facts; relevant professional knowledge; continuing sensitivity to events in a dynamic environment; analytical, problem-solving, decision-making and judgement-making skills; social skills and abilities; emotional resilience; proactivity, i.e., the inclination to respond purposefully to events; creativity; mental agility; balanced learning habits and skills; and self-knowledge.

Only if we evolve a proper Management Development scenario will we be able to respond effectively to the devastating impacts of the pandemic on our development endeavours.

#### **4.12 *Assessing the Impact of HIV/AIDS Pandemic on Sector Economies: Approaches, Problems and Possible Solutions***

(Robert T. Mushota)

### **Introduction**

Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) are novel disease regimes whose existence was only concretely identified in the seventies. In Zambia, the first AIDS case was diagnosed in 1985. Since then, the



disease has spread like a bush fire. An estimated 16,000 individuals were infected in 1998 alone while another 33 million were already living with HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS 1999, 1). Sub-Saharan Africa has the largest share (90%) of the AIDS cases and Zambia is one of countries with the highest number of cases in the region. According to the Ministry of Health (MOH) and Central Board of Health (CBH), by mid 1997, the country had officially registered 45,000 AIDS and AIDS-related Complex (ARC) cases (MOH/CBH 1999, 4). The country's prevalence rate stood at 19.7% for those aged between 15 and 49 years.

### **Economic Sectors, Systems Analysis and HIV/AIDS**

Systems analysis as a social science tool of analysis is predicated on certain basic tenets, namely that all systems comprise of interdependent and interacting parts that are defined by their boundaries, which differentiate them from other systems. They all operate in an environment broadly defined as immediate and distant surroundings from which they draw their inputs and within which they distribute goods and services as outputs. Another critical aspect about systems is that all have a feedback system, an information flow about what is taking place within the environment, which affects system performance or outputs and responses from the environment to the quality and quantity of outputs.

It is within this framework of systems analysis and its basic assumptions that economic sector *vis-à-vis* the outbreak of the AIDS pandemic could be perceived. The sectors are systems whose ultimate performance depends as much on their internal organisation as on environmental attributes. HIV/AIDS is an externally induced system of disease that enters the economic sector mainly through male to female or female to male infection. Its generalised impacts are such that they tend to affect all aspects of economic activities.

The paper attempts to try and present ways and means of assessing the impact of the pandemic on sector economies, with special reference to the agricultural sector. It dwells much on the agricultural sector because it is the core of household and national food security.

### Conceptual Framework

The concept of "impact" will be central to the paper and therefore requires explication. Impact as employed here is defined as follows: "A shock to an existing system of livelihood at the community or household (sector/industry or organisation) level. The shock has the effect of ...reducing the levels and expectations of life and welfare." (UNAIDS 2000, 38; brackets are the authors'). Such shock could lead to the dissolution of the household, community (or industry/organisation) and is accompanied by loss of life from poverty-related causes rather than as a direct result of HIV/AIDS illness or death.

- i) *Epidemiological Impact.* According to UNAID, this type of impact allows us to address issues pertaining to prevention and mitigation. It is at this juncture that we are able to identify key "risk groups" at the level of community, institution or sector and what they refer to as "core transmitter groups." It is only by undertaking such an exercise that we can come up with appropriate social marketing strategies of anti-HIV/AIDS campaigns such as abstinence, use of the condoms, etc.
- ii) *Demographic Impact.* AIDS could impact itself on local population in general but more so on sexually active members. Quite often, these are the most active social and economic groups, which constitute the core of any

economic sector's production. Demographic impact could further be manifested in the form of upturns in the number of orphaned children and widows and widowers within the communities. In Zambia, for example, the country is confronted with a sharp rise in the number of orphans, estimated at more than 600,000 by the end of 2000.

- iii) *Economic Impact:* Here, the strategy is first that of analysing impact at the macro level. This will enable the economic sectors to comprehend how the general impact of the pandemic could be affecting savings and investment rates, quality and quantity of labour, and relationship between the impacts of the pandemic on the micro- and macro-levels. However, according to UNAIDS (2000, 25), macro-economic impact assessments are not easy to undertake. This could possibly be attributed to the fact that a lot of parameters, especially micros, have to be taken into account (and are rarely done). With regard to assessing the magnitude of the impact, the report observes that this depends in part on the structure of the economy, with export-oriented and extractive-based industries being likely to be most affected.
- iv) *Social Impacts:* Here, attention is paid to analysis of the impact of the pandemic on the household and community from the vantage of food security and nutrition. Such studies could be extrapolated to the societal level. The reduction in household and community labour supply due to HIV/AIDS related mortality and morbidity affects food production and distribution. Household incomes tumble while their health status often deteriorate with the demise or impairment of the core food producers and traditional credit suppliers and the sudden collapse of supportive social



systems such as the extended family system. Appropriate diagnosis of the social impact of the pandemic on society is critical to adopting "right" interventionist strategies at the various social tiers starting with the household, the community and society at large and for factoring HIV/AIDS in the social sector.

### **Environmental Monitoring As a Necessary Basis for Economic Sector Impact Assessments**

From the foregoing discussion, there is urgent need for recognising environmental monitoring to design effective approaches and strategies for HIV/AIDS prevention and impact interventions. For this purpose, sector environments could be classified in terms of whether they constitute *high, moderate or low HIV/AIDS infection risk* environments to employees. The environment could be monitored along "*risk-causal basis*" by examining the *main sources* of environmental risk. These causes could be differentiated along economic, political, social or cultural lines.

Within the political domain, political instability often leads to major social and economic disruptions. Such political risks need to be monitored and taken into account when selecting anti-HIV/AIDS approaches and strategies as well intervention measures.

The social environments within which economic sectors are cast provide another set of constellations of possible sources of environment-generated risk to HIV infection. The social environment defines issues of gender, defined as "...relations between men and women as socially and culturally constructed in any society" (UNAIDS; 2001). Gender impact analysis is therefore a very dynamic and essential analytic approach toward HIV/AIDS impact assessment.



### **Factoring HIV/AIDS in Economic Sectors**

The starting point for factoring HIV/AIDS in economic sectors is by asking the empirical question: Does HIV/AIDS exist in the companies/firms and organisations comprising the sector? The answer to this question has been found to be in the affirmative. The country has experienced a sharp increase in the number of officially reported cases. By 1999, it is estimated that about 1,009,000 were infected by the pandemic (MOH/CBIH 1999, 4; 9) but only 9% of these had developed AIDS. The next empirical question would be: How has the pandemic manifested itself at the various levels of the firm, industry or organisation and to what extent?

The pandemic has manifested itself in economic sectors such as agriculture through labour turnover. In determining the impact of HIV/AIDS on labour, therefore, we are delineating the cause of the impact from other causes of turnover, such as non-HIV/AIDS-related quitting, transfers, internal mobility, etc. Our focus is on the employee, the victim of the pandemic. However, the performance of other factors of production will be strongly impaired by HIV/AIDS-related morbidity and mortality. Thus, this definition of turnover is applicable to all the economic sectors, their industries, firms or organisations and therefore offers a lot of potential for inter- and intra-sector comparisons and analyses of the impact of the pandemic.

This conception of HIV/AIDS-related turnover has a managerial perspective. The impact of the pandemic on sectors, firms or organisations requires that managerial interventionist approaches and strategies to redress the situation be adopted. Impact assessments should disaggregate employees by occupational categories, sex, age, etc. to explore which categories are most vulnerable and to find possible interventionist strategies.

Labour susceptibility is equally a very useful tool in trying to comprehend the impact on the sector, firm or organisation. Economic sectors cast in highly susceptible environments such as those with high HIV/AIDS prevalence, are bound to register high rates of morbidity and mortality. In the Zambian case, for example, Lusaka (27.3%), Copperbelt (26.3%), Western (18.9%) and Central (18.7%) are provinces with the highest prevalence rates. Accordingly, one could expect corresponding infection rates in the various economic sectors, leading firms and organisations therein.

### **Approaches to HIV/AIDS Prevention in Sector Firms/Organisations**

Approaches to HIV/AIDS prevention have tended to shift in emphasis and strategies since the 1980s. These approaches, however, are gauged within the overall "Public Health Model of Disease Prevention" (UNAIDS 1999, 5). Within this general model emerged the "Epidemiological models" whose stress was on identifying "routes of transmission" and "patterns of transmission." Out of the generated data from epidemiological studies, there surfaced the "Risk Reduction Model" in combating the spread of the disease. Without much experience in combating the disease, countries increasingly came to depend on technical knowledge and strategies of the World Health Organisation (WHO), especially its brainchild "Global Programme on AIDS" (GPA). GPA adopted a three-pronged strategy in its anti-HIV/AIDS campaigns:

- i) Information generation and dissemination coupled with education;
- ii) Introducing and broadening delivery services to reach as many sections of the society as possible while at the same time expanding counselling and testing services; and

- iii) Changing negative public attitudes towards HIV/AIDS victims in order to reduce the inherent constraints to knowledge fusion and acceptability associated with stigmatisation and discrimination of HIV/AIDS victims. Not only does such biases and practices create barriers to risk reduction but also constrain the delivery of services such as testing and counselling upon which the success of anti-AIDS campaign partly rests (UNAIDS 1999, 6).

#### 4.13 *AIDS: The Challenge to Zambia's Development*

(Vesper II, Chisumpã)

##### **Introduction**

The AIDS epidemic in Africa is a near holocaust as it claims more African lives each year than all the conflicts on the continent combined. For instance, in 1998, 10 times more people died from HIV/AIDS than from conflicts. HIV/AIDS killed over 2.3 million people in 2001 in Africa alone.

In Zambia, the first HIV/AIDS case was reported in 1984. Today, an unimaginable human tragedy is unfolding. Right now, in Zambia, there are only two kinds of people; those infected with HIV and those affected by it. The HIV/AIDS prevalence in Zambia is currently estimated at 20%, implying that one in every five Zambians is infected or in absolute terms, 2 million Zambians are living with the virus out of the 10 million populations.

The impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic in Zambia has been enormous and multi-sectoral. Its effect is being felt in all sectors of the economy in one way or another. If unchecked, it will wipe out the progress of decades of development.

The paper analyses the multi-sectoral impact of HIV/AIDS as a challenge to Zambia's development.

## Multi-sectoral Impacts of HIV/AIDS

### *A. Demographic Impact*

The immediate demographic impact of the pandemic is being felt through increased under-five and adult mortality. For instance, under-five mortality has increased from 191 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1992 to 197 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1996 (CSO *et al.* 1997). As for adult mortality, by 1999 the cumulative number of AIDS deaths stood at 650,000 from the beginning of the epidemic (MoH/CBoH 1999, 29). Consequently, life expectancy at birth has also dropped from 50 years for males and 53 years for females in 1980 to 37 years and 38 years, respectively, in 2001 (CSO *et al.* 1997; PRB 2001).

In the long term, the epidemic will have a significant impact on the 15-49 age group. The HIV/AIDS impact on population size and growth will also be in the long term. Though the population will continue to grow, however, it will not at the usual annual rate of 3% but at less than 2% per year (CBoH/MoH 1999, 39).

### *B. Social Impact*

HIV/AIDS has impacted so much on the reproductive and productive members of the family in an age group that play a role in the extended family network, as salary or wage earners, supporting several relatives and the immediate members of their families. The loss of their earnings through illness or death therefore has a direct impact on the lives of many members of the extended family.



The primary economic impact of the death of an adult is the permanent loss of output or income, which that person contributed to the household. If that person was the primary or sole-income earner as is the case with most Zambian households, the very survival of other family members may be in jeopardy. If that person was the primary caregiver, e.g. a mother, the welfare of the other members, particularly that of young children, would be severely affected. The death of a mother lessens a child's chance of survival. The psychic costs of losing a parent or spouse are of course enormous and have economic implications if the loss permanently diminishes the ability of other family members to cope.

### *C. Health Impact*

The HIV/AIDS epidemic has increased the disease burden, greatly increasing demand for public health care services, crowding out other conditions and doubling bed occupancy rates. In Zambia, tuberculosis (TB) cases have increased substantially since the advent of the AIDS epidemic.

In 1989, Zambia spent US\$ 3.5 million on medical drugs for HIV/AIDS related illnesses and the figure was expected to increase to US\$ 18.3 million by the 2002 (*The Post 2000*). The increasing expenditures on AIDS threaten to divert financial resources from other important health care needs.

### *D. Education Impact*

HIV/AIDS has contributed significantly to morbidity and mortality among teachers. Ministry of Education data show that 680 teachers died in 1996, 624 in 1997, and 1,300 in the first ten months of 1998, the equivalent of two-thirds of all teachers trained annually (Kelly 1999).

The effects of sickness and deaths cannot be underestimated in the education sector. Studies conducted on the impact of HIV/AIDS on the education sector in Zambia show that there has been an increase in the incidence of absenteeism among teachers (Kamwanga *et al.* 2000). This has resulted in loss of teaching time due to prolonged illness of teachers or to their erratic attendance. The effect of AIDS on teachers has also made the community not to place much demand and value on education. Illness and deaths of teachers from AIDS has deleterious effect on the quality of education and the efficiency of the system. The ever-increasing mortality of parents from HIV/AIDS related illnesses means there will be fewer children able to afford or complete education. The impact of HIV/AIDS will mean that fewer children require education. It seems probable that due to scarce family resources, there will be an increasing reluctance to invest in education. Households will be forced to make choices whether to send children to school or not when it is perceived that there are not enough teachers and the children themselves may not live long to realize the benefits of education. Awareness programmes are limited to pupils only. There are no activities specifically targeting teachers. The ministry ought to find ways and means of raising awareness among teachers as the same they do with pupils (Kamwanga *et al.* 2000).

#### *F. Economic Impact*

HIV/AIDS is putting a break on economic growth in Zambia through diversion of investment, deficit-creating pressures on public resources, and loss of adult labour and productivity. A UNDP (2002) report reveals that HIV/AIDS has reduced the annual rate of Africa's per capita GDP growth by 0.8 %, and economic growth will reduce by 1.2%.

HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality give rise to additional costs such as medical treatment, provision of pension or early retirement, ill-health benefits and death benefits. Further costs of absenteeism, due to illness or funeral attendance, lost skills, training and recruitment costs, and reduced work performance and losses in production, have an increasing impact on business.

HIV/AIDS will affect the market base of most businesses as it claims a large part of the urban population with disposable income and by impoverishing families and communities. Businesses in the service sector are more susceptible to effects of HIV/AIDS as there will be inadequate responses due to either illness or loss of skilled personnel. This will have a spill over effect on beneficiaries of services provided by these businesses.

#### *G. Labour Force Impact*

The HIV/AIDS impact on the labour force is direct and has been felt by most organisations. Today, a number of organisations are experiencing increased mortality of employees, medical expenses have risen drastically, and absenteeism has risen drastically.

#### *H. Agriculture Impact*

The HIV/AIDS epidemic has had a considerable impact on Zambian agriculture through incalculable adverse effects on agricultural production, food security, and human resource. Its impacts are felt more by families in rural areas.

### **Conclusion**

The paper concludes that the HIV/AIDS epidemic is a challenge to Zambia's development as it impacts adversely on an age group that

is the initiator of development and this has in turn led to a negative multi-sectoral impact. The epidemic has affected the Zambian population demographically, economically, and socially. Thus, the formulation of an HIV/AIDS strategy is essential for long-term survival of Zambia's development.

#### 4.14 *Gender Dimension of HIV/AIDS*

(Sophie Kasonde- Ngandu)

##### **Introduction**

This paper's departure point is that the HIV/AIDS pandemic should be tackled from a gender perspective since the impact of the pandemic on men and women is quite different (Macwan'gi *et al.* 1994). This is so because women and men play different roles, have different needs and face different constraints in responding to the epidemic.

The same authors further observe that throughout Africa, a woman's status is influenced considerably by her child bearing capacity. Women's relatively lower economic status, lower education and the resultant dependency on their male partners give them little leverage on the decision making process affecting their well being. They cannot, for example, insist on condom use or persuade their partners to abstain from high-risk behaviours.

##### **Evolution of HIV/AIDS as a Gender Issue**

HIV/AIDS as a major women's issue has only been officially acknowledged by concerned international agencies since a meeting in Paris in November 1989, given adequate public recognition with World Aids Day on 1<sup>st</sup> December, 1990 and began to receive adequate professional attention at the eighth International



Conference on AIDS in Amsterdam in July 1992. Only since the late 1980s have HIV/AIDS research, public education and prevention and care projects focusing on women begun to multiply.

### **Sex Differences and HIV/AIDS**

The manifestations of gender differences in impacts of HIV/AIDS have been reported in sexually transmitted diseases such as gonorrhoea (Denenberg 1990). Similarly, there is evidence that certain HIV-related illnesses can appear earlier or later, or with different frequency and severity in HIV-positive women (Berer and Ray 1993). Moreover, there are also such differences as increased physiological vulnerability of women.

### **Gender Roles and HIV/AIDS**

In this section, the impact of HIV and AIDS is tied to the socially constructed roles that are associated with the males and females. The discussion necessarily brings out issues pertaining to socio-cultural factors:

- *The role of caring*  
Traditionally, the role of caring for the sick including those inflicted by ailments which are AIDS-related, is associated with women and girls.
- *Marriage*  
In this union, there is more pressure on the married woman than her husband to be faithful and sexually available to her spouse regardless of how she feels or prevailing circumstances.

- *Poverty:*  
Widespread poverty, high rates of unemployment and generally low returns from informal sector income-generating activities have been associated with high risk sexual behaviour and the spread of HIV.
- *Other cultural practices:*  
One of the cultural practices which contributed to HIV transmission is what is popularly known as "dry sex". This involves girls and women applying medicines in the vagina to make it relatively dry. A recently reported awful development among some men is the superstitious belief that sex with a child cures HIV/AIDS, boosts business potential, increases chances of promotion or enhances other powers such as witchcraft, usually on the advice of traditional healers (WLSA 2001).

## Conclusion

This paper has highlighted the importance of looking at the HIV/AIDS epidemic from a gender perspective. It is a fact that the pangs of HIV/AIDS have left no household unturned (directly at a personal level, at a nuclear family level and/or indirectly at extended family/friends' level). Many thousands of women, men and children have died and many more are becoming ill and dying from AIDS-related causes. We need to understand the differential effects of the epidemic if we are to design interventions tailored to specific special needs.

#### **4.15 *Community Partnerships in the Education and Care for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zambia***

(Annie L. Sikwibele)

##### **Introduction**

This study was inspired by the ever-increasing need for communities to be fully involved in the education, care and upbringing of the orphans and vulnerable children in our communities. It is part of a wider concern for the social and economic welfare of children and how the society can ensure that the human rights of all the children are duly protected.

The overall aim of the study was to generate knowledge that could be employed by local and international governmental and non-governmental agents and institutions to form policies and strategies for the education of orphans and vulnerable children and overall community development.

##### **General Trends**

In all the communities visited, the situation regarding orphans and vulnerable children was beyond the capacity of communities to handle. Concerning education, communities face several challenges among which are, the lack of appropriate infrastructure, lack of trained and experienced teachers, lack of or inadequate teaching and learning resources, inadequate community capacity and skills to effectively manage and supervise education provision in their community schools. Communities also lack information that could facilitate effective education delivery.

To deal with the various needs for orphans and vulnerable children, different strategies have been adopted. Educational needs have been

attended to by establishing community schools, employing teachers, and mobilising needed resources. Psychological issues have been dealt with through various traditional and conventional approaches. Whereas the traditional approach makes the child everybody's child, the modern ways of setting up specific committees for providing needed support systems were also used. Most of the coping mechanisms lay in the families and communities. For example, the extended family system and networks through churches and other community groups that organise community based interventions for the orphans and vulnerable children. Spiritual counselling through the churches has also been a major coping strategy.

Communities were aware that whatever strategies they adopted needed to be sustainable. The study has found out that community initiatives are extremely important in responding to the education and other needs of orphans and vulnerable children in Zambia and that the communities have made excellent beginnings toward the long-term goal of finding solutions to the education of orphans and vulnerable children. They have undertaken several efforts directed at mobilizing and building the capacity of the people in communities to protect, educate and care for orphans and other vulnerable children. Regarding this issue, although communities were doing some things very well, they need to make a lot of improvements in some areas. This paper partly presents recommendations on how to strengthen the communities to be able to educate and provide other basic needs of the orphans and vulnerable children within given communities.

### **Conclusion**

The Ministries of Education, Community Development and Social Services, Youth and Sport, and cooperating partners should make a strategic, long-term commitment to mobilizing action and building



capacities at community levels as a fundamental strategy to protecting children's rights to education and other basic human rights and promoting their well-being.

There is need to strengthen community schools as it is the only major initiative giving orphans and vulnerable children a chance to have access to education and acting as a focal activity for community mobilization.

Communities should explore such approaches as distance learning, mobile schools, home-based learning, interactive radio instruction, and other innovative learning models that can provide or enhance quality education.

Activities such as home visiting, counselling, sports, cultural activities, and religious and traditional ceremonies, should be strengthened for the well being of the children. Communities should link up to potential sources of support such as ZECAB.

#### *4.16 Inclusive Education in Zambia: What Do the Teachers Say?*

(D.M. Kalabula)

##### **Introduction**

It is estimated that 10% of any population in the world has a physical, mental or sensory special needs and would benefit from some form of intervention. Further, it is observed that no more than 1% of the disabled people in developing countries benefit from any active intervention in education, health or other social services (UNESCO 1994). This is evidenced by the fact that only 1 – 2 million of the 100 – 200 million people with special needs in developing countries who need social services like education and health are actually receiving such services (Haggis 1995).

Hegarty (1998) adds that individuals with special needs are often excluded from the mainstream society and denied equal access to education, employment, family life and leisure activities because of their disabilities. People with special needs therefore are among the poorest and most discriminated against persons of the society. Of those denied equal access to education owing to their various handicapping conditions, are children with special needs.

In developing countries such as Zambia, children with special needs receive education through separate schools or classrooms often away from their families and immediate communities. Modern societies, however, feel such children can best be educated through the mainstream arrangement whenever possible and practicable (UNESCO 1994; 1999). This approach has the advantage of equalizing educational opportunities for all children in the community.

Equity nevertheless, does not merely mean equal access to placement in a school system. It in fact implies that appropriate resources and support services ought to be provided in an ordinary classroom for all pupils for them to equally access effectively the classroom curriculum (Thomas, David and Walker 1998). This implies that children with special needs require additional help such as presence of qualified personnel and resources to support inclusion in ordinary classrooms.

With this background, the paper sets out to investigate the following research questions:

- Are teachers in favour of including pupils with special needs in ordinary primary school classrooms?

- Are the differences in the way special and ordinary education teachers perceive the inclusion of children with special needs in ordinary primary classrooms?
- What factors influence teachers' views on the presence of pupils with special needs in ordinary classrooms?
- What innovations do teachers expect in classrooms practicing inclusion?

### **Methodology**

Quantitative and qualitative techniques were used in the collection of data for the study. The sources of data were teachers who were the major respondents. Others were head teachers, deputy head teachers and senior teachers; 124 respondents participated in the study from nine primary schools.

### **Findings**

The findings of the study show that 31 of the 60 (52%) ordinary teachers and 18 of the 32 (56%) special education teachers who took part in the study do not support the provision of educational programmes and services to all pupils within an ordinary primary classroom setting. Instead, they favour a separate education for those whose individual needs cannot be effectively met in ordinary classrooms. On the other hand, the majority of school administrators, 25 of the 32 (78%) supported the inclusion of all pupils in an ordinary primary classroom.

### **Conclusion**

The study has tried to establish the views of respondents on the inclusion of pupils with special needs in ordinary classrooms. The

respondents (ordinary as well as special education teachers) have expressed their disapproval of inclusive schooling in ordinary primary classrooms unless the teacher's skills are improved, supportive services, educational resources are provided, curriculum is reformed to meet the needs of all pupils and parents actively participate in the education of all pupils through the mainstream arrangement.

Generally, it can be concluded that teachers see more potential of pupils with specific learning difficulties benefiting from inclusive practices in ordinary classrooms than those with physical impairments such as deafness, blindness and mental inadequacies once included in ordinary classrooms.

### **Recommendations**

It would be important to re-orient the pre- and in-service teacher training programmes to make them more responsive to the diversified needs of all pupils included in the mainstream of education.

Emphasis must be placed on improving and expanding educational facilities such as infrastructure, furniture, educational materials and equipment in the light of ordinary classrooms taking on more pupils with special needs.

Inclusive schooling is no doubt more costly than ordinary or regular educational because of the diverse needs of pupils, and dependence on imported materials and equipment. Parents and local communities should therefore be part of the decision making body on skills to be taught and resources required to meet the needs of all pupils within an ordinary classroom in primary schools.



#### 4.17 *Women Prisoners in Zambia: A Study of Factors that Influence Some Zambian Women into Committing Imprisonable Offences*

(Musheke Kakuwa)

##### **Introduction**

This paper is a report based on a study carried out in 2000 for a Non-Governmental Organisation called Zambia Ex-Prisoners Rehabilitation and Counselling Trust ZEPRACT, to which the researcher was the Chief Coordinator. The problem of the study is the increase in the number of Zambian women prisoners. Another problem is where the women prisoners need special treatment from the men prisoners. For example some women are imprisoned while pregnant or breast-feeding and menstruation is a unique hygienically problem for women prisoners.

The objectives of the study were:-

- To identify factors that influence some Zambian women into committing imprisonable offences.
- To examine the common offences committed by the women.
- To investigate the problems faced by the women while in prison.
- To suggest strategies for eliminating the problems faced by the women prisoners.

### Methodology

Three women prisons were chosen from Mukobeko with 19 prisoners, Kamfinsa with 12 prisoners and Lusaka Central with 50 prisoners.

Three research assistants were employed to collect data. Two sets of questionnaires were used. The first set was for prisoners and the second set was for the Offices-in-Charge of the prison to give information related to the care of the prisoners.

### Conclusion

The study has revealed that the population of women prisoners is increasing and that women are able to commit any crime. In order to reduce the increase of the number of women prisoners in the country, the cause for their committing crimes should be known and be prevented.

Noting that most of the crimes committed by women were as a result of the high illiteracy level in the country, the high rate of divorce in the society and the high rates of unemployment, it was suggested and recommended that:

- The government policy that promotes the education of the girl-child should be expedited;
- The government, NGOs and civic organisations should work together to try to educate the new generation on marriage values; and
- The government should put in place a programme that gives social and life skills and soft loan or grants to women, enabling them to undertake fund generating ventures.

## ANNEX I: WORKSHOP PROGRAMME

8.30 – 9.00

### OFFICIAL OPENING

**Guest of Honour:** Dr. John D. Chileshe,  
Acting Deputy Vice-  
Chancellor, University of  
Zambia

**Chairperson:** Mr Gear M. Kajoba,  
OSSREA Liaison Officer

9.00 – 10.45

### FIRST SESSION

**Chairperson:** Prof. Jotham C. Momba

1. Zambia's Electoral System in Perspective  
*Dr. Laurent C. W. Kaela*
2. Citizenship, Democracy and Politics of  
Exclusion in Zambia: Challenges Facing  
Mwanawasa's "New Deal" Government  
*Dr. Neo R. Simutanyi*
3. Rolling Stones: A Crisis for Democracy  
in Zambia  
*Mr. F. E. Mulenga*

10.45 – 11.15

Coffee Break

11.15 – 13.00

### SECOND SESSION

**Chairperson:** Dr. D. M. Kalabula

1. Institutionalising Good Governance in Zambia's Public Administration- A Challenge for the New Deal Government  
*Dr. Njunga-Michael Mulikita*
2. Enhancing Local Government: Lessons from Bilateral Cooperation  
*Mr. Peter K. Lolojih*
3. Administrative Reforms and the Search for Efficient Delivery of Public Service: The Challenges Facing Health and Educational Boards  
*Mrs. Moderate M. Mumba*

13.00 – 14.00

**Lunch Break**

14.00 – 15.45

**THIRD SESSION****Chairperson:** Mr. J. P. Sakala

1. Zambia's Economic Development under the "New Deal" Administration  
*Mr. Tiyaonse C. Kahwe*
2. Financial Fraud and Corruption: Inhibitors to Economic Prosperity - A Comparative Study of Zambia and Ireland  
*Prof. Nesson J. Ronan*
3. The Importance of Information Management  
*Mr. Ezekiel Duku*

15.45 – 16.15

**Coffee Break**



16.15 – 17.30

**FOURTH SESSION****Chairperson:** Mrs. Wilma H. Nchito

1. Economic Development Concerning Poverty and Social Services Delivery  
*Mr. Davidson Chilipamushi*
2. Capacity Building and Management Development in an HIV/AIDS Afflicted Society: Challenges for Zambia  
*Mr. Henry J. Msango*

8.30 – 10.15

**FIFTH SESSION****Chairperson:** Dr. Wise Mainga

1. Assessing the Impact of HIV/AIDS Pandemic on Sector Economies: Approaches, Problems and Possible Solutions  
*Dr. Robert T. Mushota*
2. AIDS: The Challenge to Zambia's Development  
*Mr. Vesper H. Chisumpa*
3. Gender Dimension of HIV/AIDS  
*Mrs. Sophie Kasondo Ngandu*

10.15 – 10.30

**Tea Break**

10.30 – 11.00

**SIXTH SESSION****Chairperson:** Mr. Henry J. Msango

1. Community Partnerships in the Care for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zambia  
*Dr. Annie Sikwibele*
2. Inclusive Education in Zambia: What Do the Teachers Say?  
*Dr. Darlington M. Kalabula and J. M. Mandyata*
3. Women Prisoners in Zambia. A Study of Factors that Influence Some Zambian Women into Committing Imprisonable Offences (1988-1999)  
*Mr. Musheke Kakuwa*

13.00 – 14.00

**Lunch Break**

14.00 – 16.00

**BUSINESS MEETING****Chairperson:** Mr. Gear M. Kajoba,  
Liaison Officer, OSSREA

17.00 – 20.00

**Reception**

## ANNEX II: LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

Mr. Gear M. Kajoba  
OSSREA Liaison Officer  
Department of Geography  
University of Zambia

Dr. John D. Chileshe  
Acting Vice-Chancellor  
University of Zambia

Prof. Ackson M. Kanduza  
OSSREA Executive Committee Member  
University of Swaziland

Prof. Jotham C. Momba  
Department of Political  
and Administrative Studies  
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Mrs. W. Nchito  
Department of Geography  
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